Artificial Intelligence formulated this projection for compatibility purposes from the original article published at Global Journals. However, this technology is currently in beta. *Therefore, kindly ignore odd layouts, missed formulae, text, tables, or figures.*

The Paradox of the Quest for Global Peace and the Linguistic Violence of Some Countries' National Anthems: A Critical Discourse Perspective

Samson Olasunkanmi Oluga¹, Teh Chee Seng² and Gerard Sagaya Raj Rajoo³

¹ Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman

Received: 9 June 2015 Accepted: 2 July 2015 Published: 15 July 2015

8 Abstract

4

5

6

It is axiomatic that the United Nations basically symbolizes peace and unity which member 9 states or nations are expected to epitomize. Paradoxically, the anthems of many nations 10 exhibit linguistic violence and rationalize or encourage using arms, shedding blood, going to 11 war and paying supreme sacrifice. For example, we have expressions like ?Hurry to arms 12 people of Boyamo?, ?To arms citizens! Form your battalions?, ?War war! Soak our 13 homeland?s flag in the wave of blood?, ?Let us form cohorts, we are ready to die?, ?we will 14 drink from death and never be to our enemies like slaves?, ?Our flag red with blood of victory, 15 let us hasten to the battlefield?, ?Arise Togo! Let us struggle without faltering, victory or 16 death but dignity? and ?We will be risen with weapons in our hands. Death, yes death but 17 not shame? in the national anthems of Cuba, France, Mexico, Italy, Iraq, Vietnam, Togo and 18 Senegal respectively. This paper identifies the linguistic violence of some countries? national 19 anthems, attempts a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) of the various forms of linguistic 20 violence identified and suggests a linguistic overhaul of the affected countries? anthems. This 21 is to discourage a situation where anthems that should be instrumental to societal tranquility 22 and harmony now encourage violent acts and attacks. 23

24

25 Index terms— global peace, linguistic violence, national anthems, CDA, linguistic overhaul.

26 **1** I.

²⁷ 2 Introduction/Background

our key concepts are fundamental to the thematic focus of the present paper which are global peace, linguistic violence, national anthem and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). They represent the bedrock of the paper which necessitates an isagogic semantic interpretation of each of these concepts to serve a roadmap to subsequent exploration cum explication of the subject matter of the paper. It is against this background that the paper commences with a semantic illumination of each of the first three basic concepts while the fourth concept, which doubly serves as a theory and methodology, is discussed as a preamble to the critical analysis of the linguistic violence of identified anthems of nations.

35 **3 II.**

36 The Concept of (Global) Peace

The word peace etymologically derives from the Latin word 'pax' which simply means "freedom from civil disorder". This must have informed the definition of peace as "the lack or absence of war" as contained in the United Nation Charter. However, Albert Einstein is of the opinion that Peace does not simply represent or

4 III. CONCEPT OF (LINGUISTIC) VIOLENCE

symbolise absence of war but the presence of justice, law, order and good government. Sander and Perkins
(2012), therefore, sees the simplistic definition of peace as absence of war as a serious oversight which ignores
"the residual feelings of mistrust and suspicion that winners and losers of wars harbour towards each other".

To them, such a definition of peace is another way of defining cold war. Peace, therefore, is more than just the absence of war and this is evident even in the way the synonymous Hawaiian 'Aloha', Arabic 'Salam' or Hebrew 'Shalom' is used as a mode of greeting. The United Nations however puts the records straight by describing culture of peace as the prevention or avoidance of violence and conflict based on the principles of gender equality, tolerance, human rights, peace education, disarmament etc.

The quest for global peace and security or safety has always been the primary focus or objective of the United 48 Nations as well its various agencies. This is not surprising because even its forerunner, the leagues of nations, was 49 conceived and established in 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles basically to facilitate international cooperation 50 and for the purpose of global peace and security. This was after the International Peace Conference of 1899 held 51 in The Hague to discuss the instruments for peaceful settlement of crises, prevention of wars and codification 52 of warfare rules. The League of Nations ceased to exist as it could not prevent the Second World War and was 53 succeeded by the United Nations. The UN officially came into existence on 24th October, 1945 when its Charter 54 55 was signed by the representatives of 50 countries after its ratification by United States, United Kingdom, Soviet 56 Union, China and France. The United Nations was, therefore, established, as jointly put by the then President 57 Franklin Roosevelt of United States, Prime Minister Winston Churchill of United Kingdom and Premier Joseph 58 Stalin of the Soviet Union, as an international organization to facilitate global peace and security.

Many notable steps have been taken by the United Nations at different points in time in line with its 59 commitment to the peace and security of all and sundry across the globe. We have the adoption of the Convention 60 on the Elimination of All Forms of Discriminations against Women by the UN National Assembly on 18th 61 December, 1979. There was the United Nations Agenda on Peace Making, Peace Keeping and Peace Building 62 in 1992 during the tenure of Boutros Boutros-Ghali. We have the Peace Building Commission put in place by 63 the UN General Assembly on 20th December, 2005 to help countries emerging from conflicts/wars to achieve 64 sustainable peace. There are also organs or agencies of the United Nations that aim at promoting gender equality 65 and empowerment of women to mention just a few of the steps taken by the United Nations in the quest for 66

67 sustainable global peace.

⁶⁸ 4 III. Concept of (Linguistic) Violence

69 The word violence according to ??emke (2011: 1) refers to the use of force as a tool for some human purpose, 70 individual or social, to which human beings as social actors are vulnerable. This is often exploited because 71 of the possibility of "human actions being controlled by the fact, meaning and anticipation of pains inflated by others". This definition of violence is traceable to the etymology of the word which according to ??detunji 72 73 (2010:10) emanates from the Latin word 'violare' which basically means 'force' while the word force according to Fliethmann (2006), also from the Latin word 'fortis', means violence. Violence according to ??ullivan (2012: 74 385) refers to "behaviour that is intended to bring pain or physical injury to another person or to harm or destroy 75 property". North, Wallis and Weingast (2009) however, points out the fact that virtually all human societies 76 face the problem of violence either in the form of physical violence or via the coercive threat of physical violence 77 which are both elements of violence. 78

79 Various forms of violence have been identified by different writers and researchers. We have media violence 80 which according to ??rend (2007:2) is all about mass media violence now escalating with the influx of violent materials in mass communication. Baumeister and Bushman (2011:301) identify domestic violence as that which 81 occurs in a family or within the home. There is structural violence which Demenchorok and Peterson (2005: 51) 82 describe as "the institutionally caused harms that are not only predictable but have been predicted and debated 83 and for which preventive measures could have been taken". Mooney, Knox and Schacht (2011) identify gender 84 (based) violence as that meted to or sustained by the victims due to their gender especially girls or women. 85 We also have mass violence which Hogg and Vaughan (2011) describe as large scale or collective violence that 86 usually claim several lives. Blanquer (2005) identify some other forms of violence like ethnic violence occurring 87 within members of an ethnic group or between those of different ethnic groups, state violence which involves a 88 government, street violence like that peculiar to gangsters and selfdirected violence like suicide. We can also have 89 90 sport and religious forms of violence common among fanatical supporters and adherents respectively. Linguistic 91 violence focused in this paper is a form of violence that is now arousing the interest of researchers, especially 92 with the consideration or declaration of sexism/sexist language use as a form of linguistic violence. ??detunji 93 (2010: 11) defines linguistic violence as a concept that explains the social and psychological use of language to abuse, offend or hurt people. He identifies linguistic violence as a product or manifestation of patriarchal 94 hegemonic societal structure emanating from the asymmetric gender relation that makes the suppressed females 95 to be linguistically oppressed by the males. Another term used to describe violence involving language use is 96 verbal violence. Fiske-Rusciano (2009:272) points to this in declaring that "violence -physical, verbal, emotional, 97 emotional and sexual is used to enforce the dominance of the perpetrators and the subordination of the victims. 98

⁹⁹ 5 NB Its ends with quotation mark

Three main forms of linguistic violence have been identified by Gay (1999), namely, subtle form of linguistic 100 violence, abusive form of linguistic violence and grievous form of linguistic violence. Three subcategories of the 101 subtle linguistic violence are also identified which, according to him, are found in some children jokes, literary 102 restrictions and imposition of official languages. He further identifies heterosexual language, racist language and 103 sexist language as subcategories of the abusive linguistic violence. The grievous linguistic violence, to him, can 104 also be subclassified as warist language, nuclear language and genocidal language. The third form of the grievous 105 linguistic violence happens to be the one that has direct bearing with the subject of this paper i.e. the linguistic 106 violence of anthems especially the sub-category called warist language. This is basically because many of the 107 anthems of affected nations or countries do encourage citizens to use weapons of war, to be ready to go to war 108 and to be prepared to die, thereby, making supreme sacrifice of their precious lives for their beloved nations. 109

¹¹⁰ 6 IV. Concept of National Anthems

The word anthem and national anthem are sometimes used interchangeably and synonymously, whereas, they 111 112 are not exactly the same. This is because while a national anthem is a form of anthem, an anthem may not 113 be a national anthem. An anthem, according to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, is a song that has a special importance for a country, an organization or a particular group of people which is sung on specific 114 115 occasions. An anthem according to ??ellen (2003: 166) refers to "the words that must always be sung, that have always been sung whose words and tune seem like permanent signs thereby making entities like nations appear 116 permanent". Kellen further adds that "the anthems of nations participate in a dynamic nexus between, on the 117 one side, official and unofficial cultures and real/imaginary schema of power and identity, on the other hand". 118

To Cerulo (1989), national anthems are recognized patriotic symbols representing national identity or character and usually employed by government of nations as instruments of cohesive bond among citizens and means of reinforcing target goals. ??yridis et al. (2009:5) stress the significance of the national anthem by describing it as "the most important symbol of every modern nation(al) state the lyrics of which include reference to the people's glorious past, the love and respect to homeland and its symbols". They further add that anthems possibly provide the strongest and clearest statement of national identity and serve as modern totem as they bear special relationship with the countries or nations they represent.

National anthems are, therefore, unique symbols/documents of national identity that are characteristic of 126 virtually all the nations of the world. They, therefore, stand out among the array of state/national icons that have 127 been identified like flags, coat of arms, monuments, myths etc. (Raento, Hamalainen & Mikkonen, 2004; Webster, 128 129 2006). They are usually carefully worded and poetically articulated/composed for them to specially convey their intended messages or meanings to their target audiences, especially the citizens of the nation or countries in 130 131 question so as to have the desired effects. It is in the light of this that just as notable international organisations 132 like UN, AU, EU, ASEAN and FIFA have unique anthems, different countries of the world also have distinct 133 national anthems. These anthems usually epitomize the respective organisations or nations and could be made to capture or reflect facts about their histories, geographies, politics, cultures, economies, ideologies and aspirations 134 135 among others. It is in the light of this that an anthem happens to be one of the very first things put in place when a nation (state) emerges, hence, even South Sudan the newest member state of V. Critical Discourse Analysis 136 (cda) of the Linguistic Violence of National Anthems 137

This paper presents a critique of the anthems of nations from the continents of Africa, Asia, South America, 138 North America, Europe, and Australia/Oceania linguistically explored and with identified cases of linguistic 139 violence of various forms. The anthems of forty (40) countries identified out of those of the one hundred and 140 ninety-four (194) United Nations member states or nations linguistically explored are critically explicated using 141 142 a qualitative critical discourse analytical approach. These include anthems originally written in English, which is obviously an international language, and those translated to English from other native languages of the different 143 countries with the affected national anthems. However, those analysed here are the ones classified as grievous 144 forms of linguistic violence by Gay (1999) which do not directly incorporate the abusive linguistic violence 145 characterised by sexist language which Adetunji (2010) explicitly discussed. 146

The Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) becomes inevitable in critiquing the linguistic violence of anthems of 147 affected nations for some fundamental reasons. Basically, the theoretico-methodological (analytical) approach, 148 according to Luke (1007), is essential in identifying, describing, explaining and critiquing social life in spoken or 149 written texts. Titscher, Meyer, Wodak and Vetter (2000: 164) also point out that CDA focuses "dominance and 150 power relations between social entities and classes, between women and men, between national, ethnic, religious, 151 152 sexual, political, cultural, and sub-cultural groups". In a similar vein, ??yoola (2008:98) expressly declares that 153 CDA centres on "matters of grave concern to humanity such as inequality, injustice, all kinds of discriminations 154 or oppressive behaviours, all shades of ideological discrepancies and societal conflicts". Dijk (2001), therefore, 155 states that CDA aids critical analysis and understanding serous social issues or societal problems emanating from or reflected in public texts and talks. 156

Specifically, the Norman Fairclough's three dimensional model or framework of CDA is adapted in the analysis of the identified cases of linguistic violence of anthems. The ideas of this basic Faircloughian analytical approach are, however, reinforced with some fundamental ideas or components of Wodak's Discourse Historical Analysis and Dijk's Socio-Cognitive Analysis. The choice of the three dimensional model as the basic analytical framework

is informed by the fact that it is seen as a most developed theoretico- dimensions namely the description of text 161 or textual analysis, the interpretation of text or process analysis and the explanation of text or social analysis. 162 The description or textual analysis marks the first stage of the Faircloughian Critical Discourse Analysis which 163 examines texts from purely linguistic perspective. The interpretation or process analysis marks the second stage of 164 Fairclough's three dimensional analytical framework which centres on the process of text production, consumption 165 and interpretation or comprehension. The explanation or social analysis of text represents the third level of the 166 Fairclough's tripartite critical discourse perspective or approach which views text contents from the view point 167 of the social structure, societal tradition or cultural system to identify the sociocultural, socio-political or socio-168 ideological motivation of texts. The description of the linguistic violence of anthems is based on the analysis of 169 the various forms of expressions used to communicate or disseminate the different ideas identified as forms or 170 elements of linguistic violence of anthems of nations. The first form of description will be a categorization of 171 the various expressions considered as cases of linguistic violence of anthems which represents a classification that 172 is based on the central ideas of the expressions conveying the identified violent ideas. This, however, is not a 173 water tight classification as some are intertwined or interrelated. The second form of description of the linguistic 174 violence of the anthems of nations involves the syntactic analysis of the various expressions communicating the 175 identified linguistic violence of anthems. This is done with a view to identifying the various forms of sentences 176

- 177 used in wording the linguistically violent ideas of anthems.
- 7 Description/Text Analysis Explanation/Social Analysis In terpretation/Process Analysis Socio-Cognitive Analysis
- 180 8 Discourse Historical Analysis

¹⁸¹ 9 a) Central-Idea-Based Description of the Linguistic Violence ¹⁸² of Anthems of Nations

This involves the description of the identified violent expressions of anthems of nations based on the main ideas conveyed in these expressions which border on the semantic implications of the expressions. The linguistic exploration of the anthems of nations shows variety of the expressions identified as cases of linguistic violence of anthems of nations. These include targetgoal-oriented linguistic violence, enemy-resisting linguistic violence, opponent-targeted linguistic violence, dislike-preventing linguistic violence, territory/national interest-protecting linguistic violence, pro-suicide (supreme sacrifice) linguistic violence, deathjustifying/rational violence and waralluding linguistic violence of anthems.

¹⁹⁰ 10 b) Target-Goal-Oriented Linguistic Violence of National ¹⁹¹ Anthems

This is in respect of some expressions of anthems of nations which advocate violent acts or actions for the purpose of attaining some target goals considered to be of national interest or for the benefit of the people. For example, such expressions may aim at galvanizing the target audience towards achieving liberty or independence from some forces directly or indirectly controlling the nations in question. There are two main anthems of nations which exhibit this type of linguistic violence which are the anthems of Honduras and Burkina Faso the specific portions of which are shown below:

¹⁹⁸ 11 i. Anthem of Honduras (Stanza Seven)

¹⁹⁹ To guide this sacred emblem, line1 We shall, oh fatherland, to our death, line 2

Our death will be honored if we die thinking of your love line 3 Many, Honduras, shall die for you but shall fall in honor line 4

ii. Anthem of Burkina Faso (Chorus)

One single night has brought together our people line5 With all the people of the world line 6 In the acquisition of liberty and progress line 7 Motherland or death, we shall conquer line 8 c) Enemy-Resisting Linguistic Violence of National Anthems

This form of linguistic violence employed in some national anthems aimed at preventing the activities of those identified or labelled as enemies of the nations in question. The linguistic violence therefore is intended to mobilize the target audience of the anthems to disallow any anticipated or perceived moves of those seen as adversaries of nations aimed at oppressing the people or subjecting them to humiliation. This form of violence can be described as a form of violence suggested as a means of halting or preventing some other types of violence. The anthems of Togo, Thailand, Poland and France have expressions depicting this form of linguistic violence as shown below: iii. Anthem of Ukraine (One Stanza Anthem)

Our enemies will die as the dew in the sunshine line 3 And we, too, brothers, we'll live happily in our land line 4 We'll not spare either our souls or bodies to get freedom line 5 And we will prove that we brothers are of Kozak kin line 10 e) Dislike-Preventing Linguistic Violence of National Anthems This is in relation to the linguistic violence exhibited in some countries anthems intended as a means of stopping certain happenings that the nations in question and the citizens seriously detest especially those considered to be inimical to their

development. Such anthems therefore use strongly worded violent expressions to encourage the people to prevent the occurrence or recurrence of those things that the countries do not want to experience at all or again like

oppression, enslavement, colonialism or neocolonialism. Countries with anthems having elements of this type of

221 linguistic violence include Romania, Seychelles, Senegal, Guatemala, Bolivia and Mexico as shown below:

i. Anthem of Romania (One Stanza Anthem)

We'd rather die in battle, in elevated glory line 13 Than live again enslaved on our ancestral land line 14

ii. Anthem of Seychelles (Stanza One) Never, never shall we cease struggling line 3 Death rather than to live in slavery! line 4

iii. Anthem of Senegal (Stanza Five)

But if the enemy violates our frontiers, line 1 We will all be ready, weapons in our hand; line 2 This form of 227 linguistic violence of anthems is premised on the need defend the cause of the nation as a sovereign geographical 228 entity or protect the interest of the nation. The violent actions advocated in the anthems of such nations are 229 aimed at confronting any force or entity that may try to jeopardize the continued existence of the nation. Some 230 of the anthems of nations that have elements of this kind of linguistic violence include Algeria, Uruguay, Albania, 231 Tunisia and Paraguay as shown below: This, simply put, refers to the linguistic violence of some anthems of 232 233 nations that advocates patriotic suicide by encouraging citizens to be ready for supreme sacrifice of their lives if the need arises for the sake of their beloved nations. This slightly differs from those already discussed as it 234 235 does not present an alternative option of living since it is sacrificial death believed to be a glorifying death as 236 some have put it. This kind of linguistic violence of anthems is in the anthems of countries like UAE, Armenia, Turkey, Romania and Turkmenistan as shown below: Anthems with the death-justifying/rationalizing elements 237 of linguistic violence are the one which do not only encourage the idea of patriotic suicide in defence of the 238 cause of the state or nation but which go further to justify or rationalize the suicidal act. Such anthems try to 239 paint a better picture of death when it is for the sake of the beloved nation as opposed to the unthinkable and 240 unimaginable picture of death that is not appealing to a vast majority of people and which is usually the last 241 thing many will want to even think of or consider. There four anthems that exhibit elements of this type of 242 linguistic violence of anthems which are the anthems of Haiti, Tunisia, Cuba and Romania illustrated below: i. 243 Anthem of Cuba (Stanza One) You do not fear a glorious death line 3 Because to die for the country is to live 244

245 line 4

- 246 ii. Anthem of Haiti (Stanza Five)
- For the flag, for our country line 1/2 To die is a fine thing! line 3
- 248 iii. Anthem of Romania (One Stanza Anthem)
- 249 We'd rather die in battle, in elevated glory line 15 Than live again enslave in our ancestral land line 16
- i) War-Alluding/Battle Reminding Linguistic Violence of Anthems

The linguistic violence of anthems in this category is not as a result of a blatant request for violent 251 actions/attacks or flagrant demand for the use of weapons against perceived enemies or labelled opponents. 252 Rather, it is such that uses a given narrative technique to recapitulate some past wars or battles considered to 253 be significant part of the people's or the nation's historical antecedent. However, the vivid description of some 254 wars in the anthems of some nations cannot but touch some people emotionally, make some to develop hatred 255 for those behind the devastating wars or possibly make them feel like revenging if given the opportunity. The 256 United States, Ireland, Qatar, Iraq and Ecuador are countries with anthems that represent allusion to wars or 257 battles as indicated in the following lines of their respective anthems: 258

- i. Anthem of the United States (Stanza One, Three & Four)
- O'er the ramparts we watched, were so gallantly streaming? line 4/1 And the rockets' red glare, the bomb bursting in air, line 5/1 Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there line 6/1
- ii. Anthem of Benin Republic (Stanza One)
- Formerly, at her call, our ancestors line 1 Knew how to engage in mighty battles line 2 With strength, courage, ardor, and full of joy, but at the price of blood line 3
- iii. Anthem of Qatar (One Stanza Anthem)
- Qatar is the land of the fore fathers line 8 Our protectors at the time of war We live and die loyal to Tunisia line 11 A life of dignity and a death of glory line 12
- 268 VII. Sentence Function Description of the Linguistic Violence of National Anthems

The declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory sentences are the four traditional functional types 269 of sentences used in various ways to convey the ideas of the anthems identified as cases of linguistic violence. The 270 declarative sentence makes an objective or subjective statement which usually starts with a capital letter and 271 end with a full stop or period. An imperative sentence gives a directive or command which starts with a capital 272 letter and ends with a full stop or an exclamation mark. The interrogative sentence asks a question therefore 273 starting with capital letter and ending with a question mark. The exclamatory sentence conveys strong feeling 274 of fear, shock, joy, pain or anger starting with a capital letter and ending with an exclamation mark. However, 275 only the declarative, imperative and interrogative sentences are usually recognised as far as the grammatical 276 moods of sentences are concerned. These three forms of sentences can be made exclamatory by ending them with 277 exclamation marks. The different functional types of sentences of the expressions identified as cases of linguistic 278 violence of anthems are shown below: 279

²⁸⁰ 12 j) Declarative Sentences of the Linguistic Violence of Na ²⁸¹ tional Anthems

There are a number of declarative sentences identified among the expressions of national anthems depicting 282 linguistic violence used to convey certain information to the target audience of the anthems. These are exemplified 283 in the following sentences of the anthems of Honduras, Belgium, France, Australia, Thailand, Turkey, Mali, 284 Armenia, Turkmenistan, Poland, Norway, Ukraine, Algeria, Senegal, Albania and Romania: To guide this sacred 285 emblem, we shall, oh fatherland to our death -Anthem of Honduras (Stanza 7 Line 1-2) Our strength and the 286 blood of our veins we offer, be our goal in work and battle -Anthem of Belgium (Stanza 1 Line 3-4) They are 287 coming into our midst to cut the throats of your sons and cohorts -Anthem of France (Stanza 1 Line 7-8) We'll 288 rouse to arms like sires of yore to guard our native strand -Anthem of Australia (Stanza 1 Line 3-4) All Thais are 289 ready to give up every drop of blood for the nation's safety, freedom and progress -Anthem of Thailand (Stanza 290 1 Line 9-10) If you frown, our blood shed for you will not be worthy -Anthem of Turkey (Stanza 3 Line 2) If 291 292 the enemy should show himself within or without on the ramparts, we are ready to stand and die -Anthem of 293 Mali (Stanza 1 Line 7-10) Everyone dies only once but lucky is the one who is sacrificed for his nation -Anthem of Armenia (Stanza 4 Line 2-4) I am ready to give life for native hearth -Anthem of Turkmenistan (Stanza 1 294 Line 5) What the foe by force has seized sword in hand we'll gain -Anthem of Poland (Stanza 1 Line 3-4) We 295 also, when called upon, will strike a blow for its peace -Anthem of Norway (Stanza 3 Line 7-8) We'll not spare 296 either our souls or bodies to get freedom – Anthem of Ukraine (Stanza 1 Line 5) We swear by the lightening that 297 destroys, by the stream of generous blood being shed that we are in revolt, whether to live or die -Anthem of 298 Algeria Stanza 1 Lines 1,2,3) But if the enemy violates our frontiers, we will all be ready, weapons in our Hands 299 -Anthem of Senegal (Stanza 5 Line 1-2) With arms in hand we shall remain, to guard our fatherland round about 300 -Anthem of Albania (Stanza 3 Line 1-2) We'd rather die in battle, in elevated glory than to live again enslaved 301 on our ancestral land -Anthem of Romania (Stanza 1 Line 13-14) 302

³⁰³ 13 k) Imperative Sentences of the Linguistic Violence of Na ³⁰⁴ tional Anthems

There are some sentences of the expressions of anthems of nations which expressly instruct the people addressed 305 306 to take some violent steps or embark on some violent actions. Below are examples of such imperative sentences from the anthems of France, Algeria, Turkey, Cuba and Turkmenistan: To arm citizens, form your battalion. 307 308 March, march, let impure blood water our furrows -Anthem of France (Chorus Line 1-5) Listen to it and answer the call. Let it be written with the blood of martyrs and be read to future generation -Anthem of Algeria (Stanza 309 4 Line 2-4) Oh coy crescent do not frown for I am ready to sacrifice for you -Anthem of Turkey (Stanza 2 Line 310 1) Hasten to battle, men of Boyamo -Anthem of Cuba (Stanza 1 Line 1) Let my eyes go blind for any cruel look 311 at you -Anthem of Turkmenistan (Stanza 1Line 23) 312

³¹³ 14 l) Exclamatory Sentences of the Linguistic Violence of ³¹⁴ National Anthems

There are some sentences depicting linguistic violence of anthems which are used to convey some strong feelings evident in the exclamation marks that end the sentences. Examples of these are the following sentences from the anthems of Haiti, Cuba, China and Vietnam: For the flag, for our country to die is a fine thing! -Anthem of Haiti (Stanza 5 Line 1-3)

Hasten, brave ones, to battle! -Anthem of Cuba (Chorus Line 4) With our very flesh and blood let us build our new great wall! -Anthem of China (Stanza 1 Line 2-3) Ceaselessly for the people's cause we struggle, hastening to the battle field! -Anthem of Vietnam (Stanza 1 Line 8-9) m) Interrogative Sentence of the Linguistic Violence of National Anthem

There is just one anthem that uses an interrogative question in disseminating the idea identified as a case 323 of linguistic violence of anthem. The only interrogative linguistic violence is in the anthem of Congo which 324 obviously ends with a question mark though it is not expecting any answer from the target audience. The 325 sentence is shown below: And if we have to die, what does it really matter? -Anthem of Congo(Chorus Line 1-2) 326 n) Interpretation/Social Analysis of the Linguistic Violence of National Anthems Faircloughian critical discourse 327 interpretation involves the utilization of vital facts relating to the process of text production and consumption 328 329 /comprehension in the analysis of texts. It centres on the understanding of texts in the light of useful information 330 about the composition of anthem texts. Three important parameters are considered in the interpretation of 331 the identified linguistic violence of anthems of nations which are the produced/composed anthem texts, the 332 context of anthem texts production and relationship with similar texts/discourses. It is against this background that the discussion of the interpretation or social analysis will involve critical textual interpretation, contextual 333 interpretation and intertextual/interdiscursive interpretations of the linguistic violence of the affected countries' 334 national anthems. 335

It is obvious from the functional analysis of the sentences identified as depicting linguistic violence of national anthems that the expressions are predominantly declarative sentences. This is not surprising because such

sentences are basically used to make categorical statements which are expected to be informative or informational 338 in which case they are otherwise regarded as informative sentences. The declarative sentences therefore position 339 the communicators as the informers who are in the possession of valuable facts used to justify or buttress the 340 requests for violent acts in the various anthems. The imperative sentences are next to the declarative sentences 341 in numerical representation of the expressions conveying linguistic violence of anthems. These are used by the 342 communicators to expressly direct or instruct the target audience to embark on various violent actions based on 343 some reasons given or implied. Unfortunately, there is no room for the immediate response of the audience as it 344 is kind of mono-directional dialogue. The exclamatory sentences identified are equally declarative and imperative 345 sentences based on their structural constituents while the only interrogative sentence is practically a rhetorical 346 question that requires no direct answers. 347

One important narrative device used in the communication of the linguistic violence of identified countries 348 anthems is what Norman Fairclough describes as manufacture of consent. This is evident in the way some anthem 349 narrators or text producers communicate the violent ideas on behalf of everybody or in an allinclusive way as 350 if they already know the minds of the people and have got their mandates on these. This is evident in the use 351 of 'we', 'our' and 'us' in wording some expressions of anthems of nations depicting linguistic violence like the 352 expressions "We are ready to die", "We supply you with our blood", "We shall march to our death" and "Our 353 strength and blood of vein we offer" of the anthems of Italy, UAE and Belgium respectively. Another technique 354 employed in anthems to convey linguistic violence involves a kind personalised roleswopping via the use of the 355 356 first person singular pronoun 'I' for personal commitment of the anthem reciters. This way, the anthem producers 357 do not just speak on behalf of the audience but through the audience thereby eliciting strongly worded oath-like declarations from the anthem reciters. The expressions "I am ready to sacrifice myself for you" and "I am ready 358 to give life for my native hearth" of the anthems of Turkey and Turkmenistan are good examples. 359

³⁶⁰ 15 a) Contextual Interpretation of the Linguistic Violence of ³⁶¹ National Anthems

This is based on vital contextual information relating to the environment surrounding the production of the 362 anthems or in respect of the utilization of the linguistic violence of the affected countries' national anthems. 363 This can therefore be the situational contextual information (pertaining to relevant happenings), the temporal 364 contextual information (pertaining to specific points in time) and spatial contextual information (pertaining to 365 certain places). Many anthems were written before, during or after some wars or battles which is evident in their 366 contents and extra textual facts relating to the various anthems. These war-motivating or battle-inspired anthems 367 were composed to encourage participation in the wars or as result of the battles that took place respectively. This 368 is in line with the basic CDA reciprocal position that discourse contents can influence societal happenings just 369 as societal happenings can equally influence discourse contents. In a similar vein, some anthems were written 370 during or after some notable revolutions that some countries experienced in the course of their politico-economic 371 metamorphosis just as some other anthems are reminiscent of their struggles for independence. The linguistic 372 violence of some of the anthems is therefore reflective of the context of the production of the anthems viz the 373 situation of things during these periods in those places. 374

The titles of the anthems of many nations clearly show that they are war-motivating or battle-inspired anthems. 375 The anthem of Poland is otherwise called "Song of the Polish Legions" and was written originally to boost the 376 morale of the Polish soldiers. The anthem of Vietnam written by ??an Some other anthems were inspired 377 by the revolution or independence experience of the people. This is also evident in the title of some of these 378 anthems while some are not so entitled but their timing equally speaks volume. The national anthem of Algeria is 379 otherwise called "Hymn of Revolution". The anthem of Belgium was written by a young revolutionary, Alexandre 380 Dechet in 1830 during the Belgian Revolution. Romanian anthem was composed by Andrei Muresanu during 381 the Romanian Revolution of 1884. Justin Lherisson wrote the anthem that was adopted in 1904 in honour the 382 Haitian revolution leader. The anthem of Albania is a freedom hymn from a poem composed by Alexsander 383 Stavre Drenova officially adopted in 1912. The anthem of Republic of Congo written by Jacques Tondra and 384 Georges Kibanghi was adopted upon independence in 1959. Alex Casimir-Dosseh composed the anthem of Togo 385 that was equally adopted right from independence in 1960. The anthems of Djibouti and Turkmenistan were 386 also officially adopted upon the independence of the countries. b) Intertextual Interpretation of the Linguistic 387 Violence of National Anthems Intertextuality simply refers to the interrelationships of texts based on the fact 388 that texts with discursive similitude usually have some levels or elements of linguistic or stylistic interconnections. 389 This is a pointer to the fact that texts do not usually exist in isolation as new texts usually directly or indirectly 390 draw insights from or build on ideas of existing texts. A critical examination of the identified anthems of nations 391 especially those with cases of linguistic violence shows that the anthems are no exception as far as the concept of 392 393 intertexuality is concerned. This is simply because a number the analysed anthems of nations with established 394 cases of linguistic violence actually exhibit some lexico-semantic or syntactico-semantic similarity. This is in 395 relation to the choice of words or construction of the expressions used to communicate the intended meanings of the violent ideas or messages of the affected anthems to the target audience or addressees. 396

The anthems of Turkey and Turkmenistan show some syntactico-semantic similitude depicting the concept of intertextuality in respect of some of the expressions of the anthems that have been identified as cases of linguistic

16 IX. EXPLANATION/SOCIAL ANALYSIS OF THE LINGUISTIC VIOLENCE OF NATIONAL ANTHEMS

violence. This is exemplified by the expressions "I am ready to sacrifice myself for you" and "I am ready to 399 give life for the native hearth" in the anthems of Turkey and Turkmenistan. These two countries used to be 400 one before Turkmenistan seceded and became independent and they share similar culture, language, history 401 and religion which probably explain some ideological similarities reflected in the two anthems. The anthems of 402 some nations without similar cultural, linguistic, historical or religious background as in the case of Turkey and 403 Turkmenistan also exhibit syntactic cum semantic intertextuality. For example, the anthems of Italy and Mali 404 have the expressions "We are ready to die" and "We are ready to stand and die" with the difference in just the 405 phrase "to stand" inserted in the anthem of Mali. 406

⁴⁰⁷ 16 IX. Explanation/Social Analysis of the Linguistic Violence ⁴⁰⁸ of National Anthems

The critical discourse social analysis or explanation of the linguistic violence of anthems aims at presenting the 409 social dimension or societal perspective of the existence and persistence of the elements of linguistic violence of 410 anthems of nations. It therefore accounts for the linguistic violence of anthems of nations from the view points 411 of the predominant psychological inclination, cultural disposition, historical antecedent or political ideology of 412 the people or society in question. It equally captures the perception of the people in relation to power relation, 413 dominance or oppression and the resistance of obviously inimical ideological stances. The critical discourse social 414 analysis can be viewed from socio-psychological, socio-ultural, socio-historical, socio-political and socioideological 415 perspectives. 416

From the socio-psychological perspective, it is obvious that the linguistic violence of anthems of many nations 417 involves cognitive manipulation of the mind of the target audience. This is evident in the ironic and euphemistic 418 419 wording of some expressions used to convey the violent ideas to make them sound pleasant so as to influence the minds/thoughts of the target audience towards them. The expressions "To die for the country is to live" 420 and "For our country to die is a fine thing" of the anthems of Cuba and Haiti are good example of expressions 421 aimed at cognitive manipulation of the audience. From the socio-cultural perspective, many of the anthems with 422 linguistic violence were composed during struggles, revolutions, battles, or wars when the culture of violence 423 was usually the order of the day among those who want to sustain oppression and those who want to resist 424 suppression. However, many of present human societies are equally characterized by cultures of violence similar 425 to those canvased in some anthems evident in incessant cases of assassinations and suicide bombings constantly 426 reported in the mass media. 427

From the socio-historical perspective, it is obvious from textual and extra-textual accounts that societal 428 historical antecedents or past experiences of the people were instrumental to the linguistic violence employed 429 and violent ideas canvased in some countries' national anthems. It is in the light of this that many of the 430 affected countries' anthems recapitulate some unpalatable historical accounts, like colonial oppression, for the 431 justification and rationalisation of the violent positions marshalled in such anthems. Similarly, the linguistic 432 violence of many anthems has sociopolitical dimension basically because humans are political beings living in 433 politically motivated societies where politics has been described as war with words. The linguistic violence of 434 some anthems of nations aims at actualizing the political emancipation of some oppressed governments by some 435 oppressive governments. The prevalent socio-ideological stances of nations when the anthems were composed 436 cannot be disconnected from the linguistic violence employed in some anthems which can be socio-political 437 ideology, socio-religious ideology or socio-economic ideology. Socio-political ideologies like pro-nationalism, anti-438 neocolonialism and fanatical patriotism were responsible for the Machiavellian violent approaches advocated in 439 many of the anthems with the identified cases of linguistic violence. number of these anthems have varying 440 cases of linguistic violence. This is not unconnected with prevailing trends when the anthems were composed as 441 some were to motivate struggles, battles, or wars while others were motivated by some struggles, battles or wars. 442 However, the linguistic violence of anthems seems to be diametrically inconsistent with contemporary global 443 trends especially now that there is a quest for long lasting global tranquillity and harmony aimed at making the 444 whole wide world a peaceful haven for all and sundry. It is therefore paradoxical for nations, including frontline 445 United Nations members, to be persistently clamouring for peace and condemning violence of all kinds when the 446 contents of anthems that epitomize such nations, recited at important national and international for a, expressly 447 propagate violence. 448

It is against this background that the linguistic overhaul of the anthems of nations with cases of linguistic 449 violence is recommended as a panacea to the paradox of the contemporary quest for global peace and persistent 450 linguistic violence of national anthems. This will facilitate a critical linguistic review of anthems of affected 451 nations by experts such that promotes pacific language use as opposed to violent language use. This will also 452 encourage the use of anthems to positively recapitulate the histories, cultures, politics, geographies, philosophies, 453 ideologies and aspirations of nations. Anthems should equally be (re)subjected to national referenda to be sure 454 they are still popular and acceptable to majority of citizens. Also, anthems of nations should be screened as a 455 condition for (review of) membership by regional, continental and international organisations especially those 456 established predominantly to champion peace causes so as to address the dissonance of the present quest for 457 global peace and the blatant propagation of violence in the anthems of nations. 458



Figure 1:

16 IX. EXPLANATION/SOCIAL ANALYSIS OF THE LINGUISTIC VIOLENCE OF NATIONAL ANTHEMS

i. Anthem of Poland (Stanza		
One) Poland has not yet succumbed	line 1	
As long as we re- main,	line 2	
What the foe by force has seized	line 3	
Sword in hand we'll gain ii. Anthem of Mali (Stanza One)	line 10	
If the enemy should show himself	line 7	
Within or with- out	line 8	
On the ramparts	line 9	
We are ready to	line 10	
stand and die		
	i. Anthem of Togo (One Stanza Anthem)	
	Even if tyrants shall come, thy heart yarns towards	
	freedom	line4
	Togo arise! Let us struggle without faltering	line 5
	Victory or death, but dignity	line 6
	ii. Anthem of Thailand (One Stanza Anthem)	
	The Thai people are peace loving	line5
	But they are no cowards at war	line 6
	All Thais are ready to give up every drop of blood line 9)
	For the nation's safety, freedom and progress	line 10
	iii. Anthem of Poland (Chorus)	
	As Czarniecki Poznan town regains	line1
	Fighting with the swede	line 2
	To free our fatherland from chains	line 3
	We shall return by sea	line 4
	iv. Anthem of France (Stanza One & Chorus)	
	They are coming into our midst	line $7/1$
	To cut the throats of your sons and consorts	line $8/1$
	To arms citizens	line
		1/cho
	Form your battalions'	line
		2/cho
	Let impure blood	line
		4/cho
	Water our furrows	line
		5/cho
	d) Opponent-Targeted Linguistic Violence of National Anthems	

- 459 The Paradox of the Quest for Global Peace and the Linguistic Violence of Some Countries'
- 460 [GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies], GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies 11 (1) p. .
- 461 [Belmont], Belmont. Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- 462 [Kyridis et al. ()], A Kyridis, A Mavrikou, C Zagkos, P Golia, I Vamvakidou, N Fotopoulos. 2009.
- 463 [September15 et al. ()], Accessed September15, ; Mooney, L A Knox, D Schacht, C. http://www.gseis. 464 ucla.edu/courses/ed253a/Luke/SAHA6.html21 2009. 2011.
- 465 [Ayoola ()] A critical discourse analysis of the reporting of some Niger-Delta issues in selected Nigerian
- *newspapers*, K A Ayoola . 2008. Department of English, Obafemi Awolowo University Ile-Ife, Nigeria. X
 (Unpublished PhD Thesis)
- 468 [Kellen ()] 'Anthems of Australia: Singing complexity'. C Kellen . National Identities 2003. 5 (2) p. .
- [Adetunji ()] 'Aspects of linguistic violence to Nigerian women. Language'. A Adetunji . Society and Culture
 2010. 31 p. .
- [Blanquer ()] 'Beyond ethics and totalitarianism'. J M Blanquer . Violence and its causes: A stock taking, (Paris)
 2005. UNESCO. p. .
- 473 [Fairclough ()] Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language, N Fairclough . 1995. Harlow, England:
 474 Longman.
- [Jorgensen and Philips ()] Discourse analysis as theory and method, M W Jorgensen , L Philips . 2002.
 London/Thousand Oak: Sage Pub. Ltd.
- [Nur and Aziz ()] 'Discourse analysis of decision making episodes in meetings: Politeness theory and critical discourse analysis'. N Nur , J Aziz . The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies 2010. 16 (2)
 p. .
- 480 [Fairclough ()] Discourse and social change, N Fairclough . 1992. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- [Fiske-Rusciano ()] Experiencing race, class and gender in the United States, Fiske-Rusciano . 2009. Boston:
 McGraw Hill Higher Education. (th ed.)
- 483 [Sullivan ()] Introduction to social problems, T Sullivan . 2012. Boston: Pearson Education. (th ed.)
- 484 [Fairclough ()] Language and power, N Fairclough . 1989. London: Longman.
- [Stibbe ()] 'Language, power and societal construction of animals'. A Stibbe . Society and Animal 2001. 9 (2) p.
 .
- ⁴⁸⁷ [Hamid et al. ()] 'Linguistic sexism and gender role stereotyping in Malaysian English language textbooks'. B
 ⁴⁸⁸ Hamid , M Yasim , K Baker , Keong , A Jalaluddin . *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies* 2008. 8 (2)
 ⁴⁸⁹ p. .
- 490 [Gay ()] 'Linguistic violence'. W C Gay . Institutional Violence, Robert Litke, Deane Curtin (ed.) (Amsterdam)
 491 1999. Rodpoi. p. .
- [Van Dijk ()] 'Multidisciplinary CDA: A plea for diversity'. T A Van Dijk . Methods of critical discourse analysis,
 R Wodak, & M Meyer (ed.) (London) 2001. Sage. p. .
- INatioanalism through state-constructed symbols: The case of national anthems The International Journal of Interdisciplinary So
 'Natioanalism through state-constructed symbols: The case of national anthems'. The International Journal
 of Interdisciplinary Social
- ⁴⁹⁷ [Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary ()] Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, (Oxford) 2010. Oxford Uni ⁴⁹⁸ versity Press.
- [Al-Shawabi et al. ()] Representation of Nojoud's early marriage: A CDA of online English language Yemeni
 newspapers, A Al-Shawabi , N Ibrahim , N Nor . 2011.
- 501 [Hogg and Vaughan ()] Social psychology, M A Hogg , G M Vaughan . 2011. Pearson Education Limited. (th 502 ed.)
- [Cerulo ()] 'Sociopolitical control and the structure of national symbols: An empirical analysis of national
 anthems'. K A Cerulo . Social Force 1989. 68 (1) p. .
- [Webster (ed.) ()] Sports, community, nationalism and the institutional state system, G R Webster . L.M.
 DeChano & F. Shelley (ed.) 2006. Jacksonville, Alabama: National Council for Geographic Education. p.
 . (The geographysports connection Using sports to teach geography)
- [Raento et al. ()] 'Striking stories: A political geography of euro coinage'. P A Raento , H I Hamalainen , N
 Mikkonen . *Political Geography* 2004. 23 (8) p. .
- ⁵¹⁰ [Trend ()] The myth of media violence: A critical introduction, D Trend . 2007. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- [Lande ()] The role of critical discourse analysis in the translation of political texts, I Lande . 2010. Aarhus
 University, Department of Language and Business Communication (Master Thesis)

16 IX. EXPLANATION/SOCIAL ANALYSIS OF THE LINGUISTIC VIOLENCE OF NATIONAL ANTHEMS

- [Fliethmann ()] 'The violence of representation'. A Fliethmann . Violent depictions: Representing violence across
 cultures, S Scarparo, S Mcdonald (ed.) (Newcastle) 2006. Cambridge Scholars Publishing. p. .
- [Luke ()] 'Theory and Practice in Critical Science Discourse'. A Luke . International Encyclopaedia of the
 Sociology of Education, L Saha (ed.) 1997.
- [Titscher et al. ()] S Titscher , M Meyer , R Wodak , E Vetter . Methods of text and discourse analysis, (London)
 2000. Sage.
- 519 [Understanding social science problems] Understanding social science problems, (th ed.)
- [Lemke (2011)] Violence and language: The sign that hurts, J L Lemke . Users/users/Document/
 Languageandviolence.htm 2011. Accessed October 20. 2011.
- [North and Weingast ()] Violence and social order: A conceptual framework for interpreting recorded human
 history, Wallis & North , Weingast . 2009. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.