O’ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TAHLIM VAZIRLIGI

OLIY TAHLIM TIZIMI PEDAGOG VA RAHBAR KADRLARINI QAYTA TAYYORLASH VA ULARNING MALAKASINI OSHIRISHNI TASHKIL ETISH BOSH ILMIY - METODIK MARKAZI

O’zDJTU HUZURIDAGI CHET TILLARINI O’QITISHNING INNOVATSIYAVIY METODIKALARINI RIVOJLANTIRISH RESPUBLIKA ILMIY-AMALIY MARKAZI

TILSHUNOSLIK NAZARIYASINING TIL AMALIYOTIGA INTEGRATSIYASI

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FILOLOGIYA VA TILLARNI O’QITISH (INGLIZ TILI)

TILSHUNOSLIK NAZARIYASINING TIL AMALIYOTIGA INTEGRATSIYASI moduli bo’yicha

O’Q U V –U S L U B I Y M A J M U A

Toshkent-2021

Modulning ishchi dasturi Oliy va o'rta maxsus, kasb-hunar ta'limi o'quv-metodik birlashmalari faoliyatini Muvofiqlashtiruvchi kengashining 2020 yil 7 dekabrdagi 648 -sonli buyrug'i bilan maqullangan o'quv dasturi va o'quv rejasiga muvofiq ishlab chiqilgan.

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O'quv-uslubiy majmua O'zRIAIM Ilmiy- metodik Kengashining 2020 yil 25 dekabrdagi 10 - sonli qarori bilan nashrga tavsiya qilingan

MUNDARIJA

I. ISHCHI DASTUR

Kirish

Dastur O’zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2017 yil 7 fevraldagi “O’zbekiston Respublikasini yanada rivojlantirish bo’yicha Harakatlar strategiyasi to’g’risida”gi PF-4947-son, 2019 yil 27 avgustdagi “Oliy tahlim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining uzluksiz malakasini oshirish tizimini joriy etish to’g’risida”gi PF-5789-son, 2019 yil 8 oktyabrdagi “O’zbekiston Respublikasi oliy tahlim tizimini 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish kontseptsiyasini tasdiqlash to’g’risida”gi PF-5847-son va 2020 yil 29 oktyabrdagi “Ilm-fanni 2030 yilgacha rivojlantirish kontseptsiyasini tasdiqlash to’g’risida”gi PF-6097-sonli Farmonlari hamda O’zbekiston Respublikasi Prezidentining 2012 yil 10 dekabrdagi “Chet tillarni o’rganish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish chora-tadbirlari to’g’risida”gi PQ-1875-son hamda O’zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining 2019 yil 23 sentyabrdagi “Oliy tahlim muassasalari rahbar va pedagog kadrlarining malakasini oshirish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish bo’yicha qo’shimcha chora-tadbirlar to’g’risida”gi 797-sonli qarorlarida belgilangan ustuvor vazifalar mazmunidan kelib chiqqan holda tuzilgan bo’lib, u oliy tahlim 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 doirasida berilayotgan mavzular tahlim 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, uning mazmunida amaliy tilshunoslik va til tahlimi,til o’rganish strategiyalari, tillarni o’qitish usullarini o’rganish, leksiko-grammatika va korpus tilshunosligi, ilmiy va amaliy tadqiqotlar, o’quv jarayonini tashkil etishning zamonaviy uslublari bo’yicha tegishli bilim, ko’nikma, malaka va kompetentsiyalarni rivojlantirishga yo’naltirilgan.

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 kom’etensiyalariga qo‘yiladigan talablar o‘zgartirilishi mumkin.

Modulning maqsadi va vazifalari

Tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi modulinining asosiy maqsadi pedagog kadrlarni innovatsion yondashuvlar asosida o’quv-tarbiyaviy jarayonlarni yuksak ilmiy-metodik darajada loyihalashtirish, tilshunoslikdagi ilg’or tajribalar, zamonaviy bilim va malakalarni o’zlashtirish va amaliyotga joriy etishlari uchun zarur bo’ladigan kasbiy bilim, ko’nikma va malakalarini takomillashtirish, shuningdek ularning ijodiy faolligini rivojlantirishdan iborat.

Kursning vazifalariga quyidagilar kiradi:

tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi moduli bo’yicha pedagog kadrlarning kasbiy bilim, ko’nikma, malakalarini takomillashtirish va rivojlantirish;

tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi modulini o’qitish jarayoniga zamonaviy axborot-kommunikatsiya texnologiyalari va xorijiy tillarni samarali tatbiq etilishini tahminlash;

til o’qitishdagi o’qitishning innovatsion texnologiyalari va ilg’or xorijiy tajribalarini o’zlashtirish;

til va jamiyat, til tizimi va tuzilishi, uning sathlari, birliklari va ularning namoyon bo’lish qonuniyatlari, tilshunoslik va fanining boshqa fanlar bilan aloqasi, dunyo tillarining klassifikatsiyasi haqida nazariy bilimlar berishdan iboratdir.

Tinglovchi quyidagi mavzularni o’zlashtirilishi belgilangan:

Amaliy tilshunoslik va til ta’limi. Til o’rganish strategiyalari. Tillarni o’qitish usullarini o’rganish. Til tovushlari. Grammatikani o’qitish. Leksiko-grammatika va korpus tilshunosligi. Suhbat tahlili, pragmatika. Matn, kontekst va sxema. Tillarni o’rganish va o’zaro so’zlashish.

Tilshunoslikning nazariy masalalari, tilshunoslik tarixi. Lingvistik maktablar va ular tomonidan yaratilgan tahlimotlar mohiyati. Grammatik kategoriyalar,

grammatikaga oid zamonaviy tahlimotlar. Semantika, semantik kategoriyalar, lingvistik tahlil metodlaridan foydalanish. Lingvogenetik, areal, tipologik, distributiv, transformatsion tadqiqot metodlar.

Xorijiy mamlakatlar lingvistik nazariyalarini tarix nuqtai nazaridan tahlil qilish, ularni qiyoslab o'rganish. Kommunikativ tilshunoslik, lingvopragmatika, psixolingvistika, gender tilshunoslik, neyrolingvistika, madaniyatlararo muloqot, lingvokulg'urologiya.

Kurs yakunida tinglovchilarning bilim, ko'nikma va malakalari hamda kompetentsiyalariga qo'yiladigan talablar:

Tinglovchi:

amaliy tilshunoslik va til ta'limi haqida bilimlarini;

til o'rganish strategiyalarilarini;

tillarni o'qitish usullarini o'rganishni;

tilshunoslikning nazariy masalalarini;

lingvistik maktablar va ular tomonidan yaratilgan tahlimotlar mohiyatini;

grammatik kategoriyalar, grammatikaga oid zamonaviy ta'limotlarni;

xorijiy mamlakatlar lingvistik nazariyalarini tarix nuqtai nazaridan tahlil qilishni;

zamonaviy lingvistikaning yo'nalishlari sohalararo fanlar ekanligi va boshqa fanlar bilan chambarchas bog'liqligi va munosabatlarini;

zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlari (Kommunikativ tilshunoslik, lingvopragmatika, psixolingvistika, gender tilshunoslik, neyrolingvistika, madaniyatlararo muloqot, lingvokulg'urologiya) anhanaviy tilshunoslikdagi fanlardan farqli jihatlarini;

zamonaviy lingvistika yo'nalishlari fanining nazariy va amaliy yutuqlarini;

zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlaridagi turli nazariy qarashlar va yetakchi kontseptsiyalarini;

til ob’ektiv borliq haqidagi bilimlarni aks ettiruvchi vosita ekanligini;

til bilim olish va saqlash, uni amalda qo’llash va uzatish manbai, tafakkurni va insonning dunyoqarashini shakllantiruvchi vosita ekanligini;

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

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

Tinglovchi:

amaliy tilshunoslik va til ta’limi 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.

Modulni tashkil etish va o‘tkazish bo‘yicha tavsiyalar

“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.

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

“Tilshunoslik nazariyasining til amaliyotiga integratsiyasi” moduli mazmuni o‘quv rejadagi Kommunikativ tilshunoslik va til kompetensiyalari 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.	Applied Linguistics and language practices	2	2		
2.	Language learning strategies	2		2	
3.	Learning language teaching methods. Language sounds.	2		2	
4.	Teaching grammar: Lexico-grammar and corpus linguistics	2		2	
5.	Learning languages and mutual communication. The essence of doctrines created by Linguistic Schools	2		2	
6	Analysis and comparison of linguistic theories of foreign countries from the historical point of view doctrine	2		2	

	Jami	**12**	**2**	**10**	

O’quv materiallar mazmuni

1. Mavzu: Amaliy tilshunoslik va til ta’limi.

2. Mavzu: Til o’rganish strategiyalari.

3. Mavzu: Tillarni o’qitish usullarini o’rganish. Til tovushlari. 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.

4. Mavzu: Grammatikani o’qitish: Leksiko-grammatika va korpus tilshunosligi.

5. Mavzu: Tillarni o’rganish va o’zaro so’zlashish. Lingvistik maktablar va ular tomonidan yaratilgan ta’limotlar mohiyati.

6. Mavzu: Xorijiy mamlakatlar lingvistik nazariyalarini tarix nuqtai nazaridan tahlil qilish, ularni qiyoslab o’rganish

Amaliy mashg’ulotlarni tashkil etish bo’yichako’rsatma va tavsiyalar

Amaliy mashg’ulotlarda tinglovchilar o’quv modullari doirasidagi ijodiy topshiriqlar, keyslar, o’quv loyihalari, texnologik jarayonlar bilan bog’liq vaziyatli masalalar asosida amaliy ishlarni bajaradilar.

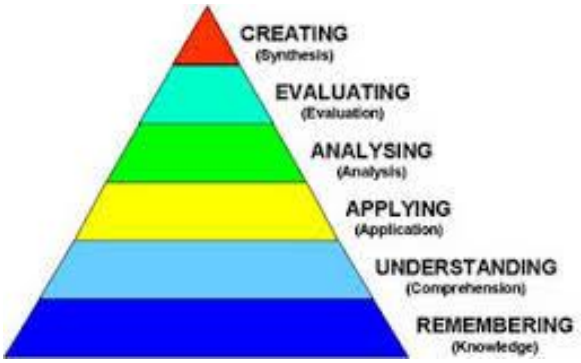
Amaliy mashg’ulotlar zamonaviy ta’lim uslublari va innovatsion texnologiyalarga asoslangan holda o’tkaziladi. Bundan tashqari, mustaqil holda o’quv va ilmiy adabiyotlardan, elektron resurslardan, tarqatma materiallardan foydalanish tavsiya etiladi.

Dasturning axborot-metodik ta’minoti

Modulni o’qitish jarayonida ishlab chiqilgan o’quv-metodik materiallar, tegishli soha bo’yicha ilmiy jurnallar, Internet resurslari, multimedia mahsulotlari va boshqa elektron va qog’oz variantdagi manbalardan foydalaniladi.

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,	➤ use information ➤ use

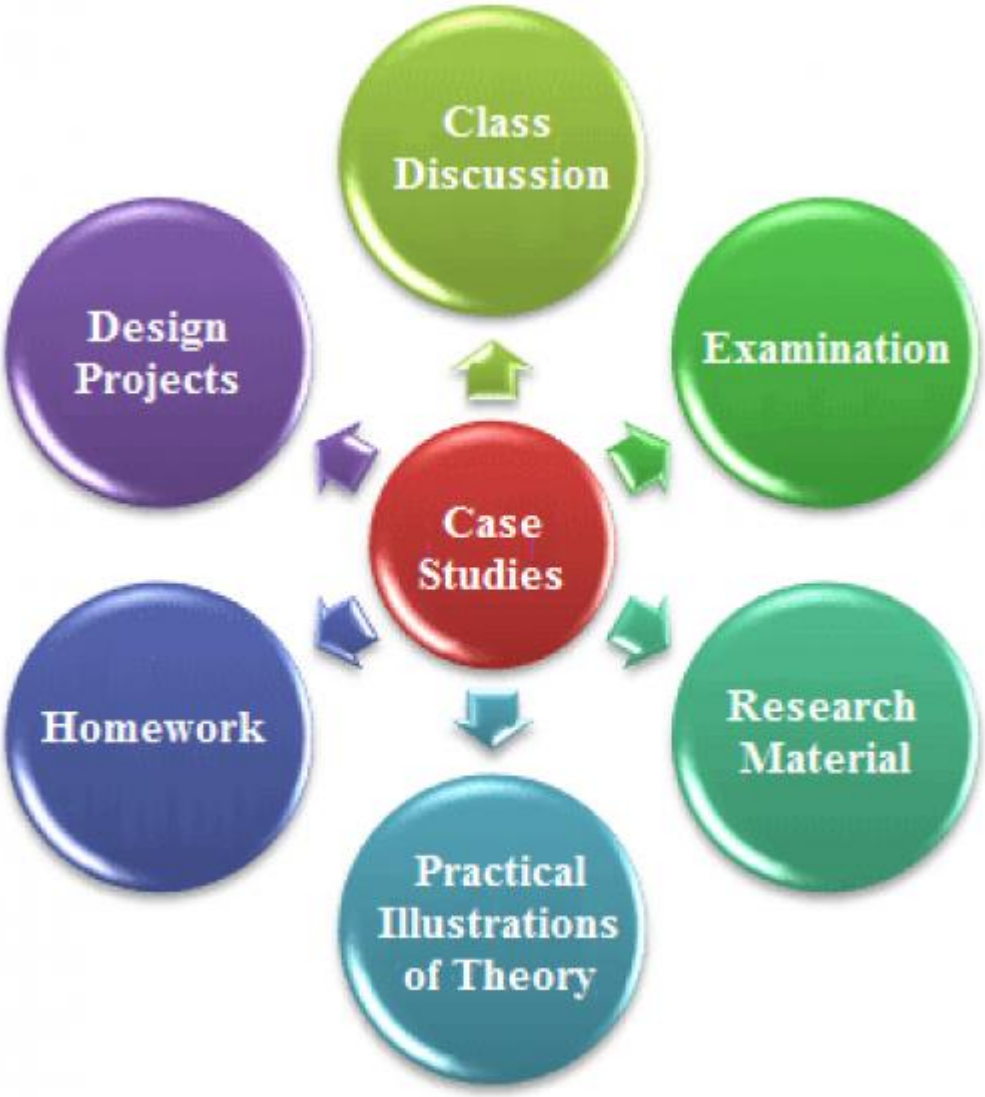
change, classify, experiment, discover)	methods, concepts, theories in new situations ➢ solve problems using required skills or knowledge
Analysis (analyze, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, explain, infer)	➢ seeing patterns ➢ organization of parts ➢ recognition 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?

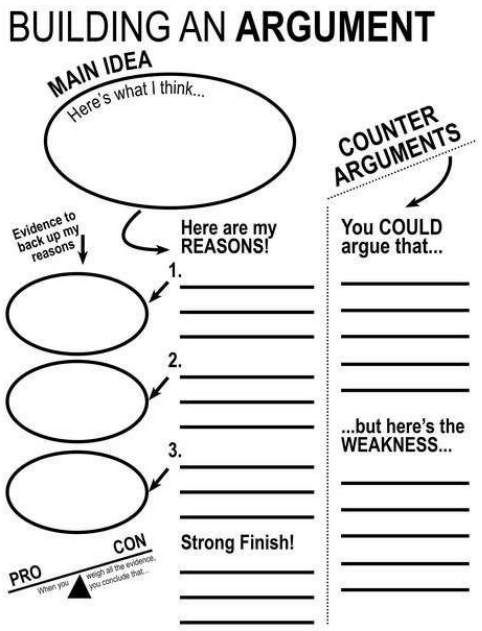
Having students complete assignments based on the case study will not only engage them with the material, but will help you determine their progress. Potential assignments include a summary of the issues, a position paper, a concept

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.



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:

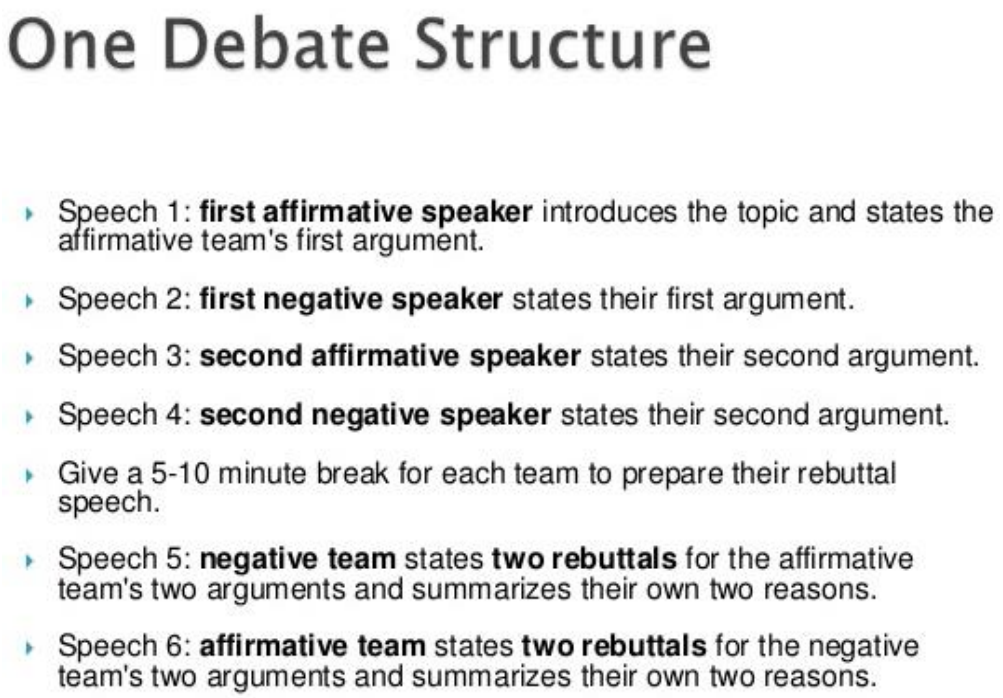
- According to LeBeau, Harrington, Lubetsky (2000), a strong reason has the following qualities:
  - it logically supports the opinion.
  - it is specific and states the idea clearly.
  - it is convincing to a majority of people.

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:



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?

I. NAZARIY MATERIALLAR

LECTURE 1. APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE PRACTICES

Plan:

1. Introduction

2. Applied linguistics

3. Language practices

Kalit so'zlar: applied linguistics, integrated learning, language policy, multilingualism, standard language education, task complexity, learner autonomy.

Division of English as an International Language, University of Illinois at Urbana-hampaign, United States of America. This course traces the historical development of strong and weak definitions of applied linguistics. Strong definitions of applied linguistics assume that the methods and insights of theoretical linguistics are directly applicable to resolving second language teaching problems. On the other hand, weak definitions do no limit themselves to the resolution of second language teaching problems but potentially address all practical language-related problems. These definitions typically assert the autonomy of the field from the mother discipline; and they draw on a broad range of feeder disciplines in addition to theoretical linguistics, whose choice depends on which particular language-related problem is to be resolved. This course argues that weak definitions are preferable in that they provide a most necessary element of flexibility in the theory and practice of applied linguistics which is in tune with the needs and realities of the wider profession. Finally, the course illustrates these theoretical principles with a practical example by examining the contributions various feeder disciplines can make to designing a coherent second language curriculum.

Applied linguistics (AL) is barely 40 years old. Howatt (1984) cites the first issue of Language Learning (1948), subtitled A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics, as the first use of this term. Whether this is actually its first attestation or not is less important than the fact that it had gained common acceptance by the mid1950s in both the United States and Britain as the name for our profession. Other labels, such as educational linguistics (Spolsky,1978), have been suggested, but these alternatives have not diffused to any great extent among the wider profession. For good or for ill, AL is the most widely used term; therefore, this is the expression that will be used in the rest of this paper. Given that AL has had such a short history as a recognizably separate academic discipline, it is not surprising that applied linguists differ as to what the defining characteristics of the field are. Is it synonymous with language teaching, in particular English language teaching or with

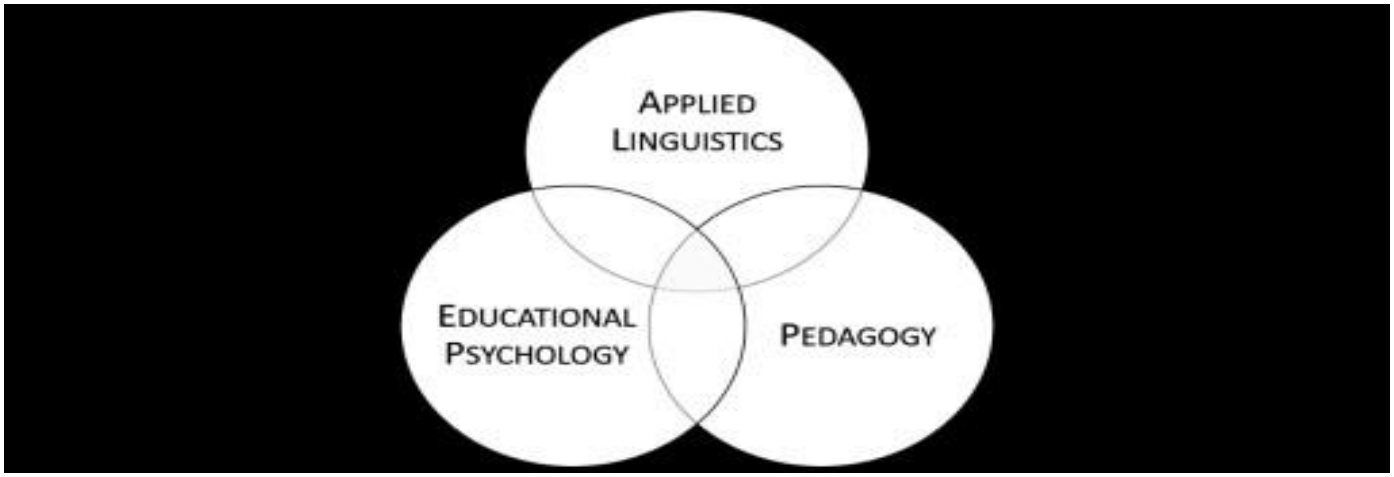
second language acquisition (SLA)? Furthermore, what is its relationship to theoretical linguistics? Is it no more than the sum of its parts, that is, the application of linguistic theory to language teaching, or is it an autonomous discipline which is also concerned with problems that are not necessarily confined to issues related to formal language instruction?

For a large part of its history, Applied Linguistics was more or less synonymous with language education [1], especially English Language Teaching. This is evident, for example, in the name of the journal that defined the field, *Language Learning: A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics*, which was set up at the University of Michigan in 1948. Phillipson (1992) hints that the early Applied Linguistics university units, such as the School of Applied Linguistics in Edinburgh (established in 1957), chose this name as 'scientific' alternative to terms like Teaching English Overseas, which had undesirable imperialist connotations.

But in the years since, Applied Linguistics has broadened in scope, and now includes many domains of inquiry other than language education. A couple of decades ago, Chris Brumfit defined Applied Linguistics as the investigation of any "real-world problem in which language is a central issue" (Brumfit, 1995, p. 27). This broad definition includes work in lexicography (i.e., dictionary writing), speech therapy, machine-human linguistic interaction, and much more.

Even more recently, Applied Linguistics has become increasingly concerned with political and ideological issues, such as the ways in which societal imbalances are encoded in language, and how language feeds back into unjust societal structures (Critical Applied Linguistics, or CALx). It has also included research that draws on a broad array of work such as cognitive semantics, translation and translanguaging theory, postmodern sociolinguistics, postcolonial theory, symbolic power theory, and more, and it has insightfully applied this knowledge to the understanding of human communication. So, in short, Applied Linguistics is a wider field than language education. As it continues to expand, it will probably move further away from its original association with language teaching. However, I am not very convinced that this broadening scope will ever completely severe the links of the discipline from the realities of the language classroom. Much as Applied Linguistics is a broader discipline than language education, the reverse also holds true. Here, too, there is a long tradition of equating the two domains, and this seems to have its origin to the 'applied science' model of teacher education (Wallace, 1991). As universities became more active in teacher education from the 1960s onwards, the dominant view was that knowledge was produced by scientists, transmitted to teachers-in-training in the university, and then the latter were responsible for 'applying' it in their professional practice. Within this frame,

applied linguistics was developed as a 'buffer' facilitating the transmission of linguistic knowledge and the transition from the lecture hall to the language classroom. There are several issues with the 'applied science' model, and this is not the space to list them. But, thinking specifically about language education, one problem seems to be that language teacher education has tended to overemphasise linguistics at the expense of other pedagogically relevant knowledge – or, to use Janez Skela's (2019) evocative phrase, Applied Linguistics 'hijacked' language education. Some people have tried to address this problem by broadening the definition of applied linguistics, e.g., to include psychological phenomena, or the politics of education. Such work generates valuable insights, but I am not sure that continuing to use the 'applied linguistics' label is is the best way forward. My concern is that this leads to a 'bloated' definition of the discipline, and 'rogue' conceptualisations of Applied Linguistics, where the connection to language is not always easy to trace.



In *Repositioning Language Education Theory*, I argue for a different conceptualisation of language education. I define it as the point of overlap between applied linguistics, the psychology of language learning and teaching, and education theory. This conceptualisation, I think, helpfully preserves the 'essence' of applied linguistics, by keeping language at the core of what (applied) linguists do, and at the same time it highlights the interdisciplinary nature of language teaching. Others have suggested that this model might be expanded by adding literature (Bland, 2019) and other informing disciplines (various personal communications). While I remain partial to the parsimony of my own conceptualisation, I think that the main point of all these suggestions is that language education must draw on more than (applied) linguistics, and — as long as this is a principled synthesis — such an interdisciplinary outlook can only be a useful thing. Language education, then, has a wider scope than Applied Linguistics (or at least the part of Applied Linguistics that concerns itself with teaching and learning). As our theoretical engagement with what happens in language classrooms deepens, it increasingly draws on insights from multiple disciplines. However, it can never dispense with Applied Linguistics without sacrificing its particularity

as *language* education.

So far, we have estalished that Applied Linguistics is a broader area than language teaching, and language teaching is also broader than Applied Linguistics. The question that we are now facing is how the two connect.

The answer we give to this question depends a lot on how we conceptualise Applied Linguistics (language teaching is a less controversial term to define). In an older post, I drew on Brumfit's (1995) definition to describe the discipline as the theoretical or empirical investigation of any issue [4] in which language is a central issue, and I also emphasised that applied linguistics work must fulfil four criteria: (a) the centrality of language; (b) real-world relevance; (c) an empirical focus; and (d) a theoretical grounding. This is a fairly conservative definition, but it serves to keep applied linguistics tethered to linguistics, while placing some of the more 'autonomous' applied linguistics scholarship under a less linguistics-driven conceptualisation of 'language education'.

This conceptualisation poses a problem when thinking about how the two fields relate. One might choose to view them as somewhat similar but **distinct domains of inquiry**. This seems to be the perspective taken by the reviewer I mentioned at the beginning of the post, who argued that our book "is about TESOL […] but it is NOT a book about Applied Linguistics" (original emphasis). Another trace of this perspective can be found in the organisational structure of some universities. For example, at the University of Graz, where I once taught, a rigid distinction was made between Applied Linguistics and what they called *Fachdidaktik*, or ELT, which were served by different organisational entities within the Department of English Studies.

Sometimes the distinction between Applied Linguistics and language teaching is framed as a **theory-practice** divide. In this perspective, Applied Linguistics provides the theoretical backdrop for the more practical activity that takes place in the language classroom. This is a somewhat problematic perspective for two reasons: Firstly, as I argued above, the knowledge base of language education only partially overlaps with that of Applied Linguistics. Moreover, such a perspective seems to blur the distinction between Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, because what distinguishes the latter must be its real-world, practical relevance.

Yet another way to view the relationship between language education and Applied Linguistics is to frame it as a **science-art** distinction. Such a view emphasises the systematic nature of one discipline (Applied Linguistics) as opposed to the *ad hoc*, situationally-defined nature of the other (language teaching). It also makes much of the role of the individual-who-teaches, as opposed to the impersonal nature of scientific inquiry. Lastly, it draws attention to the differences between the goal- and resource-driven teaching culture and the question-

driven culture of science. Most of these binary distinctions are quite artificial, and they distort the work carried out in both areas. But more importantly, just like the theory-practice divide, the sharpened divide between Applied Linguistics and language teaching comes at the expense of the distinction between Theoretical and Applied Linguistics.

It almost seems as if many of the 'strong' perspectives arguing for a clear distinction between Applied Linguistics and language teaching stem from a perceived status difference between the work carried out at the cutting-edge of the Applied Linguistics, and the rather more mundane realities of the language classroom. The role of discourses and policies that have reduced teaching to the delivery of a predefined syllabus is probably an important consideration here, but that seems like the topic for a future post.

In my view, the most serious problem with such 'strong' demarcations is that they are grounded on the rigid disciplinary compartmentalisation that goes against the grain of recent trends in linguistics, language teaching and higher education. Recent work in linguistics alerts us to the possibility that language communities are porous, that linguistic repertoires fuse multiple languages, and that social identities can be hybrid. In language education, we are moving away from conceptualisations of language learning as a monolingual psycholinguistic phenomenon and towards more complex perspectives on plurilingual competences and multilingual globalization. And in higher education we are increasingly capitalising on inter- and transdisciplinary perspectives in order to develop nuanced understandings of a post-certain world.

There are advantages in thinking of language education as a hybrid entity, residing both inside and outside the borders of applied linguistics.

Against this backdrop of porous borders between knowledge, languages, and cultures, positioning language education as firmly outside applied linguistics seems just as unhelpful as thinking of language teaching as a branch of applied linguistics. There may be advantages in thinking of language education as a hybrid entity, residing both inside and outside the borders of applied linguistics.

From this 'border' position, language education can helpfully draw on the insights of linguistics scholarship: ongoing work on topics such multilingualism and discourse ideologies can only invigorate language teaching, and help to challenge the social and ideological structures in which it is embedded. At the same time, the language classroom is a meeting space of cultures, languages, and geopolitical forces, all of which provide applied linguistics with valuable avenues of investigation.

As we mentioned in the opening paragraph, my thinking on the relationship between Applied Linguistics and language education is still quite rough. The key ideas, to which I am fairly committed to, are (a) that Language Education is a domain of activity on its own right, not just an applied form of linguistics, applied or otherwise; (b) there is an interface between Language Education and Applied Linguistics; and (c) it is equally unhelpful to view the two as entirely independent and as hyponymous.

Language practices is a term that encompasses the wide range of what Hymes (1967; 1974) called the ‘‘ethnography of speaking.” Spoken language consists of concatenations of relevant sounds that form meaning-bearing units which themselves combine into meaningful utterances. Variations in the system may not change the meaning, but will be interpretable by listeners as identifying the origin or social level of the speaker (Labov 1966). This kind of variation has long been recognized in vocabulary; five hundred years ago, the first English printer wondered how to write the word for ‘‘eggs” and whether to prefer the southern eggys or the northern eyren (Caxton 1490). Speakers of American English wonder why Englishmen call a doctor’s office a surgery, and Englishmen laugh that Americans walk on a side walk. By language practices, then, I mean the sum of the sound, word and grammatical choices that an individual speaker makes, sometimes consciously and sometimes less consciously, that makes up the conventional unmarked pattern of a variety of a language. Varieties can be categorized and labeled. At the highest level is a language, an identified cluster of language varieties that we label English, or French or Navajo. Trying to be more precise, we might distinguish American English from British English and from Jamaican English, or New York English from Boston English. The process of categorization is not simple -- almost all of the languages and language varieties named in Grimes (2000) have several names -- but is deeply embedded in the social context. Language practices include much more than sounds, words and grammar; they embrace conventional differences between levels of formality of speech and other agreed rules as to what variety is appropriate in different situations. In multilingual societies, they also include rules for the appropriacy of each named language. When members of a speech community (any group of people who share a set of language practices and beliefs) hear, or when sociolinguists analyze, a piece of discourse, they can identify not just the meaning, but also evidence of specific choices made in the course of speaking that characterize the age, gender, social class, probable place of birth and education, level of education and other facts about the speaker and his or her attitude, and provide clues to the situation and context. These choices are governed by conventional rules, not unlike grammatical rules, which are learned by members of the speech community as they grow up. Language policy may refer to all the language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity. Consider a westernized primary-school classroom. Pupils quickly discover which language choices (and language items, too) are appropriate and which are discouraged or punished. They learn that the teacher has the privilege of determining who speaks and when and of judging how appropriate is the form of speech to be used, as well as

the permitted topics. When these practices are spelled out by some external authority or taught explicitly by the teacher, this is an example of language management. Language policy may apply at various levels of generalization. It might be at the level of an individual linguistic unit (‘‘Don’t use that ugly nasal vowel!” ‘‘Don’t use that dirty word!” ‘‘Speak to me in full sentences!”) or refer to labeled varieties which are clusters of units (‘‘Don’t use dialect!” ‘‘Say it in English!”). Language management may apply to an individual linguistic microunit (a sound, a spelling or the form of a letter) or to a collection of units (pronunciation or a lexicon or a script) or to a specified, named macro-variety (a language or a dialect). Given that languages and other varieties are made up of conventionally agreed sets of choices of linguistic units, a policy-imposed change at one level necessarily is connected to all levels; switching a lexical item is a potential step towards switching a variety. Many language purists consider borrowing a word from another language to be the first stage of language loss. But this is not necessarily the case -- a receptive and flexible language like English probably benefits from its ability to borrow words. Often, neighboring dialects are close enough to their neighbors to be mutually intelligible. Sometimes political borders divide this chain, so that mutually intelligible bordering dialects might be classified as belonging to two different languages, such as French and Italian. In the same way, political concerns regularly lead to disputes over whether a variety is one language or two. Using purely linguistic criteria and mutual intelligibility, linguists claimed that Serbo-Croatian was a single language, but Pranjkovi´c and other Croatian linguists had no doubt that Serbian and Croatian are as distinct as the Scandinavian languages. Urdu is intelligible to speakers of Hindi, but takes formal vocabulary from Arabic and Persian. Hindi, on the other hand, borrows vocabulary from Sanskrit. Here, too, the political aspect was critical in deciding how to categorize the varieties. If we were to take a language, identified as such by having a distinct agreed name, as the basic unit of study, we would be forced to prejudge many central questions.

Questions to be discussed:

1. What is the main concern of applied linguistics and how does it differ from theoretical linguistics in its aims, methods and approaches?
2. What is language? How can we define it to reflect its multiple features and functions?
3. How does human language differ from animal communication systems? Why can’t chimps talk?
4. What is the main field of interest of pragmatics? Why is it important to distinguish linguistic form and function? How do the different theories we have discussed relate to the study of language function?
5. Speech Act Theory and Halliday’s language functions
6. The Gricean Maxims and their criticism
7. What theories provide an explanation for the relationship between language, thought and culture?

8. What is the Whorfian Hypothesis? On what grounds can it be supported or rejected?
9. What is the main field of interest of sociolinguistics? How is it a good symbol of a multi-disciplinary filed? What methodological problems do sociolinguists face and what solutions have been found?
10. What theories provide explanations for first language acquisition?
11. What is the Critical Period Hypothesis? What support has been found to support it in FLA and SLL?
12. Which aspects of human functioning are affected by the critical period?
13. Describe Krashen's Input Hypothesis and its criticism.

Exam questions in Language Acquisition

1. How does behaviourism explain FLA and why was it criticised?
2. How does innatism explain FLA and why was Chomsky's contribution criticised?
3. How does functionalism explain FLA? What is the role of motherese in FLA?
4. How does connectivism explain FLA?
5. What is the Critical Period Hypothesis? What support has been found to support in FLA?
6. What factors influence FLA and how?
7. What aspects of human functioning are affected by the critical period?
8. Why is it more difficult to produce a theory of SLA/SLL than a theory of FLA?
9. What theories provide and explanation for SLA/SLL?

II. AMALIY MASHG'ULOTLARMATERIALLARI

1. LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Plan:

- Language learning strategies
- The classification of language learning strategies
- Inventories Used in LLS Research

Keywords: vocabulary learning strategies, preferred, multiple strategy

It seems obvious that there is no second language learning acquisition without learning strategies, either conscious or unconscious. This is the area to which the research conducted by Rubin, Naiman et al., Fillmore, Politzer and McGroarty, O'Malley and Chamot, Oxford and Nyikos and Wenden has been devoted. They have elaborated on language learning strategies and suggested different ways of classifying learning strategies. In a foreign language context, there are other strategies related to language, called communicative strategies. It would be helpful to distinguish learning strategies from communicative strategies. Farech and Kasper define communicative strategies as potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal. Tarone also says that a communicative strategy relates to a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared. In other research contexts, the latter type is called negotiation of meaning. From the defi - nitions above it is clear that communication strategies relate to the process of communication between interlocutors. The interlocutors are involved in using a language which they are in the process of learning or may already have learnt. If communicative strategies are used in communication, learning strategies take place while people are in the process of learning to learn another language. What is meant by learning strategies? Some terms related to learning strategies are cognitive styles or learning styles. Biggs defines cognitive styles as consistent individual differences that refl ect the style or manner in which a person perceives the world, conceptualizes meanings, learns a task, or solves a problem. In research writing about Second Language Learning (SLA), the term cognitive style is sometimes interchanged with learning styles. Oxford differentiates between the two terms. She states that cognitive style is a construct subordinated to learning style. She mentions that learning style includes a large number of largely unintegrated dimensions, studied in a one by one fashion by most researchers. It seems impossible to cover the largely unintegrated

dimensions of learning style in a thorough investigation. Shipman and Shipman list 19 style dimensions; the most well-known one is fi eld independence-dependence. Nunney has mapped more than 25 elements of cognitive style in the educational fi eld. Each style dimension seems to need separate extensive and in-depth research. Learning styles seem to be closely related to learning strategies. Oxford puts learning styles at the root of an individual's natural strategy preference so that it is logical to relate learning styles with learning strategies. She summarizes three style dimensions: analytic versus global processing, tolerance of ambiguity and sensory preferences. The different dimensions will result in different classifi cations of learning styles. She suggests that analytic versus global dimension is the most important style dimension for language learning, since it covers almost all other dimensions and has proven so signifi cant in studies in other subject areas outside of language learning.

There have been numerous researches focused on language learning strategies. The latest research done by Griffiths & Oxford, they introduced the global reach and roadmap of language learning strategies in the twenty-first century – a panoramic view of the international landscape of strategies. There are eight key areas of controversy and discussion: strategy definitions, strategies and proficiency, theoretical underpinnings, categorization, context, teachability, research methodology, and analysis. Those areas, later on, will be the new issues to be discussed in research focusing on language learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) illustrated learning strategies as special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information. Learning strategies are intentional behavior and thoughts that learners make use of during learning in order to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information. Wenden and Rubin describe learning strategies as any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. The strategy that students use for their learning is also included as the factor to determine how well students learn language states the aim of using learning strategies by learners is to learn something more successfully. Students who have their appropriate learning strategies normally will have better understanding. Moreover, Oxford states that learning strategies help to make the learning becomes easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situation. Their better understanding will result good marks in their learning. Self-report is the only way to dig up students' learning strategies. However, self-report can be less accurate source if the learners do not report truthfully. Therefore, when a researcher wants to reveal learners' learning strategies, he/she need to be careful when collecting the related information to the learners. By doing so, it is hoped that the researcher will get more accurate

data. From the theories above, learning strategies can be constructed as learning tools which selected by learners to help them successful in the learning process. Moreover, the learning strategies have to make the learning easier, faster, and more enjoyable.

Language learning strategies have been classified by many researchers. However, the classifications of language learning strategies are more or less the same. Oxford classified into two big types of language learning strategies; direct and indirect, which are further categorized into six groups. Direct strategies are strategies used by learners by involving the new language directly for example: guessing meaning of the target language, producing sentences using the target language, etc. These strategies require mental processing of the language such as memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. Meanwhile, indirect strategies are strategies that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language such as metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 45) suggest that language learning strategies can be divided into three groups: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/ affective strategies. This differentiation depends on the level or type of processing involved. O'Malley and Chamot (1990), define metacognitive strategies as skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity. Then, they suggest that cognitive strategies refer to activities learners use to obtain, store, retrieve, and use language information. The last, socio-affective strategies are defined as activities that involve either interaction with another person or ideational control over affectation.

Learning strategies of the students are very useful and helpful in learning English as a foreign language. Language learning strategies also bring the students reach the good achievement in improving their English fluency and their academic lesson especially English as a foreign language. Learning strategies are believed to be responsible for successful language acquisition and a significant determinant of ultimate success in language learning. Thus, in learning English as a foreign language, good language learning strategies are important as well. There are some ideas intended for other researchers that are interested in doing research in the same area, teachers, and curriculum makers. (1) Lecturers should know students' language learning strategies so they can provide and create materials as well as opportunities that fit the students' language learning strategies. (2) Students need to be taught language learning strategies to be able to learn English more effectively. (3) The lecturers can use this research's findings to create a good learning environment in order to improve students' fluency. (4) English lecturers should develop English learning strategies to make students' fluency more improved. (5) Students should aware of the benefits of the learning strategies to get good

improvement in English fluency. (6) Students can use this research's finding to get successful in order to improve English fluency. (7) Students should always search the best learning strategy to improve English fluency to keep up to date in this information age. (8) The curriculum should accommodate students' language learning strategies for students' better achievement in learning English.

Several inventories and surveys have been devised to examine language learning strategies (LLS). The most frequently referred to in the literature include Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Several research studies on LLS have benefited from SILL (e.g. Demirel, 2012; Patil & Karekatti, 2012) for the purpose of providing "a general picture of the individual learner's typical strategy use, rather than a specific portrayal of the strategies used by the learner on a particular language task" (Oxford, 1999, p.114). It has been used in different language contexts and levels of study(Oxford, 1999). The great advantage SILL is to provide reliable and valid data (Anderson, 2005). Likert-type items in the SILL are classified into two main, and six sub-categories of strategies: direct strategies (e.g. memory-related, cognitive, and compensatory), and indirect strategies (e.g. metacognitive, affective, and social strategies) (Oxford, 1999). The Cronbach alpha internal consistency index of the 80-item version of the scale in EFL/ESL or translated contexts is between .94 and .98.The reliability of the 50-item version of the SILL is .89 and .90 when administered in English in EFL contexts (Oxford, 1999). Another more sophisticated taxonomy is Purpura's (1999), which examines the psychometric properties of cognitive and metacognitive LLS (e.g. comprehending, retrieval and memory strategies) through the applications of the Structural Equation Model approach. The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) is another commonly used Likert-type scale, which examines metacognitive strategies used while reading in the target language. It includes three sections: global reading, problem solving reading strategies, and reading support strategies. SORS has a well-established psychometric property and a reliability co-efficiency of .93. Finally, Cohen and Oxford's (2002) Young Learners' Language Strategy Use Survey (LSS) defines strategies regarding language skills. This taxonomy uses 76 items, which are constructed to examine strategy uses in learning language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and other language features including vocabulary and translation.

Questions to be discussed

1. What are the Language Learning Strategies most frequently used by students?
2. What are the main characteristics of academically successful students in English performance and in other disciplines?
3. What are some examples of learning strategies?
4. Why learning strategies are important?
5. What are the three questioning techniques?

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PRACTICAL LESSON 3. LEARNING LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS. LANGUAGE SOUNDS.

Plan:

1. Learning language

2. The methods of language learning

3. Phonetic notation

The problem of learning languages is very important today. Foreign languages are socially demanded especially at the present time when the progress in science and technology has led to an explosion of knowledge and has contributed to an overflow of information. The total knowledge of mankind is known to double every seven years. Foreign languages are needed as the main and most efficient means of information exchange of the people of our planet. Today English is the language of the world. Over 350 million people speak it as a mother tongue. The native speakers of English live in Great Britain, the United States of America, Australia and New Zealand.English is one of the official languages in the Irish Republic, Canada, the South African Republic. As a second language it is used in the former British and US colonies. It is the major international language for communication in such areas as science, technology, business and mass entertainment. English is one of the official languages of the United Nations Organization and other political organization. It is the language of the literature, education, modern music, international tourism. Russia is integrating into the world community and the problem of learning English for the purpose of communication is especially urgent today. Learning a foreing language is not as easy thing. It is a long and slow process that takes a lot of time and patience. But to know English is absolutely necessary for every educated person, for every good specialist. It is well known that reading books in the original, listening to the BBC news, communicating with the English speaking people will help a lot. When learning a foreign language you learn the culture and history of the native speakers. One must work hard to learn any foreign language. During the last decade applied linguistic studies has seen a substantial and renewed interest in learners' styles of learning, as well as in the strategies that they use to gain a command of a new language (cf., e.g., Wenden & Rubin 1987; Oxford 1990, Oxford & Crookall 1989, Chamot & Kupper 1989, Chamot & O'Malley 1990;

Cohen 1998). Learner styles are broadly defined here as encompassing ways that learners consciously or unconsciously use to gain a command of a new language, their strategies for developing this command, and, even, their idiosyncratic techniques for becoming competent users of their selected target language. Apart from the historical reasons for this concern with learners' styles of learning, which will be referred to again below, there are also a number of practical reasons, relating to the instructional context, for such interest. Our current focus is on learners' beliefs, which are the sets of assumptions and preconceptions about language learning that learners often carry with them into class, and that may refer to, or find expression in, their learning styles and strategies. These beliefs are important for at least four immediate reasons: ? They frame learners' expectations, and are potentially powerful motivating influences or impediments to language learning. If learners' beliefs are not aligned with the teacher's, then learning, developing and progressing may be impeded as a result of conflict within the instructional situation. ? If learners' views of language learning are erroneous, language learning may be less effective (Horwitz 1987: 126). ? Learners' views of language learning can potentially change and be modified, whereas cognitive styles may be less amenable to change (Horwitz 1987: 126). As Horwitz's original study of students' preconceived ideas has indicated (1987: 127), such … beliefs have varying degrees of validity and numerous origins, often differing radically from the current opinions of second language scholars; in many cases, the term 'myth' might be a more accurate characterisation (Horwitz 1987: 119). In an age where the expectations of the student are paramount, one may be somewhat reluctant to characterise learners' views as erroneous or mythical, yet there is no doubt, as the results of this study will confirm, that they at times border on myth. Where these learners' teachers have recently been professionally trained and, therefore, use methods of language teaching and approaches that, for example, promote fluency and communication instead of conventional grammar teaching, it is quite possible that conflicts may arise between learners' beliefs and expectations on the one hand, and teachers' instructional practices on the other. Learners' resistance to instructional practices may well be related to such a conflict between expectations and beliefs. Teachers may therefore find themselves and their learners in one of the following states (there may be more): 1) Learners' beliefs are aligned with those of the teacher. 2) There is a mismatch between learners' beliefs and those of the teacher. 3) Whether congruent with or different from those of the teacher, learners' beliefs may be an impediment to learning. The current discussion is part of an ongoing investigation, within our unit, of learners' and teachers' beliefs. We intend to report separately on a survey of teachers' beliefs, and on

whether, and how, these beliefs are aligned to or in conflict with learners' beliefs. This kind of investigation is important to our work since, in most cases, we have very limited time with students in which to deal with a problem that has great urgency for our whole institution. This problem is that our students, for the greater part, have been identified by a reliable, standardised placement test as being at risk academically because of too low a level of (academic) language proficiency. The test we use is powerful in predicting success in the first year of study. Its results indicate the urgency of designing and mounting an intervention, in the form of a set of courses of language proficiency development, to minimise the risk. If students who are identified as being at risk do not develop and sustain such proficiency early on in their studies, the time that they spend struggling with their academic work becomes futile and wasteful, in both human and financial terms. The intervention for which we are responsible, viz. to assist in bringing them up to a level of proficiency that will enhance their chances of academic success, is made even more urgent by the limited time — less than one calendar year — in which this must be accomplished. We therefore do not have the luxury of facilitating the development of students over many years, which would normally be ideal for sustaining the kind of growth that is possible through language instruction. The discussion is also a report on the beginning of an investigation that will gradually be refined. We have, in other words, used the data that were currently available to us as a pilot study, with the intention of modifying the statements, where the need arises, or altering the methodology, if necessary. We report later on the modifications that we foresee, as a result of this preliminary analysis, to the instrument that was employed for this investigation. We turn now to a description and discussion of that instrument.

There are three teaching methods that dominate the business of language instruction: the Direct Method, the Grammar-Translation Method, and the Audio-Lingual Method. Deciding which is the best method is difficult because each has strengths and weaknesses, and the nature of a student's goals will determine which is best for that student. Although many language-training sources may speak about exclusive or unique approaches, with few exceptions they are using one of these three methods. We conducted extensive research on the subject of teaching methods for our **online language training** programs. Here is a description of the three primary language teaching methods along with our analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of each one:

The Direct Method is also known as the Oral or Natural method. It's based on the active involvement of the student in both speaking and listening to the new

language in realistic everyday situations. The process consists of a gradual acquisition of grammatical structure and vocabulary. The learner is encouraged to think in the target language rather than translate. He or she hears and uses the language before seeing it written. In the direct method, all teaching occurs in the target language, encouraging the learner to think in that language. The learner does not practice translation or use their native language in the classroom. Practitioners of this method believe that learners should experience a second language without any interference from their native tongue. Instructors do not stress rigid grammar rules but teach it indirectly through induction. This means that learners figure out grammar rules on their own by practicing the language. The goal for students is to develop connections between experience and language. They do this by concentrating on good pronunciation and the development of oral skills. This method improves understanding, fluency, reading, and listening skills in our students. Standard techniques are question and answer, conversation, reading aloud, writing, and student self-correction for this language learning method.

Phonetic notation is the use of special written symbols to refer to the sounds or sound features of one or several languages. Related to this, phonetic transcription involves recording words and utterances using phonetic notation. The need for phonetic notation (and transcription) in phonetics research and teaching and learning is unquestioned by phoneticians, linguists and speech researchers in general, who find it very convenient to have an unambiguous notation system to refer to sounds. A different issue is, however, whether phonetic notation is appropriate in foreign language teaching. The issue is relevant as phonetic symbols are often used in learner dictionaries and activities included in second or foreign language (L2) teaching materials. In this respect, some authors consider that learners can benefit from the use of phonetic symbols in L2 pronunciation learning (e.g. Lintunen 2005; McMullen 1988; Newton 1999; Tench 1992), while others seem to consider phonetic symbols unnecessary or hardly recommendable (e.g. Cant 1976; Paikeday 1993). Given the contradictory views, teachers are often uncertain as to whether to use phonetic notation or not. Their eventual decision is typically based on their own experiences as learners themselves. Individual choices may also be influenced by the aims and objectives in teaching, the nature of the materials used or even previous teacher training. The purpose of this article is to examine the perceived usefulness of phonetic notation in pronunciation teaching from learners' perspective. The L2 considered here is English. After a review of the potential advantages of phonetic symbols in L2 teaching and learning, we examine learners' views on this issue by means of a

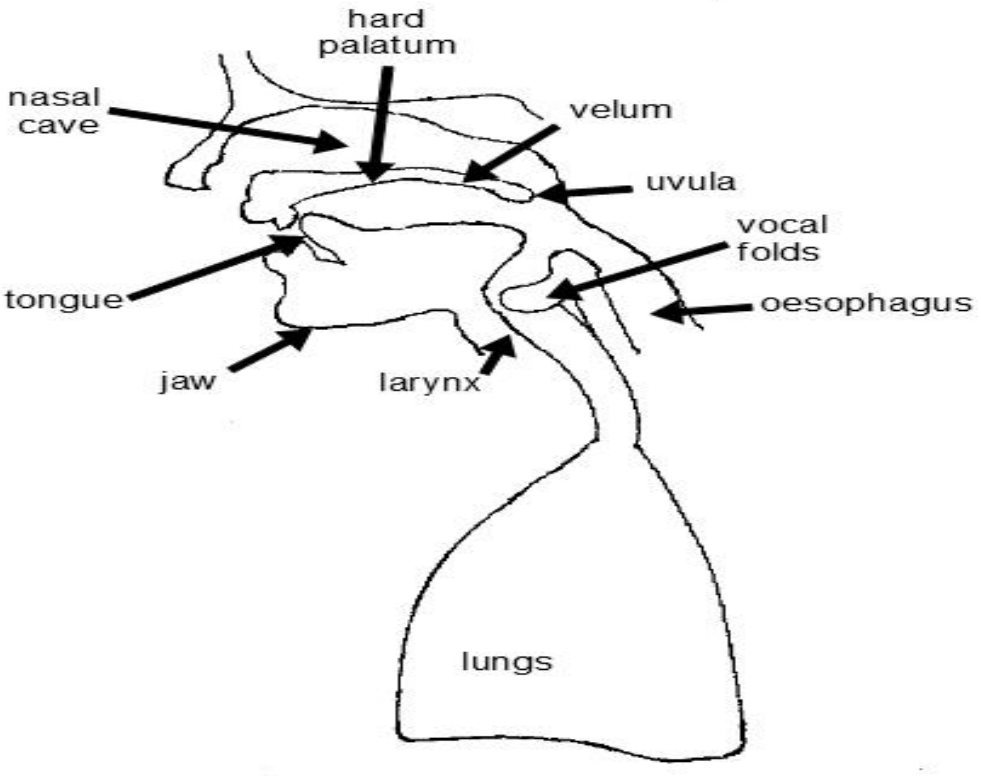
questionnaire. For this, EFL (English as a foreign language) learners from three countries were chosen: Finland, France and Spain (henceforth FI, FR and SP, respectively). By comparing learners with different linguistic backgrounds, we hope to discover general tendencies irrespective of the learner's native language. The view held in this paper is that pronunciation is an essential component of any L2 curriculum and that instruction should draw learners' conscious attention to linguistic elements in the input during lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication; without special attention, learners are likely to ignore these elements. The assumption is that the accuracy-intelligibility dichotomy is not very useful and that pronunciation instruction is not about working on accuracy to attain native-like pronunciation but rather that pronunciation training is essential to a number of intermediate steps that influence spoken intelligibility (Levis and Levelle 2010). It is often said that languages differ by sound or melody. What does this mean? Only when one begins consciously the process of learning a foreign language, does one notice that the language in question possesses sounds far removed from those in one's own, and not even produced in the same manner. Sometimes, there are also sounds which sound similar, yet prove to be different by a minute, but essential, detail. Those sounds cannot simply be replaced by sounds one knows from their own language. Such a replacement could change the meaning of a word or phrase, or even cause the sentence to become incomprehensible. Correct articulation can prove to be of great difficulty and may require arduous and repetitive practice. Several different sounds may sound the same to a non-native speaker, and at the same time, deceptively similar to a sound from their own mother tongue. Although awareness of such phenomena increases with every new foreign language learnt, only a few realise just how much variety of sound exists in the languages of the world.

Different sounds, different manner of articulation

The differences in sound are the result of different manners of articulation – the way they are pronounced. Speaking in a native or a very well-known language doesn't require much thought about the positioning of the lips, the tongue or a possible closing of the air flow through the nasal cavity. Fully conscious articulation would be too slow. There are only a few elements whose position can be controlled by conscious will (see the figure below). Nonetheless, it still allows a great variety of sounds to be pronounced. Apart from speech, this can also be observed, perhaps with greater ease, in singing. Each natural language uses but a small part of the great phonetic potential. As such, languages usually consist of only several dozen such sound units, which are then used to build words and utterances.

The sound structure of language encompasses quite a lot of **topics**, including the following. the anatomy, physiology, and acoustics of the human vocal tract;

the nomenclature for the vocal articulations and sounds used in speech, as represented by the International Phonetic Alphabet; hypotheses about the nature of phonological features and their organization into segments, syllables and words; the often-extreme changes in the sound of morphemes in different contexts; the way that knowledge of language sound structure unfolds as children learn to speak; the variation in sound structure across dialects and across time. Instead of giving a whirlwind tour of the whole of phonetics and phonology, this lecture has two more limited goals. The first goal is to **put language sound structure in context**. Why do human languages have a sound structure about which we need to say anything more than that vocal communication is based on noises made with the eating and breathing apparatus? What are the apparent "design requirements" for this system, and how are they fulfilled? The second goal is to give you a concrete sense of **what the sound systems of languages are like**. In order to do this, we will go over examples of sound alternations in various languages. Along the way, a certain amount of the terminology and theory of phonetics and phonology will emerge.



The vocal tract cross section

It is mainly the vocal folds which are responsible for voicing and pitch. The process by which the vocal folds produce certain sounds is called ‘phonation’. It is possible to feel them vibrating by placing fingers on one’s Adam’s apple. Women’s vocal folds are of a smaller size than those of men. The rest of the vocal tract, its exact shape differs from person to person, decides on what sound is to be initiated. The changes, be they conscious or automatic, during the articulation process also influence the produced sound. Vowels are the sounds produced with a widely open articulatory tract. If in the process of articulation, an obstruction occurs in the vocal tract (i.e. the tongue touches the palate, the mouth is closed), the produced sound is a consonant. The sounds ‘in-between’, articulated with a narrowed vocal tract are called approximants (for example the English sounds which are represented in orthography by the letters and, and in the phonetic alphabet of the International Phonetic Associacion by the same symbols /w/ and /j/, (slash brackets mean broad transcription, see below). In a sense, they are a bit like ‘incomplete consonants’).

Discussion questions:

1. What do you understand by parts ofspeech?
2. How many tendencies are there in classifying words to parts of speech? Tryto describe all ofthem.
3. Try to describe the conceptions of famous world linguists on theproblem.
4. What are the peculiar features of classifying words to parts of speech basedon structuralapproach?
5. What is the difference between notional and functional parts ofspeech?
6. Do all the parts of speech have grammaticalcategories?

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PRACTICAL LESSON 4. TEACHING GRAMMAR: LEXICO-GRAMMAR AND CORPUS LINGUISTICS

PLAN:

1. **Teaching grammar**
2. **Lexico-grammar**
3. **Corpus linguistics**
4. **Marriage between lexico-grammar and corpus linguistics**

There are many arguments for putting grammar in the foreground in second language teaching. Here are seven of them: 1) The sentence-machine argument Part of the process of language learning must be what is sometimes called item-learning — that is the memorisation of individual items such as words and phrases. However, there is a limit to the number of items a person can both retain and retrieve. Even travellers' phrase books have limited usefulness — good for a three-week holiday, but there comes a point where we need to learn some patterns or rules to enable us to generate new sentences. That is to say, grammar. Grammar, after all, is a description of the regularities in a language, and knowledge of these regularities provides the learner with the means to generate a potentially enormous number of original sentences. The number of possible new sentences is constrained only by the vocabulary at the learner's command and his or her creativity. Grammar is a kind of 'sentence-making machine'. It follows that the teaching of grammar offers the learner the means for potentially limitless linguistic creativity. 2) The fine-tuning argument The purpose of grammar seems to be to allow for greater subtlety of meaning than a merely lexical system can cater for. While it is possible to get a lot of communicative mileage out of simply stringing words and phrases together, there comes a point where 'Me Tarzan, you Jane'-type language fails to deliver, both in terms of intelligibility and in terms of appropriacy. This is particularly the case for written language, which generally needs to be more explicit than spoken language. For example, the following errors are likely to confuse the reader: Last Monday night I was boring in my house. After speaking a lot time with him I thought that him attracted me. We took a wrong plane and when I saw it was very later because the plane took up. Five years ago I would want to go to India but in that time anybody of my friends didn't want to go. The teaching of grammar, it is argued, serves as a corrective against the kind of ambiguity represented in these examples. 3) The fossilisation argument It is possible for highly motivated learners with a particular aptitude for languages to achieve amazing levels of proficiency without any formal study. But more often 'pick it up as you go along' learners reach a

language plateau beyond which it is very difficult to progress. To put it technically, their linguistic competence fossilises. Research suggests that learners who receive no instruction seem to be at risk of fossilising sooner than those who do receive instruction. 4) The advance-organiser argument Grammar instruction might also have a delayed effect. The researcher Richard Schmidt kept a diary of his experience learning Portuguese in Brazil. Initially he had enrolled in formal language classes where there was a heavy emphasis on grammar. When he subsequently left these classes to travel in Brazil his Portuguese made good progress, a fact he attributed to the use he was making of it. However, as he interacted naturally with Brazilians he was aware that certain features of the talk — certain grammatical items — seemed to catch his attention. He noticed them. It so happened that these items were also items he had studied in his classes. What's more, being more noticeable, these items seemed to stick. Schmidt concluded that noticing is a prerequisite for acquisition. The grammar teaching he had received previously, while insufficient in itself to turn him into a fluent Portuguese speaker, had 5 primed him to notice what might otherwise have gone unnoticed, and hence had indirectly influenced his learning. It had acted as a kind of advance organiser for his later acquisition of the language. 5) The discrete item argument Language seen from 'outside', can seem to be a gigantic, shapeless mass, presenting an insuperable challenge for the learner. Because grammar consists of an apparently finite set of rules, it can help to reduce the apparent enormity of the language learning task for both teachers and students. By tidying language up and organising it into neat categories (sometimes called discrete items), grammarians make language digestible. (A discrete item is any unit of the grammar system that is sufficiently narrowly defined to form the focus of a lesson or an exercise: e.g. the present continuous, the definite article, possessive pronouns). 6) The rule-of-law argument It follows from the discrete-item argument that, since grammar is a system of learnable rules, it lends itself to a view of teaching and learning known as transmission. A transmission view sees the role of education as the transfer of a body of knowledge (typically in the form of facts and rules) from those that have the knowledge to those that do not. Such a view is typically associated with the kind of institutionalised learning where rules, order, and discipline are highly valued. The need for rules, order and discipline is particularly acute in large classes of unruly and unmotivated teenagers - a situation that many teachers of English are confronted with daily. In this sort of situation grammar offers the teacher a structured system that can be taught and tested in methodical steps. 7) The learner expectations argument Regardless of the theoretical and ideological arguments for or against grammar teaching, many learners come to language classes with fairly fixed

expectations as to what they will do there. These expectations may derive from previous classroom experience of language learning. They may also derive from experience of classrooms in general where (traditionally, at least) teaching is of the transmission kind mentioned above. On the other hand, their expectations that teaching will be grammar-focused may stem from frustration experienced at trying to pick up a second language in a non-classroom setting, such as through self-study, or through immersion in the target language culture. Such students may have enrolled in language classes specifically to ensure that the learning experience is made more efficient and systematic. The teacher who ignores this expectation by encouraging learners simply to experience language is likely to frustrate and alienate them.

The focus of Lexico-Grammar is the **interaction of lexis and grammar**, and it is influenced by Halliday's view of lexis and grammar as "complementary perspectives" (1991: 32), and his conception of the two as notional ends of a continuum (***lexicogrammar***), in that "if you interrogate the system grammatically you will get grammar-like answers and if you interrogate it lexically you get lexis-like answers" (1992: 64). However, **Lexico-Grammar is not restricted to a particular theoretical approach to lexicogrammar**.

Lexico-Grammar primarily welcomes papers reporting on **corpus-based research** on any aspect of the **interaction of lexis and grammar**, and is particularly interested in **studies that interrogate the system lexicogrammatically to get lexicogrammatical answers**. However, **position papers** discussing **theoretical** or **methodological issues** are also welcome, as long as they are relevant to **both** lexicogrammar and corpus linguistics. More specifically, studies can …

- focus more on the lexis or grammar end of the continuum, or adopt an integrative approach.
- discuss different interpretations of the nature of lexicogrammar.
- operate within any theoretical approach that takes into account the interaction of lexis and grammar (e.g. Construction Grammar, Lexical Grammar, Pattern Grammar, Systemic Functional Grammar, Valency Grammar).
- discuss empirical findings in need of theoretical interpretation.
- adopt a synchronic or diachronic approach.
- examine any language, or compare different languages.
- examine L1 and/or L2 use.
- discuss the implications of the findings of corpus-based lexicogrammatical research for applied linguistics (e.g. forensic linguistics, lexicography, language acquisition, language processing, language teaching, language testing and assessment,

translation, sociolinguistics, discourse studies).

- report on the development of relevant resources for research and/or applications (e.g. language teaching, translation).

Abstracts must be **500 words** (excluding references), and must clearly specify a) the **aims**, **research questions**, or **hypotheses**, b) the **theoretical underpinnings** of the study, c) the **corpus** and **methodology**, and d) the **main findings**.

Full papers are allocated **35 minutes** (including 10 minutes for discussion).

Short papers and **work-in-progress** reports are allocated **20 minutes** (including 5 minutes for discussion).

There are **no parallel sessions**.

However, participants are expected to cover their travel and accommodation costs. Please note that the number of places is limited, and places will be allocated on a first-come, first-served basis. Researching the role of lexicogrammar in the formation of language is only so useful when you neglect to consider how language is *actually* used rather than just how it's used in theories and models. This is where corpus linguistics, the study of real-world language, comes in, and what author of *The Lexicogrammar of Adjectives: A Systemic Functional Approach to Lexis* Gordon Tucker advocates for. "Generalizations on the structure of language tell us little about how people actually use the language, and consequently how a language really is. The patterns of structural and lexical behavior are not revealed by the linguist's introspection or from a few examples chosen to fit the pattern. This is the conclusion that increasingly is being drawn from a growing body of linguistic research on large computer corpora or databases. It is only when we come to investigate a language from samples of millions of words of running text that we can really begin to understand how words and structures behave and interact... A theory of language or a model of a particular language ... has to account for use as attested by corpus linguistic research. If such a theory purports to give rise to language description, it must have the potential to incorporate the vagaries and idiosyncrasies of **lexicogrammatical** behaviour and the cryptotypical phenomena which are uncovered by the observation of language use on a significantly larger scale," (Tucker 1999).

What is corpus linguistics? It is certainly quite distinct from most other topics you might study in linguistics, as it is not directly about the study of any particular aspect of language. Rather, it is an area which focuses upon a set of procedures, or methods, for studying language (although, as we will see, at least one major school of corpus linguists does not agree with the characterisation of corpus linguistics as a methodology). The procedures themselves are still developing, and remain an unclearly delineated set – though some of them, such as concordancing, are well established and are viewed as central to the approach. Given these procedures, we can take a corpus-based approach to many areas of linguistics. Yet precisely because of this, as this book will show, corpus linguistics has the potential to reorient our entire approach to the study of language. It may

refine and redefine a range of theories of language. It may also enable us to use theories of language which were at best difficult to explore prior to the development of corpora of suitable size and machines of sufficient power to exploit them. Importantly, the development of corpus linguistics has also spawned, or at least facilitated the exploration of, new theories of language – theories which draw their inspiration from attested language use and the findings drawn from it. In this book, these impacts of corpus linguistics will be introduced, explored and evaluated. Before exploring the impact of corpora on linguistics in general, however, let us return to the observation that corpus linguistics focuses upon a group of methods for studying language. This is an important observation, but needs to be qualified. Corpus linguistics is not a monolithic, consensually agreed set of methods and procedures for the exploration of language. While some generalisations can be made that characterise much of what is called 'corpus linguistics', it is very important to realise that corpus linguistics is a heterogeneous field. Differences exist within corpus linguistics which separate out and subcategorise varying approaches to the use of corpus data. But let us first deal with the generalisations. We could reasonably define corpus linguistics as dealing with some set of machine-readable texts which is deemed an appropriate basis on which to study a specific set of research questions. The set of texts or *corpus* dealt with is usually of a size which defies analysis by hand and eye alone within any reasonable timeframe. It is the large scale of the data used that explains the use of machine-readable text. Unless we use a computer to read, search and manipulate the data, working with extremely large datasets is not feasible because of the time it would take a human analyst, or team of analysts, to search through the text. It is certainly extremely difficult to search such a large corpus by hand in a way which guarantees no error. The next generalisation follows from this observation: corpora are invariably exploited using tools which allow users to search through them rapidly and reliably. Some of these tools, namely concordancers, allow users to look at words in context. Most such tools also allow the production of frequency data of some description, for example a word frequency list, which lists all words appearing in a corpus and specifies for each word how many times it occurs in that corpus. Concordances and frequency data exemplify respectively the two forms of analysis, namely qualitative and quantitative, that are equally important to corpus linguistics.

A corpus is always designed for a particular purpose, and the type of corpus will depend on its purpose. According to the functions and purposes given by Hunston (2002), commonly used corpus types include: specialized corpus, general corpus, comparable corpora, parallel corpora, learner corpus, pedagogic corpus, historical or diachronic corpus, and monitor corpus (p. 14-17). However, in terms of corpus accessibility, three types of web-based corpus can be categorized: closed corpora, paid corpora, and free online corpora. 1.1 Closed Corpora Longman Corpus Network, Cambridge International

Corpus (CIC), and World English Corpus are three typical closed corpora. Only a few researchers, editors, lexicographers and textbook writers affiliated with Longman, Cambridge, and Macmillan publishers have access to these corpora. Rest of us can only use corpus-based printed products of these publishers. 1.2 Paid Corpora Many well-known corpora can be bought in a CD-ROM format; price varies from one corpus to another. Most creators of corpus also offer special discount to non-commercial users or educational institutes. ICAME, COLT, and CSPA are some examples of paid corpora. 1.3 Free Online Corpora With the growing popularity and outstanding performance of wired computers, corpus linguists have created more and more online corpora which are open to the public. Some free corpora are listed below: 1. BNC Sampler (http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/) 2. Cobuild Concordance and Collocations Sampler (http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/Corpus Search.aspx) 3. JustTheWord (http://193.133.140.102/JustTheWord/) 4. MICASE (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English) (http://quod.lib.umich.edu/m/ micase/) If language teachers would like to integrate corpora into their English teaching but won't use free online corpora, they can only buy corpus data (usually in CD-ROM format) and sometimes also concordancing software. However, to English teachers who are not computer literate, to design and maintain a fast, reliable, large, powerful and quality corpus without the support of a team of engineers and programmers is a formidable, if not impossible, task. Therefore, it is more practical to use free online corpora that are readily available to teachers as well as students. 2. Corpus-based linguistics and lexico-grammar instruction Using corpora in a language class is not beneficial to students only; it also benefits language instructors. English teachers of non-native speaker now can reply not on intuition of native speakers but on principled corpora to solve some grammatical and usage problems. In addition, because a particular grammatical feature may occur only once or twice in a textbook, additional corpus material may be useful to expose the learner to a recurrent patter rather than a single occurrence. Viewing the incorporation of corpus research into language teaching from a register-specific and lexico-grammatical perspective, Conrad (2000) further argued that three major influences of corpus-based linguistics on the teaching of grammar can be seen in the 21st century. These three significant impacts she mentioned are (p. 549): 1. Detailed descriptions of grammar rules will be replaced by register-specific descriptions. 2. The grammar instruction will be closely integrated with the teaching of vocabulary. Lexico-grammar patterns will be central to language description and language learning. 3. Emphasis on structural accuracy will be shifted to the appropriate use of alternative grammatical constructions. 3. Pedagogical issues of the use of corpora in a classroom setting One practical issue about using corpora in the classroom is whether teachers should use 'raw', unedited corpus search or specially-compiled, teacher-edited presentation of corpus data (Hunston, 2002, chap. 7). The former one is feasible if the school can provide teachers with enough

computer facilities so that students and the teacher in a class have their own computer to look at the corpus together. The advantage of this kind of study is to maximum student motivation: the student has a question which needs to be dealt with (e.g., to complete a piece of written work) and is therefore highly motivated to discover the answer from the corpus data consulted. Of course, the disadvantage is that teachers have little control over what happens. For example, if the corpus is consulted and no answer is apparent to student or teacher, or some unacceptable answers are found, the teacher has to depend on his/her language intuition (for native speakers) or linguistic competence (for non-native speakers) to solve the problem. On the contrary, the latter pedagogy – specially-compiled, teacher-edited presentation of corpus data – is realistic when a school is not equipped with enough computer facilities for the students. Materials then can be printed on to paper to be used with a whole class. At the same time, teacher has more control over the prepared data. However, the disadvantage is that, as the teacher selects the topic for study, the students will probably be less motivated to look for or remember the target information. Corpus-based, pattern-recognition, self-directed learning is an inductive approach, which has many advantages. However, applying the corpus-based inductive approach to language pedagogy, we should pay more attention to its potential disadvantages so that they can be minimized by all means. There are at least four disadvantages of inductive approach: 1. It's time-consuming for both students and the teacher (if the teacher would like to check the corpus before she/he asks students to do so). The time taken to work out a rule may be optimally used to integrate the rule directly into some productive activities. 2. Students may reach a wrong conclusion about some grammatical features, or their interpretation of these rules is either too broad or too narrow. 3. Some students just do not like this kind of learning style and some kinds of language items are better 'given' than 'discovered'. Personal learning preferences will definitely influence one's learning results. 4. Using corpus-based data search in a classroom setting, a teacher has to make a couple of digressions from the main topics of a lesson, which definitely will interrupt the flow of the lecture or discussion. Whether this kind of digression will distract students' attention or has negative impact on learning results should be further investigated.

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PRACTICAL LESSON 5. LEARNING LANGUAGES AND MUTUAL COMMUNICATION. THE ESSENCE OF DOCTRINES CREATED BY LINGUISTIC SCHOOLS

PLAN:

1. **Language learning**
2. **Language and Interpersonal Communication**
3. **The essence of doctrines created by Linguistic Schools**

Language pervades social life. It is the principal vehicle for the transmission of cultural knowledge, and the primary means by which we gain access to the contents of others' minds. Language is implicated in most of the phenomena that lie at the core of social psychology: attitude change, social perception, personal identity, social interaction, intergroup bias and stereotyping, attribution, and so on. Moreover, for social psychologists, language typically is the medium by which subjects' responses are elicited, and in which they respond: in social psychological research, more often than not, language plays a role in both stimulus and response. Just as language use pervades social life, the elements of social life constitute an intrinsic part of the way language is used. Linguists regard language as an abstract structure that exists independently of specific instances of usage (much as the calculus is a logico-mathematical structure that is independent of its application to concrete problems), but any communicative exchange is situated in a social context that constrains the linguistic forms participants use. How these participants define the social situation, their perceptions of what others know, think and believe, and the claims they make about their own and others' identities will affect the form and content of their acts of speaking. Although this chapter focuses on language use, rather than language structure, the ways languages can be used are constrained by the way they are constructed, particularly the linguistic rules that govern the permissible (i.e., grammatical) usage forms. Language has been defined as an abstract set of principles that specify the relations between a sequence of sounds and a sequence of meanings. As often is the case with pithy definitions of complex terms, this one is more epigrammatic than informative. It omits much of what is required to understand the concept, and even considered on its own limited terms, it is technically deficient. For example, the word sound in the definition is used in a narrow technical sense, restricted to those sounds we identify as speech. The sound of a door slamming

may express the slammer's exasperation eloquently, but language conveys meaning in an importantly different fashion. Moreover, the definition of sound must be expanded to allow consideration of languages that are not spoken, such as sign languages used by the hearing-impaired, and written language. Finally, of course, meaning is hardly a self-defining term. For present purposes, it may be more helpful to think about language as a set of complex, organized systems that operate in concert. A particular act of speaking can be examined with respect to any of these systems (G. Miller, 1975), and each level of analysis can have significance for social behavior.

For example, languages are made up of four systems—the phonological, the morphological, the syntactic, and the semantic—which, taken together, constitute its grammar. The phonological system is concerned with the analysis of an acoustic signal into a sequence of speech sounds (consonants, vowels, syllables) that are distinctive for a particular language or dialect. Out of the bewildering variety of sounds the human vocal tract is capable of producing, each language selects a small subset (the range is from about 11 to 80) that constitute that language's phonemes, or elementary units of sound. The morphological system is concerned with the way words and meaningful subwords are constructed out of these phonological elements. The syntactic system is concerned with the organization of these morphological elements into higher level units—phrases and sentences. The semantic system is concerned with the meanings of these higher level units. At another level of analysis, acts of speaking can be regarded as actions intended to accomplish a specific purpose by verbal means. Looked at this way, utterances can be thought of as speech acts that can be identified in terms of their intended purposes—assertions, questions, requests, etc. (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1985). At first glance it might seem that the type of act an utterance represents will be given by its grammatical sentence type, but languages are not constructed in so simple a fashion. English, for example, has an interrogative mode for asking questions, an imperative for issuing commands, a declarative for making assertions, and so on. However, the grammatical form does not determine the speech act an utterance represents. "Can you tell me the time?" (as typically used) and "Do you know how to drive a car with a stickshift?" are both in the interrogative mode, but they constitute quite different speech acts. "Yes" might be an adequate response to the latter, but the former is intended to be understood as a request rather than a question, and "Yes" would be a defective answer. Considerations of this sort require a distinction be drawn between the semantic or literal meaning of an utterance and its intended meaning. Acts of speaking typically are imbedded in a discourse made up of a coherently related sequence of such acts. Conversation and narratives are two types of discourse, and each has a formal structure that constrains participants' acts of speaking.

Linguists often say that language and communication are not the same thing, and

certainly that is true. People can and do communicate without language, and species that don't use language (which include all except Homo Sapiens) seem able to communicate adequately for their purposes. Nevertheless, it would be a mistake to minimize the difference between the kinds of communication that can be accomplished with and without language. The utility of language as a tool for communication seems to lend itself to grandiose and sometimes vaporous pronouncements, but it is hardly an exaggeration to say that the social order, as it is constituted in human societies, is predicated on the capacity for linguistic communication, and without this capacity the nature of human social life would be radically different. If language were nothing more than a tool for communication, it would warrant social psychologists' interest. In the most general sense, communication involves exchanges of representations. Sperber and Wilson describe communication as … a process involving two information-processing devices. One device modifies the physical environment of the other. As a result, the second device constructs representations similar to the representations already stored in the first device (Sperber & Wilson, 1986, p. 1). In human communication, the information processing devices are people, the modifications of the environment are (typically) the perturbations of air molecules caused by speech, and the representations are mental representations. Sperber and Wilson's definition focuses on the central role of representations in communication, while leaving open the question of precisely how the representations stored in one device come to be constructed by the second device. Krauss and Fussell (1996) have described four conceptions of interpersonal communication: the encoding/decoding paradigm, the intentionalist paradigm, the perspective-taking paradigm, and the dialogic paradigm. These paradigms2 provide different characterizations of the process by which representations are conveyed.

Existence of the code allows the representations to be transformed into signals (encoded) that can be transmitted, which in turn are transformed back into representations (decoded) by the information processing device to which it is directed. In human communication, the information processing devices are people and the code is language, which allows speakers to create linguistic representations that incorporate the relevant features of the mental representations they want to convey. By decoding the linguistic representation, an addressee is able to construct a mental representation that corresponds, at least in some respects, to the speaker's mental representation. Common to an encoding/decoding view of communication are two assumptions. One is implicit in the concept of a code, namely, that the meaning of a message is fully specified by its elements. The other assumption is that communication consists of two autonomous and independent processes—encoding and decoding. As general principles, both assumptions are defective. Granted that language can in certain respects be likened to a code, and that both encoding and decoding processes are involved in communication;

nevertheless, encoding and decoding do not adequately describe what occurs in communication. The grounds for this assertion will be spelled out in the following sections, but to note just one example, it is often the case that the same message will be understood to mean different things in different contexts. Without making the context (more precisely, the relevant features of the context) part of the code, a communication model that consists simply of encoding and decoding will have difficulty explaining how the same encoding can at different times yield different decodings. Moreover, even when context is held constant, the same message can mean different things to different addressees, and there is considerable evidence to indicate that when speakers design messages they attempt to take properties of their addressees into account (Bell, 1980; H. Clark & Murphy, 1982; Fussell & Krauss, 1989a; Graumann, 1989; Krauss & Fussell, 1991) .

Language always carries meanings and references beyond itself: The meanings of a particular language represent the culture of a particular social group. To interact with a language means to do so with the culture which is its reference point. We could not understand a culture without having direct access to its language because of their intimate connection. A particular language points to the culture of a particular social group. Learning a language, therefore, is not only learning the alphabet, the meaning, the grammar rules and the arrangement of words, but it is also learning the behavior of the society and its cultural customs. Thus; language teaching should always contain some explicit reference to the culture, the whole from which the particular language is extracted. The human communication process is complex, as many of our messages are transmitted through paralanguage. These auxiliary communication techniques are culture-specific, so communication with people from other societies or ethnic groups is fraught with the danger of misunderstanding, if the larger framework of culture is ignored. Growing up in a particular society, we informally learn how to use gestures, glances, slight changes in tone or voice, and other auxiliary communication devices to alter or to emphasize what we say and do. We learn these culturally specific techniques over many years, largely by observing and imitating. The most obvious form of paralanguage is body language, or Kinesics, which is the language of gestures, expressions, and postures. However, the meaning of words can also be altered by tone and character of voice. Language and culture have a complex, homologous relationship. Language is complexly intertwined with culture (they have evolved together, influencing one another in the process, ultimately shaping what it means to be human). In this context, A.L.Krober (1923) said, “culture, then, began when speech was present, and from then on, the enrichment of either means the further development of the other.” If culture is a product of human interaction, cultural manifestations are acts of communication that are assumed by particular speech communities. According to Rossi

Landi (1973), “the totality of the messages we exchange with one another while speaking a given language constitutes a speech community, that is, the whole society understood from the point of view of speaking.” He further explains that all children learn their language from their societies, and during the process of learning a language also learn their culture and develop their cognitive abilities. Language communicates through culture and culture also communicates through language: Michael Silverstein proposed that the communicative force of culture works not only in representing aspects of reality, but also in connecting one context with another. That is, communication is not only the use of symbols that “stand for” beliefs, feelings, identities, or events, it is also a way of bringing beliefs, feelings, and identities into the present context. According to the linguistic relativity principle, the way in which we think about the world is directly influenced by the language we use to talk about it. “The real world is, to a large extent, unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group. No two languages are ever so similar that they represent the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct, not merely the same with a different label attached” (Edward Sapir, 1929). Therefore, to speak is to assume a culture, and to know a culture is like knowing a language. Language and culture are homologous mental realities. Cultural products are representations and interpretations of the world that must be communicated in order to be lived. The problem lies in what happens when cross-cultural interactions take place, i.e., when message producer and message receiver are from different cultures. Contact among cultures is increasing and intercultural communication is imperative for anyone wanting to get along with and understand those whose beliefs and backgrounds may be vastly different from their own. Language can mark the cultural identity, but it is also used to refer to other phenomena and refer beyond itself, especially when a particular speaker uses it to explain intentions. A particular language points to the culture of a particular social group. We can therefore presume that language learning is cultural learning, so language teaching is cultural teaching due to the interdependence of language and cultural learning. Culture is a fuzzy set of attitudes, beliefs, behavioral conventions, basic assumptions, and values that are shared by a group of people and that influence each member’s behavior and each member’s interpretations of the meanings of other people’s behavior. And language is the medium for expressing and embodying other phenomena. It expresses the values, beliefs and meanings which members of a given society share by virtue of their socialization into it. Language also refers to objects peculiar to a given culture, as evidenced by proper names which embody those objects. Byran posited that “a loaf of bread” evokes a specific culture of objects in British usage unless a conscious effort is made to empty it of that reference and introduce a new one. So, we can conclude that language is a part of culture, and through it, we can express cultural beliefs and values,

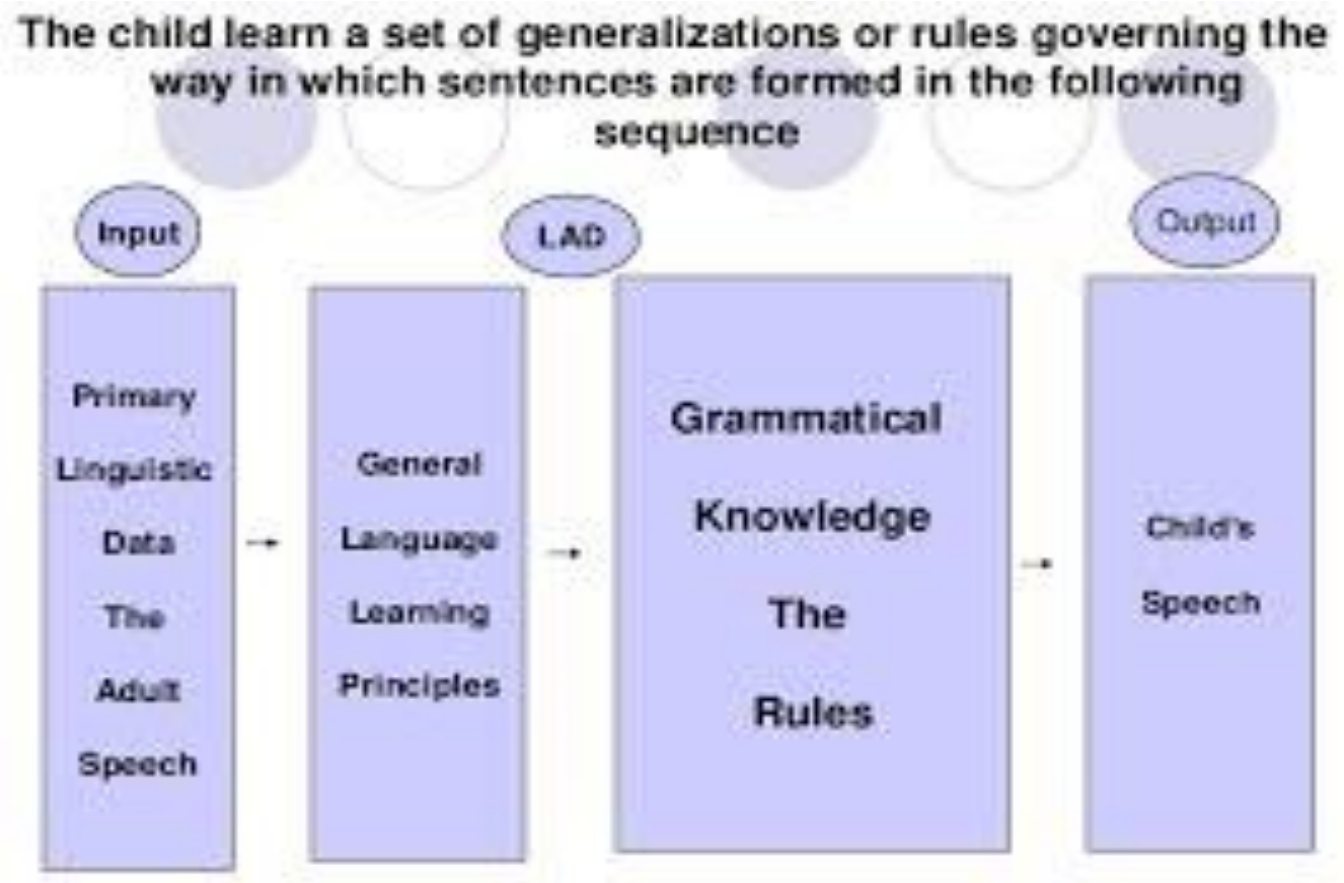
and that the specific usages of a given word are peculiar to a language and its relationship with culture. In fact, language teaching means, inevitably, language and cultural teaching. According to Buttjest, “Culture learning is actually a key factor in being able to use and master a foreign linguistic system.” The Bellagio Declaration of the European Cultural Foundation and the International Council for Educational Development states, “For effective international cooperation, knowledge of other countries and their cultures is as important as proficiency in their languages and such knowledge is dependent on foreign language teaching.” Learning a language is therefore learning the behavior of a given society and its cultural customs. Language is a product of the thought and behavior of a society. An individual language speaker’s effectiveness in a foreign language is directly related to his/her understanding of the culture of that language (Taylor, 1979), and it is possible to consider teaching culture through learners’ own languages, which can be used in a specific way to interpret the other culture (Ager). Finally, we can conclude that immersion teaching accelerates the acquisition of cultural knowledge: “…the integration of language and culture learning by using the language as medium for the continuing socialization of students is a process which is not intended to imitate and replicate the socialization of native-speaker teachers but rather to develop student’s cultural competence from its existing stage, by changing it into intercultural competence” (Fengping Gao).

American-born linguist **Noam Chomsky** believes that we are born with a predisposition to learn language. The essence of his theories of language acquisition state that human beings are pre-wired to learn language and in fact are born with the basic rules for language intact. Many of the unique details of any specific language structure are heavily influenced by the environment, but according to Chomsky, the human brain is ready made to quickly acquire language at specific stages in the developmental process. Prior to Chomsky, it was widely agreed that language acquisition was mostly a learned process. For instance, many believed that language skills were developed solely through watching and learning our parents and other people in our environment. Chomsky's notion that the brain is pre-wired for language was quite a contrast to the accepted beliefs of the time. Within the field of linguistics, Chomsky is credited with inaugurating the 'cognitive revolution'. He is largely responsible for establishing the field as a formal, natural science, moving it away from the procedural form of structural linguistics that was dominant during the mid-20th century. As such, he has become known as "the father of modern linguistics".The basis to Chomsky's linguistic theory is rooted in biolinguistics, holding that the principles underlying the structure of language are biologically determined in the human mind and hence genetically transmitted.He therefore argues that all humans share the same underlying linguistic structure, irrespective of

sociocultural differences. In adopting this position, Chomsky rejects the radical behaviorist psychology of B.F. Skinner which views the mind as a tabula rasa ("blank slate") and thus treats language as learned behavior. Accordingly, he argues that language is a unique evolutionary development of the human species and is unlike modes of communication used by any other animal species. Chomsky's nativist, internalist view of language is consistent with the philosophical school of 'rationalism', and is contrasted with the anti-nativist, externalist view of language, which is consistent with the philosophical school of 'empiricism'.

The Chomskyan approach towards linguistics studies grammar as an innate body of knowledge possessed by language users, often termed Universal Grammar (UG). Since the 1960s, Chomsky has maintained that syntactic knowledge is at least partially inborn, implying that children need only learn certain parochial features of their native languages. Chomsky based his argument on observations about human language acquisition, noting that there is an enormous gap between the linguistic stimuli to which children are exposed and the rich linguistic knowledge they attain (see: "poverty of the stimulus" argument). For example, although children are exposed to only a very small and scattered subset of the allowable syntactic variants within their first language, they somehow acquire the highly organized and systematic ability to understand and produce an infinite number of sentences, including ones that have never before been uttered. To explain this, Chomsky reasoned that the primary linguistic data (PLD) must be supplemented by an innate linguistic capacity. Furthermore, while a human baby and a kitten are both capable of inductive reasoning, if they are exposed to exactly the same linguistic data, the human will always acquire the ability to understand and produce language, while the kitten will never acquire either ability. Chomsky labeled whatever relevant capacity the human has that the cat lacks as the language acquisition device (LAD), and he suggested that one of the tasks for linguistics should be to determine what the LAD is and what constraints it imposes on the range of possible human languages. The universal features that would result from these constraints constitute 'universal grammar' Noam Chomsky postulated that the mechanism of the language acquisition is derived from the innate processes. Innate is something which is already there in mind since birth. The theory proposed by Chomsky is proved by the children living in same linguistic community. Moreover, they are not influenced by the external experiences which bring about the comparable grammar. He thus proposed his theory on language acquisition in 1977 as "all children share the same internal constraints which characterize narrowly the grammar they are going to construct." He also proposed that all of us live in a biological world, and according to him, mental world

is no exception. He also believes that as there are stages of development for other parts of the body, language development can also be achieved up to a certain age. Another postulate of Chomsky's language acquisition theory is the process of selecting the best grammar that When talking about generative grammar, his views are different from structuralist theory. According to Chomsky, generative grammar should “render explicit the implicit knowledge of the speaker." He proposed a set of well-defined rules to generate required sequence of words. Individuals instantly decipher that a certain combination of words make sense and different combination does not make sense. The explanatory theory of generative grammar is beautifully demonstrated by the rules of the English auxiliary system. According to Chomsky, the field of linguistics does not include the study of meaning and reference and the use of language. According to linguistic theory, the concepts of the grammar are not based upon semantics, but linguistic theory should provide an explanation to the semantic phenomenon.



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PRACTICAL LESSON 6
ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF LINGUISTIC THEORIES OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM THE HISTORICAL POINT OF VIEW DOCTRINE

Structural Linguistics

Ferdinand de Saussure is the originator of the 20th century reappearance of structuralism, specifically in his 1916 book Course in General Linguistics, where he focused not on the use of language (parole, or talk), but rather on the underlying system of language (langue) and called his theory semiotics. This approach focused on examining how the elements of language related to each other in the present, that is, 'synchronically' rather than 'diachronically'. Finally, he argued that linguistic signs were composed of two parts, a signifier (the sound pattern of a word, either in mental projection - as when we silently recite lines from a poem to ourselves - or in actual, physical realization as part of a speech act) and a signified (the concept or meaning of the word). This was quite different from previous approaches which focused on the relationship between words and the things in the world they designated.

By focusing on the internal constitution of signs rather than focusing on their relationship to objects in the world, Saussure made the anatomy and structure of language something that could be analyzed and studied. Saussure's Course influenced many linguists in the period between WWI and WWII. In America, for instance, Leonard Bloomfield developed his own version of structural linguistics, as did Louis Hjelmslev in Scandinavia. In France Antoine Meillet and Émile Benveniste would continue Saussure's program. Most importantly, however, members of the Prague School of linguistics such as Roman Jakobson and Nikolai Trubetzkoy conducted research that would be greatly influential. The clearest and most important example of Prague School structuralism lies in phonemics. Rather than simply compile a list of which sounds occur in a language, the Prague School sought to examine how they were related. They determined that the inventory of sounds in a language could be analyzed in terms of a series of contrasts. Thus in English the words 'pat' and 'bat' are different because the /p/ and /b/ sounds contrast.

The difference between them is that the vocal chords vibrate while saying a /b/ while they do not when saying a /p/. Thus in English there is a contrast between voiced and non-voiced consonants. Analyzing sounds in terms of contrastive features also opens up comparative scope - it makes clear, for instance, that the difficulty Japanese speakers have differentiating between /r/ and /l/ in English is due to the fact that these two sounds are not contrastive in Japanese. While this approach is now standard in linguistics, it was revolutionary at the time. Phonology would become the paradigmatic basis for

structuralism in a number of different forms. The French linguist Ferdinand de Saussure studied language from a formal and theoretical point of view, i.e. as a system of signs which could be described synchronically (as a static set of relationships independent of any changes that take place over time) rather than diachronically (as a dynamic system which changes over time). According to Saussure, the basic unit of language is a sign. A sign is composed of signifier (a sound-image, or its graphic equivalent) and a signified (the concept or meaning). So, for example, a word composed of the letters p-e-a-r functions as a signifier by producing in the mind of English-speakers the concept (signified) of a certain kind of rosaceous fruit that grows on trees, viz., a pear. According to Saussure, the relation between a signifier and a signified is arbitrary in at least two ways.

First, there is no absolute reason why these particular graphic marks *(p-e-a-r)* should signify the concept pear. There is no natural connection or resemblance between the signifier and the signified (as there would be in what Saussure calls a symbol, i.e. an iconic representation such as a descriptive drawing of a pear). After all, it's not as if the word "pear" looks or sounds anything like a pear! In fact, a moment's reflection makes it clear that the connection between the signifier and the signified is due to a contingent historical convention. It didn't have to happen the way it did. In principle, the word "*pare*", "*wint*", or even "*apple*" would have worked just as well in associating a word with the concept pear! But given that the word "pear" has come to signify the concept pear in English, no one has the power to simply change it at will. In other words, the relationship between a word and a concept is arbitrary in one sense (in terms of its origin) but not in another sense (in terms of its use). Saussure makes a second point about the arbitrariness of the sign. He points out that the relation between the sign itself (signifier/signified pair) and what it refers to (what is called the referent, i.e. the actual piece of fruit-the physical object) is also arbitrary. This claim is less plausible than the former. For example, one might object that the concept in the mind of the speaker is formed, either directly or indirectly, by actual pears. Ideally then we would expect it to be the case that the properties of actual pears would be causally related to our concept of a pear-that the characteristics of pears produce in one's mind the concept of a pear either directly through experience with pears, or indirectly through pictures of pears, descriptions, or some such thing. Thus, the concept pear might be thought of as some basic information and set of beliefs about actual pears, e.g. what they look like, how they feel and taste, what they're good for, etc. Saussure's way around this obvious objection is to say that his interest is in the structure of language, not the use of language. As a scientist, Saussure limited his investigation to the formal structure of language (langue), setting aside or bracketing the way that language is employed in actual speech (parole). Hence, the term structuralism.

Saussure bracketed out of his investigation any concern with the real, material objects (referents) to which signs are presumably related. This bracketing of the referent is a move that enabled him to study the way a thing (language and meaning) is experienced in the mind. In this sense, his motivation was similar to Husserl's.

And in the end, Saussure never offered a method for investigating how language as a system hooks up to the world of objects that lie outside language. As we shall see, this was to have far-reaching effects. Thus, according to Saussure's structural linguistics, each sign in the system of signs which makes up a language gets its meaning only because of its difference from every other sign. The word "*pear*" has no meaning in itself or in the intention of the speaker, but only due to the fact that it differs from other possible graphic images such as *p-e-e-r, p-e-a-k, f-e-a-r, b-e-a-r,* etc. In other words, it doesn't matter how the form of the signifier varies, as long as it is different from all the other signifiers in the system (langue). To the structuralist, meaning arises from the functional differences between the elements (signs) within the system (langue). An economic analogy helps to illustrate Saussure's theory of meaning. The signs of a linguistic system are like the coins of a monetary system or currency. Thus, a system of signs (words of a language) is analogous to a system of values. A quarter has a certain monetary value determined by its exchange value. Quarters can be exchanged for other things because they have a designated (but flexible) value. Quarters can be used to buy goods or commodities. But they also have a fixed value in relation to other coins. So, for example, *a quarter is equal to two dimes and a nickel; it is more than a penny; it is less than a dollar*, etc., etc. Linguistic signs also have values in relation to other signs. For example, the word "*bachelor*" can be "*exchanged*" for the term "*unmarried man*". This is, in many ways, an equal exchange.

That's what it means for words to be synonymous - they have the same meaning or linguistic value. They can be substituted or exchanged for one another just as the quarter can be exchanged for two dimes and a nickel. The first thing to notice is that, according to structuralist theory, meaning is not a private experience, as Husserl thought, but the product of a shared system of signification. A text is to be understood as a construct to be analyzed and explained scientifically in terms of the deep-structure of the system itself. For many structuralists, this "deep-structure" is universal and innate. If we consider the application of structuralism to art and extend the monetary analogy, we can think of paintings as comprised of many languages or sets of conventions that play a role in the exchange of signs. For example, the language of western academic painting can be contrasted with the language of African sculpture or Japanese brush painting. Just as one word in the English language is paired with a concept, so a visual image, icon, or symbol is paired with a concept or idea that it is said to "express". Such a study of signs in the

most general sense, whether visual or verbal, is called semiotics. In the West, art schools are the institutions that have the function of passing on these visual conventions. Second we should note that in structuralism, the individual is more a product of the system than a producer of it. Language precedes us. It is the medium of thought and human expression. Thus, it provides us with the structure that we use to conceptualize our own experience. And third, since language is arbitrary, there is no natural bond between words and things, there can be no privileged connection between language and reality. In this sense, reality is also produced by language. Thus, structuralism can be understood as a form of idealism. It should be clear from what we've just said that structuralism undermines the claim of empiricism that what is real is what we experience. It can also be seen as an affront to common sense, esp. to the notion that a text has a meaning that is, for all intents and purposes, straightforward.

This conflict with common sense, however, can be favorably compared with other historical conflicts (e.g. Copernicus' heliocentric system). In other words, things are not always what they seem. Thus, the idealist claim of structuralism can be understood in the following way: Reality and our conception of it are "discontinuous". [3] This view has important implications, as we shall see below. According to structuralist theory, a text or utterance has a "meaning", but it's meaning is determined not by the psychological state or "intention" of the speaker, but by the deep-structure of the language system in which it occurs. In this way, the subject (individual or "author") is effectively killed off and replaced by language itself as an autonomous system of rules. Thus, structuralism has been characterized as antihumanistic in it's claim that meaning is not identical with the inner psychological experience of the speaker. It removes the human subject from its central position in the production of meaning much as Copernicus removed (de-centered) the Earth from its position at the center of the solar system. And since language pre-exists us, it is not we who speak, as Heidegger was to say, but "language speaks us".

According to Saussure's structuralist theory of language, the meaning of a term (a word or expression) does not begin and end with the speaker's experience or intention (as it does in Husserl's theory). The act of speaking and intending presupposes a language already in place and upon which the speaker must rely in order to say anything at all. Concepts or meanings are picked out (signified) because of the differences in the network of words (sound- or graphic-images) that make up the language (langue). Thus each word-each structural element of the language-finds its own relative position or node within the network of differences. In other words, the meaning of a particular term in a language is due to its relative difference from all other terms in the language. A signified, i.e. a concept or idea, is properly understood in terms of its position relative to the differences among a range of other signifiers (words with different positions in the network (langue)

and, hence, different meanings). Poststructuralist theory denies the distinction between signifier and signified. According to the poststructuralist, concepts are nothing more than words. Thus, signifiers are words that refer to other words and never reach out to material objects and their interrelations. To indicate this shift in theory, the French philosopher Jacques Derrida introduces the word "différance" to indicate the relation between signifiers as one of difference and deferral. If a word's meaning is solely the result of its difference from other words, then the meaning (the concept or signified) is not an additional thing "present" in the sign itself.

On the contrary, "meaning" (if it can be called that at all) is the ever-moving play of difference from signifier to signifier; a slipping from word to word in which each word retains relations to ("traces" of) the words that differ from it. Thus, according to poststructuralists such as Derrida, the specification of meaning is an infinite and endless process! Meaning, to some extent, always escapes one's grasp-it is always just out of reach, ungrounded, with no origin in the intention of the speaker, contrary to what Husserl thought. In other words, when a speaker uses certain words ("This is a pear"), then according to the theory she does not have a nonlinguistic object or concept in mind-there is no additional thing or "object" outside of the language (i.e. no "meaning") that could be transmitted or made "present" to her listener or reader. There is nothing there in her speech but language, i.e. a network of signification. Thus, "meaning" is the result of a play of différance-a movement which brings about both difference and deferral. (It may help here to bring in the traditional distinction between the denotation and the connotation of a term. The connotation may be thought of as the aura of suggestion, the echo or trace of other words to which it is related by such things as association, common usage, similarity, etc.

The denotation, the relation (reference) between the word and the actual thing denoted by the word, from structuralism on, is bracketed and never brought back. Its absence, however, leaves its own "traces" in the form of problems for a poststructuralist theory of language. (See below.) But there is another, more radical, consequence that can be drawn from our analysis. If the meaning associated with an expression is not present in the expression itself, and if the speaker must make his own presence felt by communication through words, then it follows that the speaker is never fully present in the act of using language. And if, as a human being, I can only think and experience a world through language, then "I" and "my presence" are as much deferred as the meanings I attempt to grasp when I try to understand and explain myself. In other words, I am never present even to myself. Rather, it is language that speaks, not a unified and autonomous ego or self. (How is this related to Kant's theory of knowledge?) What alternatives can we imagine as a challenge to the poststructuralist position? One strategy would be to start by agreeing with Kant that we must have categories or concepts of some kind to organize

human experience. But we might also disagree with Kant over the nature and a priori character of those concepts. In doing this, we could borrow from Heidegger the view that the categories of human experience are historical in nature and potentially in flux-not fixed and universal. But then we might question Heidegger's emphasis on the linguistic nature of these concepts by drawing on Gestalt psychology to argue for the existence of certain "structural" and hard wired components of human perception and thought of a prelinguistic nature. This is just one tentative direction one might take in challenging the view presented by the form of poststructuralism that we've been considering. Other problems are raised if we consider language not simply as an object but as a practice. Suppose I say to you, "Open the window" in a situation where there is no window in the room. You might ask, "What do you mean?" This would be to question my "intentions" - what am I trying to accomplish by saying what I've said? Perhaps I am making a point about the fact that there is no window in the room. My paradoxical statement - inexplicable in Saussure's structuralist terms - might be meaningful to you in another practical sense.

This is because understanding is recognizing what effects one might seek to bring about through the use of certain words. My obscure command might be a request that we move to a room that has a window. In other words, speech is not just an object, it is a form of behavior, and as such it can only be understood contextually, i.e. in a situation. This realization of the pragmatics of language signals a shift from language to discourse, and a concomitant change in emphasis away from a text's meaning to its function. In the end, we may want to say not so much that reality is linguistic but that language is real, and not necessarily all there is to human reality and experience. Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory of language centred around the notion of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the function of language as central (what language does, and how it does it), in preference to more structural approaches, which place the elements of language and their combinations as central. SFL starts at social context, and looks at how language both acts upon, and is constrained by, this social context. A central notion is 'stratification', such that language is analysed in terms of four strata: Context, Semantics, Lexico-Grammar and Phonology-Graphology. Context concerns the Field (what is going on), Tenor (the social roles and relationships between the participants), and the Mode (aspects of the channel of communication, e.g., monologic/dialogic, spoken/written, +/- visual-contact, etc.). Systemic semantics includes what is usually called 'pragmatics'. Semantics is divided into three components:

* Ideational Semantics (the propositional content);

* Interpersonal Semantics (concerned with speech-function, exchange structure, expression of attitude, etc.);

* Textual Semantics (how the text is structured as a message, e.g., theme-structure, given/new, rhetorical structure etc.

The Lexico-Grammar concerns the syntactic organisation of words into utterances. Even here, a functional approach is taken, involving analysis of the utterance in terms of roles such as Actor, Agent/Medium, Theme, Mood, etc. (See Halliday 1994 for full description). Generative linguistics is a school of thought within linguistics that makes use of the concept of a generative grammar. The term "generative grammar" is used in different ways by different people, and the term "generative linguistics" therefore has a range of different, though overlapping, meanings. Formally, a generative grammar is defined as one that is fully explicit. It is a finite set of rules that can be applied to generate all those and only those sentences (often, but not necessarily, infinite in number) that are grammatical in a given language. This is the definition that is offered by Noam Chomsky, who invented the term, and by most dictionaries of linguistics. It is important to note that generate is being used as a technical term with a particular sense. To say that a grammar generates a sentence means that the grammar "assigns a structural description" to the sentence. The term generative grammar is also used to label the approach to linguistics taken by Chomsky and his followers. Chomsky's approach is characterised by the use of transformational grammar – a theory that has changed greatly since it was first promulgated by Chomsky in his 1957 book Syntactic Structures – and by the assertion of a strong linguistic nativism (and therefore an assertion that some set of fundamental characteristics of all human languages must be the same). The term "generative linguistics" is often applied to the earliest version of Chomsky's transformational grammar, which was associated with a distinction between the "deep structure" and "surface structure" of sentences.

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V.GLOSSARIY

Termin	Ingliz tilidagi shahri
a posteriori	an artificial language based on elements from one or more natural language.
a priori	an artifical language composed entirely of invented elements. aboriginal: one indigenous to a country, whose ancestors have lived there during recorded history.
aboriginal	one indigenous to a country, whose ancestors have lived there during recorded history
accent	features of pronunciation that identify where a person is from, regionally or socially. Technically distinct from dialect since a standard dialect may be pro - nounced with a regional accent
acceptance	acknowledgement by an educated native speaker of a language that a sentence or other linguistic unit conforms to the norms of the language.
achievement test	instrument designed to measure what a person has learned within a given period of time of a known syllabus or course of instruction.

appropriacy	acknowledgement by an educated native speaker of a language that a sentence or other linguistic unit is suitable or possible in a given social situation. aptitude: innate language learning ability
artificial language	a language which has been invented to serve some particular purpose.
authentic reading materials	genuine texts rather than those invented solely for language teaching purposes
background speakers	home-users of a language that is not the official medium of the speech community

	tongue. Approximants are generally voiced, since an unvoiced approximant is practically inaudible.
case grammar	an approach to grammatical analysis devised by Charles Fillmore in the late 1960s within the generative grammar framework but emphasising certain semantic relationships
CDA	critical discourse analysis which analyses how linguistic choices in texts are used to maintain and create social inequalities.
clinical linguistics	either the application of linguistics to a medical setting involving language disorders or the practice of professionals such as speech therapists work - ing in those areas.
communicative competence	knowledge of how to use a language appropriately as well as the ability actually to do so.
corpus linguistics	a use of the computer to collect a large sample of language both spoken and written for purposes of description

critical applied linguistics	a judgemental approach by some applied linguists to 'normal' applied linguistics on the grounds that it is not concerned with the trans - formation of society
critical discourse	an approach to language use as the manifestation of political ideology.
direct method	an approach to language teaching emphasising the spoken language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
functional linguistics	a linguistic theory taking account of verbal interaction and therefore less abstract than generative linguistics.
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 ina 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-absolutivelanguage	(Also just \"ergative\".) A language where the subjectof a transitive verb is marked with a grammatical caseconventionally known as the ergative, while both thesubject of an intransitive verb and the object of atransitive verb are marked with another case,conventionally known as absolutive. The absolutive isthe least-marked case in ergative languages (like thenominative in nominative/accusative languages). Examples of ergative languages are Euskara (Basque),Inuktitut, and some Australian languages. Somelanguages are of mixed types: Hindi is accusative in theimperfect tenses, and ergative in the perfect ones.Otherlanguages use ergative constructions for somegrammatical persons and accusative ones for others (see split ergativity). Ergative languages tend notto 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 asdouble 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; thepersonal dialect of an individual, which probably doesnot differ much from the idiolects of those aroundhim/her, but is always a bit different according thepersonal choice of words and phrases, shades ofpronunciation, etc. An idiolectal feature is therefore afeature 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 iningressives.
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 beatand 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 longvowel.

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: aroot 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 basicform. 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 sametime as the airstream goes through the nose. In particular, the name of nasals is by default reserved forconsonants 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 (asin 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 theoriginal verb), for the prospective aspect (be going to), as well as in many other cases. Other languages directlyinflect 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 articulationthat 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 asemivowel). 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 tofirst 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 secondperson 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 isthe 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, amI an agent, even though I didn`t do it by my own will?). The speaker may not decide whether a subject isan agent or a patient for a given verb. See alsofluid-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. Insynthetic 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; andthere 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 contactwith unvoiced consonants, at the end of words, when not stressed, etc.

Case studies (Keyslar banki)

Linguistics research for English Language teachers (QMUL)
UoA: Modern Languages & Linguistics

QMUL research into Multicultural London English (MLE) substantially contributes to the delivery of the GCE A level English Language curriculum and, since 2010, the GCSE English curriculum, which both have a compulsory focus on spoken English. MLE figures in 3 school textbooks and in a new QMUL online *English Language Teaching Resources Archive* that now receives 18 000 - 20 000 hits per month. The QMUL *Resources Archive* addresses difficulties in delivering the spoken English curriculum faced by teachers who are mainly trained in literature, not linguistics. Teachers and students benefit from new teaching resources including accurate linguistic commentaries on MLE sound clips and accessible summaries of linguistic research published in recent journals. The impact extends to the delivery of English Language curricula in EFL Colleges and HEI institutions worldwide, and to a wider public understanding of language change in London English.

Ecological Linguistics research and its impact on education for sustainability (Gloucestershire)
UoA: English Language and Literature

This case study highlights the pioneering research of Arran Stibbe in the emerging discipline of Ecological Linguistics, and the impact of this research beyond academia in developing Education for Sustainability in English disciplines and beyond. Environmental issues have traditionally been considered a matter more for the sciences than the humanities. However, Dr Stibbe's detailed linguistic analyses of environmental discourses, his many keynote presentations and newsletter articles for the Higher Education Academy, and the seminal *Handbook of Sustainability Literacy* have demonstrated how linguistics can address environmental issues, and informed the curricula of multiple institutions across the world, as evidenced by testimonials and the findings of independent research.

Linguistics research in Modern Languages and its impact in the community (Exeter)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

Research in Modern Languages linguistics at Exeter explores language use and variation, especially in spoken varieties of French and Italian. It has impacted on educational practices (Impact 1), helped encourage social cohesion (Impact 2), and enhanced public appreciation of language (Impact 3). The French-based research has informed language learning in H.E. and schools, and featured in online training resources and the mass media. It features significantly on University courses (UK and abroad). Aspects of the research have contributed to shaping educational and policy initiatives in Italy and France, aimed at immigrant communities or designed to improve social cohesion.

Forensic Linguistics: Improving the delivery of Justice (Aston)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

Research carried out at the Centre for Forensic Linguistics (CFL) at Aston has achieved the following significant impacts:
1.Casework: Reports for forensic investigations, and provision of opinion and evidence for police

investigations, criminal trials and civil proceedings, have all contributed to verdicts of guilt or innocence and to judgements in civil and appeal Courts.
2.Policy development and training: Research findings have changed police practice in interviewing witnesses and suspects, and specifically in cases where there is an interpreted interview. Changes to Greater Manchester Police's (GMP) taking of non-native English speaker witness statements represents a significant, concrete example.

Language, Linguistics and Literature at school (Middlesex)
UoA: Communication, Cultural and Media Studies, Library and Information Management

This case study reports three specific kinds of impact: on the development of Key Stage 5 (AS and A level) curricula; on the practice of Key Stage 5 teachers; on the choices and interests of students (which in turn contributes to impact on curriculum design). Interventions through publications, workshops, committee membership and consultancy have helped to shape developments for many years. Key beneficiaries of this work are students, teachers, examiners and curriculum designers. The work has had particularly significant impact at Key Stage 5, although some of the activity is relevant at earlier stages.

Using Applied Linguistics research to improve Business English courses: Business Advantage (Birmingham)
UoA: English Language and Literature

The impact of the research is achieved via the creation, publication and adoption of a new 3-level Business English course, *Business Advantage,* published by Cambridge University Press in 2012. *Business Advantage* is the first business textbook to draw extensively on research carried out on a corpus of recorded and transcribed professional interactions. As CUP's new `flagship' Business English course, it is being marketed internationally, and is designed to reach a large target audience of learners, teachers and programme directors.
The impact is primarily in two areas: education and economic prosperity. Education: research is informing and influencing the form and content of Business English teaching and is already of international reach in a range of educational settings, including tertiary, vocational and private (e.g. in-company training) in which English for Business and Professional Purposes is taught.
Economic prosperity: the impact involves transferring insights and knowledge gained from research to a commercial product — a mainstream Business English course by a major educational publisher with expectations, and initial evidence, of extensive world-wide sales to a wide range of customers.

Applying 'plurilithic' concepts of English… (York St John)
UoA: English Language and Literature

Dr Christopher Hall's research on second language (L2) lexical development stressed the hybrid nature of lexical mental representation in learners of English. This led him to reflect more critically on the local experiences and needs of learners and non-native users, and to develop a `plurilithic' account of the ontological ambiguity, unfairness, unhelpfulness, and unsustainability of monolithic conceptions of English for learning/teaching. Informed by this research, Hall (Reader in Applied Linguistics) and colleagues Dr Rachel Wicaksono (Head of the Department of Languages and Linguistics), and Clare Cunningham (formerly Wardman, an ECR and Lecturer in Linguistics) have taken steps to raise awareness of the implications of monolithic thinking among UK and international English Language Teaching (ELT) stakeholders, thereby challenging some firmly established tenets of language education policy.

From local dialects to global languages: supporting multilingualism in Northern Ireland (Ulster)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

Linguistics at Ulster has:
1) influenced public policy and provision for Ulster Scots through appointment to The Ulster Scots Academy Implementation Group, planning for an Ulster Scots Academy and publication of Ulster Scots language resources
2) impacted on public values and discourse relating to local dialects with consequent effects on educational participation and practice
3) underpinned developments in policy and training in Irish-medium education
4) transformed the perspectives of communities and professionals adapting to the transition of Northern Ireland to a multicultural, multilingual society.

Academic, educational and commercial benefits of effective textual search and annotation (Birmingham City)
UoA: English Language and Literature

Based in the School of English, the Research and Development Unit for English Studies (RDUES) conducts research in the field of corpus linguistics and develops innovative software tools to allow a wide range of external audiences to locate, annotate and use electronic data more effectively. This case study details work carried out by the RDUES team (Matt Gee, Andrew Kehoe, Antoinette Renouf) in building large-scale corpora of web texts, from which examples of language use have been extracted, analysed, and presented in a form suitable for teaching and research across and beyond HE, including collaboration with commercial partners

Documenting, preserving and sharing global Linguistic heritage (SOAS)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

There is a growing, global crisis of language endangerment: At least half of the world's 7,000 languages are under threat. The Endangered Languages Project at SOAS supports the multimedia documentation of as many endangered languages as possible, drawing on research in the new field of documentary linguistics. A component part of the project, the Endangered Languages Archive (ELAR) preserves and makes available through managed access 10 terabytes of material from 160 endangered languages projects to date. It has benefitted a broad, international user base including endangered language speakers and community members, language activists, poets and others.

Corpus research: its impact on industry (Lancaster)
UoA: English Language and Literature

UCREL (the University Research Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language) has been pioneering advances in corpus linguistics for over 40 years, providing users with corpora (collections of written or spoken material) and the software to exploit them. Drawing together 8 researchers from the Department of Linguistics and English Language and 1 from the School of Computing and Communications at Lancaster University, it has enabled the UK English Language Teaching (ELT) industry to produce innovative materials which have helped the profitability and competitiveness of that industry, and assisted other, principally commercial, users to innovate in product design and

development.

Language policy in London (Westminster)
UoA: English Language and Literature

The work of Professor Philip Baker on the multiple and diverse languages of London has influenced government data-gathering procedure and policy, has contributed to the engagement practices of several London NGOs concerned with racial diversity and bilingualism, and has positively contributed to education relating to multicultural London on teacher-training and medical education programmes.

Language policy: informing policy debate, public understanding, and education (Queen Mary)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

Working in complementary areas of language policy and planning, the research of Oakes (French) and Pfalzgraf (German) has had three main non-academic beneficiaries. It has been of use to a wide range of policy makers in Canada and Germany, by informing debates on language policy at the official level. It has enhanced understanding of language-policy issues amongst the general public, through media interventions and works aimed at lay audiences. It has also benefited teachers and students in higher education in a range of disciplines and countries, by shaping their grasp of language-policy issues in Canada, Germany more generally.

Increasing awareness of a non-essentialist approach to intercultural communication (Canterbury Christ Church)
UoA: English Language and Literature

Holliday's research is at the core of paradigm change in intercultural communication. For this reason it has provided a conceptual underpinning for the design and writing of the new syllabus for English language teacher education proposed by the Chinese National Institute of Education Sciences. Holliday was invited to use his research to write the part of this syllabus which describes teacher knowledge and methodology necessary for recognising the cultural contribution of school students in learning English. This research has also increased the intercultural awareness of English language educators in Asia and Central America through a range of seminars, workshops and internet material, and has produced a textbook which has carried this awareness to university students in the humanities and social sciences in a range of countries.

Promoting recognition and status of the Romani language (Manchester)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

This research by Professor Yaron Matras produced tools to promote awareness of the Romani language through popular websites, online documentation, learning resources and audio-visual educational materials. It also produced policy papers which prompted the launch of a European Language Curriculum Framework for Romani. This led to the consistent monitoring and reporting by governments on policy to promote Romani through the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. Professor Matras was responsible for establishing the first-ever online multi-dialectal dictionary in any language. `Romlex currently offers an online lexical database of 25 Romani dialects with search and translation facilities in 14 different target languages.

Separated by a common language: changing understanding of language origins and use through public engagement (Sussex)
UoA: English Language and Literature

Research on lexis, semantics and pragmatics underpins a public engagement that allows ordinary English users to learn about and discuss national varieties of English. Lynne Murphy's online forums and live events accessibly examine how American English and British English suffer transatlantic misconceptions about their origins, use and interactions. This creates a public discourse (involving learners, teachers, translators, editors, expatriates) on how linguistic research illuminates the dialectal differences and on-going linguistic changes that puzzle or frustrate. People enter these forums because they are curious or uncomfortable about linguistic variation; they leave with their assumptions challenged and their prejudices altered.

Policy and practice of complementary schools for multilingual, transnational and minority ethnic children (Birkbeck)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

Building on the well-established focus on multilingualism in Birkbeck's Department of Applied Linguistics, Professor Li Wei's ESRC funded research on `codeswitching' practices of transnational and minority ethnic children in complementary schools in the UK has had significant and far reaching impacts in the field of multilingual education. It has increased awareness of the social, educational and linguistic significance of complementary schools; enhanced interactions across complementary schools in different ethnic communities, and influenced policies and practices, including teacher development, within heritage/community language schools in Europe and beyond and bilingual education policies in China.

Raising awareness of adolescent health communication (Nottingham)
UoA: English Language and Literature

Research on the language of teenage health communication by staff from the School of English at the University of Nottingham has:
Raised health professionals' awareness and understanding of the language used by teenagers to discuss sensitive issues and helped to normalise adolescent health concerns
Helped to inform (local and national) government strategy for young people, and health education materials for children and their parents
Influenced changes in health practice through aiding the continuous professional development of healthcare professionals.

Preserving a linguistic heritage: Biak, an endangered Austronesian language (Oxford)
UoA: Modern Languages and Linguistics

Biak (West Papua, Indonesia) is an endangered language with no previously established orthography. Dalrymple and Mofu's ESRC-supported project created the first on-line database of digital audio and video Biak texts with linguistically analysed transcriptions and translations (one of the first ever for an

endangered language), making these materials available for future generations and aiding the sustainability of the language. Biak school-children can now use educational materials, including dictionaries, based on project resources. The project also trained local researchers in best practice in language documentation, enabling others to replicate these methods and empowering local communities to save their own endangered languages.

Public understanding of artificial intelligence (Aberdeen)
UoA: Computer Science and Informatics

Computational Linguistics research at Aberdeen concentrates on Natural Language Generation (NLG), an area of Artificial Intelligence. NLG raises difficult issues about what makes a text effective. This case study explains how our Computing Science department has brought these issues to the general public, aiming to improve public understanding of, and enthusiasm for, Artificial Intelligence.

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