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أستاذ المادة : م. هناء عباس سليمان

اسم المادة باللغة العربية : علم اللغة

اسم المادة باللغة الإنجليزية : Linguistics

Chapter Eleven// Discourse Analysis

Discourse Analysis

What is meant by Discourse Analysis?

-Language beyond sentence and it concerned with the study of language in texts and conversation.

- Reading a notice like this, no shoes, no service on shop windows in summer means a conditional relationship between the two parts (if you are wearing no shoes, you will receive no service). So, we have the ability to create complex discourse interpretation of fragmentary linguistic messages.

Interpreting Discourse

-Many of us can cope with texts which we did not produce by ourselves . We can build interpretation.

-In many texts, they may contain set of errors yet they can be understood.

e.g.,.....it takes this name from people's career. In my childhood, I remember the people live. It was very simple. Most people was farmer.

-This example about my town illustrates some ungrammatical forms yet we can reach a reasonable interpretation of what the writer intended to convey.

-To interpret something or to be interpreted are the key elements investigated in the study of discourse.

Cohesion

-Texts must have structure that depends on factors different from those required in the structure of a single sentence, such factors are described in terms of cohesion.

-Cohesion refers to the ties and connections that exist within texts.

-Among those types of cohesive ties are the following : he, my, I .. as in the following example:

e.g. My father once bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he

-In this regards, some words maintain reference to same people and things such as he and my.

-There are also general connections that share a common element of meaning such as 'money' (including saving and penny) and time (including time and nowadays).

-There are also connections such however to the opposite of what has already been said before.

-Such cohesive ties gives us insight how writers structure what they want to say.

- The conventions of cohesive ties structure differ from one language to the next.
- Cohesion would not be enough to enable us to make sense of what we read, e.g. Lincoln, the car, that color, her, she and letter (these are a number of connections but is very difficult to interpret)
- Yet, this sentence: My father bought a Lincoln convertible. The car driven by the police was red. That color does not suit her. She consists of three letters. Now, it becomes clear from this sentence that 'connectedness' we experience in our interpretation of normal texts is not simply based on connections between words.

محتوى المحاضرة الثانية

Coherence

- Coherence is another factor that helps us distinguish connected texts that make sense from those that do not.
- It is concerned with everything fitting together well .
- It is something that exists in people not in words or structures.
- Coherence is involved in creating meaningful connections that are not actually expressed by the words and sentences.

-It is not only related to understanding odd texts but rather involved in our interpretation of all discourse.

-It is present in the interpretation of casual conversation.

-for example,

Her: that is the telephone.

Him: I'm in the bath.

Her: ok.

-There are no cohesive ties within this fragment of discourse. Yet, they do use the information contained in the sentences expressed, but there must be something else involved in the interpretation. It is suggested that exchanges of this type are best understood in terms of the conventional actions performed by the speakers in such interaction.

Speech Events

-It is concerned with exploring what it is we know about taking part in conversation, or any other speech event.

-Part of discourse, we need to know what is taking part in conversation, There is enormous variation in what people say and do in different circumstances such as debates, interviews, etc.

-In speech event, we have to specify the roles of speakers and hearers and their relationships.

-A number of factors need to be considered during speech such as whether they are friends, men, women, strangersetc.

- Such factors have an influence on what is said and how it is said.
- Because of talking about the factors of how language is used, we need to analyze the actual structure of the conversation.

Conversation analysis

- Conversation is described as an activity in which two or more people take turns at speaking.
- Typically, one person speaks at a time and there tends to be an avoidance of silence between speaking turns.
- **Speakers can mark turns as complete by asking questions or by pausing at the end of a completed syntactic structure like a phrase or sentence.**
- **Others can indicate that they want to take speaking turn by making short sounds while the speaker is talking or making some facial expressions.**

Turn- taking

- There are different strategies of participation in conversation which may result in different conventions of turn- taking.
- It is a common strategy used in discourse and conversation.
- One strategy, using connectors such as and, then, so, but, ...etc.in order to place your pauses at points where the message is incomplete.

The Co- operative principle

- In conversation exchanges, it seems to be that the participants are co-operating with each other.

-This principle, together with four maxims was 1st described by Paul Grice , 1975 . Accordingly, the co-operative principle is presented together with what is known as "Gricean maxims" .

-In our conversational contribution, there are four maxims which can be considered as part of the co-operative principle.

-**The quantity maxim:** make your contribution as informative as is required, but not more or less than is required.

-**The quality maxim:** Don't say that which you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence.

-**The Relation maxim:** Be relevant.

-**The manner maxim:** Be clear, brief and orderly.

محتوى المحاضرة الثالثة

Hedges

-Hedges can be defined as words or phrases used to indicate that we're not really sure that what we are saying is sufficiently correct or complete.

-for example, sort of, kind ofetc. to show accuracy of our statements as in :

His hair was kind of long .

The book cover is sort of yellow .(quality maxim)

Implicatures

-When we try to analyze how hedges work, we usually talk about speakers implying something that is not clear.

-With the co-operative principle and the maxims as guides , we can start to work out how people actually decide that someone is 'implying' something in conversation.

For example.

A: Are you coming to the party tonight?

B: I've got an exam tomorrow.

-In this example, B's statement is not an answer to A's question. B does not say no to A. Yet A will interpret the statement as meaning no. A will work out that 'exam tomorrow' involves 'study tonight' and 'study night' prevents 'party tonight'.

-B's answer is not simply a statement concerning tomorrow's activities but rather contains an implicature (an additional conveyed meaning).

BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

-To analyze the conversational implicature involved in B's statement , we have to describe some background knowledge (e.g. about exams) that must be shared by the conversational participants.

For example,

John was on his way to school last Friday.

Most readers report that they think John is schoolboy . since this information is not directly clear, it must be an inference (understood from the text). Other references for other readers are John is walking or that he is on a bus.

-In a different example,

Last week he had been unable to control the class.

Most readers decide that John must be a teacher and that he is not very happy.

-we actually create what the text is about based on our expectations of what normally happens . This phenomenon is referred to as 'schema' or a 'script'.

Schema

-Is a general term for a conversational knowledge structure that exists in memory.

-In the previous example, we were using our conversational knowledge of what school classroom is like or a 'classroom schema'

-We have many schemas or (schemata) that are used in the interpretation of what we experience and what we hear or read about.

-Supermarket schemata refer to food displayed on shelves and shopping carts and baskets.

Script

-It is in many ways similar to a schema.

-A script is a dynamic, that is instead of the set of typical fixed features in a schema, a script has a series of conventional actions that take place. You have a script for 'going to the dentist' or 'eating in a restaurant' ...etc.

Suzy went to the nearest place, sat down and ordered an avocado sandwich . It was quite crowded , but the service was fast .

-Based on our restaurant script, we would be able to say a number of things about the scene and event briefly described in the previous short text.

Conclusion about script

Our understanding of what we read does not directly come from words and sentences on the page, but the interpretation we create 'in our minds' of what we read.

محتوى المحاضرة الرابعة

Language and the brain

Neurolinguistics : It is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the brain.

Language areas in the brain

There are images showing the two parts of the brain (left and right hemisphere).

Such images have shaded areas which indicate the general locations of those language functions involved in speaking and listening.

Such image helps to determine where language disabilities for normal users must be by finding areas with specific damage in the brains of people who have identifiable language disabilities.

1. Broca's area: (Paul Broca) – a French surgeon

- It is known as anterior speech cortex.

- He reported that the damage in this part of the brain was related to extreme **difficulty producing spoken language.**

- Damage to the right hemisphere had no such effect. He found that language ability is located in the left hemisphere; and since then it has been treated as indication that Broca's area is involved in **the generation of spoken language.**

2. Wernicke's area : (German physician)

- It is known as a posterior speech cortex.

- He reported that the damage in this part of the brain was found among patients who had **speech comprehension difficulties.**

- The findings confirmed that the left hemisphere location of language ability led to the view that this area is involved in **the understanding of speech.**

3. Motor cortex area:

- It is the area that generally controls movement of the muscles (e.g. for moving hands, feet, arms....etc.)

- Close to Broca's area

- It also controls the articulatory muscles of the face, jaws, tongue and larynx.

محتوى المحاضرة الخامسة

The localization view

-Based on these areas, we can conclude that specific aspects of language ability can be accorded and produced in specific locations in the brain, this is known as the localization view.

-This view has been used to suggest that the brain activity is involved in hearing a word, understanding it then saying it.

Tongue tips and slips

-The tip of the tongue phenomenon

-It is a phenomenon in which we feel that some word is just eluding us, that we know the word, but just won't come to the surface.

-It sometimes happens with uncommon words and names.

-It suggests that 'word- storage' system may be organized on the basis of some phonological information and that some words in the store are more easily retrieved than others.

-When we make mistakes in this retrieval process, there are often strong phonological similarities between the target word we are trying to say and the mistake we actually produce.

-For example, fire distinguisher (instead of extinguisher).

-motivation (instead of meditation).

Slips of the tongue

-It is another type of speech error, producing expressions such as, a long shory stort (instead of 'make a long story short').

- It is another type of speech error, referring to word substitutions as similar, but inappropriate word is used instead of the target.
- It happens as a result of a sound being carried over from one word to the next (as in black bloxes for black boxes).
- Using the word depression instead of recession.
- Using the word tup instead of cup (a tup of tea)
- It involves an interchange of : 1) word- final sounds and 2) word- initial sound slips. The first is less common.
- such errors are argued to be a result of trying to organize and generate linguistic messages.

Slips of the ear

- It is another type of speech error. It provides some clues to how the brain tries to make sense of the auditory signal it receives.
- Using the word *gray day* to be interpreted initially as a common on the weather, but after some confusion was reinterpreted as *grade A*. Here, the speaker is talking about eggs, not the weather

محتوى المحاضرة السادسة

Aphasia

- Using the word *great ape*, to mean *gray tape*.
- It refers to those people who suffer from different types of language disorders.
- it is also an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage that leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms.
- Stroke is the most common cause of aphasia.

- Someone who is aphasic often has interrelated language disorders, in that difficulties in understanding can lead to difficulties in production.

Three types of aphasia:

1. Broca's aphasia:

- It is called motor aphasia- (Comprehension is much better than production).
 - It is characterized by a substantially reduced amount of speech, distorted articulation and slow, often effortful speech.
 - It involves omission of functional morphemes such as articles or pronouns and consist of only lexical morphemes such as content nouns and verbs.
- e.g., I eggs and eat and drink coffee breakfast.

2. Wernicke's aphasia:

- It is language disorder that results in difficulties in auditory comprehension.
 - It is also called sensory aphasia.
 - It involves someone suffering from this disorder can actually produce very fluent speech which is often difficult to make sense of.
 - It involves finding difficulties in finding correct words. It is called **anomia**.
- e.g., I can't talk all of the things I do, and part of the part I can do alright, but I can't tell from the other people.

3. Conduction aphasia:

- It is much less common.
- Individuals suffering from this disorder sometimes mispronounce words, but typically do not have articulation problems. They are fluent, but may have disrupted rhythm because of pauses and hesitations.

- Comprehension of spoken words is normally good. Yet, the task of repeating a word or phrase create a major difficulty.
- Difficulties in speaking can be accompanied by difficulties in writing.
- This difficulty is always a result of injury to the left hemisphere. For example Alzheimer's disease.

Dichotic listening

- It is an experimental technique.
- It demonstrates the left hemisphere dominance for syllable and word processing.
- It establishes a fact that anything experienced on the right- hand side of the body is processed in the left- hand hemisphere, and anything on the left side is processed in the right hemisphere.

***Left right and right brain**

- In this process, the language signal received through the left ear is first sent to the right hemisphere and then has to be sent to the left hemisphere, for processing language.
- This non- direct route takes longer than a linguistic signal received through the right ear, which goes directly to the left hemisphere.
- On the other hand, the right hemisphere has a primary responsibility for processing incoming signals that are non- linguistic. Non –verbal sounds such as traffic noises are recognized via the left ear, meaning they are processed faster via the right hemisphere.

***Left brain and right brain**

-Accordingly, the basic distinction to be between analytic processing, such as recognizing the smaller details of sounds, words, and phrase structures in rapid sequence, which are to be done in the 'left brain'.

-While holistic processing such as identifying more general structure in language and experience, can be done in the 'right brain'.

The critical period

-The apparent specialization of the left hemisphere for language is described as lateralization (one- sidedness).

-It is thought that lateralization begins in early childhood.

-During childhood, there is a period when the human brain is most ready to receive input and learn a particular language. This is called 'sensitive period' for language acquisition but also known as the 'critical period'.

-It is argued that the critical period lasts from birth to puberty, where it is difficult for a child to acquire a first language after this period.

First language acquisition

The process of Acquisition

-It has some basic requirements. Children requires interaction with other language users to bring the general language capacity into contact with a specific language.

-children who do not hear language- via acquisition will not learn a language.

-Input:

-Human infants are helped in their language acquisition by the physical behavior of older children and adults, who provide language samples or what is known as 'input'.

-Caregiver speech

-It is a type of conversational structure that seems to assign an interactive role to the young child before he/she becomes a speaking participant. It is a speech style adopted by someone who spends a lot of time interacting with a young child.

-it involves a simple sentence structure and many reporting and paraphrasing.

The acquisition schedule

-we need to know that children have the biological capacity to identify aspects of linguistic input at different stages during the early years of life.

-since one month old, children develop a range crying styles, with different patterns for different needs, produced big smiles in responses to a speaking face, and start to create distinct vocalizations.

1.Cooing

- the earliest use of speech – like sounds has been described as cooing.
- It takes place in the 1st few months of life.
- during this stage, the child gradually becomes capable of producing sequences of vowel – like sounds like [i] and [u].
- by 5 months old, babies become able to hear the difference between the vowels[i] and [a] and discriminate between syllables like[ba] and [ga].

2.Babbling

- Between 6 and 8 months old, children start producing a number of different vowels and consonants as well as combinations such as ba-ba-ba or ga-ga-ga ...etc.
- Between 9and 10 months, children start to recognize intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced with variation in the combinations such as ba- ba-da-da.
- It provides children with some experience of social role of speech because adults can react to babbling, even if it is not coherent.

3.The one- word stage

- Between 12- to -18 months old, children produce a variety of recognizable single unit utterances. This stage is known as one – word stage.
- It is characterized by speech in which single terms are uttered for everyday objects such as milk, cookie, cat, cup,etc.

-During this stage, children may not be able to put the forms together in a more complex phrase.

4.The two- word stage

-It is an occurrence of two distinct words used together, this what is known as two word stage.

-This stage begins between 18- to- 24 months old where the child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty words.

-At this stage, children begin producing a variety of combinations as baby chair, mommy eat,...etc.

-Such phrases as baby chair might interpreted differently based on context (=put baby in chair or is in the chair).

5.Telegraphic stage

-Between two and two and half years old, children begin producing a large number of utterances that can be called '*multiple- word*' or '*telegraphic*'; speech.

-This stage is characterized by strings of words in phrases or sentences such as *this shoe all wet* or *cat drink milk*.

-Children's vocabulary is expanding rapidly and they are initiating more talk while increased physical activity includes running and jumping.

-At three years old, the vocabulary grows hundreds of words and pronunciation has become clearer.

The acquisition process

- The child's linguistic production appears to be mostly a matter of trying out constructions and testing whether they work or not.

-Children can be heard to repeat versions of what adults say on occasions and they are clearly in the process of adopting a lot of vocabulary from speech they hear.

*Learning through imitation .

* children may repeat single words or phrases, but not the sentence structure.

e.g. the dogs are hungry dog hungry.

e.g. the owl who eats candy runs fast owl eat a candy and he run fast.

*Learning through correction :children will continue to use a personally continued form, despite the adult's repetition of what the correct form should be. For example,

Child: my teacher holded the baby rabbits and we patted them.

Mother: Did you say your teacher held the baby rabbits?

Child: yes

Mother: what did you say she did?

Child : she holded the baby rabbits and we patted them

Mother: did you say she held them tightly?

Child: no, she holded them loosely.

Developing morphology

- Between two and two and half years old, children appear to use –ing form in expressions such as, *cat sitting* and *mommy reading book*.
- The next morphological development is the marking of regular plurals with the –s form as in *boys and cats*. the acquisition of the plural marker is often accompanied by a process of overgeneralization such as *foots and mans*.
- Such words confirm that imitation of parents is not the primary force in first acquisition of language.
- At the same age, different forms of the verb 'to be' such as are and was begin to use.
- Throughout this development, children may produce good form one day and odd form the next.
- The evidence suggests that children are working out how to use the linguistic system while focused on communication and interaction rather than correctness.

Developing syntax

-In the formation of questions and in the use of negatives, there are three identifiable stages:

Stage 1(between 18 and 26 months)

Stage 2(between 22 and 30 months)

Stage 3 (between 24 and 40 months)

***In the formation of questions:**

In stage 1, children add Wh-form to the beginning of their expressions or utter the expressions with rise in intonation toward the end ,(e.g. Where Kitty?)

In stage 2, children form more complex expressions with more use of intonation. (e.g. what book name?)

In stage 3, children begin using auxiliary verbs in English questions – close to adults speech . (e.g., will you help me?)

***In the use of negatives:**

In stage1, children put no or not at the beginning. (e.g., no you doing it.)

In stage2, children begin using additional negative forms such as don't and can't. (e.g., I don't want it.)

In stage 3, children begin incorporating more auxiliary verbs. (e.g., she won't let go.)

Developing semantics

-first of all, it is not always easy to determine precisely the meanings that children attach to the words they use or produce.

-Overextension which involves the child to overextend the meaning of a word on the basis of similarities of shape, sound, size, movement and texture (*ball* is extended to all round objects).

-The semantic development in a child's use of words is usually a process of overextension, followed by a gradual process of narrowing down the application of each term as more words are learned.

محتوى المحاضرة التاسعة

Second language learning

Foreign Versus second language

-Foreign language learning involves learning a language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding community.

-Second language learning involves learning a language that is sometimes spoken in the surrounding community.

-The expression second language learning is used generally to describe both situations.

Acquisition and learning

-Acquisition refers to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language. it takes place without teachers.

-On the other hand, learning applies to a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features of language such as pronunciation , grammar,...etc. in an institutional setting with teachers.

Acquisition barriers

-Acquisition is different from learning(L1). People usually encounter second language learning (L2) during teenage or adult years .

-Some parts of language are easier to be learned such as vocabulary and grammar more than pronunciation which takes a matter of time. They can hardly master the pronunciation in a similar way as native learners or L1 speakers.

-Very few adults seem to reach native – like proficiency in using L2 (the age factor).

The age factor

-This type of observation is sometimes taken as evidence that , after the critical period for language learning acquisition has passed around the time of puberty, it becomes very difficult for adults to acquire another language fully.

-On the other hand, some other research showed that students in their early teens are quicker and more effective L2 learners in classroom than seven years old.

The affective factors

-Teenagers are typically much more self –conscious than younger children. If there is a strong element of unwillingness in producing different sounds of another language, then it may override whatever physical and cognitive abilities there are.

-Negative feelings or experiences are affective factors that can create a barrier to acquisition. If we feel uncomfortable or stress, we may unlikely learn very much.

-Children are much less constrained by affective factors unlike adults.

Focus on teaching method

-A number of recent approaches designed to promote L2 learning:

1.The grammar translation method:

Very traditional, focuses on vocabulary lists and sets of grammar rules, memorization is encouraged and written language is emphasizes.

2.The audio- lingual method

-Emphasizes on spoken language, it involves systematic presentation of the structures of L2 , moving from simple to the more complex. Language is a set of habits.

3.Communicative approaches

-They are reactions against the artificiality of pattern- practice and against the belief that learning grammar rules of a language will result in an ability to use the language.

-They are based on the belief that the functions of language (what is used for) should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language (correct grammatical or phonological structures).

Focus on the learner

-The most fundamental change in the area of L2 learning has shifted from the teacher, the textbook to the learners.

-There is an interest in the learners and the acquisition of process.

-Error is regarded negatively and they have to be avoided.

Transfer

-Recently, focus has shifted from the teacher, textbook and method to the learner and the acquisition process. Example : errors were seen negatively before, but are now seen as a natural part of the learning process.

Some errors may happen due to 'transfer' which called 'cross- linguistic influence'.

-**Transfer**, using sounds, expressions or structures from first language L1 when performing second language L2. There are two types of transfer:

1.positive transfer: when the L1 and L2 have similar features then learners can benefit from such similarities.

2.negative transfer: when the L1 has features that are different from L2 which can make the learner's attempt to use the L2 a failure.

محتوى المحاضرة العاشرة

Gestures and Sign language

Gestures

- Sign language** is used instead of speaking, it is like speech.
- Gestures** are used while speaking.
- Emblems** are signal that function like fixed phrase and not depend on speech.
- Emblems** are signals that function like fixed phrase and not depend on speech.
- Emblems** are conventionally used and depend on social knowledge. For example, the use of two fingers raised in the shape V represents emblems (victory).

Types of Gestures

1.Iconics

They are gestures that seem to be a reflection of the meaning of what is said. For example; when trace a square in the air with a finger while saying "I am looking for a small box". An iconic gesture does not mean the same as what is said, but it adds "meaning".

2.Deictics

-They are gestures that used to point at things and people while talking. For example, when we use a hand to indicate a table (with a cake on it) and ask someone (would you like some cake?). we can also use the same gesture and the same table (with cake no longer on the table) when we later say (that cake was delicious).

-Now, deictics here are gesture and speech combine to accomplish successful reference to something that exist only in shared memory rather than in the current physical space.

3.Beats

-They are gestures involved a short quick movement of the hands or finger that go along with a rhythm of talk and often used to emphasize parts of what is being said or to mark a change from describing events in a story to commenting on those events.

Types of sign language

There are two types of sign language:

1.Alternate sign language: is a system of hands signals developed by speakers for limited communication in specific context where speech cannot be used. It is sometimes called "gestural communication".

2.Primary sign language: is a first language of a group of people who do not use a spoken language with each other.

Oralism

-It is a method designed to teach deaf students to speak and read lip- reading skill rather than use sign language.

The result of this method produces few students who could speak intelligible English, but the ASL is flourished.

Signed language

-Also called (Manually coded English). It is designed to facilitate interaction between the deaf and hearing community.

-It is a means of producing signs that correspond to the words in an English, in English word order. The emphasis is on the learning of English written rather than spoken. It helps and provides the hearing parents of a deaf child with a communication system to use with the child.

Origins of ASL

ASL was considered as a sort of gestured version of English. ASL developed from the French Sign Language used in Paris school a teacher from this school, named Laurant Clerc, was trying to establish a school for deaf children.

The structure of signs

ASL is designed for the eyes not for the ears. In producing linguistic forms in ASL, signers use four key aspects of visual information. These are called as *the articulatory parameters of ASL* and they are, shape, orientation, location and movement.

Shape and orientation

To describe the articulation of *thank-you* in ASL, we start with the shape, or configuration of the hand ,used in forming the sign. the shape may differ in terms of which fingers are used, whether the fingers are extended or bent, and the general configurations of the hand. While the orientation of the hand is (palm up) rather than (palm down) when signing thank- you.

Location and movement

There will also be a location or place of articulation in relation to the head and upper body of the signer. In thank – you the sign begins near the mouth and is completed at chest level. While the movement element in thank- you is (out and downward) toward the receiver. The difference between faster and slower movement in signing also has an effect on meaning.