O'zDJTU huzuridagi RIAIM

Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish
Ingliz tili yo'nalishi
tinglovchilari uchun

O'quv-uslubiy majmua

2019

Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish: Ingliz tili

2.2. Tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi

Модулнинг ўқув-услубий мажмуаси Олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-ҳунар таълими ўқув-методик бирлашмалари фаолиятини Мувофиқлаштирувчи кенгашининг 2019 йил 18 октябрдаги 5 – сонли баённомаси билан маъқулланган ўқув дастури ва ўқув режасига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилган.

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O'quv-uslubiy majmua O'zDJTU huzuridagi RIAIM Kengashining 2019 yil **_27.09_**dagi **_9_** sonli qarori bilan tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.

MUNDARIJA

I. ISHCHI DASTUR

Kirish

Dastur O'zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2015 yil 12 iyundagi "Oliy ta'lim muassasalarining rahbar va pedagog kadrlarini qayta tayyorlash va malakasini oshirish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida"gi PF-4732-sonli, 2017 yil 7 fevraldagi "Ozbekiston Respublikasini yanada rivojlantirish bo'yicha Harakatlar strategiyasi to'g'risida"gi PF-4947-sonli, 2019 yil 27 avgustdagi "Oliy ta'lim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining uzluksiz malakasini oshirish tizimini joriy etish to'g'risida"gi PF-5789-sonli Farmonlari, shuningdek 2017 yil 20 apreldagi "Oliy ta'lim tizimini yanada rivojlantirish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida"gi PQ–2909-sonli qarorida belgilangan ustuvor vazifalar mazmunidan kelib chiqqan holda tuzilgan bo'lib, u oliy ta'lim muassasalari pedagog kadrlarining kasb mahorati hamda innovatsion kompetentligini rivojlantirish, sohaga oid ilg'or xorijiy tajribalar, yangi bilim va malakalarni o'zlashtirish, shuningdek amaliyotga joriy etish ko'nikmalarini takomillashtirishni maqsad qiladi.

Dastur mazmuni oliy ta'limning normativ-huquqiy asoslari va qonunchilik normalari, ilg'or ta'lim texnologiyalari va pedagogik mahorat, ta'lim jarayonlarida axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalarini qo'llash, amaliy xorijiy til, tizimli tahlil va qaror qabul qilish asoslari, maxsus fanlar negizida ilmiy va amaliy tadqiqotlar, texnologik taraqqiyot va o'quv jarayonini tashkil etishning zamonaviy uslublari bo'yicha so'nggi yutuqlar, pedagogning kasbiy kompetentligi va kreativligi, global Internet tarmog'i, multimedia tizimlari va masofadan o'qitish usullarini o'zlashtirish bo'yicha bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarini shakllantirishni nazarda tutadi.

Dastur doirasida berilayotgan mavzular ta'lim sohasi bo'yicha pedagog kadrlarni qayta tayyorlash va malakasini oshirish mazmuni, sifati va ularning tayyorgarligiga qo'yiladigan umumiy malaka talablari va o'quv rejalari asosida shakllantirilgan bo'lib, bu orqali oliy ta'lim muassasalari pedagog kadrlarining sohaga oid zamonaviy ta'lim va innovatsiya texnologiyalari, ilg'or xorijiy tajribalardan samarali foydalanish, axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalarini o'quv jarayoniga keng tatbiq etish, chet tillarini intensiv o'zlashtirish darajasini oshirish hisobiga ularning kasb mahoratini, ilmiy

faoliyatini muntazam yuksaltirish, oliy ta'lim muassasalarida o'quv-tarbiya jarayonlarini tashkil etish va boshqarishni tizimli tahlil qilish, shuningdek, pedagogik vaziyatlarda optimal qarorlar qabul qilish bilan bog'liq kompetensiyalarga ega bo'lishlari ta'minlanadi.

Qayta tayyorlash va malaka oshirish yo'nalishining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari hamda dolzarb masalalaridan kelib chiqqan holda dasturda tinglovchilarning maxsus fanlar doirasidagi bilim, ko'nikma, malaka hamda kompetensiyalariga qo'yiladigan talablar o'zgartirilishi mumkin.

Modulning maqsadi va vazifalari

Tilshunoslik fanining asosiy **maqsadi** tilshunoslik fani, uning bo'limlari, o'rganish obekti, boshqa fanlar bilan aloqasi haqida mahlumot berish, talabalarni tilshunoslik fanining asosiy tushunchalari, kategoriyalari haqidagi bilimlar bilan qurollantirish, talabalarda olingan bilimlarni amalda qo'llay olish malakasini shakllantirish kabi vazifalarni hal etishni taqozo qiladi.

Ushbu fanning **vazifalari** til va jamiyat, til tizimi va tuzilishi, uning sathlari, birliklari va ularning namoyon bўlish qonuniyatlari, tilshunoslik fanining boshqa fanlar bilan aloqasi, dunyo tillarining klassifikatsiyasi haqida nazariy bilimlar berishdan iboratdir.

Tinglovchi quyidagi mavzularni o'zlashtirilishi belgilangan:

Tilshunoslik fan sifatida. Nazariy tilshunoslik. Amaliy tilshunoslik. Tilshunoslikning boshqa fanlar bilan aloqasi. Grammatika. Morfologiya. Morfema va uning turlari. Tilning grammatik usullari. Tillarning genetik va morfologik klassifikatsiyasi. Nutq tovushlari tilning tabiiy materiali sifatida nutq faoliyati: Til va nutq, Tillarning grammatik tarkibi. Tillarning grammatik kategoriyalari. So'z turkumlari.

Modul bo'yicha tinglovchilar quyidagi yangi bilim, ko'nikma, malaka hamda kompetensiyalarga ega bo'lishlari talab etiladi:

Tinglovchi:

- tilshunoslik tarixida ro'y bergan paradigmalar siljishi, antropotsentrik paradigma xususiyatlari va uning boshqa paradigmalardan farqli jihatlari;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlari sohalararo fanlar ekanligi va boshqa fanlar bilan chambarchas bog'liqligi va munosabatlari;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlari (Kognitiv lingvistika, Qiyosiy lingvomadaniyatshunoslik, Lingvopragmatika) anhanaviy tilshunoslikdagi fanlardan farqli jihatlari;

- zamonaviy lingvistika yo'nalishlari fanining nazariy va amaliy yutuqlari;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlaridagi turli nazariy qarashlar va yetakchi kontseptsiyalar;

- til ob'ektiv borliq haqidagi bilimlarni aks ettiruvchi vosita ekanligi;

- til bilim olish va saqlash, uni amalda qo'llash va uzatish manbai, tafakkurni va insonning dunyoqarashini shakllantiruvchi vosita ekanligi;

- til turli xil bilim tuzilmalari va milliy-madaniy xarakterga ega bo'lgan mahlumotlarni aks ettiruvchi vosita ekanligi;

- madaniy kontsept, freym, kontseptual dunyo tasviri, lisoniy dunyo tasviri, milliy dunyo tasviri tushunchalari;

- kontseptual sistema va til sistemasi o'rtasidagi munosabatlar; olam va undagi narsalarni kategoriyalash va kontseptuallashtirish jarayonlari;

- o'zga va ona vatan madaniyatidagi lisoniy farqlar, lisoniy va milliy dunyo tasvirlardagi farqlar va o'xshashliklar;

- tildagi milliy-madaniy xususiyatga ega madaniy birliklar; madaniy kodlar, madaniy kompetentsiya tushunchalari;

- kommunikativ-pragmatik strategiyalar va taktikalar, nutq jarayoni va uning turlari, nutqiy kompetentsiya, nutqiy ahloq, nutqiy aktlarning klassifikatsiyasi;

- kommunikativ jarayonining pragmatik effektivligi, konqentsional va nokonventsional implikaturalar, til birliklarining pragmatik jihati;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlari sohasida amalga oshiriladigan ilmiy-tadqiqotlarga qo'yilgan talablar;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarining metodologik printsiplari, zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarida til va tafakkur, til va madaniyat, til va nutq munosabatlariga turli yondashuvlar;

- o'rganilayotgan fanlarning terminologik apparati, qonuniyatlari va asosiy tushunchalari;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarining asosiy tamoyillari va ularning xususiyatlari;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarining asosiy tushunchalari: madaniy birliklar va ularning turlari, nutqiy akt, kontsept va uning turlari, freym nazariyasi va uning tahlili; bilim tuzilmalari, axborot, kategorizatsiya, kontseptualizatsiya,

- kognitsiya, prototip, kontseptual va lisoniy dunyo tasviri; kognitiv metafora, uning turlari va verballashuv xususiyatlari;

- stilistik vosita, kategoriya va hodisalarni o'rganishda lingvokognitiv yondashuv; stilistik kategoriya va hodisalarni o'rganishda lingvokognitiv yondashuv;

- pragmatikadagi kooperatsiya tamoyili, nutqiy akt turlari, pragmatik vazifalar, kommunikativ-pragmatik hodisa, hushmuomalalik tamoyili, nutqiy aktning semantik-pragmatik xususiyatlari haqida **bilimga** ega bo'lishi;

    Tinglovchi:

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlar bo'yicha mavzularni bilish va egallagan nazariy bilimlarini amaliyotda qo'llashni bilishi va ulardan foydalana olishi;

- lisoniy material bilan ishlash;

- muayyan nazariy masalalarga oid fikrlarni bayon etishi, ayni fikrlarga nisbatan tanqidiy munosabatini shakllantirish va ifodalash;

- zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarining asosiy tushunchalariga ilmiy izoh

- bera olishni va ushbu tushunchalarini o'z ilmiy tadqiqotlarida qo'llay olish;

- lisoniy birliklarni tahlil qilish metodlarini (kross-madaniy tahlil,

- kontseptual tahlil, lingvopragmatik tahlil, freym tahlil, kognitiv xarita tuzish) bilish va ularni amaliyotda qo'llash;

- til birliklari kognitiv va madaniy tahlilini boshqa yondashuvlardan

- (struktural, generativ, semantik) farqli jihatlarini qiyosiy tahlil qilish;

- til birliklarda aks ettirilgan milliy dunyo tasvirini ifoda etuvchi milliy- madaniy bo'yoqdor lisoniy birliklarni ajratish kabi tarjimada noyob so'zlarni qo'llash *ko'nikmasiga* ega bo'lishi kerak.

Tinglovchi:

- tilshunoslikningt nazariy aspektlarini sharhlash;

- tilshunoslik manbalari bilan ishlash;

- tilshunoslik vositalarini tilshunoslik nuqtayi nazaridan tahlil qilish;

- tilshunoslik tadqiqiga yangi ma'lumotlarni kiritish;

- chet tilini o'qitishning xorijiy metodikasi tajribasini tahliliy o'rganish, umumlashtirish, ularning yutuqlaridan ta'lim jarayonida foydalanish;

- kommunikativ kompetensiyani aniqlash xususiyatlariga mos nazorat metodini tanlash;

- testlarning kommunikativ kompetensiya darajasini aniqlash, test tuzish, uning sifat va samaradorligini aniqlash mezonlari bilish;

- test natijalarini aniqlash va baholash mezonlarini ishlab chiqish va ta'limga joriy etish *kompetensiyalariga* ega bo'lishi zarur.

<div align="center">

Modulni tashkil etish va o'tkazish bo'yicha tavsiyalar

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" Tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi" kursi nazariy va amaliy mashg'ulotlar shaklida olib boriladi. Kursni o'qitish jarayonida ta'limning zamonaviy metodlari, axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalari qo'llanilishi nazarda tutilgan:

- darslarda zamonaviy kompyuter texnologiyalari yordamida prezentatsion va elektron-didaktik texnologiyalardan;

- o'tkaziladigan amaliy mashg'ulotlarda texnik vositalardan, ekspress-so'rovlar, test so'rovlari, aqliy hujum, guruhli fikrlash, kichik guruhlar bilan ishlash, kollokvium o'tkazish, va boshqa interaktiv ta'lim usullarini qo'llash nazarda tutiladi.

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Modulning o'quv rejadagi boshqa modullar bilan bog'liqligi va uzviyligi

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"Tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi" moduli mazmuni o'quv rejadagi diskurs tahlili o'quv moduli bilan uzviy bog'langan holda pedagoglarning til ko'nikmalarini talab darajasida qo'llay olish malakasini orttirishga xizmat qiladi.

Modulning oliy ta'limdagi o'rni

Modulni o'zlashtirish orqali tinglovchilar til ko'nikmalarini mos ravishda amalda qo'llash malakasi va kasbiy salohiyatlarini rivojlantiradilar.

Modul bo'yicha soatlar taqsimoti

№	Modul mavzulari	Tinglovchining o'quv yuklamasi, soat			
		Auditoriya o'quv yuklamasi			Mustaqil ta'lim
		Jami	jumladan		
			Nazariy	Amaliy mashg'ulot	
1.	Tillarning genetik va morfologik klassifikatsiyasi	2	2		
2.	Nutq faoliyati: Til va nutq	2	2		
3.	Tillarning grammatik tarkibi	2		2	
4.	Tillarning grammatik kategoriyalari	2		2	
5.	So'z turkumlari	2		2	
	Жами	**10**	**4**	**6**	

O'QUV MATERIALLAR MAZMUNI

1. Mavzu: Tilshunoslikning nazariy masalalari, tilshunoslik tarixi. Lingvistik maktablar va ular tomonidan yaratilgan tahlimotlar mohiyati. Tillarning genetik va morfologik klassifikatsiyasi. Tillarning genealogik tasnifi. Tillarning tipologik (morfologik) tasnifi.

2. Mavzu: Tilning vazifasi. Til va nutq. Nutq tovushlari tilning tabiiy materiali sifatida. Nutq tovushlarining akustikasi va artikulyatsiyasi. Nutq tovushlarining o'zgarishi. Reduktsiya. Nutq tovushlarining pozitsion va kombinator o'zgarishlari. Fonema tushunchasi va uning tovushdan farqi.

3. Mavzu: Tillarning Grammatik tarkibi. So'zning morfologik va etimologik tarkibi. Tovush almashishlari va ichki fleksiya. Takror (reduplikatsiya). So'z qo'shilishi. Gapda so'z tartibi. Urg'u ko'chirish. Yordamchi so'zlar. Ohang. Suppletivizm.

Tillarning sintetik va analitik qurilishi.

4. Mavzu: Grammatik kategoriyalar.

5. Mavzu: So'z turkumlari. Sintaksis. Tilning sintaktik birliklari. Sodda gap tarkibida sintagmalar. Gap. Gap turlari. Gap bo'laklari. So'z birikmalari va ularning bog'lanish usullari. Gapning aktual bo'linishi.
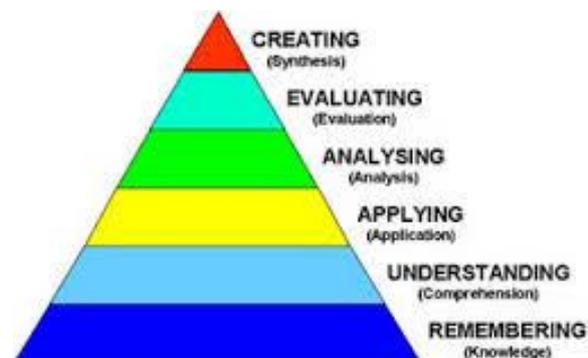
O'qitish shakllari

Mazkur modul bo'yicha quyidagi o'qitish shakllaridan foydalaniladi:

✓ noan'anaviy o'qitish (interaktiv, konferensiya, debat);

✓ davra suhbatlari (muhokama etilayotgan muammo va uning yechimi bo'yicha mantiqiy xulosalar chiqarish);

bahs va munozaralar (loyihalar yechimi bo'yicha dalillar va asosli raqamlar taqdim qilish, eshitish va muammolar yechimini topish qobiliyatini rivojlantirish).

II.MODULNI O'QITISHDA FOYDALANILADIGAN INTERFAOL TA'LIM METODLARI

Bloom's taxonomy

"Taxonomy" simply means "classification", so the well-known taxonomy of learning objectives is an attempt (within the behavioural paradigm) to classify forms and levels of learning. It identifies three "domains" of learning (see below), each of which is organised as a series of levels or pre-requisites. It is suggested that one cannot effectively — or ought not try to — address higher levels until those below them have been covered (it is thus effectively serial in structure).

Knowledge (list, define, tell, describe, identify, show, label, collect, examine, tabulate, quote, name, who, when, where, etc.)	➢ observation and recall of information ➢ knowledge of dates, events, places ➢ knowledge of major ideas ➢ mastery of subject matter
Comprehension (summarize, describe, interpret, contrast, predict, associate, distinguish, estimate, differentiate, discuss, extend)	➢ understanding information ➢ grasp meaning ➢ translate knowledge into new context ➢ interpret facts, compare, contrast ➢ order, group, infer causes ➢ predict consequences
Application (apply, demonstrate, calculate, complete, illustrate, show, solve, examine, modify, relate, change, classify, experiment, discover)	➢ use information ➢ use methods, concepts, theories in new situations ➢ solve problems using required skills or knowledge
Analysis	➢ seeing patterns

(analyze, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, explain, infer)	➤ organization of parts ➤ recognition of hidden meanings ➤ identification of components
Synthesis (combine, integrate, modify, rearrange, substitute, plan, create, design, invent, what if?, compose, formulate, prepare, generalize, rewrite)	➤ use old ideas to create new ones ➤ generalize from given facts ➤ relate knowledge from several areas ➤ predict, draw conclusions
Evaluation (assess, decide, rank, grade, test, measure, recommend, convince, select, judge, explain, discriminate, support, conclude, compare, summarize)	➤ compare and discriminate between ideas ➤ assess value of theories, presentations ➤ make choices based on reasoned argument ➤ verify value of evidence ➤ recognize subjectivity

Case-Based Learning

Teaching Methods for Case Studies
Introduction

Case method is a powerful student-centered teaching strategy that can impart students with critical thinking, communication, and interpersonal skills.

Case method is also effective at developing real world, professional skills. Working on case studies requires good organizational and time management skills. Case method increases student proficiency with written and oral communication, as well as collaboration and team-work. "Case studies force students into real-life situations," training them in managerial skills such as "holding a meeting, negotiating a contract, giving a presentation, etc" (Daly, 2002).

Getting Started

Setting goals/objectives before choosing a case, it's important to set your goals for the lesson. Have a clear set of objectives and "be sure you know what you want to accomplish in the case, what facts, principles, and viewpoints the students should cover" (Herreid, 1998).

Picking a case "The most powerful and interesting cases are those that allow for several assessments of the same situation, leading to several equally plausible and compelling conclusions, each with different implications for action" (Angelo & Boehrer).

Be prepared

Know all the issues involved in the case, prepare questions and prompts in advance, and anticipate where students might run into problems" (Carnegie Mellon). Within the case "where is the debate? You need to frame the fighting issues, because that's where the action is" (Garvin, 2004). Get some sense of the timing. A big danger is over packing classes and then shortchanging the material. Break the material into segments, get a sense of how long each debate is likely to last, and determine which issues can be removed or made optional. "You have to be able to flatten or shorten the accordion on segments of class" as needed. Set two or three targets marking when you should be at a certain point in the discussion so you know when to compress and when to fill in the material (Garvin, 2004).

Prepare your students Students may be unfamiliar with the case method or may be predisposed to distrust group work. They need to know exactly what is expected of them in order to be successful in class. To avoid causing frustration, consider the following tips:

1. Start with a simple case first
2. Discuss the purpose and suggested methods for doing a case assignment
3. If cases are done in a team, introduce students to resources for team dynamics
4. Allow sufficient class time for students to meet with their teams
5. Establish discussion etiquette guidelines
6. Take sufficient time to introduce the narrative and establish the case facts
7. Reassure students that "messiness" is normal for this type of assignment
8. Make sure you give students an opportunity to provide their reactions and feedback (Pyatt, 2006)

If there are specialized skills or knowledge needed to complete the case analysis, go over this with the class. "Provide background resources for the case study, including supplementary readings and the necessary data to form an opinion" (University of Calgary). Spend some time at the beginning familiarizing students with specialized terminology or the expected formats for professional documents (Daly, 2002).

Get to know your students For case method to be successful, you must be familiar with your students. "Link the material with the people who are there. Who's been an entrepreneur? Who's worked in a large technology company?" Have students fill out cards listing their educational backgrounds, work histories, and interests. Review these cards before each class and make a list of four or five students in each class who are most likely to contribute something to the discussion (Garvin, 2004).

It's also important for students to get to know and trust one another. If students don't consider the classroom a safe space, they won't contribute to the discussion. Help them get acquainted with name tags or cards for their desks (Herreid, 2001). A positive atmosphere can be created by setting out ground rules for participation. "Emphasize that

the analysis will be a group project, and that no one will be criticized for raising naïve questions or uncertainties… and that everyone is required to actively work together on the analysis… Without a clear sense that they are free to experiment with hypotheses, students will tend to remain silent until they feel that the 'right'answer has been identified" (Stanford University).

Discussions In his analysis of case discussion, C. Roland Christensen argues that student involvement develops on at least three distinct levels:

"At the first level, students explore a problem by sorting out relevant facts, developing logical conclusions, and presenting them to fellow students and the instructor. The students discuss someone else's problem; their role is that of the commentator-observer in a traditional academic sense. On the second level, students can be assigned roles in the case, and take on perspectives that require them to argue for specific actions from a character's point of view, given their interests and knowledge. Finally, on the third level, students will take the initiative to become fully involved, so that topics are no longer treated as abstract ideas, but become central to the student's sense of self—of what they would choose to do in a specific real world situation." (Stanford University)

Leading the discussion. A basic framework for a case-based discussion can be broken down into six steps:

1. Give students ample time to read and think about the case. If the case is long, assign it as homework with a set of questions for students to consider.

2. Introduce the case briefly and provide some guidelines for how to approach it. Clarify how you want students to think about the case. Break down the steps you want students to take in analyzing the case. If you would like students to disregard or focus on certain information, specify that as well.

3. Create groups and monitor them to make sure everyone is involved. Small groups can drift off track if you do not provide structure. You may want to designate roles within each group. Alternatively, group members could be assigned broad perspectives to represent, or asked to speak for the various stake-holders in the case study.

4. Have groups present their solutions/reasoning

5. Ask questions for clarification and to move the discussion to another level

6. Synthesize issues raised (Carnegie Mellon)

Classroom setup

If it's possible to change the seating arrangement in your classroom, "a horseshoe-shaped seating arrangement works best. The open part of the U should face the blackboard… This arrangement permits all of the students to see one another… You don't always have to be in the center of the horseshoe. You can move out of the U altogether" when the students are talking to each other. Use the blackboard to bring the discussion together. Writing comments on the board is a way to engage students, showing them that they've been heard. Drawing circles, arrows, and underlines to connect these comments

is a way to link fragments of discussion into a summary of what's been said (Garvin, 2004).

Asking questions The first question is important for setting the right tone for the rest of the discussion. Start with an open-ended inquiry. "If you start with a question that is too obtuse, too formidable, or looks like a trick question, no one will answer… The best opening questions are open ended, where there are multiple reasonable answers, or where the question is neutral and simple to answer." Hold back from engaging with controversial or emotional material until all the facts have been established and put into context. If you start off on a fighting issue, "there is a good change that the facts will get lost in the barrage of attacks and counterattacks that ensue" (Herreid, 2001). As the discussion gets going, it's important to listen and plan follow up questions carefully. Professor David Garvin suggests listening at four levels: "I listen for content. I listen for what is said, and how it tracks with the analysis we need to get done. The second thing I listen for is how things are said. There are always emotional undercurrents. Sometimes the voice is tentative. Sometimes the voice is very strong. Sometimes there's a lack of energy in the comments. Sometimes there's tremendous dynamism in the debate. So I'm listening for that particularly so that, when we hit an emotional current, we can ride it. That's where the class tends to take off. The third thing I'm listening for is almost a contradiction in terms. I'm listening for what is left unsaid. Take, for instance, a case which has ethical implications. Students are often very uncomfortable raising the ethical issues. If I go for ten, fifteen, twenty minutes in the heart of a discussion, and people are avoiding that point, I'll raise it. And then the fourth thing you listen for, and this one is tricky, is you listen for disconnects. When somebody says X, and somebody comes back with a response that doesn't quite meet them, there is a lack of correspondence somehow. They either didn't get it or they didn't quite take it in and fully understand it. In order to engage the debate they have to be on the same wavelength" (Garvin, 2004).

The kinds of questions you ask will control the kind of debate that follows. Potential techniques include:

1. Delay the problem-solving part until the rest of the discussion has had time to develop. Start with expository questions to clarify the facts, then move to analysis, and finally to evaluation, judgment, and recommendations.

2. Shift points of view: "Now that we've seen it from W's standpoint, what's happening here from Y's standpoint? What evidence would support Y's position? What are the dynamics between the two positions?"

3. Shift levels of abstraction: if the answer to the question above is "It's just a bad situation for her," quotations help: When Y says "_____," what are her assumptions? Or seek more concrete explanations: Why does she hold this point of view?"

4. Ask for benefits/disadvantages of a position; for all sides.

5. Shift time frame—not just to "What's next?" but also to "How could this situation have been different?"

What could have been done earlier to head off this conflict and turn it into a productive conversation? Is it too late to fix this?

What are possible leverage points for a more productive discussion?

What good can come of the existing situation?

6. **Shift to another context**: We see how a person who thinks X would see the situation. How would a person who thinks Y see it? We see what happened in the Johannesburg news, how could this be handled in [your town/province]? How might [insert person,organization] address this problem?

7. Follow-up questions:

"What do you mean by ___?" Or, "Could you clarify what you said about ___?" (even if it was a pretty clear statement—this gives students time for thinking, developing different views, and exploration in more depth). Or "How would you square that observation with what [name of person] pointed out?"

8. Point out and acknowledge differences in discussion—"that's an interesting difference from what Sam just said, Sarah. Let's look at where the differences lie." (let sides clarify their points before moving on). (na University)

Transitions

Moving the class seamlessly from one section of the discussion to the next can be a challenge. By developing a system of clear signals and using them consistently, the students will learn to follow your lead. One way of signaling a transition is to change blackboards when you want to move to a new topic. Use the physical space of the classroom, standing to the side when leading a discussion between students and then coming to the center of the room when it's time to bring the attention back to you. Finally, summarize the important points at the end of each segment, this will both help change the topic to the next section as well as help make it easier to bring everything together at the end of class.

Classroom Activities Beyond discussion and small group work, there are a number of techniques that can be used to enhance case method.

1. Role-play

When picking students for role-play, try to consider their backgrounds and pick students who either fully identify with the role or are on the exact opposite end of the spectrum. Pick students who have participated before, as they will be likely to enliven the discussion. Finally, pick students across the room from each other so that their dialogue will bring the students sitting in between into it, rather than shutting them out.

2. Take a vote

A vote requires students to publically commit to their positions, engaging them with the discussion and making them more likely to argue for their side. It will also give you

a sense of where the class stands on the debate. If the vast majority of the class stands on one side, you'll know to back up the minority so they don't feel overwhelmed and stop participating, shutting down the debate.

3. Have students write their own case studies

"In order to construct a plausible case study, they will research facts, consider various angles of an issue, and have greater engagement in the course" (University of Calgary).

4. Divide the case into parts

Break the students into groups and assign each group a different aspect of the study. Have them present their findings to the other groups. "Remind students that they do not have all the information they need to solve the case but based on the information available, they can make recommendations and come to preliminary decisions," something they will have to be able to do in real life business situations (Daly, 2002).

5. Message boards

Have the students continue the discussion on a message board within Blackboard, on a class blog, or using Twitter. This will give them room to reflect on their positions, and allow you to track their discussions over time (Pyatt, 2006).

Evaluation Each time you include a new case in a course, it's important to assess what the students have learned, and if there are ways to make it better. If you're new to teaching case studies or if you want to switch up your method, only try one or two new techniques at a time, then evaluate again (Garvin, 2004).

It can be difficult to see the success or failures of case method right away, but there are some ways to track if a particular case is having positive outcomes. During the course, judge if the students are making substantive headway into the material without having to be led by the hand.

Are they engaged with the issues and enthusiastic about the discussion? In subsequent classes, assignments, and exams, are they applying what they learned in the original discussion?
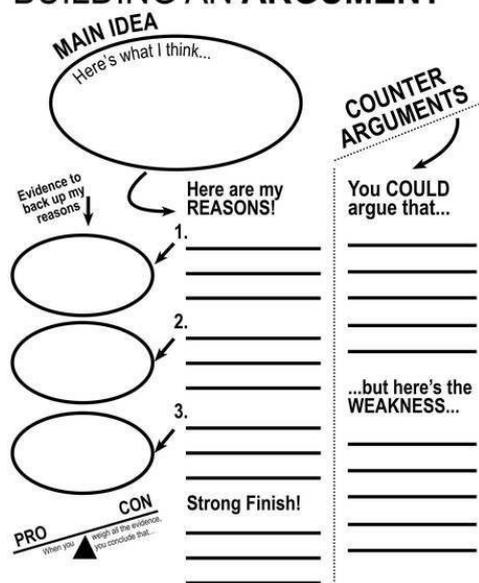
Having students complete assignments based on the case study will not only engage them with the material, but will help you determine their progress. Potential assignments include a summary of the issues, a position paper, a concept map, a reflection paper, or a research paper exploring further aspects of the case (University of Calgary).

Based on student responses, you can judge if the case needs to be "developed further, or whether more background information can or should be provided" in the future (Stanford University).

The method of debats in teaching English

Debate is an excellent activity for language learning because it engages students in a variety of cognitive and linguistic ways. The purpose of this paper is to elaborate upon this point by providing a step-by-step guide that will give teachers everything they need to know for conducting debate in an English class.

BUILDING AN ARGUMENT

MAIN IDEA
Here's what I think...

COUNTER ARGUMENTS

Evidence to back up my reasons

Here are my REASONS!

You COULD argue that...

1.

2.

...but here's the WEAKNESS...

3.

Strong Finish!

PRO   CON
When you weigh all the evidence, you conclude that...

So, why debate? In addition to providing meaningful listening, speaking and writing practice, debate is also highly effective for developing argumentation skills for persuasive speech and writing. Davidson (1996) wrote that "with practice, many students show obvious progress in their ability to express and defend ideas in debate [and] they often quickly recognize the flaws in each other's arguments." Nisbett (2003) declares: "Debate is an important educational tool for learning analytic thinking skills and for forcing self-conscious reflection on the validity of one's ideas (210)." Fukuda (2003), in a debate study conducted with Japanese students, found that "before the debates only 30.8% of the students were not afraid of expressing their opinions when they were not the same as others'. After the debate this figure rose to 56.7%." He went on to say that "the knowledge or skills which came from the practice in the debates led the students to become more accustomed to expressing opinions." This suggests that, although debate is quite challenging, non-native speakers can develop the debating skills which are described in this paper. The following unit can be adapted to suit a variety of teaching contexts. I have been refining it while teaching a weekly 90 minute debate class.

Class One: Introduction to Debate

1. Basic Terms

- **Debate:** a game in which two opposing teams make speeches to support their arguments and disagree with those of the other team.
- **Resolution:** the opinion about which two teams argue.
- **Affirmative team:** agrees with the resolution.
- **Negative team:** disagrees with the resolution.
- **Rebuttal:** explains why one team disagrees with the other team.
- **Judges:** decide the winner.

2. Opinions and Reasons

- A resolution is an opinion about which there can be valid disagreement. The students either agree or disagree with the resolution regardless of what they personally believe. An opinion can be introduced by an **opinion indicator**:
  - **"I think/believe that** smoking should be banned in public places..."

A reason explains why that opinion is held and can be introduced by **a reason indicator:**
  - **"...because/since** secondhand smoke is harmful for nonsmokers."

3. Strong Reasons Versus Weak Reasons:

- According to LeBeau, Harrington, Lubetsky (2000), a strong reason has the following qualities:
  - it logically supports the opinion.
  - it is specific and states the idea clearly.
  - it is convincing to a majority of people.

To give examples of strong reasons versus weak reasons, the teacher can develop a multiple-choice exercise such as the following:
- Smoking should be banned in public places because:
  - it is bad.
  - it gives people bad breath and makes their teeth yellow.
  - secondhand smoke is harmful for nonsmokers.

The students ought to explain why some reasons are strong and others are weak based on the above criteria.

In pairs, have students practice generating reasons for opinions. The resolutions/opinions can be generated by the students (as the four resolutions listed below), the teacher, or taken from the following online debate resource, which offers resolutions, reasons and debating tips:

One Debate Structure

- Speech 1: **first affirmative speaker** introduces the topic and states the affirmative team's first argument.

- Speech 2: **first negative speaker** states their first argument.

- Speech 3: **second affirmative speaker** states their second argument.

- Speech 4: **second negative speaker** states their second argument.

- Give a 5-10 minute break for each team to prepare their rebuttal speech.

- Speech 5: **negative team** states **two rebuttals** for the affirmative team's two arguments and summarizes their own two reasons.

- Speech 6: **affirmative team** states **two rebuttals** for the negative team's two arguments and summarizes their own two reasons.

Part 1: With Your Partner, Think of at Least One Strong Reason for Each Resolution

1. Women should quit their job after they get married.

REASON:

2. Love is more important than money.

REASON:

3. It is better to be married than single.

REASON:

4. Writing by hand is better than writing by computer.

REASON:

Part 2: Now Compare Your Reasons with Another Pair and Decide Whose Reasons are Stronger and Why

4. Ways to State Reasons: Review the Following for Linguistic Scaffolding

- Comparison: X is _____ er than Y. OR: X is more _____ than Y.
- Cause-and-effect: X causes Y. OR: If you do X, then Y will happen.

5. Generating Resolutions: The Students Generate Their Own Resolutions

- Explain that issues about which people are likely to disagree work best for debate. They can be controversial: the death penalty should be banned; or less divisive: love is more important than money.

- For homework or in class, the students brainstorm a list of resolutions. Students can get their ideas from topics discussed or read about in class or topics which interest them personally. Then the students hand in their list of resolutions and the teacher selects the most suitable ones which the students later choose from.

Bulletin Board Ideas in teaching English
Wall of Shame - A Character Building Adventure

Give your students a lesson on finding news articles and have them contribute to a wall of shame. Keywords can be "crime, arrest, teens, plagiarism, cheating, etc" Spot-check a few of the keywords to insure that the scandelous articles which are returned are not X-rated. Here's an article to jump-start the conversation: (What was he thinking?!) Believe it or not, some kids don't believe they'll get "caught." And, some students dont' believe something is wrong unless they are caught. ----You can even post a Bill of Rights and ask the students to synthesize whether any of these articles relate to the Bill of Rights.

1. **Wall of Fame** - This needs to be placed Juxtapose to the Wall of Shame to spotlight the two ends of the spectrum. An essential question such as, "Which wall do you want to end up on?" will bring the message home.

2. **Rich Words to Impress Your Friends** - Have students contribute vocabulary words from books that they have read. Don't leave all the work for yourself. When you ask for student contributions, they "own" the space and it validates their learning process.

3. **Read Around the World -** Place a world map up on the bulletin board and ask students to "Pin" where the setting of their book is. Tell them that you'd like to get "around the world in 80 days" or some goal such as that.

4. **What'z Happenin?** - Place a world map up and ask students to post headlines from around the world. Once again, this builds a 21st Century frame of reference and places perspective on their community. Once again the Bill of Rights may prove to be a good "conversation piece" in discussing world news. Would this be happening in the USA?

1. LECTURE: ENGLISH IN THE SYSTEM OF GENETIC AND MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. Introduction.

2. The genetic typology of languages

3. The morphological classification of languages

Keywords: Classification, typology, genetic, morphological, language family, Indo-European.

This topic covers a particular aspect of general linguistics with a strong emphasis on practical activities of students of higher educational institutions who have chosen the profession of foreign language teachers.

In both types of language typology, i.e. in genetic/genealogical and morphological classification of languages, special attention will be given to the English Language which is the lingua franca (auxiliary language), a language that is used internationally for communication between different ethnic groups.

The teachers of English will have to know how the human languages work, in which ways they are alike and in which ways they are different, how languages and their relatives have spread across the world. Which is the subject matter of genetic / genealogical classification of languages.

The initial scientific attempts to define the history of languages were made at the beginning of the 19th century. Linguists started comparing languages in a detailed systematic way to prove a historical relationship, to find correspondences between them which would prove that they have developed from a common source. The first evidence of a common origin was Latin. The widespread European languages like Spanish, Italian, French and some other Romanic languages proved to have descended from this common source. In the same way other groups of Indo-European family of languages have been established. In such a way was other language families and their branches have been revealed.
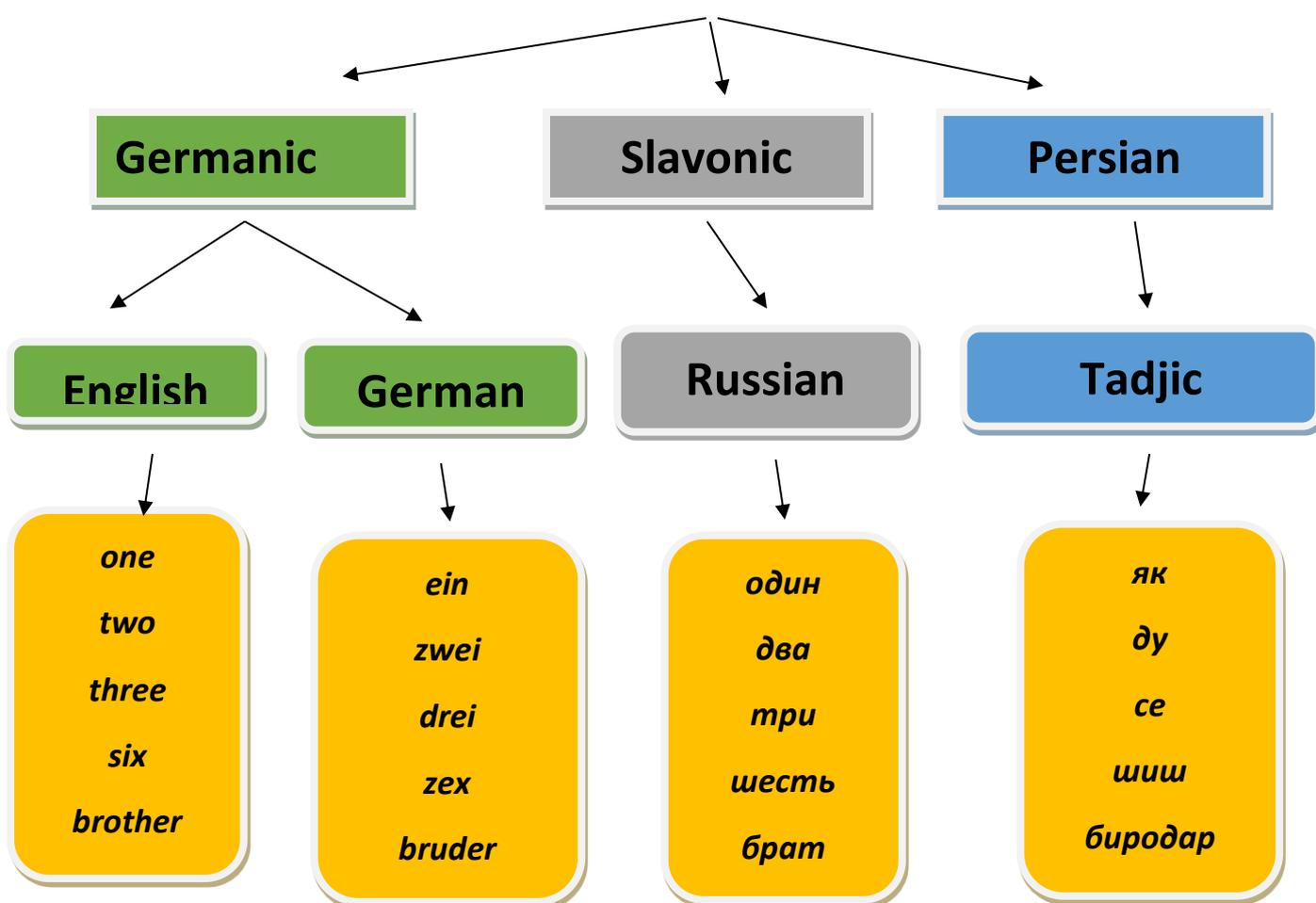
In the morphological classification the languages are compared from the point of view of their grammatical structure, grammatical peculiarities.

THE GENETIC TYPOLOGY OF LANGUAGES

The genetic classification or typology deals with the origin of languages. There are many languages in the world which relate to many language families. No one so far could define the exact number of languages and language families. But the widest spread language families are Indo – European, Chinese – Tibetan, Turkic, Semitic and others.

The biggest language family is the Indo – European family of languages. They have descended from a language which is generally thought to have been spoken by tribes many centuries ago. So far no one knows where the initial tribes of this language lived. There are some ideas but the last one is: that they lived somewhere to the east of Europe and in the territory of Iraq (Ivanov, Rteveladze, 1996). In the course of time they split up and some moved westword to Europe, others moved towards Asia, towards India. Their languages changed and became different from one-another, though they kept words and ways of using them which had been passed from the original Indo-European mother language. Some tribes became particularly powerful which stretched over the Europe, including the British Isles. Today there are more than ten widespread Indo-European groups of languages, some of them are: Slavonic/Slavic, Romance, Germanic, Indian, Persian, Baltic and others which are descended from Proto-Indo-European language, which may also be called as a source language. Modern English is one of the Germanic group of Indo-European family of languages. Nowadays it is not difficult to prove that the mentioned languages are related to each other. Compare the examples given below:

Indo – European Family of languages

Germanic	Slavonic	Persian

English	German	Russian	Tadjic

one	ein	один	як
two	zwei	два	ду
three	drei	три	се
six	zex	шесть	шиш
brother	bruder	брат	биродар

There`s no doubt that above – mentioned words have common root

Some words about the Uzbek language. Uzbek is said to be a Turkic language. In modern linguistics there are two different approaches in classifying Turkic languages. Some linguists use the "term" "Turkic" while others use the term Altaic. Those who use the term "Turkic family" they keep in mind the languages like Uzbek, Turkish, Kazakh, Kirghiz, Tatar, Uyghur, Azari, Yakut and some others while those who use the term "Altaic" family they include the languages like Japanese, Mongolian and Korean too. The languages that are included into the Turkic family are very similar both from the point of view of vocabulary and grammar. But it is not that easy to prove that Japanese is related to Uzbek, Turkish, Turkmen and other Turkic languages. The similarity may be observed in the grammatical structure which maybe said to be an agglutinating language but so far

as to the vocabulary much has to be proved. There are some words like "uchi" and "soto" which may be related to Turkic languages, compare:

"uchi" (Japanese) – "ichi" (Uzbek) both of which are translated as "inside". "Soto" (Japanese) – "satkhi" (Uzbek) – "outside". Since initial Turkic tribes lived in Siberia there`s no doubt that some of them moved to the territory of Japan, Korea & Mongolia which are much closer than Central Asia, the territory of Turkey.

THE MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION
OF LANGUAGES

As has been mentioned the morphological classification of languages deals with the grammatical structure of world languages. There are two different approaches in this respect:

- European approach
- American approach

Both approaches classify languages from the point of view of their grammatical structure.

In the European approach languages of the world are grouped into four subtypes:

- Flectional type of languages
- Agglutinative type of languages
- Isolating languages
- Polysynthetic languages

In contemporary linguistics one can find different approaches to this classification.

The most widespread opinion to the mentioned types of languages are as follows:

European Approach to the Morphological

Classification of languages

Flectional   **Agglutinative**   **Isolating**   **Polysynthetic**

Synthetic   **Analytical**
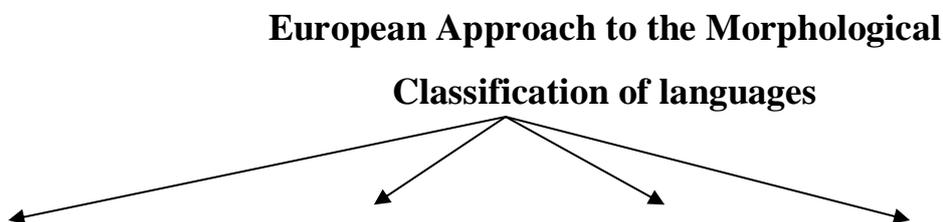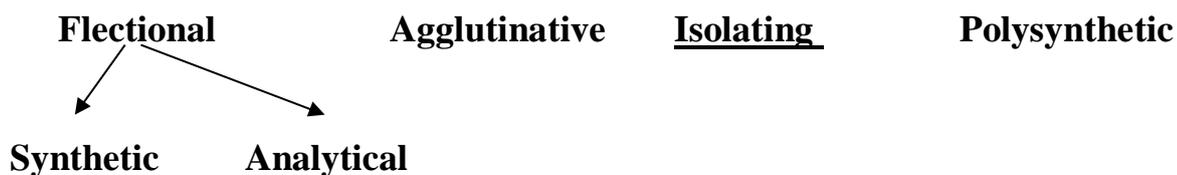
Flectional (there are other terms like inflecting, fusional) languages to connect words in sentences most often use, grammatical inflections. The European linguists divide the flectional languages into two subtypes: flectional synthetic and flectional analytical languages.

The flectional –synthetic languages are rich in grammatical inflections which are of primary importance in connecting words in sentences and due to this feature these languages have relatively free order of words. All the Slavonic and Semitic languages are said to be flectional- synthetic languages. In the following sentence of the Russian language the speaker is free to change the order of words.

- Он читает книгу.

- Он книгу читает.

- Книгу он читает.

- Книгу читает он.

- Читает он книгу.

- Читает книгу он.

All these sentences are grammatically correct though logically there may be some difference. These languages widely use prefixes, infixes and postfixes.

The flectional analytical languages have relatively less grammatical inflections. English is one of such languages. Usually in such languages the order of words is of primary importance. When speaking about the grammatical structure of this type of languages all other grammatical means come after the order of words. The Russian sentence mentioned above is translated into English: He reads a book. But one cannot change the order of words.

There are other opinions about the flectional languages. Some specialists think that a language in which the form of a word changes to show a change in meaning of

grammatical function often there is no clear distinction between the basic part of the word and the part which shows a grammatical function such as number or tense. For example:

mice = mouse + plural

came = come + past tense (Fromkin and Rodman 1983)

Agglutinating or agglutinative languages are morphological type of languages in which words in sentences are mostly combined by the help of grammatical inflections. These languages also have many grammatical inflections. But these means differ greatly from the grammatical inflections of the flectional languages.

In the agglutinative type of languages one grammatical inflection expresses most often one grammatical meaning. All the Turkic languages are said to be agglutinative type of language. Compare the following examples:

Мен шошяпман (Uzbek).   Я спешу (Russian).

The predicates in both languages express the following grammatical meanings: The first person, the present tense and the singular number. But in the Russian language all these grammatical meanings are expressed by the inflection "-y" while in the Uzbek language each of these grammatical meanings have their own grammatical means to express them. Compare:

Russian   Uzbek

- y   → the present tense   - яп
         → the first person   - м
         → the singular number   - ан

It is very important to point out that in the Uzbek language one has to follow or to keep to the succession of the grammatical inflections in speech.

In the isolating languages word forms do not change which means that these languages do not have grammatical inflections. They have three grammatical means: tone, functional words and word order. One and the same word may be pronounced by

four different tones which will express both lexical and grammatical meanings of the word. Functional words are characteristic to all the languages. Absence or lack of grammatical inflections presupposes the existence of other grammatical means. Chinese – Tibetan languages are said to be isolating.

In the polysynthetic languages all the language elements that participate in sentences are written together or by means of dash. Compare the following three examples from three different polysynthetic languages:

Wametulipa ("They have paid us") the Swahili language

in which wa (they) + me (perfective marker) + tu (us) + lipa (pay).

Another example from an American Indian language:

Inialudam – I came to give it to her.

In an Australian Aborigine language, the word – sentence

Kenguru means "I do not understand you".

Finalizing the morphological classification of world languages, we cannot but mention that because of this type of classification the linguistic science developed such branches of linguistics as language typology and language universals. The structural features that all or the most language have in common are called language universals. The differences in the structural features of languages are the subject-matter of typology. It is worth mentioning that both approaches are actually complementary, though sometimes they are associated with different theoretical conceptions of linguistics.

Discussion questions:

1. What is the most reliable language means that helps to define the genealogical identity of languages: phonetic, lexical or grammatical means, spelling of words?

2. What`s the reason of splitting of tribes referring to the same family?

3. What is the reason of language changes that have developed from the same source language?

4. Why languages borrow words from other languages?

5. What do you understand when you hear others say that languages are still on the move?

6. What can you say about the equality of languages? Try to prove your arguments by examples.

7. The morphological classification of languages: what is the reason of using the term "morphological?".

8. What are the intensions of linguists when they classify world languages from the point of view of their grammatical structure?

9. The trainees will have to explain the difference between English and their students` mothertongue. Those who know other languages but English, Uzbek, Russian will have to try to compare those languages with English.

10. What are the characteristic features of flectional languages?

11. What`s the difference between flectional–synthetic and flectional analytical languages?

12. What is the main difference between flectional and agglutinating/agglutinative languages? Are there any common features between them?

13. What can you say about similarities and differences in the field of word-order between the two mentioned types of languages?

14. What type of languages refer to Isolating ones? What are the most important grammatical features of this type of languages?

15. What can you say about Polysynthetic type of languages? Is there any similarity between agglutinating and polysynthetic types of languages?

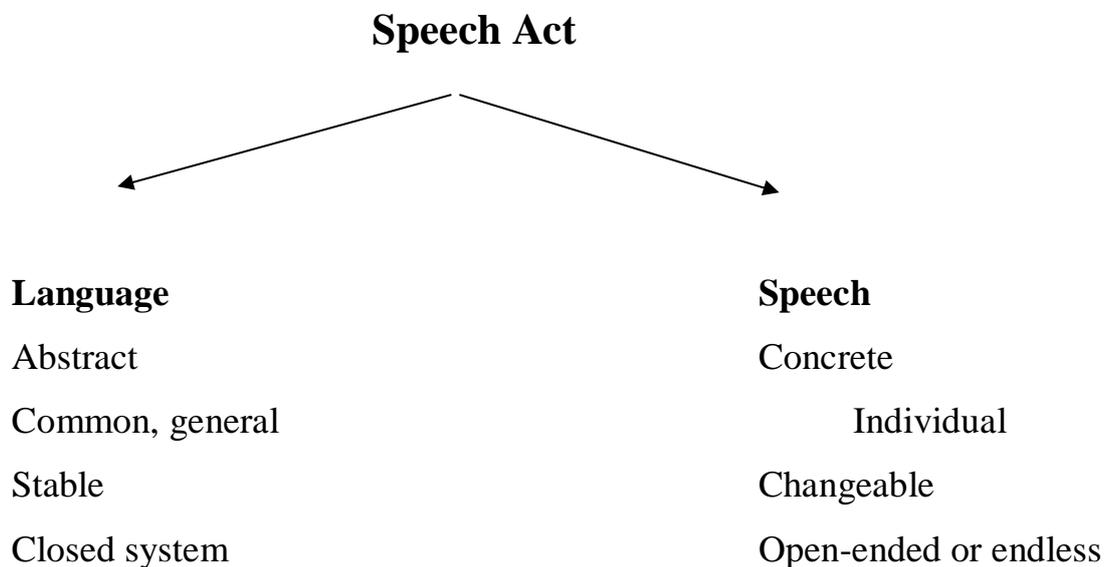## 2. LECTURE: SPEECH ACT: LANGUAGE AND SPEECH. THEIR LEVELS AND UNITS

Key questions:
- Speech Act and its components.
- Language and speech. Their peculiar features.
- Language and speech levels and their units.

- Definitions of language and speech units.

Speech act is a term which includes in itself "language" and "speech". This approach was initiated by a French Linguist F. de Saussure. Speech act consists of language (or "langue" in French) and speech (or "parole" in French). He defines language as the arrangement of sounds, words and grammar which speakers of a language have a shared knowledge while speech (parole) is the actual use of language by people. This approach is similar to N. Chomsky`s distinction between competence and performance.

Thus, speech act consists of language and speech. Today when speaking about speech act we keep to the conception that these two linguistic phenomena have their own characteristic features which may be described in the following table:

Speech Act

Language	Speech
Abstract	Concrete
Common, general	Individual
Stable	Changeable
Closed system	Open-ended or endless

So, the main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;

2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;

3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;

4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of

"language levels" are substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "etic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably, i.e. "Language level" means "emic level" and "speech level" is "etic level".

LANGUAGE AND SPEECH LEVELS
AND THEIR UNITS

Both language and speech are divided into certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level.
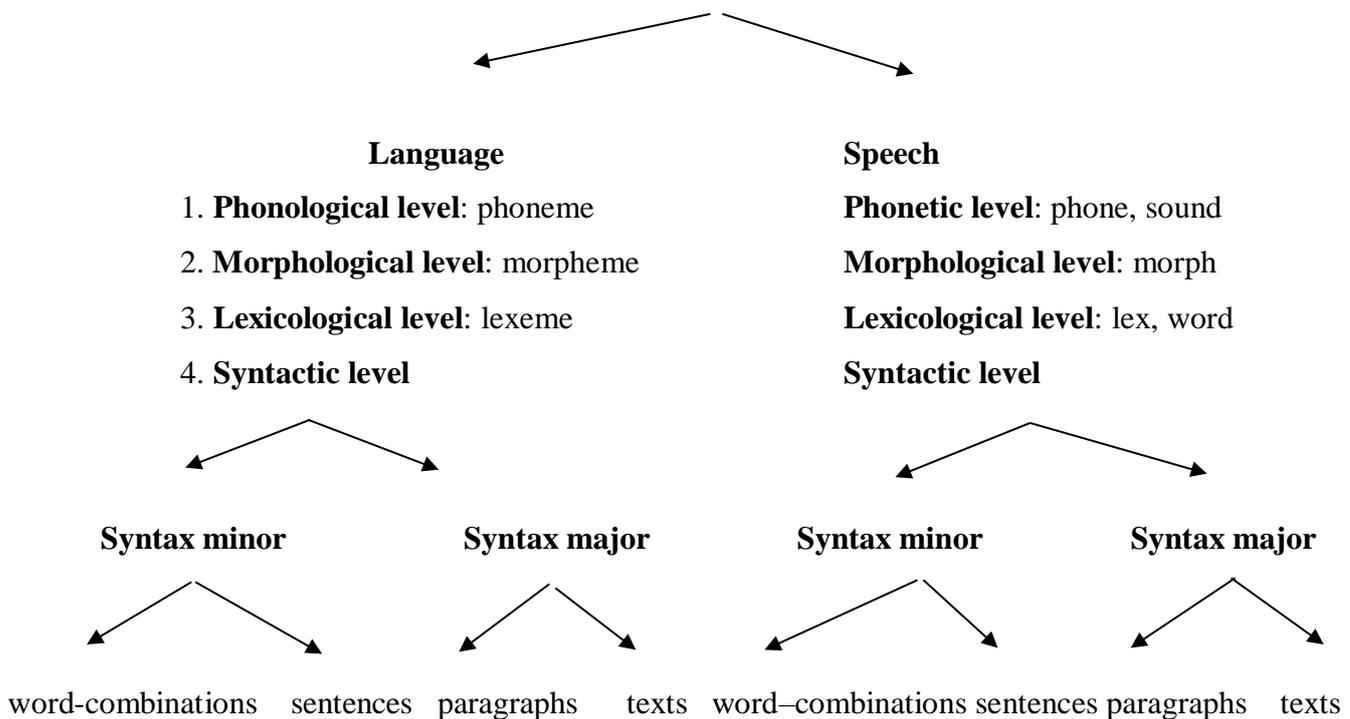
Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".(12)

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means".(12)

Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations

(phrases) and sentences and still others argue that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the defining the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

Language and Speech Levels and Their Units

Language

1. **Phonological level**: phoneme
2. **Morphological level**: morpheme
3. **Lexicological level**: lexeme
4. **Syntactic level**

Speech

Phonetic level: phone, sound
Morphological level: morph
Lexicological level: lex, word
Syntactic level

Syntax minor   **Syntax major**   **Syntax minor**   **Syntax major**

word-combinations   sentences   paragraphs   texts   word–combinations   sentences   paragraphs   texts

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called **phoneme;** the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called **phone.** As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phone.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect.

Jack C. Richards, John Platt and Heidi Platt give the following explanation to "idiolect": "The language system of an individual as expressed by the way he or she speaks or writes within the overall system of a particular language. In its widest sense, someone`s idiolect includes their way of communicating; for example, their choice of utterances and the way they interpret the utterances made by others. In a narrower sense an idiolect may include those features, either in speech or writing, which distinguish one individual from others, such as voice quality, pitch and speech rhythm". (Richards J.C. 1992).

Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in: the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: *low* and *battle*. The sound "1" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter "l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: **morpheme** for language and **morph** for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with **words.** Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: **"lexeme"** for language and **"lex"** or **"word"** for speech.

The correlation between "lexeme" and "lex" is the same as it is between "phoneme" and "phone" and "morpheme" and "morph". "Lexeme" is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Lex" is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme "table" of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of "writing table", "dinner table", "round table", "square table", and so on. There may be "allolexes" like allophones and allomorphs. Allolexes are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between "morpheme" and "lexeme" it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morphemes are built of phonemes and they are used to build words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme "tree" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "ungentlemanly" consists of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

The next level is syntax - minor which deals with sentences. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn't yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "Sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - "er" is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which meaning it is used we'll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like "teacher", "worker" then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like "higher", "lower" it will have another meaning. Before getting down to "the theoretical grammar" course one has to know the information given above.

The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modem linguistics. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. **Speech** is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech we can compare the *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess. Playing of chess is individual.

Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit *phoneme* is opposed to the speech unit - *sound: or phone;* phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech - /s/ and */z/).* The *sentence* is opposed to the

utterance; the *text* is opposed to the *discourse.*

Discussion questions:

1. What is the definition of speech act? What does it consist of?

2. Speech act consists of language and speech. What is the difference between these two phenomena?

3. What do you understand by etic and emic levels? What are their synonyms?

4. What language and speech levels do you know?

5. What is the difference between basic and non-basic levels?

6. There are dialects and idiolects. What is the difference between these two terms?

7. What are the definitions of "phone", "morph", "word", "sentence"?

8. What is the difference between "morpheme", "morph" and "allomorph"? Try to explain this using reliable examples.

9. If there are allo-elements like allophone, allomorph there must be allolexes and allosentences as well. Try to explain it with the help of examples.

10. When pronounced phonemes vary from person to person. How can one explain this phenomenon?

1. PRACTICAL: THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH

Plan:

- The meanings of the notion of "Grammatical Structure"
- The lexical and grammatical meanings
- The grammatical structure of languages from the point of view of general linguistics
- The morphological types of languages and the place of the English language in this typology
- The grammatical means of the English language

Keywords: Grammatical structures, the order of words, the functional words, the grammatical inflections, sound changes, suppletion, stress, intonation.

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that "several actors acted upon some objects". This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

"Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", "grammatical utterance". The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

  The man landed the jet plane safely

  N   V   A   N   D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes. The first is syntax and the second - morphology.

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

3. Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine…) are of this type.

The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are dependent and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s;   bag-s;work-ed;   lie-d …

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. Morphemes of the 1ˢᵗ type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like *-s, -ed, -d* are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by   free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g.

He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of *shall, will* considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of *invite - invited - shall invite* we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes *-s, -ed.*

The notion of 'grammatical meaning'.

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings - lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table).* **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun *(table)* we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun *'table'* has the grammatical meaning of a subclass - countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical

meaning of verbiality - the ability to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives - qualitativeness - the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality - the ability to denote quality of qualities.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group like articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

The grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit. The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically - it has its marker. In the word *bags* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; *boy's* - here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form-'s; *is asked* - shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types - general and dependent. **<u>The general</u>** grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns - the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The **dependent** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/in-transitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/nonstativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness and animateness/inanimateness. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, teminativeness/non-terminativeness - the category of tense, transitivity/intransitivity - the category of voice.

Grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular : plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality.

It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **tense**, the objective category of **quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **number**. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential** grammatical categories. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not correspond to anything in the objective reality.

They are called **significational** categories. To this type belong the categories of **mood** and **degree**. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has **modality** as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality - it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number: singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **opposition** - book: books (unmarked member/marked member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition: singular: plural.

Taking all the above mentioned into consideration, we may define the grammatical category as the opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

Means of realization of grammatical categories may be synthetic *(near - nearer)* and analytic *(beautiful- more beautiful).*

Discussion questions:

1. What do you understand by "grammatical structure of a language"?
2. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?

3. What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?

4. Describe all the grammatical means of English.

5. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?

2. PRACTICAL: GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Plan:

- what is categorization

- what linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?

- grammatical and logical categories

- what is "opposition"?

- the types of grammatical categories.

- the means of their expression

  Keywords: Grammatical category, opposition, material factor, form, material expression.

Any research presupposes bringing into certain order the material being studied. The issue under the consideration is also an attempt to generalize the grammatical means of language.

There are many conceptions on the problem today. According to B. Golovin (13) "a grammatical category is a real linguistic unity of grammatical meaning and the means of its material expression". It means that in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be a grammatical meaning and grammatical means.

M.Y. Blokh (6), (7) explains it as follows: "As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical "form", a unity of form (i.e. material factor), and meanings (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so - called "grammatical oppositions".

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there's a logical category of possession. The meaning of possession can be expressed in all the languages, compare: My book (English) - Моя книга (Russian) - Менинг китобим (Uzbek).

As it is seen from the examples the meaning of possession in English and Russian is expressed by the possessive pronouns (lexical means) while in Uzbek it can be expressed either by the help of a discontinuous morpheme (...нинг ...им) or by one overt morpheme (…им). This category is grammatical in Uzbek but lexical in the other two languages. Thus the universal logical categories can be expressed by grammatical and non - grammatical (lexical, syntactic) means. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means.

The doctrines mentioned above is one - side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don't have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages.

One of the most consistent theories of the grammatical categories is the one that is suggested by L. Barkhudarov. (2), (3)

According to his opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the following features:

- general grammatical meaning;

- this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;

- the particular meanings must be opposed to each - other:

- the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category. English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are necessary for a grammatical category:

1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;
2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;
3. singular is opposed to plural: they are antonymous;
4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means. This issue will be considered in detail in the next chapter.

Another example. In English adjectives there's one grammatical category - the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?

1. It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison;

2. The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative;

3. They are opposed to each - other;

4. They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.

If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.

Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each - other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.

Discussion questions:

1. Why do we categorize the grammatical meanings?

2. Is there one conception of grammatical categories that is shared by all the scientists or are there many approaches?

3. Whose conceptions on grammatical category do you know?

4. What are the main requirements for the grammatical category?

5. Comment the grammatical categories of case of nouns; voice, aspect, order of verbs.

6. What types of grammatical categories do you know?

3. PRACTICAL: PARTS OF SPEECH

Plan:

- brief history of grouping words to parts of speech

- contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech

- structural approach to the classification of words

- notional and functional parts of speech

Keywords: Parts of Speech, Structural tendency, meaning, function, form, stem building.

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1.   Pre - structural tendency;

2.   Structural tendency;

3.   Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their **meaning, function and form.** To this group of scientists H. Sweet (42), O. Jespersen (33), (34), O. Curme (26), B. Ilyish (15) and other grammarians can be included.

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively **according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution.** The representatives of the tendency are: Ch. Fries (31), (32), W. Francis (30), A. Hill (44) and others.

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They **classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability).** To this group of scientists, we can refer most Russian

grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya (22), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (4) and others. (25)

One of the central problems of a theoretical grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

H. Sweet's (42) classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles

II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection

As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head - word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of head-words.

O. Jespersen. (34)

According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications.

He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should be kept in view. He gives the following classification:

1. Substantives (including proper names)

2. Adjectives

In some respects, (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns ".

3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)

4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")

5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions- coordinating and subordinating - and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives.

Ch. Fries' (31), (32) classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, **designated by numbers,** and fifteen groups of function words, **designated by letters.** The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1st class), verb (2nd class), adjective (3nd class) and adverbs (4nd class), though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggled diggs
3. Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words - we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. *So Fries comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning*

pattern.[1] All words that can occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part of speech.

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

> The concert was good (always)

Frame B

> The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

Frame C

> The team went there

Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

> The concert was good
>
> food
>
> coffee
>
> taste.....

The words of this list he called class I words.

The word "was" and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words.

In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

Functional words are identified by letters

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[1] «the difference between nouns and verbs lies not in what kinds of things they stand for, but in what kinds of frames they stand in: *I saw Robert kill Mary. I witnessed the killing of Mary by Robert"*
"Language process" Vivien Tartter. N.Y., 1986, p.89

Class A Words

the	a/an	every
no	my	our
one	all	both
that	some	John's

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners".

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology

Group B - modal verbs

Group C - negative particle "not"

Group D - adverbs of degree

Group E - coordinating conjunctions

Group F - prepositions

Group G - the auxiliary verb "do"

Group H - introductory "there"

Group I - interrogative pronouns and adverbs

Group J - subordinating conjunctions

Group K - interjections

Group L - the words "yes" and "no"

Group M - attention giving signals "look", "say", "listen"

Group N - the word "please"

Group O - "let us", "let in" request sentences.

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.

2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.

3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the money.

The boys have given the money. (32)

In classifying words into parts of speech Russian grammarians keep to different concepts:

A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function, next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use. His word-groups are:

Notional words	**Functional words**
1. Nouns	link - verbs
2. Adjectives	prepositions, conjunctions
3. Numerals	modifying function words
4. Pronouns	(article, particle)
5. Adverbs	only, even, not
6. Verbs	

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria

1. Lexico - grammatical meaning of words
2. Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)
3. Grammatical categories of words.
4. Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)
5. Their function in a sentence.

Their Classification

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronouns
4. Numerals
5. Verbs
6. Adverbs
7. Adlinks (the words of category of state): asleep, alive
8. Modal words
9. Prepositions
10. Conjunctions
11. Particles (just, yet, else, alone)
12. Interjections
13. Articles
14. Response words (yes, no)

As authors state the parts of speech lack some of those five criteria. The most general properties of parts of speech are features 1, 4 and 5. ***B. A. Ilyish (15) distinguishes three criteria***:

1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:

a) the method of combining the word with other ones

b) the function in the sentence.

a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure.

B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

1. Nouns	7. Adverbs
2. Adjective	8. Prepositions
3. Pronoun	9. Conjunctions
4. Numerals	10. Particles
5. Statives (asleep, afraid)	11. Modal words
6. Verbs	12. Interjections

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling (4). Their classification of words is based on four principles. But the important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning, grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).

1. Nouns

2. Articles

3. Pronouns

4. Adjectives

5. Adverbs

6. Numerals

7. Verbs

8. Prepositions

9. Conjunctions

10. Particles

11. Modal words

12. Interjections

We find another approach of those authors to the words of English.

All the words are divided into two main classes:

notional words and functional - words: connectives, determinatives

Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:

1. connectives form phrases as **to believe in something** or as **in the hall**. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;

2. determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

The consideration of conceptions of different grammarians shows that the problem of parts of speech is not yet solved. There's one point which is generally accepted: in M-n English there are two classes of words-notional and functional - which are rather distinct.

Discussion questions:

1. What do you understand by parts of speech?

2. How many tendencies are there in classifying words to parts of speech? Try to describe all of them.

3. Try to describe the conceptions of famous world linguists on the problem.

4. What are the peculiar features of classifying words to parts of speech based on structural approach?

5. What is the difference between notional and functional parts of speech?

6. Do all the parts of speech have grammatical categories?

16. Dative alternation and its acquisition by German-English bilingual and English monolingual children

17. English structure analysis in comparison with Latin languages in Europe.

18. The evolution of grammar and syntax in English respect to other languages in the past century.

19. An in-depth study of the Anglo-Saxon dialects encompassing UK and US.

20.The fascinating differences and unique assets of Australian English: the reasoning behind some outstanding idioms.

21. A thorough study of the neologism creation in UK English: is the Anglo-Saxon language a world-class leader in new word development?

22.Why are there so many English terms which are not commonly translated in other languages?

23.The reason behind the apparent simplicity, elegance and effectiveness of the English language.

24.Why is learning one of the Latin-derived languages a lifelong challenge for any English person: the numerous irregular verb cases.

25.The most remarkable difference between English structures and French structures: the use of the passive in both languages and how this construction changes communication.

26.Major differences in grammar and syntax between English and Spanish: analysis of the strongest similarities and the most interesting divergences.

27.False friends that originate in English and how they persist in other languages.

28.The need to master another's language accent and how this skill boosts your communication capabilities overnight.

29.A new study on the polyglotism worldwide: does the world population speak English fluently enough to enable communication?

30.The most relevant languages spreading worldwide and their relative importance they hold online.

31.Why can't you speak only one language anymore in today's world?

List of Literature

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3. Stepanov G.V. Tipologiya yazikovix sostoyaniy i situasiy v stranax romanskoy rechi. –M., 1976.

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V. KEYSLAR BANKI

Comparing and contrasting has been found to improve students understanding of the topics compared by much more than one grade. It is a preferred method for helping students to clarify concepts that are often confused, or poorly understood.

Students are put in pairs or small groups, and are given a grid on flip chart or A3 paper. They work in groups to make a bullet pointed list of important similarities and differences between the two concepts. They can work from previously unseen, or from other notes to do this. Clearly this could be used in any subject to help teach almost any pair of similar concepts.

1. Interpret the following statement: "Learning is more important than teaching."

2. Imagine you are at a teacher-parent meeting. One of the parents questions the efficiency of student-centred teaching. Explain the main principles of this approach and argue for your position.

3. Interpret the following statement: "Don't tell students what they can tell you."

Why do you think it's important for a teacher to do needs analysis at the beginning of a course? List some specific ways of carrying out needs analysis.

4. First, the teacher presents the present perfect. Next, the students try using it in structured exercises. Finally, the students try to have a conversation together using the present perfect.

5. The teacher introduces grammatical structures and rules by showing a video. The students practise the grammar in context. The teacher gives lots of meaningful examples to demonstrate the grammar.

6. Students learn English by translating to and from their native language.

7. They memorize irregular verb forms by writing them down over and over. Speaking skills are not a main focus.

8. Students listen to a dialogue between a taxi driver and passenger. They fill in gaps and then practise a dialogue with a partner. Tomorrow they will go outside and practise asking for directions.

9. The teacher only uses English, but the students can use English or their first language. The teacher does not correct mistakes when his students speak English. Students can start speaking English when they are ready. The students learn patterns of language by repeating model sentences that the teacher provides. They memorize set phrases and receive positive reinforcement from their teacher when they perform drills correctly.

10. ESL students at the school take all subjects in English. They take part in

class and school activities with native English students their

own. First, students learn how to say words properly. Next, they learn to read and write. They use colour charts and rods to help with the pronunciation of sounds.

11. Teacher talking time is minimal. The teacher says commands and acts them out.

12. The students try to perform the action. The teacher repeats by saying the command without acting it out. The students respond. The roles are then reversed.

 First the teacher finds a way for the students to engage with a subject emotionally. Then students focus on studying the construction of the target language. Then learners activate what they learned through engaging activities.

VI. GLOSSARIY

Termin	Ingliz tilidagi shahri
Ablaut	The change of a vowel into another vowel in the root of a word, with a grammatical function, usually for no visible phonological reason. Also known as vowel gradation. The alternant stems of English `strong verbs` (sing ~ sang ~ sung, write ~ wrote ~ written, etc.) are examples of ablaut. See also umlaut.
Acronym	From Greek acro- in the sense of extreme or tip and onyma or name) is an abbreviation of several words in such a way that the abbreviation itself forms a word. According to Webster`s, the word doesn`t have to already exist; it can be a new word. Webster`s cites \"snafu\" and \"radar\", two terms of World War Two vintage, as examples. Implicit is the idea that the new word has to be pronounceable and ideally easy to remember.
Active language	A language whose grammar distinguishes two cases, Agentive and Patientive (A and P), and marks verb arguments like this: the subject of a transitive verb is marked as A, and its object is marked as P; the subject of an intransitive verb is marked either as A or P depending on semantic considerations (typically the degree of agency or control of the subject over the verbal action, or whether the verb shows a state or an event). Active languages can be split-S or fluid-S. Georgian, as well as other Caucasian languages in the same family, is part active (even though usually described as ergative).
Allophone	Each of the sounds that are grouped in a phoneme. The allophones of a phoneme are usually in complementary distribution, which means that, given the conditions for the phoneme to be realised as one particular allophone, all the rest are excluded in that position. From Greek allo- `other`
Allomorph	Each one of the forms that a morpheme can take. For example, the (regular) plural morpheme in English is realised as three allomorphs, with phonemical values /s/, /z/, and /iz/. Allomorphs can be conditioned by some phonetic issue, or by grammatical features. From allo- `other`, morph- `form, shape`.
Alveoli	The spaces that are found just behind the back side of the upper teeth, and before the palatal ridge. Here is the

	where alveolar sounds are produced, such as /l/, /t/ and /s/.
Analytic language	A language that tends to mark distinctions on verbs, nouns, etc. by means of syntax, word order and the use of general lexical terms rather than by morphological elements (the opposite is synthetic). From Greek ana- `up, throughout` + lysis `loosening`, literally `breaking up, splitting`). In an analytic language, words get few prefixes and suffixes; verbs are usually not marked for tense, person or aspect, nor are nouns marked for number or gender. These distinctions are left unmentioned or are shown by separate words instead of declensions and grammatical cases. The tendency to analysis can be manifested in several different fields, but in general it causes words to have less semantic content in themselves, syntax (the structure of combination of words in sentences) acquiring a greater importance. Examples of analytic languages are English and Chinese, which share the features of having very little verb and noun morphology, and showing a very rigid word order (SVO, subject-verb-object, which is the most common among languages which don`t mark subject and object as such, because the verb takes care of separating them)
Antipassive voice	A voice usually found in ergative languages, in which a transitive verb becomes intransitive, its subject being changed from the ergative/agentive case to the absolutive/patientive case.
Apocope	A change that consists in the deletion of a final sound. The loss of final e in English (still written) is an example. Spanish has a phenomenon of conditioned apocope for some adjectives: grande becomes gran when placed before a noun (hombre grande vs. gran hombre). The word comes from Greek apo- `away` + koptein `cut`. See also elision and syncope
Approximant.	A sound that is produced while the airstream is barely disturbed by the tongue, lips or other vocal organs. Approximants are often called glides, semivowels or semiconsonants. Examples of these are w and y in English; /l/ is an approximant too, since, although the tongue closes the airstream at the alveola, more air flows, barely modulated, through the sides of the

	tongue. Approximants are generally voiced, since an unvoiced approximant is practically inaudible.
Auslautverhärtung	The devoicing (change from voiced to unvoiced) of stops at the ends of syllables or words. Examples: German Tag `day` /tak/ vs. Tagen `days` /tag@n/.
Classifier	A small word or affix to denote some kind of property of invariable nouns, e. g. whether it is male or female (according to some theories, classifiers are the origin of grammatical gender), or what is the shape of an object. Examples or classifier languages are Japanese, Yucatec Mayan and Sesotho.
Click	An ingressive sound that is produced as follows: the airstream is closed in two points of the mouth, one of which is always the velum, and the other is closer to the front of the mouth. By forcing the velar closure backwards, a lower pressure is produced in the cavity thus formed between the two closures. Once reached a certain point, the first (front) closure is released, letting air in with a popping sound. Indeed, this mechanism is analogous to the pop of a closed bottle when the cork is removed and air comes in abruptly due to the difference of pressure. Clicks are particularly frequent in some African languages. The most common ones are those produced with the both lips, with the tongue and the alveola, and with the tongue and the palate.
Deixis	The reference system of a language. By references we mean the words used to refer to objects, people and other things situated in different locations, times, contexts within the sentence, etc. These words are called deictics or demonstratives. In English we have a system of two deixis levels: one for objects close at hand (`this, these`), and another one for objects far from the speaker (`that, those`).
Demotion	The syntactic operation that takes a verb argument down in the argument hierarchy (usually subject → object → complement). English passive voice demotes the subject to the position of an optional complement (`oblique`), as in \"A dog bit me\" → \"I was bitten [by a dog]\". The antipassive voice found in many ergative languages preserves the subject but demotes the object (detransitivization in ergative languages also demotes the subject in a way, by turning an agent into a patient). The inverse operation is called promotion.

Diachronica	One of the two ways of studying a language with respect to time. Diachronical means `through/across time`; it refers to the evolution of each feature of the language, and the relationship between present forms with past forms throughout changes. See synchronical.
Dvanda compound	A type of compound in which there is a simple conjunction of two words, without any further dependency holding between them. For example: `Bosnia-Herzegovina`, `mother-child`.
Egressive	Said of the sounds that are produced by means of an outcome (egression) of air, more or less abrupt, which comes from the lungs and flows through the oral and/or nasal tract. The immense majority of sounds are egressive. There are a minority of ingressive sounds, produced by an airstream which comes from the outside of the mouth. All the sounds in English and in general of all European languages are egressive
Ejective	Said of sounds (generally unvoiced stops) that are produced in the following way: the airstream is closed in some point (for example, for an ejective /p/, the lips), and the glottis is closed too. Then both closures are released at the same time. An ejective consonant followed by a vowel can be simulated by making a pause between them, and then progressively joining the consonant with the pause. These sounds are also known as egressive glottalics.
Elision	A change that consists in the loss of unstressed vowels or syllables. English reduces and sometimes elides (produces elision) of unstressed vowels in long words like secretary, laboratory, elementary. See also apocope and syncope
endocentric compound	A type of compound in which one member functions as the head and the other as its modifier, attributing a property to the head. For example: `steamboat` (`boat` is the head, `steam` is the modifier). This is an endocentric compound because `steamboat` is a noun, like `boat`, and a steamboat is a particular kind of boat. See exocentric compound.
Epenthesis	A phenomenon of sound change that consists in the interposition of a sound between two others, usually because they are deemed difficult to pronounce in a row. For example, Latin hominem gave Spanish

	hombre through syncope, dissimulation and epenthesis: hominem → homne → homre → hombre (the medial b is epenthetic). See also liaison
Ergative-absolutive language	(Also just \"ergative\".) A language where the subject of a transitive verb is marked with a grammatical case conventionally known as the ergative, while both the subject of an intransitive verb and the object of a transitive verb are marked with another case, conventionally known as absolutive. The absolutive is the least-marked case in ergative languages (like the nominative in nominative/accusative languages). Examples of ergative languages are Euskara (Basque), Inuktitut, and some Australian languages. Some languages are of mixed types: Hindi is accusative in the imperfect tenses, and ergative in the perfect ones. Other languages use ergative constructions for some grammatical persons and accusative ones for others (see split ergativity). Ergative languages tend not to have a passive voice but an antipassive.
exocentric compound	A compound that lacks a head, for example `smart-ass` (which is neither a wise thing or any kind of ass). Also known by the name given to them by Sanskrit grammarians, bahuvrihi compound. See endocentric compound.
fluid-S	Said of active languages where the grammatical subject (S) is marked with one of two core cases, Agentive or Patientive, according to the semantics of the verb and the context. See split-S. In fluid-S languages, as in split-S languages, there are two core cases named Agentive (A) and Patientive (P). The subjects of transitive verbs are always marked with A and their objects are always marked with P. The subjects of intransitive verbs are marked either A or P depending on the situation. If the verb is considered to be expressing an action produced by an Agent (the definition of Agent will vary), the subject will be marked with A; if the subject is considered to be the Patient (or undergoer) of the action or state expressed by the verb, it will be marked with P. While in split-S languages the case structure is fixed for each verb, in fluid-S languages the decission of using A or P has to be made for each particular context.
Fricative	Said of consonant sounds that are produced with an airstream that is partially closed in some point of the

	oral tract, in such a way that audible friction is produced. Examples of unvoiced fricatives are /f s h/ in English.
Geminated	Lengthened (said of consonants), or doubled. Geminated consonants are unknown in English, but appear in many other languages, like Italian (written as double consonants: pizza, otto, Massimo, doppo).
Glottalic	Said of sounds that are pronounced with some major contribution of the glottis (either a movement or a closure), in particular ejective and implosive sounds.
Idiolect	The particular way of speaking of a given person; the personal dialect of an individual, which probably does not differ much from the idiolects of those around him/her, but is always a bit different according the personal choice of words and phrases, shades of pronunciation, etc. An idiolectal feature is therefore a feature of the language that varies for each particular speaker. From Greek idios `one`s own`.
Implosive	Said of the sounds (generally voiced stops) that are produced in the following way: first the airstream is closed in some point (for example, for an implosive /b/, in the lips). Then, at the same time, the closure is released allowing air to enter the mouth, and the glottis is lowered (this produces, in men, a visible movement down of their Adam`s apple). The movement of the glottis provokes a decrement of pressure inside the mouth, causing air to enter, and it causes a characteristic sound effect, as of `hollowness`. These sounds are also known as ingressive glottalics.
Ingressive	Said of sounds that are produced by a stream of air that enters the mouth. Most sounds are otherwise egressive, produced a outgoing of air. The only ingressive sounds are the implosives and the clicks. Ingressive sounds are rather rare in human languages. The European languages like English or Spanish don`t have any; some African languages are particularly rich in ingressives.
Labialization	Adding a secondary labial articulation, with liprounding, to a basic sound. The effect is similar to pronouncing the given consonant and w simultaneously. The very sound of English w could be technically called a labialized velar approximant. See also palatalization.

Lax	Said of a vowel that contrasts with a tenser (more constricted) version. Compare the tense vowel in beat and the lax vowel in bit. See tense.
Liaison	The introduction of a sound between two other sounds, especially between words. It`s a form of epenthesis. The word comes from French, where this phenomenon is frequent, and means `binding` (pronounce `lee-ay-ZO`, with nasal O). In French, liaison causes usually deleted final sounds to reappear when the next word begins with a vowel (English change a → an is also an example).
mood of articulation	The way in which a sound (especially a consonant) is articulated or pronounced, with respect to the flux of air. A consonant can be a stop (with complete closure of the airstream, as in /p/); a fricative (with an incomplete closure of the airstream, though enough to produce friction, such as /s/); an affricate (a stop combined with a fricative at the same point of articulation, like English ch); or an approximant (with almost no obstruction of the airstream, like English y and some other sounds called `semivowels`).
Mora	A suprasegmental unit of length, smaller than or coincidental with a syllable, that is studied as a part of the stress pattern of the language. From Latin mora `delay`, plural morae. Some languages are based on morae instead of syllables for stress considerations (as with `syllable`, every language defines `mora` in its own way). Japanese, for example, counts a short vowel, a syllable-final n or a geminated consonant as one mora, and a long vowel as two morae, and the accent (pitch change) can fall over any mora, including that in the middle of a long vowel.

Morpheme	A unit of meaning, be it a root (such as `dog`, `house`, `red`, `bright`, etc.), or a derivative concept (like the repetitive morpheme `re-`), or an abstract concept (such as number, gender, verb tense, etc.) Morphemes can be realised in many ways. Roots are typically a group of sounds that don`t change. The rest of the concepts can appear as affixes (a prefix or suffix), a preposition, a change of the stressed vowel in the root, or the absence of one of these (by contrast with the presence of another morpheme of opposite meaning). For example, the word piglets in English has three morphemes: a root pig- referring to the animal, a diminutive morpheme -let-, and a plural suffix -s. Some morphemes, like pig-, are compulsory (all nouns need a root!); some others, like -let-, are optional, and their place can be left empty; some, like -s, belong to a fixed set of which one must occur. (Yes, you can leave out -s and have a well-formed word, but the absence of -s is a zero morpheme, which marks singular number; all nouns in English have number. The absence of -let- is not a morpheme.) The way in which a language joins morphemes to form words is called morphology (which means `study of the form/shape`). Analytic languages tend to have fewer complications in their morphology, preferring to use roots (radical morphemes) in the pure basic form. Synthetic languages usually feature a complicated morphology. Morphemes are not only realised as the presence or absence of affixes: the change of the vowels of many English `irregular` verbs (vowel alternation, or Ablaut) is also a morpheme. This morpheme is not manifested as a group of sounds getting joined to others, but as a change. The combination of several changes and/or affixes can be one morpheme too, such as sleep changing the vowel and adding a suffix to form slept. Even a tonal change (in tonal languages like Chinese) can constitute a morpheme.
Nasal	Said of the sounds that are pronounced at the same time as the airstream goes through the nose. In particular, the name of nasals is by default reserved for consonants that are stops in the oral tract while the air goes freely through the nasal tract, like /m/ and /n/. These are the most common nasals. Nasal vowels are found too (as in French or Portuguese).

nominative/accusative language	A language where the subject of any verb is marked with a grammatical case conventionally known as the nominative, while the object of a transitive verb is marked with another case, called the accusative. Most Indoeuropean languages (English, German, Spanish, Italian, French, Greek, Latin, etc.) are nominative/accusative.
Palatalization	Adding a secondary palatal articulation to a basic sound by raising the middle part of the tongue towards the palatal ridge. The effect is similar to pronouncing the given consonant and /j/ (English y) simultaneously. While English doesn`t have palatalized sounds, ch sounds a bit like a palatalized t. Russian has a whole series of palatalized consonants (orthographically marked with an apostrophe). See also labialization.
Palate (soft, hard)	The `vault` that rises in the middle of the mouth cavity; in particular, its front rim, the palatal ridge or hard palate, which rises after the alveola. There, near the borders, the sounds called palatals are produced, of which English has ch, sh, y. At the summit of the palate, with the tongue curled backwards, a different kind of sound is produced, which we call retroflex. The back part of the palate is not considered a part of it for our purposes, but forms the velum.
Paradigm	A table or set that shows the ways to conjugate a verb, decline or inflect a noun, etc., in all possible ways, by using a model (the word paradigm means model or example). For example, a verb conjugation table is used in Spanish with three traditional model verbs (amar, temer, vivir) in all tenses, persons, numbers and moods; it`s a verb paradigm (comprising three sub-paradigms). English doesn`t need paradigms, except very small ones, since it`s much more analytic. The word literally means `to show side by side`, from Greek para- `beside`, deiknynai `to show`.
Periphrasis	The expression of grammatical operations by means of auxiliaries, idiomatic phrases, particles, word order, etc. (an analytic strategy) instead of using direct inflection. English uses periphrastic constructions for the future tense (the auxiliary will), for the passive voice (the verb be and the past participle of the original verb), for the prospective aspect (be going to), as well as in many other cases. Other languages directly inflect the verb for all these purposes. Periphrasis comes from

	Greek peri- `around`, as in `phrasing around a meaning` (compare `circumlocution` = `speaking around [a taboo subject]`, i. e. euphemism).
Phoneme	A group of sounds (similar or not) which the speakers of a particular language consider a unit. The sounds in a phoneme are called phones. A phoneme can consist of one or more phones, and is generally (though not often) represented by the phone that occurs most often. The phones of one phoneme are called its allophones (and allophones of each other), or allophonic variants. Phonemes are written between slashes //, while allophones are written between square brackets []. For example: in English /b/ has a single allophone [b]. On the other hand, /p/ has two, [p_h] and [p]. The first one is aspirated (released with a puff of air), and occurs word-initially and at the beginning of stressed syllables (as in post, appear). The second is unaspirated, and occurs everywhere else. Of the allophones of a given phoneme it`s said that they are in complementary distribution: one cannot occur where the other does. This also implies that, within the language in question, if one pronounces a allophone that doesn`t correspond in that position, it may sound weird; but a new (possible) word will not be produced, since the allophones of one particular phoneme are, by definition, treated as one and the same sound by the speakers. In fact, most of them won`t be able to recognize a difference between allophones unless they`re made to notice. In another language, the difference might be phonemic (i. e. the same sounds will occur, but instead of being allophones they will be two separate phonemes).
point of articulation	The place within the vocal organs (the mouth, the throat, etc.) where a sound is produced or articulated, especially a consonant. It also includes a specification of which organs are in contact with which, and which parts of them. The most common points of articulation are: bilabial (between the lips, as in /b/); labiodental (between one of the lips and the teeth, such as /f/); dental (between the tongue and the back side of the teeth, like /T/ [English hard th]); alveolar (between the tongue and the alveola, such as /s/); palatal (between the tongue and the palatal ridge, like English y; retroflex (with the tongue curled backwards and

	touching the top of the palate); velar (at the velum, as in /k/); uvular (at the uvula, the fleshy blob hanging at the back of the throat); glottal (with a closure of the glottis). Depending on the part of the tongue that takes part of it, you can also precise that the articulation is apical (with the apex or tip of the tongue), laminal (with the blade or middle part of the tongue), or sublaminal (with the lower side of the tongue, which is quite rare). See also mood of articulation.
Promotion	The syntactic operation that takes a verb argument up in the argument hierarchy (usually complement → object → subject). From pro-motion `forwardmovement`. English passive voice promotes the object to the subject position, as in \"A dog bit me\" → \"I was bitten by a dog\". The inverse operation is called demotion
Retroflex	A sound that is produced at the point of articulation that is found at the top of the palate, with the tip of the tongue curled backwards in such a way that the lower face of the tongue touches the palate. Some languages (as different as Swedish and Hindi) have entire series of retroflex sounds; most varieties of American English have only one, /r/ (which can be a semivowel). Mandarin Chinese has a retroflex series composed of a fricative, a non-aspirated affricate, and an aspirated affricate, transliterated (in Pinyin) as sh, zh, ch. `Retro-flex` literally means `backwards-curl`.
satellite-framed language	A language in which directed motion is usually expressed by verbs showing manner of motion (`run`, `crawl`, `slide`) while a satellite or particle associated with the verb shows the path of motion (`in`, `out`, `by`, etc.). All Indoeuropean languages except the Romance languages (thus including Germanic), as well as Finno-Ugric and Chinese languages, are of this kind. English accordingly has a large set of verbs showing manner of motion, and a set of particles that are applied to them to show motion path. The only English verbs that directly encode motion path are Latinate (`exit`, `ascend`, `descend`, etc.). Contrast this with Spanish, which is a verb-framed language. \"She went out, up the hill and down the other slope\" is rendered into Spanish as the equivalent of \"She exited, ascended the hill and descended on the other slope\".

Split ergativity	A feature of some languages (like the Austronesian language Dyirbal) that are syntactically and morphologically ergative/absolutive but show morphological patterns typical of nominative/accusative languages when referring to first and second persons. The rationale behind this seems to be as follows: 1) the least-marked case should be used for the most common situation; 2) in transitive sentences, the subject is usually the agent; 3) an agent is most commonly an actual person (the speaker or the hearer); 4) an agent, in a pure ergative language, receives the ergative case, which is the most-marked (contradicting #1); 5) therefore, a first or second person that acts as an agent/subject should be marked with the least-marked case, while a first or second person that acts as a patient/object (less common) should be marked with the most-marked case; 6) the system that marks agents and patients this way is the nominative/accusative.
split-S	Said of active languages where the grammatical subject (S) of intransitive verbs is marked with one of two core cases, Agentive or Patientive, according to the semantics of the verb, for each given verb. Contrast this with nominative-accusative languages, where the subject is always marked with one case (conventionally known as the Nominative), and with ergative-absolutive languages, where the subject is marked according to the transitivity of the verb (a syntactic property). In split-S languages, the difference is given by semantic considerations (is the subject of the verb its Agent, as in \"I`m eating\" or its Patient (\"I`m falling\")? The precise definition of what an Agent or a Patient is depends on the language (is a falling rock an agent of the action of hitting someone? If I sneeze, am I an agent, even though I didn`t do it by my own will?). The speaker may not decide whether a subject is an agent or a patient for a given verb. See also fluid-S.
Stop	A consonant that is pronounced by completely blocking the airstream at some point of the mouth, and then releasing the closure abruptly. For example:
Suppletion	The use of two or more distinct (phonetically unrelated) stems for the inflection of a single lexical item, such as the articles le and la in French, or pairs like good ~ better and go ~ went in English. .

Synchronical	One of the two possible approaches to the study of a language with respect to time. Synchronical means `at the same time, simultaneous` (Greek syn- `together`); it refers to the particular state of each feature of the language at some given point in time, without taking into account its origin or the changes that produced it in its present state, but focusing on its description at the reference moment, and its relations with other features. See diachronical.
Syncope	The deletion of a medial sound. It appears in the change of Latin into Spanish: fabulare → hablar, anima → alma, etc. The word comes from Greek syn- `together` + koptein `cut`. See also elision and apocope.
Synthetic	Said of a language that tends to mark many distinctions over the roots of words, using specific morphology (prefixes, suffixes, Ablaut, etc.). This may imply a great amount of morphology to mark tense, person, number, aspect, mood, voice, etc. on verbs; grammatical case and gender on nouns, etc. In synthetic languages, word order tends to be more relaxed, and can in principle be altered without a great chance of confusion, since words tend to agree among them (adjectives with nouns, generally, agreeing in number, gender and/or case). The added complications of morphology are compensated by a less severe syntax than that of analytic languages; isolated words have a greater semantic content than in those, without so much resort to their relationships with other words (syntax). Sometimes incredible levels of synthesis can be reached, in which case the language is called polysynthetic; single words in these languages can contain as much information as entire sentences in more analytic tongues. Examples of synthetic languages are Latin, Greek, and to a lesser degree all European languages (though English is very analytic now). Polysynthesis is typical in Native American languages. French has been lately classified as polysynthetic, since it has phrases like je ne sais pas, which though written as four words is phonologically one -- encoding, besides the verb, also tense, person, number, mood and negation. Synthetic languages are also referred to as `flexional`. The word `synthesis` is

	etymologically the same as Latin `composition`, from syn- `together` + tithenai `put, place`.
Tense	Said of a vowel that is produced with a tongue body or tongue root configuration involving a greater constriction than that found in their lax counterparts. English, for example, has tense /i/ as in wheel contrasting with lax /I/ as in will.
Topic	As the name suggests, the topic of a sentence is the thing that is talked about. Another name for it is `theme`, which is opposed to `rheme` or predicate (the things that are said about the theme or topic). In English the topic is usually the grammatical subject, but this is not always the case. Some languages, like Japanese, mark the topic with special morphology. In many languages this is done through word order (the topic appears at the beginning of the sentence). See topic fronting.
topic fronting	Moving the topic to the beginning of the sentence, especially when it should not be there in a syntactically typical context. For example, English places the direct object after the verb, but when the object becomes the topic it is sometimes fronted: \"This I did\" instead of \"I did this\". The placement of interrogative words at the beginning of the sentence is also an example of topic fronting.
Umlaut	A kind of vowel mutation that consists in the change of a vowel into another influenced by some feature of a vowel in the following syllables. In German (where the term comes from) Umlaut means the fronting of a back vowel conditioned by the presence of a following front vowel (tur ~ türchen, Haus ~ Häuse, etc.). English preserves some words that used to have a plural ending in /i/ (now lost) and alternate back and front vowels, such as foot ~ feet, mouse ~ mice, etc. See also ablaut.
unaccusative verb	An intransitive verb that usually has a theme subject and expresses change of state or existence, such `break`, `die`, `bleed`, etc. The past participle of the verb can be used as an adjective (see also unergative).
unergative verb	An intransitive verb that usually has an agentive subject and expresses a volitional act, such as `sleep`, `laugh`, `fly`, etc. The past participle of the verb cannot be used as an adjective (see also unaccusative).
Unvoiced	Said of sounds that are produced without vibration of the vocal cords (also called voiceless). The opposite of

	this term is voiced. Examples of unvoiced sounds are the stops /p t k/ and the fricatives /f s/.
Velum	Also known as soft palate. The back part of the palate, where velar sounds are produced, such as /k/, /g/ and /N/ (eng).
Voice	(GRAMMAR; VERBS) Voice indicates the functions attributed to the arguments of a verb. It indicates whether the subject is an agent, a patient, etc. A change of voice shifts, adds and/or deletes arguments. In English and the Romance languages we have periphrastic constructions to show passive voice, in which the subject is the patient (or experiencer) and the agent (or actor) can be optionally shown by a complement (e. g. \"She was punished [by her mother]\"). The Romance languages also have a middle/mediopassive voice, which looks like a reflexive; it deletes the object and treats the subject as agent and patient, or agent and beneficiary (Spanish Yo me lavo \"I wash [myself]\"; Italian avvicinarsi \"to come close, to get [oneself] near\"). The ergative languages tend to have an antipassive voice that deletes the object (detransitivization), changing the subject from agent (ergative case) to patient (absolutive case). In some cases one finds an applicative voice, which adds (as an object) an argument that was formerly a complement of place, time, manner, etc. (\"He lives in this house\" becomes the equivalent of \"He inhabits this house\", with \"this house\" being promoted from the position of a complement of place to the position of direct object).
PHONOLOGY	Voice is the quality of vibration of the vocal cords as a given sound is pronounced. Consonants like /p t k f s/, in which the vocal cords do not vibrate, are called voiceless or unvoiced. There are some languages with unvoiced vowels, like Japanese. Consonants like /b d g v z/, as well as vowels in most languages, which are pronounced with the vocal cords vibrating, are called voiced.
Voiced	Said of sounds that are produced with vibration of the vocal cords. The opposite of this term is unvoiced (or voiceless.) Examples of voiced sounds are the stops /b d g/, the approximants /l r/, the nasals /m n/ and the vowels. The vibration of the vocal cords is easy to test,

	by placing an open hand over the throat while the sound is emitted
Vowel	A sound that is produced as a stream of air that is not obstructed or blocked in any way by the vocal organs, but only modulated by the position of the tongue, lips, etc. Vowels are classified according to their height (defined as the relative rising of the tongue); their frontness (the position of the risen part of the tongue, be it the front, center or back of the mouth); their rounding (produced or not by the lips); and their nasality (positive if air goes through the nose as the time as through the mouth). English has around twelve vowels according the dialect; a more classic model is Latin, with only five vowels, which in order front-to-back are /i e a o u/. /i/ and /u/ are high; /e/ and /o/ are middle; /a/ is low. /i/ and /e/ are front; /a/ is central; /o/ and /u/ are back. Back vowels are also rounded in English and Latin; the others are not rounded; and there are no nasal vowels, only oral ones. In German, on the other hand, there are front rounded vowels (ü and ö). In French, besides these, there`s a series of nasal vowels. English`s most pervasive vowel, the schwa, is a central, middle, unrounded sound, which in ASCII IPA is written /@/ (in IPA, it`s e with a 180-degree turn). The languages with the least vowels have two, generally /a/ and some high sound like /i/ which can shift its pronunciation widely. Languages with three vowels almost always have /i a u/, where /i/ can be pronounced as /e/ and /u/ as /o/ according to the neighbouring sounds. European languages have about seven vowels on average. The languages with the most vowels are African, belonging to the Khoisan family; the record seems to be of 24 vowels. Vowels are normally voiced. An unvoiced (or voiceless) vowel is by definition barely audible; it can sound quite like English /h/ or a whisper emitted by the vocal organs in position for the vowel. In some languages, such as Japanese, some vowels become unvoiced when in contact with unvoiced consonants, at the end of words, when not stressed, etc.

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