

Larbi Ben Mhidi University  
Department of English



Level Grade : Master 1  
Specialty : Didactics  
Lecturer : Mr. Karim AYADI

## *Second Term Syllabus of Applied Linguistics*

(From 2020 entry)

### **I. Description of the Course**

Applied linguistics is concerned with the investigation of the impact of language on problems faced by individuals and/or groups. Although the discipline has traditionally concerned itself with the problem of learning and teaching second/foreign languages, it has not always realised the potential of theory to inform classroom practice and vice versa. However, According to cook (2006), Applied linguistics means so many things to so many people and consequently this field has become a hybrid enterprise encompassing multidisciplinary areas of concern in academia.

### **II. Contents of the course**

#### **Introduction to Applied Linguistics**

1. Language policy and Planning
2. Social realism and empirical research in Applied Linguistics
3. Medical Discourse Analysis
4. Applied Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis

### **III. Assessment**

<b>Final Grade /20</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	By the end of the semester, a final written exam covers almost all the parts of all term courses.
<b>Written Exam /20</b>	100%	

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Language policy and planning

Reference : James.S, 2001, The Routledge Book of Applied Linguistics. Routledge.

Course 1. Language Policy and Planning

By Lionel Wee

## Theoretical Foundations

Understood broadly as interventions into language practices, language policy and planning (LPP) has had a long and checkered history. As an academic discipline, however, LPP is relatively recent in origin, having gained momentum from the drives toward nationalism and nation building (Wright 2004: 8).

The focus of this overview is primarily on developments within LPP as an academic discipline. The modern history of this discipline can be described in terms of three main stages (Ricento 2000): (i) an initial stage of optimism in the 1960s and 1970s that the language problems of newly independent states could be solved via the implementation of rational and systematic procedures; (ii) a period of disillusionment in the wake of LPP failures (1980s and 1990s) that opened the way for a more critical and reflexive appreciation of the role that language and linguists play in society; and (iii) in the present period, a growing sense that LPP needs to be reconstituted as a multidisciplinary and politicized approach, since the issues it grapples with are complex and represent interests that can pervade multiple levels of social life, ranging from the individual to the state and across state boundaries as well.

A motif of this chapter is that it is worth viewing this history of LPP as a dynamic interplay between academic concerns, on the one hand, and political/bureaucratic interests, on the other. The benefit of such a perspective is that it provides us with a better awareness of the kinds of constraints faced by applied linguistics as it attempts to engage with ‘real world’ language-related problems.

So, though it is the next section that specifically delves into the history of LPP, there is good reason, even as we move on to the later sections, to also keep in mind the challenges that arise when attempting to marry more intellectual understandings of language with the practical demands faced by both policy makers and the people whose lived experiences are affected by socio-political decisions about language.

The distinction between processes of language selection, codification of the selected language as standard or correct, elaboration of the language form where necessary, and implementation to ensure that the standards were properly adopted (Haugen 1966). These processes were typically understood to apply sequentially, so that LPP would be pursued in a manner that was organized and systematic. And understandably, the preferred method for data gathering during this period was the sociolinguistic survey. Given that LPP practitioners were mostly working at the level of the state, the scale of the envisaged changes made the choice of survey a practical one, as far as the tracking of language attitude and use amongst a large population were concerned. Information gathered via the survey was also more amenable to quantification, and relative rates of success could then be presented in a manner that was digestible to policy-makers.

There is no disputing the fact that these concepts and distinctions, even today, continue to serve as valuable tools when thinking about LPP. This is because, at bottom, LPP involves making decisions about the desirability (or not) of

promoting some language practices over others. And all such decisions require some appreciation of the possible relationships between forms of language and their uses, and the ways in which these relationships might be influenced.

What was problematic in this period, however, was the absence of a critical orientation that might have otherwise prevented a number of assumptions from going unquestioned, such as the notion that each nation-state would be ideally served by having just one national language; the concomitant implication that multilingualism is potentially problematic and ought to be minimized; and the belief that a developmental model designed for one societal context could be applied to another despite significant differences in socio-cultural and historical specificities. As a consequence, these assumptions often guided the enthusiastic articulation of solutions designed along technocratic lines, when it would perhaps have been more helpful to ask if the framing of what counts as an LPP problem was itself in need of interrogation. I say ‘perhaps’ because, to be fair to these early attempts at LPP, it is not clear what kind of impact such a critical orientation – had one been present – would have had on decision-makers involved in the management of state objectives. There was always the possibility that in challenging or deconstructing a state’s framing of problems, linguists could simply have found themselves deemed largely irrelevant to the needs of these newly independent states.

### **The Problem-based Nature of LPP**

This withdrawal of LPP practitioners from the role of expert consultant was accompanied by an internal criticism of the field itself. In an incisive paper, Luke et al. (1990: 27) suggested that LPP had been overly concerned with maintaining a ‘verner of scientific objectivity’ and had ‘tended to avoid directly addressing larger social and political matters within which language change, use and development, and indeed language planning itself are embedded’. Luke et

al.'s point is that by viewing LPP as an essentially technocratic process of efficiently administering resources so as to achieve specific goals, little consideration had been given to questions of how such processes might help sustain dominance and dependency relations between groups.

In other words, by not adequately attending to the socially and politically contested nature of language, LPP initiatives, rather than solving problems, may in fact have simply exacerbated old problems or even created new ones.

In a similar vein, Tollefson (1991) introduced a distinction to characterize what he saw as two major approaches to LPP: the neoclassical and the historical-structural. The major differences between the neoclassical and the historical-structural approaches are as follows (from Wiley 1996: 115):

1 The unit of analysis employed: While the neoclassical approach focuses on individual choices, the historical-structural pays attention to relationships between groups.

2 The role of the historical perspective: The neoclassical is more interested in the current language situation; the historical-structural, in contrast, emphasizes the role of socio-historical factors.

3 Criteria for evaluating plans and policies: The neoclassical is primarily amoral in its outlook; policies are evaluated in terms of how efficiently they achieve their goals. The historical-structural is more sensitive to issue of domination, exploitation and oppression.

4 The role of the social scientist: Consistent with its amoral outlook, the neoclassical assumes that the social scientist must and can approach language problems in an apolitical manner. On the other hand, the historical-structural views political stances as inescapable so that 'those who avoid political questions inadvertently support the status quo'.

The neoclassical approach thus tends to emphasize the rational and individualistic nature of choices. As an illustration, individuals may choose to learn a new language because of certain perceived benefits such as access to better jobs. Or they may decide that the time and money spent on learning a new language may not be worth the potential benefits, and hence may not make the effort to expand their linguistic repertoire. Whatever the outcome, the neoclassical approach treats these as decisions that are freely and rationally made. But Tollefson emphasizes that we need to also ask questions like ‘Why must that individual expend those particular costs? Why are those particular benefits rather than others available to that individual? What are the costs and benefits for other people in the community?’ (Tollefson 1991: 32). These kinds of questions require attending to the socio-historical contexts and constraints inherited by individuals and *mutatis mutandis*, communities.

LPP in the 1960s and 1970s had tended to work within the neoclassical approach, where, as we have seen, language-related issues were treated as problems that could be rationally and logically solved by adopting the appropriate language policy. The individuals, families, or communities that were the targets of LPP were, by the same token, assumed to be likely to respond in a neoclassical fashion. Consequently, a major problem was that it had neglected to take into consideration the effects of socio-historical factors in constraining the nature of choices.

## **Challenges of LPP**

It would not be an overstatement to suggest that LPP is in fact gaining in practical importance and urgency because of the way the world is developing. As a branch of applied linguistics, there is much that LPP can do to make a contribution to debates and discussions about the role of language in a fast-changing and increasingly culturally complex world. Language policy and

planning One significant challenge for LPP is to find ways of addressing multiculturalism. Much of the recent theorizing regarding multiculturalism and the politics of identity has come from philosophically inclined political or legal theorists (Benhabib 2002; Ford 2005; Kymlicka 1995; Taylor 1994) rather than linguists. While such theorizing is undoubtedly valuable, it is usually based on an 'outdated empirical understanding of the concept of language itself' and tends to be 'unaware of important sociolinguistic and other research on these matters' (De Schutter 2007: 3). Where LPP is concerned, the most prominent response has been to call for the adoption of language rights (May 2001; Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas 1995). The general motivation behind the proposal for language rights is to ensure that an identifiable group – usually a discriminated or stigmatized ethnic minority – is granted specific forms of protection and consideration on the basis of their associated language. The concept of language rights has had enormous appeal, finding a broad swathe of support amongst linguists, sociologists, political philosophers, policy-makers and community activists (Kymlicka 1995; May 2001; Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas 1995). However, this actually makes it all the more critical that language rights be subjected to careful scrutiny (Blommaert 2001; Stroud 2001). For example, while language rights may be useful as a short-term measure, it is not clear that they are tenable in the longer term. One reason for this is that there will be parties who have a vested interest in maintaining their (usually hard-won) language rights, and their motivations – such as the desire to cling to political power or to continue enjoying the benefits afforded by such rights – can be quite independent of how effective such rights may actually have been in dealing with discrimination. This means that LPP needs to better understand the pros and cons of language rights, and where necessary, explore alternative ways of responding to multiculturalism. This requires combining the insights of social and political theorists with a more sophisticated appreciation of the nature of

language (Makoni and Pennycook 2007). The interest in multiculturalism and language rights gains further resonance because of complications posed by the commodification of language. As Budach et al. (2003: 604, upper case in original) point out: in a new world dominated by service and information economies, globalization engenders a seemingly paradoxical valuing of community and authenticity ... In the new economy ... the value of community and authenticity takes on a new shape in which COMMODIFICATION is central. At the same time, commodification provokes a potential uncoupling of language and community. Speakers and communities are likely to be increasingly caught up in the contradictions between treating language as a mark of cultural heritage, and as a skill or resource to be used for socio-economic advancement. And this can have interesting repercussions on specific implementations of LPP. For example, in Singapore, the policy of multiracialism aims to guarantee equal status amongst the three official ethnic mother tongues: Mandarin (for the Chinese community), Malay (for the Malay community) and Tamil (for the Indian community). However, the state has recently argued that, in addition to heritage reasons, Mandarin should also be learned in order to take advantage of China's growing economy, thereby actively conceding that instrumental value is an important motivating factor in language choice. As a result, Mandarin is now becoming so popular that a growing number of non-Chinese parents want schools to allow their children to study the language. This new emphasis on Mandarin as a language commodity has led to concerns within the Chinese community that the language is being learnt for the 'wrong' reasons: the language is being treated less as an emblem of local ethnicity and more as an economic resource for conducting business negotiations with China. More generally, these developments potentially undermine the multiracial logic of the policy, since the equal status that all three mother tongues are supposed to enjoy is compromised by the fact that neither Malay nor Tamil can be claimed to enjoy the same level of economic cachet as

Mandarin (Wee 2003). Thus, another important challenge for LPP is to take better account of the fact that traditional notions of ethnicity and nation do not fit easily with the multilingual dynamics of late modern societies, which are increasingly characterized by a pervasive culture of consumerism (Baudrillard 1988; Bauman 1998), where ‘people define themselves through the messages they transmit to others through the goods and practices that they possess and display’ (Warde 1994: 878). In this regard, Stroud and Wee (2007) have suggested that the concept of sociolinguistic consumption should be given a more foundational status in language policy in late modernity, suggesting that this might offer a more comprehensive account of the dynamics of language choice and change.

Finally, one of the most pressing challenges facing the world today is that of global migration and the related issue of ensuring the wellbeing and dignity of individuals as they move across the globe in search of a better life. As many states work to accommodate the presence of foreign workers, asylum seekers and other aliens within their territories, the need to come up with realistic and sensitive language policies will require the input of LPP specialists. If such input is absent, there is a danger that language policies may unfairly penalize the very people they were intended to help. Maryns (2005) provides one such example in her discussion of a young female from Sierra Leone seeking asylum in Belgium. Even though applicants are given the opportunity to declare what language they want to use for making their case, Maryns (2005: 300) notes that:

Actual practice, however, reveals serious constraints on language choice, and these constraints are language-ideologically based: only monolingual standard varieties qualify for procedural interaction. This denial of linguistic variation leads to a denial of pidgins and creoles as ‘languages in their own right.’

The effect of ideology of monolingualism is to deny pidgins and creoles any legitimate presence in the asylum-seeking procedure despite the fact that for many asylum seekers, such mixed languages might constitute their most natural communicative codes. Thus, the move to a foreign country is not simply a shift in physical location; it is also a shift into a location where linguistic codes are differently valued. And the asylum seeker is expected to accommodate the foreign bureaucratic context despite the communicative problems this raises. Maryns (2005: 312) points out that:

The asylum seeker has to explain her very complex and contextually dense case, addressing an official with different expectations about what is relevant and required in a bureaucratic-institutional context. The bureaucratic format of the interview and the time pressure under which the interaction takes place offer very little space for negotiating intended meanings. In the particular case that Maryns observed, the female applicant's (2005: 313) 'intrinsically mixed linguistic repertoire' (West African Krio) was displaced by the bureaucracy's requirement that interviews and reports utilize only monolingual standards. The interview was conducted in English and a subsequent report written in Dutch, neither of which were languages.

### **Question**

In your own words, sum up the Problem-based nature of LPP and its challenges.

# Larbi Ben Mhidi University Department of English



Level Grade : Master 1

Specialty : Didactics

Lecturer : Mr. Karim AYADI

Reference : Allison.S & Bob. C 2004. Applied Linguistics as a Social Science. London

## Course 2: Social realism and empirical research in Applied Linguistics

It is probably fair to say that the longest-established and still dominant tradition in ILL research (Lazaraton 1995) involves the following kind of approach, as summarized by Lightbown (2000: 438) in her review of SLA research between 1985 and 2000: The specific goals of the various research projects differ, but there is a unifying desire to identify and better understand the roles of the different participants in classroom interaction, the impact that certain types of instruction may have on FLiSL learning, and the factors which promote or inhibit learning. Much of what constitutes this kind of research tends to be consistent with conventional, successionist models of causality. Successionist models usually take the form of identifying a dependent and an independent variable and then proposing a hypothesis which suggests that they will vary inversely or conversely, thus enabling some form of causal inference to be drawn. Ellis (1990: 199) summarizes this approach thus:

The L2 classroom researcher seeks to show how instructional events cause or impede the acquisition of a second language. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to (1) identify which instructional events are significant, (2) find valid and reliable measures of the L2 learning that takes place and (3) be able to demonstrate that the relationship between instructional events and learning is in some ways causal.

Although critiques of the successionist concept of causality have been made in the ILL literature (e.g. Block 1996; van Lier 1990), and we discuss alternatives later in the chapter, it remains a dominant assumption in a significant proportion of the literature. ILL research, then, like most research in both natural and social science, explores why things happen. Our own position in response to this question is a 'modified materialist naturalist' one. Therefore our starting point in understanding why things happen is a belief that the world consists of phenomena - including human beings and social structures - which have distinctive properties and powers. These objects exist independently of our understandings of them. (This points to a significant limitation in the purely interpretivist research which is often seen as the alternative to successionist accounts of causality, as we explain below.) It is the combination of the powers and properties of human beings and social structures which generates the experienced empirical world. The attribution of these properties and powers is not arbitrary, but is given in what phenomena are: it is given in the nature of human beings, for example, that they are mortal, that they have the biological attributes which enable them to use language, and so on; social structures are emergent, durable, and have the facility to frustrate or further the projects of people both individually and collectively. This implies a radically different view of causality and therefore of research from that found in both successionist and interpretivist traditions. From a realist point of view, rather than merely cataloguing repetitions of regularly occurring co-events, science should seek to understand and identify the causal relations or mechanisms which produce the observed, empirical regularities. Sayer (2001) summarizes the key components of a realist view of causality:

Causes - that is whatever produces change - should be understood as causal powers possessed by objects (including individuals and social structures) that may or may not be activated. Whether they are depends on contingently related conditions, and if and when they are activated, what results also depends on contingently related conditions. (p.968)

So what are the things in the social world which have these properties and powers? The components of the social world, from a realist perspective, are human beings and the products of their social interaction, including social structures and culture. It is the interaction between these components of the social world, and the realization of their properties and powers in particular settings and combinations, that give rise to the problems with which social research - including applied linguistic research - is concerned. This account of 'why things happen' allows for the occurrence of patterns and regularities, without entailing a commitment to a nomothetic perspective of 'governing laws'. Regularities - such as, say, tendencies for groups of students with certain characteristics to outperform groups of students with different characteristics on particular tests of L2 performance may be indicative of causal relations, and establishing such patterns, therefore often entails undertaking quantitative research. The account also allows for a recognition of the powers of human agency, including the reflexivity which can act as a 'confounding variable' in traditional process-product studies. The position is also marked by seeking to distinguish between necessity and contingency in causal relations. Research of this type will not discover 'universal laws', because the actualization of the properties and powers of the objects in the world is context-dependent, but it will aim to generalize beyond the individual case of the single ethnographic study, by drawing on particular conceptualizations of propensity and probability. We can now turn to a richer image of 'complexity' than that suggested when the term is used, as it sometimes is, as a synonym for

'complicated'. It is common to make reference to the 'complexity' of the process of using different languages in different social contexts, and of learning how to do so. For example, Lightbown and Spada (2001: 42) identify a number of 'variables' which 'have been found to influence second language learning'. These include 'intelligence, aptitude, personality and motivational characteristics, learner preferences, and age'. Some of the difficulties for researchers, they suggest, arise because 'these learner characteristics are not independent of one another: learner variables interact in complex ways. So far, researchers know very little about the nature of these complex interactions.' Similarly, Cook (1986: 13) characterizes 'the real world' as 'a complex bundle of many things', but concludes that the researcher's task is therefore to - as it were - untie this bundle and extract separate 'things' to measure.

However, recognizing that variables interact is not the same as recognizing that in their interaction they generate emergent, irreducible phenomena, which are themselves capable of interacting back on their constituent elements. In this view of complexity, there is an emphasis on the fact that 'the behavior of complex systems arises from the *interaction* of its components or agents' (Larsen-Freeman 1997: 143, emphasis added). Larsen-Freeman is one of the few researchers who have begun to explore more fully the implications of rejecting successionist accounts of causation, in characterizing SLA as a complex nonlinear process. If this is what it is, she argues, 'we will never be able to identify, let alone measure, all of the factors accurately. And even if we could, we would still be unable to predict the outcome of their combination' (*ibid.*: 157). As she points out, researchers in the domain of neuroscience are now modelling the brain as an example of a complex nonlinear system, and developments in this area contribute to explanations of extremely sophisticated mental processes. Features of the brain which qualify it to be thought of in this way include its 'decentralized' character, and its feedback systems which

contribute to growth and self-regulation (Johnson 2001). As we saw in Chapter 3, the characterization of language itself as a cultural emergent property entails a recognition of its complex and emergent features (Beaugrande 1997, 1999). And language acquisition is also recognized as an emergent phenomenon by researchers who concentrate on the internal cognitive dimension of the process. As Ellis (1998) puts it:

Emergentists believe that simple learning mechanisms, operating in and across the human systems for perception, motor-action and cognition as they are exposed to language data as part of a communicatively-rich human social environment by an organism eager to exploit the functionality of language, suffice to drive the emergence of complex language representations.

(p.B57)

**Question :**

Explain succinctly what makes Applied Linguistics as a social science ?

# Larbi Ben Mhidi University Department of English



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Specialty : Didactics

Lecturer : Mr. Karim AYADI

Reference Blommaert, Jan. 2005. *Discourse*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, Print.

Course 4 : Applied Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis Analysis

## Introduction :

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) has been used as a basic discipline in education to provide answers to questions about the relationships between language, society, power, identity, ideology, politics, and culture. The rise of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) has influenced most branches and sub-branches of humanities sciences in general, and applied linguistics in particular. CDA views language as a powerful means through which specific ideologies, identities, and culture become dominant in a society. CDA scholars believe that the choice of language interlocutors make reflects their intentions, ideology, and thought. Critical discourse analysts identify and study specific areas of injustice, inequality, racism, danger, suffering, prejudice, and the like.

### 1\*Aims of CDA :

1-CDA objective is to perceive language use as social practice .

2-CDA sees the relationship between language and society being dialectical .

3-The aim of CDA is to examine any aspect of power , dominance ,and social inequality and see how they are interrelated with discourse .

4-CDA accepts this social context and studies the connections between textual structures and takes this social context into account .

5-Another aim of CDA is that raising awareness of readers and listeners to hidden parts of discourses .

## **2\*Interesting Notions In Critical Discourse Analysis:**

### **a /Social Power and Ideology:**

A person is said to have "Power", when he is able to control the acts and minds of others. Actually, this power has different sources, among these sources :

Having control over public discourse and communication ( including text and talk ) is a very important resource of power. Thus ,We may say that " Language and power are interrelated" , in the sense that, Language is said to be a medium of domination and social power. In this respect, Norman Fairclough is the only scholar who defines the relationship between Power and Language.

A powerful speaker is the one who controls all levels and structures of:  
Context ,Text Including setting Choice of topics, style... Participants.  
Another thing to be highlighted ( previously controlling discourse as a major form of power was highlighted) is "Mind Control", which is another important way to reproduce Dominance. In specific contexts, certain meanings and forms of control would have more influence on people's minds.

### **b/ Social Inequality : Gender Inequality**

One vast field of critical research on discourse and language that thus far has not been carried out within a CDA perspective is that of gender. Gender inequality refers to the obvious disparity between individuals due to gender. Media helps create and reinforce a gender duality based on traditional views of men and women. Often females males are portrayed differently in television and film according to stereotypes. Boys and/or men are often portrayed as active, aggressive and sexually aggressive persons while women are portrayed as quaint, passive, pretty and incompetent beings.

## **c/Dominance:**

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CDA is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse that views language as forms of social practices such as the exercise of dominance and power. Fairclough focuses on the idea that social and cultural domination is reproduced by text and talk. Social power is based on privileged access to socially valued resources such as: wealth, income, position and status....also a special access to various genres, forms on contexts of discourse and communication is also power sources. Dominant people may effectively limit the communicative rights of others. By analyzing the language use of those in power, who are responsible for the existence of inequality. CDA researchers are interested in the way discourse (re)produce social domination that's the power abuse of one group over others, and what dominated group may discursively resist such abuse.

### **3\*Fairclough's framework for analyzing a communicative event**

#### **A) Text:**

The first analytical focus of Fairclough's three-part model is text. Analysis of text involves linguistic analysis in terms of vocabulary, grammar, semantics, the sound system, and cohesion-organization above the sentence level (Fairclough, 1995b, p. 57).

Eg.1-“Whatever action is required, whenever action is necessary, I will defend the freedom and security of the American people” (Bush 2003).

The example shows how the president Bush uses I to show his passion as president by saying “I will defend the freedom and security”, he almost expresses that he will personally fight against the terrorists that put the country in danger.

## **B) Discourse practice:**

In this analytical framework , while there is linguistic analysis at the text level , there is also linguistic analysis at the discourse practice level that Fairclough calls “ Intertextual Analysis “ .

According to fairclough in (1992)., intertextuality is concerned with how texts are produced in relation to prior texts and how texts help to construct the existing conventions in producing new texts .

## **c)Socio-cultural Practice:**

Analysis in this dimension is related to three aspects of the socio-cultural aspect of a communicative event , which are:Economic Aspect ,Political and Cultural aspects

This dimension is an explanation of the relationship between these aspects and the process of production and consumption.

## **4\*The levels of Discourse Context:**

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1\***Macro level:** It is the analysis of context that assesses the relationship between the text and the broader social processes and ideologies. (E.g. what social issues are of a particular importance at the time the text was created)

2\***Meso level:** Analysis focuses on the context of production and reception of the text. (E.g. where was the text made? who was it written by...)

3\***Micro level:** Discourse context simply looks at what is actually being said in the text and what the linguistic features and devices are being used to depict an idea.

## **5\*Linguistic Analysis in CDA:**

Active or passive voice:

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The use of active verb gives a clear picture of who performed a particular action, and to whom, for example: Police attack protestors.

The use of passive verb states what has been done, and to whom, but does not blame anyone in particular for the action, for example: Protestors attacked.

Alternatively, nominalization can be used, where the noun form of the verb is used to create even more ambiguity, for example: Attack on protestors.

**Naming**: the ways in which people are named can also perpetuate ideologies.

**Pre-modifiers**: It can present varying views of a topic.

**Indirect quotes**: It used where there may be no evidence of reported speech saying this.\_\_\_\_

### **Conclusion:**

To sum up, critical discourse analysis is a very broad topic since it is a multidisciplinary and issue-oriented approach. This latter aims to understand social inequality and injustice in terms of social power, dominance ,and their reproduction. So, what we understand is that critical discourse analysts want to investigate what structures, strategies, or other properties of text, talk, verbal interaction, or communicative events play a role in these modes of reproduction.

### **Question:**

What is the relationship between Applied Linguistics and CDA?

# **Medical Discourse Analysis**

**Lecturer: Mr. Ayadi Karim**

**Level: Grade Master 1**

**Course:3**

# outline

- Introduction to medical discourse analysis.
- Medical register.
- Euphemism.
- Interaction between doctor and patient.
- Speech acts in medical discourse.
- Disease and illness language.
- Medical terminology.
- Conclusion.

# introduction

medical discourse in the broadest sense is mainly concerned with (discourse in and about healing, curing, or therapy; expressions of suffering; and relevant language ideologies)

while examining medical discourse the following aspects are addressed :

- different purposes of medical communication
- analysis of doctor-patient communication
- specific communicative behaviors

# Medical register

## Occupational registers

provide an efficient code for the transfer of information among specialists.

They are largely opaque outside the esoteric circle.

## ordinary language

It is the type of language that is exchanged among patients and ordinary people (non-specialists).

# The gray area

Hadlow and Pitts (1991) and Kirkmayer(1988) find that patients and medical professionals have different understandings of terms “ in my own initial forays into medical literature, as a naive patient, I was unaware, for example, that the euphemism “supportive care” was a technical term (an umbrella term for a variety of actual therapies); it did not mean, as I had imagined, that patients were to be treated with empathy and respect.”

# Euphemism:

- 19th century diseases names were often euphemistic .
- this euphemism is still used in many cultures , especially when the diagnosis is bad .
- US physicians prefer “ a clear and carefully worded scientific explanation of a patient’s condition as a precaution against lawsuits”.

# Interaction between doctor and patient:

How are you feeling today?



Not very well, Doctor.

**Tell me about it.**



**Well, I have a terrible headache.**

**Do you feel weak?**



**Yes. I get tired very quickly.**

**How about your throat?**



**It hurts a little.**

**It seems that you have  
the flu.**



**Oh, that's terrible.**

**Don't worry. Take this  
medicine and rest.**



**OK. I understand.**

# Speech acts in medical discourse:

Todd's classification of speech acts has been adopted in medical discourse. As a result, five categories:

## Statements:

- **Example**

D: Some of the slides that I'll take from you today will be looked at in clinic, and from these I'll decide whether you require treatment or not.

## Questions:

- **Example**

D: Could you describe what the vomiting is like Mrs Smith, for example, does it clear your lap and land on the floor?

## answers :

- **Example 3**

D: Was it managerial – did you have a lot of responsibility?

**P: Yes, I was in charge of a large department.**

## directives:

- **Example 4**

D: Now let me have a look at you. **Sit down, open your mouth, head slightly forward.** Let me put this tongue depressor on your tongue.

## Reactives:

- **Example 5**

D: Have you been abroad to any tropical or developing countries recently?

P: Yes, I just came back from Thailand a few months ago.

**D: I see.**

- Comparing to Searle's classification two speech acts have been excluded **expressives** and **commissives**. Although speech acts of these types do emerge in doctor-patient talk infrequently.

#### **Example 6**

D: Do you have a job at the moment?

P: No, I've just been made redundant.

**D: Oh, I am sorry.** What was your job?

P: I was desk-bound, I'm afraid.  
(expressive)

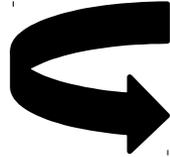
#### **Example 7**

P: Oh, Thank God! No sign of cancer! No sign at all?

D: Yes, that's right. But listen for a moment. ... In the future you really must try to stop smoking, as long as you keep smoking you can get more trouble with your voice, and one day it could turn nasty.

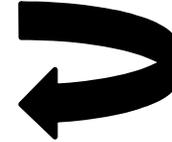
**P: Oh, yes, Doctor. I am trying** - I've stopped.

# Disease and illness language:



## disease language:

As various observers have pointed out ( McCullough 1989 ; Mintz 1992 ) , is an abstract discourse about diseases and organs. the disease language is related to the physicians. And its concerned with identifying and examining the process of the biological issue itself.



## Illness language:

illness language is related to the patients' experience of this biological issue and it's usually expressed as symptoms..

# Medical terminology:

considered as the core point in the analysis of the medical discourses for both written and spoken forms, plus the breaking up of words.

- some words would be written and uttered differently like:

Skin, bone



derm , oste(o)

- there are several examples of breaking up words especially those which are related to affixes such as:

## Prefixes

Related to : size, color ,direction,..

Like: hypo, hyper

## Root

Related to: a part of the body  
like : eryth ,leuk

- These affixes help in breaking up process like:

dermatitis



- “derm” refers to the skin and
- “itis” refers to the inflammation in medicine

(the inflammation of the skin)

# Conclusion:

The process of analyzing medical discourse seem defficult and complex , following certain steps among them what was presented previously will enable us to analyze and understand the medical discourses either written or spoken.