Stage :   4th Year
Course Title :   Linguistics
Credits: 5
Teaching Hours: 3

Course Instructor: Ali Hussein Hazem, PhD.
Assistant Professor of Linguistics
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Course Description:

The course is designed to make students aware of the complex organization and systematic nature of language, the primary means of human communication. In a sense, students will be studying themselves, since they are a prime example of a language user. Most of the students' knowledge of language, however, is unconscious, and the part of language that they can describe is largely the result of their earlier education, which may have given you confused, confusing, or misleading notions about language. This course is intended to clarify ideas about language and bring learners to a better understanding of its nature. The course is designed to expose students to an overview of linguistics at the various levels of description of language. It is intended to clarify various ideas about language and bring students to a better understanding of its nature.

Learning Objectives:

By the end of the course, students should be familiar with some of the terminology and techniques of linguistic analysis and be able to apply this knowledge to the description of languages. Accordingly, it aims to:

1. introduce you to the nature of human language;

2. enable you have a broad view and understanding of linguistics and its relation to language;

3. help you acquire theoretical linguistic and analytical skills for recognizing and describing the various levels of language;

4. enable you achieve thorough knowledge and practice, competence and skills in analyzing various linguistic structures.

● explain the nature of human language;

identify the levels of linguistic description;

systematically analyze the linguistic structure of any language;

● explain the history and development of linguistics;

Course Content:

1. Semantics

2. Pragmatics

3. Discourse analysis

4. First language acquisition

5. Second language acquisition

6. Language and culture.

Required Textbook:

George Yule, The Study of Language

1. Course Name:				
Linguistics/ fourth year				

2. Course Code:				

3. Semester / Year:				
2025/2026				

4. Description Preparation				
Date: 20-09-2025				

5. Available Attendance Forms:				
weekly				

6. Number of Credit Hours (Total) / Number of Units (Total)				
3 hours/5 units				

7. Course administrator's name (mention all, if more than one name)				
Name: Assistant Professor Ali Hussein Hazem Email: alihussein@uohamdaniya.edu.iq				

8. Course Objectives

Course Objectives	**The objectives of studying this subject is to deeply know the main branches of linguistics and understanding the way of dealing with their vocabularies and diversions.**

9. Teaching and Learning Strategies

Strategy	Teaching the students and discussing them, then answering th inquiries and questions

10. Course Structure

Week	Hours	Required Learning Outcomes	Unit or subject name	Learning method	Evaluation method
1	3	Having an overview on semantics	Semantics	Introducing some significant definitions	Written tests and quizzes
2	3	Knowing Meaning, semantic features, semantic roles	Meaning, semantic features, semantic roles	Discussion during the lecture	=
3	3	Knowing Lexical relations	Lexical relations	Discussion during the lecture	=
4	3	What is Collocation	Collocation	=	=

5	3	Knowing Pragmatics	Pragmatics	=	=
6	3	Knowing Context	Context	Explanation and discussion during the lecture	=
7	3	Knowing Reference	Reference	Explanation and discussion during the lecture	=
8	3	What are speech acts?	Speech acts	=	=
9	3	Knowing Politeness	Politeness	=	=
10	3	Knowing Discourse analysis	Discourse analysis	=	=
11	3	The way of interpreting discourse	Interpreting discourse	=	=
12	3	The way of Conversational analysis	Conversational analysis	=	=
13	3	What are Co-operative principles	Co-operative principles, background knowledge	=	=
14	3	Remembering what have been already explained previously	Review	=	=
15	3		Written test		
16	3	Knowing First language acquisition	First language acquisition	=	=
17	3	What is the concept of acquisition?	acquisition	=	=
18	3	Knowing Acquisition schedule	Acquisition schedule	=	=
19	3	Understanding Acquisition process	Acquisition process	=	=
20	3	What are the ways of Acquisition development?	Acquisition development	=	=

21	3	Knowing Second language acquisition/learning	Second language acquisition/learning	=	=
22	3	What is the way of Second language learning	Second language learning	=	=
23	3	What is the way of Focus on method	Focus on method	=	=
24	3	What is the way of Focus on learner	Focus on learner	=	=
25	3	What is Communicative competence	Communicative competence	=	=
26	3	Knowing Applied linguistics	Applied linguistics	=	=
27	3	What are Gestures and signs of language	Gestures and signs of language	=	=
28	3	Knowing the Types of Gestures and signs	Types of Gestures and signs	=	=
29	3	What are the way of Structure, meanings, and representation of signs	Structure, meanings, and representation of signs	=	=
30	3		Written test		

11. Course Evaluation

Distributing the score out of 100 according to the tasks assigned to the student such as daily preparation, daily oral, monthly, or written exams, reports...........etc.

12. Learning and Teaching Resources

Required textbooks (curricular books, if any)	**George Yule. 2004. The study of language**
Main references (sources)	**Linguistics**
Recommended books and references (scientific journals, reports...)	**General linguistics**
Electronic References, Websites	**Internet**

Chapter 9: Semantics

Semantics

What is Semantics?

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences.

Meaning

- When we define words, we deal with the conceptual meaning rather than the associative meaning.

- What is the difference?

Meaning

Conceptual meaning:

- Needle = thin, sharp, steel, instrument
- Low-calorie = producing a small amount of heat or energy

Associative meaning:

- Needle = pain, illness, blood, drugs, thread, knitting, hard to find.
- Low calorie = healthy
- Associative connotations related to a word.
- These associations differ from a person to another.

Meaning

Poets, song-writers, novelists, literary critics, advertisers and lovers

Associative Meaning

In linguistic semantics

Conceptual Meaning

Semantic Features

- The hamburger ate the boy

- The table listens to the radio

- The horse is reading the newspaper

- The oddness of these sentences does not derive from their syntactic structure.

- According to the basic syntactic rules for forming English sentences ,we have well-formed structures.

NP   V   NP

The hamburger   ate   the boy

Semantic Features

- This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd.

- Since the sentence *The boy ate the hamburger* is perfectly acceptable, we may be able to identify the source of the problem.

- The components of the conceptual meaning of the noun *hamburger* must be significantly different from those of the noun *boy.*

- The kind of noun that can be the subject of the verb *ate* must denote an entity that is capable of 'eating'.

- The noun *hamburger* does not have this property and the noun *boy* does .

Semantic Features

- We can make this observation applicable by trying to determine the important features of meaning that any noun must have in order to be used as the subject of the verb *ate*.

- Feature = animate being

boy: + animate   [+ = has the feature]

hamburger: – animate   [– = doesn't have the feature]

Semantic Features

	table	horse	boy	man	girl	woman
animate	-	+	+	+	+	+
human	-	-	+	+	+	+
female	-	-	-	-	+	+
adult	-	+	-	+	-	+

- The word *girl* involves the elements [+ human, + female, - adult]

- Syntactic analysis + semantic features:

  The _____ is reading the newspaper

        N [+human]

Semantic Roles

- Instead of thinking of words as 'containers' of meaning, we can look at the 'roles' they play.

- *The boy kicked the ball*

- The verb describes an action (kick)

- The noun phrases describe the roles of entities, such as people & things, involved in the action.

- We can identify a small number of semantic roles (thematic roles) for these noun phrases.

Semantic Roles

- Agent

- Theme

- Instrument

- Experiencer

- Location

- Source

- Goal

Agent and Theme

The boy kicked the ball
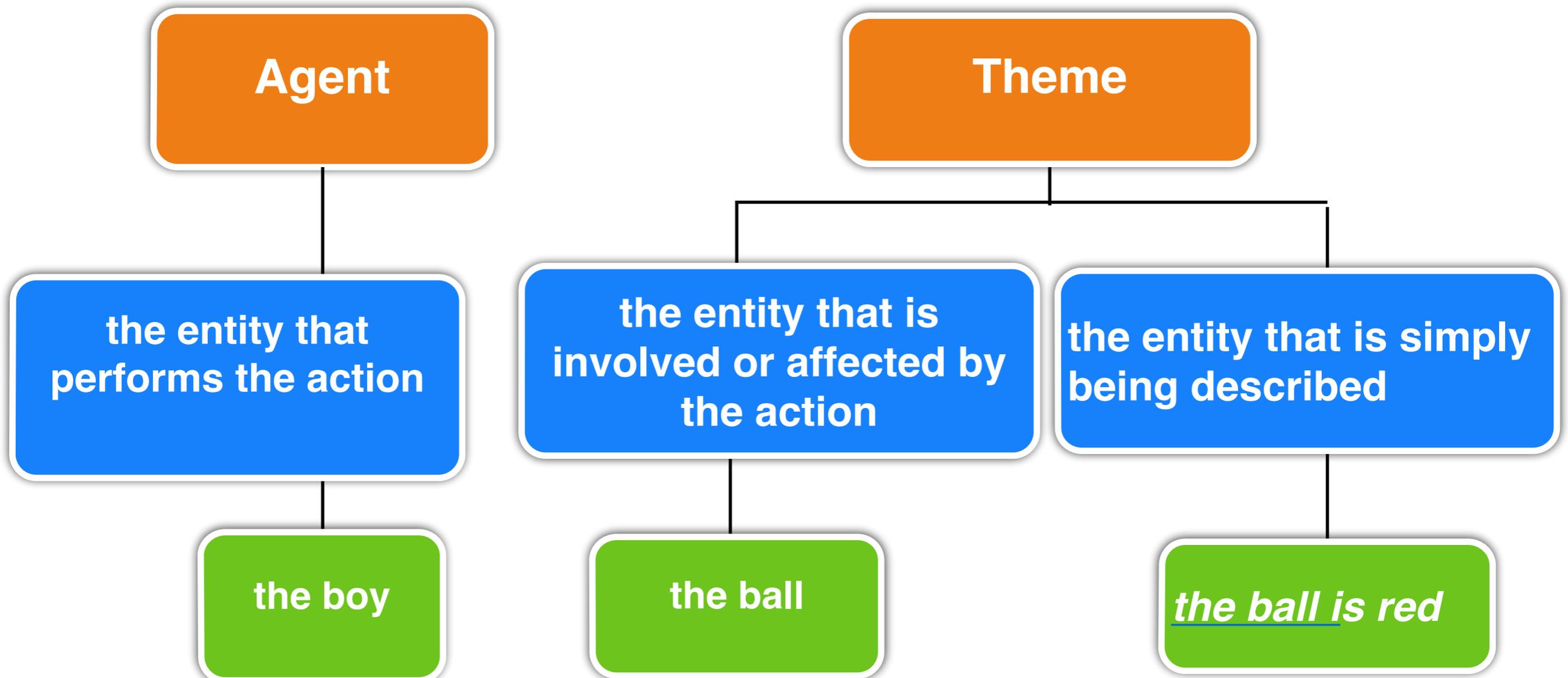
Agent and Theme

- Although **agents** are typically **human**, they can also be **non-human** entities that cause actions.

- as in noun phrases denoting:

  - A natural force   (the wind blew the ball away)

  - A machine   (A car ran over the ball)

  - A creature   (The dog caught the ball)

Agent and Theme

- The theme is typically **non-human**, but can be **human**

  - The dog chased the boy.

- The same physical entity can appear in 2 different semantic

  roles in a sentence

  - The boy cut himself

the boy = agent

himself = theme

Instrument

- If an agent uses another entity in order to perform an action, that other entity fills the role of **instrument**.

  - The boy cut the rope with <u>an old razor</u>.

  - He drew the picture with <u>a pencil</u>.

- The NP *an old razor* & *a pencil* are being used in the semantic role of instrument.

Experiencer

- When a NP is used to represent an entity as the person who has a feeling, perception or state, it fills the role of **experiencer**.

- If we *see*, *know* or *enjoy* something, we are not really performing an action (so, we are not agents)

- We are in the role of experiencer.

  - The boy feels sad

  - Did you hear that noise?

  - The boy = experiencer

  - You = experiencer

  - that noise = theme

Agent Vs Experiencer

According to Ramchand,G.C. (2011),

- **Agent:** A participant which the meaning of the verb specifies as doing or causing something, possibly intentionally.

  - e.g. subjects of kill, eat, hit, smash, kick and watch.

- **Experiencer:** A participant who is characterised as aware of something.

  - e.g. subjects of love, like, enjoy, smell, hear

Location

- A number of other semantic roles represent where an entity is

  - on the table

  - in the room

- Where an entity is fills the role of **location**.

Source and Goal

- Where an entity moves <u>from</u> is: the **source**

- Where an entity moves <u>to</u> is: the **goal**.

  - *We drove <u>from Jeddah</u> <u>to Riyadh</u>.*

    source   goal

  - *I transferred the money <u>from saving</u> <u>to checking</u>.*

    source   goal

Semantic Roles

- All these semantic roles are illustrated in the following scenario.

- *Mary   saw   a fly   on the wall.*

  EXPERIENCER   THEME   LOCATION

- *She   borrowed   a magazine   from George*

  AGENT   THEME   SOURCE

- *she   hit   the bug   with the magazine.*

  AGENT   THEME   INSTRUMENT

- *She   handed   the magazine   back to George*

  AGENT   THEME   GOAL

- *"Gee   thanks,"   said   George*

  AGENT

Semantic Roles

- Extra examples:

I   took   the pen   from her   and   gave   it   to him

AGENT   THEME SOURCE   THEME GOAL

The   door   is   big

THEME

Lexical Relations

- Synonymy

- Antonymy

- Hyponymy

- Prototypes

- Homophones

- Homonyms

- Polysemy

- Metonymy

- Collocations

Lexical Relations

- What is the meaning of the word *conceal*?

- What is the meaning of *shallow*?

- What is the meaning of *Rose*?

- By answering these questions, we are characterizing the meaning of each word, not in terms of its component features, but in terms of its relationship to other words.

Lexical Relations

- Words can have relationships with each other.

  - *Big*

    The same as *large (Synonymy)*

  - *Big*

    The opposite of *small (Antonymy)*

  - *Dog*

    A kind of *animal* (Hyponymy)

- Lexical relations

Synonymy

- Synonyms are two or more words with very closely related meanings.

Ex*amples:*

almost/nearly, big/large, broad/wide, buy/purchase, cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa, freedom/liberty.

Synonymy

- They can often, though not always, be substituted for each other in sentences.

  - *What was his answer?*   ✓

  - *What was his reply?*   ✓

- The idea of "sameness" of meaning is not necessarily 'total sameness'.

- In many occasions, one word is **appropriate** in a sentence, but its synonym is **odd**.

  - *Sandy had only one correct answer on the test.*   ✓

  - *Sandy had only one correct reply on the test.*   ×

Formal Vs. informal uses

  - *My father purchased a large automobile.*

  - *My dad bought a big car.*

Antonymy

- Antonyms are two forms with opposite meanings.

Examples:

alive/ dead, big/small, fast/slow, happy/sad, hot/cold, long/short, male/female, married/single, old/new, rich/ poor, true/false.

Antonymy

Antonyms

Gradable

Opposites along a scale

e.g. *big/ small*
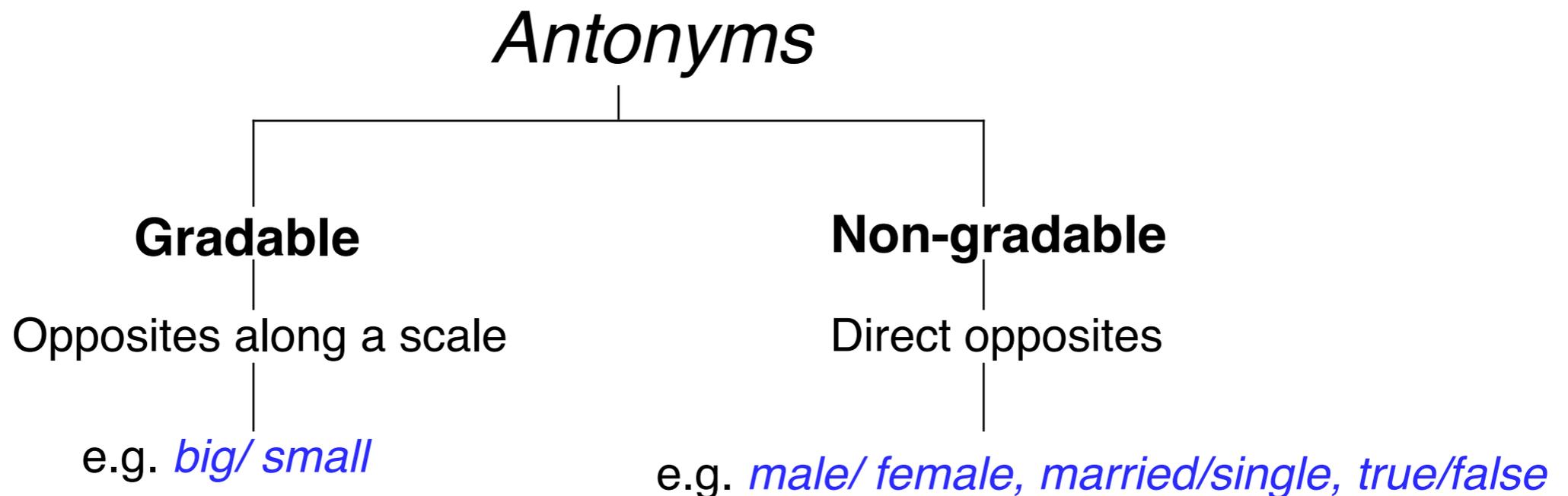
1- Used in comparative constructions

e.g. *I'm bigger than you*
A pony is smaller than horse

2 – The negative of one member of a gradable pair doesn't necessarily imply the other.

e.g. *My car isn't old ≠ My car is new*

Non-gradable

Direct opposites

e.g. *male/ female, married/single, true/false*

1- comparative constructions are not normally used

e.g. *dead* ✓   *deader* ×   *more dead* ×

2 – The negative of one member of a non-gradable pair does imply the other member.

e.g. *My grandparents aren't alive =*
My grandparents are dead

Hyponymy

- Hyponymy = when the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another.

Examples:

  animal/dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/carrot, flower/rose.

- The concept of 'inclusion' involved in this relationship is the idea that if an object is a *rose*, then it is necessarily a *flower*

  - *rose* is a hyponym of *flower*.

- The relationship of hyponymy = the concept of 'is kind of'

  - e.g. "an *asp* is a kind of *snake*"

Hyponymy

- Looking at the diagram, we can say that "*horse* is a hyponym of *animal*" or "*ant* is a hyponym of *insect*"

  - *animal* = *superordinate* (= higher level)

  - *insect* = *superordinate*

- The 2 or more words that share the same superordinate term are *co-hyponyms*.

  - *Dog* & *horse* are co-hyponyms and the superordinate term is *animal*.
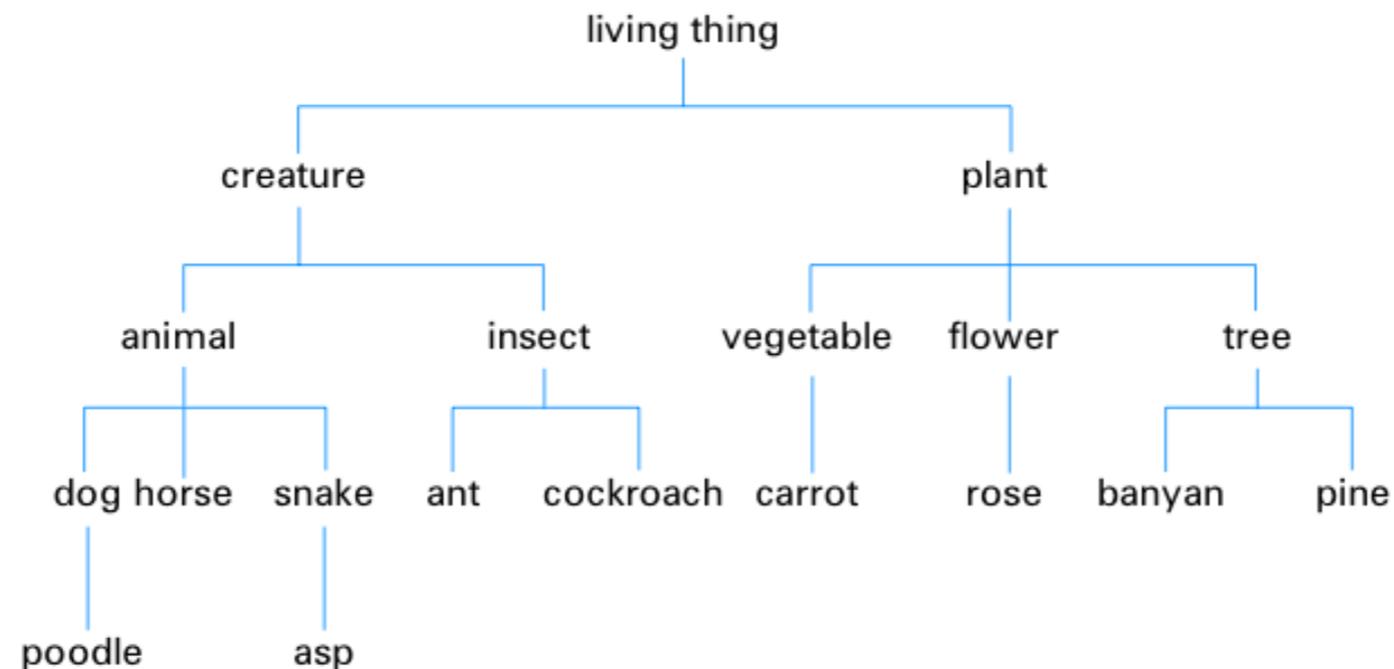
Hyponymy

- Not only words of 'things' but also words of 'actions'

  - e.g. *punch, shoot, stab* are co-hyponyms of the superordinate term *injure*.

Prototypes

- What is the clearest example of the word *bird*?

- What is the clearest example of the word *fruit*?

- What is the clearest example of the word *furniture*?

-

Prototypes

- "The characteristic instance" of a category is known as the *prototype*.

- Explain the meaning of certain words in terms of resemblance to the clearest example.

  - Bird
  - Pigeon & sparrow are closer to the prototype than ostrich & penguin.
  - Clothing--- *shirts* are closer than *shoes*.
  - Furniture --- *chair* is closer than *stool*

Homophones

- Homophones: Two or more words with different forms and the same pronunciation

- Examples:

Bare/bear, meat/meet, flour/flower, pail/pale, right/write, hole/whole, to/too/two.

Homonyms

- **Homonyms:** Two or more words with the same form and pronunciation that are unrelated in meaning

- Examples:

  bank (of a river)   *bank* (financial institution)

  mole (on skin)   *mole* (small animal)

  pupil (at school)   *pupil* (in the eye)

  race (contest of speed)   *race* (ethnic group)

- Homonyms are words that have separate histories and meanings, but have accidently come to have exactly the same form and pronunciation .
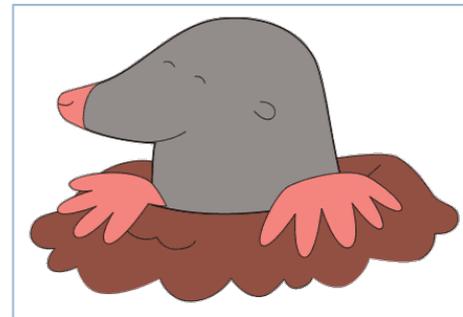
Polysemy

- **Polysemy:** Two words or more with the same form and pronunciation, and with related meanings.

Examples:

- *Head* = the object on top of your body
- *Head* = the person at the top of a company or department.
- *Foot* = of person/ of bed/ of mountain
- *Run* = person does/ water does/ colors does.

Polysemy

- It is possible for two terms to be distinguished via homonymy and via polysemy.
  - Date = a thing we eat   ⎫
  - Date = a point in time   ⎬ homonyms
- Date = a point in time is polysemous in terms of:
  - a particular day and month (=on a letter)
    - *The date on the letter was 30th August 1962.*
    - *What's today's date?*
  - An arranged meeting (= an appointment)
    - *Let's make a date to come over and visit.*
  - A romantic meeting (=with someone we like)
    - *I've got a date with Andrea tomorrow night.*
  - A person (that person we like)
    - *Can I bring my date to the party*

polysemy

Metonymy

- A container-contents relation

  - *Bottle/water*   *e.g. He drank the whole bottle.*

  - *Can/juice*

- A whole-part relation

  - *Car/wheels*

  - *House/roof*

- Representative-symbol relation

  - *King/crown*

  - *The President/ the White House   The White House has announced..*

- Using one of these words to refer to the other is an example of metonymy.

Metonymy

Other examples:

- *10 Downing Street protested..*

- *answering the door*

- *boiling a kettle*

- Making sense of such expressions often depends on context, background knowledge and inference.

Collocation

- Which words tend to occur with other words.

  - *hammer/ nail*

  - *table/ chair*

  - *butter/ bread*

  - *needle/ thread*

  - *salt/ pepper*

  - *Break/ rule, break/promise, break/ heart*

  - ارق للعادة، خارق للقانون

  - يكسر الروتين، يكسر القاعدة

References

Ramchand,G.C. (2011). Minimalist semantics. In C. Boeckx (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of linguistic minimalism* (pp. 449 - 471). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yule, G. (2010). *The study of language*. (4th ed.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thank you

Chapter 10:   Pragmatics

Introduction to Linguistics

LANE 321

Pragmatics

- In the previous chapter, we talked about:
  - Conceptual meanings
  - Lexical relationships
- There are other aspects of meaning that depend more on:
  - Context
  - The communicative intentions of speakers.
- Communication clearly depends on not only recognizing the meaning of words in an utterance, but recognizing what speakers mean by their utterances.
- The study of what speakers mean is called pragmatics.

Invisible meaning

Fall Baby Sale

What does this mean?!

Invisible meaning
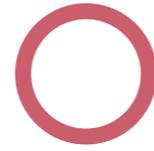
- Are they selling babies?

- We understand the message although the word 'clothes' is not there.

Context

There are different kinds of context

1. <u>Linguistic context (co-text)</u>

- The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence.

- The surrounding co-text has a strong effect on what we think the word probably means.

  - Bank (a homonym)

    - I need to withdraw some cash from the <u>bank</u>.

    - Most of Ancient Egypt's historical sites are located along the <u>banks</u> of the Nile River.

Context

2. Physical context

The physical location will influence our interpretation

Deixis

- Some very common words cannot be interpreted unless the physical context of the speaker is known.

- **Examples:** *here* and *there*, *this* or *that*, *now* and *then*, *yesterday*, *today* or *tomorrow*, as well as pronouns such as *you*, *me*, *she*, *him*, *it*, them.

Deixis

- Some sentences are impossible to understand if we don't know who is speaking, about whom, where and when.
  - *You'll have to bring it back tomorrow, because she isn't here today.*
- Out of context, this sentence is vague.

- It contains a large number of expressions that rely on knowledge of the immediate physical context for their interpretation
- These expressions are technically known as deictic expressions, from the Greek word **deixis**, which means "pointing" via language.

Deixis

Deixis (deictic expressions): Using words such as this or here as a way of "pointing" with language.

- We use deixis to point to:
  - things   (*it, this, these boxes*)
  - people   (*him, them, those idiots*) [Person deixis]
  - location   (*here, there, near that*)   [Spatial deixis]
  - time   (*now, then, last week*)   [Temporal deixis]

All these deictic expressions have to be interpreted in terms of which person, place or time the speaker has in mind.

Reference

Reference: an act by which a speaker/writer uses language to enable a listener/reader to identify someone or something

- We can use:
  - Proper nouns: (*Chomsky, Ahmed*)
  - Nouns in phrases: (*the cat, a writer, my friend, the war*)
  - Pronouns: (*he, she, it*)
- These words can be used to refer to many entities in the world
- We refer to things we're not sure what to call them
  - *That blue thing*
  - *That icky stuff*
- We invent references: *Mr. Kawasaki* (p. 131), *Miss Google.*

Inference

- A successful act of reference depends more on the listener's ability to recognize what we mean than on the listener's dictionary's knowledge of the word we use.

- We can use names associated with things to refer to people

  - *Where's the caesar salad sitting?*

  - *He's sitting by the door.*

- We can use names associated with people to refer to things

  - *Can I borrow your Chomsky?   Sure it's on the table*

  - *We saw Shakespeare in London.*

An inference is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant.

Anaphora

- We usually make a distinction between

  - introducing new referents (a puppy)

  - and referring back to them (the puppy, it)

- *We saw a funny home video about a boy washing **a puppy** in a small bath.*

- ***The puppy** started struggling and shaking and the boy got really wet.*

- *When he let go, **it** jumped out of the bath and ran away.*

- In this type of referential relationship,

  - The 1st mention is called **antecedent**. (a puppy/ a boy, a small bath)

  - The 2nd (subsequent) referring expression is an example of **anaphora** ("referring back"). (the puppy/ it/ the boy/ he/ the bath)

  - Anaphora: a subsequent reference to an already introduced entity.

Anaphora

- The connection between an antecedent & an anaphoric expression is created by use of:
  - A pronoun (it)
  - Repetition of the noun with *the* (the puppy)
  - Another noun that is related to the antecedent in some way (The little dog ran out of the room).
- The connection between antecedents and anaphoric expressions is often based on inference, as in these examples,
  - *We found **a house** to rent, but **the kitchen** was very small.*
  - *I caught **a bus** and asked **the driver** if it went near the downtown area.*

Presupposition

- *Why did you arrive late?*

  - Presupposition = you arrived late.

- *When did you stop smoking?*

  - Presupposition 1 = the speaker supposes that you used to smoke.

  - Presupposition 2 = the speaker supposes that you no longer smoke.

- We design our linguistic message on the basis of assumptions about what our listeners already know.

- What a speaker assumes is true or known by the listener can be described as a presupposition

Presupposition

- Questions like this, with built-in presuppositions, are very useful devices for interrogators or trial lawyers.

  - *Okay, Mr. Buckingham, how fast were you going when you ran the red light?*

- Negation test

  - *My car is old*

  - *My car isn't old*

  - The underlying presupposition = (I have a car)/ It remains true although the two sentences have opposite meanings. (constancy under negation)

Speech acts

- Speech acts (e.g. requesting/ commanding/ questioning/ informing)
- We can define a speech act as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance.

e.g.

- *I' ll be here at five.*

  You are not just speaking, you are performing the speech act of 'promising'

Direct and indirect speech acts
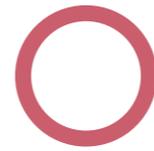
- We usually use certain syntactic structures with the functions listed beside them in the following table

	Structures	**Functions**
Did you eat the pizza?	Interrogative	Question
Eat the pizza (please)!	Imperative	Command (Request)
You ate the pizza.	Declarative	Statement

- When an interrogative structure such as Did you..?, Are they..?, Can we....? is used with the function of a question, it is described as a direct speech act.

  - When we don't know something and we ask someone to provide the information, we usually produce a direct speech (Can you ride a bicycle?)

Direct and indirect speech acts

- *Can you pass the salt?*

- Is it the same syntactic structure as (Can you ride the bicycle?)

- Does it have the same function that (Can you ride the bicycle?) has (i.e. asking about your ability?)?

- No, it's a request not a question. (Indirect speech act)

	Structures	**Functions**
Did you eat the pizza?	Interrogative	Question
Eat the pizza (please)!	Imperative	Command (Request)
You ate the pizza.	Declarative	Statement

Direct and indirect speech acts

- Whenever one of the structures in the set is used to perform a function other than the one listed beside it on the same line, the result is an indirect speech act.

- *You left the door open* (What structure? What function?)

- *You left the door open* (for someone who has just come in and it's really cold outside.)

- (= close the door) request but without using an imperative structure?

	Structures	Functions
Did you eat the pizza?	Interrogative	Question
Eat the pizza (please)!	Imperative	Command (Request)
You ate the pizza.	Declarative	Statement

Direct and indirect speech acts
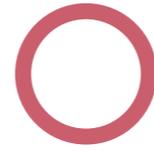
- It is possible to have strange effects if one person fails to recognize another person's indirect speech act.

  - Consider the following scene. A visitor to a city, carrying his luggage, looking lost, stops a passer-by.

    VISITOR: Excuse me. Do you know where the Ambassador Hotel is?

    PASSER-BY: Oh sure, I know where it is. (and walks away)

  - The passer-by is acting as if the utterance was a direct speech act instead of an indirect speech act used as a request for directions.

- *Could you open that door for me?* Function = request not question

- Why do we use the indirect speech?

- It's more polite. *Open that door for me!*

Politeness

- In the study of linguistic politeness, the most relevant concept is 'face'

- Your face, in pragmatics, is your public self-image. This is the emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize.

Politeness can be defined as showing awareness of and consideration of another person's face.

Politeness
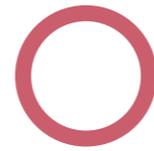
If you say something that represents a threat to another person's self image, that is called a face-threatening act.

- e.g. *Give me that paper!*

   behaving as if you have more social power than the other person. If you don't actually have that power (your mom, a military officer), then you are performing a face-threatening act.

If you say something that lessens the possible threat to another's face, it can be described as a face-saving act.

- Indirect speech act (*Could you pass me that paper*?) removes the assumption of social power.

Negative and positive face

- Negative face: the need to be independent, free from imposition

- A face-saving act that emphasizes a negative face will show concern about imposition:

  - *I'm sorry to bother you…*

  - *I know you're busy but…*

  - *If you're free,…*

- Positive face: the need to be connected, to be a member of the group

- A face-saving act that emphasizes a person's positive face will show solidarity and draw attention to a common goal:

  - *Let's do this together…*

  - *You and I have the same problem, so*

References

Yule, G. (2010). *The study of language*. (4th ed.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Homework: All study questions/ pp. 137

Thank you

Darene Almalki

CHAPTER 11

Discourse Analysis

The Study of Language

By

George Yule

INTRODUCTION

Book, Examples, P142:

- **Newspaper Headline:** Trains Collide, Two Die

- **Notice:** No Shoes, No Service

- **Paragraph:**

My Town

My natal was in a small town, very close to Riyadh capital of Saudi Arabia. The distant between my town and Riyadh 7 miles exactly. The name of this Almasani that means in English Factories. It takes this name from the peopl's carrer. In my childhood I remember that people live. It was very simple. Most the people was farmer.

NOTES

- We are capable of more than simply recognising correct vs. incorrect forms.
  - We cope with fragments in newspapers and notices for example.
- We have the ability to create complex interpretations of fragmentary linguistic messages.
  - We can even cope with texts, written in English, which we couldn't produce ourselves and which appear to break a lot of rules of the English language. We don't reject a text as ungrammatical but rather we try to make sense of it.

- So, how can we do all of that?

What is Discourse Analysis?

Discourse: It is language beyond the sentence.

So,

Discourse analysis: The study of language in <u>text</u> and <u>conversation</u>.

TEXTS

- What helps us make sense of a text is that it must have a certain structure with **cohesion** and **coherence.**

- **Cohesion: The ties and connections that exist within a text.**
  - **Example:** 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 sold it to help pay for my college education. Sometimes I think I'd rather have the convertible.
    - **Cohesive ties**: Maintaining **reference,** connections to **money** and **time, connector.**

- **Coherence: The quality of being logical, consistent and forming a unified whole.**
  - **Example:** My father bought a Lincoln convertible. The car driven by the police was red. That colour doesn't suit her. She consists of three letters. However, a letter isn't as fast as a telephone call.

UTTERANCES

□ **A speech event: An activity in which participants interact via language in some conventional way to arrive at some outcome.**

   ❑ Speech events can be a debate, interview, discussion or a casual conversation.

   ❑ It is a social situation involving participants who necessarily have a social relationship of some kind, and who may have particular purposes.

□ What people say and do differ according to the circumstances.

THE SOCIAL FACTORS

☐ When we analyse a **speech event,** we take into consideration **social factors**, i.e. the:

1. **Participants:** The **roles** of the speaker and the listener, their **relationship**, **age**, **education**…etc.
   - ■ E.g.: friends, strangers, men, women, young, old, of equal or unequal status

2. **Setting: Where** and **when** are they speaking?

3. **Topic: What** are they talking about?

4. **Function: Why** they are speaking?

SPEECH EVENTS

- It may include an obvious speech act, such as "I don't really like this", as in a speech event of *complaining*.

- However, it may also include other utterances that may **lead** to a **central action.**

- For instance, **a 'request'** is **NOT** made by means of a single speech act suddenly uttered. It is **typically** a speech event as seen in the following example:

EXAMPLE

Him: Oh, Mary I'm glad you're here.

Her: What's up?

Him: I can't get my computer to work.

Her: Is it broken?

Him: I don't think so.

Her: What's it doing?

Him: I don't know. I'm useless with computers.

Her: What kind is it?

Him: It's a Mac. Do you use them?

Her: Yeah.

Him: Do you have a minute?

Her: Sure.

Him: Oh, great.

NOTES

☐ The previous example may be called a '*requesting*' *speech event* without a **central speech act** of *request.*

☐ There was **no** actual request stated. We can characterize 'Do you have a minute?' as a **pre-request** so that the hearer has the chance to say no.

　☐ By saying 'sure', the hearer is:

　　• Acknowledging that she has time.

　　• Willing to do the unstated action.

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

- **A conversation: An activity in which two or more people take turns at speaking.**

- Typically, only **one person** speaks at a time and there tends to be **avoidance of silence** .
    - A: Didn't you [know why-
    - B: [But he must've been there by two
    - A: Yes but you knew where he was going.
        - [= overlapping

TURN-TAKING

- Usually, **participants** wait until one **speaker** **indicates** that he or she has **finished**, by signaling a *completion point.*
  - How do speakers mark their turns as **complete**?
    - By asking a question.
    - By pausing at the end of a completed syntactic structure like a phrase or sentence.
    - Eye contact.

TURN-TAKING

- Also, by showing they want to say something, participants can:
  - Start to make **short sounds**, usually repeated, while the speaker is talking
  - **Body shifts**
  - **Facial expressions** to signal that they have something to say

Basically, a conversation looks like this:

"I speak, you speak, I speak , you speak…etc"

TURN-TAKING

□ Research has shown different expectations of conversational style and different strategies of participation in conversation.

   ▫ **For example:**

      ■ **Rudeness** – If one speaker cuts in on another speaker

      ■ **Shyness** – If one speaker keeps waiting for an opportunity to take a turn and none seems to occur.

TURN-TAKING

- The participants characterized as 'rude' or 'shy' in this way may simply be adhering to slightly different conventions of *turn-taking*.
  - **'Long-winded'** speakers or those used to 'holding the floor' avoid having normal completion points by:
    - Avoiding the use of pauses at the end of a sentence.
    - Making their sentences run on by using connectors such as and, and then, so, but …etc.
    - Placing pauses at points where the message is clearly incomplete.
      - Preferably filling the pause with hesitation markers such as er, um, uh, ah
    - Avoiding eye contact

EXAMPLE

A: That's their favourite restaurant because they … enjoy French food and when they were … in France they couldn't believe that … you know the food was… er amazing and they er really really liked it.

B: What was that restaurant?

… = *Pause*

You know, er = *Fillers*

THE COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE

- The most noticeable features of conversational discourse is that it is very 'co-operative'.
  - i.e. Participants are co-operating with each other.
- Philosopher **Paul Grice** described the **co-operative principle** with its **four maxims.** (Maxims=Rules)
  - *"Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the state at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." (Grice, 1975)*

THE GRICEAN MAXIMS

1) **Quantity maxim:** Make your contribution as informative as is required, but not more, or less, than is required.

2) **Quality maxim:** Say the truth.

3) **Relation maxim:** Be relevant.

4) **Manner maxim:** Be clear, brief and orderly.

We assume that people are **telling the truth, being relevant,** and **trying to be as clear as they can.**

EXAMPLE

Daughter: Mum, can I have a tattoo?

Mother: Yeah, right after I have my nose pierced.

□ Which maxim is flouted?

HEDGES

- **Hedges: Words or phrases used to indicate that we're not really sure that what we are saying is sufficiently correct or complete.**
  - They are concerned with the Gricean maxims.
  - They can be referred to as '**cautious notes**'.
- We use them to show that we are concerned about following the maxims while being co-operative participants in conversation.

EXAMPLES

1- Concerning the **Quality** maxim:

- Sort of…kind of…
  - (for accuracy) as in *His hair was kind of long.*
- As far as I know
- correct me if I'm wrong,…
- I'm not absolutely sure, but…
- Possibly…likely… (not certain)
- Think or feel (not know)
- May or could happen (not must)

EXAMPLES

2- Concerning the **Quantity** maxim:

- As you probably know,…
- Cut a long story short,…
- I won't bore you with all the details,…

3- Concerning the **Relation** maxim:

- Anyway,…
- Well, anyway…
- Oh, by the way… (to mention something unconnected)

4- Concerning the **Manner** maxim:

- I'm not sure if this makes sense, but…

IMPLICATURES

☐ **Implicature: An additional conveyed meaning.**

Example:

- ☐ Carol: Are you coming to the party tonight?
- ☐ Lara: I've got an exam tomorrow.

What is meant here?

EXAMPLE

❖ **Example:**

 I didn't find my favourite cookies in the nearby *supermarket.*

❖ **Book, example P:150:**

Trying not to be out of the office for long, Suzy went into the nearest place, sat down and ordered an avocado sandwich. It was quite crowded but the service was fast, so she left a good tip. Back in the office, things were not going well.

❖ **Book, example P:151:**

Fill measure cup to line and repeat every 2 to 3 hours.

NOTES

❖ We do not need to be told what is normally found in a supermarket.

  ❖ We know that there is food displayed on shelves arranged in aisles, with shopping carts and checkout counters.

❖ This type of **knowledge** is what we call a **schema**.

  ❖ We usually **'build' interpretations** of what we read by using a lot **more information** THAN is **presented in words** on the page – based on our **expectations of what normally happens**.

  ❖ Sometimes crucial information is omitted from important instructions on the assumption that everybody knows the scenario.

❖ This type of **knowledge** is called a **script**.

SCHEMAS AND SCRIPT

- **Schema: A conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory**
    - E.g. the supermarket experience.
    - *Plural: schemas or schemata.*

- **Script: A dynamic schema.**
    - i.e. instead of the set of the typical fixed features in a schema, a script has a series of conventional actions that take place.
    - E.g. going to the dentist, eating at a restaurant.

□ A ***script*** is essentially a <u>dynamic</u> schema.

Schema: a set of typical fixed features.

▪ Script: a series of conventional actions that take place.

▫ Script: Cough syrup medicine:

■ Fill the measure cup to line and repeat every 2 to 3 hours.

Our understanding of what we read is not only based on what we see on the page (*language structures*)**, but also on other things that we have in mind** (*knowledge structures*).

LANE 321:

Introduction to Linguistics

Genie

In one unfortunate but well-documented case, we have gained some insight into what happens when the critical period passes without adequate linguistic input.

Genie

- 1970

- 13 years old

- Spent most of her life tied to a chair in a small closed room.

- Her father was intolerant of any kind of noise and had beaten her whenever she made a sound as a child.

- There had been no radio or television

- Genie's only other human contact was with her mother who was forbidden to spend more than a few minutes with the child to feed her.

Genie

- She was unable to use language when she was first brought into care.

- However, within a short period of time,
  - began to respond to the speech of others
  - try to imitate sounds
  - syntax remained very simple
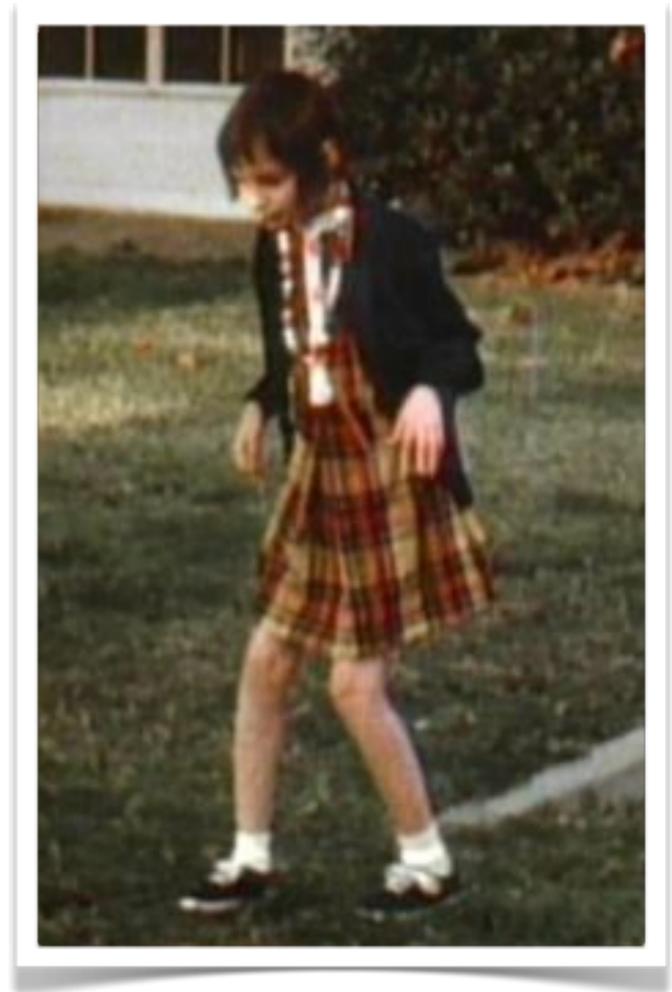
First Language Acquisition

The process of language acquisition has some basic requirements.

Basic requirements

1. A child requires interaction with other language-users in order to bring the general language capacity s/he has into operation.

- Genie

  - We have already seen that a child who doesn't hear or is not allowed to use language will learn no language.

- Cultural transmission

  - The language a child learns is not genetically inherited, but is acquired in a particular language-using environment.

Basic requirements

2. The child must be physically capable.

- Being able to speak

- Being able to hear

- All infants make 'cooing' and 'babbling' noises during their first year, but deaf infants stop after about six months.

Basic requirements

- So, is hearing enough?

- In order to speak a language, a child must be able to hear that language being used.

- By itself, however, hearing language sounds is not enough.

Basic requirements

One reported case has demonstrated that,

- with deaf parents who gave their normal-hearing son ample exposure to TV and radio programs, the boy did not acquire an ability to speak or understand English.

- What he did learn very effectively, by the age of 3, was .....

- ASL (The language he used to interact with his parents)

- So, the crucial requirement appears to be interaction with others via language.

Input

- Input: The language that an acquirer/ learner is exposed to, in contrast to *output*.

- How do we talk to babies/ children?

Caregiver Speech: Speech addressed to young children by the adult(s) or older children who are looking after them.

- Also called *Motherese*, *child-directed speech*

Input

Characteristics of Caregiver Speech

- The frequent use of questions

- Exaggerated intonation

- Extra loudness

- Slow rhythm with long pauses

- simple sentence structure

- A lot or of repetition

- Babytalk forms:

  - simplified words (*tummy, nana*)

  - alternative forms, with repeated simple sounds and syllables for things in the child's environment (*nanna, nono, pee-pee, poo-poo, dada, haw-haw, cocococo, choo*-choo)

Input
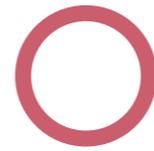
- Built into a lot of caregiver speech is a type of conversational structure that seems to assign interactive roles to young children even before they become speaking participants.

- MOTHER: Look!

- CHILD: (touches picture)

- MOTHER: what are those?

- CHILD: (vocalizes a babble string and smiles)

- MOTHER: yes, there are rabbits

- CHILD: (vocalizes, smiles looks up at mother)

- MOTHER: (laughs) yes, rabbit

- CHILD: (vocalizes, smiles)

- MOTHER: Yes. (laughs)

The acquisition schedule

- All normal children develop language at roughly the same time, along the same schedule.

- The same applies to biological development and physical activities.

- The biological schedule is very much related to the maturation of the infant's brain to cope with the linguistic input.

Cooing

- The first few months: the child gradually becomes capable of producing sequences of vowel-like sounds (particularly high vowels [i] and [u])

- 4 months: the ability to bring the back of the tongue into regular contact with the back of the palate – producing sounds similar to velar consonants [k] & [g] (cooing & gooing)

- 5 months: hear the difference between the vowels [a] and [i] and the syllables [ba] and [ga] -perception skills.

Babbling

- <u>6-8 months:</u> sitting up & producing a number of different vowels, consonants, and combinations like *ba-ba-ba* and *ga-ga-ga* (babbling)

- <u>9-10 months:</u>

  - recognizable intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced

  - Variation in the combinations (ba-ba-da-da)

  - Nasal sounds become common

 - Certain syllable sequences also appear (ma-ma-ma & da-da-da)

Babbling

- 10-11months:

  - Standing position

  - Capable of using vocalization to express emotions & emphasis.

  - More complex syllable combination (*ma-da-ga-ba*)

  - A lot of sound play & attempted imitations.

Note:

- There is substantial variation among children in terms of the age at which particular features of linguistic development occur.
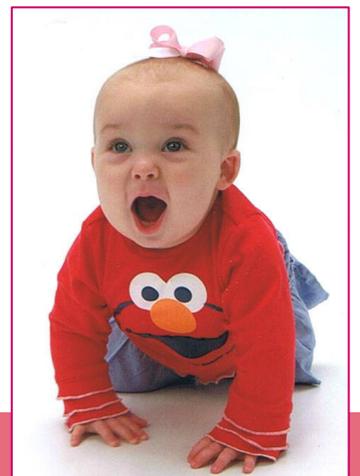
The one-word stage

- 12-18 months.

- recognizable single-unit utterances

- single terms are uttered for everyday objects 'milk', 'cookie', 'cat', 'cup', and 'spoon' [pun]

- Holophrastic (wasa = what's that) (single units not single words)

Holophrastic (utterance): A single form functioning as a phrase or sentence in the early speech of young children

- Produce utterances such as 'Sara bed' but not yet capable of producing a more complex phrase.

The two-word stage

- 18-20 months: vocabulary moves beyond 50 words

- By 2 years old, children produce utterances 'baby chair', 'mommy eat'

- Interpretation depends on context.

  - *Baby chair* might mean:

    - This is baby's chair

    - Put baby in chair

    - Baby is in the chair

- Adults behave as if communication is taking place.

- The child not only produces speech, but receives feedback confirming that the utterance worked as a contribution to the interaction.

- By this age, whether the child is producing 200 or 300 words, he or she will be capable of understanding 5 times as many.

Telegraphic speech

- <u>2-2½ years:</u>

- The child produces 'multiple-word' speech.

- Telegraphic Speech

Telegraphic Speech: Strings of words (lexical morphemes without inflectional morphemes) in phrases (daddy go bye-bye) produced by two-year-old children.

- The child has clearly developed sentence-building capacity & can get the word order correct ('*cat drink milk*', '*daddy go bye-bye*')

- A number of grammatical inflections begin to appear.

- Simple prepositions (in, on) are also used

- By the age 2½, vocabulary is expanding rapidly + the child is initiating more talk

- <u>3 years</u>:

- Vocabulary has grown to hundreds of words

- Better pronunciation

The acquisition process

- For most children, no one provides any instruction on how to speak the language.

- Children actively construct, from what is said to them, possible ways of using the language.

- trying out constructions and testing whether they work or not.

The acquisition process
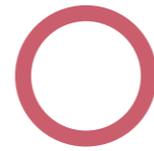
- So, children acquire language not only by imitating.
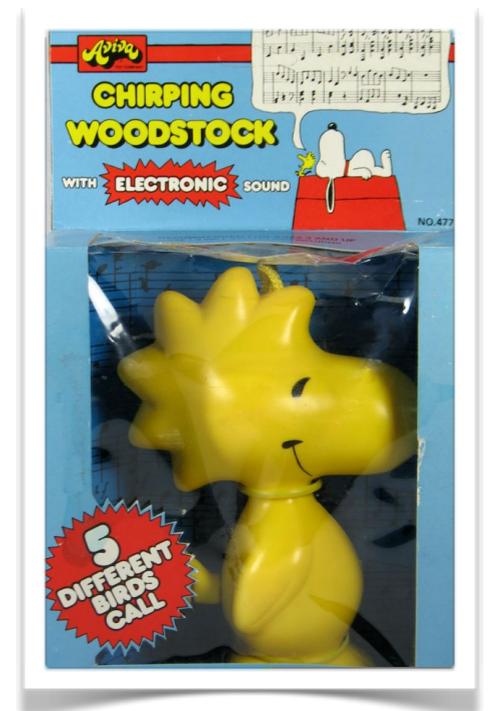
- They produce expressions adults never produced.

NOAH: *(picking up a toy dog) This is Woodstock.*

(He bobs the toy in Adam's face)

ADAM: *Hey Woodstock, don't do that.*

(Noah persists)

ADAM: *I'm going home so you won't Woodstock me.*

The acquisition process

- It is also unlikely that adult's 'corrections' are a very effective determiner of how the child speaks.

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.*

The acquisition process

- One important factor in the development of the child's linguistic repertoire is the actual use of sound and word combinations.

  - In interactions with others

  - In word play (p. 176)

    - *I go dis way … way bay … baby do dis bib … all bib … bib … dere.*

Developing morphology

- By 2-2½ years: use of some inflectional morphemes to indicate the grammatical function of nouns and verbs.

- The 1st inflection to appear is *-ing (cat sitting, mommy reading book)*

Developing morphology

- The next morphological development is typically the marking of regular plurals, (*-s)*, as in *boys* and *cats*.

- The acquisition of the plural marker is often accompanied by a process of overgeneralization.

- The child overgeneralizes the rule of adding *-s* to form plurals and will talk about *foots* and *mans*.

- When the alternative pronunciation of the plural morpheme used in *houses* (i.e. ending in [-əz]) comes into use, overgeneralization happens again and forms such as *boyses* or *footses* can be heard.

- At the same time as this overgeneralization is taking place, some children also begin using irregular plurals such as *men* appropriately for a while, but then overgeneralize again and producing expressions like *some mens* and *two feets*, or even *two feetses*.

Developing morphology

- Not long after, the use of possessive 's' appears (*mommy's bag)*

- At about the same time, forms of verb *to be* appear (is, are, was)

- At about the same time of the appearance of *was*, irregular verbs (*went, came*) appear.

- Then, the -ed for past tense appears (*played, walked*).

- Once it appears, the irregular verb forms disappear for a while, replaced by overgeneralized versions (*goed, comed*)

- For a period, the -ed inflection may be added to everything (*walkeded, wented*)

- The child works out (after the age of 4) which forms are regular and which are not.

- Finally, the -s marker for 3rd person singular present tense verbs appears with full verbs first (*comes, looks*) then with auxiliaries (*does, has*)

Developing syntax

- Similar evidence against "imitation" as the basis of the child's speech production has been found in studies of the syntactic structures used by young children.

- A child was asked to say *the owl who eats candy runs fast* and she said *the owl eat candy and he run fast.*

Developing syntax

- We will look at the development of two structures that seem to be acquired in a regular way by most English-speaking children.

- In the **formation of questions** and the **use of negatives**, there appear to be <u>three</u> identifiable stages.

- The ages at which children go through these stages can vary quite a bit, but the general pattern seems to be that:

  - Stage 1 occurs between 18 and 26 months

  - Stage 2 occurs between 22 and 30 months

  - Stage 3 occurs between 24 and 40 months

Forming questions

1. Simply add a Wh-form (*Where, Who*) to the beginning of the expression

e.g.　*Where kitty?*

　　　Where Doggie?

　　　Where horse go?

2. Utter the expression with a rise in intonation towards the end

e.g.　*Sit chair?*

Forming questions

The 2ⁿᵈ stage

1. More complex expressions can be formed

2. rising intonation strategy continues to be used

e.g. *You want eat?/ See my doggie?*

3. More Wh-forms come into use

e.g. *What book name? / Why you smiling?*

Forming questions

The 3rd stage

1. The required inversion of subject and verb in English questions appears

e.g.   *I can go → Can I go?*

        Can I have a piece? / Did I caught it?/ Will you help me?

2. but the Wh-questions do not always undergo the required inversion.

e.g.   *How that opened?/ Why kitty can't stand up?*

3. The 3rd stage questions are generally quite close to the adult model

e.g.   *What did you do? (Memorised as a chunk)*

Forming negative

The 1st stage

Involves a simple strategy of putting no or not at the beginning

e.g.   *not a teddy bear*

         no sit here

         no fall

Forming negative

The 2nd stage:

1. The additional negative forms *don't* and *can't* appear

e.g.   *I don't want it*

         You can't dance

2. *no* and *not* are increasingly used in front of the verb rather than at the beginning of the sentence

e.g.   *He no bite you*

Forming negative

The 3rd stage

1. The incorporation of other auxiliary forms such as *didn't* and *won't*
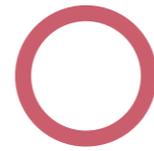
e.g.   *I didn't caught it, She won't let go*

2. The typical stage 1 forms disappear.

3. A very late acquisition is the negative form *isn't*, with the result that some stage 2 forms (with *not* instead of *isn't*) continue to be used for quite a long time

e.g.   *He not taking it/ This not ice cream*

Developing Semantics

- During the two-word stage children use their limited vocabulary to refer to a large number of unrelated objects.

- Overextension: overextending the meaning of a word on the basis of similarities of shape, sound, or size.

  e.g. use ball to refer to an apple, an egg, a grape and a ball.

- This is followed by a gradual process of narrowing down.

- Antonymous relations are acquired late (After the age of 5)

- The distinction between more/less, before/after seems to be later acquisition.

References

Yule, G. (2010). *The study of language*. (4th ed.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thank you

Chapter 14

Second language acquisition/ learning

LANE 321: Introduction to Linguistics

1

Content adapted from Yule (2010)

Introduction

- Children acquire their 1st language really fast and without any effort.

- All children develop language at roughly the same age.

- The question is: if 1st language acquisition is so straightforward, why is learning a 2nd language so difficult?

- Think about a baby acquiring his first language.

- Think about a person acquiring a second language.

- What similarities and differences are there in the two processes?

2

Second language learning

- The distinction between

  - *'Foreign language learning'*: "learning a language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding community."

    - e.g. a Saudi student learning English in Saudi Arabia. (EFL)

  - '*Second language learning*': "learning a language that is spoken in the surrounding community."

    - e.g. a Saudi student leaning English in the USA. (ESL)

- The expression second language learning is used more generally to describe <u>both</u> situations.

3

Acquisition and learning

- Acquisition: the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language.

- Learning: a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features of a language (e.g. vocabulary & grammar) in institutional setting.

4

Acquisition and learning

- Activities associated with learning:
    - used in schools
    - result in more knowledge "about" the language (as demonstrated in tests) than fluency in using the language (as demonstrated in social interaction).
- Activities associated with acquisition:
    - experienced by young children
    - experienced by those who pick up L2 from long periods of interaction with native speakers.
- Those individuals whose L2 exposure is primarily a learning type of experience tend not to develop the same kind of general proficiency as those who have had more of an acquisition type of experience.

5

The Critical Period Hypothesis

The critical period hypothesis (CPH) as proposed by Lenneberg (1967) holds that primary language acquisition must occur during a critical period which ends at about the age of puberty with the establishment of cerebral lateralization of function.
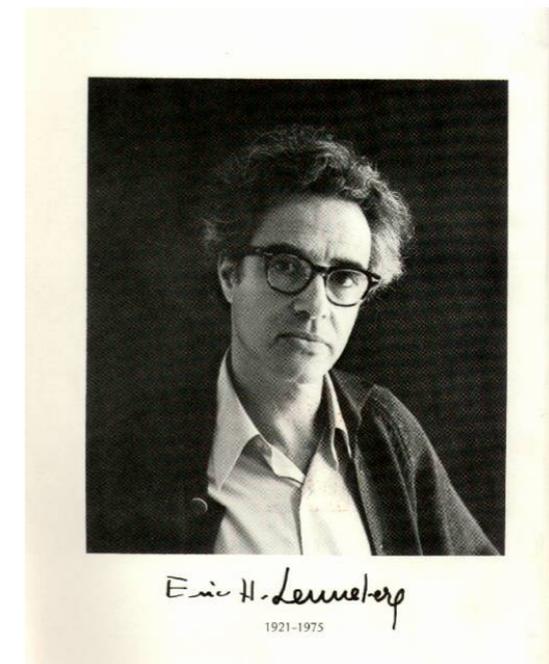
The Critical Period Hypothesis

- The processes involved in any language acquisition which takes place after the age of puberty will be qualitatively different from those involved in first language acquisition.

- Any language learning which occurs after the age of puberty will be slower and less successful than normal first language learning (Krashen 1975; Lenneberg 1967, 1969; Scovel 1969).

Acquisition barriers

- Why is learning an L2 different from acquiring an L1?

Factor	L1	L2
Age	childhood	teenage or adult years
Interaction time	constant interaction	a few hours each week of school time
Responsibilities	Little to do	a lot of other things going on
Another language?	No	Yes

Acquisition barriers

- Many adults manage to overcome the difficulties and develop an ability to use the L2 effectively- though not usually sounding like native speakers.

- e.g Arnold Schwarzenegger, actor/ Governor of California, whose accent is clearly noticeable yet who is as linguistically proficient as any native speaker of American English.

- This provides evidence for the Critical Period Hypothesis

Acquisition barriers

- However, even in ideal acquisition situations, very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using an L2.

- There are individuals who can achieve great expertise in the written language, but not the spoken language.

- e.g. Joseph Conrad:

  - wrote novels in English that became classics of English literature

  - his English speech retained the strong Polish accent of his L1

- This suggests that some features of an L2 (e.g. vocabulary and grammar) are easier to learn than others (e.g. pronunciation)

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Acquisition barriers

- Against this view, it has been demonstrated that students in their early teens are quicker and more effective L2 learners in the classroom than seven-year-olds.

- The optimum age for learning may be during the years from about 10 to16 when:

  - the flexibility of our inherent capacity for language has not been completely lost

  - the maturation of cognitive skills allows a more effective analysis of the regular features of the L2 being learned

Affective factors

- Affective (not effective) = Affections/ feelings

Affective Factors: Emotional reactions such as self-consciousness or negative feelings that may influence learning

- Affective factors are among the types of acquisition barriers that might inhibit the learning process. For example:
  - Self-consciousness
  - Unwillingness
  - Embarrassment
  - Lack of empathy with the other culture.
  - Dull textbooks, unpleasant classrooms, an exhausting schedule of study or work, etc.
- Basically, if we are stressed, uncomfortable, self-conscious or unmotivated, we are unlikely to learn very much.

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Affective factors

- Children may overcome such factors quickly.

- Studies have shown that children quickly overcome their inhibitions as they try to use new words and phrases.

- Adults can sometimes overcome their inhibitions too.

Experiment:

- In one interesting study, a group of adult L2 learners volunteered to have their self-consciousness levels reduced by having their alcohol levels gradually increased

- Up to a certain point, the pronunciation of the L2 noticeably improved

- After a certain number of drinks, pronunciations deteriorated rapidly

Focus on method

- More recent approaches designed to promote L2 learning have tended to reflect different theoretical views on how an L2 might best be learned.

- The grammar-translation method

- The audiolingual method

- Communicative approaches

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The grammar-translation method

Characteristics:

- Treating L2 as any other academic subject

- Use of vocabulary lists and sets of grammar rules

- Memorization is encouraged

- Written language rather than spoken language is emphasized

- Translation to the mother tongue

The grammar-translation method

- Produced many successful L2 users

Criticism:

- does not focus on how language is used in everyday conversation

- Saudi students can leave school, having achieved high grades in English, yet find themselves at loss when confronted by the way English native speakers actually use their language.

The audiolingual method

Characteristics:

- Emphasizes spoken language

- Systematic presentation of the L2 structure, moving from the simple to the more complex, in the form of drills – repetition.

- The use of language is a 'habit' that needs a lot of practice.

- Dialogue form, mimicry, set phrases, drills, memorization, tapes, language labs.

Criticism:

- boring

- not like the interactional nature of actual spoken language use.

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Communicative approaches

- Communicative approaches are partially a reaction against:

  - the artificiality of "pattern- practice"

  - the belief that learning the grammar rules of a language will result in an ability to use the language.

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

- A shift from concern with the teacher, the textbook, and the method to an interest in the learner and the acquisition process.

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Focus on the learner

- One of the radical features of the communicative approach is the toleration of 'errors' produced by students.

- Traditionally, "errors" were regarded negatively and had to be avoided or eradicated.

- An "error," then, is not something that hinders a student's progress, but is probably a clue to the active learning progress being made by the student as he or she tries out ways of communicating in the new language.

- Just as children acquiring their L1 produce certain types of ungrammatical forms (e.g. overgeneralization) at times, so we might expect the L2 learner to produce similar forms at certain stages

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Transfer

- Some errors may be due to "transfer" (also called "crosslinguistic influence").

Transfer: Using sounds, expressions or structures from the L1 when performing in the L2.

  - e.g. an Arabic speaker may say: "*open* the lights?"

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Transfer

Two types:

- Positive transfer: If the L1 & L2 have similar features, then the learner may benefit from positive transfer. "e.g. I wish I travel tomorrow/أتمنى أسافر بكرة"

Positive Transfer: The use of a feature from the L1 that is similar to the L2 while performing in the L2, in contrast to *negative transfer*

- Negative transfer (interference) : transferring an L1 feature that is really different from the L2 (e.g. putting n. before adj: the girl beautiful) results in negative transfer.

Negative Transfer: The use of a feature from the L1 (that is really different from the L2) while performing in the L2, in contrast to *positive transfer*

- We should remember that negative transfer is more common in the early stages of L2 learning and often decreases as the learner develops familiarity with the L2.

Interlanguage

Interlanguage: An in-between system of L2 learners, which has some features of the L1 and L2 plus some independent of the L1 and L2.

- e.g. the Spanish L1 speaker who says in English *She name is Maria* is producing a form that is:
    - not used by adult speakers of English,
    - does not occur in English L1 acquisition by children,
    - and is not based on a structure in Spanish.

Interlanguage

- If some learners develop fixed repertoire of L2 expressions, containing many forms that do not match the target language and seem not to be progressing any further, their interlanguage is said to have '*fossilized*'.

- 'fossilization' in L2 pronunciation = foreign accent.

Fossilization: The process whereby an interlanguage, containing many non-L2 features, stops developing toward more accurate forms of the L2

Motivation

- Very important in language learning.

Instrumental motivation: The desire to learn an L2, not to join the community of L2-users, but to achieve some other goal, in contrast to *integrative motivation*

- e.g.
  - Graduation requirement
  - Read scientific publications
  - Find a better job

Integrative motivation: The desire to learn an L2 in order to take part in the social life of the community of L2-users, in contrast to *instrumental motivation*

- e.g. Become an accepted member in a community

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Motivation

- Those who experience some success in L2 communication are among the most motivated to learn.

Success	→ ←	Motivation
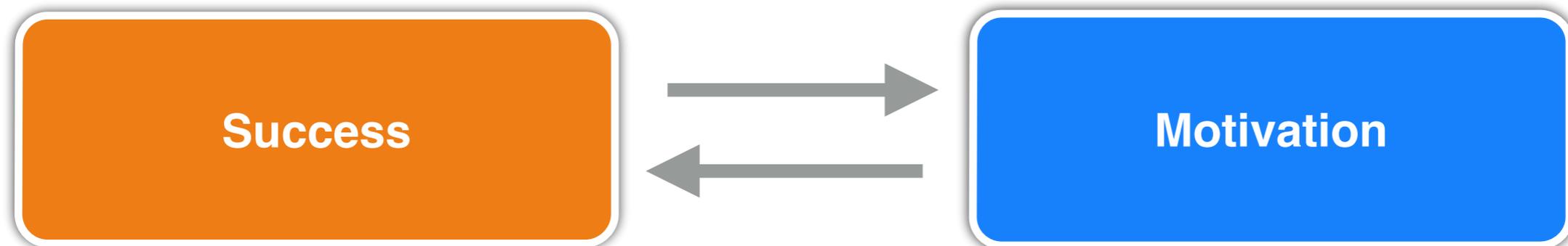
Input & output

Input: The language the learner is exposed to, in contrast to *output*

- To be beneficial for L2 learning, input has to be *comprehensible*.

Foreigner Talk: A way of using a language with non-native speakers that is simpler in structure and vocabulary.

- *How are you getting on in your studies?*

- *English class, you like it?*

- This type of foreigner talk may be beneficial at early stages. How?

- It is not only beneficial for immediate communicative success, but also for providing comprehensible examples of the basic structure of L2.

Input & output

- As the learner's interlanguage develops, there is a need for more interaction – '*negotiated input*'.

Negotiated Input: L2 material that an acquirer/ learner is exposed to when active attention is drawn to that material during interaction in the L2.

NS: *like part of a triangle?*
NNS: *what is triangle?*
NS: *a triangle is a shape um it has three sides*
NNS: *a peak?*
NS: *three straight sides*
NNS: *a peak?*
NS: *yes it does look like a mountain peak, yes*
NNS: *only line only line?*
NS: *okay two of them, right? one on each side? a line on each side?*
NNS: *yes*
NS: *little lines on each side?*
NNS: *yes*
NS: *like a mountain?*
NNS: *yes*

Input & output

Output: the language produced by an acquirer/ learner, in contrast to *input*

- The opportunity to produce comprehensible output in meaningful interaction is another important element in the learner's development of L2 ability.

- Yet it is one of the most difficult things to provide in large L2 classes.

- One solution has been to create different types of tasks and activities in which learners have to interact with each other, usually in small groups or pairs, to exchange information or solve problems.

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Input & output

- Despite fears that learners will simply learn each other's "mistakes," the results of such task-based learning provide overwhelming evidence of more and better L2 use by learners.

- The goal of such activities is not that the learners will know more about the L2, but that they will develop *communicative competence in* the L2

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Communicative competence

Communicative Competence: The general ability to use language accurately, flexibly, and appropriately.

- It has different components:

  - Grammatical competence

  - Sociolinguistic competence

  - Strategic competence

Grammatical competence

- It involves the accurate use of words and structures.

- How to use the grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language.

- What words do I use?

- How do I put them into phrases and sentences?

- Is it enough?

- No, concentration on grammatical competence only will not provide the learner with the ability to interpret or produce L2 expressions appropriately.

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Sociolinguistic competence

- How to use and respond to language appropriately, given the setting, the topic, and the relationships among the people communicating.

- Which words and phrases fit this setting and this topic?

- How can I express a specific attitude (courtesy, authority, friendliness, respect) when I need to?

- How do I know what attitude another person is expressing?

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Strategic competence

- How to recognize and repair communication breakdowns

- How to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language

  - e.g. A Japanese speaker saying, "He is not telling the truth" instead of "He is a liar" to avoid pronouncing the initial [l] sound in 'liar'.

- How do I know when I've misunderstood or when someone has misunderstood me?

- What do I say then? How can I express my ideas if I don't know the name of something or the right verb form to use?

  - e.g. a Dutch L1 speaker wanted to refer to *een hoefijzer* in English, but didn't know the English word. So, she used a communication strategy.

    - *the things that horses wear under their feet, the iron things*

    - the listener understood immediately what she meant (horseshoes).

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Applied Linguistics

- In attempting to investigate the complex nature of L2 learning, we have to appeal to ideas not only from linguistic analysis, but from other fields such as communication studies. education, psychology, sociology.

- Applied Linguistics

- Because it represents an attempt to deal with a large range of practical issues involving language (not only L2 learning), applied linguistics has created connections with fields as diverse as anthropology, neurolinguistics, social psychology, and sign language studies.

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Thank you

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LANGUAGE & CULTURE

CULTURE

LANGUAGE and CULTURE
George Yule

Culture

We use the term culture to refer to all the ideas and assumptions about the nature of things and people that we learn when we become members of social groups. It can be defined as "socially acquired knowledge."

Relationship between Language and Culture:

✓ On a practical level, language has to do with sounds, symbols and gestures that a community puts in order and associates so that they can communicate. On a deeper level, language is an expression of who we are as individuals, communities, nations. (https://www.sil.org/why-language-culture-studies)

✓ We identify 'we' and 'they' through our use of language, because we view our language as a symbol of our identity; the prohibition of its use in certain place is perceived as the rejection of their social group and culture. Language symbolizes cultural reality. (Kramsch, C. (1998). *Language and culture*. Oxford University Press.)

✓ As teachers of language, we do not teach only language but also our culture. The way we say certain things, is hugely affected by our culture. It is hard to isolate them.

CATEGORIES

Categories

- ✓ Noun(s)/name(s) given to a group of things/animals/places/feelings that possess similar features are called **categories**.
- ✓ Different languages have different names to refer to the same thing. Some languages may not even have the definite term to express certain thing. When activity/thing/feelings are tied to a single word, we call it **'lexicalized'**.

Example:
- o English language distinguishes among red, yellow, blue, purple, black, white, green, gray, violet, magenta, pink, etc. All of these colors are 'lexicalized' in English.
- o Nepalese language distinguishes among red, yellow, blue, black, white, and green. Only six colors are 'lexicalized' in Nepalese language.
- o Dani language spoken in New Guinea distinguishes between black, and white colors. Thus, only two colors are 'lexicalized' in Dani language.

KINSHIP TERMS

Kinship Terms: A type of Lexicalized Categories

✓ **Terms used to refer to the members of same family**

1. Mother of your mother
English: Grandmother
Norwegian: Mormor

3. Father of your mother
English: Grandfather
Norwegian: morfar

5. Brother of your mother
English: Uncle
Watam: akwae
Nepalese: Mama

2. Mother of your Father
English: Grandmother
Norwegian: farmor

4. Father of your father
English: Grandfather
Norwegian: farfar

6. Brother of your father
English: uncle
Watam: aes
Nepalese: Kaka/uncle

Linguistic Relativity & Linguistic Determinism

Linguistic Relativity and Linguistic Determinism

✓ The view that maintains that we see the world/perceive an action differently on the basis of language we speak (L1) is known as **linguistic relativism**. (Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis)

✓ The strong version of Linguistic Relativity, which believes that language determines our world is known as **linguistic determinism**. (Whorfian Hypothesis)

For example:

- Hopi tend to categorize everything in two broad categories namely 'animate' and 'inanimate': they categorize 'stone' and 'cloud' as animate (living being-Whorf)

- Hopi does not have the number like (one, two, three) and they don't have term for seven days- no weekdays, no weekend

- Because of these reasons, Whorf believed they see world differently than English speaking people.

Classifying Nouns: Clues, Not Causes

Different cultures categorize nouns differently

Swahili uses three different prefixes to categorize their nouns as follows:
1) HUMAN (wa-) e.g. "**Wa**toto" = "Children"
2) NON-HUMAN or RAW MATERIAL (mi-) e.g. "**Mi**mea" = "Plants"
3) ARTIFACT or MANUFACTURED OJBECT (vi-) e.g. "**Vi**ti" = "Chairs"

• We can look at these linguistic categories as CLUES about how a culture thinks ... not CAUSES for them to think a certain way.
• English classifies nouns as "count" and "noncount" ... do you recall what that means?

Formality & Family: Social Categorization

Formality and Family: Social Categorization

FAMILY AND RELATION TERMS

✓ Used to organize the people you know in terms of familial relation.

  ✓ Brother, Sister, Uncle, Cousin

✓ How can these be used outside formal family situations?

FORMALITY TERMS

✓ Used to organize the people you know in terms their status (and in relation to your own)

✓   - Doctor, Professor, Sir

✓ Who is more responsible for abiding by formality terms in a conversation? The higher status party or the lower status party?

The T/V Distinction

The T/V Distinction

✓ Languages like Spanish, French and German actually have different *pronouns* for different levels of formality

✓ Have you studied a foreign language with this distinction? Did you find it hard? Why?

	Spanish	French	German
Formal	usted	vous	Sie
Informal	tu	tu	du

Sociolinguistics & Gender: The Difference Model

Sociolinguistics and Gender: The Difference Model

✓ The difference model is based on a difference paradigm of language and gender:

✓ Different upbringing in our societies

✓ Men and women are risen to occupy different positions in society

✓ Education emphasizes this differentiation so that individuals are really conscious of the difference and speak accordingly (Warhaugh, 2010, p. 254).

What Do You think?

What do you think?

1. You tell an incident of somebody bullying you to your father and mother
- What would your mother think about it?
- What would your father think about it?
- Who would you think feel an obligation to teach a lesson to that person/group? Why?

2. A male, and a female employees got fired a while ago from their job for no apparent reason.
- What would be the reaction of the female employee?
- What would be the reaction of the male employee?

3. Cell-phone rings. The person remains seated, becomes relaxed, laughs/smiles and talks cordially with the person on the other side. Is this a male? Female? Why?

4. Two friends meet after a while. They talk about politics, office, environment, weather, and other external affairs not related to their personal contemporary situation. They are people of the same sex. Are they males? Females? Why?

What Do You Think?

What Do You Think?

✓ Does your gender affect the way you <u>use</u> English? Do you feel there is a more "male" way of speaking English? A more "female" way?

✓ Does a group of English-speaking males have different conventions of <u>conversation</u> that a group of all females?

Gendered Speech & Interaction

Gendered Speech and Interaction

MALES	FEMALES

MALES

- ✓ Use more assertive forms and direct speech acts
- ✓ Have lower pitch range
- ✓ Take longer speaking turns
- ✓ ....more likely to interrupt women (p. 277)

FEMALES

- ✓ More indirect speech acts
- ✓ Rising intonation at end of statements
- ✓ "Tag questions" at end of statement
  - ✓ **I hate it when it rains, don't you?**
- ✓ Back-channels
  - ✓ Indicate attention, e.g. "Yeah, really?" or "Mmhmm"

*according to George Yule in *The Study of Language* (2010).... **Do you agree?**

Overcome Sexism

Overcome Sexism

Efforts made in linguistic planning to overcome sexism in language

Language changes can be interpreted in two opposing ways:

1) changes in language are brought up to reflect social changes and the changes in the social use of language,

2) changes in language are imposed to enforce changes in social use (Wardhaugh, 2010, p. 253).

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The Study of Language

Fourth Edition

George Yule