Introduction to Linguistics

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تنسيق وَإعداد : "خوخ وزهر" :)

Lecture "1"

Animals and human language | لغة الحيوانات ولغة الانسان

- ❖ Communication:
- ❖ Properties of human language:
  - Displacement
  - Arbitrariness
  - Productivity
  - Cultural transmission

❖ **Communication: الاتصالات**

We should first distinguish between **communicative signals** and **informative signals**.

أول شي لازم نعرف الفرق بين **"الإشارات التواصلية"** و **"الإشارات المعلوماتية"**

1- **Informative Signals | الإشارات المعلوماتية**

If someone is listening to you, he /she may be informed about you through a number of signals that you have not intentionally sent. For example, he /she may note that you have a cold (you sneezed), that you are not at ease (you shifted around in your seat), that your are disorganized (non-matching socks).

هي المعلومات التي يتلقاها المستمع من المتحدث بدون قصد وبدون تصريح (المتحدث لا يصرح بها في كلامه)
مثال : ممكن نعرف أن الشخص مصاب بزكام إذا كان يعطس أو أن هذا الشخص غير مرتاح لأنه يتحرك كثيراً أثناء جلوسه أو أن هذا الشخص غير مرتب لان جواربه غير متطابقة.

2- **Communicative Signals | الإشارات التواصلية**

When you use language to tell this person, *I'm one of the applicants for the vacant position of senior brain surgeon at the hospital*, you are normally considered to be intentionally communicating something.

هي المعلومات التي يصرح بها المتكلم للمستمع (يستخدم المتحدث اللغة أو الكلام ليوصل المعلومة للمستمع) وتكون مقصودة
مثال : أنا أحد المتقدمين لشغل منصب جراح في المستشفى أو أنا اسمي أحمد
هذه المعلومات لا يمكن أن نحصل عليها بدون تصريح من المتحدث (هو يخبرنا عنها بنفسه)

"أمثلة أخرى على الإشارات التواصلية والإشارات المعلوماتية"

Informative Signals

The blackbird is not normally taken to be communicating anything by having black feathers, sitting on a branch and looking down at the ground.

الطائر الأسود لن يخبرك بأنه يملك ريش أسود .. هذي المعلومة أنت تستنتجها لوحدك وهذي هي الإشارة المعلوماتية.

Communicative Signals

But is considered to be sending a communicative signal with the loud squawking produced when a cat appears on the scene.

ولكن هذا الطائر الأسود ممكن يعطيك معلومة تواصلية عن طريق صراخه عاليا إذا رأى قط يقترب لأنه استخدم لغته أو صوته عشان يصرح عن وجود القط.

Properties of human language | خصائص اللغة البشرية :

1- Displacement | غير محددة الزمان والمكان:

When your pet cat comes home and stands at your feet calling *meow*, you are likely to understand this message as relating to that time and place. If you ask your cat where it has been and what it was up to, you'll probably get the same *meow* response. Animal communication seems to be designed exclusively for this moment, here and now. It cannot be used to relate events that are far removed in time and place.

Humans can refer to past and future time. This property of human language is called **displacement**. It allows language users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment. Displacement allows us to talk about things and places (ogre, Superman) whose existence we cannot even be sure of.

من خصائص اللغة البشرية أن الإنسان يستطيع أن يعبر فيها عن حاضره وعن الماضي وحتى عن المستقبل الذي لم يحصل بعد ، كما انه يستطيع أن يتكلم عن الأشياء الغير منطقية مثل (الغول ، سوبر مان) بعكس الحيوان الذي لا يستطيع أن يعبر بلغته إلاّ عن مكانه الحاضر وزمانه الحالي فقط .

2- Arbitrariness | التعسفية:

There is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. The connection is quite arbitrary. We can't just look at the Arabic word كلب and, from its shape, for example, determine that it has a natural and obvious meaning any more than we can with its English translation form dog. The linguistic form has no natural or 'iconic' relationship with that hairy four-legged barking object out in the world. This aspect of the relationship between linguistic signs and objects in the world is described as arbitrariness.

أيضا من خصائص اللغة البشرية أنها تعسفية يعني بمعنى آخر مزاجية أو استبدادية ونلاحظ هذا الشيء في أن شكل كلمة مثلا (كلب) لا تشبه الكلب .. أي انه لا يوجد رابط بين التركيب اللغوي وبين شكل الكلمة

3- Productivity | الإنتاجية :

Humans are continually creating new expressions by manipulating their linguistic resources to describe new objects and situations. This property is described as productivity (or 'creativity' or 'open-endedness') and essentially means that the potential number of vocal expressions in any human language is infinite.

The communication systems of other creatures are not like that. Cicadas have four signals to choose from and vervet monkeys have thirty-six vocal calls. It is not possible for creatures to produce new signals to communicate. The honeybee, normally able to communicate the location of a nectar source to other bees, will fail to do so if the location is really 'new.' the bees cannot manipulate its communication system to create a 'new' message including vertical distance.

في اللغة البشرية هناك دائما مجال لإنتاج كلمات جديدة عن طريق دمج كلمتين مثلا بعكس الحيوانات التي لا تستطيع إنتاج كلمات جديدة .. تسمى هذي الخاصية أيضا بـ 'creativity' أو 'open-endedness'

4- Cultural transmission | انتقال الثقافات :

The process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next is described as cultural transmission. We inherit physical features such as brown eyes and dark hair from our parents, we do not inherit their language. We acquire a language in a culture with other speakers and not from parental genes. An infant born to Korean parents in Korea, but adopted and brought up from birth by English speakers in the United States, will have physical characteristics inherited from his or her natural parents, but will speak English.

من خصائص اللغة البشرية أنها مكتسبة من بيئة الإنسان والناس من حوله ولا تظهر مع جينات الشخص منذ الولادة !
فمثلا : لو قام شخصان أمريكيان بتبني طفل من أبوين كوريين .. سوف يكبر الطفل الكوري ويتكلم باللغة الانجليزية أي لغة من عاش معهم واحتك بهم ولن يتكلم اللغة الكورية بالرغم من انه يحمل جينات كورية .

Study questions:

1- What is the difference between formative and communicative signals?

2. Is it true that animals can refer to past and future time when they communicate?

3. Is it true that there is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning?

4. Is it true that humans cannot create new expressions to describe new objects and situations?

Answers:

1- <u>Informative Signals</u>

Someone may be informed about you through a number of signals that you have not intentionally sent.

<u>Communicative Signals</u>

You are normally considered to be intentionally communicating something.

2- No, it is not true.

3- Yes, it is true.

4- No, it is not true.

The sounds of language:

'The sounds of spoken English do not match up, a lot of the time, with letters of written English'

قاعدة مهمة تقول : أن أصوات الحروف الانجليزية لا تنطبق دائما مع الحرف المكتوب

يعني حرف S مثلاً ممكن نقرأه في بعض الكلمات (س) وفي بعض الكلمات نقرأه (ش) ..... وهكذا

1 — New Seagh

2 — New Chef

مثال : لو فرضنا انك قمت بزيارة مطعم ووجدت في المنيو الكلمة (١) هي كلمة جديدة عليك .. ولما سألت عن الكلمة قالوا لك انها شيف يعني مثل الكلمة (٢) .. ايش هي الأسباب اللي خلتهم يكتبوا كلمة شيف خطأ ؟ الصحيح ان تكتب مثل الشكل الثاني .. ولكن هم كتبوها مثل الشكل الأول :

لأنهم ظنوا أن حرف الـ s في أول الكلمة تنطق (ش) مثل كلمة sure

وظنوا بأن الـ ea تنطق (ي) مثل كلمة dead

وظنوا بأن الحرفين gh تنطق (ف) مثل كلمة cough

❖ Phonetics | عالم الأصوات

أصل كلمة phone يوناني وهي بمعنى "صوت" + tics أي ما يختص بـ

Greek 'phone' = sound or voice

أي العلم الذي يختص بأصوات الكلام

The general study of the characteristics of speech sounds.

❖ Articulatory phonetics | نطق الأصوات

The study of how speech sounds are made.

أي دراسة كيفية صنع أصوات الكلام

❖ Voiced and voiceless sounds | الأصوات الاهتزازية واللاهتزازية

● When the vocal cords (vocal folds) are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. SSSSS or FFFFF (no vibration)

لمعرفة الأصوات الاهتزازية واللاهتزازية .. ننطق الحرف بشكل مستمر ونلمس الرقبة عند منطقة الحلق فمثلا عند الصوت (SSSSS) و (FFFFF) نلاحظ عدم وجود اهتزاز .. إذن فالأصوات هذه لا اهتزازية . وهذا ناتج عن مرور الهواء من الرئتين إلى الخارج بدون عوائق .

● When the vocal cords (vocal folds) are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through. ZZZZZ or VVVVV (vibration)

بعكس الصوت (ZZZZZ) و (VVVVV) فعند نطقها باستمرار مع لمس الحلق سنلاحظ وجود اهتزاز .. فهي إذن أصوات اهتزازية . وهذا ناتج عن اندفاع الهواء من الرئتين إلى الخارج مع وجود عوائق .

<u>Place of articulation | أماكن النطق :</u>

- Bilabials شفوية

- Labiodentals الشفة السفلى مع الأسنان العليا

- Dentals طرف اللسان مع خلف الثنايا العليا

- Alveolars الجزء الأمامي من اللسان مع أعلى الثنايا العليا

- Palatals الحنك أو سقف الفم

- Velars حلقية

- Glottals مزمارية
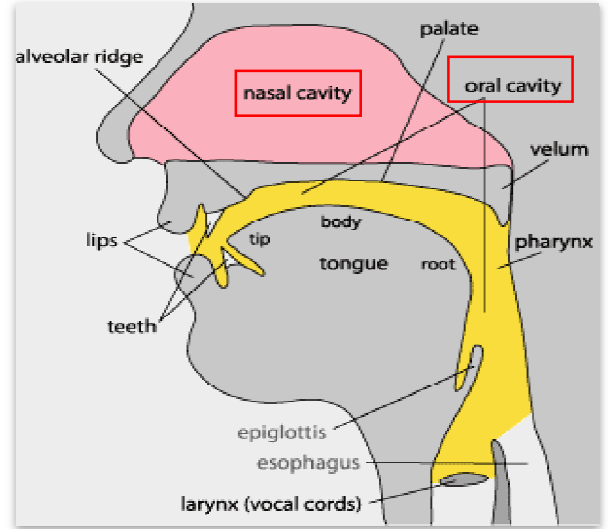
يوجد منطقتين يخرج منها الهواء لصنع أصوات الكلام :
١- المنطقة باللون الأصفر وتسمى oral cavity
٢- المنطقة باللون الزهري وتسمى nasal cavity
(موضحة بالصورة بمربع أحمر)

<u>Place of articulation | أماكن النطق :</u>

- **Bilabials**:

These are sounds formed using both upper and lower lips. The first sounds in the words *pat*, *bat*, and *mat* are all bilabials. They are represented by the symbols [p], which is voiceless, and [b] and [m], which are voiced.

أي شفوية : معنى كلمة (Bi) أي العدد 2 ، وكلمة (labials) أي lips يعني شفتين .. ويقصد بها الحروف التي تخرج من الشفتين (الشفة العليا والشفة السفلى).

مثال : الكلمات باللون الأخضر ومكان نطق الصوت الأول منها ، نلاحظ أن الصوت P لا اهتزازي (يمكننا معرفة ذلك عن طريق لمس الحلق أثناء نطق الصوت) ، بينما الحرفين m و b صوت اهتزازي.

أيضاً نلاحظ بأن لكل صوت يرمز له بحرف أو شكل أو رمز وهو الموجود بين الأقواس هذه [   ] .

نلاحظ أن رموزهم نفس شكل حروفهم يعني الـ m رمزه [m] و الـ b رمزه [b] والـ p رمزه [p] .

- **Labiodentals:**

These are sounds formed with the upper teeth and the lower lip. The first sounds in of the words *fat* and *vat* and the final sounds in the words *safe* and *save* are labiodentals. They are represented by the symbols [f], which is voiceless, and [v], which is voiced. Cough and photo, are both pronounced as [f].

أي الأصوات التي تخرج من الأسنان العليا مع الشفة السفلى.

مثال : الكلمات باللون الأخضر ومكان نطق الصوت الأول منها ، نلاحظ أن الصوت F لا اهتزازي، بينما الصوت V اهتزازي.

(طبعا نحكم على الصوت بأنه اهتزازي ولا اهتزازي بالطريقة المعروفة وهي نطق الحرف مع لمس الحلق، يعني خلاص ما راح نكرر هالنقطة لأننا المفروض نكون فهمناها ☺)

ولا ننسى الرموز التي تدل على كل صوت وذكرنا سابقا أن الرمز يكون موجود بين هذه الأقواس [   ] .

ونلاحظ أن رموزهم نفس شكل حروفهم يعني الـ f رمزه [f] والـ v رمزه [v] .

نقطة إضافية وهي أننا لا نحكم على الحرف وإنما على الصوت، فمثلا في كلمة photo (تنطق فوتو) نلاحظ أن صوت أول الكلمة هو (ف) وليس (p) (بي) فبالتالي نحكم على مكان النطق من صوت الحرف (اللي هو الـ ف).

يعني لازم أولاً ننطق الكلمة عشان نحكم على الصوت .. مو مجرد ما نشوف الحرف نحكم لأنه زي ما قلنا أول .. الأحرف باللغة الإنجليزية مو دائما تكون بنفس صوت النطق .. أحيانا تنطق بطريقة مختلفة .

- **Dentals**:

These are sounds formed with the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth. The initial sound of _thin_ and the final sound of _bath_ are both voiceless dentals. The symbol used for this sound is [θ]. The voiced dental is represented by the symbol [ð] like _the_, _there_, _then_ and _thus_.

أي الأصوات التي تخرج من طرف اللسان مع خلف الثنايا العليا.

مثال : أول صوت من الكلمة باللون الأخضر ، وأخر صوت من الكلمة باللون الأزرق (ينطق ث) ويعتبر لا اهتزازي.

ويرمز له بالشكل التالي [θ]

أما الكلمات باللون الأحمر فالصوت فيها هو (ذ) وهو صوت اهتزازي ويرمز له بالشكل التالي [ð] .

- **Alveolars:**

These are sounds formed with the front part of the tongue on the alveolar ridge. The initial sounds in _top_, _dip_, _sit_, _zoo_ and _nut_ are all alveolars. The symbols for these sounds are easy to remember [t], [d], [s], [z], [n]. Of these, [t] and [s] are voiceless whereas [d], [z] and [n] are voiced. Other alveolars are the [l] sound as in _lap_ and [r] as in _right_.

أي الأصوات التي تخرج من الجزء الأمامي للسان مع المنطقة الأعلى من الأسنان الأمامية.

مثال : أول الأصوات من الكلمات باللون الأخضر.

أيضاً نلاحظ أن كل صوت من الأصوات التالية يرمز له برمز بين الأقواس هذه [   ].

وفي الأصوات السابقة كل صوت يرمز له بنفس شكل حرفه [t], [d], [s], [z], [n] .

نلاحظ أن الصوتين [t] و[s] أصوات لا اهتزازية ، بينما الأصوات [n], [z], [d] تعتبر أصوات اهتزازية .

- **Palatals**:

These are sounds formed with the tongue and the hard palate. The initial sounds in the words _shout_ and _child_, which are both voiceless. The "sh" sound is represented as [ʃ] and the "ch" sound is represented as [tʃ]. The word _shoe-brush_ begins and ends with the voiceless palatal sound [ʃ] and the word _church_ begins and ends with the other voiceless palatal sound [tʃ]. The sound [ʒ] such as _treasure_ and _pleasure_ which is voiced palatal. The other voiced palatal is [dʒ] as in _joke_ and _gem_. The sound [j] is also voiced palatal as in _yet_ .

وهي الأصوات التي تخرج من اللسان مع الحنك .

مثال : أصوات الحروف التي تحتها خطّ في الكلمات باللون الأخضر ، نلاحظ أنها جميعا أصوات لا اهتزازية (ش ، تش)

ويرمز لـ sh بـ [ʃ] والتي ننطقها (ش) ، أما الـ ch يرمز لها بـ [tʃ] والتي ننطقها (تش) .

أيضاً الصوت في كلمة _treasure_ الحرف اللي تحته خط ينطق (ج) ويرمز له بالرمز [ʒ] وأيضا في كلمة _pleasure_ وهي أصوات اهتزازية .

أيضاً صوت آخر كما في كلمة _joke_ و _gem_ تنطق (ج قوية) – متابعة شرح الدكتور ونطقه للأصوات مهمة جداً في هذه المادة للاستيعاب والفهم – ويرمز لها بالرمز التالي [dʒ] وهو صوت اهتزازي .

والصوت في كلمة _yet_ يرمز له بالرمز التالي [j] ويعتبر صوت اهتزازي وينطق (ي) .

- **Velars:**

Sounds produced with the back of the tongue against the velum are called velars. . The sound [k] as in _cook_ is voiceless. The sound [g] as in _go_. The voiced sound [ŋ] as in _bang_.

وهي الأصوات التي تخرج من آخر اللسان مع الغشاء .

مثال : الصوت k في كلمة cook ونلاحظ بأن الحرف (c) ينطق (ك) وبالتالي نحكم عليه من صوته من صوته (ك) وليس من شكله ، يعتبر هذا الصوت من الأصوات اللا اهتزازية ويرمز له بالشكل التالي [k]

أيضا الصوت في أول كلمة go يرمز له بالشكل التالي [g]

والصوت في آخر كلمة bang هو صوت اهتزازي (نغ) ويرمز له بالشكل التالي [ŋ]

- **Glottals**:

There is one sound that is produced without the active use of the tongue and other parts of the mouth. It is the voiceless sound [h] as in _horse_ .

الأصوات المزمارية : وهي حرف واحد فقط (الحرف الذي لا نستخدم فيه اللسان أو أي جزء من أجزاء الفم) وهو حرف H (هـ).

مثال : أول كلمة horse وهو من الأصوات اللا اهتزازية ويرمز له بالشكل التالي [h] .

نهاية المحاضرة الأولى :)

❖ Manner of articulation:

- التوقف Stops

- الاحتكاك Fricatives

- الانفجاري Affricates

- الأنفي "الغنة" Nasals

- الصامت Liquids

- الانزلاقي Glides

> لازم نفرق بين أماكن النطق
> وطريقة النطق
> Place & Manner

Manner of articulation:

- ### Stops:

The set [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g] are all produced by some form of "stopping" of the air stream (very briefly) then letting it go abruptly. This type of consonant sound , resulting from a blocking or stopping effect on the air stream, is called a stop (or a "plosive"). Example: *bed*.

التوقف : هي أصوات نقوم فيها بمنع التيار الهوائي ثم تركه بسرعة . وتسمى أيضا plosive أو explosive
وهي ست أصوات [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g] .

- ### Fricatives:

The set of sounds [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ] involved almost blocking the air stream and having the air push through the very narrow opening. As the air is pushed through, a type of friction is produced and the resulting sounds are called fricatives. Example: *fish*, *those*.

الاحتكاك : أصوات تنتج عن حبس الهواء وترك فتحة صغيرة يخرج منها الصوت مما يؤدي إلى نوع من الاحتكاك .
وهي ثمانية أصوات [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ] .

- ### Affricates:

If you combine a brief stopping of the air stream with an obstructed release which causes some friction, you will be able to produce the sounds [tʃ] and [dʒ] these are called affricates . Example: *cheap* and *jeep*.

الانفجاري : وهو الصوت الناتج عن حجب التيار الهوائي . مثل : [tʃ] و[dʒ]

- ### Nasals:

When the velum is lowered and the air stream is allowed to flow out through the nose to produce [m], [n] and[ŋ], the sounds are described as nasals Example: *morning* and *name*.

الصوت الخارج من الأنف (الغنة) وله ثلاث أصوات هي : [ŋ] , [n] , [m]

- ### Liquids:

The initial sounds in led and red are described as liquids. They are both voiced. The [l] sound is called a lateral liquid and formed by letting the air stream flow around the sides of the tongue as the tip of the tongue makes contact with the middle of the alveolar ridge. The [r] sound at the beginning of red is formed with the tongue tip raised and curled back near the alveolar ridge.

الصامت : وهو الصوت الناتج من السماح للهواء بالخروج من جوانب اللسان . مثل الصوتين : [r] و [l] .

- **Glides:**

The sounds [w] and [j] are described as glides. They are both voiced and occur at the beginning of we, you and yes. These sounds are typically produced with the tongue in motion (or "gliding") to or from the position of a vowel and are sometimes called semi-vowels.

الإنزلاقية : الصوت الناتج من جعل اللسان بوضعية الإنزلاق ، مثال عليها : أصوات حرف العلة

كما أنها تسمى أحياناً شبه حروف العلة (semi-vowels)

Place	**Bilabial**		**Labiodental**		**Dental**		**Alveolar**		**Palatal**		**Velar**		**Glottal**	
Voicing	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V
Manner														
Stops	p	b					t	d			k	g		
Fricatives			f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ			h	
Affricates									tʃ	dʒ				
Nasals		m						n				ŋ		
Liquids								l r						
Glides		w								j				

الجدول في الأعلى يوضح تصنيف الأصوات بحسب :

أماكن النطق باللون الأحمر ، وطريقة النطق باللون الأزرق ، وإذا كانت اهتزازية أو لا اهتزازية باللون الأخضر

ومن الضروري الاستماع لطريقة نطق الدكتور للأصوات حتى يتم الفهم والاستيعاب بالطريقة الصحيحة

Study questions:

1. Which of the following words normally end with voiceless (- V) sounds and which end with voiced sounds (+ V) sounds?

    a. bang ____   d. fizz ____   g. splat ____
    b. crash ____   e. rap ____   h. thud ____
    c. ding ____   f. smack ____   i. wham ____

2. Try to pronounce the initial sounds of the following words and indentify the place of articulation of each one (e.g. bilabial, alveolar, etc.).

    a. calf _____   e. hand _____   i. shoulder _____
    b. chin _____   f. knee _____   j. stomach _____
    c. foot _____   g. mouth _____   k. thigh _____
    d. groin _____   h. pelvis _____   l. toe _____

3. Identify the manner of articulation of the initial sounds in the following words (stop, fricative, etc.).

    a. cheery _____   d. funny _____   g. merry _____

    b. crazy _____   e. jolly _____   h. silly _____

    c. dizzy _____   f. loony _____   i. wimpy _____

*تنبيه بسيط : في الأسئلة ننتبه لصيغة السؤال ونفهم إذا كان المطلوب مننا تحديد مكان نطق الصوت ؟ أو أسلوب نطق الصوت ؟
أيضاً نركز في المطلوب إذا كان أول صوت من الكلمة أو آخر صوت ؟

Answers:

1. +V, (b) -V, (c) +V, (d) -V, (e) +V, (f) -V (g) -V (h) +V (i) +V
2. velar, (b) palatal, (c) labiodental, (d) velar, (e) glottal, (f) alveolar, (g) bilabial, (h) bilabial, (i) palatal, (j) alveolar, (k) dental , (l) alveolar
3. affricate, (b) stop, (c) stop, (d) fricative, (e) affricate, (f) liquid, (g) nasal, (h) fricative, (i) glide

❖ **Vowels | حروف العلة:**

Vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are typically voiced. To describe vowel sounds, we consider the way in which the tongue influences the shape through which the air must pass. To talk about a place of articulation, we think of the space inside the mouth as having a front versus a back and a high versus a low area. Thus, in the pronunciation of heat and hit, we talk about 'high, front' vowel sounds because the sound is made with the front part of the mouth in a raised position.

In contrast, the vowel sound in hat is produced with the tongue in a lower position and the sound in hot can be described as a 'low, back' vowel.

يتم إنتاج حروف العلة مع التدفق الحر نسبيا من الهواء. وعادة ما تكون صوتية .
لوصف صوت حروف العلة ملاحظ الطريقة التي يتشكل بها اللسان عند نطق الصوت (اللسان يرتفع أو ينخفض سواء كان الارتفاع والانخفاض في مقدمة اللسان أو آخرهومن ناحية بقاء الفم مفتوحاً أو مغلقاً .. كل هذا يؤثر على الصوت الناتج أثناء النطق) *لا ننسى ضرورة الاستماع للدكتور لسماع الأصوات عند النطق وفهمها .

heat, hit your mouth will stay fairly closed
hat, hot sound your tongue will move lower and cause your mouth to open wider.

هنا نستمع إلى طريقة نطق الدكتور للأمثلة المذكورة حتى نلاحظ الفرق في طريقة نطق الصوت مع اختلاف تشكيل اللسان .

Vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are having a

	Front	Front	Central	Back
High	i			u
		ɪ		ʊ
Mid		e	ə	o
		ɛ	ʌ	ɔ
Low			æ	
			a	ɑ

Figure 3.3

Front vowels
[i] bead, beef, key, me
[ɪ] bid, myth, women
[ɛ] bed, dead, said
[æ] bad, laugh, wrap

Central vowels
[ə] above, oven, support
[ʌ] butt, blood, dove, tough

Back vowels
[u] boo, move, two, you
[ʊ] book, could, put
[ɔ] born, caught, fall, raw
[ɑ] Bob, cot, swan

في هذا الرسم التوضيحي تظهر لنا رموز أصوات حروف العلة مع وضعية الفم واللسان إذا كان مرتفع أو وسط أو منخفض
وقد ذكر بجانب كل رمز مجموعة من الأمثلة لفهم طريقة النطق ، ولا بد من الرجوع لشرح الدكتور وسماعنا لطريقة نطقه لكل رمز من الرموز الموجودة حتى نستوعب بشكل أوضح ☺

Diphthongs | الإدغام :

The combination of two sounds is known as diphthongs.

وهو دمج صوتين لينتج عنهم صوت واحد . مثل (ا + ي) = أي كما في كلمة eye (تنطق آي)

نرجع للمحاضرات المسجلة لسماع طريقة النطق للاستيعاب أكثر .

[aɪ] buy, eye, I, pie, sigh   [oʊ] boat, home, throw, toe

[aʊ] doubt, cow, bough   [ɔɪ] boy, noise

[eɪ] bait, eight, great, late, say

Homework

1. Using symbols introduced in this chapter, write a basic phonetic transcription of the most common pronunciation of the following words..

   a. catch _____   e. noise _____   i. thought _____

   b. doubt _____   f. phone _____   j. tough _____

   c. gem _____   g. shy _____   k. would _____

   d. measure _____   h. these _____   l. wring _____

Answers:

(a) kæʧ, (b) daʊt or dawt, (c) dʒɛm, (d) mɛʒər, (e) nɔɪz or nɔjz, (f) foʊn (g) ʃaɪ or ʃaj, (h) ðiz, (i) θɔt, (j) tʌf, (k) wʊd, (l) rɪŋ

نهاية المحاضرة الثانية :)

Lecture "3"

<u>أسلوب أو نظام الصوت في اللغة | The sound patterns of language</u>

<u>The sound patterns of language :</u>
- Phonology
- Phonemes
- Phones and allophones
- Minimal pairs and sets
- Syllables
- Consonant clusters
- Assimilation
- Elision

❖ **<u>Phonology</u>**: is the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language.

الفونولوجي : هي كلمة مكونة من مقطعين (phon) أي صوت ، والمقطع الثاني (logy) أي علم أو دراسة .
وبالتالي يمكننا تعريفها على أنها دراسة نظم وأنماط الكلام في اللغة .

❖ **<u>Phonemes</u>**: are meaningful sounds, if one sound is used instead of the other in a word its meaning will change. */f/ and /v/ fat and vat*

الفونيم : هي الأصوات التي تعطي دلالة أو معنى ، والتي بتغييرها يتغير المعنى . مثال : *fat and vat*
أيضاً يطلق الفونيم على الصوت الواحد الذي يصدر من أكثر من حرف ، أو على الصوت الواحد الناتج عن حرفين معاً

| نفس الصوت في حرفين مختلفين مثال : صوت الـ(ك / k) في حرف ال (c) و حرف ال (k) .	1 phoneme = multiple letters	/k/ = 'c' in 'cat' 'k' in 'bike'
حرفان يعطيان صوت واحد مثل حرفي الـ (t) و الـ (h) يعطينا حرف الـ (θ) وينطق (ث)	2 letters together = 1 phoneme	'th' = /θ/ as in 'thing'
حرفان يعطيان صوت واحد مثل حرفي الـ (c) و الـ (h) يعطينا حرف الـ (k) .	2 letters together = 1 phoneme	'ch' = /k/ in 'chemistry'

❖ **<u>Phones and allophones:</u>** phones are different versions of sound-type regularly produced in actual speech. They are phonetic units and appear in square brackets. When we have a set of phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, we add the prefix "allo-" (one of a closely related set) and refer to them as allophones of that phonemes. [t] sound in the word *tar* is normally pronounced with a stronger puff of air than is present in the [t] sound in the word *star* . *(aspiration)*

الفونز والآلاوفونز : الأصوات مثل ما قلنا يرمز لها برمز بين قوسين مربعين وتنطق بطريقة معينة وتسمى phones ، لكن في بعض الأحيان الصوت الواحد يكون له أكثر من طريقة بالنطق سواء بتشديد مثلا ، وهنا يسمى allophones أي التباين في النطق .
مثال : الصوت [t] في كلمة *tar* تنطق بطريقة أقوى من الـ [t] في كلمة *star* . بحيث يكون النطق مع نفخة هواء أشد وهذه الطريقة (أي نفخ الهواء بشدة) تسمى بالـ *aspiration* .

❖ **<u>Minimal pairs and sets:</u>** when two words such as *pat* and *bat* are identical in form except for a contrast in one phoneme, occurring in the same position, the two words are described as a minimal pair. site – side, bet – bat, night – right, might – fight. One minimal set based on the vowel phonemes (*heat, hit, hat, hot, hut, hate*), and another minimal set based on consonant phonemes (big, pig, rig, fig, dig, *wig*).

هي الكلمات المتشابهة ماعدا حرف واحد فقط يختلف في نفس المكان في الكلمتين ، فمثلا كلمة bet – bat نلاحظ ان الاختلاف في الحرف الثاني في الكلمة الأولى والكلمة الثانية .

أيضا الاختلاف قد يكون في صوت ساكن أو صوت علة

الفرق بين الـ pairs و sets :

أن الـ sets تعني الاختلاف في كلمتين فقط مثل : (might – fight) , (night – right) , (bet – bat) , (site – side) .

أما الـ pairs فهي تعني الاختلاف في مجموعة من الكلمات مثل : (big, pig, rig, fig, dig, *wig*) أو (*heat*, *hit*, *hat*, *hot*, *hut*, *hate*) .

❖ **<u>Syllables:</u>** A syllable must contain a vowel or vowel like sound, including diphthongs. The most common type of syllable in language also has a *consonant* (C) before the *vowel* (V) and is typically represented as CV. The basic elements of the syllabus are the *onset* (one or more consonants) followed by the rhyme. The rhyme (sometimes written as "rime") consists of a vowel which is treated as the nucleus, plus any following consonant(s), described as the coda.

اللفظ أو المقطع اللفظي :

المقطع اللفظي يحتوي على صوت علة واحد . فمثلا كلمة book تحتوي على مقطع لفظي واحد (book) (1 syllable)، أما كلمة forget فهي تحتوي على مقطعين لفظين (for + get) أي أننا نطق الكلمة على مقطعين (2 syllables) .

يرمز لصوت العلة بالشكل (V) يكتب كابتل وهو أول حرف من كلمة vowel أي حرف علة .

كما يرمز للصوت الساكن بالشكل (C) يكتب كابتل وهو أول حرف من كلمة consonant أي حرف ساكن .
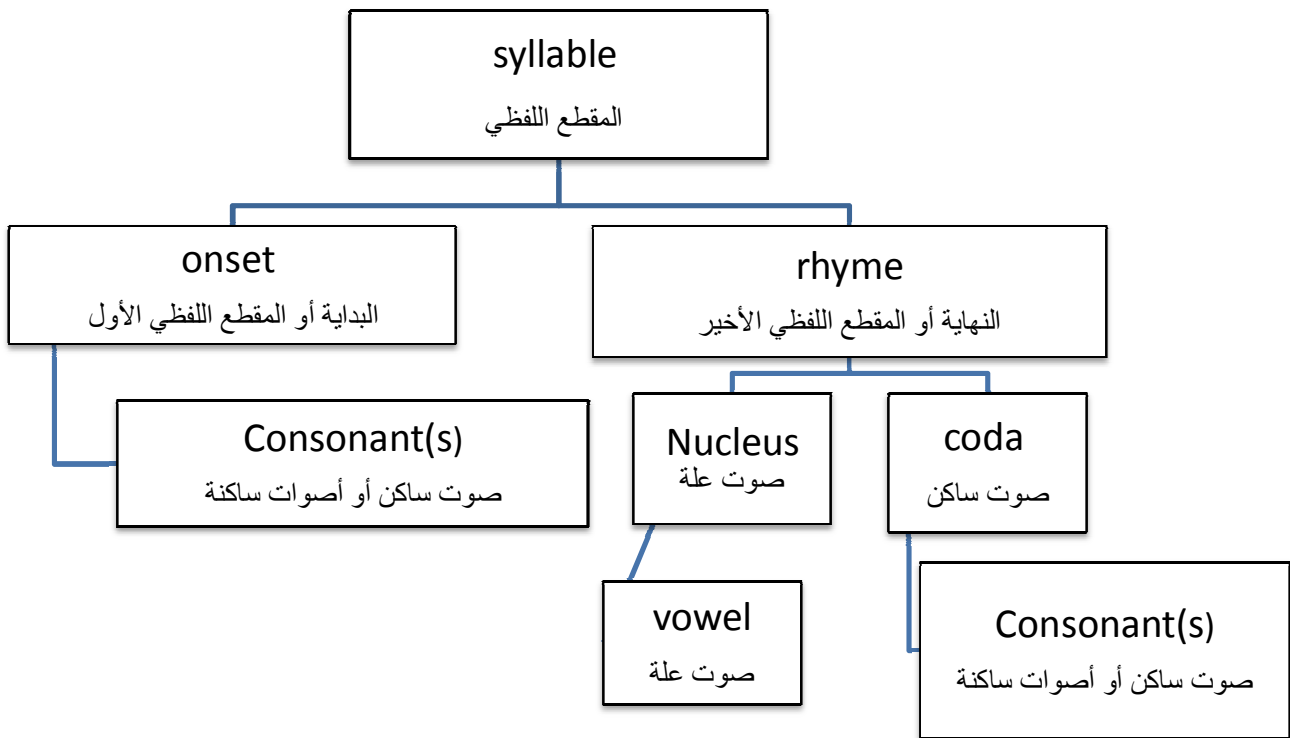
Syllables like *me*, *to* or *no* have an onset and a nucleus, but no coda. They are known as open syllables.

المقاطع اللفظية في المثال me تبدأ بحرف ساكن (C) وهو الـ m وتنتهي بحرف علة (V) وهو الـ e ولا يوجد آخرها حرف ساكن .. نجد آخر الكلمة حرف علة وهو الـ e فبالتالي يسمى هذا المقطع اللفظي مفتوحاً .

When a coda is present, as in the syllables *up*, *cup*, *at* or *hat*, they are called closed syllables.

أما إذا انتهى المقطع اللفظي بحرف ساكن مثل كلمة up نجد أولها حرف علة (V) وهو الـ u وآخرها حرف ساكن (C) وهو حرف الـ p فبالتالي يسمى هذا المقطع اللفظي مغلقاً .

The basic structure of the kind of syllable found in English words:
green (CCVC), eggs (VCC), and (VCC), I (V), do (CV), not (CVC),
like (CVC), them (CVC), Sam (CVC), am (VC)

نلاحظ هنا أننا قمنا بتوضيح المقاطع اللفظية من حيث (علة أو ساكن)
فنقوم بنطق الكلمة مع كتابة رموز الأصوات .. نلاحظ أن بعض الكلمات نعتبر فيها الحرفين صوتاً واحداً مثل : green
عبارة عن صوت n + ee + r + g أي أنها صوت ساكن + ساكن + علة + ساكن يعني تكتب بهذا الشكل (CCVC)
مثال آخر : كلمة eggs
عبارة عن صوت s + gg + e أي أنها صوت علة + ساكن + ساكن وتكتب بهذا الشكل (VCC)
مثال : كلمة like
عبارة عن صوت k + i + L ونلاحظ أن الـ e لا تنطق فلا نعتبرها صوت
وبالتالي فهي صوت ساكن + علة + ساكن ، أي أنها تكتب بهذا الشكل (CVC) ... وهكذا مع بقية الأمثلة .

❖ Consonant clusters:

Both the onset and the coda can consist of more than one consonant, also known as a consonant cluster. The combination /st/ is a consonant cluster (CC) used as onset in the word <u>stop</u>, and as coda in the word <u>post</u>. Examples, <u>black</u>, <u>bread</u>, <u>trick</u>, <u>flat</u>.

أحياناً يكون المقطع الصوتي الواحد أي الـ(syllable) عبارة عن حرفين ساكنين ، وفي هذه الحالة تسمى مجموعة الأحرف الصامتة أي
consonant cluster
مثال : الصوت /st/ موجود في أول كلمة stop وأيضا في آخر كلمة post هو عبارة عن لفظ مكون من صوتين ساكنين (CC)
أمثلة أخرى مثل : .black, bread, trick, flat

❖ Assimilation:

When two sound segments occur in sequence and some aspect of one segment is taken or "copied" by the other, the process is known as assimilation.

في الحياة اليومية (أي باللهجة العامية) تنطق بعض الكلمات بشكل مختلف عن المفروض ، ولكن المستمع يفهم المعنى المقصود من الكلمة وذلك
لأن طريقة النطق تكون شائعة ومعروفة ، وهذا ما يسمى assimilation .

Examples:

ha*v*e	*I ha*f*e to go* (in everyday speech)
goo*d* girl	*goo*g* girl*
goo*d* boy	*goo*b* boy*

في الأمثلة السابقة نلاحظ تغيير بعض الأحرف عند النطق ، بينما تختلف كتابةً .

❖ Elision:

The process of not pronouncing a sound segment that night be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word in isolation is described as elision.

أيضاً بعض الأحرف عند الكلام لا تنطق وهذا ما يسمى بـ elision .

Examples:

*you an*d* me* (d sound is not pronounced)

نلاحظ هنا أن الحرف d لا ينطق

*frien*d*ship* (d sound is not pronounced)

الحرف d لا ينطق هنا أيضاً

*he mus*t* be* (t sound is not pronounced)

الحرف t لا ينطق

Study questions :
Do exercises 2, 3 and 6 in page 49.

2) What is an aspirated sound and which of the following words would normally
be pronounced with one: kill, pool, skill, spool, stop, top?
An aspirated sound is one pronounced with a stronger puff of air. Words containing aspirated consonants in initial position are kill, pool and top.

3) Which of the following words would be treated as minimal pairs?
ban, fat, pit, bell, tape, heat, meal, more, pat, pen, chain, vote, bet, far, bun,
goat, heel, sane, tale
ban-bun, fat-pat, fat-far, pit-pat, bell-bet, bet-vet, tap-tape, tape-tale, heat-heel, meal-heel, chain-sane, vet-vote, vote-goat

6) Which segments in the pronunciation of the following words are most likely
to be affected by elision?
(a) *government* (b) *postman* (c) *pumpkin* (d) *sandwich*
(a) /n/
(b) /t/
(c) /p/
(d) /d/

نهاية المحاضرة الثالثة :)

Lecture "4"

Word formation| تشكيل أو تكوين الكلمة

Word formation:

- Etymology
- Coinage
- Borrowing
- Compounding
- Blending
- Clipping
- Backformation
- Conversion
- Acronyms
- Derivation
- Prefixes and suffixes

❖ Etymology :

Etymology is the study of the history of words, their origins, and how their form and meaning have changed over time. By an extension, the term "etymology (of a word)" means the origin of a particular word.

المقصود به دراسة تاريخ وأصل الكلمة ، أصولها من أي ثقافة وكيف وصلت لنا . نلاحظ الأمثلة التالية وأصولها

(أسباني – برتغالي – إيطالي – فنلندي – عربي – ياباني)

- Spanish: has contributed many words, particularly in the southwestern United States. Examples include *buckaroo*, *alligator*, *rodeo*, and states' names such as *Colorado* and *Florida.*
- Portuguese: *Albino, lingo, verandah*, and *coconut.*
- Italian: *diva, prima donna, pasta, pizza, paparazzi*, and *umbrella.*
- Finnish: *sauna*
- Arabic: *adobe, alcohol, algebra, apricot, assassin, caliber, cotton, hazard, jacket, jar, mosque, Muslim, orange, safari, sofa*, and *zero*.
- Japanese: *sushi,* and *tsunami*.

❖ Coinage :

Coinage is the word formation process in which a new word is created either deliberately or accidentally without using the other word formation processes and often from seemingly nothing. For example, the following list of words provides some common coinages found in everyday English: aspirin, escalator, band-aid, Frisbee, Google, kerosene, Kleenex, Xerox, zipper.

ويقصد بها الكلمات التي ليست لها تاريخ أو أصول من ثقافة معينة ، وانما تم استحداثها مع الزمن سواء كانت عن طريق العمد أو مصادفة . غالباً تشكلت هذه الكلمات لأغراض تجارية . مثل : اسبرين ، جوجل ....

❖ Borrowing

Borrowing is the word formation process in which a word from one language is borrowed directly into another language.

الاستعارة : ويقصد بها الكلمات المشتركة بين لغتين ، بحيث يتم استخدامها في لغتين بنفس المعنى .

كما نلاحظ في الأمثلة التالية ، مستعارة من (العربية – الصينية – الفرنسية – الهنغارية – الإيطالية – المالطية) .

For example, the following common English words are borrowed from foreign languages:

algebra – Arabic

chowmein – Chinese

murder – French
paprika – Hungarian
pizza – Italian
yo-yo – Tagalog

Borrowed words are also referred to as loanwords.

بمعنى أننا نطلق عليها Borrowed أو loanwords ، كلها لها نفس المعنى .

❖ Compounding

Compounding is the word formation process in which two or more lexemes combine into a single new word. Compound words may be written as one word or as two words joined with a hyphen.

التركيب : ويقصد بها هنا جمع كلمتين معاً لتكوين كلمة جديدة بدون أن نحذف أي أحرف من الكلمتين وبدون مسافة بينهم
مثال : كلمة (note) تعني دفتر صغير + كلمة (book) معناها كتاب .. كل كلمة لها معنى منفصل ، ولكن لما دمجناها مع بعض في كلمة
(notebook) أعطتنا معنى جديد وهي الأجهزة اللوحية الصغيرة .
لاحظ الأمثلة التالية ..

For example:
1) <u>noun-noun</u> compound: note + book → notebook
2) <u>adjective-noun</u> compound: blue + berry → blueberry
3) <u>verb-noun</u> compound: work + room → workroom
4) <u>verb-preposition</u> compound: break + up → breakup

نلاحظ من الأمثلة السابقة انه التركيب له عدة أنواع :
١) اسم + اسم note + book → notebook
٢) صفة + اسم blue + berry → blueberry
٣) فعل + اسم work + room → workroom
٤) فعل + ظرف break + up → breakup

Compounds may be compositional, meaning that the meaning of the new word is determined by combining the meanings of the parts, or non-compositional, meaning that the meaning of the new word cannot be determined by combining the meanings of the parts. For example, a *blueberry* is a berry that is blue.

يذكر أنه مو شرط يكون معنى دمج كلمتين له علاقة بمعنى الكلمتين وهم منفصلين .
مثل نوت + كتاب .. دمجها أعطاني معنى مختلف تماما عن معناها وهم منفصلين .. بينما توت + أزرق أعطاني معنى مشابه للكلمتين قبل الدمج
وهو التوت الأزرق .

❖ Blending :

Blending is the word formation process in which parts of two or more words combine to create a new word whose meaning is often a combination of the original words.

هو دمج كلمتين بحيث يعطينا كلمة جديدة ولكن مع حذف بعض الأحرف .. نلاحظ ذلك بالأمثلة التالية :

For example:
advertisement + entertainment →advertainment
biographical + picture → biopic
breakfast + lunch → brunch
motor + hotel → motel
smoke + fog → smog
Spanish + English → Spanglish
spoon + fork →spork

❖ Clipping :

Clipping is the word formation process in which a word is reduced or shortened without changing the meaning of the word. Clipping differs from back-formation in that the new word retains the meaning of the original word.

هو الاختصار أو التقصير في الكلمات بدون تغيير المعنى .. ولكن لمجرد الاختصار فقط ، نلاحظ ذلك في الأمثلة التالية فالمعنى هو نفسه هو مجرد اختصار فقط :

For example:

        examination – exam
        influenza – flu
        laboratory – lab
        mathematics – math
        photograph – photo
        telephone – phone

The four types of clipping are <u>back clipping</u>, <u>fore-clipping</u>, <u>middle clipping</u>, and <u>complex clipping</u>.

أنواع الاختصارات (أربعة أنواع) :
(اختصار آخر الكلمة – اختصار أول الكلمة – اختصار وسط الكلمة – الاختصار المركب بحيث يتم اختصار الكلمة في اكثر من موضع)

Back clipping is removing the end of a word as in *gas* from *gasoline*. Fore-clipping is removing the beginning of a word as in *gator* from *alligator*. Middle clipping is retaining only the middle of a word as in *flu* from *influenza*. Complex clipping is removing multiple parts from multiple words as in *sitcom* from *situation comedy*.

فيما سبق نجد أمثلة على أنواع الاختصارات :
back clipping مثل gas من كلمة gasoline
fore-clipping مثل gator من كلمة alligator
middle clipping مثل flu من كلمة influenza
complex clipping مثل sitcom من كلمة situation comedy

❖ Back-Formation :

Back-formation is the word formation process in which an actual or supposed derivational affix detaches from the base form of a word to create a new word.

أي إعادة تشكيل الكلمات وعادة تكون بحذف اللواحق منها (أي الإضافات التي تلحق بآخر الكلمات) ، نلاحظ في الأمثلة :

For example, the following list provides examples of some common back-formations in English:

        Original – Back-formation
        babysitter – babysit
        donation – donate
        gambler – gamble
        moonlighter – moonlight
        television – televise

❖ Conversion :

Conversion is the word formation process in which a word of one grammatical form becomes a word of another grammatical form without any changes to spelling or pronunciation.

إعادة تشكيل الكلمة نحوياً بدون أن يتغير المعنى ولكن تتغير نحويا مثلا من اسم إلى فعل أو من صفة إلى فعل .

For example, the nouns *bottle, butter, chair* have come to be used, through conversion, as verbs: *We bottled the home-juice last night; Have you buttered the toast?; someone has to chair the meeting; They are vacationing in Florida*.

نلاحظ في المثال السابق أن كلمة (علبة أو قارورة) اسم ولكن تم إعادة تشكيلها نحويا بحيث تصبح فعل كما في الجملة (نحن قمنا بتعليب العصير البيتي أي المصنوع في البيت) وهكذا نلاحظ مع الأمثلة التالية أننا حولنا الصفة إلى فعل :

Examples:

Adjectives	Verbs
dirty	to dirty
empty	to empty

Noun to Verb Conversion : The most productive form of conversion in English is noun to verb conversion.

الغالب في اللغة الإنجليزية هو تحويل الكلمة نحويا من اسم إلى فعل ، كما في الأمثلة التالية :

The following list provides examples of verbs converted from nouns:

Noun – Verb
access – to access
bottle – to bottle
can – to can
closet – to closet
email – to email
fool – to fool
Google – to google
name – to name
salt – to salt
ship – to ship

❖ **Acronyms :**

Acronyms are words formed by the word formation process in which an initialism is pronounced as a word.

أي اختصار العبارات وذلك بأخذ أول الأحرف فقط من كل كلمة في العبارة .

For example, *HIV* is an initialism for Human Immunodeficiency Virus that is spoken as the three letters H-I-V.
 However, *AIDS* is an acronym for Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome that is spoken as the word *AIDS*.
Other examples of acronyms in English include:
ASAP – as soon as possible
PIN – personal identification number
radar - radio detection and ranging
TESOL – Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Acronyms are related to the word formation process of abbreviation.

❖ **Derivation :**

Derivation is the word formation process in which a derivational affix attaches to the base form of a word to create a new word. Affixes, which include prefixes and suffixes, are bound morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest linguistic unit of a language with semantic meaning. Bound morphemes, unlike free morphemes, cannot stand alone but must attach to another morpheme such as a word.

هي الملحقات المكونة من أجزاء صغيرة و تتضمن جزء من الكلمة وهي أصغر وحدة لغوية في اللغة الانجليزية ، كما أنها لا يمكن أن تعطينا معنى وهي مستقلة .. وإنما تضاف لأول أو آخر الكلمة حتى تضيف لها معنى .

وهي تشمل الـ prefixes and suffixes أي البوادئ واللواحق

For example, the following two lists provide examples of some common prefixes and suffixes with definitions in English:

Prefixes

a- – without, not
co- – together
de- – opposite, negative, separation
dis- –opposite, negative
en- – cause to be
ex- – former, previous, from
in- – negative, not
non- – absence, not
re- – again, repeatedly
un- – negative, not, opposite

Suffixes

-able – sense of being
-er – agent
-ful – characterized by
-fy – make, become, cause to be
-ism – action or practice, state or condition
-less – lack of
-ly – -like
-ology – study, science
-ship – condition, character, skill
-y – characterized by, condition

البيرفكس يعني البوادئ أي الأجزاء التي تضاف لأول الكلمة يعني قبلها ، أما السيفكس فهي اللواحق أي تلحق آخر الكلمة يعني تضاف بعد الكلمة ، ونلاحظ بالأمثلة وجود الشرطة بعد البيرفكس وقبل السيفكس (إذا اعتبرنا أن الكلمة ستحل مكان الشرطة فسيكون ترتيب الكلمة سليماً)

نهاية المحاضرة الرابعة :)

Lecture "5"

Morphology | علم الصرف

- ❖ Morphology
- ❖ Morphemes
  - Free and bound morphemes
  - Lexical and functional morphemes
  - Derivational and inflectional morphemes
  - Morphological description
  - Morphs and allomorphs

❖ Morphology :

Morphology is the study of word formation. The basic unit in the study of morphology is the morpheme.

الصرف : هو علم دراسة تشكيل الكلمة . الوحدة الأساسية لدراسة الصرف هي (المورفيم) .

❖ A morpheme or morph :

is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural.

هي الوحدة الأصغر التي تعطي (معنى) أو (وظيفة قاعدية) مثل الدلالة على الماضي أو الجمع .

For example:

The police reopened the investigation

reopened consists of three *morphemes*. One minimal unit of meaning is *open*, another minimal unit of meaning is *re-* (meaning 'again') and a minimal unit of grammatical function is *–ed* (indicating past tense).

نلاحظ هنا في كلمة reopened أن الكلمة احتوت على ثلاثة مورفيمات (re+open+ed)

الـ re تعتبر بيرفكس أي بادئة بمعنى إعادة أو تكرار ، كلمة open وهي كلمة مستقلة بمعناها (فعل) بمعنى فتح ، والـ ed سيفكس أي لاحقة تضاف لآخر الكلمات تفيد الدلالة على الزمن الماضي . (أُعيد فتح)

tourists

tour = one minimal unit of meaning.

-ist = another minimal unit of meaning. (person who does something)

-s = a minimal unit of grammatical function (indicating plural).

مثال آخر : كلمة tourists احتوت على ثلاث مورفيمات (tour+ist+s)

كلمة tour أي سياحة وهي كلمة مستقلة بمعناها (اسم) ، الـ ist تفيد الشخص الذي يقوم بالفعل أي سائح ، والـ s للجمع أي سائحين .

Morphemes are two types | أنواع المورفيم نوعين :

Free and bound morphemes.

مورفيمات مستقلة وَ مورفيمات مقيدة

Free morphemes: are morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words.
For example: *open* and *tour*

المورفيمات المستقلة : وهي المورفيمات المستقلة بذاتها ولها معنى مستقل أيضاً مثل كلمة : open

Bound morphemes : are morphemes that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form.
For example: re-, -ist, -ed, -s (prefixes and suffixes)

المورفيمات المقيدة : وهي التي غالباً ليس لها معنى إذا وجدت بمفردها وإنما لا بد أن تكون متصلة بكلمات أخرى مثل : ed-
(وهي البريفكس والسيفكس أي البوادئ واللواحق)

Free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic <u>nouns</u>, <u>adjectives</u>, <u>verbs</u>, etc

المورفيمات الحرة : يمكن استخدامها بشكل منفصل ومستقل بدون إضافات ودائما تكون (اسم أو صفة أو فعل ...)

When free morphemes are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are technically known as stems.

عندما يضاف مورفيم مقيد للمورفيم المستقل فإننا نسمي الجزء الأساسي من الكلمة stem أي الجذر أو الأساس .

For example: undressed
(un- bound= prefix) (dress free = stem) (-ed bound= suffix)

في كلمة undressed نلاحظ ان الكلمة الأساسية اللي تعطينا معنى كامل لو كانت لحالها بدون إضافات هي dress ولذلك فهي مورفيم مستقل free ويسمى الجذر أو الأساس stem / نلاحظ أن المورفيم -un هو مورفيم مقيد bound لأنه لوحده لا يعطينا أي معنى ولكن عند إضافته لكلمة أخرى يدل على الغير قابلية أو العكس وهو بريفكس أي من البوادئ لأنه التحق بأول الكلمة (نلاحظ مكان الشرطة كتبت بعدها) وحتى تسهل علينا تخيل أن الشرطة هي مكان الكلمة التي ستضاف لها فبالتالي سنفهم أن الـ un تكب أولاً ثم الكلمة / نلاحظ أيضا أن المورفيم ed– مقيد bound أيضا لأنه لوحده لا يعطينا أي معنى ولكن عند إضافته لكلمة أخرى يدل على الماضي وهو سيفيكس أي من اللواحق لأنه يلحق آخر الكلمة (نلاحظ مكان الشرطة كتبت قبلها) ولو تخيلنا أن الشرطة هي مكان الكلمة فسنفهم أنها تضاف لآخر الكلمات وبالتالي فهي لاحقة .

example: carelessness

care	-less	-ness
stem	suffix	suffix
(free)	(bound)	(bound)

في المثال الآخر carelessness نلاحظ أن المورفيم المستقل هو care وبالتالي فهو الجذر أو الأساس أما البقية مورفيمات مقيدة وهي سيفكس لأنها تلحق أواخر الكلمات

Free morphemes consist of two categories :

المورفيمات المستقلة لها نوعين : (مورفيمات معجمية / مورفيمات وظيفية).

1) **Lexical morphemes | مورفيمات معجمية :**

ordinary nouns, adjectives, and verbs that we think of as the words that carry the "content" of the messages we convey.
For example: *girl, man, house, tiger, sad, long, yellow, open, look, follow, break*.

المورفيمات المعجمية هي المورفيمات التي تحمل معنى بحد ذاتها ونجدها في الأسماء والصفات والأفعال .

(they are described as "open")

تسمى مفتوحة : لأنه عددها مفتوح لا حصر لها ، مثل المعجم يحتوي الكثير من الكلمات التي لا حصر لها ويمكن دائماً إضافة كلمات جديدة لها مع مرور الزمن .

2) Functional morphemes | مورفيمات وظيفية :

conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns.

For example: *and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, the, that, it, them.*

المورفيمات الوظيفية : هي التي وجدت في الجملة لتؤدي وظيفة معينة مثل الربط أو العطف أو الجر أو التعريف أو الضمائر .

(they are described as "closed")

تسمى مغلقة : لأنها معروفة في اللغة ولا يمكن إضافة كلمات جديدة لها .. فهي مجموعة كلمات محددة .

Bound morphemes consist of two categories :

المورفيمات المقيدة لها نوعين : (مورفيمات مشتقة / مورفيمات تصريفية) .

1) Derivational morphemes | مورفيمات مشتقة :

Derivational morphemes are used to make new words.

For example: *careful + -ful or careless + -less, foolish + -ish, quick + -ly, payment + -ment. re- + reopen, mis-+ misused. (suffixes and prefixes)*

المورفيمات المشتقة : هي المورفيمات التي بإضافتها للكلمة يتغير نوع الكلام من اسم إلى صفة أو من فعل إلى صفة ....

مثل : care اسم (عناية) ولكن عند إضافة ful – أصبحت صفة careful (شديد الحرص)

المورفيمات المشتقة غالباً تكون من البوادئ أو اللواحق .

2) Inflectional morphemes | مورفيمات تصريفية :

Inflectional morphemes are used to indicate aspects of grammatical function of a word. English has only eight inflectional morphemes.

هي المورفيمات التي ليس لها معنى في اللغة وإنما وجدت لوظائف قواعدية . وعددها ثمانية فقط نجدها بالأمثلة التالية :

1. *Jim's two sisters are really different. (possessive, plural)*

S الملكية في كلمة Jim's / S الجمع في كلمة sisters

2. *One likes to have fun and is always laughing. (3rd person singular, present participle)*

S المفرد الغائب في كلمة likes / ing المضارع في كلمة laughing

3. *The other liked to read and has always taken things seriously. (past tense, past participle)*

ed الماضي في كلمة liked / en الخاصة بالتصريف الثالث للأفعال في كلمة taken

4. *One is the loudest person in the house and the other is quieter that a mouse. (comparative, superlative)*

est التفضيل بين أكثر من اثنين في كلمة loudest / er التفضيل بين اثنين في كلمة quieter

(inflectional morphemes are all suffixes) المورفيمات التصريفية دائما من اللواحق أي تلحق آخر الكلمة

إضافة من عندي لزيادة الفهم والتفريق بين المورفيمات المشتقة والتصريفية :

المورفيمات المشتقة تغير من نوع الكلام فممكن يتغير الاسم إلى صفة مثلا .. أما التصريفية لا يتغير نوع الكلام

مثال على ذلك : كلمة teach**er** وكلمة old**er**
نلاحظ هنا المورفيم المقيد er في الكلمتين ولكن في كلمة teacher المورفيم نوعه مورفيم مشتقderivational morphemes
لأن أصل الكلمة بدون er هي teachأي يُعلّم (فعل) ، ولكن بعد إضافة الـ er أصبحت teacher أي معلم (اسم)
نلاحظ أن نوع الكلمة تغير من فعل إلى اسم .

أما في كلمة older نوعه تصريفي inflectional morphemes لأن أصل الكلمة بدون er هي old أي كبير بالسن (صفة) وبعد إضافة er
التفضيل أصبحت older أي أكبر بالسن من (صفة) ما زالت صفة .. لأننا أضفنا الـ er لغرض المقارنة فقط (لوظيفة قاعدية فقط) .

ممكن كمان نركز على الأنواع الثمانية الخاصة بالمورفيمات التصريفية inflectional morphemes .. وبالتالي ما عدا ذلك يعتبر مورفيم
مشتق derivational morphemes .
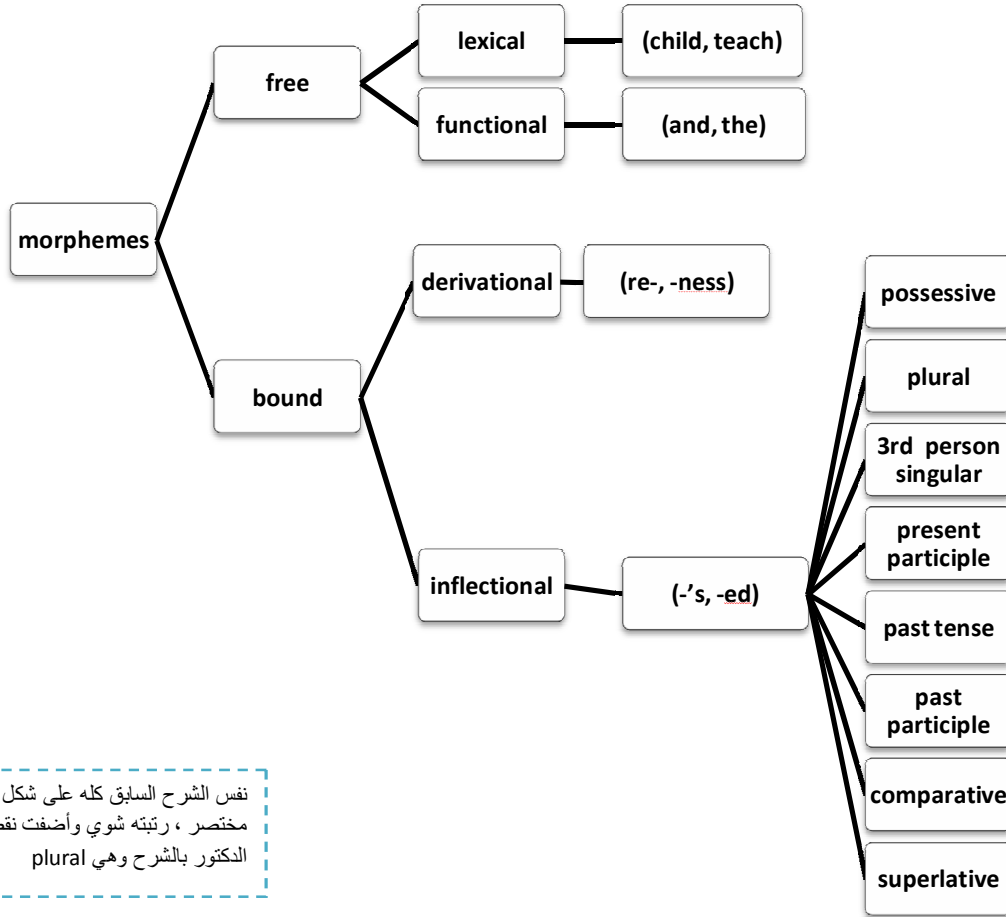
نفس الشرح السابق كله على شكل جدول
مختصر ، رتبته شوي وأضفت نقطة نساها
الدكتور بالشرح وهي plural

Morphological description :

The child's wildness shocked the teachers

هنا نشوف الجملة السابقة كيف استخرج المورفيمات وصنفها بالجدول بحسب ما درسناها .

The child+'s wild+ness shock+ed the teach+er+s

The	child	-'s	wild	-ness	shock	-ed	the	teach	-er	-s
functional	lexical	inflectional	lexical	derivational	lexical	inflectional	functional	lexical	derivational	inflectional

Morphs and allomorphs :

cats consists of two morphs cat + s (a lexical morpheme and an inflectional morpheme)

كلمة cats تتكون من مورفيمين اثنين s + cat (مورفيم مستقل وهي قطة (اسم) + مورفيم تصريفي اللي هو s الجمع)

buses consist of two morphs bus + es (a lexical morpheme and an inflectional morpheme)

كلمة buses تتكون من مورفيمين اثنين es + bus (مورفيم مستقل وهو باص (اسم) + مورفيم تصريفي وهي es الجمع)

(-s and -es) are called allomorphs

الـ (s and -es-) تسمى آلامورف والسبب أن نطقها أحيانا يختلف عن صوت الـ s / وممكن يذكركم هذا الدرس بالفونز والآلوفونز ..

في علم الأصوات يوجد لكل صوت عدة إصدارات أو عدة طرق مختلفة في النطق ولهذا تسمى هذه الإصدارات الأخرى آلوفونز أو آلومورفز .

لأن s الجمع أحيانا ننطقها بصوت (s) وأحيانا (z) وأحياناً (ez)

في حالات الجمع الشاذة والتي لا تتغير فيها الكلمة أو لا يضاف لها s الجمع فإنها تسمى (زيرو آلومورف)

كما في الأمثلة التالية :

sheep + plural = sheep ⟶ zero allomorph

man + plural = men ⟶ zero allomorph

Do exercises 1, 2 a b c, 3 a b c d, 4 in page 74.

1) What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence?
When he arrived, the old man had an umbrella and a large plastic bag full of books.
When, he, in, the, the, an, and, a, of

2) (a) List the bound morphemes in these words:
fearlessly, misleads, previewer, shortened, unhappier
-less, -ly, *mis-,* -s, *pre-,* -er, -en, -ed, *un-,* -er

(b) Which of these words has a bound stem:
construct, deceive, introduce, repeat?
all of them (-struct, -ceive, -duce, -peat)

(c) Which of these words contains an allomorph of the morpheme "past tense":
are, have, must, sitting, waits?
none of them (were, had, sat, waited)

3) What are the inflectional morphemes in these expressions?
(a) Have you eaten yet?
(b) Do you know how long I've been waiting?
(c) She's younger than me and always dresses in the latest style.
(d) We looked through my grandmother's old photo albums.

(a) -en,
(b) -en, -ing
(c) -er, -es, -est,
(d) -ed, -'s, -s

4) What are the allomorphs of the morpheme 'plural' in this set of English words?
criteria, dogs, oxen, deer, judges, stimuli
-a (OR -on →-a), -s, -en, Ø, -es, -i(OR -us→i)

نهاية المحاضرة الخامسة :)

Lecture "6"

<u>Grammar</u> | النحو

- ❖ Grammar
- ❖ Traditional grammar
- ❖ The parts of speech
  - Nouns
  - Articles
  - Adjectives
  - Verbs
  - Adverbs
  - Prepositions
  - Pronouns
  - Conjunctions
- ❖ Agreement
- ❖ Traditional analysis
- ❖ The prescriptive approach

❖ Grammar

The process of describing the structure of phrases and sentences in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences.

النحو : عملية ترتيب العبارات والجمل بطريقة لها قواعد وقوانين في اللغة .

❖ Traditional grammar:

When we label the grammatical categories "article," "adjective" and "noun" of the words in the phrase *the lucky boys* we use traditional grammar. The best-known terms from that tradition are those used in describing the parts of speech.

النحو التقليدي : عملية تصنيف الكلام بحسب أجزاء الكلام (اسم أو صفة أو فعل ......)

❖ The parts of speech:

أجزاء الكلام و هنا في الجملة التالية نلاحظ تصنيف كل لكمة إلى اسم أو فعل أو حرف جر ..... الخ

"The lucky boys found a backpack in the park and they opened it carefully"

The	lucky	boys	found	a	backpack	in
article	adjective	noun	verb	article	noun	preposition
أداة تعريف	صفة	اسم	فعل	أداة تعريف	اسم	أداة جر

the	park	and	they	opened	it	carefully
article	noun	conjunction	pronoun	verb	pronoun	adverb
أداة تعريف	اسم	أداة عطف	ضمير	فعل	ضمير	حال

❖ **The parts of speech** | أجزاء الكلام:

- **Nouns** are often defined as words, which name persons, places or things. For example: *boy, river, friend, Mexico, day, school, university, idea, John, movie, vacation, eye, dream, flag, teacher, class, grammar*. *John* is a noun because it is the name of a person; *Mexico* is a noun because it is the name of a place.

الاسم : دائما نجده في الكلمات التي تخص أسماء الأشخاص أو الأماكن أو الأشياء .
مثلا : (John) يعتبر noun لأن اسم شخص ، وكلمة (Mexico) تعتبر noun لأنها اسم مكان .

- **Articles** are words (*a, an, the*) used with nouns to form noun phrases classifying those "things" (*you can have a banana or an apple*) or indentifying them as already known (*I'll take the apple*).

أدوات التعريف : وهي الكلمات (a, an, the) تستخدم لتعيين الشيء النكرة ، كما تستخدم للتعريف .

- **Adjectives** are words used, typically with nouns, to provide more information about the things referred to (*happy people, large objects, a strange experience).*

الصفات : كلمات تستخدم مع الأسماء لوصفهم وإعطاء معلومات أكثر عنهم مثل (الولد ذكي) (الطفل سعيد) نلاحظ أننا نوصف الاسم أو الشخص .

- **Verbs** are words used to refer to various kinds of actions (go, talk) and states (be, have) involving people and things in events (*Sarah is ill and has a sore throat so she can't talk or go anywhere).*

الأفعال : كلمات تصف حدث معين أو حالة معينة ، سواء كانت فعل مثل (go, talk) أو أفعال مساعدة مثل (be, have) .

- **Adverbs** are words used, typically with verbs, to provide more information about actions, states and events (*slowly*, *yesterday*) . Some adverbs (*really*, *very*) are also used with adjectives to modify information about things (*Really large objects move slowly. I had a very strange experience yesterday*).

الحال : كلمات تستخدم مع الأفعال لوصفهم وإعطاء معلومات أكثر عن الفعل (بطيء ، سريع ..)وغالباً يكون آخرها ly .

- **Prepositions** are words (*at, in, on, near, with, without*) used with nouns in phrases providing information about time (*at five o'clock*, *in the morning*) , place (*on the table, near the window*) and other connections (*with a knife, without a thought*) involving actions and things.

أدوات الجر والظروف : تستخدم مع الأسماء للوصف وإعطاء معلومات أكثر عن المكان أو للربط بين الأحداث والأشياء .

- **Pronouns** are words (she, herself, they, it, you) used in place of noun phrases, typically referring to people and things already known (*she talks to herself. They said it belonged to you*).

الضمائر : هي كلمات تستخدم للإشارة إلى أشخاص أو أشياء سبق وتكلمنا عنها .

- **Conjunctions** are words (and, but, because, when) used to make connections and indicate relationship between events (*Dana's husband was so sweet and he helped her a lot because she couldn't do much when she was pregnant*)

أدوات العطف : هي كلمات تستخدم للربط بين حدثين .

Agreement | التوافق النحوى :

Agreement is the grammatical connection between two parts of a sentence (number, person, tense, voice and gender) as in the connection between a subject *Cathy* and the form of a verb *loves chocolate*. (agreement in number (singular and plural) and person)

التوافق النحوي : هو أن يكون هناك توافق بين جزأين من الكلمة من حيث العدد (مفرد أو جمع) ومن حيث صيغة الجملة وزمنها (ماضي أو مضارع أو مفعول به) ومن حيث الجنس (مذكر أو مؤنث) .
يعني لو نتكلم عن مفرد مؤنث لازم نستخدم ضمير مفرد مؤنث .. وهكذا ..

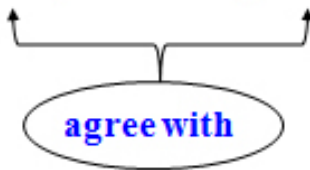|			
المتكلم المفرد	First person (singular)	I	love chocolate
المخاطب المفرد	Second person (singular)	You	love chocolate
الغائب المفرد	Third person (singular)	He, she, it (or Cathy)	love<u>s</u> chocolate

agree with

نلاحظ أن الضمير متوافق مع الفعل (سواء بإضافة s أو بدون)

❖ *Cathy is loved* by her dog or *Cathy is loved* (**agreement in tense**)

agree with   agree with
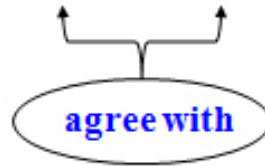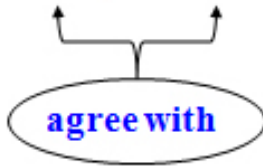
❖ *Cathy* is loved by *her* dog. (**agreement in gender**)

agree with

في المثال الأول متوافق مع صيغة المفعول به (loved)
المثال الأخير متوافق مع الجنس (مؤنث)

❖ **Traditional analysis** | التحليل التقليدي:

Present tense, active voice	صيغة المتكلم المفرد	First person singular	I	write
	صيغة المخاطب المفرد	Second person singular	You	write
	صيغة الغائب المفرد	Third person singular	He, she, it	write<u>s</u>
	صيغة المتكلم الجمع	First person plural	We	write
	صيغة المخاطب الجمع	Second person plural	You	write
	صيغة الغائب الجمع	Third person plural	They	write

❖ **The prescriptive approach:**

An approach taken by a number of grammarians, mainly in eighteen-century England, who set out rules for the "proper" use of English.

المنهج التوجيهي : هو منهج اتخذ مجموعة من القواعد وذلك في القرن الثامن عشر في انجلترا وذلك ليتناسب مع قواعد اللغة .

الصحيحة لغوياً ولكن خاطئة نحوياً		بعد التصحيح النحوي
Who did you go with?	→	With whom did you go?
Marry runs faster than me.		Marry runs faster than I.
Me and my family.		My family and I.

1) Identify all the parts of speech used in this sentence (e.g. woman = noun):
The woman kept a large snake in a cage, but it escaped recently.

3) What prescriptive rules for the "proper" use of English are not obeyed in the following sentences and how would they be "corrected"?
(i) The old theory consistently failed to fully explain all the data.
(ii) I can't remember the name of the person I gave the book to.

Answers :
1- The (= article), woman (= noun), kept (= verb), a (= article), large (= adjective), snake (= noun), in = preposition), a (= article), cage (= noun), but (= conjunction), it (= pronoun), escaped (= verb), recently (= adverb)

3- (i) "You must not split an infinitive." (to fully explain to explain fully)
(ii) "You must not end a sentence with a preposition" (the person I gave the book to

انتهت المحاضرة السادسة :)

Lecture "7"

Syntax | بناء الجملة

- ❖ Syntax
  - • Deep and surface structure
  - • Structural ambiguity
  - • Recursion
- ❖ Tree diagrams
- ❖ Symbols used in syntactic analysis
- ❖ Lexical rules
- ❖ Movement rules

Syntax :
Syntax is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages.

بناء الجملة : هو دراسة المبادئ والعمليات التي يتم من خلالها بناء الجملة في اللغة .

وهي نوعين : (البنية السطحية و البنية العميقة)

❖ Surface structure: (superficial level)
1. <u>Charlie broke the window</u> (in traditional grammar it is called an active sentence focusing on what Charlie did)

في الجملة السابقة نلاحظ أنها جملة مبنية للمعلوم وفيها تم التركيز على ما فعله تشارلي .

2. <u>The window was broken by Charlie.</u> (in traditional grammar it is called a passive sentence focusing on the window and what happened to it)

في الجملة السابقة نلاحظ أنها جملة مبنية للمجهول وفيها تم التركيز على ماذا حصل للنافذة .

1 & 2 have different syntactic forms. But very closely related

في كلتا الجملتين ١ وَ ٢اختلف بناء الجملة من ناحية ترتيبها ولكن المعنى متقارب جداً .

❖ Deep structure: (underlying level)
An abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented.

هذا النوع من بناء الجمل يكون التركيب متقدم ومن خلاله أستنتج معنى الجملة .. يعني ما فيه تركيز على شي واضح .

1. It was Charlie who broke the window.
2. Was the window broken by Charlie?

• Structural ambiguity:
I shot an elephant in my pajamas. (two underlying structures with the same surface structure)
1. I shot an elephant (while I was) in my pajamas
2. I shot an elephant (which was) in my pajamas

التركيب الغامض: اللي يكون معناها مو واضح للمتلقي مثل العبارة السابقة (أنا أطلقت على الفيل في بيجامتي)

الجمل اللي ممكن استنتجها من هذه العبارة هي :

١- انها اطلقت على الفيل بينما كانت تلبس البيجاما .

٢- انها اطلقت على الفيل الذي كان مرسوم في بيجامتها .

• Recursion : (repeating any number of times) :
<u>The gun was on the table.</u> (create a prepositional phrase again and again)
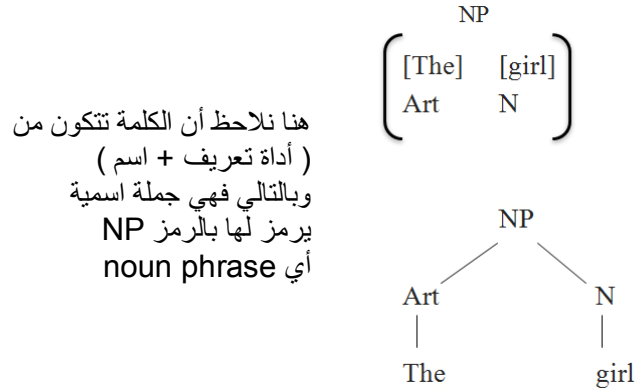(on the table) (near the window) (in the bedroom)
<u>The gun was on the table near the window in the bedroom.</u>
Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George. (no end)

التكرار : بمعنى إني أكرر نفس المعنى أكثر من مرة في الجملة ..

في المثال يصف مكان البندقية بأنها على الطاولة / بجانب النافذة / في غرفة النوم .... كلها تكرار لمكان البندقية نفسها .

أيضا في المثال الآخر : كاثي تعرف أن ماري ساعدت جورج / جون متأكد بأن كاثي تعرف أن ماري ساعدت جورج .... (وهكذا إلى مالا نهاية يمكننا إعادة بناء جمل لدعم نفس المضمون) .
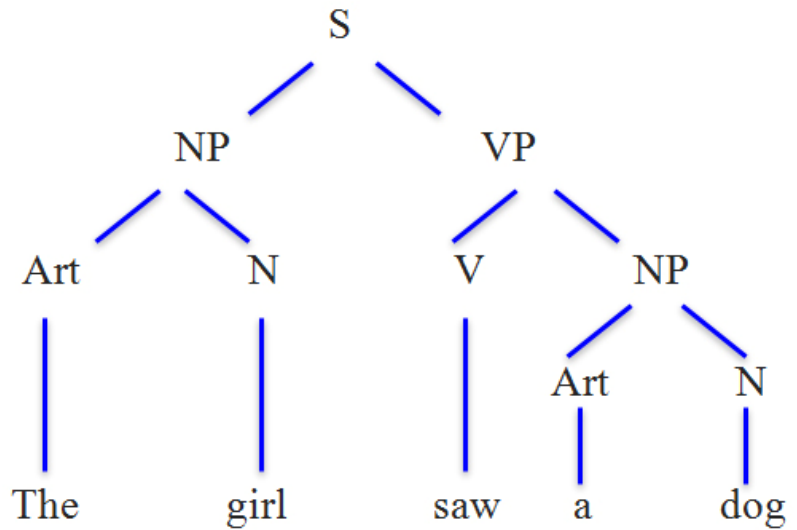
❖ **Tree diagrams | التخطيط الشجري:**

NP

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{[The]} & \text{[girl]} \\ \text{Art} & \text{N} \end{bmatrix}$$

هنا نلاحظ أن الكلمة تتكون من
(أداة تعريف + اسم)
وبالتالي فهي جملة اسمية
يرمز لها بالرمز NP
أي noun phrase

```
          NP
         /  \
       Art    N
        |     |
       The   girl
```

```
                    S
                  /   \
                NP      VP
               /  \    /  \
             Art   N  V    NP
              |    |  |   /  \
             The girl saw Art  N
                         |    |
                         a   dog
```

هنا أيضاً نلاحظ أن الجملة تتكون من :
(جملة اسمية + جملة فعلية)

والجملة الفعلية تتكون من :
(فعل + جملة اسمية)

والجملة الاسمية تتكون من :
(أداة تعريف + اسم)

❖ **Symbols used in syntactic analysis:**

<div dir="rtl">

الرموز التي نستخدمها لتحليل بنية الجملة :

</div>

❖ Symbols used in syntactic analysis:

$$NP \longrightarrow Art\ N$$
$$NP \longrightarrow Pro \qquad NP \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Art\ N \\ Pro \\ PN \end{array} \right\}$$
$$NP \longrightarrow PN$$

$$NP \longrightarrow (Art\ N,\ Pro,\ PN)$$

S sentence	**NP** noun phrase	**PN** proper noun
N noun	**VP** verb phrase	**Adv** adveb
V verb	**Adj** adjective	**Prep** preposition
Art article	**Pro** pronoun	**PP** prepositional phrase

<div dir="rtl">

اللي بالمربع الرمادي هو نفسه اللي بالمربع الأحمر بس بشكل مختصر ، والرموز اللي تحت تحفظ .

</div>

❖ **Lexical rules القواعد المعجمية:**

<div dir="rtl">

PN	{Mary, George}	يقصد بها اسم العلم (ماري ، جورج)
N	{girl, boy, dog}	المقصود الاسماء مثل (بنت ، ولد ، كلب)
Art	{a, the}	أدوات التعريف
Pro	{it, you}	الضمائر
V	{followed, helped, saw}	الأفعال

</div>

<div align="center">

A   dog   followed   the boy

</div>

<div dir="rtl">

هنا نحلل بناء الجملة بحسب الرموز اللي درسناها ، تابع مع الدكتور ودوّن بنفسك :)

</div>

❖ **Movement rules القواعد الحركية**:

ويقصد بها تبديل أماكن الكلمات دون تغيير المعنى .

You   will   help   Mary

Will   you   help   Mary
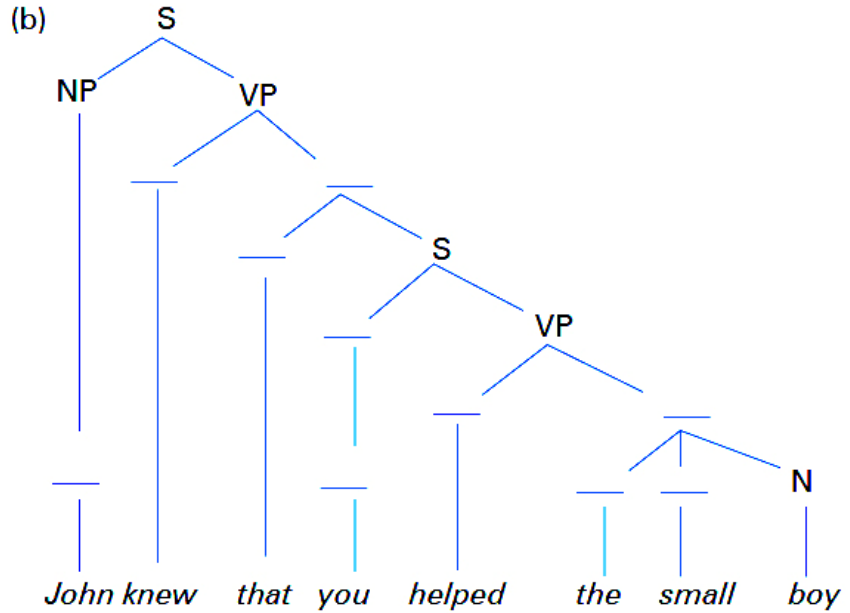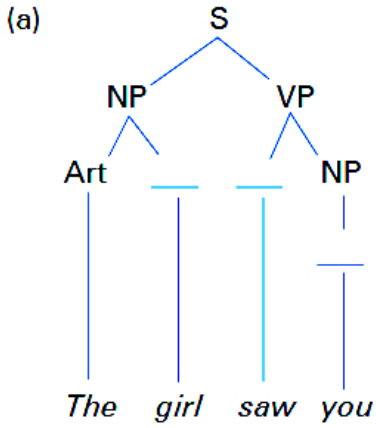
Study Question :
Do exercises 4 and 6 in page 107 :

4) Which of the following expressions would be generated by this phrase structure
rule: NP → {Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}?
(a) a lady
(b) the little girl
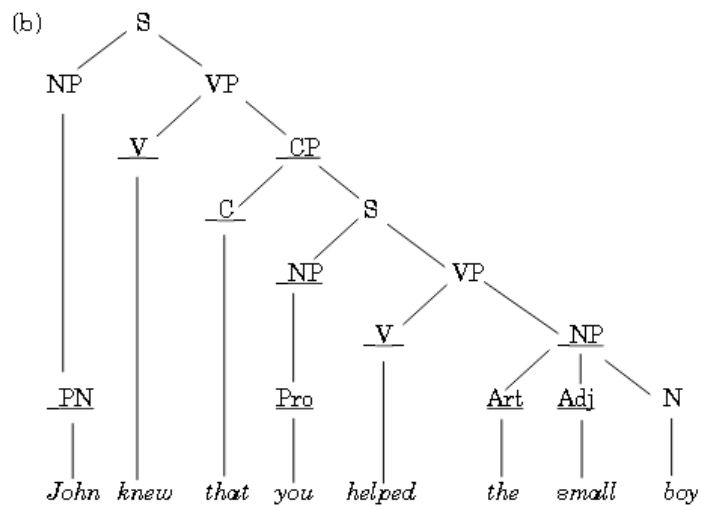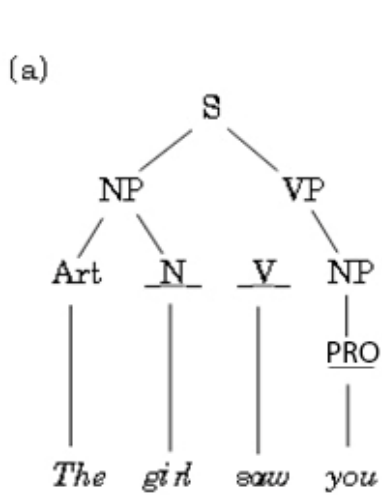(c) her
(d) Annie
(e) the widow
(f) she's an old woman

Answers :
(a), (b), (c), (d), (e),
but not (f) because it's a sentence,not just a noun phrase.

6) Using information from the phrase structure rules presented in this chapter, complete the following tree diagrams.

(a)

(b)

The girl saw you

John knew that you helped the small boy

Answers :

(a)

Art N V NP
PRO
The girl saw you

(b)

John knew that you helped the small boy

Lecture "8"

Semantics | علم الدلالة أو علم المعاني

- ❖ Semantics
- ❖ Meaning
- ❖ Semantic features
- ❖ Semantic roles
  - • Agent and theme
- ❖ Lexical relations
  - • Synonymy
  - • Antonymy
  - • Hyponymy
  - • Prototypes
  - • Homophones and homonyms
  - • Polysemy
  - • Word play
  - • Metonymy

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

هو علم دراسة معاني الكلمات والعبارات والجمل .

Semantic features :

NP	V	NP
The hamburger	ate	the boy

This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. Since the sentence The boy ate the hamburger is perfectly acceptable.

في العبارة السابقة نجد أن الجملة من ناحية التركيب البنائي صحيحة ، ولكن من ناحية علم المعاني فهي خاطئة .

Agent and theme | الفاعل والمفعول به:

The boy kicked the ball

The boy as "the entity that performs the action," technically known as the agent.

(الفتى) الذي قام بالفعل يسمى فاعل .

The ball as "the entity that is involved in or affected by the action," which is called the theme

(الكرة) التي وقع عليها الفعل تسمى مفعول به .

The wind blew the ball away.
A car ran over the ball.
The dog caught the ball.

Agents and themes are the most common semantic roles.

الفاعل والمفعول به هما من أهم خصائص علم الدلالة .

Although agents are typically human (The boy), they can also be non-human entities that cause actions, a natural force (The wind), a machine (A car), or a creature (The dog), all of which affect the ball as theme.

عادةً يكون الفاعل (إنسان) ، ولكن من الممكن أن يكون الفاعل (غير عاقل) كما نرى في الثلاث الأمثلة المذكورة :
المثال الأول الفاعل هو ظاهرة طبيعية (الريح) وفي المثال الثاني الفاعل هي ماكينة (سيارة) وفي المثال الثالث الفاعل كان حيوان (الكلب) .

The theme is typically non-human, but can be human (the boy), as in The dog chased the boy.

عادةً يكون المفعول به (غير عاقل) ، ولكن من الممكن أن يكون (إنسان) كما نرى في المثال المذكور :
الكلب يلاعب الفتى

Lexical relations | العلاقات المعجمية بين الكلمات :

Words "relationships" In everyday talk, we often explain the meanings of words in terms of their relationships.

لا يمكن أن نعتبر الكلمات كوعاء لحمل المعنى فقط .. وإنما يوجد علاقات بين الكلمات .

"conceal" It's the same as hide,"
This approach is used in the semantic description of language and treated as the analysis of lexical relations. The lexical relations we have just exemplified are synonymy (conceal/hide), antonymy (shallow/deep) and hyponymy (daffodil/flower).

العلاقة بين الكلمات تكون على سبيل الترادف أو التضاد أو النوع ... الخ ، وسنتكلم عنها بالتفصيل فيما يلي :

Synonymy :
Two or more words with very closely related meanings are called synonyms.
common examples of synonyms are the pairs: almost/nearly, big/large, broad/wide, buy/purchase, cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa, freedom/ liberty.

الترادف : أي أن تأتي كلمتين أكثر بنفس المعنى (كبير / ضخم)

Antonymy :
Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms.
Alive/dead, big/small, fast/slow, happy/sad, hot/cold, long/short, male/female, married/single, old/new, rich/poor, true/false.

التضاد : أن تأتي كلمتين عكس بعض بالمعنى (طويل / قصير)

Hyponymy :
When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. Examples are the pairs: animal/dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/carrot, flower/rose, tree/banyan.

مندرج تحت تصنيف : أي أن تصنف كلمة معينة تحت فئة ما . فمثلا (النرجس تحت تصنيف الزهور / الكلب تحت تصنيف الحيوانات)
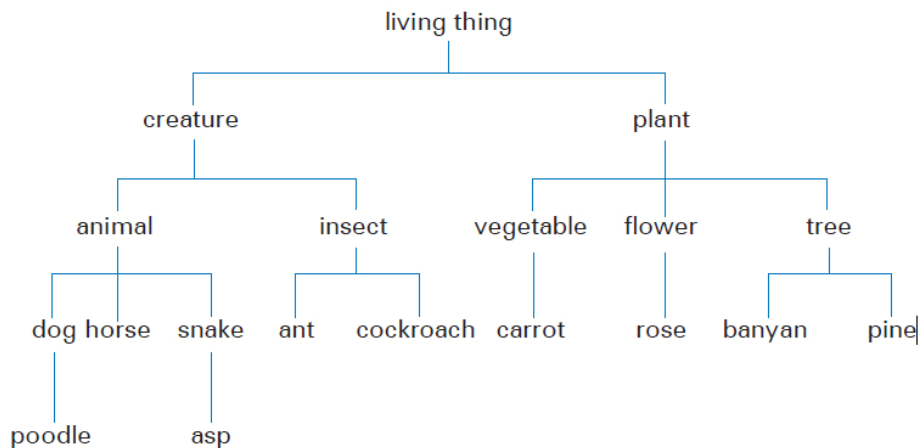
Prototypes :
The idea of "the characteristic instance" of a category is known as the prototype.
Given the category label furniture, we are quick to recognize chair as a better example than bench or stool. Given clothing, people recognize shirts quicker than shoes, and given vegetable, they accept carrot before potato or tomato.

النموذج : أي النوع الأشهر ضمن فئة ، فمثلا : لو ذكرنا الطيور فسيخطر في بالنا العصفور مباشرة لأن العصفور هو أشهر نوع من فئة العصافير ، مثلا لو سمعنا كلمة أثاث فسيخطر في بالنا الكرسي ، لو سمعنا كلمة خضروات فسيخطر في بالنا الجزر .

Homophones and homonyms :

When two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, they are described as
homophones
bare/bear, meat/meet, flour/flower, pail/pale, right/write, sew/so and to/too/two.

التشبه اللفظي والتشابه الشكلي :
Homophones أي التشابه اللفظي وهو يكون إذا كان نطق الكلمتين متشابه ولكن شكل كتابتها ومعناها مختلف .

We use the term homonyms when one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings,
as in these examples:
bank (of a river) – bank (financial institution)
bat (flying creature) – bat (used in sports)
mole (on skin) – mole (small animal)
pupil (at school) – pupil (in the eye)
race (contest of speed) – race (ethnic group)

homonyms أي التشابه الشكلي وهو يكون إذا كانت الكلمتين متشابهتين تماما بالشكل ولكن لها أكثر من معنى بحيث أن معانيها تكون متباعدة
عن بعض يعني مثلاً : كلمة mole معناها شامة على الجلد ولها معنى آخر أي حيوان صغير > المعنيان متباعدان .

Polysemy :

When we encounter two or more words with the same form and related meanings ,we have what is
technically known as polysemy.
Examples are the word head, used to refer to the object on top of your body, froth on top of glass of
beer, person at the top of a company or department, and many other things. Other examples of
polysemy
are foot (of person, of bed, of mountain) or run (person does, water does, colors do).

تعدد المعاني : ويكون في الكلمات التي تستخدم لأكثر من طريقة وتحمل معاني متقاربة
مثل كلمة run أي جريان .. ممكن نستخدمها للإنسان فهو يجري .. وممكن نستخدمها لجريان الماء . أيضاً كلمة رأس نقصد بها رأس الإنسان
ويمكن أ ن نقصد بها رأس الشركة أو أساسها > المعاني متقاربة .

Word play

Mary had a little lamb, we think of a small
animal, but in the comic version Mary had a little lamb, some rice and vegetables, we
think of a small amount of meat. The polysemy of lamb allows the two interpretations.

التلاعب بالكلمات : وهي الكلمات التي ممكن أن تحمل أكثر من مقصد فمثلا (ماري لديها ضأن صغير)
يمكننا أن نقصد أن ماري لديها حيوان ضأن صغير تقوم بتربيته ، أو أن نقصد أن ماري لديها وجبة غداء كمية قليلة من لحم الضأن .

Metonymy

The relatedness of meaning found in polysemy is essentially based on similarity. The head of a
company is similar to the head of a person on top of and controlling the body.

There is another type of relationship between words, based simply on a close connection
in everyday experience. That close connection can be based on a container–contents
relation (bottle/water, can/juice), a whole–part relation (car/wheels, house/roof) or a
representative–symbol relationship (king/crown, the President/the White House). Using
one of these words to refer to the other is an example of metonymy.

الكناية أو المجاز : كلمة تستخدم في مكان آخر والتي ترتبط ارتباطا وثيقا في التجربة اليوميةفمثلاً كلمة (قارورة / مرتبطة بالماء) .

4) What is the basic lexical relation between each pair of words listed here?
(a) damp/moist (c) furniture/table (e) move/run
(b) deep/shallow (d) married/single (f) peace/piece

5) Which of the following opposites are gradable, non-gradable, or reversive?
(a) absent/present (c) fail/pass (e) fill it/empty it
(b) appear/disappear (d) fair/unfair (f) high/low

6) Are these underlined words best described as examples of polysemy
or metonymy?
(a) The pen is mightier than the sword.
(b) I had to park on the shoulder of the road.
(c) Yes, I love those. I ate a whole box on Sunday!
(d) The bookstore has some new titles in linguistics.
(e) Computer chips created an important new technology.

Answer :
4- (a) synonymy, (b) antonymy, (c) hyponymy, (d) antonymy, (e) hyponymy, (f) homophony (or homophones)
5- (a) non-gradable, (b) reversive, (c) non-gradable, (d) gradable, (e) reversive, (f) gradable
6- (a) metonymy, (b) polysemy, (c) metonymy, (d) metonymy, (e) polysemy (f) metonymy

في نقطة في السؤال الخامس ما ذكرها الدكتور بالشرح بس حبيت أضيفها للفائدة :
وهي تخص أنواع خاصية التضاد .. وهي ثلاثة أنواع :
١- gradable أي الكلمات التي يمكن استخدامها في التفضيل مثل (أطول من – أقصر من / أغلى من – أرخص من ...
٢- non-gradable أي الكلمات التي لا يمكن استخدامها في التفضيل مثل (حي / ميت - رجل / امرأة ...
٣- reversive أي الكلمات المتضادة المتعلقة بالفعل مثل (ذهب / رجع – لبس / خلع .....

انتهت المحاضرة الثامنة :)

Lecture "9"

البراغماتية | Pragmatics

- ❖ Meaning
- ❖ Context
  - • Deixis
- ❖ Reference
  - • Inference
  - • Anaphora
  - • Presupposition
- ❖ Speech acts
  - • Direct and indirect speech acts
- ❖ Politeness
- ❖ Negative and positive face

Pragmatics :

Pragmatics is the study of what speakers mean, or "speaker meaning,". In many ways, pragmatics is the study of "*invisible*" meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written. In order for that to happen, speakers (or writers) must be able to depend on a lot of shared assumptions and expectations when they try to communicate. The investigation of those assumptions and expectations provides us with some insights into how more is always being communicated than is said.

البراغماتية : دراسة ما يقصده المتكلم ، وفهم أكثر مما يقال أو يكتب .

في القطع التالية يشرح لنا الدكتور كيف نفهم المقصود من الصور المرفقة من خلال القطعة

Driving by a parking garage, you may see a large sign like the one in the picture. You read the sign, knowing what each of the words means and what the sign as a whole means. However, you don't normally think that the sign is advertising a place where you can park your "heated attendant." (You take an attendant, you heat him/her up, and this is where you can park him/her.) Alternatively, the sign may indicate a place where parking will be carried out by attendants who have been heated.

The words in the sign may allow these interpretations, but we would normally understand that we can park a car in this place, that it's a heated area, and that there will be an attendant to look after the car. So, how do we decide that the sign means this when the sign doesn't even have the word car on it? We must use the meanings of the words, the context in which they occur, and some pre-existing knowledge of what would be a likely message as we work toward a reasonable interpretation of what the producer of the sign intended it to convey. Our interpretation of the "meaning" of the sign is not based solely on the words, but on what we think the writer intended to communicate.

In the other picture, assuming things are normal and this store has not gone into the business of selling young children, we can recognize an advertisement for a sale of clothes for those babies and toddlers. The word clothes doesn't appear in the message, but we can bring that idea to our interpretation of the message as we work out what the advertiser intended us to understand. We are actively involved in creating an interpretation of what we read and hear.

Context :

In our discussion of the last two examples, we emphasized the influence of context. There are different kinds of context. One kind is described as linguistic context, also known as co-text. 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.

السياق : من خلال سياق الجملة يمكننا فهم المقصود من الكلمة ، لأن بعض الكلمات لها أكثر من معنى ولكن من سياق الجملة يمكننا فهم المقصود (سواء من السياق اللغوي linguistic أي من خلال الجمل المحيطة بالكلمة أو السياق المادي physical أي من خلال معرفة الحالة أو الزمان والمكان).

In the last chapter, we identified the word *bank* as a homonym, a single form with more than one meaning. How do we usually know which meaning is intended in a particular sentence? We normally do so on the basis of linguistic context. If the word *bank* is used in a sentence together with words like steep or overgrown, we have no problem deciding which type of bank is meant. Or, if we hear someone say that she has to get to the bank to withdraw some cash, we know from this linguistic context which type of bank is intended.

More generally, we know how to interpret words on the basis of physical context. If we see the word BANK on the wall of a building in a city, the physical location will influence our interpretation. While this may seem rather obvious, we should keep in mind that it is not the actual physical situation "out there" that constitutes "the context" for interpreting words or sentences. The relevant context is our mental representation of those aspects of what is physically out there that we use in arriving at an interpretation. Our understanding of much of what we read and hear is tied to this processing of aspects of the physical context, particularly the time and place, in which we encounter linguistic expressions.

Deixis:

There are some very common words in our language that can't be interpreted at all if we don't know the context, especially the physical context of the speaker. These are words such as *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*. Some sentences of English are virtually impossible to understand if we don't know who is speaking, about whom, where and when. For example:
You'll have to bring it back tomorrow because she isn't here today.
Out of context, this sentence is really vague. It contains a large number of expressions (*you, it, tomorrow, she, here, today*) that rely on knowledge of the immediate physical context for their interpretation (i.e. that the delivery driver will have to return on February 15 to 660 College Drive with the long box labeled "flowers, handle with care" addressed to Lisa Landry). Expressions such as tomorrow and here are obvious examples of bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker's intended meaning. They are technically known as deictic (/daɪktɪk/) expressions, from the Greek word deixis, which means "pointing" via language.

الإشارات : يقصد بها استخدام كلمات مثل (هنا ، هناك .....) للإشارة إلى الأشياء .. سواء كانت الإشارة إلى أشخاص (هو ، هي) أو أشياء (هذا ، تلك) أو أماكن (هنا ، هناك) أو زمان (الآن أو غداً) .

We use deixis to point to things (*it, this, these boxes*) and people (*him, them, those students*), sometimes called person deixis. Words and phrases used to point to a location (*here, there, near that*) are examples of spatial deixis, and those used to point to a time (*now, then, last week*) are examples of temporal deixis.

All these deictic expressions have to be interpreted in terms of which person, place or time the speaker has in mind. We make a broad distinction between what is marked as close to the speaker (*this, here, now*) and what is distant (*that, there, then*). We can also indicate whether movement is *away* from the speaker's location (*go*) or *toward* the speaker's location (*come*). If you're looking for someone and she appears, moving toward you, you can say *Here she comes*!. If, however, she is moving away from you in the distance, you're more likely to say *There she goes*!. The same deictic effect explains the different situations in which you would tell someone to Go to bed versus Come to bed.

Reference:

In discussing deixis, we assumed that the use of words to refer to people, places and times was a simple matter. However, words themselves don't refer to anything. People refer. We have to define reference as an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something. To perform an act of reference, we can use proper nouns (*Chomsky, Jennifer, Whiskas*), other nouns in phrases (*a writer, my friend, the cat*) or pronouns (*he, she, it*). We sometimes assume that these words identify someone or something uniquely, but it is more accurate to say that, for each word or phrase, there is a "range of reference." The words *Jennifer* or *friend* or *she* can be used to refer to many entities in the world. As we observed earlier, an expression such as the *war* doesn't directly identify anything by itself, because its reference depends on who is using it.

We can also refer to things when we're not sure what to call them. We can use expressions such as *the blue thing* and *that icky stuff* and we can even invent names. For instance, *there was a man who always drove his motorcycle fast and loud through my neighborhood and was locally referred to as Mr. Kawasaki*. In this case, a brand name for a motorcycle is being used to refer to a person.

الإحالة : وهي الفعل الذي يستخدمه المتكلم ليمكن المستمع من التعرف إلى شخص ما ، سواء بذكر اسمه (جينيفر) أو وصفه (كاتب) أو ضمير (هذا) .

Inference:

As in the "Mr. Kawasaki" example, a successful act of reference depends more on the listener's ability to recognize what we mean than on the listener's "dictionary" knowledge of a word we use. For example, in a restaurant, one waiter can ask another, *Where's the spinach salad sitting?* and receive the reply, *He's sitting by the door*. If you're studying linguistics, you might ask someone, *Can I look at your Chomsky?* And get the response, *Sure, it's on the shelf over there*. These examples make it clear that we can use names associated with things (*salad*) to refer to people, and use names of people (*Chomsky*) to refer to things. The key process here is called *inference*. An

inference is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant. In the last example, the listener has to operate with the inference: "if X is the name of the writer of a book, then X can be used to identify a copy of a book by that writer." Similar types of inferences are necessary to understand someone who says that *Picasso is in the museum* or *We saw Shakespeare in London* or *Jennifer is wearing Calvin Klein*.

الاستنتاج : وهي معلومات إضافية يستنتجها المستمع لإنشاء صلة بين ما يقال وما هو المقصود .

فمثلا عندما أقول : رأيت شكسبير في لندن ، فمن الطبيعي أن يفهم المستمع أن المقصود بشكسبير أي مؤلفاته ورواياته وليس هو شخصياً لأننا نعرف جميعا أن شكسبير شخص متوفي .

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 second (or subsequent) referring expression is an example of *anaphora* ("referring back"). The first mention is called the *antecedent*. So, in our example, a boy, a puppy and a small bath are antecedents and The puppy, the boy, he, it and the bath are anaphoric expressions.

الجناس : ويقصد به استخدام الضمائر للتعبير عما سبق ذكره .

نلاحظ بالمثال المذكور أنه ذكر (فتى) في البداية كنكرة (a boy) وبعدها ذكره كمعرفة (The boy) وبعدها أشار إليه بالضمير (He)

Presupposition:

When we use a referring expression like this, *he* or *Shakespeare*, we usually assume that our listeners can recognize which referent is intended. In a more general way, we design our linguistic messages on the basis of large-scale assumptions about what our listeners already know. Some of these assumptions may be mistaken, of course, but mostly they're appropriate. What a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as a presupposition.

If someone tells you *Your brother is waiting outside*, there is an obvious presupposition that you have a brother. If you are asked *Why did you arrive late*?, there is a presupposition that you did arrive late. And if you are asked the question *When did you stop smoking*?, there are at least two presuppositions involved. In asking this question, the speaker presupposes that you used to smoke and that you no longer do so.

الافتراض : هو أن يفترض المتكلم ما يجب أن يعرفه المستمع .

فمثلا : عندما أسأل شخصاً ما (متى أقلعت عن التدخين ؟) فمن المفترض أن المستمع سيدرك أن هذا الشخص كان يدخن في فترة ما ثم أقلع عنه .

Speech acts:

We have been considering ways in which we interpret the meaning of an utterance in terms of what the speaker intended to convey. We have not yet considered the fact that we usually know how the speaker intends us to "take" (or "interpret the function of") what is said. In very general terms, we can usually recognize the type of "action" performed by a speaker with the utterance. We use the term speech act to describe actions such as "*requesting,*" "*commanding,*" "*questioning*" or "*informing.*" We can define a speech act as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance. If you say, *I'll be there at six*, you are not just speaking, you seem to be performing the speech act of "promising."

أفعال الكلام : وهي الأفعال التي يقوم بها المتكلم أثناء الكلام مثل : المعاهدة ، الإعلام ، السؤال ، الأمر ، الاستجابة ....

We usually use certain syntactic structures with the functions listed beside them in the following table.

	البنية Structures	الوظيفة 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…? or Can we…?* is used with the function of a question, it is described as a *direct speech act*. For example, when we don't know

something and we ask someone to provide the information, we usually produce **a direct speech act** such as *Can you ride a bicycle?*

Compare that utterance with *Can you pass the salt?.* In this second example, we are not really asking a question about someone's ability. In fact, we don't normally use this structure as a question at all. We normally use it to make a request. That is, we are using a syntactic structure associated with the function of a question, but in this case with the function of a request. This is an example of **an indirect speech act.** Whenever one of the structures in the set above is used to perform a function other than the one listed beside it on the same line, the result is an indirect speech act.

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أفعال الكلام نوعين :

١- فعل الكلام المباشر : أي الفعل الذي يستخدم ويتطابق مع وظيفته التي يؤديها . مثال **(Can you ride a bicycle?‬)** هل تستطيع ركوب الدراجة ؟ هنا بنية الكلمة استفهامية ويقصد بها المتكلم أن يسأل المخاطب هل يمكنه ركوب الدراجة أم لا .. فنلاحظ أن المقصود متطابق مع وظيفة الكلام .

٢- فعل الكلام الغير مباشر : ويقصد به الفعل الذي يستخدم ولا يتطابق مع وظيفته التي يؤديها . مثال **(Can you pass the salt?)** معناها هل تستطيع أن تمرر لي الملح ؟ نلاحظ أن بنية الجملة استفهامية ولكن المقصود منها هو الطلب وليس السؤال .. المتكلم لا يسأل المخاطب إذا كان يستطيع تمرير الملح أو لا وللكنه يطلب منه تمرير الملح بطريقة فعل الكلام الغير مباشر .

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Politeness:

We can think of politeness in general terms as having to do with ideas like being tactful,

modest and nice to other people. 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 and consideration of another person's face.

If you say something that represents a threat to another person's self-image, that is called **a face-threatening act.** For example, if you use a direct speech act to get someone to do something (*Give me that paper!*), you are behaving as if you have more social power than the other person. If you don't actually have that social power (e.g. you're not a military officer), then you are performing a *face threatening act*. An indirect speech act, in the form associated with a question (*Could you pass me that paper?*), removes the assumption of social power. You're only asking if it's possible. This makes your request less threatening to the other person's face. Whenever you say something that lessens the possible threat to another's face, it can be described as **a face-saving act.**

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المداراة أو التهذيب : ويقصد بها إظهار المراعاة ومداراة الشخص الآخر .

نلاحظ في الجملة **(Give me that paper!)** بأن صيغة الجملة هنا بعيدة عن المداراة وكأنها أمر ! (أعطني تلك الورقة) وبالتالي هذا النوع يسمى **a face-threatening act** أي النوع الصارم .

أما في جملة **(Could you pass me that paper?)** نلاحظ أن الطلب بأسلوب مهذب (ممكن تمرر لي تلك الورقة) وهذا هو النوع الثاني ويسمى **a face-saving act** أي حفظ ماء الوجه .

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Negative and positive face:

We have both a negative face and a positive face. (Note that "negative" doesn't mean "bad" here, it's simply the opposite of "positive.") Negative face is the need to be independent and free from imposition. Positive face is the need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of the group. So, a face-saving act that emphasizes a person's negative face will show concern about imposition (*I'm sorry to bother you…; I know you're busy, but…).* 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…).*

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الوجه السلبي والوجه الإيجابي :

الوجه الإيجابي : الحاجة إلى أن تكون مرتبط في الانتماء ، لتكون عضوا في مجموعة ، على النقيض من الوجه السلبي .

الوجه السلبي : الحاجة إلى أن تكون مستقل ومتحرر من الفرض ، على النقيض من الوجه الإيجابي .

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<p align="center">انتهت المحاضرة التاسعة :)</p>

Lecture "10"
Discourse analysis | تحليل الخطاب

- ❖ Meaning:
- ❖ Cohesion:
- ❖ Coherence:
- ❖ Speech events:
- ❖ Conversation analysis:
- ❖ Co-operative principle:
- ❖ Hedges:
- ❖ implicatures:
- ❖ Background Knowledge:
- ❖ Schemas and scripts:

Discourse analysis :

When we ask how we make sense of what we read, how we can recognize well constructed texts as opposed to those that are jumbled or incoherent, how we understand speakers who communicate more than they say, and how we successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation, we are undertaking what is known as **discourse analysis**.

المقصود بتحليل الخطاب : هو أن نفهم ما يُقرأ ، وندرك كيف بنيت النصوص بشكل متماسك ، وأن نفهم ما يقوله المتكلمون ، أن نعرف كيف ندير جزء من المحادثة بنجاح .

Cohesion

Cohesion describes the way in which a text is tied together by linguistic devices*, such as* And . . . , Additionally . . . , Therefore . . . , However . . . and On the other hand . . .

A text has coherence if its constituent sentences follow on one from the other in an orderly fashion so that the reader can make sense of the entire text.

The property of unity in a written text or a segment of spoken discourse that stems from links among its surface elements, as when words in one sentence are repeated in another, and especially from fact that some words or phrases depend for their interpretation upon in material or following text, as in the sequence.

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.

التماسك أو الترابط : ويقصد به الترابط بين جزأين من الجمل بواسطة أدوات لغوية .

Coherence:

The key to the concept of coherence ("everything fitting together well") is not something that exists in words or structures, but something that exists in people. It is people who "make sense" of what they read and hear.

My father bought a Lincoln convertible. The car driven by the police was red. That color doesn't suit her. She consists of three letters. However, a letter isn't as fast as a telephone call.

The property of unity in a written text or a segment of spoken discourse that stems from links among its underlying ideas and from the logical organization and development of its thematic content

الترابط المنطقي : ويقصد به الترابط في المعنى والذي نجده بين الجمل عامة .

Speech events :

In exploring what it is we know about taking part in conversation, or any other speech event (e.g. debate, interview, various types of discussions), we quickly realize that there is enormous variation in what people say and do in different circumstances. In order to begin to describe the sources of that variation, we would have to take account of a number of criteria. For example, we would have to specify the roles of speaker and hearer(or hearers) and their relationship(s), whether they were friends, strangers, men, women, young, old, of equal or unequal status, and many other factors. All of these factors will have an influence on what is said and how it is said. We would have to describe what the topic of conversation was and in what setting it took place.

أحداث الخطاب : ويقصد به أسلوب الخطاب واختلاف إلقاءه سواء من ناحية نبرة الصوت أو انتقاء الكلمات . فمن الطبيعي أن طريقة خطابك مع صديقك تختلف عن الطريقة التي تتكلم بها مع دكتورك أو مع شخص غريب أو مع طفل .

Co-operative principle:

The co-operative principle is stated in the following way: "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" (Grice, 1975: 45). Supporting this principle are four maxims, often called the "Gricean maxims."

مشاركة الخطاب : وهي الخطوات اللازم اتباعها لجعل خطابك يتلقى بالقبول لدى المستمع .

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

الكمية : لا تجعل الخطاب أكثر أو أقل مما يجب ، حاول أن يكون بكمية مناسبة للمعلومات التي تطرحها .

The Quality maxim: Do not say that which you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence.

النوعية : لا تعطي معلومات لست متأكد من صحتها أو ليست لديك أدلة كافية عليها .

The Relation maxim: Be relevant.

العلاقة : يجب أن تكون الجمل مترابطة .

The Manner maxim: Be clear, brief and orderly.

الطريقة : يجب أن تكون واضحة ومنظمة وموجزة .

Hedges:

We use certain types of expressions, called hedges, to show that we are concerned about following the maxims while being co-operative participants in conversation. Hedges can be defined as words or phrases used to indicate that we're not really sure that what we're saying is sufficiently correct or complete. We can use sort of or kind of as hedges on the accuracy of our statements, as in descriptions such as *His hair was kind of long or The book cover is sort of yellow* (rather than It is yellow). These are examples of hedges on the Quality maxim. Other examples would include the expressions listed below that people sometimes put at the beginning of their conversational contributions.

As far as I know …,
Now, correct me if I'm wrong, but …
I'm not absolutely sure, but ….

We also take care to indicate that what we report is something we think or feel (not know), is possible or likely (not certain), and may or could (not must) happen. Hence the difference between saying Jackson is guilty and I think it's possible that Jackson maybe guilty. In the first version, we will be assumed to have very good evidence for the statement.

التحفظات : وتستخدم عند إعطاء معلومات لست متأكداً تماماً من صحتها ، أي تدليها مع التحفظ (كما نرى في الأمثلة السابقة)

implicatures:

CAROL: Are you coming to the party tonight?
LARA: I've got an exam tomorrow.

On the face of it, Lara's statement is not an answer to Carol's question. Lara doesn't say Yes or No. Yet Carol will immediately interpret the statement as meaning "No" or "Probably not." How can we account for this ability to grasp one meaning from a sentence that, in a literal sense, means something else? It seems to depend, at least partially, on the assumption that Lara is being relevant and informative, adhering to the maxims of Relation and Quantity. (To appreciate this point, try to imagine Carol's reaction if Lara had said something like Roses are red, you know.) Given that Lara's original answer contains relevant information, Carol can work out that "exam tomorrow" conventionally involves "study tonight," and "study tonight" precludes "party tonight." Thus, Lara's answer is not simply a statement about tomorrow's activities, it contains an implicature (an additional conveyed meaning) concerning tonight's activities.

المعنى الضمني : ويقصد به المعنى اللي نستنجه من مضمون الكلام .
في المثال كارول تسأل : هل ستأتي إلى الحفلة الليلة ؟
جاوبتها لارا : غداً لدي امتحان > نفهم من كلامها انه (لا) ما تقدر تروح .
فبالتالي المعنى الضمني هو أن الشخص ما يعطيني الجواب مباشرة (نعم أو لا) ولكن من خلال المضمون أستنتج الجواب .

Background Knowledge:
John was on his way to school last Friday.
He was really worried about the math lesson.

Most people who are asked to read these sentences report that they think John is probably a schoolboy. Since this piece of information is not directly stated in the text, it must be an inference. Other inferences, for different readers, are that John is walking or that he is on a bus. These inferences are clearly derived from our conventional knowledge, in our culture, about "going to school," and no reader has ever suggested that John is swimming or on a boat, though both are physically possible, if unlikely, interpretations.

An interesting aspect of the reported inferences is that they are treated as likely or possible interpretations that readers will quickly abandon if they do not fit in with some subsequent information. Here is the next sentence in the text.

Last week he had been unable to control the class.

On encountering this sentence, most readers decide that John is, in fact, a teacher and that he is not very happy. Many report that he is probably driving a car to school.

المعرفة المسبقة : وهي المعلومات الموجودة لدينا مسبقاً والتي تساعدنا على فهم ما لم يتم ذكره في الكلام .

Schemas and scripts:
A schema is a general term for a conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory. We were using our conventional knowledge of what a school classroom is like, or a "classroom schema," as we tried to make sense of the previous example. We have many schemas (or schemata) that are used in the interpretation of what we experience and what we hear or read about. If you hear someone describe what happened during a visit to a supermarket, you don't have to be told what is normally found in a supermarket. You already have a "supermarket schema" (food displayed on shelves, arranged in aisles, shopping carts and baskets, check-out counter, and other conventional features) as part of your background knowledge.

المخطط schema : وهو الشيء الذي له تخطيط هيكلي متعارف يرد إلى الذاكرة بمجرد سماع الكلمة . فمثلا كلمة (سوبر ماركت) بمجرد أن نسمعها يمكننا تخيل الرفوف والمواد الغذائية وما إلى ذلك . أيضا كلمة (مكتب) عند سماعها يرد إلى مخيلتنا المكتب والكرسي والأدوات المكتبية الأخرى .

Similar in many ways to a schema is a script. A script is essentially a dynamic schema. That is, instead of the set of typical fixed features in a schema, a script has a series of conventional actions that

take place. You have a script for "Going to the dentist" and another script for "Going to the movies." We all have versions of an "Eating in a restaurant" script, which we can activate to make sense of this short text.

السيناريو script : ويقصد به سلسلة الأحداث المترابطة والمتتابعة المتعرف عليها . مثل (الذهاب إلى طبيب الأسنان) .

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.

On the basis of our restaurant script, we would be able to say a number of things about the scene and events briefly described in this short text. For example, although the text doesn't have this information, we would assume that Suzy opened a door to get into the restaurant, that there were tables there, that she ate the sandwich, then she paid for it, and so on. The fact that information of this type can turn up in people's attempts to remember the text is further evidence of the existence of scripts. It is also a good indication of the fact that our understanding of what we read doesn't come directly from what words and sentences are on the page, but the interpretations we create, in our minds, of what we read.

انتهت المحاضرة العاشرة :)

- ❖ Acquisition:
- ❖ Input :
- ❖ The acquisition schedule:
  - I. Cooing and babbling:
  - II. The one-word stage:
  - III. The two-word stage:
  - IV. Telegraphic speech:
- ❖ Developing morphology:
- ❖ Developing syntax:
- ❖ Forming questions:
- ❖ Forming negatives:

Acquisition:

The process of language acquisition has some basic requirements. During the first two or three years of development, a child requires interaction with other language-users in order to bring the general language capacity into contact with a particular language such as English.

الاكتساب : مراحل اكتساب اللغة تحتاج لبعض المتطلبات الأساسية والتي تحدث في السنتين أو الثلاث الأولى من عمر الطفل والتي تتطلب التفاعل مع الآخرين حتى يتم تحقيق القدرة اللغوية على الاتصال في اللغة .

The child must also be physically capable of sending and receiving sound signals in a language. All infants make "cooing" and "babbling" noises during their first year, but congenitally deaf infants stop after about six months.

يجب أن يكون الطفل قادر جسديا على إرسال واستقبال الأصوات ، جميع الأطفال الرضع يصدرون أصوات هذيان في السنة الأولى من عمرهم ، ولكن الرضيع الأصم خلقياً يتوقف بعد ٦ أشهر تقريبا .

Input:

Under normal circumstances, human infants are certainly helped in their language acquisition by the typical behavior of older children and adults in the home environment who provide language samples, or input, for the child. Adults such as mom, dad and the grandparents tend not to address the little creature before them as if they are involved in normal adult-to-adult conversation.

المدخلات : في الظروف العادية فإن الرضيع يكتسب لغته من الكبار حوله بشكل طبيعي وليس بالتلقين .

There does seem to be a lot of this: Oh, goody, now Daddy push choo-choo? The characteristically simplified speech style adopted by someone who spends a lot of time interacting with a young child is called caregiver speech.

baby talk child's environment (choo-choo, poo-poo, pee-pee, wa-wa).

خطاب الرعاية caregiver speech : ويقصد به الخطاب المبسط والموجه للطفل حتى ولو لم يكن يتكلم بعد .

Built into a lot of caregiver speech is a type of conversational structure that seems to assign an interactive role to the young child even before he or she becomes a speaking participant. If we look at an extract from the speech of a mother to her child (aged 1 year 1 month) as if it were a two-party conversation, then this type of structuring becomes apparent. Notice how the mother reacts to the child's actions and vocalizations as if they were turns in the conversation. (This example is from Brunner, 1983.)

MOTHER: Look!
CHILD: (touches pictures)
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)

<u>The acquisition schedule | الجدول الزمني للاكتساب</u> :

I. Cooing and babbling:

The earliest use of speech-like sounds has been described as cooing. During the first few months of life, the child gradually becomes capable of producing sequences of vowel-like sounds, particularly high vowels similar to [i] and [u]. By four months of age, the developing ability to bring the back of the tongue into regular contact with the back of the palate allows the infant to create sounds similar to the velar consonants [k] and [g], hence the common description as "cooing" or "gooing" for this type of production. Speech perception studies have shown that by the time they are five months old, babies can already hear the difference between the vowels [i] and [a] and discriminate between syllables like [ba] and [ga].

الهذيان : ويقصد به الأصوات التي يصدرها الطفل . ففي الأشهر القليلة الأولى يصدر أصوات مثل (آآآ) (إييي) ، وعند بلوغه الشهر الرابع يتمكن من تحريك المنطقة الخلفية من اللسان إلى سقف الفم وبالتالي يستطيع من نطق الأصوات (ك) و (ج) وهذه تسمى **cooing** أي إصدار صوت واحد ، بعد بلوغ الشهر الخامس يتمكن الطفل من نطق المقاطع الصوتية مثل (با) (جا) .

Between six and eight months, the child is sitting up and producing a number of different vowels and consonants, as well as combinations such as ba-ba-ba and ga-ga-ga. This type of sound production is described as babbling In the later babbling stage, around nine to ten months, there are recognizable intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced, as well as variation in the combinations such as ba-ba-da-da. Nasal sounds also become more common and certain syllable sequences such as ma-ma-ma and da-da-da are occurred and interpreted by parents as versions of "mama" and "dada" and repeated back to the child.

بين ٦ — ٨ أشهر يتمكن الطفل من استخدام القاطع اللفظية المتكررة (با با با) وأيضا يمكنه نطق المقاطع اللفظية المركبة مثل (با با دا دا) وهذا ما يسمى **babbling** .

As children begin to pull themselves into a standing position during the tenth and eleventh months, they become capable of using their vocalizations to express emotions and emphasis. This late babbling stage is characterized by more complex syllable combinations (ma-da-ga-ba), a lot of sound-play and attempted imitations. This "pre-language" use of sound provides the child with some experience of the social role of speech because adults tend to react to the babbling, however incoherent, as if it is actually the child's contribution to social interaction.

في عمر ١٠ — ١١ شهر يمطنهم تطوير الأصوات التي ينطقوها إلى مقاطع مركبة أكثر (ما دا جا با) وهو ما يسمى مرحلة **"pre-language"** أي مرحلة ما قبل اللغة ، وهي ما تجعله يساهم في التفاعل الاجتماعي مع الآخرين .

II. The one-word stage:

Between twelve and eighteen months, children begin to produce a variety of recognizable single-unit utterances. This period, traditionally called the one-word stage, is characterized by speech in which single terms are uttered for everyday objects such as "milk," "cookie," "cat," "cup" and "spoon" (usually pronounced [pun]). Other forms such as [ʌs.] may occur in circumstances that suggest the child is producing a version of What's that, so the label "one-word" for this stage may be misleading and a term such as "single-unit" would be more accurate. We sometimes use the term holophrastic (meaning a single form functioning as a phrase or sentence) to describe an utterance that could be analyzed as a word, a phrase, or a sentence.

مرحلة الكلمة الواحدة : بين ١٢ — ١٨ شهر يبدأ الطفل بإدراك الكلمة الواحدة ويمكنهم نطق الكلمات التي تستخدم يوميا ، مثل (حليب — قطة — كوب — ملعقة)

While many of these holophrastic utterances seem to be used to name objects, they may also be produced in circumstances that suggest the child is already extending their use. An empty bed may elicit the name of a sister who normally sleeps in the bed, even in the absence of the person named.

During this stage, then, the child may be capable of referring to Karen and bed, but is not yet ready to put the forms together to produce a more complex phrase. Well, it is a lot to expect from someone who can only walk with a stagger and has to come down stairs backwards.

Holophrastic : ويقصد بها الصيغة الواحدة أو الكلمة الواحدة التي يقصد بها الطفل جملة أو عبارة كاملة .

III. The two-word stage:

the two-word stage can begin around eighteen to twenty months, as the child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty words. By the time the child is two years old, a variety of combinations, similar to baby chair, mommy eat, cat bad, will usually have appeared. The adult interpretation of such combinations is, of course, very much tied to the context of their utterance. The phrase baby chair may be taken as an expression of possession (= this is baby's chair), or as a request (= put baby in chair), or as a statement (= baby is in the chair), depending on different circumstances.

Whatever it is that the child actually intends to communicate through such expressions, the significant functional consequences are that the adult behaves as if communication is taking place. That is, the child not only produces speech, but also receives feedback confirming that the utterance worked as a contribution to the interaction. Moreover, by the age of two, whether the child is producing 200 or 300 distinct "words," he or she will be capable of understanding five times as many, and will typically be treated as an entertaining conversational partner by the principal caregiver.

مرحلة الكلمتان : بين ١٨ ــ ٢٠ شهر تكون حصيلة المفردات اللغوية لدى الطفل قد تصل الى ٥٠ كلمة . وعندما يصل إلى عمر السنتين يكون بإمكانه تركيب كلمتين معا مثل (كرسي الطفل ــ ماما تأكل ــ سرير القطة)

IV. Telegraphic speech:

Between two and two-and-a-half years old, the child begins producing a large number of utterances that could be classified as "multiple-word" speech. The salient feature of these utterances ceases to be the number of words, but the variation in word forms that begins to appear. Before we investigate this development, we should note a stage that is described as telegraphic speech. This is characterized by strings of words (lexical morphemes) in phrases or sentences such as this shoe all wet, cat drink milk and daddy go bye-bye. The child has clearly developed some sentence building capacity by this stage and can get the word order correct.

خطاب البرقية : في عمر السنتين والنصف يتكون لدى الطفل حصيلة من المفردات اللغوية التي تمكنه من انشاء كلمات مركبة مثل (قطة شرب حليب) (بابا ذهب باي باي) ، وتتطور شيئا فشيئا من ناحية بناء الجملة وترتيبها .

While this type of telegram-format speech is being produced, a number of grammatical inflections begin to appear in some of the word forms and simple prepositions (in, on) are also used. By the age of two-and-a-half, the child's vocabulary is expanding rapidly and the child is initiating more talk while increased physical activity includes running and jumping. By three, the vocabulary has grown to hundreds of words and pronunciation has become closer to the form of adult language. At this point, it is worth considering what kind of influence the adults have in the development of the child's speech

في عمر الثلاث سنوات يصبح لدى الطفل المئات من المفردات اللغوية وتصبح لغته أقرب للكبار .

Developing morphology:

By the time a child is two-and-a-half years old, he or she is going beyond telegraphic speech forms and incorporating some of the inflectional morphemes that indicate the grammatical function of the nouns and verbs used. The first to appear is usually the -ing form in expressions such *as cat sitting* and *mommy reading book*. The next morphological development is typically the marking of regular plurals with the -s form, as in boys and cats. Finally, the regular -s marker on third person singular present-tense verbs appears. It occurs first with full verbs (comes, looks) and then with auxiliaries (does, has).

التطور النحوي : الطفل في عمر السنتين والنصف تتطور لغته من الناحية النحوية أي أنه يستخدم الـ ing في الأفعال ، ويضيف الـ s للمفرد الغائب وهكذا .

Developing syntax:

The child understands what the adult is saying. She/he just has her/his own way of expressing it. (imitation)

التطور البنائي للجملة : ويقصد بها من ناحية التركيب البنائي للجمل في اللغة . (فعل وفاعل وما إلى ذلك)

Forming questions:

In forming questions, the child's first stage has two procedures. Simply add a Wh-form (Where, Who) to the beginning of the expression or utter the expression with a rise in intonation towards the end, as in these examples:

Where kitty? Doggie?
Where horse go? Sit chair?

تكوين السؤال : في المرحلة الأولى ببساطة إذا أراد الطفل أن يسأل يضع الـ WH Question بداية الجملة

In the second stage, more complex expressions can be formed, but the rising intonation strategy continues to be used. It is noticeable that more Wh-forms come into use, as in these examples:

What book name? You want eat?
Why you smiling? See my doggie?

في المرحلة الثانية يتمكن من إنشاء سؤال أكثر تركيب نوعاً ما .

In the third stage, the required movement of the auxiliary in English questions (I can have … ! Can I have …?) becomes evident in the child's speech, but doesn't automatically spread to all Wh-question types. In fact, some children beginning school in their fifth or sixth year may still prefer to form Wh questions (especially with negatives) without the type of inversion found in adult speech (e.g. Why kitty can't …? instead of Why can't kitty …?). Apart from these problems with Wh-questions and continuing trouble with the morphology of verbs (e.g. Did I caught …? instead of Did I catch … ?), Stage 3 questions are generally quite close to the adult model, as in these examples:

Can I have a piece? Did I caught it?
Will you help me? How that opened?
What did you do? Why kitty can't stand up?

في المرحلة الثالثة : يتعلم التركيب البنيوي لصياغة السؤال .

Forming negatives:

In the case of negatives, Stage 1 seems to involve a simple strategy of putting No or Not at the beginning, as in these examples:

no mitten - not a teddy bear - no fall - no sit there

في المرحلة الأولى : يضع كلمة not – no في أول الجملة فقط .

In the second stage, the additional negative forms don't and can't appear, and with no and not, are increasingly used in front of the verb rather than at the beginning of the sentence, as in these examples:

He no bite you - I don't want it
That not touch - You can't dance

في المرحلة الثانية : يستخدم كلمة can't – don't .

The third stage sees the incorporation of other auxiliary forms such as didn't and won't while the typical Stage 1 forms disappear. 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, as in the examples:

I didn't caught it - He not taking it
She won't let go - This not ice cream

في المرحلة الثالثة : يتمكن من تكوين الجمل المنفية بشكل أفضل من حيث التركيب البنيوي للجملة .

انتهت المحاضرة الحادية عشر :)

<h1>Lecture "12"</h1>
<h2>Second language learning | تعلم اللغة الثانية</h2>

- ❖ Foreign language (EFL)
- ❖ Second language (ESL)
- ❖ Acquisition
- ❖ Learning
- ❖ Focus on method
  - i. The Grammar-translation method
  - ii. The Audio-lingual method
  - iii. Communicative approaches:

Second language learning :

A "foreign language" (learning a language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding community)
Example: Japanese students in an English class in Japan are learning English as a foreign language (EFL)

اللغة الأجنبية : ويقصد بها اللغة التي لا تحدث بها في البيئة المحيطة .
مثال : طلاب يابانيون يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية في اليابان . هنا تعتبر لغة أجنبية لأنها مختلفة عن بيئتهم المحيطة (اليابان).

A "second language" (learning a language that is spoken in the surrounding community).
Example: If those same students were in an English class in the USA, they would be learning English as a second language (ESL).

اللغة الثانية : ويقصد بها اللغة التي يتحدث بها في البيئة المحيطة .
مثال : نفس الطلاب اليابانيون يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية . هنا تعتبر لغة ثانية وليست أجنبية لأنها ليست مختلفة عن البيئة المتواجدون فيها (أمريكا).

In either case, they are simply trying to learn another language, so the expression second language learning is used more generally to describe both situations.

في كلا الحالتين فهم يتعلمون لغة جديدة بالنسبة لهم (غير لغتهم المكتسبة).

Acquisition and learning | التعلم والاكتساب:

The term acquisition is used to refer to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language.

الاكتساب : هو التطور الطبيعي الذي يحصل للغة بتأثير من المتحدثين من حوله .

The term learning applies to a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features, such as vocabulary and grammar, of a language, typically in an institutional setting. (Mathematics, for example, is learned, not acquired.)

التعلم : هي عملية منظمة للمعرفة والتي لها قواعد ومفردات .

Activities associated with learning have traditionally been used in language teaching in schools and have a tendency to result in more knowledge "about" the language (as demonstrated in tests) than fluency in actually using the language (as demonstrated in social interaction).

عادةً تعلم اللغة في المدارس يكون أكثر وعياً وكعرفةً من تعلمها محادثةً .

Activities associated with acquisition are those experienced by the young child and, by analogy, those who "pick up" a second language from long periods spent in interaction.

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.

The grammar–translation method:

The most traditional approach is to treat L2 learning in the same way as any other academic subject. Vocabulary lists and sets of grammar rules are used to define the target of learning, memorization is encouraged, and written language rather than spoken language is emphasized.

طريقة الترجمة النحوية : وهي الطريقة التقليدية لتعلم اللغات باستخدام قوائم المفردات والقواعد النحوية والحفظ .

The audio-lingual method:

A very different approach, emphasizing the spoken language, became popular in the middle of the twentieth century. It involved a systematic presentation of the structures of the L2, moving from the simple to the more complex, in the form of drills that the student had to repeat. This approach, called the audio-lingual method, was strongly influenced by a belief that the fluent use of a language was essentially a set of "habits" that could be developed with a lot of practice. Much of this practice involved hours spent in a language laboratory repeating oral drills. Versions of this approach are still used in language teaching, but its critics have pointed out that isolated practice in drilling language patterns bears no resemblance to the interactional nature of actual spoken language use. Moreover, it can be incredibly boring.

طريقة اللغة الصوتية : بدأت في منتصف القرن العشرين كمنهج لتدريس اللغة مع تكرار التدريبات لتطوير اللغة .

Communicative approaches:

More recent revisions of the L2 learning experience can best be described as communicative approaches. They are partially a reaction against the artificiality of "pattern practice" and also against the belief that consciously learning the grammar rules of a language will necessarily result in an ability to use the language. Although there are many different versions of how to create communicative experiences for L2 learners, they are all based on a belief that the functions of language (what it is used for) should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language (correct grammatical or phonological structures). Classroom lessons are likely to be organized around concepts such as "asking for things" in different social settings, rather than "the forms of the past tense" in different sentences. These changes have coincided with attempts to provide more appropriate materials for L2 learning that has a specific purpose, as in "English for medical personnel" or "Japanese for business people."

النهج التواصلي : ويقصد بها مناهج لتدريس اللغة تقوم على أساس التعلم من خلال استخدام اللغة بدلا من تعلمها .

انتهت المحاضرة الثانية عشر :)

Lecture "13"
الإيماءات | <u>Gestures</u>

- Meaning
- Types of gestures
    1. Iconics
    2. Deictics
    3. Beats
- Types of sign languages
    1. Alternate sign languages
    2. Primary sign languages
- The structure of signs
    1. Shape and orientation
    2. Location and movement
    3. Primes, faces and finger-spelling

Gestures :

Although both Sign and gestures involve the use of the hands (with other parts of the body), they are rather different. Sign is like speech and is used instead of speaking, whereas gestures are mostly used while speaking.

Examples of gestures are making a downward movement with one hand while talking about not doing very well in a class or making a twisting motion with one hand as you describe trying to open a bottle or jar.

The gestures are just part of the way in which meaning is expressed and can be observed while people are speaking and signing.

لغة الإشارة والإيماءات كلاهما يعتمد على استخدام اليدين مع أجزاء أخرى من الجسم ، هما مختلفان عن بعضهما نوعاً ما ، فلغة الإشارة تستخدم عوضاً عن الكلام أي بديلة عن الكلام ، بينما الإيماءات غالباً تستخدم أثناء الكلام (أي مع الكلام) .

مثال : عندما أتكلم عن أدائي السيئ في الفصل مع الإشارة بالإبهام إلى الأسفل فهذا إيماء ، أو القيام بعمل حركة دائرية باليد لتوضيح محاولاتي لفتح قارورة ما فهذا إيماء أيضاً .

بالتالي فإن الإيماءات هي طريقة للتعبير نلاحظها على الناس أثناء حديثهم .

Types of gestures | أنواع الإيماءات :

<u>Iconics</u> are gestures that seem to be a reflection of the meaning of what is said, as when we trace a square in the air with a finger while saying *I'm looking for a small box.* By itself, an iconic gesture doesn't "mean" the same as what is said, but it may add "meaning."

١ـ أيقونات : الإيماءات التي تنعكس على ما يقال . كأن أرسم بأصبعي في الهواء شكل مربع بينما أطرح سؤال لشخص ما (هل رأيت صندوقاً صغيراً ؟) ، وليس من الضروري أن تعطي هذي الأيقونات معناً مطابقاً لما يقال ، ولكنها قد تضيف بعض المعنى للكلمة .

Another common group of gestures can be described as **<u>deictics</u>**. The term "deictic" means "pointing" and we often use gestures to point to things or people while talking. We can use deictics in the current context, as when we use a hand to indicate a table (with a cake on it) and ask someone *Would you like some cake?.* We can also use the same gesture and the same table (with cake no longer on it) when we later say *That cake was delicious.* In this case, the gesture and the speech combine to accomplish successful reference to something that only exists in shared memory rather than in the current physical space.

٢ـ الإشارات :ويقصد بها الإشارة إلى الأشخاص أو الأشياء أثناء الكلام .

There are other gestures, such as those described as **beats**, which are short quick movements of the hand or fingers. These gestures accompany the rhythm of talk and are often used to emphasize parts of what is being said or to mark a change from describing events in a story to commenting on those events. As with other gestures, these hand movements accompany speech, but are not typically used as a way of speaking. When hand movements are used in order to "speak," we can describe them as part of a sign language.

٣ ــ دقات : وهي حركة قصيرة وسريعة باليد أو بالأصابع تستخدم أثناء الكلام وغالباً يكون الهدف منها التركيز على أحداث أو أجزاء معينة .
ولا نستخدمها بدلاً من الكلام ، وإنما تستخدم مترافقة مع الكلام .
عندما نستخدم حركات اليد كبديل عن الكلام هنا تسمى لغة الإشارة .

Types of sign languages | أنواع لغة الإشارة:

There are two general categories of language involving the use of signs:
alternate sign languages and **primary sign languages**.

لغة الإشارة تنقسم إلى قسمين : (لغة الإشارة البديلة ــ لغة الإشارة الأولية) .

By definition, an alternate sign language is a system of hand signals developed by speakers for limited communication in a specific context where speech cannot be used. In some religious orders where there are rules of silence, restricted alternate sign languages are used (e.g. by monks). Among some Australian Aboriginal groups, there are periods when speech is avoided completely and quite elaborate alternate sign languages are used instead. Less elaborate versions are to be found in some special working circumstances (e.g. among bookmakers at British racecourses or traders in commodity exchanges). In all these examples, the users of alternate sign languages have another first language that they can speak.

لغة الإشارة البديلة : هي نظام إشارات اليد التي طورها المتكلمون للاتصال المحدود في ظروف محددة ، عندما لا يكون بإمكانهم الكلام
(مثل : الرهبان).

In contrast, a primary sign language is the first language of a group of people who do not use a spoken language with each other. British Sign Language (BSL) and French Sign Language (SLF), as used for everyday communication among members of the deaf communities of Britain and France, are primary sign languages. Contrary to popular belief, these different primary sign languages do not share identical signs and are not mutually intelligible.

لغة الإشارة الأولية : وهي اللغة الأولى والأساسية لمجموعة من الناس التي لا تستطيع أن تستخدم لغة الكلام مع بعضها البعض (مثل : الصم)

British Sign Language is also very different from American Sign Language (ASL) which, for historical reasons, has more in common with French Sign Language.

لغة الإشارة البريطانية تختلف عن لغة الإشارة الأمريكية والتي (أي لغة الإشارة الأمريكية) لديها قواسم مشتركة مع لغة الإشارة الفرنسية لأسباب تاريخية .

The structure of signs | تكوين الإشارات:

As a natural language functioning in the visual mode, (American Sign Language) ASL is designed for the eyes, not the ears. In producing linguistic forms in ASL, signers use four key aspects of visual information. These are described as the articulatory parameters of ASL in terms of shape, orientation, location and movement. We can describe these parameters in the use of the common sign for THANK-YOU.

باعتبار لغة الإشارة لغة مرئية ، فلقد صممت لكي يتم التفاعل معها من خلال الأعين وليس الأذان ، ففي إنتاج الأشكال اللغوية للغة الإشارة تم الاهتمام بعدة جوانب ، وهي :

- **Shape and orientation | الشكل والتوجه :**

To describe the articulation of THANK-YOU in ASL, we start with the shape, or configuration of the hand(s), used in forming the sign. The shape may differ in terms of which fingers are used, whether the fingers are extended or bent, and the general configurations of the hand(s). The configuration shown in the illustration is a "flat hand" (not a "fist hand" or a "cupped hand").

The orientation of the hand is "palm up" rather than "palm down" when signing THANK-YOU. In other signs, the hand may be oriented in a number of other ways such as the "flat hand, palm towards signer" form used to indicate MINE.

في لغة الإشارة الأمريكية ، نلاحظ شكل اليد وتكوينها لتشكيل هذه الكلمة من حيث أنها مبسوطة أو مقبوضة ، للأعلى أم للأسفل ، نلاحظ أيضاً وجهة اليد هل هي نحو المتكلم أو نحو المخاطب . عند قول (شكراً لك) فإن اليد تكون مبسوطة وللأعلى ومتوجهة نحو المخاطب .

- **Location and movement | الحركة والمكان :**

Whatever the shape and orientation of the hand(s), there will also be a location (or place of articulation) in relation to the head and upper body of the signer. In THANK-YOU, the sign begins near the mouth and is completed at chest level. Some signs can only be distinguished on the basis of location, as in the difference between signing SUMMER (above the eyes) and UGLY (below the eyes) because hand shape, palm orientation and movement are the same in both of these signs. In some two-handed signs (e.g. MEDICINE, SHIP), one hand acts as the base location while the other hand moves on or above it. The movement element in THANK-YOU is "out and downward" toward the receiver. The difference between faster and slower movement in signing also has an effect on meaning.

أيضاً فإن مكان اليدين من الرأس والجسم له مدلولات أو معاني مختلفة في لغة الإشارة . فهناك بعض الإشارات تكون فيها اليد أعلى من العينين أو أسفل منها وفي بعض الإشارات نستخدم كلتا اليدين . أيضاً سرعة وبطء تنفيذ الإشارة قد يعطي معنى مختلف . في كلمة (شكرٍ لك) تكون اليد قريبة من الفم وعلى مستوى الصدر .

- **Primes, faces and finger-spelling | الوجوه والتهجي بالأصابع :**

The contrasting elements within these four general parameters can be analyzed into sets of features or primes. We say that "flat hand" is a prime in terms of shape and "palm up" is a prime in terms of orientation. Identifying each of these primes allows us to create a complete feature analysis of every sign in much the same way as we can analyze the phonological features of spoken language.

In addition to these parameters and primes, there are important functions served by non-manual components such as head movement, eye movement and several specific types of facial expressions. Under normal circumstances, THANK-YOU is articulated with a head nod and a smiling face. If a sentence is functioning as a question, it is typically accompanied by a raising of the eyebrows, widened eyes and a slight leaning forward of the head.

Also, if a new term or name is encountered, signers can use finger-spelling, which is a system of hand configurations conventionally used to represent the letters of the alphabet. From these brief descriptions, it is clear that ASL is a linguistic system designed for the visual medium, in face-to-face interaction. The majority of signs are located around the neck and head. If a sign is made near the chest or waist, it tends to be a two-handed sign.

أشكال لغة الإشارة تساعدنا على تحليل الخطاب تماما كما تفعل لغة الأصوات ، وذلك عن طريق شكل اليد واتجاهها ومكانها وسرعتها ... وما إلى ذلك .

نلاحظ أيضاً أن بعض الكلمات تكون مصحوبة بإيماءات مثل (الإيماء بالرأس أو رفع الحاجبين أو الابتسامة .. وهكذا)

في لغة الإشارة إذا أردت التعبير عن اسم أو كلمة جديدة فيمكنك استخدام التهجي بالأصابع وهو عبارة عن حركات باليد ترمز إلى الحروف الأبجدية .

ASL أي لغة الإشارة الأمريكية هي نظام لغوي صمم ليكون مرئيا وبالتالي يكون التعامل معه وجهاً لوجه .

غالبية الإشارات تقع بين الرأس والرقبة ، وبالقرب من الصدر أو الخصر ، وأحياناً يتم استخدام كلتا اليدين .

انتهت المحاضرة الثالثة عشر :)

Lecture "14"

Revision | الملخص

في هذه المحاضرة الدكتور حط النقاط الرئيسية والمهمة من كل محاضرة مع طرح بعض الأسئلة عشان تعرفوا صيغة السؤال كيف تجي بالإختبار ،، نحاول نركز على التعاريف بالإنجليزية .. وفالكم النجاح والتفوق يا رب .

1. Animals and human language
- Properties of human language
- Displacement
- Arbitrariness
- Productivity
- Cultural transmission

2. The sounds of language
- Phonetics
- Voiced and voiceless sounds
- Place of articulation
- Bilabials
- Labiodentals
- Dentals
- Alveolars
- Velars and Glottals
- Charting consonant sounds
- Manner of articulation
- Stops
- Fricatives
- Affricates
- Nasals
- Liquids
- Glides
- Vowels
- Diphthongs

1. Animals and human language
- One of the human properties which organized at two levels or layers simultaneously.
A. Displacement
B. Arbitrariness
C. Productivity
D. **Duality**

2. The sounds of language
- The two sounds /f/ and /v/ are described as
A. Bilabial
B. **Labiodental**
C. Dental
D. Alveolar

3. The sound patterns of language
- Phonology

- Phonemes
- Phones and allophones
- Minimal pairs and sets
- Syllables
- Consonant clusters
- Assimilation
- Elision

4. Word formation:
- Etymology
- Coinage
- Borrowing
- Compounding
- Blending
- Clipping
- Backformation
- Conversion
- Acronyms
- Derivation
- Prefixes and suffixes

3. The sound patterns of language
- Which of the following words are considered as a minimal pair
A. night and dark
B. **site and side**
C. high and low
D. sun and light

4. Word formation:
- Words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.
A. Coinage
B. Blending
C. Clipping
D. **Acronyms**

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5. Morphology
- Morphemes
- Free and bound morphemes
- Lexical and functional morphemes
- Derivational and inflectional morphemes
- Morphological description
- Morphs and allomorphs

6. Grammar
- Traditional grammar
- The parts of speech
- Nouns
- Articles
- Adjectives
- Verbs

- Adverbs
- Prepositions
- Pronouns
- Conjunctions
- Agreement
- Traditional analysis
- The prescriptive approach

5. Morphology
- The underlined word in the sentence "the **child**'s wildness shocked the teachers" is
A. functional
B. **lexical**
C. inflectional
D. derivational

6. Grammar
- Words used to refer to various kinds of actions.
A. nouns
B. articles
C. adjectives
D. **verbs**

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7. Syntax
- Deep and surface structure
- Structural ambiguity
- Recursion
- Tree diagrams
- Symbols used in syntactic analysis
- Lexical rules
- Movement rules

8. Semantics
- Meaning
- Semantic features
- Semantic roles
- Agent and theme
- Lexical relations
- Synonymy
- Antonymy
- Hyponymy
- Prototypes
- Homophones and homonyms
- Polysemy
- Word play
- Metonymy

7. Syntax
- _____ is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages.
A. Deep structure

B. Surface structure
C. **Syntax**
D. Recursion

8. Semantics

- The underlined word in the sentence "the boy kicked <u>the ball</u>" is
A. agent
B. **theme**
C. instrument
D. experiencer

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9. Pragmatics
- Meaning
- Context
- Deixis
- Reference
- Inference
- Anaphora
- Presupposition
- Speech acts
- Direct and indirect speech acts
- Politeness
- Negative and positive face

10. Discourse analysis
- Meaning
- Cohesion
- Coherence
- Speech events
- Conversation analysis
- Co-operative principle:
- Hedges
- implicatures
- Background Knowledge
- Schemas and scripts

9. Pragmatics
- Expressions such as *tomorrow* and *here* are obvious examples of bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker's intended meaning. They are technically known as
A. content
B. **deixis**
C. anaphora
D. Inference

10. Discourse analysis
- _____ describes the way in which a text is tied together by linguistic devices
A. **Cohesion**
B. Coherence
C. Hedges
D. Implicatures

11. First language acquisition
- Acquisition
- Input
- The acquisition schedule
- Cooing and babbling
- The one-word stage
- The two-word stage
- Telegraphic speech
- Developing morphology
- Developing syntax
- Forming questions
- Forming negatives

12. Second language learning
- Foreign language (EFL)
- Second language (ESL)
- Acquisition
- Learning
- Focus on method
- The Grammar-translation method
- The Audio-lingual method
- Communicative approaches:

11. First language acquisition
- The earliest use of speech-like sounds has been described as
  - A. two-word stage
  - B. holophrastic
  - C. one-word stage
  - D. **cooing**

12. Second language learning
- The gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language is known as
  - A. learning
  - B. input
  - C. **acquisition**
  - D. method

13. Gestures
- Meaning
- Types of gestures
- Iconics
- Deictics
- Beats
- Types of sign languages
- alternate sign languages
- primary sign languages

- The structure of signs
- Shape and orientation
- Location and movement
- Primes, faces and finger-spelling

13. Gestures
- One type of gestures that seem to be a reflection of the meaning of what is said
    A. deictics
    B. beats
    C. **iconics**
    D. oralism

<div align="center">**النهاية .. بالتوفيق :)**</div>