

Taxonomy and Role of Illocutionary Acts of Request in Shariah-Based Reconciliation Case Proceedings of Northern Nigeria

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Abstract

In the attempt to overhaul the justice process and ameliorate individuals or parties' problems, Shariah-based Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR/Reconciliation) is developed. Hence, this paper explored the illocutionary acts of request employ in the sociopragmatics aspect of the Hausa Muslims of Northern Nigeria, West African Shariah-based reconciliation Courts judicial discourse. With the aid of audiovisual recorder, 12 various case proceedings of family disputes on marital issues were recorded. The data were coded and analysed using Nvivo, focusing on Searle's Directive taxonomy speech acts of request. The results revealed that the Request utterances are dominantly utilised during the Shariah-based Reconciliation Case Proceedings (RCP). A total of 39 participants used 140 Interactive Turn-Takings (ITT) and court officials, especially the arbitrators were found as the common users of the Request utterances either to seek audience, agreement, explanation or permission to speak. Court officials also utilised Request utterances to ask question, require confirmation and or to maintain order when any speaker is getting out of track during the RCP. Finally, the study demonstrates that it is a cultural practice of speakers in RCP to use the phrase "for Allah sake" to show the level of their politeness and to minimise the thought of imposition by the addressee/s, together with the rhetorical use of the word "Allah" and metaphorical expressions. By implication, the common use of request utterances in RCP, suggest Arbitrators' level of interest in ensuring peaceful solutions to issues brought before the Shariah-based reconciliation Courts.

Key Words: Sociopragmatics, Request, Speech Acts, Shariah Courts, Reconciliation, Northern Nigeria

1. Introduction

In Islamic Law, reconciliation is institutionalised as a form of dispute resolution process, other than litigation or adversarial method (Barkindo, 2009). Other modes of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) use in Islamic law include arbitration (*Tahkim*), Mediation (*Wasatah/Wasatiyyah*) or Intercession (*Shafa'ah*). Islam can be referred to as 'submission' and 'peace', which implies that every Muslim is obliged to submit to the Will of Allah (SWT) in all his/her socio-economic, political, religious and all other social interactions or activities. In other words, all human activities should be conducted in accordance with Islamic Law teaching (ADR inclusive). In essence, Shariah which is Islamic Law is made to guide human being towards conformity and coordination of their activities in accordance with the Will of Allah. According to Islamic injunction (Shariah), a Muslim ought to conduct all his/her

activities, be it spiritual, social, economic or political based on the precise body of laws as stated in the Quran and Sunnah (Wali, 2009).

Meanwhile, Shariah-based ADR known as '*reconciliation*' is expected to develop in-order to meet the challenges of the crucial situations, time and place. However, unfortunately the situation is completely opposite, substantially, due to colonialism which halted the development of almost all aspects of Islamic Law beside that of spirituality, through replacing it with secular legal systems, which as a result discouraged the scholars from paying due attention to this aspects of Islamic Law (*reconciliation*). Despite the importance which Islamic Law attached to the rapid resolution of disputes or conflicts among its community and the availability of legal materials on it derived from the Qur'an, hadith the *ijmaa'a* (i.e., consensus) of the Muslim jurists, yet it has become regrettable as the area remained scarce of studies on the language of modus operands used in *English/Hausa*. This is probably due to lack of efforts in conducting research in this important area of Islamic Law, which, the Muslim Community has been craving for (Keffi, 2009). This suggests that the sociopragmatic aspect of reconciliation speech acts of request is a novel idea.

Wali (2009) claims that more than 80% of the litigation in almost all Shariah States in Nigeria go to *Shariah Courts/Area Courts*, and the bulk majority of the cases litigated therein are social (i.e. marriage, inheritance, small business/trade disputes and other related issues) in nature, among or between blood relations, friends and business associates. Most of those litigations are doing more harm than good to the relationship of the litigants as well causing more economic hardship, backwardness and in terms of resources and time. It also creates enmity among the families and it contributes to the cases of divorce and other attendant consequences. However, in order to avert all these mentioned unsolicited consequences and gain the intended solace, the trend is now shifted to Shariah-base session rooms. In view of the above, it is now high time for the Shariah States, particularly in northern Nigeria, to give serious attention to this aspect of Islamic Law (*Reconciliation*), by developing and encouraging its concept and application. Supporting this assertion, Carr, Schrok and Dauterman (2012) strongly suggests the conduct of researches in order to capture the nature and practice of speech acts use in various medium, and establish the insights attached with. This study focuses on providing insights on the role of illocutionary acts of *Request utterances* use in resolving *family disputes on marital issues in shariah-based RCP* within Northern Nigeria of West Africa.

The impact of how language support and moulds our society in regulating the social behaviour of any society brands forensic linguistics as essential and outstanding discipline to study (Khoiyi & Behnam, 2014). Meanwhile, less attention is paid as regards to the Sociopragmatics aspects of Shariah-based reconciliation judicial court discourse. Obviously, it was felt as motivation to explore the illocutionary acts of request used in RCP practices within the Shariah-based of northern Nigeria. Meanwhile, the paper focuses on the Arbitrators, parties to disputes and their witnesses, representatives or guardians under the umbrella of civil disputes (Family Issues) Shariah-based RCP.

2. Relevant Literature

2.1 Speech Acts theory and Origin

It is obvious that apart from the physical activities we do such as driving, writing and cooking, we invariably convey our intentions and feelings such as desires, love, reasons, and problems through verbal acts. The conveyance of the intentions is made in unlimited events

including face-to-face conversation, phone calls, social media conversations (e.g., Facebook chatting, twitter chatting and skype talk). Other aspects include giving jobs application and a host of other speech events. In fact, People indulge in verbal action of various kinds to meet up with their needs and wants.

According to Finnegan (2012), speech acts refer to the everyday activity of informing, instructing, ordering, threatening, complaining, requesting, campaigning among others through verbal or written form of language. Theoretically, the actions that are accomplished through language are called speech acts. Speech acts and their study, called speech-act theory, is a prominent part of pragmatics. Although, the speech act theory was introduced by a British Philosopher J.L. Austin in the 1960s. It has been studied in many fields, to include philosophy (Austin, 1962 & 2005; Searle, 1969). Other prominent scholars who examined the speech acts in linguistics, sociolinguistics and anthropology includes Bach and Harnish (1979). However, the approaches of these researchers differ in terms of the speech acts investigation, even though the underpinning theory was more or less the same. Hence, this paper focused on the Austin (1962) illocutionary acts being the pioneer and comprehensive theory.

2.2 *Austin Theory on Performative Utterances*

John Austin established the speech acts theory in an effort to elucidate how certain utterances operate within a natural language. In fact, what really attracted Austin (1962), was to identify and provide information and facts regarding how words seemed to carry action. He attempted to distinguish between the phrases for example (i) "I see a boy" and (ii) "I promise that I will come tomorrow". In (i), the speaker provides information about what is in his sight only, no more or less. However, in the second instance (ii) the speaker offers a promise apart from the information he provided about his tomorrow's plans. The phrase "I promise..." functions differently because of the force contained within the words. These "force words" were classified as Performatives by Austin (1962) and are contrasted with the ordinary statements and assertions such as in (i) above. In fact, when one uses these performatives, he is simply performing the utterance. Additional examples of these performatives that a speaker can use include, "I declare, warn, apologise, beg, request, invite..." among others.

The next step Austin took then after identifying the special functions of performatives was differentiating them from assertion and other kind of utterances. Stapleton (2004) reported that Austin theorised that there were rules for using the performatives in a way that the force of utterance would be valid. It is basic to use the first person in the utterance to become speech act performatives. The instance where one says (iii) "she promises to be here" is rather descriptive than performative; therefore, it cannot be considered as one of the functions attributed to speech act performatives, simply because the power to accomplish or fulfil the promise is never in the speaker's hand to control. Austin (1962 & 2005) postulated another rule where performatives is applied as performatives of authority. This can be illustrated in the instance where somebody shouts from the crowd, (iv) "You're out!" during a baseball game, Austin (1962) proven that the force of that performative is not fulfil due to lack of authority in the speaker. This is because in that context, the assigned referee holds the absolute mandate to utter those words to fulfil the speech acts. However, the same kind of "shouts" made by the umpire cannot be considered performative acts of authority if made addressing a bar attendant. This is because the referee has no constituted authority over the attendant.

Austin (1962, p. 14-15) provided certain number of extra linguistic requirements that must be fulfilled for a speaker to perform the intended action. These conditions are of a social and psychological nature:

“(A.1) There must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain conventional effect, that procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances, and further,

(A.2) The particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked.

(B.1) The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and

(B.2) completely.

(C.1) Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in it and so invoking the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must intend to so conduct themselves, and further

(C.2) Must actually so conduct themselves subsequently”.

Elena Collavin (2011) explained that performatives could either be successful or unsuccessful, felicitous or infelicitous, instead of being true or false. Collavin (2011) further stated that to this end Austin discerned two major ways where performative utterance can fail. When conditions of A and B are violated then MISFIRES are produced; because the performance of the act is purposeful but due to the lack of the required social convention, persons, and circumstances it becomes void. When conditions are violated under C Abuses are produced. The act could be professional but hollow due to lack of the appropriate psychological state or consequent behaviour. According to Austin (1962) for performatives to be successfully executed, it may require uptake from the interlocutor. He pointed out that a person individually can issue an order or give permission all by his own, but he can never be able to constitute a bet solely without the cooperation of the interlocutor. On the part of the psychological state of an individual, Austin clearly stated that *“a promise uttered without intention to fulfil or honour is problematic in nature, in fact the promise been issued remains valid for all social purposes, “our word is our bound”* (Austin, 1962, p. 10).

Subsequently, other certain conditions were formulated for the above fundamental rules of performatives by Austin after scrutinizing how they fail when “infelicitous”. These conditions are called “felicity conditions” for performatives. Afterward, Austin compared utterances using the felicity conditions and tested truth statements to measure validity of the utterance. For example, if a speaker says, (v) “I swear that the president lives in Kansas”, he is using a performative that represents truth for his belief system in “I swear..” but the true value of the utterance may be seen as either true or false. When dissecting the utterance (v) further, the performative phrase remains true because the speaker may truly believe that the president lives in Kansas, but the subordinate sentence, when taken alone, is false. From this notion of felicity and truth statements, Austin realised that speech acts must further be explained by dividing them in separate categories because one could not always distinguish between a true performative and other utterance (Stapleton, 2004).

Every speech act has several principal components, which include the utterance itself and the intention of the speaker in making it. Therefore, Austin, realising that actions within words were not always transparent, reconstructed his classification of performatives into three kinds of acts. These are locution, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts (Austin, 1962 & 2005; Levinson, 1983). Austin (1962) further argued that, if the business of a speech act is for the speakers to do something with the words he or she utters, then a theory of speech acts must explain in which respect saying something may amount to doing something. His argument is

that ‘doing something’ is relative and could be a very vague expression. However, when something is said invariably three types of acts were performed simultaneously. First, every utterance is represented by a sentence with a grammatical structure and a linguistic meaning; this is called locution (Finegan, 2012). While according to Collavin (2011), a locutionary act is the uttering of a sentence with sense and reference. In his view, locutionary act can be categorised based on phonetic act, a phatic act as well as a Rhaetic act. This proves that a speech act is often the utterance of a phone, a phoneme and rhyme. Phone, phoneme and rhyme in (linguistics) refer to one of a small set of speech sounds that are distinguished by the speakers of a particular language (Abubakar, 1983). In simpler terms, locutionary act refers to the basic act of making an utterance containing a literal meaning. Stapleton (2004) claimed that for any utterance to be accepted or considered as being a locutionary act it has to possess comprehensive meaning. To buttress this assertion, he cited an example with a situation where someone uttered “wellnib yhleer”, as gibberish in the perception of the hearers since the meaning of what is said is not only vague but unpredictable. Alongside this view, Austin is of the opinion that people never utter anything without a reason.

The second type of speech act is the illocutionary act. It refers to an utterance meaning-where a sentence is said, written, or signed in a particular context by someone with a particular intention. In other words, when speakers have some intention in uttering the locution, and what they intend to accomplish is called the illocution (Finegan, 2012). In the technical point of view, Austin (1962 & 2005) described Illocutionary act as the action performed by virtue of the force allied with a particular linguistics expression. This simply refers to the performance or an act in saying something, in contrast to the performance of an act of saying something. This level of action is subject to the social conventions that allow the speakers verbally to carry out clearly recognisable actions, such as making a bet, or a promise, or an offer among others. This occurs and is made possible through the direct or indirect application of the force within the performatives which required certain conditions known as felicity conditions as well as the truth-value testing. For instance, by saying (vii) “I will give you a car” a locutionary act is performed by the speaker stating the utterance, along with the illocutionary act of giving a car. With the aid of a given utterance, Finegan (2012) further illustrated the relationship of locutionary and illocutionary acts, thus; consider the utterance, “can you shut the window?” He attested that, the locution is a yes/no question about the addressee’s ability to close a particular window; as such, convention would enable the addressee to recognise the structural question as a request for action and to comply or not. Both Collavin (2011) and Finegan (2012) shared the same opinion with Austin (1962 & 2005) assertion that when discussing speech acts, it is common for the illocutionary act itself to be called the speech act. Pragmatically, when one describes an utterance as an order, a request, a suggestion, a statement, a promise, a threat, and others, one is referring to its illocutionary force ‘speech acts’.

The third type of speech act is called perlocutionary act. This type of act is viewed as the effect of the utterance received by the hearer in the given context. Stapleton (2004) cited an example of a situation where John screams to Paul (viii) “Shut the door!” and claimed that the perlocutionary act would be only effective if and when Paul really shut the door. Similarly, Collavin (2011) asserted that perlocutionary act is the production of a consequence by the utterance. In contrast to what happens at the illocutionary level, the achievement of the perlocutionary act is not directly through the conventional force of an utterance. The effects could be intentional or unintentional, at times even unexpected effects contrary to the ones of an illocutionary act are achieved. Collavin (2011) reports ascertained that perlocutionary can further occur at a higher level, such as the interlocutor’s actual reaction to the speech act. In the instance of the perlocutionary effect of the utterance “the tea you are drinking is drugged”

might be that one's interlocutor would either get puzzled and pour the tea on the ground, or annoyed and splash it on the other party close by. In this paper, the focus is on the role of illocutionary act of request made during RCP.

2.3 *Speech Acts of Reconciliation*

Comprehensive review of related literature on reconciliation revealed that the major problem confronting the issue of conflict resolution, restitution and peace-making is lack of empirical studies on reconciliation procedures. Most available studies on reconciliation are conceptual in nature dealing with issues ranging from social healings through justice approach; transitional justices for native people in a non-transitional society to the politics of truth and reconciliation for the natives of USA Hawaiian, South Africans and the Japan-Ainu reconciliation initiatives. The prominent among them include Obrey (2009), Ramsbotham, Miall and Woodhouse (2011). Others studies focused on the conceptual writing on native narration of sincere information and communal methods to reconciliation toward legitimisation of the post-apartheid state and the political affairs of reconciliation in culturally diverse people (e.g., Wilson, 2001; Bashir, 2008; Corntassel, 2009; Kymlicka and others) while the scope of some studies in on the working definitions of reconciliation and political dialogues (e.g., Philpott, 2007; Hamber & Kelly, 2008).

Notwithstanding, few empirical studies being reviewed were centred on issues related to attribution of blames, analysis of the power of a healing safety model or pattern in global political affairs, the struggle over apartheid and the national reconciliation processes in places as South Africa and Latin America (e.g., Pupavac, 2004; Staub, 2006; Gibson, 2006) among others. Singh, Kaur and Thuraisingam (2011) on the other dimension, explored the Language of resolution of dispute in spiritual speech by conducting an analysis of inconsistencies in the religious lectures using *Critical Discourse Analysis CDA*. In the study, 43 flaws were discovered via the action conceptual framework. Ivey (2012) equally, conducted a study on appeasement concerning religion and sexual personality between Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgendered (LGBT) members. The participants were all Christians and the data were collected using qualitative approach. Similarly, Van der Merwe (2003) examined church duty in encouraging understanding and appeasement in *South African post-TRC*. However, despite these, on the broad basis, there are limited empirical studies, if at all exist, regarding the analysis of the language of reconciliation most especially on other areas of human endeavours in resolving disputes/misunderstandings through Shariah-based alternative dispute resolution, in such social activities as: family disputes, small businesses, minor quarrels/social disagreement, minor criminal offences among others within Islamic Law. This makes the area scarce and open dearth need to conducting works on it.

2.4 *Discourse of Law in the Courtroom*

Discourse of law covers a wide range of areas, especially the language use in the courtroom. Language use exists in: court proceedings, trials in both criminal and civil cases. The language could equally be used by judges, lawyers, arbitrators, mediators, parties to a case and witnesses (Shuy 2007; Khoyi & Behnam 2014). Among the significant contributions linguistics can offer to other disciplines is to the legal domain, since almost if not all the works conducted in law are accomplished through language. Be it in written or spoken form. The activities that must require language use in the courtroom include: legal opinions, indictments, lawsuits, briefs, pleadings, while, certainly, both laws and statutes are explained and documented via language. The testimonies, oral evidences and appearances even though originally appear in oral format, they subsequently must be reduced into written format or

transcripts (Shuy 2007). This shows that language and law are naturally interwoven. In the western world, particularly the US, researches on language and law received an outstanding attention on certain areas: language and intellectual property law, language and criminal law, constitutional law and language rights, legal language and legal interpretation among others. Nevertheless, due to the lack of thriving desire of scholars in exploring this area couple with the limited appreciation of language in legal professions by the professionals, yet the area has inadequate materials (Yonghong, 2014).

2.5 Analysis of Legal Discourse in Courts

The first to introduce social factors into the research on court language during 70s were the sociolinguists (Du, 2004; Wang, 2014). An analysis of the differences involving social status in explaining the linguistic phenomenon in court was conducted by (Du, 2004). An analysis of the questions and answers' sequencing as well as the turn taking between lawyers and witnesses were conducted by Atkinson and Drew in (1979). In the research, Atkinson and Drew (1979) contended that the court's arrangement and the power distribution in the court enable preservation of order. However, the order, on the other hand, brings about pressure on the part of the defendant and witnesses to a case. In another paper, Hudson (2000) established that power distribution could be best understood through linguistic analysis. This is because language can provide possible reflection of various levels of influence among different personalities.

On a similar note, Obeng (1999), in his study established that grammar and pragmatics play significant roles in showing the close relationship that exists between language, power and politeness, specifically in Akan judicial communication. This assertion was made after thorough analysis of how officials and litigants in Akan native courts employ certain content and functional words, idioms and inherent expressions along with certain phonetic resources as loudness to show power, politeness. The study also analysed various attitudinal and correlative interactions in form of distancing, closeness, anger, politeness phenomena in establishing the existence of a close relationship between power and politeness in Akan native courts judicial proceedings. The result enable Obeng (1999), to establish that politeness in Akan is governed by an ethnopragmatic context within which persons, social groups, and the entire Akan ethnic group can be situated. Hence, culture, discourse context, linguistics, and the speakers' intention are the ingredients that bring together language, power and politeness while the parties judicial discourse normally use speech patterns consistence with their institutional roles: social status, gender and age. In fact, it was reported that from late 1999 to 2007, the analysis on discourse power in court language is given much consideration by the academia (Ma & Xie, 2007; Lv, 2006; Wang, 2014).

2.6 Language of Legal Proceedings by Judges

The interlocutors' discourse in court, being interactive form of language exchange is known as legal proceeding (Liao, 2003). The right to manage and handle discourse in court is not equally shared among the speakers and the listeners due to the divergence existing among the parties in form of status and social class (Lv, 2011). Judge/s dominates legal proceedings in courts and is considered the highest authority in exercising power and control of language use or discourse of both litigants (Yu, 2010; Wang, 2014). This is specifically, on defendants through the use of numerous language conventions/practices. Judges dominate and control the legal proceeding processes as a result of their exclusive and exceptional identities and social status being confirmed on them. The quality of the judges' language plays an important role in assuring justice and fairness of adjudication and proceedings (Yu, 2010; Wang, 2014). However, the personal preferences reflecting on the judges' language certainly pose

noteworthy impact over their final decisions and judgements which may inclusively affect fairness of the proceeding (Yu, 2010).

This is why; Wang (2014) conducted a study on the language of judges in a case proceedings of physically challenged persons used for organised begging activities. Wang's (2014) study was the first of its kind in China. The focus of the study was on the real life case court proceedings and the value and emotion it reflects. The study targeted to discover issues involved in the languages and their solutions such as objectivity and fairness, legality, preciseness as well as appropriateness of the language use. The study further examined matters as relate to deliberate and non-deliberate use of language by judges with the aim of providing useful recommendations that will help in improving their language usage and the general standard of jurisdiction for feasibility.

Theoretical basis of language use in legal proceedings by Judges have shown that, the discourse power entails the prevailing part of a dialogue in positioning a powerful choice of discourse. Judges can therefore, control a particular topic from the beginning to the end of proceedings. They could also express their emotion in such discourse while the litigants being parties with weaker/limited power and restriction cannot control nor decide on a topic in the court proceedings. Hence, the discourse of the less powerful parties relied on the emotional inferences of the dominant side and must be altered based on the requirement of the powerful side (Lv, 2006).

In a similar study, Yu (2010) indicated that different parties have different levels of power as a result of their social status in legal proceedings. Judges are the most influential during court proceedings being the representative of the state vested with the power to adjudicate cases. Yu (2010) further pointed out that most of the judges are professional and equally obtained vast knowledge of legal paradigm, unlike the litigants whom are mostly laymen and incapable of understanding or answering the questions put to them by the judges as a result of knowledge gap. Due to the lack of appropriate legal knowledge, litigants are mostly left in limbo specifically in criminal trials. These, according to (Lv, 2011), among other things add to the demerit of the litigants.

In terms of rank judges are prominently the highest in the court followed by the prosecutors and lawyers, while litigants and the witnesses are the lowest. This in fact, is the reason judges are also considered the most figures in the court and can entertain pressure to anyone within the court proceedings (Lv, 2011). In another view, Ma and Xie (2007) contended that a situation where unfairness exists in social relations, the most powerful is ought to influence the actions of the others. The argument is same with discourse, hence judges as a matter of fact, must be considered as having the most powerful discourse due to their dominant role in courts (Ma & Xie, 2007). To conclude, Yu (2010) established that the whole part of the proceedings is controlled by a presiding judge, be it identification of the faulted party and declaration of judgements. Any comment or statement intended to be made by party or parties must be sought from the judge before one speaks. For instance: Seeking elaborations, clarifications from the litigants as well as making interruption of irrelevant statements are the sole power of the judges' discourse in the proceedings. Other issues that are also within the power of the judges include: summary of litigants' opinions and determining the topic of discussions. Judges can issue orders as questions, interruptions and commanding sentences to their discretions during proceedings (Lv, 2006).

3. Methodology

This paper employed a qualitative ethnographic design on the exploration of the illocutionary acts of request during RCP in Bauchi State Shariah Commission. Through ethnographic approach, the paper determined the sociopragmatic aspect of the participants' typology of request employed in RCP in accordance with Creswell (2012:161). The paper obtained its data on December, 2019 at *Bauchi State Shariah Commission (BSSC)* of the *North-Eastern part of Nigeria* through audiovisual recordings and observations of 12 different Shariah court's RCP. Purposive sampling strategy was used in the selection of the 12 cases used for the paper based on Creswell (2012) viewpoint. The participants were informed and consented before the commencement of the data collection in line with Creswell (2012) and Keyton (2015).

The data as derived from *family disputes (FD)* and *Family Disputes Marital Issues (FDMI)* was subjected to transcription and later authenticated by colleagues through member checks in the attempt to assure its validity and reliability (Patton, 1990). Afterwards, the data transcripts were imported into the Nvivo software program, coded, thereby generating themes and models (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clark, 2006). The kind of disputes employed as unit for analysis ranged from immorality to divorce and abuse of marital obligations known as domestic or communal issues.

The coding category being generated from the data are as follows: *FD* stands for family dispute and *FDMI* for family dispute marital issues. On the other hand, the coding pattern for the court officials takes the features as in the following: *Arb* represent arbitrator, *Sec* means sectary, and *CLRC* refers to Islamic cleric while *WH* represent ward head. Regarding the parties involved in disputes they were coded in accordance to their role during the RCP and these include: *FC* stands for Female Complainant, *MC* means Male Complainant, *MR* represent Male Respondent, *FG* for Female Guardian, *FREP* stands for Female Representative, *WFC* for Witness to Female Respondent while *ST.M* refers to Step mother to Female respondents respectively.

According to Austin (1962) and Searle (1975), an utterance could be considered appropriate in as much as the addressee is able to perform the act being requested for, he desire to do it and the predicative used is in future tense. The paper adapted Austin (1962) and Kreidler (1998) Directive acts of request (illocutionary acts of request). Directives are the speakers' utterances made in the attempt to get the hearer to do something (Searle, 1969; Kreidler, 1998).

4. Result and Discussion

Illocutionary act of Request is viewed in this paper as a sort of expression of directives on what the speaker desires/craves the addressee to do or refrain from doing during or after the RCP. Contrary to the illocutionary act of command, this paper revealed that in RCP, the addressee has a choice of either to comply or not, with the request made by the speaker. Hence, this correspond with Kreidler (1998) view that speaker's illocutionary act of request has no assumed power over the decision of the addressee.

Furthermore, the paper revealed that speakers in RCP are fond of using various form of request utterances. The general patterns of the illocutionary acts of requests found in RCP include the use of request to: *seek an audience*, *permission to speak or ask question*, *seek explanation*, *require confirmation* and *to maintain order* when another speaker is getting out

of track during the interaction. In fact, these are achieved through the use of the phrase “for Allah sake” to indicate how polite the speaker is and to minimise the thought of imposition by the addressee, the speakers also employ: the use of indirectness, mild imposition, metaphorical expressions and rhetorical use of the word “Allah”. This is shown in the following excerpts:

1) For Allah sake

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 301] “If this is in your mind then please for Allah sake do not waste our time of fixing another time to come and sit.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 343] “Apart from this, please for Allah sake, think it over to see whether there is something that you may feel you are doing to him.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 230(11)] “...if there is something that to warn her about or you may wish us to warn her about, for Allah sake say it.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 19(9)] “for the sake of Allah, if what a person committed is stated and he/she is pretty sure and sincerely knows that its true then he/she should endeavour to fear Allah and accept his/her offense.”

[FDMI-Arb.5: ITT 3] for Allah sake bring them out for us to see.”

[FDMI-Arb.5: ITT 31(2)] “...for Allah sake you should stop leaving whenever we are working.”

[FD-Arbi.1: 87] “For Allah sake, keep quite! Keep quite by Allah sake!”

[FD-Arb.C2: ITT 106(23)] For Allah’s sake, we don’t want anything to get wrong again...”

[FD-Arb.C2: ITT 108(5)] “.... by Allah, you are urged to support him.”

In view of the cited excerpts above, it shows that the name of “Allah” being the Supreme Being plays a significant role in calming the minds and feelings of the addressee/s to change their opinion over certain matters in question. Equally, the attachment Allah’s name in the request utterances by the speakers also depicts their outstanding sociopragmatic behaviour of using language in resolving conflicts.

2) use of indirectness

Indirect speech acts are mostly idioms of direct speech acts (Searle (1975).

[Arb.C1: ITT 71(47)] “...I want us to be talking in our position as Muslims faithful...”

[Arb.C1: ITT 71(49)] “Will you be patient and allow the boy to stay with him since the boy is sick?”

The likelihood of using indirectness in making request by the Arbitrators as shown in the excerpt 71 (47) and (49) suggests the striving effort of convincing the addressee without giving him the feelings of being imposed to carry out the needful acts with the aid of certain phrases; (47) ‘I want us’ instead of ‘I want you’ or (49) ‘will you be patient’ instead ‘you must be patient’.

3) mild imposition

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 19] “What I want you to do, is please whatever will be said here, look at the greatness of Allah, look at the fear of Allah and said the truth.”

[FD-Arbi.1: 85] “I beg you in the name of Allah, Rauta to be patient.”

52-Arbi.1: (request/making a polite request) let me ask you something.

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 107(2)] “...we need to hear what you will have to say.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 107(7)] “... we want to hear what you have to say on this complain she brought about you.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 220(18)] “...I want both of you to fear Allah.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 137] “Please we plead with you because of Allah to ensure he abide by this.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 137(14)] ... that is why, I plead with you by Allah!”

[FD-Arb.C2: ITT 112(7)] “...for this reason I begged you in the name of Allah to go and be patient with them.”

[FDMI-Arb.8: ITT 113] “I said; between you and Allah?!”

[FDMI-Arb.11:181(4)] “...but for Allah’s greatness try and go before the Monday.”

Mostly, the use of indirectness (2) and mild imposition (3) by Arbitrators being the court officials depicts negative politeness strategies to attract the attention of the addressee to comply with the directives intended by the speakers. It has been viewed by many scholars that indirect speech acts as resulted due to frequent divergence between the speaker’s utterance and the sentence meaning (Searle, 1975; Collavin, 2011).

4) *metaphorical expressions*

Searle (1975) considered several factors in establishing his understanding and hypothesis of indirect speech act. These include putting into consideration the idiom theory and other inferred uses of language, such as irony and metaphor. Here, Metaphoric expressions are employed in making request by court officials and this is shown in the excerpts:

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 196(2)] “I am coming.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 214] “I am coming!”

The illocutionary force of the phrase “I am coming” in [ITT 196 and 214) metaphorically implied “please, wait let me speak or allow me to speak, please!” but expressed it in such a way as if the speaker is requesting the addressee/s to wait for him till he arrived or return from somewhere.

5) *To seek explanation, require confirmation*

Arbitrators usually do politely request additional information of the state of facts as in [FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 35] “Yes, he used to ask you to be patient till he got money?” court officials equally utilised request utterances in seeking agreement confirmation of what they explained in the course of RCP as shown in: [FDMI-Arb.11: 115(8)] “...Do you get it?” on the other hand, the speakers sometimes show their dissatisfaction with the way a party to a case is making prolonging his version of the issue involved in the case through polite request as shown in: [FDMI-Arb.3: 53] “is this how we are going to be talking all the while?” to ensure successful conclusion of a case, Arbitrators mostly seek agreement of the aggrieved party by requesting by seeking confirmation from him/her as in this excerpt: 141. Arbi.1: ITT 141] Baba! [ITT 141(2)] If this is executed, is it okay with you?” however, there are instances; when the speaker employs the name of Allah rhetorically as form of informal swearing in his request for affirmation from the addressee. This is shown in excerpt where [FDMI-Arb.3: 87] indirectly requested FDMI-MR.C3 to swear, thus: “Allah?”

6) *Request to seek permission*

Request utterances are also identified to being utilised in *requesting an audience/seeking permission* to speak through the use of *prayers/expression of wishes* as in the following excerpts:

[FD-Cleric.C1: ITT 140] “Peace be upon you!”

[FDMI-Cleric.C7: ITT 107] “Peace be upon you!”

[FDMI-Arb.3: ITT 85] “Let me ask you Mallam Abubakar.”

From the analysed data the study is able to figure out some directives utterances that seem to hover between request and suggestion and the instances are shown in the following excerpts:

[FD-Arb.C2: ITT 81(4)] “...and you on your part you should forgive her. [ITT 81(5)] You should put her sympathy in your heart.”

[FD-Arb.C2: ITT 83(3)] “...you should do what we asked you to do!!”

[FDMI-Arb.12: ITT 37] “You should be patient Hajiya.”

[FDMI-Arb.4: ITT 19(18)] “...you too Abdullahi should answer with sincerity and the fear of Allah about the truth upon what happened.”

The use of phrases ‘you should’ instead of ‘you must’ in the excerpts [FD-Arb.C2: ITT 83(3)], [FDMI-Arb.C12: ITT 37] and [FDMI-Arb.C4: ITT 19(18)] above in their request utterances while highlighting to the addressee/s what is required of them to do or avoid in resolving the issues in dispute suggest court officials polite attributes in RCP. This also implies the use of positive face as a sociopragmatic nature of the court officials in requesting parties to agree or understand their position in the case/s.

With the aid of Nvivo analysis software, the generated results clearly shown that request utterances in RCP are normally used to achieve peaceful solution through resolution of concurrent and situational dispute brought before it. the use of Request utterances are dominantly utilised throughout out the 12 cases being used as unit of analysis of this study with 39 sources as participants using 140 number of interactive turn-takings (ITT). This is evidently shown in Figure 1.1 (p. 18) and Table 1.2 (p. 19) as shown below.

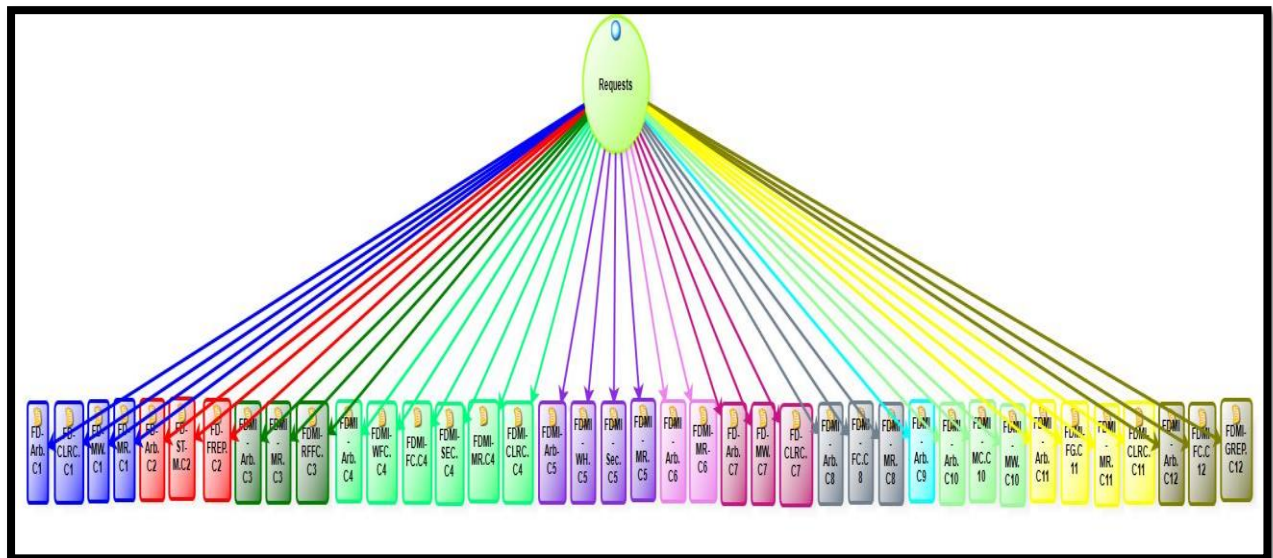


Figure 1. Sources Model on Request utterances reflecting who expressed wants as directed to the addressees on RCP

Based on individual users of the illocutionary act of requests in RCP, the result has suggested that court officials are the dominant users as found across the whole 12 case proceedings used as unit of analysis. FDMI-Arb.C4 is the most common user of Request utterances with 19 ITT (13.57%), while FD-Arb.C1 and FD-Arb.C2 with the moderate number of usage at 11 ITT (7.86%) each. The finding shows 10 participants who ranged from Islamic clerics, Respondents, witnesses, representatives as well as FDMI-Arb.C7 with 1 ITT (0.71%) as the least number of usages. These results clearly justified the assertions of Yu (2010) and Wang (2014) stating that Judge/s are the dominants figures in courts during legal proceedings and are considered the highest authority in exercising power and control of language use or discourse of both litigants. And that Judges dominate and control the legal proceeding processes as a result of their exclusive and exceptional identities and social status being confirmed on them. Similarly, the dominant use of Request utterances by Arbitrators do not

contradict the findings of other studies as Yu (2010) and Wang (2012) who claimed that the judges' language plays an important role in assuring justice and fairness of adjudication and proceedings.

Table 1. *Sources and interactional categories of turn-taking with percentage of Request utterances*

S/N	Cases	Sources	Number of turn-taking	Percentage
1	1	FD-Arb.C1	11	7.86
2	2	FD-Arb.C2	11	7.86
3	7	FD-Arb.C7	1	0.71
4	1	FD-CLRC.C1	1	0.71
5	7	FD-CLRC.C7	1	0.71
6	2	FD-FREP.C2	2	1.43
7	10	FDMI-Arb.C10	2	1.43
8	11	FDMI-Arb.C11	7	5.00
9	12	FDMI-Arb.C12	4	2.86
10	3	FDMI-Arb.C3	5	3.57
11	4	FDMI-Arb.C4	19	13.57
12	6	FDMI-Arb.C6	3	2.14
13	8	FDMI-Arb.C8	2	1.43
14	9	FDMI-Arb.C9	8	5.71
15	5	FDMI-Arb-C5	7	5.00
16	11	FDMI-CLRC.C11	5	3.57
17	4	FDMI-CLRC.C4	2	1.43
18	12	FDMI-FC.C12	2	1.43
19	4	FDMI-FC.C4	5	3.57
20	8	FDMI-FC.C8	4	2.86
21	11	FDMI-FG.C11	2	1.43
22	12	FDMI-GREP.C12	2	1.43
23	10	FDMI-MC.C10	6	4.29
24	11	FDMI-MR.C11	1	0.71
25	3	FDMI-MR.C3	3	2.14
26	4	FDMI-MR.C4	2	1.43
27	5	FDMI-MR.C5	1	0.71
28	8	FDMI-MR.C8	1	0.71
29	6	FDMI-MR-C6	2	1.43
30	10	FDMI-MW.C10	1	0.71
31	3	FDMI-RFFC.C3	1	0.71
32	4	FDMI-SEC.C4	1	0.71
33	5	FDMI-Sec.C5	2	1.43
34	4	FDMI-WFC.C4	2	1.43
35	5	FDMI-WH.C5	3	2.14
36	1	FD-MR.C1	1	0.71
37	1	FD-MW.C1	2	1.43
38	7	FD-MW.C7	2	1.43
39	2	FD-ST-M.C2	3	2.14
Total	12	39	140	100.00

In fact, just as in Yu (2010) findings which suggest that the personal preferences reflecting on the impact of judges' dominant use of language may inclusively affect fairness of the proceeding. Similarly, it is observed that in spite of the fact that request utterances are within the addressees' discretion to comply or not (Kreidler, 1998), on the contrary in RCP, it appears as if the addressee may much likely overlooked such privilege due to attachment of Allah's name with the request utterances. This could be so obvious due to the impact of Islam in the lives of the addressees' and that once the name of Allah is mentioned the addressee may leave with no option but to comply.

Besides, the right to manage and handle discourse in conventional court is not equally shared among the speakers and the listeners due to the divergence existing among the parties in form of status and social class and the judge is never likely to produce any request utterances (Lv, 2011). On the contrary, the finding of this study shows that all parties are considered equal before the arbitrators and this could be the possible reason why, the arbitrators are not only using the illocutionary acts of request utterances in their speeches but are identified as the most common users throughout the RCP. The rationale for the dominant use of Request utterances in RCP could be due to the sociopragmatic reasons that since RCP are based on Islamic injunctions and cultures which focus on making peace between the addressed parties involved in a case. In addition, most at times, the illocutionary acts are considered felicitous for simple fact that the requested party is at liberty to act upon the desired request or not. Furthermore, it is a general phenomenon that parties in RCP obviously out of their free will chooses to entertain their issue/cases in accordance to the shariah-based legal jurisprudence within reconciliation institution other than conventional courts. The automatic embracement of Islamic creed could also influence the decision of the addressee in compliance with the request made on him/her in contrast with addressee in conventional courts.

5. Conclusions and Implications

This study has attempted to provide insight about the impact of Directives Speech Acts of Request utterances in RCP. It is a common practice by participants in RCP to use request utterances. To sum up, one can conclude that the directive SA of Request utterances are dominantly utilised by Arbitrators throughout the 12 cases being used as unit of analysis of this study. 39 sources were found to have participated using 140 numbers of interactive turn-takings (ITT). The study shows that the illocutionary act of request is commonly utilised with various intents ranging from seeking audience, permission to speak, seeking explanation, confirmation or request to maintain order during RCP. The findings equally show that the most common pattern of making request utterances is through utilisation of Allah's name attached with the utterances. This implies that the speakers' act of request utterances are being influenced by positive politeness, mild imposition, indirectness and metaphorical expressions and Islamic culture has significant influence in their speech acts most especially, the illocutionary act of request. Hence, the study has equally contributed in revealing the role of Islamic Law, norms, culture and language in resolving disputes (FD and FDMI). This suggests that the speech act of request play a significant role in attaining mutual understandings between Arbitrators/court officials and the parties involved in disputes. Similarly, this paper will serve as insight to both the linguists, legal practitioners and courts officials in understanding the nature and the persuasive language use in resolving misunderstanding. Equally, this paper is an eye-opener to how the Hausa Muslims of Nigeria employ the illocutionary acts of request in resolving disputes in the court of law. With these, we recommend further research on other taxonomies of speech acts related to shariah-based RCP.

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Revenge Theme in Shakespeare's Hamlet and Mahfouz's

The Thief and the Dogs

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Abstract

This study explores the revenge theme in Shakespeare's play Hamlet and Mahfouz's novel The Thief and the Dogs by discovering similarities and differences between the two works. First, this paper is examining the meaning of the word revenge from a linguistic and social perspective, and gives a brief summary of both works, in addition to a short biography of Naguib Mahfouz and its impact on the novel. Second, this paper demonstrates the elements and reasons that created revenge in both works through the analysis of the texts in detail. Finally, illustrating the political and social dimensions of both workers, and its effect on the individual, which resulted in the tendency to take revenge from the others and the ruling class.

Keywords: Shakespeare, Mahfouz, revenge, Hamlet, Thief and Dogs

1. Introduction

Revenge has historically been a popular literary theme and keeps playing a role in contemporary literary works. Shakespeare's play *Hamlet* and Naguib Mahfouz's novel *The Thief and The Dogs* are entirely based on vengeance to achieve justice from their point of view. Justice is generally served in modern times and most of the crimes and wrongdoings are reprovved and punishments are given. There are few who go beyond the rules and take justice into their own hands. Thus, revenge is characterized as an act of harming a person or group in response to a grievance, and usually to achieve justice in illegal ways, using their own hands ("revenge", 2019). Bacon (2011) stated that "Revenge is a kind of wild justice; which the more man's nature runs to, the more ought law to weed it out. For as for the first wrong, it doth but offend the law" (p. 384).

Hamlet is a play written by Williams Shakespeare. Taylor (2002) stated that it's one of his most famous works during his time and still one of his most successful works, the play's main theme is revenge, resulting in several innocent people's deaths (pp. 2-8). The author focused on Prince Hamlet's problems that are portrayed as elegant rather than his uncle's evil deeds. At the beginning of the play, king Hamlet's ghost appears to Prince Hamlet, telling him that

he was poisoned by King Claudius. Prince Hamlet laments both the death of his father and the remarriage of his mother to the new King Claudius that took place a few weeks after the death of the late king. Then Hamlet tries to find out the real truth about the death and plot revenge of his father. Hamlet acts insane and deceives a lot of people in the process of finding out the truth to hide his true intentions.

On the other hand, Naguib Mahfouz was born into a Muslim Egyptian family of the lower middle class in 1911. Was the first Arabic Egyptian author who won the Nobel Prize in literature (Mahfouz, 1988). Gordon (1990) explained that He is considered to be one of the first contemporary authors of Arabic literature to discuss the concepts of existentialism, along with Taha Hussein, Most of Mahfouz's works deal primarily with politics and in many of his novels, he described the social situation of Egypt at that time (pp. 4-6). He was dissatisfied by the 1952 revolution and the defeat of Egypt in the 1967 war. Because Egypt was under military martial law and his bad relationship with the authority, he was unable to write openly and clearly. Hence, the novel *The Thief and the Dogs* is a novel that metaphorically expresses the Egyptian reality. He died on August 30, 2006.

According to Gordon (1990), the novel *The Thief and the Dogs* is a post-revolutionary haunting novel by Naguib Mahfouz combines a dynamic psychological portrait of a sorrowful man with a detective story, suspense, and rapid pace (p. 135). The skilled young thief Said Mahran emerges bent on revenge after four years in jail. Egypt has witnessed a revolution, and now his beloved wife and loyal henchman, who connived to betray him to the authorities, are married now to each other, holding from him his six-year-old daughter. Yet his mentor, Rauf Ilwan, once a revolutionary hardliner who persuaded Said that, stealing from the wealthy in an unjust society is an act of justice, is now a wealthy man himself, a successful newspaper editor who has anything to do with the disgraced Said. When Said's insane efforts to achieve his concept of justice were badly misfired, his desire for revenge led to numerous innocent people being killed. He becomes such a hunted man motivated by hatred and vengeance that his last opportunity at redemption can only be realized too late.

2. Revenge Elements

In both literary works, there were many causes and circumstances that compounded the concept of revenge, if these elements did not exist, the two protagonists in both works might refrain from revenge. The theme of revenge was developed by Mahfouz and Shakespeare through dialog or internal conflict, and the use of eye language throughout the novel and the play, for example, in *The Thief and the Dogs* Mahfouz demonstrate that "Bring in her mother, you mean. How I wish our eyes could meet, so I might behold one of the secrets of hell! O, for the axe and the sledgehammer!" (Mahfouz, 1989, p. 21). Also, "Everyone looked on with malicious interest" (Mahfouz, 1989, p. 22).

The first spark that gave rise to the idea of revenge in the novel of *The Thief and The Dogs* when Said Mehran came out of prison and went straight to see his daughter after more than four years in prison. Mehran's meeting with his daughter was his only hope in life and represent a new beginning for him but the reality was otherwise, as Mahfouz (1989) illustrates that:

She shrank back even further. He pulled her towards him almost forcibly then she screamed, and as he drew her closer, fought back, crying. He leant forward to kiss her, disregarding his failure and disappointment, but his lips caught only a whirling arm. (p. 22).

His daughter Sana was frightened and terrified then she rejects him, this was the first reason for Said Mehran's growing idea of revenge.

On the other hand, in Shakespeare's play *Hamlet*, the appearance of the ghost was the most important catalyst for the idea of revenge, and at the same time symbolizing fate. Thus, when the ghost spoke to Hamlet revealing his true identity "I am thy father's spirit, doomed for a certain term to walk the night and for the day confined to fast in fires till the foul crimes done in my days of nature are burnt and purged away" (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 185), asking him to take revenge on his brother Claudius, who poisoned King Hamlet, that ignited the first spark of revenge in Hamlet's mind.

2.1 The need for someone to provide reassurance and confidence.

Under the general situation of the two literary works, of betrayal, treachery, and revenge, the urgent need for someone to rely on by both protagonists to justify the idea of revenge they have, and to help them to achieve that revenge. In *The Thief and the Dogs*, Said was in desperate need of someone he trusted, providing him with protection that encouraged him to revenge after being betrayed by all. At the time Said was expelled, insulted, and threatened by Rauf Alwan, and betrayed by his henchman Ilish, who stole everything Said, had his wife, daughter, and money. The most severe betrayal is the betrayal of the love of his life, his wife Nabawiyya, who divorced Said, during his imprisonment and married Ilish, his treacherous assistant (Hassan, 2012, p. 145). In the midst of all this, Nur, the prostitute was the only person who stood with Said Mahran in his ordeal. For example, when he was on the run from the police and in distress, she stood at his side in everything, "food, drink, and news. She kissed him and, for the first time, he responded spontaneously, with a sense of gratitude, knowing her now to be the person closest to him for as long as he might live" (Mahfouz, 1989, p. 114).

In the play of *Hamlet*, loyalty is an extremely rare trait in this play, the characters in this play have spent their time betraying each other, the only person who was faithful to Hamlet is Horatio. Their relationship represents the only true friendship and loyalty in this play, Horatio was the only person Hamlet relied on. He seems to be the one to whom Hamlet entrusted the substance of his conversation with the Ghost, and who knows that Claudius assassinated Hamlet's father in order to seize the throne. The reader can observe this loyalty, through Hamlet's converse of Horatio, Shakespeare (1987):

Since my dear soul was mistress of her choice, and could of men distinguish her election, sh'hath seal'd thee for herself; for thou hast been as one, in suffering all, that suffers nothing, a man that fortune's buffets and rewards has ta'en with equal thanks.... (P. 251)

Hamlet idolizes Horatio because of the characteristics, Hamlet does not possess himself, throughout the rest of the play, Horatio acts as a true friend to Hamlet and proves his complete loyalty when he tries to commit suicide to at the very end to join Hamlet in death,

referring to himself as “I am more an antique Roman than a Dane” (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 351), that he cannot live without his beloved friend.

2.2 Killing innocent people in pursuit of revenge.

The element of anxiety and psychological disorder, which resulted from betrayal, was the first cause in both literary works of killing many innocent people. In *The Thief and the Dogs*, Said Mahran murdered an innocent man, called Shaban living in Ilish's flat, assuming he was Ilish. Biyomy (2015) explained that Said Mehran's revenge was directed at his wife Nabawiyya, and his traitor friend Ilish Sidra, but they left the apartment, being substituted by another tenant, Shaban was just a simple worker, he had no guilt, except that he moved to Ilish's apartment (p. 386). Said Mehran could not resist his remorse after he saw Shaban's picture in the newspapers, “I wonder who you are, Shaban. We never knew each other. Did you have children? Did you ever imagine that one day you would be killed for no reason--that you'd be killed because Nabawiyya Sulaiman married Ilish Sidra?” (Mahfouz, 1989, p. 82). Said continued his pursuit for revenge when Said went to Rauf's Villa to kill him. He doesn't notice that the man he shoots is not Rauf, but actually the doorkeeper. At the end of the novel, Said Mehran destroyed Nur, making her lost and wanted by the police, because he made her live in the illusion of love with him, she loves a stalker, which his end is well known. On the other hand, Said Mahran has ruined the reputation of his daughter Sana, it is difficult for any girl to live in an eastern society while her father is a serial killer (Biyomy, 2015, p. 204).

In Shakespeare's play *Hamlet*, there were many victims because of the madness of revenge, Hamlet kills Polonius, mistaking him for Claudius, hidden behind a curtain. He felt no regret, he could see nothing but the vengeance for his father's murder, after the murder of Polonius, Hamlet illustrate that “Thou wretched, rash, intruding fool, farewell I took thee for they better” (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 278). Then, at the end of the play, Hamlet killed Laertes with a poisoned sword. Hamlet also caused the death of his childhood friends, Rosencrantz and Guildenstern, when their ship is attacked by pirates, he returns to Denmark, make them facing death on their own. He has also involved indirectly in his love Ophelia's deaths when she drowned, as Gertrude described “clamb'ring to hang, an envious sliver broke, when down her weedy trophies and herself fell in the weeping brook” (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 319). Also, Hamlet was the cause of Gertrude's indirectly death when she poisoned by Claudius by mistake.

2.3 Infidelity as a cause for revenge

The first and last main driver for revenge is betrayal, both literary works centered on treachery, and one of its results is vengeance. In *The Thief and the Dogs*, Nabawiyya's betrayal of Said Mehran was one of the main factors that encouraged the idea of revenge in his mind. After she divorced him, she stole everything that Said stole before, and gave it to her lover Ilish, even deprived him of his daughter Sana. She also participated in the ambush that her lover and Rauf Ilwan orchestrated, which resulted in Said Mahran being jailed for four years.

In Shakespeare's play *Hamlet*, Ophelia has deceived him in Hamlet's view by sharing his private letters of love with his uncle Polonius. He treats her cruelly saying that "get thee to a nunnery" (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 243), and then he caused her madness, Hamlet's mother Gertrude, betrays Hamlet and the late King Hamlet by marrying to Claudius, Hamlet, being still depressed about his father's death was further upset and felt betrayed by his mother when she quickly married Claudius. Also, by marrying her former husband's brother, she also betrayed the late King Hamlet.

2.4 Reject the Idea if Revenge

In *The Thief and the Dogs*, Mahfouz tried to send messages through the secondary characters in the novel to reject the idea of revenge in the voice of reason. He started with the detective, who said during Said Mehran's first meeting with Ilish Sidra, at his home after his release from prison "Let the judge decide that ... just as I pointed out at the beginning. There's no more to be said. It's up to a court of law." (Mahfouz, 1989, p. 23). After her daughter rejects him, he went to Sheikh Ali Al-Guneidi, so that he may find a justification for his idea or a fatwa that allows him to pursue his revenge. But he found the same words the detective told him before. Then, Sheikh Al-Guneidi suggests to him that "Take a copy of the Koran and read ... wash yourself now and read" (Mahfouz, 1989, p. 31) but he refuses "just got out of jail today, and I have not performed the prayer ablutions" (Mahfouz, 1989, p. 31).

In Shakespeare's play *Hamlet*, some critics pointed out that Hamlet's delay in killing his uncle and achieving revenge, was morally motivated, and Shakespeare highlighted it, to show the moral side of his protagonist "Haste me to know it, that I, with wings as swift as meditation or the thoughts of love, may sweep to my revenge" (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 186). Although many critics rejected this point of view, despite the tragic end of both heroes. Both writers, in one way or another, rejected the idea of revenge. This confirmed a moral aspect for the audiences or readers.

3. The Similarity in Both Works from a Political Perspective

Both literary works representing a political dimension, Mahfouz's novel *The Thief and the Dogs* described the tragic situation in Egypt, under the bloody dictatorship in the 1950s and 1960s. And Shakespeare *Hamlet's* play, consider a reflection of Denmark and England's general situation under the royal rule.

Each character of *The Thief and The Dogs* represents a symbol in Egyptian society, for example, Said Mehran, a simple orphan young man, who is deceived by the principles of the 1952 revolution, represents the simple, destitute class of Egyptian society. Nabawiyya's character, with her moral deviation and her betrayal to her husband, represents moral decay in the whole of society. that occurred after the revolution in Egypt. While, Rauf Ilwan, represents the ruling military authority. The attempt to avenge Said Mehran against Rauf Ilwan is nothing more than a form of revenge against the corrupt system, and the betrayal of his wife and assistant Ilish Sidra is a picture of the deterioration of social values in Egyptian society. Also, through the character of Said Mahran, Mahfouz tried to raise the conflict between the rich and the poor classes in Egyptian society, and the inevitability of

confrontation between the two classes, as well, the growth of the idea of revenge among the poor class against the rich. (Ismael, 2018, p. 5).

Hamlet was written during a period of political fear and uncertainty that has similarities in the play's mood as well as events. The play was performed for the first time in 1602 when Queen Elizabeth I was 68 years old. She had no children; it was unclear who would inherit her crown after she died. By naming an heir, Elizabeth might have put an end to uncertainty. But she declined to do so, leading to the widespread belief that in her old age the once-popular queen had become reckless. The royal succession is undetermined in Hamlet's Denmark, as it is in England.

Shakespeare's contemporaries assumed that a kingdom's health relied on the health of its royal family: in Denmark as in the England of Shakespeare, the royal family has weakened, and the kingdom as a whole is affected. In Shakespeare's England, the country's ruler was also the literal embodiment of the country itself. Elizabeth I wasn't just the Queen of England, she was England. The queen was getting older and sick, and she had no children to inherit the empire. Her family's going to end with her. In Hamlet's Denmark, a similar mood prevails. The apparent heir, Hamlet wants to kill both Claudius and himself, leaving Denmark without a successor. Hamlet does not show any interest in having children himself, he asks Ophelia "Why wouldst thou be a breeder of sinners" (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 243). The Queen, Gertrude, is now too old to bear children like Elizabeth Denmark's royal family is no longer healthy so the monarchy is no longer either "Something is rotten in the state of Denmark" (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 184). Elizabeth I's reluctance to name a successor generated possibility for ambitious young nobles: another source of political turmoil in Shakespeare's England when Hamlet was written was the uncertainty that could cause and bloodshed the ambition. Therefore, all this led to the growing idea of revenge, among the people against the Queen, for being indifferent to the Kingdom, and the neighboring regions as well.

4. Conclusion

Revenge was the first and last cause of the tragic end of both heroes. Tragic events were the main reason that creates the idea of revenge in both literary works. For example, treachery was the reason for entrenching the principle of revenge. In *Hamlet*, killing the king Hamlet by his brother Claudius, to seize the throne, the betrayal of Hamlet's mother to her husband by marrying quickly the killer, Ophelia's betrayal for the prince Hamlet, as well as his close the betrayal of his friends, all this has led to the growing idea of revenge in the play *Hamlet*.

On the other hand, in Mahfouz's novel, betrayal was the main factor that the growing idea of revenge, for instance, the betrayal of Nabawiyya to her husband Said, as well as the treachery of Ilish Sidra to his master, who gave him help, shelter and food. and the conspiracy of Rauf Ilwan with Nabawiyya and Ilish to put Said in jail, while Said was an obedient servant to Rauf. Also, the shock of Said after his release from prison, when his daughter did not recognize him and rejected him. all these were reasons to establish the idea of revenge in the novel.

Allah has allowed us to avenge and achieve justice, but according to the conditions and regulations, set by the Islamic religion, the reader can observe that in his saying "So whoever

has assaulted you, then assault him in the same way that he has assaulted you. And fear Allah and know that Allah is with those who fear Him.” (The Qur'an 2:194), but many misunderstandings of this Verse and Said Mahran one of those who did not understand the outline of the verse and the way to achieve justice.

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A Book Review of Novice Writers and Scholarly Publication: Authors, Mentors, Gatekeepers

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Abstract

Novice Writers and Scholarly Publication: Authors, Mentors, Gatekeepers. Edited by Pejman Habibie and Ken Hyland (2019). Palgrave Macmillan. ISBN 978-3-319-95332-8, ISBN 978-3-319-95333-5 (eBook), No. of pages 297. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95333-5>

Keyword: Novice writers, Scholarly publication, Publication Challenges, Risks and rewards

The book consists of an introduction and four parts. The introduction focuses on the risks and rewards of scholarly publishing (Hyland, 2016a). In other words, writing for scholarly publishing involves not only merits and motivations but also risks and pressures for junior researchers as well as doctoral students. On the one hand, the merits includes engaging with the reviewers which could result in varied insights and perspectives on the doctoral work and can lead to a varied successful research. Scholarly publishing is led by motivations of the researcher. These include extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. For instance, the intention of the student to enhance his/her resume and profile and obtain a high status in the research domain as well as the wish to increase self-confidence, obtain self-satisfaction and develop ideas, shape a scholarly identity and persona are some of the intrinsic motivations.

On the other hand, students involved in scholarly publishing are exposed into the public pressure due to the high rejection rate by some journals and the time required to resubmit an article to another alternative journal with no idea of acceptance or rejection rates. Besides these pressures, doctoral students usually suffer from heavy teaching loads, personal responsibility, family obligations, long commutes, financial issues, health problems, exhaustion, limited faculty-student and student-student contact and little support and feedback. Therefore, the perspectives and experience of supervisors, reviewers, and editors are presented to highlight the practices and challenges faced by native and non-native scholars in writing for publishing. Hence, the book presents a reflection of the pressure imposed on novice writers as a consequence of the demand for academic publication in peer reviewed international journals irrespective whether they are native or non-native language speakers.

In chapter two of part one related to the Perspectives on Scholarly Publication, Ken Hyland reprises his argument regarding the myth of disadvantage in publishing suffered by those whose first language is not English (Hyland, 2016b). In other words, Hyland emphasizes that challenges face both native and non-native English speakers. Hence, Hyland argues that claiming that challenges face only L2 writers represents a deficit view of second language writers, demoralize L2 researchers, and marginalize the difficulties of novice L1 English academics. Hence, more studies are required to explore the perceptions and challenges faced by native English speakers in their publishing process.

In Chapter Three, according to Pejman Habibie, publishing in high-index international journals signifies an efficient academic performance of the scholars and the institutions. Therefore, he focuses on the question of native vs. non-native English-speaking. However, publishing impotency seems to affect academicians, specifically junior scholars and doctoral students. Like Hyland's argument, Habibie's discussion emphasizes on the idea of looking at Anglophone schools as undifferentiated mass bestowed with symbolic, social and cultural habits for scholarly publishing by virtue of their native speaker status. In other words, the dominant sense is that EAL scholars are geo-linguistically disadvantaged compared to their native speakers in terms of writing for scholarly publishing. Hence, supporting Hyland's call, Habibie calls for a balanced view of researching this aspect since writing for publishing is not addressed in the curriculum of undergraduate and postgraduate levels in several disciplines as well as research production requires high skills that go beyond generic and socio-rhetorical expertise.

In Chapter Four, Christopher Tribble also discusses the challenges faced by students and novice researchers in mastering the disciplinary terms and the register of the disciplines in the academic community. This involves the epistemology of each discipline and the cultural context of each genre in order to communicate knowledge academically and properly. In this regard, the instructors of EAP should provide these students and researchers with these conventions which are not easily acquired. Christopher Tribble argues that it is not pedagogically appropriate to encourage students to have conflicts with the institutions they elected to engage with or struggle against a chimerical native-speaker norm. Since the participants in EAP programmes have very limited time available and are confronted with high stakes academic challenges, the EAP practitioners have to help these participants in overcoming these challenges.

In this chapter, Christopher Tribble reviews some conflicting paradigms in EAPWI to identify which paradigm has the potential to offer practical solutions to support students' acquisition of relevant academic literacies. This included reviewing the major approaches to pedagogy, the theory used, and some of the apparent limitations of a new approach. His discussion also involves the claim of the proponents of English as a Lingua Franca (Academic) that genre-based EAP programs unfairly impose native models on non-native speakers of English. Consequently, he argues that the notion of native-ness is open to a serious challenge.

In part II, the discussion involves the perspectives of authors towards their experience of academic publishing. In Chapter five, Ismael Fazil reports that the majority of studies are conducted on the challenges faced by English as additional language writers including faculty members and doctoral students. On the other hand, limited studies have been focussed on the difficulties faced by native speakers except for Habibie's study. Therefore, Ismael Fazil looks

at writing for scholarly publication experiences of two Anglophone doctoral students at a Canadian Research-Intensive university. He discusses the challenges faced by junior researchers in the process of producing and disseminating scholarship in international English medium journals.

Learning how to compose a research article is not enough for publishing. Rather, the issue requires mastering the conventions, principles, and norms of the academic writing. That is, the novice writers need to master the value genre of research articles since they write for professional audience. In this regard, four aspects are highly significant for novice writers to be competent in publishing. These include formal knowledge, rhetorical knowledge, process knowledge, and subject-matter knowledge. It was found that even the native speaker writers have a difficulty in the formal knowledge of the journal article genre. In addition, the two participants expressed lack of knowledge in the process of scholarly publishing and selecting a journal that is considered an appropriate publication venue. Another challenge is lacking knowledge of the process of how reviewers comment, whereby no one shares his/her reports which could contain conflicting and mixed comments. A third challenging issue is the different genres of research articles. Another difficulty was familiarity with the generic expectations of the research genre and rhetorically preparing the article by following all the conventions of the genre. These challenges give evidence that Anglophone writers are also challenged in writing for publication and being a native speaker does not imply having no challenges in publication. The hardest section of writing was the literature review of the research article genre. Hence, when conducting studies, it is recommended to consider the issue of novice writers rather than being native or non-native speakers since both native and non-native writers have challenges in writing for publication.

In chapter six, Pilar Mur-Duenas adopts a self-reflective auto-ethnographic perspective in discussing her experience as a NNEs (Spanish) academic undertaking research in English. She analyses her publication practices, challenges, and strategies. She mentioned that scholarly publication could add valuable local and transnational academic research networks. Consequently, this enhances her status as a scholar and supports her scholarly publication field. Scholarly publishing could also help her choose a topic that attracted the attention in the field of Applied Linguistics. Several motivations led her to focus on scholarly publication. These included communicating her results, having her results recognized, getting more citations, obtaining promotion, as well as developing intellectually and stimulating challenges. Writing the research in English and adjusting to the specific academic conventions of the international audience also represent a problem, whereby the introduction, discussion, and the conclusions section are the most challenging sections in writing the research articles. This was attributed to the effect of L1 background which resulted in using (too) forceful language, (too) long sentences, and a (rather) wordy style in English academic writing. Therefore, it was necessary to develop genre awareness, academic literacy skills in English as well as intercultural skills and following the conventions of academic publication which needs much time and extraordinary efforts.

However, although publishing in English offers lots of benefits for her, it entails dangers including the domain loss and an undesired homogenization English academic discourse as well as national academic discourse styles in other languages. Further, the academic needs of academic publishing have not got much interests and the academic centres rarely exist. Hence, English should be conceived as a lingua franca in order to avoid L2 English scholars a disadvantageous position. It is worth mentioning that these challenges face native speakers

and non-native speakers of English. Consequently, a need arises to train L2 scholars and enhance their disciplinary, as well as their linguistic- and cultural-specific publication skills.

In chapter seven, Fang Xu explores two current approaches which inform multilingual novice writers understanding of writing for publication. On the one hand, the linguistic approach supports the deficit view of languages and shows that multilingual writers emphasize more on the linguistic competence, mainly vocabulary and grammar, rather than other aspects related to learning writing for publication, thus neglecting learning the syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy. The empirical evidence in L2 writing studies supports learning the sequences through specific methods of reading and memorization. However, in WFP, the linguistic approach could result in harming the novice writers because of taking learning to write as a context-free cognitive phenomenon, and using NS proficiency as a baseline of writing development. Accordingly, the linguistic approach is problematic since it implies a wrong structuralist view of language learning.

On the other hand, the teaching genre raises the genre awareness, but it is not sufficient in writing for publication. Genre teaching may be successful in the classroom, with both Systemic Functional Linguistics and English for Academic Purposes which offer clear and well-established pedagogies. The genre approach is different from the linguistic approach in terms of emphasizing the development of genre competence in the social contexts of discourse. In addition, the genre approach contributes to the overall purpose rather than the structural orientation in the linguistic approach, which highlights the lexico-grammar. Hence, learning to write for publication requires writers to enter the discourse community and its culture, as well as develop expertise through a long period of disciplinary apprenticeship and enculturation. Therefore, Fang Xu proposes utilizing specific language acquisition methods in the genre approach. In other words, the two approaches, Linguistic Approach and Genre Approach, lead writers to see themselves as linguistically disadvantaged. In addition, both approaches consider language as both analytical and holistic. Therefore, the two approaches complement each other by incorporating the idiomatic/holistic approach of language acquisition in the genre approach.

In chapter eight, Christine Pearson Casanave argues that writing for publication is not easy for L1 native writers, thus arguing against the common wisdom stating that writing for publication does not become easier overtime, rather it becomes more difficult. This difficulty increases because successful writing for publication does not depend primarily on language proficiency since a writer's language proficiency, familiarity with the procedures, and knowledge of specialist terminology constitute only a small part of the basics for writing for publication. By means of reading and writing and learning within a particular field, the writer can gradually acquire the topic knowledge, the specialized terminology and concepts, whereby no more extra efforts are required in this aspect. Second, in the publications process, writers can recycle the existing work in a variety of venues. A third way to make publications become easier is to build relation network and collaborate with other colleagues. In other words, writing for publication involves other complex factors that affect both L1 and L2 scholars alike. These include inquiry, thinking skills, a developing expertise, and tenacity. Hence, writing becomes more challenging since it involves continuous learning and involvement in increasingly complex and interesting projects. Moreover, publishing becomes more difficult due to the constraints imposed on the writers in terms of following a conventional norm related to content, style, and topic. In other words, even writers with high expertise may not succeed in publishing something different from the conventional style.

Another difficulty concerned with reading, editing, printing and responding to the comments of reviewers might be annoying for an old writer since some reviewers have their own criteria. Hence, patience for an expert writer can diminish with time. A third difficulty lies in following the huge explosion of information, whereby the writer gets overwhelmed and cannot choose what is more appropriate and has the feeling of missing something important. Fourth, among all these publications, it is difficult to find a well-established theory or concept from other fields to utilize it in one's own field. In addition, it is difficult to read the original sources by well-known authors whose names are dropped due to the wide spread of conceptual sources that do not present enough explanation to the original theory or concept. Another difficulty lies in going beyond the boundaries of what one thinks he or she knows in the same domain. Besides, publishing an academic paper in another language that is appropriate in its style and content to the journal as well as the audience is another challenging issue. Therefore, expanding one's knowledge can be achieved by paying attention to the projects presented by the doctoral students.

The third part of this book focuses on the perspectives of mentoring, whereby Elena Shvidko and Dwight Atkinson in chapter nine trace the journey from being a student to becoming a published writer. Definitely, publishing in English peer-reviewed journals is a sign of success though it is not an easy task for all academic writers including native and non-native speakers of English. In other words, the difficulties face native and non-native speakers of English in English academic publishing are alike. The process remains a mystery because no two cases are exactly the same. Elena Shvidko and Dwight Atkinson's study included interviews with 3 non-native and 3 native English-speaking Applied Linguists who have experienced this transition.

The interviews show the diversity of the experience based on individual characteristics. Some participants are encouraged by their institutional environment as well as their intrinsic motivation to research and publish. The participants expressed the need for persistence due to the several rejections for the same article. One of the most common difficulties is dealing with the reviewers' comments emotionally and practically. These challenges also include the length of the article. It is noticed that writing for publication implied gender differences, whereby the female students considered co-authoring and/or mentoring helpful, whereas no male writers mentioned this aspect. Consequently, the native vs. non-native distinction is of limited use in understanding the highly dimensional phenomenon of academic writing. It was also demonstrated that all courses related to English for Academic Purposes, English for Specific Purposes, and the most recent one, English for Research Publication Purposes, were directed to develop the academic writing skills of non-native English Speakers. However, academic publication represents a challenge for all writers including native and non-native English speakers. Therefore, a need arises to cope with these difficulties.

In Chapter 10, Ron Darvin and Bonny Norton illustrate how collaborative writing between a student and a supervisor can be a valuable component of academic socialization. Mentors can be socialized into new practices, and the role of the students is not only to reproduce or internalize discursive practices but also to exercise agency through resistance, innovation, and self-determination. In this regard, collaborative writing can be transformative and mutually a beneficial process of academic socialization. Consequently, the relation between a student and a supervisor could result in great potential in reconfiguring the scene of power, thereby enabling new possibilities for mutual benefits for both in the academic community.

In Chapter 11, Margaret Cargill highlights the value of writing for holding publication workshops which last from 1 to 5 days in several contexts, such as the European, Asian, and Australian ones. These workshops are different from the formal university courses in terms of the content, flexibility of the presenter's choice, and the place of making them. In other words, these workshops are prepared to address the needs of the participants represented by doctoral students and novice researchers from different language backgrounds. The advantages of the workshops format are targeting specific participants' needs and taking advantage of synergies between different types of presenters. These workshops presented evidence of increasing the confidence of the participants, writing more papers in English, and identifying how to address the publication process.

In Chapter 12, for Dana R. Ferris, publishing is a distant goal that cannot be achieved. She also mentions the emotional and mental struggles experienced by postgraduate students represented by writing difficulties, lack of persistence, health and family issue, and time management problems. Another obstacle faces the postgraduate students is their relationship with their supervisors which could lead the students to leave their studies at the institution. However, this does not imply the necessity for having a warm close relation with the supervisor since a competent supervisee can succeed even without having such relationships.

On the other hand, the supervisor expects that their supervisee should demonstrate analytical and critical skills rather than merely describing. Dana Ferris offers some ideas and suggestions to help the advisees develop skills and expertise to become successful academic writers. Step one involves establishing a reader/writer relationship through observing how writing assignments are implemented in the classroom and seminars. Step two involves providing apprenticeship through co-authoring papers with the supervisees, assigning them tasks to write and enabling them to present their papers in conferences. Step three includes guiding the advisees through the culminating requirements. In other words, the role of the supervisor is to consider the expectations of the audience who will read the theses in order to provide sufficient feedback that achieves these expectations. Next, although some supervisees are usually anxious and desperate to get the approval of the supervisor, the supervisors are usually aware if the supervisee's work is enough or not in terms of following a standard procedure in order to help the supervisee become diligent and responsible for producing a high quality work. Fourth is helping the supervisees become independent researchers and get their work published.

In chapter thirteen, Yongyan Li explored the findings from a series of qualitative case studies. Her discussion highlights four dimensions: features of junior scientists' drafts of research papers, senior authors' practices of revising papers from junior scientists, junior scientists' responses to senior authors' revision, and supervisory relation and its impact on junior scientists' publication success. Accordingly, Yongyan Li demonstrates the role of co-authoring interactions between senior scientists and junior scientists in developing the skills of junior scientists in their writing for publication. Hence, ethnographic approaches are needed to understand the processes and practices of mentoring junior scientists for research publication.

The final part of the book contains two chapters which attract the attention to the hidden roles in publishing played by the editors and reviewers. In Chapter 14, Sue Starfield and Brian Paltridge argue that the role of the journal editors known as 'gatekeeper' is more complex since they engage in sometimes difficult decision making, particularly in desk rejection

whereby the article is rejected by the editor before sending it to reviewers. Another difficult situation is when one of the reviewers recommends revisions, whereas another one rejects the submission. Consequently, the role of the editor is closer to a ‘custodian’ than a gatekeeper. Some researchers may have a different aspect towards the editors since they are the source of power in either rejecting or accepting an article. In this regard, the editor of *Second Language Writing* reveals that their roles as editors are to safeguard the reputation of the journal by selecting the best reviewers and to support the good research article during the reviewing process. However, accepting or rejecting the submitted article is not based only on the editor's decision. Rather, other factors represented by members of the journal's editorial board, policies and traditions also have a role in this domain.

Academics get no real material rewards for their time and expertise while reviewing an article, but they do it out of a sense of obligation and commitment and this often implies honour, prestige and contribution to the academic community. This reviewing is also helpful for the reviewers in improving their own writing skills. However, the reviewing process is annoying for the reviewers who should write their comments as if their identities are known to the authors in order to avoid writing destructive feedback. In contrast, the reviewers should think and write considered feedback since the comments that focus only on grammatical errors are not sufficient. Therefore, the editor has to assign another reviewer which results in delaying the decision towards the submitted article. That is to say, there is much debate on the merits and demerits of the reviewing for the reviewers. In conclusion, it can be mentioned that the editors play the role of the mediators between the reviewers and the journal publishers.

As for the authors, their responsibility is to carefully select a journal and follow the guidelines on the website of the journal since one of the main reasons for rejecting an article is sending it to the wrong journal. Another reason for rejecting the article is lack of originality, no association to the international readership and either using old references or omitting important sources related to the topic. Also, the authors should send their articles to journals they usually read, particularly the most recent volume, paying attention to the style of the article, the content, the argument used, the authors they cite publish in such journals, how authors signal their contribution in these types of journals, how hedges are used, and the types of vocabulary used to highlight the contribution. Doctoral students should also follow a reader friendly writing style and do proofreading for their article before submission. Another significant issue is the realization that publishing needs time. Therefore, the authors should manage their plan since they cannot send a message to the editor asking him or her to speed up the publication process. One of the challenging issue that faces novice authors in academic is a difficulty in interpreting the feedback of the reviewers since these latter usually make suggestions rather than write direct comments. Another issue is that the authors should learn a lot from the rejection process rather than get frustrated.

In the final chapter, Christine M. Tardy reveals the issue of the unsung heroes of academic publishing. These anonymous gatekeeping and powerful peer reviewers are considered mysterious and intimidating figures by novice scholars due to their role in the publication process and the image of the reviewers created by the novice authors. This chapter clarifies their role by exploring submissions from the reviewers' perspectives. The reviewers enter the domain of the publication process based on the decision of the editor that a certain submitted article has the potential to be published. Therefore, an invitation is sent by the editor to the reviewers, whereby experienced reviewers receive lots of invitations. As a result, a major

issue arises represented mainly by securing the reviewers by the editors. Several factors can affect the reviewer to accept reviewing, represented by the relationship with the editor, being a member in the editorial board, the involvement in other professional or reviewing matters, a professional commitment to one's academic community, the interest in the topic, the title, the methodology or the need for evidence of peer review as a professional service. However, half of the initial submissions are exposed to desk rejection by the editor without sending them to reviewing and only 5 or 15 % are accepted for publication.

Reviewers are usually given from 4 weeks to 3 month in order to complete the assigned task of reviewing that is difficult to be generalized based on the circumstances of each manuscript since some manuscripts can be finished within two hours. For some reviewers, they may start by reading the abstract, the list of references, and a skim of the whole paper to check the direction of the article, the goal of the author/s, and how the paper is constructed. After conducting this initial reading, another close reading is carried out at the same time or two days later concentrating mainly on rhetorical and content issues. For studies that report empirical findings, a lot of efforts are given to the design and the research methodology since reading carefully the aim, the research questions, the methodology, and the data analysis can reveal flaws in the design. In conclusion, reviewing manuscripts can include several goals represented by communicating the evaluation clearly to the author, providing sufficient instructions for future revisions, and maintaining a respectful tone.

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The Use of Discourse Markers in L2 English Writing by Iraqi Postgraduate Students at Karabuk University

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Abstract

The current study describes the use of discourse markers (DMs) in essay writing by Iraqi M.A. students at Karabuk University. The main aim of the current study is to find the use of DMs in essay writing by the participants. 15 Iraqi M.A. students participated in this study. 30 essays were written by the participants; each participant wrote two essays on two topics that were chosen. The DMs used by the participants were classified into four categories; a) Contrastive Markers (CDMs); b) Elaborative Markers (EDMs); c) Implicative Markers (IDMs) and d) Temporal Markers (TDMs). The findings of the current study shows that the participants used EDMs (64%) followed by TDMs (20%), CMDs (10%) and IDMs (6%). It was concluded that the students had overused the EDMs, such as 'and', 'or', 'but', 'as', and 'also'. In addition, they had misused some DMs in their writing. The study also concluded that students' ability in using discourse markers have to be developed to reach the Academic level in their writing.

Keywords: Discourse Markers, Iraqi students, Essay writing, Qualitative

1. Introduction

The issue of using discourse markers (DMs) in academic writing has attracted the interest of several studies since writing skill is the most difficult among language skills, not only for non-native but also for native speakers of the language (Norrish, 1983). In their study, Jomaa and Bidin (2017) showed that EFL Arab postgraduates' L2 writing is characterized by using long sentences (Jomaa & Bidin, 2019) because of the overuse of the relative pronouns 'that' and 'which' and the effect of their L1 (Arabic Language). In a study that included several native and non-native speakers of English, House (2013) analyzed the use of DMs and how they effect in EFL teaching. The results showed that three groups of students (native speakers of English, Japanese students, and Chinese students) shared a few characteristics and kinds of discourse markers used in their writings, such as '*first, and, so, and to conclude*'. Other studies examined the effect of DMs in the quality of the text (e.g. Dan-ni & Zheng, 2010; Ghasemi 2013; Leo, 2012). The findings showed that DMs have a major role in promoting the quality of writing when used properly (Jalilifar, 2008). Based on Rahimi (2011), the use of discourse markers was examined in more than one language, such as Danish, Chinese,

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Finnish, German, French, and Hebrew. However, limited studies have explored the use of DMs by Iraqi master students. Therefore, the current study aims at exploring the use of DMs in the essay writing by Iraqi master students at karabuk university.

2. Literature Review

Several studies have presented the definition of the word 'text'. For instance, in their study, Brown and Yule (1983, p. 190) explained the text as "*the verbal record of communicative event*", whereas Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 1) explain it as "*any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole*". According to these definitions, the text is not just putting disconnected sentences together and "*it is not just like putting the parts together and making a whole out of it; there should be relationship between the sentences*" (Sadeghi & Kargar, 2014, p. 329). Thus, a written text needs coherence and cohesion provided by cohesive devices and is accomplished by properly constructing sentences through cohesive ties (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). As for coherence, it is concerned mainly with "*the semantic relations that allow a text to be understood and used*" and it is based on the "*writer's purpose, the audience's knowledge, and expectation*" (Witte & Faigley, 1981, p. 202). Obviously, it could be argued that coherence does not have the same specific definition as cohesion (Wang & Guo, 2014). Hence, the main focus of this analysis is the construction of cohesion by cohesive devices rather than coherence. In addition, it will study and evaluate the discourse markers as cohesive devices that create a meaningful text by connecting sentences. "To communicate appropriately in written texts, it is essential for students to learn about cohesive and coherent devices" (Sadeghi & Kargar, 2014, p. 329).

2.1 Discourse Markers (DMs)

Discourse markers were defined by Sadeghi and Kargar (2014, p. 329) as lexical terms which are used for connecting the segments and the sentences in the discourse or the text. Zarei (2013) added that as the discourse markers are "*words or phrases that function within the linguistic system to establish relationships between topics or grammatical units in discourse (as with the use of words like because, so, then*" (p. 108). Thus, the definition of the term DMs is so complex. In this regard, Sadeghi and Kargar (2014) state that it is too difficult to make a specific definition for the term DMs and also to state their functions easily, as their roles may change according to the researcher's point of view. As a result, many terms are used instead of discourse markers, such as "*comment clause, connective, continuer, discourse connective, discourse-deictic item, discourse operator, discourse particle, discourse-shift marker, discourse word, filler, fumble, gambit, hedge, initiator, interjection, marker, marker of pragmatic structure, parenthetical phrase, (void) pragmatic connective, pragmatic expression, pragmatic particle and reaction signal*" (Brinton, 1996, p. 29). Other terms and labels were also used to refer to the discourse markers, including "pragmatic connectives" (van Dijk, 1979), "discourse particles" (Schourup, 1985) and "discourse connectives" (Warner, 1985; Blakemore, 1987) (Bell, 2010, p. 515). These different expressions show that DMs are studied for various linguistic approaches (Urgelles-Coll, 2010). In addition, DMs are argued to be "*one of the most ambiguous phenomena*" in linguistics (Polat, 2011, p. 3746). However, these concepts have a common feature since "*they impose a relationship between some aspect of the discourse segment they are a part of, call it S2, and some aspect of a prior discourse segment call it S1*" (Fraser, 1999, p. 938). In conclusion, Brinton summarizes the features of DMs used as pragmatic markers (1996, pp. 33-34). Because the DMs may be used more than one time in a sentence, they should be used carefully and

properly in the sentences. These discourse markers are generally used in an initial position of the sentence, but they may be used in the middle or the end position of the sentence as well. However, the translation of DMs into another language is very complex because of their “semantic shallowness” (Svartvik, 1979 & Stubbs, 1983, p. 69 as cited in Brinton, 1996, p. 34). Therefore, the present study aims at exploring the use of discourse markers by EFL Iraqi master students at Karabuk University.

2.2 Research Questions

For the purpose of this study, the following two research questions were explored.

- 1- What are the DMs used by the Iraqi master students in their essay writing?
- 2- To what extent are DMs misused or overused by the Iraqi master students?

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

A qualitative approach was adopted in the current study to explore the use of discourse markers in L2 English essays by Iraqi master students. Current study followed the semantic perspective of Fraser (2004) in classifying of the discourse markers. The DMs are classified as follows into four categories:

- Contrastive Markers (CDMs), such as *alternatively, in spite of, conversely, but, although, in contrast, despite...*
- Elaborative Markers (EDMs), such as *by the same token, in particular, above all, equally, also, for example, and...*
- Implicative Markers (IDMs), such as *as a conclusion, all things considered, so, as a consequence, after all, therefore, accordingly, hence, then...*
- Temporal Markers (TDMs), such as *eventually, as soon as, meantime, finally, before, meanwhile, first, after...*

3.2 Sampling

15 Male students participated in this study; they wrote 30 essays. 10 essays are on each topic which they are (what is the role of literature in teaching language? write about the characteristics of Victorian literature, and write about the characteristics of Modern literature.) Each essay is more than 1000 words. In this study, the soft application (AntConc) was used to analyze the writing of the Iraqi M.A. students.

4. Findings

The results are presented as follows, in the order of the research questions:

- **Research question one:** What are the DMs used by the Iraqi M.A. students in their essay writing?

Table 1. DMs Used by Iraqi Master Students

Discourse Marker Categories	Discourse markers used by the Participants
Elaborative Markers (EDMs)	In particular, Above all, Equally, Also, For example, And, Besides, Moreover, Furthermore, Such as, In addition, Because
Temporal Markers (TDMs)	Eventually, As soon as, Finally, Before, First, After, Firstly, Secondly, Thirdly, Lastly, Next, As
Contrastive Markers (CDMs)	In spite of, But, Although, In contrast, Despite, However, Or, Otherwise
Implicative Markers (IDMs)	So, As a consequence, After all, Therefore, Accordingly, Hence, Thus, Then

Table 1 shows the total rate of the DMs that were used by the participants. The DMs used by the participants were classified into four categories according to the classification of Fraser (2004): 1) Contrastive Markers (CDMs); 2) Elaborative Markers (EDMs); 3) Implicative Markers (IDMs) and 4) Temporal Markers (TMDs). Based on Table 1, it can be seen that the participants had used in total 40 different DMs which involved 12 TDMs, 12 EDMs, 8 IDMs, and 8 CDMs.

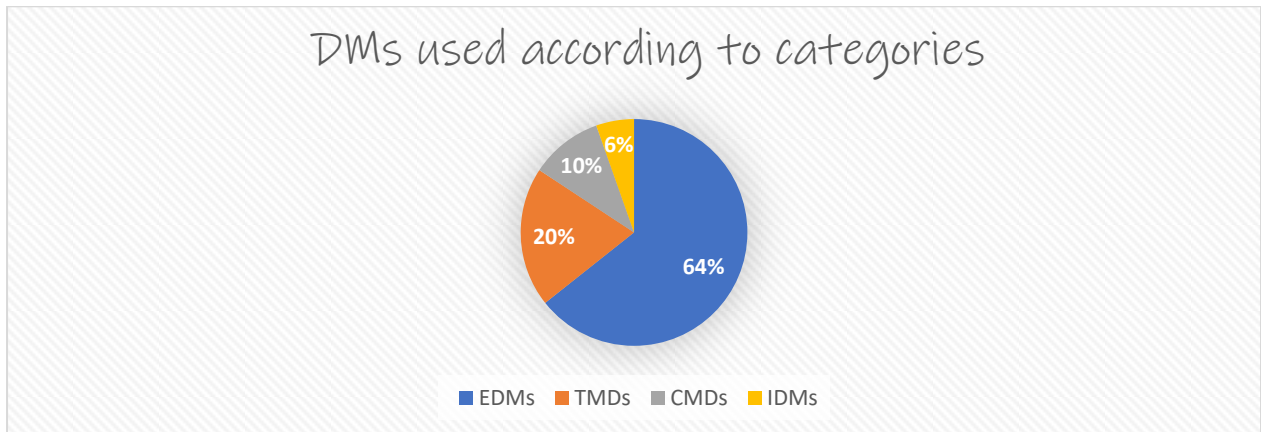


Figure 1. DMs Used by Iraqi Students According to the Categories

Figure 1 shows the DMs used by the Iraqi master students according to the categories. The findings show that the students used EDMs (64%), followed by TDMs (20%), CDMs (10%), and IDMs (6%).

In Table 2, all the DMs used by the Iraqi master students are demonstrated. The findings of the current study show the same result with the findings of earlier studies done by Ab Manan

and Raslee (2016), whereby they found that students used a high rate of EDMs in their writing. Also, Martinez (2004) found that students used a high rate of EDMs, such as ‘and’, ‘because’, ‘for example’ and ‘also’.

Table 2. *Frequency of DMs Used by Iraqi Master Students*

CDMs		IDMs	
In spite of	2	So	79
But	129	As a consequence	1
Although	13	After all	1
In contrast	1	Therefore	20
Despite	5	Accordingly	3
However	26	Hence	6
Or	155	Then	41
Otherwise	1	Thus	24
EDMs		TDMs	
In particular	2	Eventually	4
Above all	1	As soon as	1
Equally	1	Finally	10
Also	89	Before	19
For example	17	First	87
And	1536	After	37
Besides	6	Firstly	4
Moreover	13	Secondly	8
Furthermore	9	Thirdly	3
Such as	42	Lastly	2
In addition	13	Next	4
Because	82	As	465

Table 3. shows the use of DMs in each topic that participants wrote about (Characteristics of Modern Literature, Characteristics of Victorian Literature, and The Role of Literature in Language Teaching) We can see the frequency of using some DMs instead of using other types.

Table 3. *Discourse Markers Used in Each Group*

DMs	Characteristics of Modern Literature	Characteristics of Victorian Literature	The Role of Literature in Language Teaching
CDMs			
In spite of	/	2	/
But	46	66	17
Although	7	5	1
In contrast	1	/	/
Despite	2	3	/
However	9	7	10
Or	38	54	63
Otherwise	/	1	/
EDMs			
In particular	1	2	/
Above all	/	1	/
Equally	1	/	/
Also	31	34	32
For example	8	3	6
And	540	689	557
Besides	/	/	6
Moreover	6	3	4
Furthermore	1	4	4
Such as	19	12	11
In addition	4	4	5
Because	22	32	28
IDMs			
So	30	29	20
As a consequence	/	1	/
After all	1	/	/
Therefore	8	6	6
Accordingly	/	2	1
Hence	/	4	2
Then	18	14	9
Thus	8	9	7
TDMs			
Eventually	2	1	1
As soon as	1	/	/
Finally	3	4	3
Before	10	8	1
First	41	34	12
After	22	12	3
Firstly	1	1	2
Secondly	3	3	2
Thirdly	2	1	/
Lastly	2	/	/
Next	2	1	1
As	183	156	126

- The other part of the findings addresses the question of the extent of misusing or overusing the discourse markers by the Iraqi master students.

Table 4. *Examples of Some Misused DMs by Iraqi Master Students*

P:05 Although the origin of the novel is bourgeois, but new movements are needed to be different from the past age of the novel.

P:13 I personally believe thus when language learners know about the culture of the language they are learning,

In Table 4, participant 5 misused the CDM ‘but’ which must be removed to make the sentence correct. Also, the sentence by participant 13 included a misuse of the IDM ‘thus’ instead of using EDM ‘that’ to make his sentence correct.

Table 5. *A Sample of Overused of DMs by Iraqi Master Students*

P:09 rockets, and so forth, from parents until they landed on the island. Wars and all other negative effects, like war-related deception, destroyed old truths and values, and therefore innocence was gone. The memory of these evils persists with all the boys. Therefore, Lord of the Flies is seen as a criticism of modern human civilization. Golding's vision of humanity and i....

P:13 In one hand, the development in the factories and industry, strong females “angel in the home”(Bowler, 1984, p.67) as they were educated and many middle and upper class women were great readers, and even more there were also a good women writers. On the other hand, these factors showed progress which brought many concerns and questions.

Another problem committed by the participants is the overuse of DMs. Table 5 showed that the participants overused the DMs in their L2 English writing. In both Paragraphs, the participants overused the DMs to make up for their limited vocabulary since some of the Iraqi master students still have limited vocabulary. They overused a high rate of the DM ‘and’ in their sentences. Therefore, this overuse resulted in a weak L2 English writing.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

The main aim of the current study was to explore the use of DMs by Iraqi master students at Karabuk University. The current study concluded that although the participants in the study are in the master level (Academic level), they still have to develop their writing skills to achieve the academic level in their writing. The use of DMs in their essay writing did not

make perfect cohesion and coherence because they had either misused the discourse markers or overused them. Consequently, this linguistic use affected their writing and made it weak instead of making it strong and effective. In addition, the results showed that the participants used a very high rate of EDMs instead of using another type of DMs to make effective and high-quality sentences. In addition, the findings of the current study were very close to the findings of earlier studies (Ab Manan & Raslee, 2016), whereby they found that the students used a high rate of EDMs in their writing. Also, Martinez (2004) found a similar result implying that the students used a high rate of EDMs. They used a high rate of EDMs such as ‘and’, ‘because’, ‘for example’ and ‘also’. However, EFL students need to be guided in their use of DMs in their writing. To solve this issue, courses related to Academic writing should be offered at the university. However, the current study is limited only to analysing the discourse markers by Iraqi master students at Karabuk University. Therefore, as Jomaa (2019) suggests, due to the complexity of both academic and non-academic discourses, multiple approaches and methods should be followed in order to obtain both emic and etic perspectives from a writer through employing varied lenses.

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A Book Review of Code-Switching: Unifying Contemporary and Historical Perspectives

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Abstract

Code-Switching: Unifying Contemporary and Historical Perspectives Book Review by Mareike L. Keller. ISBN-13: 9783030346676 Related ISBNs: 9783030346669

Keywords: Code switching, Historical, Linguistic analysis

Traditionally, the theoretical study of the different aspects of linguistic analysis including semantics, vocabulary, etc. constituted overall what linguistically termed later as the field of historical linguistics. The researchers' increasing interest in applied linguistics led to the exploration of many linguistic phenomena, especially those relating to language communication. One of these phenomena was code-switching (CS), which attracted the attention of researchers just a few decades ago as a phenomenon originates from language communication in multicultural or bilingual communities.

Keller's book provides an overview of theory and research related to CS and traces it since its inception to the current use. Basing on a post-doctoral research on CS in historical text, Keller managed to write this informative book. It discusses exclusively classic CS as created by bilinguals who have at their disposal two clearly separable grammatical systems. It is divided into four chapters.

Chapter one is devoted to an introduction, in which the author historically traces and introduces examples of CS as found in the speeches and letters of Martin Luther. It highlights literature review relevant to this subject like that written by Trotter 2000, Schendl and Wright 2011, Jefferson and Putter 2013 and Pahta et al. 2017 in particular.

Chapter two deals with the term code-switching, its origin, and development. It addresses the phenomenon of CS in a structural manner, in particular with regard to morphosyntactic characteristics, i.e. the grammar of bilingual speech and writing. Additionally, The Matrix Language Frame Model (MLF Model),

established by Myers-Scotton in 1993, is explained in the context of its development. The author tries to shed light on the *Constraint-Based Approaches*, i.e. the *Free Morpheme Constraint* and the *Equivalence Constraint*, presented by Poplack 1980. Furthermore, the author traces historically the history of bilingualism and compares it to the systemic approach to contemporary oral CS. In some degree of detail, the difficulties of dealing with historical texts are discussed later.

Unlike chapter two, chapter three deals with the MLF model and the related surrounding issues at length. Throughout this chapter, the author presents two examples which illustrate why close examination of the original manuscripts is necessary to obtain a reliable basis for testing or creating any hypothesis on historical written text. This chapter elaborates on these two examples of historical CS and illustrates what can be inferred from combining modern, data driven code-switching theory with historical data in a systematic way. These two examples (studies) are considered to be complementary. The first research explores mixing patterns within and around the noun phrase, while mixing patterns within the verb phrase are explored in the second.

After an introduction to current CS studies in chapter two, and an elaboration of its application to historical data in chapter three, chapter four addresses the results of its implications for CS theory as well as more general questions regarding language processing and language alternation. The questions explored in chapter four link the empirical results from chapter three to the theoretical problems raised in chapter two. In order to clarify the distinctions between current oral and historical written CS, the author has given specific attention to the prestigious status of Latin and its mode of acquisition in medieval times. Then an approach to historical CS theoretical modelling is introduced, based on the Matrix Language Frame model, which is designed to capture the observed volatility and consistency of language-mixing pattern. The chapter provides a perspective on possible future steps that could be taken to further analysis of historical bilingualism and cooperation in contemporary CS research with experts. It ends with an overview, posing a number of related concerns which can be addressed using the interdisciplinary approach outlined in this book.

Throughout the book, the author tries to explain to the readers that modern approaches to CS can help unlock the secrets of historical texts, and that historical bilingual documents provide a rich testing ground for current theories in return. It focuses on structural linguistics and the analysis builds on a morphosyntactically-based model, namely MLF Model. The goal of the book is to present an integrated approach to CS study showing what can be learned from a clear theoretical approach to both oral and historical data.

All in all, because of its theoretical and practical importance in exploring the phenomenon of CS historically, this book is a valuable guide for sociolinguists, scholars and language teachers alike.