



**Discourse Analysis**  
**Dr. Majzoub Al-Amir**

مقرر : تحليل الخطاب  
الدكتور : مجذوب العامر

\*- \* إعداد وتنسيق : يارا \*-\*

## LECTURE 1

# **DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: DEFINITION OF BASIC TERMS**

**Discourse analysis** is a broad term for the study of the ways in which language is used in **texts** and **contexts**. Also called *discourse studies*.

Developed in the 1970s, discourse analysis is concerned with "the use of language in a running **discourse**, continued over a number of **sentences**, and involving the interaction of **speaker** (or **writer**) and **auditor** (or **reader**) in a specific situational context, and within a framework of social and cultural conventions

### **TEXT AND CONTEXT**

**Text:** the original words of a piece of writing or a speech. It usually consists of more than one sentence or utterance.

**Situational Context:** The environment or situation in which a text is produced: Who is speaking to Whom, when, where, and about what topic : The addressor, the addressee, the time, the place, and the topic of discourse.

**Linguistic context:** is the discourse or language items that surround a language unit and help to determine its interpretation as in the example below :

*When people lose their jobs, they also lose their self-confidence, or belief in their own confidence.*

The meaning of the underlined word can be interpreted with reference to the following expression ..

### **Form and function**

In discourse analysis, **form** refers to the sentences or utterances produced. **Function** refers to the purpose behind sentences or utterances. For example, the sentence **can you help me carry this box?** Expresses the function "**request**" and the sentence **I will buy you a new car if you**

*graduate with a first class degree* expresses “**promise**” These  
functions are referred to as **the communicative functions of Language**.  
They are also referred to as “**speech acts**”, in the sense that they are acts  
produced when we utter sentences or utterances. These will be studied in  
details in the next lecture

*The end ..*

## LECTURE 2

### **Mega language functions**

Linguists have identified a number of mega language functions:

#### **1. The informative function:**

This function refers to the use of language to **provide information** or **ask for information**: **Example:** Khartoum is the capital of Sudan (giving information). What is the capital of Spain? ( asking for information)

This is probably the most widely used language function .It is also referred to as **assertion. Also called the , referential, conceptual, or ideational function.**

#### **2. The communicative function:**

People use sentences or utterances to produce functions like **request, command, Promise, suggestion, agreement. Etc.** In fact, whenever we utter any sentence we produce a communicative function. For example, the sentence "Can you help me carry this box". expresses the function "request"

#### **3.The phatic communion function**

This is the use of language to establish and consolidate social relations between the participants in discourse such as greetings (**hi, how are you, nice meeting you**) and the like. Clearly, such expressions do not provide information. This function is often referred to as "talking for the sake of talking". A common type of this in England is when strangers waiting for a bus talk about the weather "**nice day today, isn't it?**" not with the intention of 'informing' but merely to establish relations with others and probably to kill the time while waiting for the bus to arrive ! ..

#### **4. The Poetic Function**

Focuses on "the message for its own sake" (the code itself, and how it is used) and is the operative function in poetry as well as slogans.

### **5. The Emotive/Expressive Function:**

Expresses the feelings and emotions of the addresser (sender/ speaker) and is best exemplified by interjections and other sound changes that do not alter the referential meaning of an utterance but do add information about the Addresser's (speaker's) internal state, e.g. "**Wow**, what a view!" "Fantastic!!".

**Meta lingual Function** The use of language to discuss or describe itself:  
"may" is an Teacher: Good morning: Phatic communion.

Today, we will study the past tense ( Informative)

Can you open page 14 in the book ? ( Request)

This lesson is a very useful and interesting lesson(emotive, expressive).

The past form of "go" is "went": Metalingual.

*The end .*

## LECTURE 3

### **Written AND SPOKEN DISCOURSE**

There are many differences between spoken and written discourse. :  
These differences will affect the way spoken and written discourses are studied.

THESE ARE SUMMARIZED BELOW.

#### **\*\*DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SPEECH AND WRITING\*\***

<b>SPEECH</b>	<b>WRITING</b>
Universal, everybody acquires it	Not everyone learns to read and write
Has dialect variations that represent a region	More restricted and generally follows standardized form of grammar, structure, organization, and vocabulary
Speakers use their voices (pitch, rhythm, stress) and their bodies to communicate their message	Writers rely on the words on the page to express meaning and their ideas
Speakers use pauses and intonation	Writers use punctuation
Speakers pronounce	Writers spell
Speaking is often spontaneous and unplanned.	Most writing is planned and can be changed through editing and revision before an audience reads it
Speakers use simpler sentences connected by lots of ands and buts.	Writers use more complex sentences With connecting words .
Speakers draw on their listeners reactions to know how or whether to continue	Writers are often solitary in their process
Speakers have immediate audiences who nod, interrupt, question and comment.	Writers have a delayed response from audiences or none at all and have only one opportunity to convey their message, be

	<b>interesting, informative, accurate and hold their reader's attention</b>
<b>Speech is usually informal and repetitive.</b>	<b>Writing is more formal and compact</b>
<b>Speech is acquired naturally without teaching</b>	<b>Writing can only be learnt by teaching</b>

*The end ..*

## LECTURE 4 :

### **COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS**

Communicative functions refer to the function we produce whenever we utter a sentence. Three main types of such functions can be identified: The informative, the expressive, and the directive. These functions are distinguished by the different sentence type they express and their purpose. The informative is usually expressed by declarative sentences, the expressive by exclamatory sentences, and the directive by imperative sentences

### **MAJOR LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS**

A language function refers to its purpose, what it does, its uses. The purpose of the informative function is to provide or ask for information:

Paris is the capital of France? Is Paris the capital of France?

The purpose of the expressive function is to express the feelings or emotions of the

speaker: What a nice weather we have today! The purpose of the

directive function is to tell the speaker to do or not to do something:

Shut the window, please. Do not shut the window ,please.

### **MIXED DISCOURSE**

It is extremely rare for a discourse to express only one of these functions . In fact, discourse is usually mixed in the sense that all functions can be used in a piece of discourse. For example, if someone asks from a group of contributors to provide funds for the Cancer Society, he will use all three types of functions. He will tell his audience about the role of the society (informative), then make a moving statement about the suffering of cancer patients and their need for help ( expressive) and conclude by asking for the audience contribution ( Directive).



## OTHER USES OF LANGUAGE

These include:

a. **Ceremonial functions** such as naming or marriage ceremonies ( I hereby name this ship King Salman or I hereby announce you husband and wife ).

b. **Performative verbs**: These are such called because a function is explicitly performed by just uttering them: I divorce you, I promise to help you).

c. **Phatic function**: Social language such as greetings, elevator talk, leave-taking expressions ( see you later).

## SENTENCE TYPES AND LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS

A sentence type usually expresses a certain language function but it can also express all three major language functions. Thus, A **declarative sentence** usually expresses the **informative function** as in ( the room is cool) but it can also express the other two functions: I had a nice time ( expressive) and I would like some coffee (directive).

An **interrogative sentence** typically asks for information (informative) but it can also perform the **expressive function** (Isn't that great?) as well as the **directive function** ( Don't you want to help me?)

The **imperative sentence** usually expresses the **directive function** (shut the windows) but can also express the **informative function** ( read pages 6 to 9 for the test ) as well as the **expressive function** (Have a nice day).

An **exclamatory sentence** usually expresses the expressive function (the universe is bounded! ) But can also express the expressive function ( I am glad ! ) as well as the **directive function** :Really it is late!

## MORE ON LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS

More recently, linguistics have come to recognize that language functions can not be restricted to the three functions discussed above. In fact , they have come to realize that whenever a sentence is uttered a function is produced. Hence language functions are unlimited. Examples of these functions are listed below:

Command: Shut the window!

Request: Can you please shut the window?

Advice: you look ill. You had better see a doctor .

Giving permission : You can come in now.

Asking for permission: Can I come in?

Suggestion : Let's go to the library tonight

7. Promise: I will help you with the writing of the essay

8. Agreement or disagreement A: I think that Trump will be the next president of the USA. B:. I don't think so. He won't. C: You are right. He will be.

9. Threat: If you do that again I will divorce you!

10. Refusal : Will you marry me? No way!

11. Acceptance: Will you marry me? Sure, I will

12. Complaining : I hate eating fish every day. I told you that hundreds of time!

13. Invitation: Will you join us for my son's birthday tomorrow?

14. Denial: You used my toothbrush this morning. No, I did not!

15. Apologizing: You hurt me today. I am so sorry. I did not mean to.

*The end ..*

## LECTURE 5 :

### **CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS**

**Definition:** Conversation analysis is the study of the talk produced in ordinary human interactions. At its core, conversation analysis is a set of methods for working with audio and video recordings of talk and social interaction.

#### **Examples and observations**

##### **Adjacency pair:**

Composed of two turns produced by different speakers which are placed adjacently and where the second utterance is identified as related to the first. Adjacency pairs include such exchanges as question/answer, complaint/denial, offer/accept, request/grant, compliment/rejection challenge/rejection, and instruct/receipt.

##### **ADJACENCY PAIRS**

Adjacency pairs typically have three characteristics:

They consist of two utterances; The utterances are adjacent, that is the first immediately follows the second; Different speakers produce each utterance.

##### **BROKEN-RECORD RESPONSE**

**Definition:** The *conversational* strategy of forestalling ( not allowing to continue) further discussion by repeating the same phrase or sentence over and over.

#### **Examples and observations:**

The professor was totally blowing me off. Every time I tried to get the conversation going, all he kept saying was, 'Well, it's a real controversial point.'"

##### **Conversation**

**Definition:** Conversation is the spoken exchange of ideas, observations, opinions, or feelings. Adjective: conversational.

#### **Examples and observations:**

Many of us dismiss talk that does not convey important information as worthless .But in conversation, people are emotionally involved with each other and that talking is the major way we establish, maintain, monitor and adjust our relationships.

## **The co-operative Principle**

**Definition:** The cooperative principle is the assumption that participants in a conversation normally attempt to be informative, truthful, relevant, and clear.

### **Examples and observations:**

The principles are: Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.

## **Discourse marker**

**Definition:** A discourse marker is a particle (such as *oh, like, and you know*) that is used to direct or redirect the flow of conversation without adding any significant paraphrasable meaning to the discourse.

### **Examples and observations:**

I could so go for like a huge cookie right now, with like, a lamb kabob simultaneously

## **Echo utterance**

**Definition:** An echo utterance is speech that repeats, in whole or in part, what has just been said by another speaker. Sometimes called simply echo.

**Examples and observations:** Claire: Alright, everybody back to work.

Gloria: Everybody back to work!

Claire I just said that.

Gloria Delgado-Pritchett: And I -said it.

## **Editing term**

**Definition:** A filler word (such as *um*) or a cue phrase (*let's see*) used to mark a hesitation in speech. An editing term often signals a repair.

### **Examples and observations:**

Q: Women's football doesn't get much coverage in Britain compared to elsewhere. So precisely how famous are you in the US, where you play?

A: Um, well . .

## **MINOR SENTENCE**

**Definition:** A fragmented, elliptical, or incomplete sentence or clause that still conveys meaning. Also called sentence fragment.

Examples: exclamations and interjections (for example, "Wow" and "What the hell"), aphoristic expressions ("Like father, like son"), answers to questions ("Not right now"), self-identification ("Mary here"), imperatives ("Go!"), and vocatives ("You over there!").

### **Nonverbal communication**

**Definition:** Nonverbal communication is the process of sending and receiving messages without using words, either spoken or written.

**Examples and observations:**

When you close your ears with your hands to avoid being disturbed by loud noise.

### **Pause**

**Definition:** In phonetics, a break in speaking; a moment of silence.

Adjective: pausal.

**Examples and observations:**

Anyone who is guilty of such practices . . .,' he paused for effect, leaning forward and staring at the congregation, ' . . . anyone in town . . .,'

### **Politeness Strategies**

**Definition:** Acts that express concern for others and minimize threats to self-esteem in particular social contexts.

Positive politeness strategies are intended to avoid giving offense by highlighting friendliness. These strategies include juxtaposing criticism with compliments, establishing common ground, and using jokes, nicknames, tag questions, special discourse markers(please), and in-group jargon and slang.

Negative politeness strategies are intended to avoid giving offense by showing deference. These strategies include questioning, hedging, and presenting disagreements as opinions.

**Examples and observations:**

"'Shut up!' is rude, even ruder than 'Keep quiet!' In the polite version, 'Do you think you would mind keeping quiet: this is, after all, a library, and other people are trying to concentrate'".

## **Punctuation Effect**

**Definition:** The use of laughter as the oral equivalent of *punctuation* at the end of a spoken phrase or sentence.

### **Examples and observations:**

“Uncle Emil] was a big, rough, hearty man who was missing one whole finger and part of another from accidents in the steel mill, and his language was goodhearted, loud, punctuated by laughter, and not at all suited for Sunday school.”

## **Turn- taking**

**Definition:** turn-taking is a term for the manner in which orderly conversation normally takes place. Knowing when it is acceptable or obligatory to take a turn in conversation is essential to the cooperative principle. This knowledge involves such factors as knowing how to recognize appropriate turn-exchange points and knowing how long the pauses between turns should be. It is also important to know how (and if) one may talk while someone else is talking.

*The end .*

## LECTURE 6 :

### COHESION

**Cohesion** refers to the processes which a language uses to create **unity and connectivity** between **the sentences of a text**. English has two types of cohesion: **Grammatical cohesion** and **Lexical cohesion**.

Grammatical cohesion uses words such as third person pronouns (he), demonstrative pronouns (this, there), and comparative forms (-er, -est) similar) to create cohesion (unity and connectedness) between the sentences or parts of sentences of a text.

**Lexical Cohesion** achieves unity between the sentences of a text by the **repetition of the same lexical items , lexical synonyms or lexical items related in other ways**.

### **GRAMMATICAL COHESION TYPES**

There are 3 types of grammatical cohesion:

**Reference**

**Substitution**

**Ellipsis**

These are discussed in the following slides.

### REFERENCE

**Reference** is using an item (**he, it, this**) to refer to another item (**John, dress**) **MENTIONED INSIDE THE TEXT** or **AVAILABLE IN THE SITUATION OR CONTEXT OF THE TEXT**. Example 1 below illustrates the first type of reference, while example 2 illustrates the second type:

1. Mary: I bought *the dress* I am wearing last night.

*This* is really very beautiful.

**The dress** referred to by **this** is mentioned in the text. This type of reference is referred to as **Endophoric Reference**: An item refers to

another item mentioned inside the text. The term “*tie*” is used to describe this referential relationship between a sentence and another.

(Upon entering a store, a child sees a *pistol toy* and shouted: Please Daddy, I want *this*). The demonstrative pronoun *this* in this case also refers to *the dress* but this time the dress is not mentioned in the text but is *available in the situation or context of the text*. This type of reference is referred as **Exophoric Reference: AN ITEM REFERS TO ANOTHER ITEM OUTSIDE THE TEXT.**

*Third personal pronouns ( he, it)* and demonstrative pronouns can be used both *endophorically* and *exophorically*. *First* and *second person pronouns (I, we, you)* are typically used exophorically, since both addressor and addressee (speaker/writer) listener/reader) are *available in the situation of the text*:

*I teach you* discourse analysis: *I* is used exophorically to refer to *me (the teacher)* and *you* to refer to you (the students): Both referents (entities referred to) are found in the immediate environment of the text, not inside it.

In quoted speech, however, these pronouns are used *endophorically*: The teacher said to the students, “*I* will ask *you* to do an assignment next class”.

In this example both *first and second person* pronouns refer to items *inside the text* (the *teacher* and the *students*). Since *exophoric reference* does not usually refer to items within the text, it is *not cohesive* because it does *not connect sentences to each other*. Our focus from now will be on the cohesive” *Endophoric Reference*”.

## TYPES OF ENDOPHORIC REFERENCE

*Endophoric reference* can be divided into different types on the basis of *3 different criteria*:

### 1. THE TYPES OF WORD USED TO MAKE THE REFERENCE:

Based on this criteria *3 types of endophoric reference* are identified:

**A. Pronominal reference:** Made by *third person pronouns (he, him, his, she, her, her, they, them, their, it, its)*:



Where are *the children*?

*They* went to visit their grandmother.

**B. Demonstrative reference:** Made by demonstrative pronouns ( this, these, that, those, there, here, then):

My brother first went to London in 2004. He was 22 years old then (then refers to time 2004) - He was there for his PH.D (there refers to the place: London).

**C. Comparative Reference:** Made by *comparative forms –er, -est*, and other words used to compare such as *similar, different, like*: Mary claims that she is smart. True, but her sister is *smarter*. The *–er* connects the two sentences.

## **2. THE DIRECTION OF REFERENCE:**

This distinction applies to both *personal* and *demonstrative* reference. It is based on whether the *referring pronoun* comes *after* or *before* the person/thing referred to. In the first case, the reference is (*anaphoric* or *backward*) as in *Mohammed Ali* was a great boxer. *He* died last night. In the second case, the pronoun comes *first* followed by the thing or person referred to: Let us welcome *him*. The *Great Mohammed Ali!* This second type of reference is *cataphoric or forward*.

## **3. THE SCOPE OF REFERENCE: :**

This criteria also applies only to *pronominal and demonstrative* reference. It has to do whether the reference is made to a *single entity* (**Limited Reference**) or whether it is made to a *whole idea* or a *sentence* (**Extended Reference**). Only third personal pronoun it and demonstratives this and that are commonly used to make both limited and extended reference:

### **Limited Reference**

Who is the *guy* wearing the red shirt? *That* is John Smith. The demonstrative pronoun "*that*" refers to a *single entity*, a person named John Smith.

**Extended Reference:** *The children* watch TV four hours daily. I don't like *that* at all.

In the second sentence the same pronoun that refers to a whole idea( the children watching TV).

### **REFERENCE: THREE-LABEL DESCRIPTION**

Based on this three-way classification, each instance of reference ( with the exception of comparative reference can) be described in ***three different ways*** based on the three classification criteria above:

Either ***pronominal or demonstrative.***

Either ***anaphoric or cataphoric.***

Either ***limited or extended .***

The following examples illustrate this three-way Classification:

***John gave me a nice present for my birthday. It*** was nice of him:  
***Pronominal, anaphoric, extended.***

I saw ***a man*** entering the house. ***That*** must be the cleaner:  
***Demonstrative, anaphoric, limited.***

***That*** is what you should to succeed: ***Study hard: Demonstrative, .***  
***cataphoric, extended***

***The end..***

## LECTURE 7 :

### **SUBSTITUTION, ELLIPSIS, AND LEXICAL COHESION**

#### **Substitution**

A replacement of a word by another. In English there are three types of substitution:

**1. Nominal Substitution:** When *a singular noun* is replaced by the substitute “*one*” or a *plural noun* replaced by the substitute “*ones*”:

a. Will you buy a second-hand *car* b. No, I will buy a new *one* (*one* replaces *car*).

a. Do you want the blue *pens*? No, I prefer the red *ones* (*ones* replaces *pens*).

**2. Verbal Substitution:** A form of the auxiliary verb “do” (*do, does, done, doing, to do..*) replaces *a main verb*):

He said he will *help* us and he *did*. *Did* replaces *help*.

He *works* hard. Yes, he *does* specially at night.

He *threatened* to harm his wife and that is exactly what he has *done*

Is he going *to resign*? Sure, that is what he is going *to do*.

**3. Sentence Substitution:** *A word* replaces *a whole sentence* :

English has 3 sentential substitutes: *so, not, the same*.

*Are you going to come to the party ?*

(i) I think *so* (I am going to come to the party).

(ii) I think *not* (I am not going to come to the party).

(iii) (In a restaurant) Ali: Can I have *chicken, chips, and Pepsi*?

Omer: *The same* please

## ELLIPSIS

**Ellipsis**: The *omission or deletion* of a *word* or a *sentence*. The verb is to *elide*. *Ellipsis* and *substitution* are used in English to *avoid repetition of the same words or sentences* which is consistent with English style. Like substitution, ellipsis also has three types: *Nominal, verbal* , and *sentential*.

**1. Nominal Ellipsis**: This occurs when the *main noun* in a phrase is elided and a word which usually modifies the *elided* noun becomes the *main word* of the noun phrase:

The *rich people* should help the poor people: The *rich* should help the poor.

How many *students* failed? *Many*.

Who is *that man*? *That* is my uncle Joe

**2. Verbal Ellipsis** : This occurs when a *main verb* is *deleted* without affecting the meaning being expressed:

He wants to go to the party, but I don't want to . (*go* ).

Mary bought a red dress and I--- a blue one( *bought* deleted after *I*).

Can I go now? No you can't --( *go*).

**3. Sentence Ellipsis**:

Here a whole sentence is deleted:

Do you like me?

Yes. (*I like you: deleted*)

No. (*I don't like you: deleted*)

## LEXICAL COHESION

Lexical cohesion refers to the cohesive ties created between lexical items. These lexical ties can occur over long passages of text or discourse. The main types of lexical are discussed and exemplified below

### **1. Repetition of the same word:**

*California* is the most wonderful place to visit because of its variety of *weather* and its beautiful nature. Visitors to *California* can find any *weather* they like .

**2. Repetition of a synonym** :( a word which has the same meaning as another word):

The *snake* moved very quickly towards its victim. The mouse has no chance to escape from the *serpent* .

**3. Repetition of a superordinate:** (a word that includes the meaning of other words) - animal----snake):

The *snake* moved very quickly towards the mouse. The *animal* immobilized the mouse instantly.

**3. Repetition of a general word:**

The snake moved very quickly towards the *mouse*.  
*The poor thing* had no chance to escape.

### **4. Collocation:**

The tendency of some words to co-occur together: *smoke* , *pipe*,  
*cigar* *rete* .

John stopped *cigarette* smoking 3 years ago. Sometimes, however, he *smokes a pipe*.

*The end..*

## LECTURE 8 :

### **COHERENCE**

*Coherence* refers to the *logical relationships* that exist *between sentences* or *part of sentences in discourse* .

Examples of Such relationships include **contrast** ( when ideas are *opposed to each other*) or ( **cause and effect** ) , when an idea is a result of another. English has many words or expressions that are used to express the coherence relationships between sentences. These words are referred to as **transitions** or **transition words/phrases**

The following are common *logical relationships* with some of their *transition words* and an *example* of each:

1. **Addition:** An idea is simply added to a preceding idea (Further, moreover, also, too ,furthermore, In addition, besides): John earns \$2000 a month salary from his full-time job. In addition, he earns\$750 monthly from his night job as a park attendant.

2. **Time** (while, as soon as, in the mean time, subsequently ,simultaneously ,soon, earlier, later) : I am writing a letter to the college's dean. In the mean time, my wife is cooking dinner.

3. **Place** (here, there, adjacent to ,nearby, opposite to, above, below): I live in the 13<sup>th</sup> floor of a big building. Below, lives my nephew Hassan

4. **Exemplification or illustration** ( for example, for instance, to illustrate, as an illustration): John is a big money spender. For example, yesterday he paid \$5000 for a cell phone.

5. **Comparison** (similarly, in the same way, likewise, by the same token): *I don't think that prices will go up . In the same way, I don't see them going down either.*

6. **Contrast** ( an idea is opposite to another idea): However, yet, but, although, nevertheless): she studies very hard . Yet, her marks are always low.

7. **Clarification** ( to make a statement clearer):In other words, that is to say, to put it another way, to clarify): You do not understand anything I teach you. In other words, you are stupid.

8. **Cause**: Because, since, as, for that reason:

I slept very late last night. For that reason, I missed the first lecture.

9. **Effect** : the consequence of a cause ( hence, thus therefore, as a result, consequently): John arrived late at the airport. Hence, he missed his flight to Paris.

10. **Purpose**: In order that, so that, so as, for this purpose: I went to the library so as to borrow some books.

*The end..*

## LECTURE 9

### **BUILDING THINGS WITH WORDS**

From a *sociological point of view*, Language has *two main functions*:

- a.** To support the performance of *social activities* and *social identities*
- b.** To support human *affiliation* within *cultures, social groups* and *institutions*.

Whenever *we speak*, we *create or build seven things through language*. These are discussed below with a *discourse question* which needs to be answered for each of these things:

**Significance**: I *talk* and *act* in a certain way to make something *significant* or *not*.

**Research question**: How is this piece of language being used to make certain things *significant* or *not*? *This lecture is very important.*

**2. Activities**: I *talk* and *act* in *one way* and I am engaged in *formally opening a committee meeting*. I *talk* and *act* in *another way* and I am engaged in *a chit-chat with a colleague* before the meeting starts.

**Discourse question**: What *activity* or *activities* in this piece of language being used to get others *to recognize* as going on?

**3. Identities**: I *talk* and *act* in *one way* and I am acting as *a teacher* in a class room. I *talk* and *act* in *another way* and *I am a husband* talking to his wife.

**Discourse question**: What *identity* or *identities* in this piece of language being used to get others *to recognize* as operatives ( *teacher, husband, colleague, parent* )

**4. Relationships**: I *talk* and *act* in *one way* and I am acting as *a boss chairing a meeting*. I *talk* and *act* in *another way* and I am acting *as a colleague*.



**Research question:** What sort of *relationship* or *relationships* in this piece of language *present* or *not*?

**Professor Smith:** *I am very sorry to have to move on the next agenda item (formal and deferential relationship with Professor Smith) - Ed, it is time move on (informal and less deferential relationship with the same person.*

**5. Politics ( the distribution of social goods):** How does politics in this sense get in language use? When we *speak* or *write*, we *use the grammar of our language* to create a particular perspective (*opinion* or *viewpoint*) on *what the world is like*:

**For example,** if I say that “*Microsoft loaded its operating system with bugs*”, I treat Microsoft as *purposeful* and perhaps *to be blamed* .If I say ,on the other hand, “*Microsoft loading system is loaded with bugs*”, I treat Microsoft as *less purposeful* and perhaps *not to be blamed*.

**Research question:** *What perspectives (point of view) on social goods is this piece of language communicating as to what is being taken to be normal, right, good, correct, proper, appropriate, valuable?*

**6. Connections:** Speaking and acting in such way *to connect* or *disconnect* what I am saying now to something I have said before.

**Research questions :**How does *this piece of language connect* or *disconnect* things? How does it make something *relevant* or *irrelevant* to another?

**7. Semiotics:** *What and how different symbol systems and different forms of knowledge count:* We use language to make *certain sign systems* of knowledge and *beliefs relevant* or *privileged* or *not*.

**Research question:** *How does this piece of language privilege or disprivilege a specific sign system?* Arabic has more synonyms than any other language. The French language is beautiful. I would rather learn English than Spanish.

*The end ...*

## LECTURE 10

### **TOOLS OF INQUIRY**

In order to analyze the workings of the *seven building tasks* in specific instances of language-in- use discussed in the preceding lecture to look at the *inquiry tools* needed to achieve this task. These tools are ***social languages, discourses, intertextuality, and conversation.***

Before we start discussing these tools of inquiry, we need to mention that we need not only *create* these tasks through language but also to make sure they are *recognized as being created* by the people we are addressing

#### **1. Social language:**

People use *different types of language* for different purposes. They use *different varieties of language* to *enact* and *recognize* the different building tasks discussed previously. These different varieties used in the creation and recognition of these building tasks are referred to as *social languages*.

#### **Social Language Example:**

A student studying home worms might say in **the vernacular ( everyday language)** “Home worms sure varies a lot in how big they get’ (*social language 1*) in one situation but in another formal situation uses **technical language ( social language 2)** “ Home worms group exhibits a significant amount of variation”.

#### **2. Discourses:**

These are actually *two types*: “*discourse with a small ‘d’* ): Studies *language use only* to perform and recognize social activities and identities.

**Discourse with a big “D”** ,( the approach studied in this course) studies *both the role of language of language use and “other stuff”* in the **creation** and **recognition** of social activities and identities.

**Other stuff example:** A gang member to be recognized as such must not only “*talk the talk*” (language use) but must also “*walk the walk* (act, behave, and feel, interact..... *in certain ways and use relevant symbols and tools* typical of *his / her identity* such as weapons, graffiti, tools (pistol) ,objects ( street corners in the right place and time. The same applies to anyone: *A lawyer, a marine sergeant, a doctor, and a radical feminist. One and the same person* may talk and interact in a context to be recognized as *a gang member* and interact in quite different ways to be recognized as a *gifted student*.

### **3. Intertextuality :**

When we speak or write our words often *allude to* or *relate to*, in some fashion, other texts or words that *other peoples have said or written before*.

#### **A famous example:**

Jamal Abdunasir famous words

أو لا نكون إن القضية الأساسية هي إن نكون

alludes or relates to *Hamlet’s famous words” To be or not to be, that is the question”*

**4. Conversations (Two types )**:conversation with a small c: refers to everyday conversations between people. **Conversations with a big C** : refers to: **long-term themes, debates that have been the focus of much talk for many years in a social group or society as a whole. These debates, themes, and motives play a role in how language is interpreted.** Such debates or conversations with a big C include the *environment, effect of smoking on health, terrorism, feminism, the earth’s changing climate. How?*

**“Smoking is associated with health problems”. How do you interpret this statement?** Is it smoking has *bad effect on your heath* or is it *because you have health problems you smoke*. What do you think? To answer this question, use the concept of “ **Conversation with a big C.** “.

*The end,,,*

## LECTURE 11:

### **Who's and What's**

1. When you  *speak or write anything, you use the resources of your language to project yourself as a certain kind of person, a different kind in different circumstances* (**Identity**) .
2. You also project yourself as engaged in a certain kind of activity, a different kind in different circumstances (**activity**).
3. If I have no idea of  *who you are and what you are doing* (**recognition**), then I cannot make sense of what you have said, written (**language**) or done (**your actions**).

**Example:** You project a *different identity at a formal dinner party* than you do at *the family dinner table*. And although these are both dinners, they project *different entities and different activities*.

The fact that people have differential access to *different entities and different activities (a chairman of a company and a cleaner)*, connected to *different status and social goods*, is a root source of inequality in society.

**Intervening** in such matter can be a *contribution to social justice*. Since *different identities and activities* are enacted in and *through language*, the study of language (discourse in this case) is integrally connected to matters of equity and justice

4. An oral or written utterance has meaning, then, *only if and when it communicates a “who” ( a socially situated identity, the kind of person one is seeing to be and enact here and now)* and a *“what” ( a socially - situated activity* that an utterance helps to constitute

*Who's* can of course be a *single entity (e.g. one person)* or it can be *multiple (e.g. more than one person)*. For instance ,when the *US president's press secretary* issues an utterance that is in fact written by the *president's speech writer* and authorized and claimed by *the president* , this utterance communicates an *overlapping* and *compound*

*who* ( *The president speech writer, the president, and the president press secretary*). The press secretary even if she is directly quoting the *speechwriter* must deliver the remark *using her own voice*.

In turn, the *speechwriter* is both mimicking (acting like) the president's voice and creating an identity for him. Not just individuals, but also *institutions* (e.g. *a drugs company*) through the *anonymous texts* they circulate can author or issue utterances (*being a who's*) that actually communicates *multiple who's*. Thus, utterances can be authored or issued by a *group or a single individual or an institution*.

Finally, it is important to realize that *whos* and *whats* are *not* really *discrete* and *separable*: **You are who you are partly through what you are doing and what you are doing is partly recognized for what it is by who is doing it.** So it is better to say that **utterances communicate an integrated, though often "multiple or heteroglossic who-doing-what.**

*The end ...*

## LECTURE 12 :

### **A HETEROGIOSSIC ASPIRIN BOTTLE**

We return now to how *whos* and *whats* are communicated *in language* (keeping in mind that *language alone* is rarely enough and is always put together with “*other stuff*” to pull off a discourse. To make this point concrete, we turn now to an example: *The warning on the author’s aspirin bottle* reprinted below (*Italics and capitals* are on the warning:

**Warnings:** *Children and teenagers should not use this medication for chicken pox or flu symptoms before a doctor is consulted about Reye Syndrome, a rare but serious illness reported to be associated with aspirin. Keep this drug and all drugs out of the reach of children. In case of accidental overdose, seek professional assistance, or contact a poison control center immediately.*

As with any drug, if you are pregnant or nursing a baby, seek the advice of a health professional before using this product. **IT IS ESPECIALLY IMPORTANT NOT TO USE ASPIRIN DURING THE LAST 3 MONTHS OF PREGNANCY UNLESS SPECIALLY DIRECTED TO DO SO BY A DOCTOR BECAUSE IT MAY CAUSE PROBLEMS IN THE UNBORN CHILD OR COMPLICATIONS DURING DELIVERY.**

The interpretation of this text is that there are “two *who-doing-whats*” in this warning and they are “*interleaved*”. The first is made up of the following sentences: *Children and teenagers should not use this medication for chicken pox or flu symptoms before a doctor is consulted about Reye Syndrome, a rare but serious illness reported to be associated with aspirin. IT IS ESPECIALLY IMPORTANT NOT TO USE ASPIRIN DURING THE LAST 3 MONTHS OF PREGNANCY UNLESS SPECIALLY DIRECTED TO DO SO BY A DOCTOR BECAUSE IT MAY CAUSE PROBLEMS IN THE UNBORN CHILD OR COMPLICATIONS DURING DELIVERY.*

Here things are referred to *quite specifically* , (“*children or teenagers*”, “*this medication*”, “*chicken pox*”, “*flue*”, “*Reye Syndrome*”, “*aspirin*”, “*last 3 months*”, “*unborn child*”, “*delivery*”). Doctors are called “*doctor*”, and matters are treated “*emphatically*” (*italics, capital, should not, rare but serious, especially important, specially directed*”).

The *second-who-doing-what* is made of the following sentences, placed *in the middle* of the other two: *Keep this drug and all drugs out of the reach of children. In case of accidental overdose, seek professional assistance, or contact a poison control center immediately. As with any drug, if you are pregnant or nursing a baby, seek advice the of a health professional before using this product.*

Here things are referred to *generally and generically* ( “ *This and all drugs*”, “ *any drug*”, and “ *this product* ”, rather than “ *this medication* ” and” *aspirin*”, “*children*” rather than “ *children and teenagers*”, “ *pregnant*” rather than “ *last 3 months of pregnancy*”), *Doctors are not mentioned*, rather the *health profession* is referred to more generally ( “*professional assistance*”, “ *Poison control center* “, and *health professional center*).

matters are treated **less stridently** (with **unforceful language**) with the exception of that “ **immediately**” (small print, “**keep out of reach**”, “**accidental overdose**”, “ **seek..... assistance**”, “**seek advice**”, rather than “**should not**”, and “ **important to use**” ).

These two who-doing-whats *feel different*. They are authorized and issued by “*different voices to different purposes and effects*. The first speaks with *a lawyerly voice* responding to *specific court cases*; *the second* speaks with the voice of a *caring but authoritatively knowledgeable company trying to avoid any one thinking that aspirin in particular is a potentially harmful drug*. Of course, this second-doing-what partly *contradicts* the first. By the way, the second who-doing-what used to be the *only warning on the bottle*.

This warning like all utterances reflects the company it has issued. In other words, it reflects a history that has given rise to it. In this case, presumably, *the new sterner, more direct who-doing=what* was *added* to the *more general and friendlier one* because the company got sued over things like Reye syndrome. The warning on the aspirin bottle is **heteroglossic : Double voiced**, since it *interleaves whos-doing-whats together....*

*The end ..*



## LECTURE 13

### **TWO GRAMMARS AND SITUATED MEANING**

#### **TWO GRAMMARS:**

Each social language has its own distinctive grammar. However, two different sorts of grammar are important to social languages:

**Grammar 1:** The traditional set of units like nouns, verbs, inflections, phrases, clauses, and sentences. We can also refer to this “*sentence grammar*”.

The other-less studied, but more important Grammar (**Grammar 2**)- is “The rules by which grammatical units like nouns and verbs, phrases, clauses and sentences, are used to create *patterns which signal characteristic whos-doing-whats-within-Discourses*. That is, we speakers and writers design our oral or written utterances to have patterns in them in virtue of which interpreters can attribute *situated identities* and *specific activities* to us and our utterances. We call this “*discourse grammar*.”

#### SITUATED MEANING:

**1.Situated meaning** is an “*image or pattern that we assemble on the spot as we communicate in a given context, based on our construal of that context and our past experiences*”.

**2. AN EXAMPLE:** Consider the following two sentences: “The coffee spilled, get a **mop**” and “The coffee spilled, get a **broom**”. In the first sentence, triggered by the word “**mop**” in the context, you assemble a situated meaning something like “**dark liquid we drink**” for “**coffee**”.

In the second sentence, triggered by the word “**broom**” and **your experience of such matters**, you assemble either a situated meaning something like “**grains that we make our coffee from**” or like “**beans from which we grind coffee**”. Of course, in real context, there are many more signals as how to go about assembling situated meanings for words and phrases.

## LECTURE 14 :

### REAL INDIANS

Though so far the focus has been on **language** (discourse with a small “d”), it is important to see that making **visible and recognizable who** we are ( identity) and **what** we are doing (activity), requires more than language: That **we act , think, value, and interact in ways that together with language render who we are and what we are doing recognizable to others and ourselves (discourse with a big “D”)**.

In fact, to be a **particular who** and to pull off a **particular what** requires that we **act, value, interact, and use language** in coordination with **other people** and with **other objects** in appropriate locations and at appropriate times

We now look at how this wider notion of **language integrated with other stuff ( other people, objects, values, times, places)** is used by native Americans ( Red Indians) to **recognize** each other as “**really Indian**”. “Red Indians “*refer to persons who are “really Indians”* in just those words with regularity and standardization. The term “red Indian” is an insider’s term. The fact that it is used by some Native Americans **in enacting their own identity** does *not license non-native Americans to use the term.*

The problem of “**recognition and being recognized** “is very problematic for Native Americans. While in order to be **considered** as “real Indians”, one must be able to make some claims to **kinship** with others who are **recognized** as “real Indians”, this by no means settle the matter. People with such biological ties **can fail to be recognized as “real Indian”,** and people of mixed kinship **can be so recognized.**

Being a “real Indian” is not something **one can simply be.** Rather, it is something that one becomes in and through the **doing of it, that** is, in **carrying out the actual performance itself.** Though one must have certain kinship ties to get into the “game”, beyond this criterion , there is **no being ( once and for all ) a “real Indian”,** rather is only **doing**

**being-or-becoming-a- “real Indian”**. If one does not continue to **practice** being a “real Indian, one **ceases to be one**.

Finally, doing being-and-becoming –a- “real Indian” is **not something one can do by oneself**. It requires the **participation of others**. One cannot be a “real Indian” unless one appropriately **recognizes “real Indians”** and get **recognized by others** as a “real Indian” in the **practice doing –and-becoming-a- “real- Indian”**. Being a “real Indian” also requires **appropriate** and accompanying **objects, times, and places**.

**So how is a red Indian recognized as being real Indian?**

a. Real Indians prefer to avoid conversations with strangers Native Americans or otherwise.

b. They cannot be related to each other as mere acquaintances. So , for “real Indians” any conversation they do have with a stranger who may turn out to be a “real Indian”, will in the discovering of the other’s “Indianess”, establish substantial obligations between the conversational partners **through the mutual acknowledgement that they are “Indians” and that they are no longer strangers to one another**.

C. In their search for the other’s “real Indianess” and in their display of their own “Indianess”, “real Indians” frequently engage in a distinctive form of verbal sparring or arguing (referred to by “Red Indians” as “razzing”). By **correctly responding to and correctly engaged in this sparring**, each participant further establishes **cultural competence** .

تم المقرر

بتوفيق من الله

دعواتي لكم بالنجاح ☺

## الواجب الأول

**The “ context of discourse**

**1.The situation of discourse**

- 2.The type of discourse
- 3.The meaning of discourse
- 4.The organization of discourse

**The sentence” can you help me wash the car?” functions as**

A question

A promise

**A request**

A command

**The directive function is usually expressed by**

A declarative sentence

An exclamatory sentence

An interrogative sentence

**An imperative sentence**

## الواجب الثاني

**The cohesive device in the sentences: “This is unbelievable. Al-Nasr beat Al-Hilaal 6:0 “ is described as**

Demonstrative , anaphoric, limited

Demonstrative, cataphoric, limited

Demonstrative, anaphoric, extended

**Demonstrative, cataphoric, extended**

**John said he will come but he didn’t say when”. The ellipsis in this sentence is:**

**Nominal**

Verbal

Sentential

Both “b’ and “c”

**I am sure you used my phone B: No I didn’t ! This adjacency pair is an example of:**

Offer: accept

Question: answer

Request: grant

**Complaint: denial**

### الواجب الثالث

**I talk and act in one way and I am a teacher. I talk " and act in another way and I am husband" . what is created through uttering the sentences above is:**

**1.Identity**

- 2.Relationship
- 3.Significance
- 4.Connection

**Dr. Hassan uses everyday language to describe an insect when talking at home to his wife but uses technical language to describe the same insect when he is talking to his students in the lab. These different ways of speaking are an example of:**

**1.Social languages**

- 2.Difficult language
- 3.Lab language
- 4.Colloquial language

**Discourse with a big C studies:**

- 1.Using language to create activities and identities
- 2.Using other stuff to create activities and identities

**3.Using language and other stuff to create activities and identities**

- 4.Using grammar and vocabulary to create activities and identities

**A 'WHO' in discourse analysis can be:**

**A single person**

- A group of person
- An institution
- All of the above