ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ОЛИЙ ТАЪЛИМ ТИЗИМИ ПЕДАГОГ ВА РАҲБАР КАДРЛАРИНИ
ҚАЙТА ТАЙЁРЛАШ ВА УЛАРНИНГ МАЛАКАСИНИ ОШИРИШНИ
ТАШКИЛ ЭТИШ БОШ ИЛМИЙ - МЕТОДИК МАРКАЗИ

САМАРҚАНД ДАВЛАТ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ ҲУЗУРИДАГИ ПЕДАГОГ
КАДРЛАРНИ ҚАЙТА ТАЙЁРЛАШ ВА УЛАРНИНГ МАЛАКАСИНИ
ОШИРИШ МИНТАҚАВИЙ МАРКАЗИ

"ТИЛШУНОСЛИК НАЗАРИЯСИНИНГ ТИЛ АМАЛИЁТИГА
ИНТЕГРАЦИЯСИ" МОДУЛИ БЎЙИЧА

Ў Қ У В – У С Л У Б И Й М А Ж М У А

Самарқанд – 2021

Модулнинг ўқув-услубий мажмуаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлигининг 2020 йил 7 декабрдаги 648-сонли буйруғи билан тасдиқланган ўқув дастури ва ўқув режасига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилган ва ФарДУ Илмий кенгашининг 2020 йил «28» декабрдаги 2 -сонли қарори билан тасдиқланган.

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М У Н Д А Р И Ж А

I. ИШЧИ ЎҚУВ ДАСТУРИ

КИРИШ

Дастур Ўзбекистон Республикасининг 2020 йил 23 сентябрда тасдиқланган "Таълим тўғрисида"ги Қонуни, Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2017 йил 30-июндаги "Ўзбекистон Республикаси Фанлар академияси ҳузурида Ўзбекистоннинг энг янги тарихи бўйича Жамоатчилик кенгаши фаолиятини ташкил этиш тўғрисида"ги ПҚ-3105-сонли Қарори, Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2017 йил 7 февралдаги "Ўзбекистон Республикасини янада ривожлантириш бўйича Ҳаракатлар стратегияси тўғрисида"ги ПФ-4947-сон, 2019 йил 27 августдаги "Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг узлуксиз малакасини ошириш тизимини жорий этиш тўғрисида"ги ПФ-5789-сон, 2019 йил 8 октябрдаги "Ўзбекистон Республикаси олий таълим тизимини 2030 йилгача ривожлантириш концепциясини тасдиқлаш тўғрисида"ги ПФ-5847-сонли Фармонлари ҳамда Ўзбекистон Республикаси Вазирлар Маҳкамасининг 2019 йил 23 сентябрдаги "Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг малакасини ошириш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш бўйича қўшимча чора-тадбирлар тўғрисида"ги 797-сонли Қарорида белгиланган устувор вазифалар мазмунидан келиб чиққан ҳолда тузилган бўлиб, у олий таълим муассасалари педагог кадрларининг касб маҳорати ҳамда инновацион компетентлигини ривожлантириш, соҳага оид илғор хорижий тажрибалар, янги билим ва малакаларни ўзлаштириш, шунингдек амалиётга жорий этиш кўникмаларини такомиллаштиришни мақсад қилади.

Ҳозирги даврда **"Тилшунослик назариясининг тил амалиётига интеграцияси"** модули дунёнинг барча ривожланган мамлакатларида барча таълим йўналишларининг асосий фанидан бирига айланиб улгурган. Шу сабабли, бу фан бизнинг мамлакатимиз таълим соҳасига киритилишига катта эътибор қаратилмоқда.

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Фаннинг ўқув дастурини тузишда дунёнинг ривожланган мамлакатлари университетлари тажрибаси асосида тузилди.

Бундан ташқари машғулотларни олиб боришда ҳозирги пайтда катта аҳамият касб этиб бораётган илғор педагогик технологиялардан фойдаланиш, жумладан кичик гуруҳларда ишлаш, кейс стади, ақлий ҳужум каби усулларни кенг жорий этишга аҳамият қаратилган.

Модулнинг мақсади ва вазифалари

“Тилшунослик назариясининг тил амалиётига интеграцияси” модулининг мақсади педагог кадрларни инновацион ёндошувлар асосида ўқув-тарбиявий жараёнларни юксак илмий-методик даражада лойиҳалаштириш, соҳадаги илғор тажрибалар, замонавий билим ва малакаларни ўзлаштириш ва амалиётга жорий этишлари учун зарур бўладиган касбий билим, кўникма ва малакаларини такомиллаштириш, шунингдек уларнинг ижодий фаоллигини ривожлантиришдан иборат.

“Тилшунослик назариясининг тил амалиётига интеграцияси” модулинингвазифаларига қуйидагилар киради:

- “Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш: инглиз тили” йўналишида педагог кадрларнинг касбий билим, кўникма, малакаларини такомиллаштириш ва ривожлантириш;
- педагогларнинг ижодий-инновацион фаоллик даражасини ошириш;
- мутахассислик фанларини ўқитиш жараёнига замонавий ахборот-коммуникация технологиялари ва хорижий тилларни самарали татбиқ этилишини таъминлаш;
- махсус фанлар соҳасидаги ўқитишнинг инновацион технологиялари ва илғор хорижий тажрибаларини ўзлаштириш;

“Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш: инглиз тили” йўналишида қайта тайёрлаш ва малака ошириш жараёнларини фан ва ишлаб чиқаришдаги инновациялар билан ўзаро интеграциясини таъминлаш.

Модул бўйича тингловчиларнинг билими, кўникма ва малакаларига қўйиладиган талаблар

"Тилшунослик назариясининг тил амалиётига интеграцияси" модулини ўзлаштириш жараёнида амалга ошириладиган масалалар доирасидатингловчилар:

- тил ўқитишнинг умумевропа стандартлари талабларини;

- чет тилини ўқитишнинг назарий ва коммуникатив ёндашув асосларини;

- тилшуносликда тизимли таҳлил этиш механизимларини;

- тил ўқитиш тамойиллари ва методларини;

- ўқув материалларининг қийинчилик даражасини аниқлаш ва тахлил қилишни;

- чет тили таълимида CEFR тамойилларининг ўрнини;

- коммуникатив компетенция тамойилларини;

- коммуникатив ва вазифага асосланган тил ўргатишда баҳолаш мезонларини;

- тилларни масофавий ва ананавий ўрганиш ва ўқитишда методологик ёндашувларни;

- рақамли технологияларнинг имкониятлари ва муаммоларини;

- блендед (аралаш) таълимнинг принциплари ва амалиётини;

- масофавий ва ананавий дарсларни интеграция қилиш ва подкастлар, викилар ва блоглар каби веб-технологияларда ўқиш ва ёзиш тажрибасини*билиши*керак.

- тил ўқитишга оид илғор тажрибалардан фойдаланиш;

- ахборот технологияларининг замонавий воситаларидан фойдаланиб илмий-тадқиқотларни ўтказиш;

- тил ўрганиш ва ўқитишда Web 2.0 воситаларидан самарали фойдаланиш;

- анъанавий баҳолаш ва CEFRга асосланган тил компетенцияларини баҳолаш тизими ўртасидаги фарқларни аниқлай олиш;

- ўз устида ишлаб, фаннинг янги тадқиқотларини ўқитиш тизимини қўллаш;

- тил ўқитувчилари малакасини оширишда аралаш таълим, замонавий қараш ва ёндашувлардан фойдаланиш;

- педагогик жараёнда мулоқот услубларини тўғри қўллай олиш **кўникмаларига** эга бўлиши лозим.

  - тил ва нутқ материалларини танлаш тамойиллари, аутентик манбалар билан ишлаш;

  - тил ўқитиш методикаси бўйича ўрганган маълумотларни амалда қўллай олиш;

  - тингловчиларнинг билиш қобилиятларини баҳолай олиш;

  - ўқув жараёнини режалаштириш, баҳолаш, фидбек механизмларини амалга ошириш;

  - тингловчиларнинг ўз-ўзини баҳолашга қаратилган портфолиосини ишлаб чиқиш **малакаларига** эга бўлиши зарур.

Модулнинг ўқув режадаги бошқа модуллар билан боғлиқлиги ва узвийлиги

"Тилшунослик назариясининг тил амалиётига интеграцияси" модули мазмуни ўқув режадаги дискурс таҳлили ўқув млдули билан узвий боғланган ҳолда педагогларнинг тил кўникмаларини талаб даражасида қўллай олиш малакасини орттиришга хизмат қилади.

Модулнинг олий таълимдаги ўрни

Модулни ўзлаштириш орқали тингловчилар илғор хорижий мамлакатларда ўқитишни ташкил қилишнинг хорижий тажрибаларни ўрганиш, амалда қўллаш ва баҳолашга доир касбий компетентликка эга бўладилар. Сўнгги йилларда хорижий тиллар соҳасидаги ютуқлар ва истиқболлар олий ўқув юртларидаги таълим жараёнининг мазмунини бойитишга хизмат қилади.

Модул бўйича соатлар тақсимоти

№	Модул мавзулари	Тингловчининг ўқув юкламаси, соат				
		Хаммаси	Аудитория ўқув юкламаси			Кўчма машғулот
			Жами	жумладан		
				Назарий	Амалий машғулот	
1.	Амалий тилшунослик ва тил таълими. Тил ўрганиш стратегиялари. Тилларни ўқитиш усулларини ўрганиш.	4	4	2	2	
2.	Тилшуносликнинг назарий масалалари, тилшунослик тарихи.	2	2		2	
3.	Лингвистик мактаблар ва улар томонидан яратилган таълимотлар моҳияти. Грамматик категориялар, грамматикага оид замонавий таълимотлар.	2	2		2	
4.	Семантика, семантик категориялар, лингвистик таҳлил методларидан фойдаланиш. Лингвогенетик, ареал, типологик, дистрибутив, трансформацион тадқиқот методлар.	2	2		2	
5	Хорижий мамлакатлар лингвистик назарияларини тарих нуқтаи назаридан таҳлил қилиш, уларни қиёслаб ўрганиш. Коммуникатив тилшунослик, лингвопрагматика, психолингвистика, гендер тилшунослик, нейролингвистика, маданиятлараро мулоқот, лингвокультурология.	2	2		2	
	Жами:	**12**	**12**	**2**	**10**	**0**

НАЗАРИЙ МАШҒУЛОТ МАТЕРИАЛЛАРИ

1-Мавзу: Амалий тилшунослик ва тил таълими. Тил ўрганиш стратегиялари. Тилларни ўқитиш усулларини ўрганиш.

Тил товушлари. Грамматикани ўқитиш. Лексико-грамматика ва корпус тилшунослиги. Суҳбат таҳлили, Прагматика. Матн, контекст ва схема. Тилларни ўрганиш ва ўзаро сўзлашиш.

АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТЛАР

1-Амалий машғулот.Амалий тилшунослик ва тил таълими. Тил ўрганиш стратегиялари. Тилларни ўқитиш усулларини ўрганиш.

2-Амалий машғулот. Тилшуносликнинг назарий масалалари, тилшунослик тарихи.

3-Амалий машғулот. Лингвистик мактаблар ва улар томонидан яратилган таълимотлар моҳияти. Грамматик категориялар, грамматикага оид замонавий таълимотлар.

4-Амалий машғулот. Семантика, семантик категориялар, лингвистик таҳлил методларидан фойдаланиш. Лингвогенетик, ареал, типологик, дистрибутив, трансформацион тадқиқот методлар.

5-Амалий машғулот.Хорижий мамлакатлар лингвистик назарияларини тарих нуқтаи назаридан таҳлил қилиш, уларни қиёслаб ўрганиш. Коммуникатив тилшунослик, лингвопрагматика, психолингвистика, гендер тилшунослик, нейролингвистика, маданиятлараро мулоқот, лингвокультурология.

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IV. Интернет сайтлар

28. http://edu.uz – Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги

29. http://lex.uz – Ўзбекистон Республикаси Қонун ҳужжатлари маълумотлари миллий базаси

30. http://bimm.uz – Олий таълим тизими педагог ва раҳбар кадрларини қайта тайёрлаш ва уларнинг малакасини оширишни ташкил этиш бош илмий-методик маркази

31. http://ziyonet.uz – Таълим портали ZiyoNET

32. www.Britishcouncil.org -Британия кенгаши веб сайти

33. www.ziyonet.uz -Таълим портали

34. www.tefl.net- Тил ўрганиш веб сайти

35. busyteacher.org -Тил ўрганиш веб сайти

II. МОДУЛНИ ЎҚИТИШДА ФОЙДАЛАНИЛАДИГАН ИНТЕРФАОЛ ТАЪЛИМ МЕТОДЛАРИ

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?

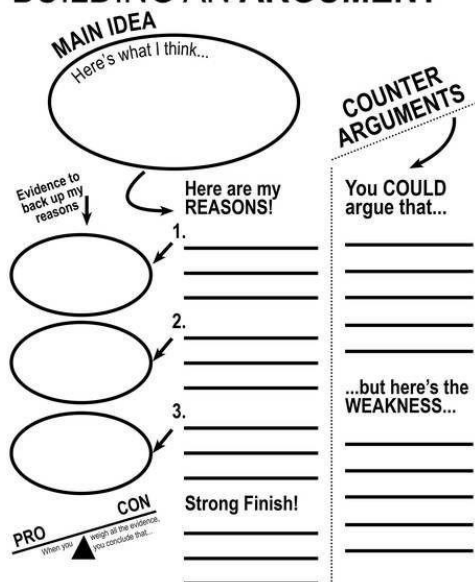Having students complete assignments based on the case study will not only

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:

One Debate Structure

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

REASON:

2. Love is more important than money.

REASON:

3. It is better to be married than single.

REASON:

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

REASON:

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

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

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

5. Generating Resolutions: The Students Generate Their Own Resolutions

- Explain that issues about which people are likely to disagree work best for debate. They can be controversial: the death penalty should be banned; or less divisive: love is more important than money.
- For homework or in class, the students brainstorm a list of resolutions. Students can get their ideas from topics discussed or read about in class or topics which interest them personally. Then the students hand in their list of resolutions and the teacher selects the most suitable ones which the students later choose from.

Bulletin Board Ideas in teaching English

Wall of Shame - A Character Building Adventure

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

And, some students dont' believe something is wrong unless they are caught. ----You can even post a Bill of Rights and ask the students to synthesize whether any of these articles relate to the Bill of Rights.

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

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

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

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?

APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND TEACHING THE LANGUAGE. STRATEGIES OF LEARNING THE LANGUAGE.LEARNING THE METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGES.

Plan:
1. **Applied linguistics and its connection with language teaching**
2. **Lexico-grammatics and corpus linguistics**
3. **Pragmatic competence and communicative analyses**

Aim of the lecture: to show the significance of applied linguistics, to introduce the issues related to applied linguistics.

Key words and expressions: lexociogrammar, lexicon, grammar, corpus linguistics, pragmatics, text, context, scheme, culture.

Whenever knowledge about language is used to solve a basic language-related problem, one may say that Applied Linguistics is being practiced. Applied Linguistics is a technology which makes abstract ideas and research findings accessible and relevant to the real world, it mediates between theory and practice (International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, 1992:76).

1. Applied Linguistics is concerned with a) the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems such as lexicography, translation etc.; b) the study of second and foreign language learning and teaching. [This discipline] …uses information from sociology, psychology …as well as from linguistics in order to develop its own theoretical models of language and language use, and then uses this information and theory in practical areas such as syllabus design, language planning etc. (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 1985:15).

2. Applied Linguistics is the application of linguistic theories, descriptions and methods to the solution of language problems which have arisen in a range of human, cultural and social contexts Carter (1993: 3). If linguistics reifies "language" one can say that Applied Linguistics reifies more than language; it reifies "language practices".

What is the relationship between Linguistics and Applied Linguistics?

A very common perception of Linguistics is that it constitutes a discipline whose purpose is the study of language with a view to understanding of how the linguistic system –disconnected from its social context and its users– is structured into meaningful patterns that reflect the operations of the mind. In case of this or similar conceptions of Linguistics, there is a sharp divide between this discipline, sometimes referred to as Theoretical (less often referred to as Autonomous) Linguistics and the field of Applied Linguistics, which is perceived as the broad field of language study and analysis that provides knowledge and information that may be of "practical value" in that it facilitates understanding of social practices, psychological or cognitive operations and pedagogic processes.

Linguistics, viewed as above, does not use the knowledge developed from linguistic study for the solution of problems in human, social and cultural contexts (as does Applied Linguistics). Moreover, it borrows no insights from other disciplines (as does 'Interdisciplinary' Linguistics, including Cognitive Linguistics, Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics). This is one reason why an alternative and perhaps more correct name for Theoretical Linguistics is Autonomous Linguistics. The main characteristic of this school of thought is that language is an autonomous meaning system; i.e. that the meaning of linguistic signs is arbitrary.

There are, however, other important schools of thought, which maintain that language is socially situated and therefore must be studied in relation to the sociocultural reality by which it is constructed and which it reproduces. Here, linguistic meaning is not autonomous and language is not viewed or studied

outside of the social context which it helps to interpret. In this tradition, Linguistics, the clear distinction between Theoretical, Applied and Interdisciplinary Linguistics becomes blurred.

Table 1: Campbell (1980)

Linguistics, Psychology/Psycholinguistics, Sociology/Sociolinguistics$\Rightarrow$	AppliedLinguistics $\Rightarrow$	Pedagogy
Theoretician	Mediator	Practitioner

Table 2: Areas of Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics	Interdisciplinarylinguistics	Appliedlinguistics
- Phonology, - Morphology, - Syntax&structuralgrammar, - Semantics, - Historicallinguistics.	- Psycholinguistics, - Sociolinguistics, - Pragmatics, - Discourseanalysis, - Computational [andcorpus] linguistics.	- Applied Linguistics to language education, - Applied linguistics to foreign language education, - Translationstudies, - Lexicography.

Table 3: Ways of Studying Language

Synchronicstudyoflanguage	Diachronicstudyoflanguage
• Study of the formal properties of language. • Study of meaning in and/or through language. • The study of the use of language (by users / in texts).	• Thehistoryoflanguage. • The study of language birth, death, development and change over time.
Psycholinguistic study of language: Language acquisition	**Psycholinguistic study of language: The development of cognition / knowledge**
• How language is acquired by human beings. • How language is learned by groups or individuals. • How language competence and literacy are developed. • How bilinguals or plurilinguals function.	• The operations of the mind/brain and the body. • How information is stored and retained. • How meaning is perceived and transmitted. • Language and the affective domain / emotion.
Sociolinguistic study of language: Language use	**Sociolinguistic study of language: Language in society**
• How language is used by social agents/subjects/individuals. • How language operates in different sociocultural contexts. • How language operates in discourse and text. • Language-thought and how it is represented. • Functions of language encoding and expressing social, ideological, political meanings.	• Regional and social varieties of language. • Attitudestolanguage. • Conflictoverlanguage(s). • Planning, protecting, promoting language(s). • Language as a marker of identity. • Language and social stratification, gender, age. • Languageacrosscultures.

What is the field of Applied Linguistics concerned with?

Because much of the work in the area deals with foreign language teaching, Applied Linguistics is often perceived as the field that uses insights from Linguistics for the benefit of foreign language education. However, such a view overlooks a great deal of important contributions of Applied Linguistics to a significant number of other areas, including studies in feminism (Feminist Linguistics), artificial intelligence and information technology (Computational and Corpus Linguistics), ecological studies (Eco-linguistics), Lexicography, Language planning and policy. Cook (2003: 8) presents a list of areas that concern Applied Linguistics and divides this list into three categories with their subsequent subcategories as in Table 6 below.

Table 4: Applied Linguistics

Languageandeducation	Language, work and the law	Language, informationandeffect
• Firstlanguageeducation, • Secondlanguageeducation, • Foreignlanguageeducation, • Clinicallinguistics, • Languagetesting.	• Workplacecommunication, • Languageplanning, • Forensiclinguistics.	• Literarystylistics, • Criticaldiscourseanalysis, • TranslationandInterpretation, • Informationdesign, • Lexicography.

Table 5: Applied Linguistics to Foreign Language Education

- Interlanguageanalysis,
- Classroomdiscourse (analysis),
- Academicwriting,
- English for special purposes (ESP),
- Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL),
- Curriculum development and syllabus design,
- Materialsdesign,
- Researchinglanguagelearning,
- Researching the use of L1 in foreign language teaching.

Table 6: Foreign language teaching and learning

Theoryoflanguage⇨	Developingthecurriculum / syllabus
Theoryoflanguagelearning⇨	Planning the teaching learning process
Theoryofassessment⇨	Evaluatingresults
	⇩ Practices of EFL Teaching & Learning

Lexicogrammar, also called *lexical grammar,* is a term used in systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to emphasize the interdependence of vocabulary (lexis) and syntax (grammar). The term, introduced by renowned linguist M.A.K. Halliday, is an amalgamation of the words "lexicon" and "grammar."

"The advent of corpus linguistics," notes Michael Pearce, "has made the identification of lexicogrammatical patterns much easier than it once was," (Pearce 2007).

What Is Lexicogrammar?

Think of lexicogrammar not as simply a combination of two fields of study but as a spectrum that contains aspects of lexical studies and aspects of grammatical studies. "[A]ccording to systemic functional theory, lexicogrammar is diversified into a metafunctional spectrum, extended in delicacy from grammar to lexis, and ordered into a series of ranked units," (Halliday 2013).

What M.A.K. Halliday and John Sinclair, author of the following excerpt, want others to understand is that in lexicogrammar, grammar and lexical patterns do not carry the same weight. "**[L]exico-grammar** is now very fashionable, but it does not integrate the two types of patterns as its name might suggest—it is fundamentally grammar with a certain amount of attention to lexical patterns within the grammatical frameworks; it is not in any sense an attempt to build together a grammar and lexis on an equal basis ... Lexico-grammar is still firmly a kind of grammar, laced, or perhaps spiked with some lexis," (Sinclair 2004).

Lexicogrammar Is Still Just Grammar

M.A.K. goes on to further explain why, if lexicogrammar can really just be considered a branch of grammar and vocabulary isn't as significant as syntax, he gave it a new name. "The heart of language is the abstract level of coding that is the lexicogrammar. (I see no reason why we should not retain the term 'grammar' in this, its traditional sense; the purpose of introducing the more cumbersome term *lexicogrammar* is simply to make explicit the point that vocabulary is also a part of it, along with syntax and morphology)," (Halliday 2006).

How Words and Grammar Are Interdependent

The flexibility of verbs, Michael Pearce suggests, proves that grammar and vocabulary are mutually dependent. "Vocabulary and grammatical structures are interdependent; so much so that it is possible to say with some justification that words have their own grammar. This interdependency of lexis and grammar is evident everywhere in language. For example, lexical verbs have valency patterns: some verbs can be used with a direct object (*I made some oven gloves*), or with both a direct object and an indirect object (*The government awarded them a pay rise*), others need no object at all (*The Colonel was laughing*)," (Pearce 2007).

Lexicogrammar and Semantics

Lexicogrammar captures the big picture of language better than the study of grammar or lexicon alone. And in doing this, it also provides a stronger understanding of meaning-making in communication, otherwise known as semantics. "Just as lexis and grammar are considered to form a single stratum, Halliday considers that the **lexicogrammar** is not a separate system or 'module' apart from semantics, but is rather an underlying component of the meaning-making system of a language.

The stratum of semantics is thus not thought of as an abstract or logical structure, but rather as the medium through which humans use language to interact in their social and cultural context. A consequence of this is that the language, and in particular the lexicogrammar, is structured by the expressive and communicative functions it has evolved to convey," (Gledhill 2011).

Lexicogrammar and Corpus Linguistics

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 <u>corpora</u> 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).

Another matter in linguistics is pragmatics. In teaching the language we should pay attention to pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence refers to the ability to comprehend, construct, and convey meanings that are both accurate and appropriate for the social and cultural circumstances in which communication occurs. This is the goal for foreign language learners(cited in Barron, 2003, p. 173), identified pragmatic competence as one element of communicative competence, placing pragmatic competence as part of illocutionary competence, which is a combination of speech acts and speech functions along with the appropriate use of language in context.

Elements of Pragmatics. Pragmatics, as the above discussion shows, is all about communicating appropriately in context. Communication involves language, verbal or written, but it involves many other aspects that go beyond the words in specific speech acts. I refer to all aspects of appropriate communication as "pragmatic elements." Second and foreign language learners need to acquire knowledge of and fluency in these pragmatic elements in order to acquire pragmatic competence. Many sociolinguists have addressed these elements. Hymes (1974) proposed a model using the mnemonic device S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G to illustrate the key elements. S represents "setting" and "scene," the social and physical situation where the communication occurs, including time of day. P stands for "participants," the people involved in the communication and their roles and relationships. E describes "ends," the purpose or intended outcome of the communication. A represents "act sequence," the order of exchanges or pieces of the overall communication. K stands for 'key," the tone or manner of the exchange. It describes "instrumentalities," forms and styles of speech, including register. N represents "norms," the social expectations or rules that underlie or inform the communication, namely, what is acceptable. G stands for "genre," the kind of speech act or communication involved. This model provides a broad picture of relevant aspects in analyzing and understanding how they are part of appropriate communication. For example, what would be the appropriate communication for a male supervisor reprimanding a female employee in a private meeting in his office at the end of the workday about an important appointment she missed? He wants to set a firm but gentle tone since she is a long-time, valued employee and he wants to keep her in the company. She, in turn, senses that there is a problem and wants to maintain her composure, even though she often disagrees with this supervisor. Using the SPEAKING model would help us explore and identify appropriate language for this situation. This model, however, does not explore or identify the many explicit behaviors that comprise communication. For this, I look to sources from cultural studies and intercultural communication, such as Teaching Culture (Moran, 2001), which lists these behaviors as "features of

practice" (p. 65). Practices are all the actions and interactions, including language, that members of a culture use to carry out their way of life. I find this list particularly useful, since it presents very concrete actions or behaviors that affect the appropriateness of communication. This specificity makes the pragmatic elements more visible. Moran organizes these features into two broad categories: linguistic and extralinguistic. Linguistic features are those that deal with language, verbal or written, including paralanguage, the vocal effects that accompany oral language. Extralinguistic features are those that are commonly referred to as non-verbal communication. Below I list these features and provide brief definitions and examples.

Linguistic: The linguistic components refer to all the written language, oral language and the paralanguage. The written language includes all the elements of written pragmatics such as: syntax and vocabulary. On the other hand, the pronunciation, tone, and accent belongs to the phonology of the oral language, as are the use of one's voice and other elements that accompany the speech such as interjections, onomatopoeia, coughing, and whistling.

Written Language Syntax: This is defined by Van Valin Jr. (2001) as "how sentences are constructed, and users of human languages employ a striking variety of possible arrangements of the elements insentences." (p. 19) Syntax can be altered to convey different messages, such as "I have got to go" versus "Gotta go."

Vocabulary: This is the use of words in relation to how we see the world, context, and participants in a speech act. The selection of words that a person uses might very according to the cultural background or register of the speaker or the receiver of the message. An example would be the use of the words "automobile" and   "wheels."

Oral LanguagePronunciation: This is the way a language is spoken or a word is uttered. Each language follows a different pattern for pronunciation, and even there might be different patterns in within a language. For a word to be pronounced correctly it must have the pronunciation of the specific dialect that is used in a specific context.*Tone of voice:* This is the use of pitch in a language to

distinguish a lexical item.*Accent:* This is related to the pronunciation of a language. It is the way the words are uttered with a characteristic pitch, stress and rhythm, representative of a specific speech community.*Register:* This is the specific variety of language that is used in a specific social setting. For instance, the use of certain words might be considered more appropriate in a specific situation than in others. For example, the use of the lexical item "ain't" would be more suitable in some situations than in others.*Paralanguage:Onomatopoeia:* This is a word that imitates sounds that it describes. It is commonly used in poetry and literature. In pragmatics it is used in the utterance of certain sounds that add intensity to the meaning of the phrase. Some examples in English include: bang, splash, boom.

Interjections and other vocalizations: Interjections are words that express an emotion in the sentence. They are regularly linked to the sentence as a grammatical part of it. There are other elements that can be classified as vocalizations. They usually carry meaning and a specific degree of intensity addition to the uttered phrase: coughing, laughing, groaning, etc. As an example, in some cultures laughing might carry an unenthusiastic meaning while in other cultures it might not.*Extralinguistic:* The extralinguistic category of components refers to important elements such as: kinesics, proxemics, oculesics, chronemics, and haptics, and context.

Oculesics: This consists of eye movements used to convey meaning. These movements include maintaining or avoiding direct eye contact, blinking, winking, staring, squinting, rolling the eyes, crossing the eyes, closing the eyes, and other eye behaviors. These movements convey meanings. For example, avoiding direct eye contact conveys meanings of respect and deference in some cultures, but in others, messages of guilt or embarrassment.*Context:* Edward T. Hall (in Moran, 2001) proposed two different categories of context to categorize the differences in communication style: Low context is where the message is direct, explicit, as in the utterance ("Oh I forgot my cell phone… Would you mind if I use yours to make a phone call?"), and high context where the speech is indirect, subtle, and understood

basically because of social situation signs. For example, a person is looking desperately for something in her purse. He is trying to find a payphone. Another person who offers her phone.*Chronemics:* This element of communication can be defined as the use of time in nonverbal communication. In fact, most culturesfollow a particular time pattern or even certain14 human groups in within that culture use a different time pattern. The time perceptions include punctuality, willingness to wait, and interactions in conversations. Chronemics has identified two different patterns of behavior in cultures: polychronic and monochronic. The United States is considered a monochronic culture which means that things are generally done separately, as in "one thing at a time." People value their own time and therefore, they value the times of others. These factors of punctuality and respect for the time are rooted in the industrial revolution where according to Guerrero, DeVito & Hecht (2009) "factory life required the labor force to be on hand and in place at an appointed hour" (p. 236). On the other hand, Latin America and the Arabic world are polychronic cultures, where people do many things at once, and are highly distracted and subject to interruptions when a conversation takes place. This pragmatic component of chronemics is important for learners of English since it also includes interesting elements that vary according to the culture such as the pace of the conversation, also known as register, and even how long the people are willing to wait in a conversation.*Haptics:* This is how touching conveys messages in nonverbal communication. Even though touching is part of all cultures, in some of them it can carry positive and negative denotations. A touching gesture can be perceived as positive in certain situations, but in others a person may get the opposite feeling when it is interpreted as insincere or suggesting ulterior motives. For some cultures touching is highly determined by the age, sexual orientation, gender and rank of the individuals who intervene in the conversation. As a result, what is impolite for one culture is considered polite for the other.*Kinesics:* This is the term used to describe body language. Kinesics includes movement of the hands, arms, head and other parts of the body.

Proxemics: This is the use of space between objects and between persons to

convey meanings. For example, the distance between two people standing face to face conveys meaning. The closer the distance, generally speaking, the more intimate the message. The above list, as mentioned, presents concrete behaviors that second language learners need to recognize and to employ effectively and appropriately. These behaviors are set within particular situations and social circumstances that also need to be understood, and Hymes' model helps analyze and explain these. To show how these pragmatic elements play out, let us examine the case of Eduardo once again and my own case, this time providing more details.

Questions:

1. What is applied linguistics and how is it connected with language teaching?
2. How should we use the issues of linguistics in teaching foreign languages?
3. How do you understand the term "lexicogrammatical"?
4. How the lexicogrammar and corpus linguistics are interconnected?
5. What is pragmatic competence?
6. In what spheres of the language should we teach pragmatic competence?
7. How the pragmatic competence helps in understanding another culture?

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APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND TEACHING THE LANGUAGE. STRATEGIES OF LEARNING THE LANGUAGE. LEARNING THE METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGES.

Plan.

1. **Methods of teaching languages**
2. **Strategies in learning languages**

Aim: to define the methods and learning strategies and their implementing in language teaching.

Key words and word combinations: strategy, learning strategy, sequence, contextualization, explicitness, control, method, GT method, audiolingual method, direct method, natural approach, technique.

Defining approach, method, technique:

Interest in making the best possible choice of an approach or method, when planning a foreign language course, expresses the educator's concern with effective teaching and productive learning –though there is not a single view about what 'good' teaching is, or what it means to have learnt something.

Task 1:

Look at the following definitions, and then decide which one describes approach and which one describes method.

1. _____: It is the overall "philosophy" –a set of ideas about what language teaching and learning should be about.

2. _____: It is a principled set of decisions as to the object of knowledge, i.e., as to **what** is to be taught and learnt), combined with the

ways in which knowledge is to be transmitted, i.e. **how** what is to be learnt is dealt with.
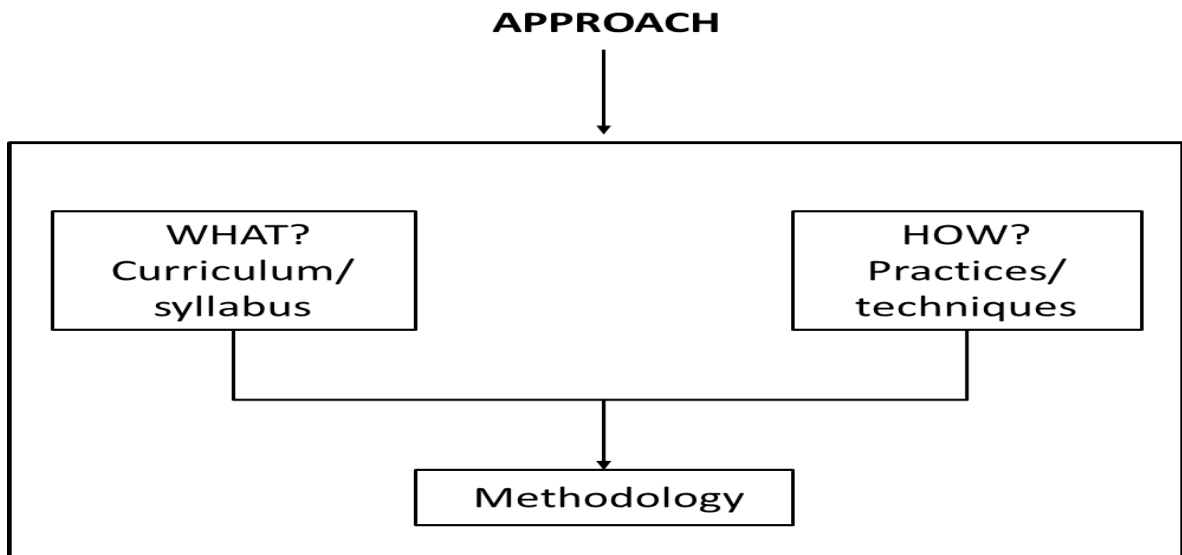
Look at the diagram in Figure 1:

Figure 1: The relationship between approach – method.

Another way of representing the relationship between approach, method and technique is more interactive, so that a specific technique, for instance, is the starting point for a method, which stems from an approach that is developed further on the basis of the teaching/learning process results.
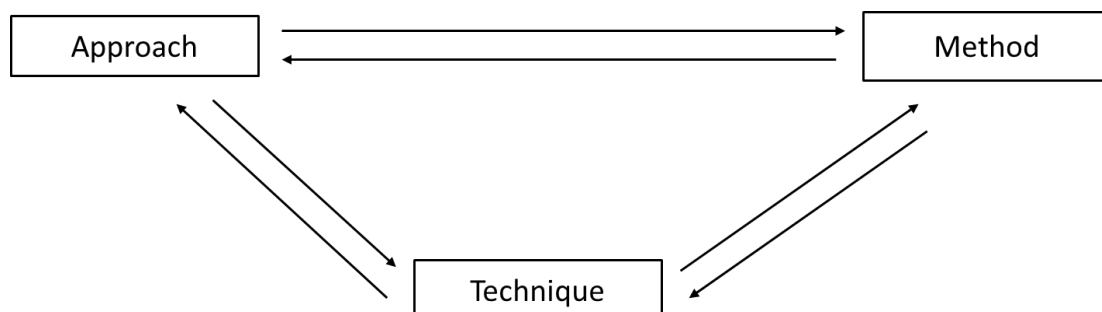

Figure 2: The relationship between approach, method and technique

There is one more distinction that must be made, and that is between the term approach and syllabus or curriculum since these are sometimes confused. For

example, there are those who tend to talk about the 'notional/functional approach' instead of talking about a 'communicative' approach, which may legitimately be used to describe a set of ideas about the language learning/teaching process. 'Notional/functional' cannot be. Why not?

Task 2:

In order to understand why it cannot be, read the section that follows and answer why.

A historical overview of FLD approaches and methods

The birth of methodology in foreign language teaching

Before the industrial revolution, when the learning of Latin and Ancient Greek was an important part of elite education, teaching involved the transmission of knowledge about the language –the rules of prescriptive grammar– as well as practice through translation from the source to the target language and vice-versa. With the growing need for the learning of prestigious modern languages, a reform to this way of teaching began making its appearance in the 19th century. This new way of teaching foreign languages that came to be known as:

The Grammar-Translation (GT) method

It was a method in the sense that it proposed a systematic way of teaching foreign languages. Classroom teaching followed the steps below though not always in the same order.

Step 1: Each teaching unit began with the presentation of a text in the target language to be translated by students in their L1 –a text that was written to illustrate the use of the main grammar point(s) to be taught.

Step 2: Presentation by translation into L1 of all new vocabulary included in the text that students were supposed to memorize.

Step 3: Presentation of rules concerning the new grammatical phenomenon and discussed in the students' L1 by comparing and contrasting it with the rules about the phenomenon in their own language.

Step 4: Practice of the new vocabulary and grammar through exercises (filling in, translating sentences, etc.).

Step 5: Practicing by translating, this time from L1 to L2, another text illustrating the use of the new grammar and vocabulary.

Task 3:

This method developed from the teaching of classical languages (Greek and Latin). Can you understand why?

The birth and growth of the FLD discipline

In the early nineteen hundreds, a new method was developed, partly as a reaction to the GT:

The Direct Method

The basic idea behind it was that the foreign language should be approached by way of one's direct experience with the reality that it names and, in this sense, in some ways, it is the predecessor of the more recent Experiential Learning approaches. Its rationale was that one should learn a foreign language 'naturally', somewhat like one acquires his/her first language. In this sense, it shares many similarities with a language teaching approach that was proposed and developed in the 1980s by the American linguists Krashen and Terrell, known as:

The Natural Approach

Though the Direct Method found its place in the European language teaching market, the Natural Approach did not have the same reception. By that time, an important distinction was discussed in the field – i.e. the difference between second language acquisition and foreign language learning. The Natural Approach was considered more appropriate for the former. However, many of the theoretical considerations of this approach were important for the development of the field, and will be discussed separately in a future unit.

Task 4:

The terms approach and method are often used interchangeably. However, whereas the term method is commonly seen as "any principled choice of techniques for the teaching of a language (less frequently for learning), an approach is a term frequently used to when referring to the educational 'philosophy' or 'theory' of pedagogy behind the method. Bear this distinction in mind and when you finish this Unit think about whether this claim is true or false.

As the need for language learning grew in the monolingual Western countries after World War II, right around the 1950s and 60s, two new ways of foreign language teaching featured as revolutionary and were widely used in Europe –Greece included, of course:

- **The Audiolingual Approach/Method**

- **The Audiovisual Approach/Method**

These new ways of teaching were strikingly different not so much because they were based on a different view of language than the previous ones, nor because they treated the issue of use of the L1 differently than the Direct Method or the Natural Approach. Nor was it due to a new theory of learning. Like the previous reformatory methods and approaches, these new ways of teaching relied on inductive processes in learning, unlike the GT which relied on deductive learning. The difference between these and previously proposed ways of teaching and their contributions to the discipline were due to new techniques stimulated by their underlying links with Behaviourist Psychology –believing that language is a habit like any other that should be shaped and formed – and their reliance on contrastive linguistics – on the basis of which one can predict learners' errors.

Task 5:

Look at the extracts from textbooks based on these two ways of teaching. What is one of the striking features of each?

A direct attack on behaviourism in language teaching (not just foreign language

teaching) was made by empiricists but also by mentalists. Already in the 60s there was a renewed interest in the mentalist movement because of Chomskyan linguistics. Though Chomsky's structuralist theory had only indirect implications on foreign language teaching, mentalism and the new concerns of cognitive studies had some direct effect. The relevant approach which made its appearance in foreign language didactics was:

The Cognitive Approach

Its goal was to get the language learner to understand how the language system operates so that s/he can then use it in various social situations, on the basis of his/her experience of language use.

Task 6:

Look at the extract of a textbook based on this approach and note what strikes you as very different from the ones that you looked at before:

The development of the field and its interdisciplinariness

All the methods and approaches mentioned above and the principles on which they are based, as well as the teaching techniques they have promoted have all become part of the history of the FLD and, therefore, have shaped its present where we still witness the conflict between mentalist and behaviourist views about language learning. Influential at their time, they stimulated the production of a wide range of instructional materials, teacher courses and other paraphernalia which contributed to the growth of the language teaching industry – some more than others. They are characterized by the distinct differences stimulated by the diverse views of language and language learning that informed them as they employed insights from the developing disciplines of Linguistics and Psycholinguistics.

Insights from Psychology are at the basis of a number of approaches that made their appearance in the 70s and the 80s, primarily in the U.S. Despite their promotion in language teaching and pedagogy journals and books, they were never immensely influential in Europe and did not contribute particularly to the growth of the language

teaching industry, though some of their ideas and techniques have been used eclectically. These are:

- **The Silent Way,**
- **Total physical response,**
- **Suggestopedia,**
- **Community language learning.**

Claims to interdisciplinariness of the field become stronger when one considers how significant the insights from Sociolinguistics were for the birth of two new ways of foreign language teaching and learning:

- **The Situational Approach,**
- **The Communicative Approach.**

Making their appearance in Europe in the 1970s, these approaches were different from any of the previous methods and approaches to foreign language learning. They were based on an understanding of language as an autonomous meaning system and thus focused on the formal properties of language, which was the main object of knowledge. These new approaches were stimulated by the view that meaning is determined by the social context in which language is used.

The short-lived Situational Approach, whose goal was the teaching of utterances as they are used in particular social settings (i.e., at a bank, at a hotel, at a restaurant, etc.), soon gave way to the Communicative Approach (CA), which promised to produce foreign language learners that could actually use language in real life situations in ways that were not merely correct, but also appropriate for the social context for which the use of language is required. The most important innovation of the CA is its proposal that the object of knowledge in language teaching be organized not in terms of the structural elements of language but in terms of the notions and functions that are performed through language. In other words, the CA is mainly associated with a notional-functional syllabus, rather than a grammar-based syllabus – a semantic rather than a structural syllabus.

Despite various criticisms of this approach, which did not actually constitute a new teaching method – it is in fact an approach rather than a method of teaching – the CA has provided the ground on which the 21st century practices of the field are based, primarily because it shifted the focus from the language itself to how it is used in various social contexts. The natural consequence of this was a new focus of attention on the learner and his/her needs for using the language.

The CA, which will be discussed in greater detail in Unit 8, marked a return to empiricist views in language learning. Such views, along with insights from psychology and from psycholinguistic theories of interactionism, a new methodology was born in the late 80s. Concerned with procedural rather than product learning, it focused on a 'learning-by-doing' approach for foreign language courses. This way of teaching has come to be known as:

Task-based teaching and learning

The principles behind this way of teaching will be discussed extensively in Unit 8, like the CA, not only because both revolutionised the interdisciplinary and 'hybrid' field of foreign language didactics, but also because they are both still fairly extremely influential.

Task 7:

Produce a chart that shows how the different ways of thinking about language learning are enacted. Put into categories the methods and approaches that have been briefly presented to you so far.

In the late 20th century, new concerns were developed in a globalized world which is viewed as a multilingual/multicultural community. Language teaching and learning has begun being promoted as a means to developing awareness and tolerance towards cultural norms other than our own. Hence, the appearance of what has come to be known as:

The Intercultural Approach

This newer approach will also be discussed more extensively later. At this point,

suffice it to say that it aims at developing language learners with intercultural awareness, rather than other-acculturated users of a dominant language.

Trend and fashion in FLD

There are some people that would readily argue that to follow new methods to foreign language teaching is like following a new trend and fashion. No matter what method is followed and despite whether a teacher is 'good' or 'bad', some people will learn and others will not. Some people would even go so far as to say that, like trend and fashion, the main purpose for new approaches and methods in education in general, language education in particular, is the production of new cultural products for greater consumerism. These arguments are not of course totally invalid given the fact that foreign language teaching is a big market and every time a new approach or method makes its appearance, the new cultural artifacts are produced (teacher materials and package-deal courses, textbooks and other kinds of instructional materials as well as assessment tools), boosting the language teaching industry. "The rise and fall of methods is due mainly to the influence of profit seekers, promoters and forces of the intellectual marketplace" Richards (1989) claims.

Task 8:

Look at a list of statements below, which are informed by politicized views of foreign language didactics and decide whether you can think of any additional arguments to the same effect.

- Basic elements of methods considered as totally new and exciting or others that totally overturn ways of thinking have been around for hundreds of years. In essence methods represent different configurations of the same basic options.
- Trend and fashion in methods and approaches or why some become more widespread and popular than others, is due to a variety of factors which have little to do with the quality of the method itself.

- While new methods and approaches of teaching and learning a language have often been viewed and promoted as a better way of teaching and learning a language, very little or no serious and systematic, longitudinal research is ever carried out to provide proof as to the effectiveness of one method over another.

- The few comparative studies of methods that have been carried out have been unable to reach any definite conclusions as to whether one method is superior to any other.

- Methods for language teaching and learning are not always theoretically well informed. Most often, they comprise language teaching recipes ready for consumption by theoretically uninformed and ill prepared language teachers.

- Methods are usually developed in the West and have everything to do with the cultural politics of language of countries such as the U.S., England, France and Germany.

- New methods and approaches (which are produced in the intellectual marketplace of dominant countries in order to be exported) are always presented as advanced and effective, regardless of the specific educational, social and cultural contexts of the users of these products or their values and beliefs.

Learning strategies, considered inherent to the act of learning, are what students do when trying to learn and address their learning problems. Research over the past thirty years increasingly confirms that helping language learners to use learning strategies effectively results in increased language proficiency and learner motivation (see Hassan et al., 2005, for the best review of this topic). Continuing investigation has outlined effective instructional strategies for promoting learning of these strategies (Brown & Palincsar, 1982; Coyle, 2007; Graham & Macaro, 2007, 2008; Harris, 2007). In addition, language teacher educators are now identifying the most effective practices to develop teachers'

ability to incorporate learner strategies into their language curriculum.

Types of Learning Strategies and the Learner Self-Management Model

More than three decades of research has led to the identification of specific learning strategies adopted by language learners of a range of ages and learning styles (both expert and novice) studying a variety of languages. Several kinds of strategies have been identified: cognitive, metacognitive, and socioaffective. Research (Chamot, 2005; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010) has determined that successful language learners control their learning by using metacognitive strategies (i.e., thinking about learning) and making decisions about what to do. To understand the relationship among these different strategies Rubin (2005) proposed the learner self-management model, based on Butler's (1997) discussion of learner selfregulation as "The ability to deploy procedures and to access knowledge and beliefs in order to accomplish learning goals in a *dynamically* changing environment" (p. 37, italics in the original). Rubin defines *procedures* as the actions learners take to manage their learning by planning (e.g., setting goals, criteria/evidence, a time line; task analysis; creating an action plan), monitoring/noticing, evaluating, problem solving, and implementing problem solutions. Task analysis consists of task purpose (why you want to reach your goal), task classification (what you know about the task) and task demands (how to proceed based on your task classification). Rubin observed that in order to select appropriate cognitive and socioaffective strategies, learners need to base the selection on their task classification. Adapting Wenden's (1995) definition, Rubin (2005) further defined *knowledge and beliefs* as: task knowledge, person knowledge, strategy knowledge, background knowledge, and beliefs. She then underlined the critical interaction between procedures (strategies to manage learning) and knowledge (information needed for learners to manage their learning). Cohen (1998, cited in Manchón, 2008, p. 4) provides the most consistent rationale forteaching learning strategies.

According to Macaro (2001), "Strategy training is a gradual, recursive, and

longitudinalprocess" (p. 266). Consequently, those interested in promoting strategy instruction shouldnot expect a quick fix, but rather an organized, well-informed endeavor to help learnersmove toward the goal of self-management. Other important characteristics of learningstrategy instruction include that it be contextualized, scaffolded, explicit, with choice, withcontrol, and relevant.

Contextualization Contextualization means that strategies are taught as part of a language lesson, since thepurpose of teaching learning strategies is to enable learners to more easily attain a specificlearning goal and accomplish a task. Hence, it is neither effective nor efficient to teachstrategies in the absence of goals. The teaching of self-management (including the knowledge needed to use procedures) and the product (i.e., the language) must be integratedsince both are interconnected aspects of learning.

Scaffolding Scaffolding is another critical element in teaching learning strategies. It involves the teacherproviding just the right amount of support to enable learners to progress. As learners gaincontrol of their use of strategies, teachers can fade the scaffolding and shift more responsibility for learning to the students. Examples of scaffolding include modeling strategyuse, explaining what, why, when, and how a strategy can be used, and providing examples.Fading includes providing just a hint or a prompt. The advantage of scaffolding is that itcan be individualized and given "just in time," leading to less learner frustration.

Explicitness In a classic study, Brown and Palincsar (1982) provided three types of instruction: blind,informed, and controlled. In the blind mode, learners were given an exercise without anyexplanation of how to perform it; in the informed mode, learners were presented with astrategy, its name, and why it was useful; and in the controlled mode, learners were notonly told the name of the strategy and why it was useful but also when it might not beuseful. The study found that informed learners outperformed blind learners, and controlledlearners did best, illustrating the importance of explicit strategy instruction.

Choice   An important factor in motivating learners and developing their ability to self-manage isgiving learners choices about the materials they use to

practice, the goals they set forthemselves (i.e., what to focus on), their purpose in doing a task (i.e., why they want tofocus on a goal), and how they want to go about working on a task. Chamot and Genovese(2009) found that giving students choice of materials increased their motivation.

Control Strengthening learners' control over their learning is the ultimate goal of strategy instruction. Such instruction includes development of procedures along with enhancing knowledgeand clarification of beliefs. Pintrich (2000, cited in anchón, 2008) observed that it isespecially important for learners to set their own goals if they are to achieve control oftheir learning. Rubin (2005) added that not only do they need to set their own goals butalso to establish criteria (i.e., observable evidence) for determining whether they havereached their goals and to do task analysis for selection of appropriate strategies. However,consistent with Macaro's (2001) observation about the amount of time strategy instructiontakes, Rubin and McCoy (2008) found that multiple practice opportunities are needed forlearners to be able to establish criteria consistently.

Relevance Strategy instruction should be directly related to the problems that learners are seeking tosolve. Unless strategy instruction is used to solve specific learningproblems, learners willregard it as an additional burden and simply superfluous.

Instructional Sequences

Although there are a number of models for teaching learning strategies (White, Schramm,& Chamot, 2007, p. 112; see also Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2007, p. 142), common to all these models is a sequence of four steps: (a) *preparation*: teachers raise learnerawareness of problems and strategies; (b) *presentation*: teacher models, names, and explainsnew strategy, suggesting possible benefits—this can help students become more aware ofthe thinking and learning process; (c) *practice*: teacher provides multiple practice opportunities to help students move toward autonomous use of the strategies through gradualwithdrawal of the scaffolding, eventually enabling transfer of strategies to fresh tasks; and(d) *evaluation*: learners use criteria to evaluate effectiveness of

strategies and determinewhether they addressed their problem (and, if they did not, to consider what other strategies to use).Regarding the first step of "preparation," Rubin et al. (2007) provide a comparisonof several awareness-raising techniques: questionnaires, focus groups, journals, asking aspecific question, and reading about the learning process. An additional awareness-raisingtechnique is cold practice followed by a discussion of strategies used and how effectivethey were. In terms of the second step of "presentation," one of the most effective techniques for modeling is to "think aloud" whereby teachers (or students) say out loud theirthoughts about problems encountered while performing an activity. In this way, studentscan become aware of how the teacher and other learners try to resolve problems. As faras "practice" is concerned, sufficient practice is critical; it can take many forms and, asmentioned earlier, should be integrated with learning an aspect of the language. Lastly,the fourth step of "evaluation" should be based on preestablished criteria that a learnerhas achieved a goal. Such criteria can be jointly established when learners are beginning teaching language-learning strategiesto understand procedures and can be faded when they are more comfortable with theprocess.When first introducing learning strategies, especially to beginners, presenting those thatare most likely to lead to success will help learners to recognize the value of this endeavor.Many researchers note that strategies which can enhance memory are the most likely candidates. Rubin et al. (2007, p. 159), note that such success will build self-efficacy (i.e.,self-confidence), which is an important component of motivation. Further, they note that"learners should themselves directly feel that the knowledge given through strategy intervention is immediately and directly useful to them" (p. 159). Wenden (1987) observes thatnot all learners react favorably to strategy instruction and that, in particular, expert learnersfind such instruction a waste of time. However, since this observation was made whenthe custom was to present strategies one by one, instead of encouraging learners to considerwhich of several strategies would work for them, this may no longer be the case. Finally,after much consideration, it is agreed that there are no good or bad strategies, ratherstrategies

that are appropriate for a particular learner, for a particular task, or for a particular goal in a particular setting.More research is needed to confirm the long-term effect of intervention on languageproficiency, to clarify how such interventions are affected by academic level, and to determinewhich instructional sequences are the most effective for addressing individual differences.

Role of Social Context

Research has shown that social context can affect use and acquisition of learning strategiesin two ways: (a) the kind of "learning community" that the teacher builds (Takeuchi,Griffiths, & Coyle, 2007); and (b) how the culture of the subject matter influences thestrategies selected by a learner (Uhrig, 2004). Takeuchi et al. (2007) consider the role of the classroom as a learning community, notingthat learning has both an individual and a social component. The social component includesscaffolding (by teachers and peers), group work, sharing problem-solving strategies, andsocially constructed goals. In addition, scholars of sociocultural theory suggest that agencyand power relations can affect learning, either positively or negatively. Uhrig (2004) foundthat the strategies which a learner uses depend on the demands of a task (e.g., degree ofclass participation expected, kind of assignments) and that such demands can influencethe extent to which a learner needs to work with a social network to solve learning problems.

Challenges in Teaching Strategies

Teachers' success in promoting the use of learning strategies depends on a number ofvariables beyond their control. Among these are mandated textbook requirements; highstakes tests; curricula; class size and configuration; andschedules. When these macrostructures are not aligned in such a way as tofacilitate the teaching of learning strategies, itcan be more challenging to teach them. Rubin (2010) provides some effective solutions tothese difficulties, including strong administrative support and a supportive network ofcolleagues. Another challenge may be learners' beliefs and experience about who bearsthe major responsibility for learning. It can take a lot longer to develop learners' ability totake control of their learning when they believe that it is the teacher's

responsibility forlearning to take place. Finally, it is critical for teachers to be thoroughly grounded in theprocess of teaching learning strategies; administrators should provide the necessary timeand training for this to happen (see Rubin, 2010, for a review of challenges in so doing).

SEE ALSO: Affect and Language Teaching; Individual Differences in the Classroom; Motivation in Second Language Acquisition; Sociocultural Theory; Working Memory in Second Language Acquisition: Phonological Short-Term; Zone of Proximal Development in Second Language Acquisition.

Task 9:

1. In small groups discuss the notion of strategies.
2. In groups do the project of working out the strategies which are efficient in teaching languages. Support your opinion.

Questions:

1. How the strategies can be applied into learning languages?
2. What strategies in learning languages?
3. How the strategies can be used in order to promote effective learning?
4. What are the types of strategies?

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THEORETICAL PROBLEMS OF LINGUISTICS. THE HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS. LINGUISTIC SCHOOLS AND THE ESSENCE OF THEIR DOCTRINES

Plan:

1. Introduction.
2. Brief history of twentieth-century linguistics.
3. An introduction to the different ways that language can be studied
4. Linguistic schools and contributions of scholars into linguistics

Aim: to discuss the history of linguistic schools and the essence of the doctrines

Key words and word combinations:linguistics,history, linguistic fields, structuralism, postmodernism, descriptivism, functional linguistics, generative grammar, rationale grammar.

Introduction

Linguistics is the study of language, sometimes called the science of language. {1} The subject has become a very technical, splitting into separate fields: sound (phonetics and phonology), sentence structure (syntax, structuralism, deep grammar), meaning (semantics), practical psychology (psycholinguistics) and contexts of language choice (pragmatics). {2} But originally, as practised in the nineteenth century, linguistics was philology: the history of words. {3} Philologists tried to understand how words had changed and by what principle. Why had the proto-European consonants changed in the Germanic branch: Grimm's Law? Voiceless stops went to voiceless fricatives, voiced stops to voiceless stops, and voiced aspirates to voiced stops. What social phenomenon was responsible? None could be found. Worse, such changes were not general. Lines of descent could be

constructed, but words did not evolve in any Darwinian sense of simple to elaborate. One could group languages as isolating (words had a single, unchanging root), agglutinizing (root adds affixes but remains clear) and inflecting (word cannot be split into recurring units), but attempts to show how one group developed into another broke down in hopeless disagreement.

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913)

So linguistics might have ended: documenting random changes in random directions. But that was hardly a science, only a taxonomy. When therefore Ferdinand de Saussure tentatively suggested that language be seen as a game of chess, where the history of past moves is irrelevant to the players, a way though the impasse was quickly recognized. Saussure sketched some possibilities. If the word *high-handed* falls out of use, then synonyms like *arrogant* and *presumptuous* will extend their uses. If we drop the final *f* or *v* the results in English are not momentous (we might still recognize *belie* as *belief* from the context), but not if the final *s* is dropped (we should then have to find some new way of indicating plurals).

Saussure's suggestion was very notional: his ideas were put together by students from lecture notes and published posthumously in 1915. But they did prove immensely fruitful, even in such concepts as langue (the whole language which no one speaker entirely masters) and parole (an individual's use of language). Words are signs, and in linguistics we are studying the science of signs: semiology. And signs took on a value depending on words adjacent in use or meaning. English has *sheep* and *mutton* but French has only *mouton* for both uses. Above all (extending the picture of a chess game) we should understand that language was a totality of linguistic possibilities, where the "move" of each word depended on the possible moves of others.

Saussure had a theory of meaning. He envisaged language as a series of contiguous subdivisions marked off on the indefinite planes of ideas and sounds. A

word (sign) was a fusion of concept (signified) and sound-image (signifier) the two being somehow linked as meaning in the mind. Both signifieds and signifiers independently played on their own chess board of possibilities — i.e. they took up positions with regard to other pieces, indeed owed their existence to them. Though championed by the Structuralists, this theory of semantics was a disastrous one, raising the problems recognized by linguistic philosophy. But that was not Saussure's fault. He was not a philosopher, but a philologist, one whose simple idea, though much anticipated by Michel Bréal and perhaps Franz Boas, largely recast linguistics in its present form. {3}

■ The Structuralists

Saussure's ideas spread first to Russia, being brought there and developed by Ramon Jacobson (1896-1982). Strictly speaking, the product was not Structuralism, which dates from Jakobson's acquaintance with Lévi-Strauss in the 1960's, but formalism: study of the devices by which literary language makes itself distinctive. Poetry was the great love of the Russian formalists (who knew personally the revolutionary poets) and they looked intensively and dispassionately at the structures and devices that literature employs, whether Pushkin or seemingly artless fairy stories. But as Marxist ideology tightened its grip, the member of the Russian school, never a very tightly knit group, either recanted or fled abroad. Jakobson went to Czechoslovakia and then to the USA, but took with him the very speculative nature of Russian formalism: brilliant theories, but poor documentation and few laboratory studies.

Jakobson made little impact in Prague, which had its own traditions, but in America was able to draw on and develop the ideas of structural anthropology: that the behaviour of societies is governed by deep, scarcely visible rules and understandings. As such, Jakobson's views merged with those of continental philosophy and sociology — with Althusser's reinterpretation of Marx, that language was ideology, a hidden reality, an alternative source of state power. Also with Barthes's attempt to explain the multiplicity of French society from a few

underlying suppositions. And with Foucault's genealogy. Meanwhile, Emile Benaviste had rewritten Saussure (as most Structuralists and Post-structuralists were to do) to conceive the signified as not inside individual minds but part of any ever-present social reality. Gradually it is not the individual, nor the society, but language itself that becomes the defining reality: a view that leads on to Postmodernism.

Jakobson had some novel ideas of his own. There was, he proposed, a relatively simple, orderly and universal psychological system underlying the three to eight thousand odd languages in the world. Despite the many ways phonemes (basic units of sound) are produced by human mouths, all could be represented in binary structures (open-closed, back-front, etc.) governed by 12 levels of precedence. Binary structures are written into Lévi-Strauss's views, and these notions fitted with information theory and sound spectrography. But languages in fact use a good deal more than two of any "mouth settings", phonemes do not have an independent existence, and 12 levels will not serve. Chomsky and Halle (1968) proposed 43 such rules, often complex, before abandoning the approach. Jakobson also defined poetic language as the projection onto the horizon syntagmatic axis (how words fit together in a sentence) of the vertical paradigmatic (how word are associated and can replace each other), another audacious theory that proved largely vacuous. {4}.

■ Descriptionists

The besetting sin of Structuralism (as of current literary theory) is its want of evidence: theories are dreamt up in the study rather than fashioned to meet field observations or laboratory experiment. That criticism cannot be laid at the door of Boas, Bloomfield and other American researchers who in the first half of this century went out to closely observe languages as native speakers use them. Indeed, so concerned were they to avoid the strictures of Logical Positivism, that they adopted a behaviourist approach, excluding mind altogether. Language was simply inputs and outputs: how the brain handled its data was not something one could

observe, and was therefore not science. Huge dossiers of information were built up, particularly on native American languages, but little that resolved itself into laws or general principles. {5}

■ Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

One exception was an hypothesis of Edward Sapir (1884-1934) and Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941). Man's language, they argued, moulds his perception of reality. The Hopi Indians of Arizona plurialize clouds as though they were animate objects, do not use spatial metaphors for time, and have no past tense as such. Do they not view the world in these terms? And there were more spectacular examples. The Bororó of northern Brazil believe they are red parakeets — evidence, said anthropologists, that primitive societies were not aware of logical contradictions. Modern Europeans have words for the seven basic colours of the rainbow, whereas other societies have from two to eleven.

The matter is still debated. {6} The Hopi Indians do not seem to be poor timekeepers, and the Romance languages have a feminine gender for objects not seen as animate: la cerveza for beer, etc. Parakeets is no doubt used metaphorically by the Bororó. Even the evidence of colours, subject of a massive study by Berlin and Kay, {7} seems now not so clear-cut, since language may reflect purpose more than perception. Lakoff, however, (see below) has indeed resurrected Whorf's hypothesis through the concept of commensurability, adducing some striking if limited experimental evidence. Understanding, our ability to translate between diverse languages, is not the only factor. Equally important are use, framing and organization {8}, and behaviour here can be governed by different conceptual systems. Languages widely employ spatial conceptions, for example, and these conceptions differ between cultures.

■ Functional Linguistics: The Prague School

As early as 1911 in Czechoslovakia, and independently of Saussure and Jakobson, Vilém Mathesius (1882- 1945) founded a non-historical approach to

linguistics. The Prague School looked at the structural components as they contributed to the entire language. There was a need for a standard language once Czechoslovakia had acquired independence, and Czech had the curiosity of being very different in its colloquial and literary forms. Prince Nikolai Trubetzkoy (1890-1938) investigated paradigmatic relations between phonemes and classified functions on the purposes they served — keeping words apart, signalling stress, etc.

Like the Russian Formalists, members of the Prague School were keenly concerned with literature, but they were not hermetic in their approach — i.e. did not see literature as a self-enclosed, stand-alone entity, but something reflecting social and cultural usage. That was also a view developed by the American anthropologist William Labov in investigating the colloquial language of New York. He found that listeners to tape recordings could very accurately place speakers by geography and social stratum. As both reflected social movement in the recent past — i.e. history: this was one rare exception to Saussure's assertion that language speakers do not take past usage into consideration. {9}

■ **The London School**

The London School of Harry Sweet (1845-1912) and David Jones (1881-1967) stressed the practical side of phonetics, and trained its students to perceive, transcribe and reproduce each minute sound distinction very precisely — far more than the American behaviourists, for example, and of course the Chomskians, who are extending models rather than testing them. And this phonetic competence was much needed when J.R. Firth (1891-1960) and others at the School of Oriental and African Studies helped to plan the national languages and their writing systems for the new Commonwealth countries. Overall, the School has been very far ranging — noting, for example how stress and tone co-occur with whole syllables, and developing a terminology to cope: a basis for poetic metre. Firthian analysis also finds a place for aesthetic considerations and develops a system of mutually exclusive options, somewhat like Saussure but more socially and purposively

orientated.

Firth himself tried to base a theory of meaning on such choice-systems, but the approach has not been generally accepted. Not only was it rather simplistic, but confused the scientific invariance of linguistic rules with the unregimented and creative way that human beings get their meaning across. {10}

■ Noam Chomsky and Generative Grammar

Avram Noam Chomsky (1928-) and his followers have transformed linguistics. Indeed, despite many difficulties and large claims later retracted, the school of deep or generative grammar still holds centre stage. Chomsky came to prominence in a 1972 criticism of the behavourist's B.F. Skinner's book *Verbal Behaviour*. Linguistic output was not simply related to input. Far from it, and a science which ignored what the brain did to create its novel outputs was no science at all. Chomsky was concerned to explain two striking features of language — the speed with which children acquire a language, and its astonishing fecundity, our ability to create a endless supply of grammatically correct sentences without apparently knowing the rules. How was that possible? Only by having a) an underlying syntax and b) rules to convert syntax to what we speak. The syntax was universal and simple. A great diversity of sentences can be constructed with six symbols. Take *a cats sits on the mat.* Older readers will remember their parsing exercises at school: indefinite article, noun, verb, preposition, definite article, noun. Chomsky uses a similar approach but his "parsing" applies to all languages. But how we convert to *the mat was sat on by a cat*? The answer, argued Chomsky, were innate transformation rules by which a fundamental deep structure is converted to the surface sentence. Matters are not usually so straightforward, of course, and the rules can be very complex indeed, but Chomsky and his coworkers have now provided them.

If many languages are now classified along Chomsky lines, why hasn't the approach entirely swept the board, bringing all linguists into the fold of orthodoxy?

First there are procedural problems. The American behaviourists, and more so the London school, had a very thorough training in gathering field evidence. Speech was what native speakers actually spoke, not what the anthropologist thought they might accept as correct usage. The Chomskians use introspection (i.e. the linguists themselves decide whether a sentence is good grammar), an approach which can allow "facts" to be fitted to theory and which has somewhat restricted application to the European languages that Chomskians regard themselves as familiar with. Then there is the matter of laboratory testing. Surface sentences that are generated by the more convoluted transformation rules should take speakers longer to produce. The evidence is somewhat contradictory.

But more important than these are the theoretical issues. What are these deep structures and transformation rules — i.e. are they something "hardwired" into the brain or simply a propensity to perform in ways we can view along Chomskian lines? Chomsky is undecided. And, if the structures are real, is this the philosopher's goal: we can base semantics on deep grammar? Some have done so, though Chomsky himself has now abandoned these hopes. Chomsky is not a Structuralist, and there is more to understanding than the ability to recast sentences — an appreciation of the world outside, for example, which we perceive and judge on past experience. {11}

■ Relational Grammar

One interesting development from the London School was that of Sydney Lamb and Peter Reich. Lamb charted language as networks of relationships. By using a very simple set of "nodes" he was able to represent phonology, syntax and semantics, and to explain linguistic patterning at various levels. Reich used computer modelling to simulate this approach and explain the difficulties we experience with multiply embedded sentences — *I spoke to the girl whose mother's cat which I didn't know was run over when she wasn't looking* sort of thing. But neither approach coped properly with the prevailing Chomskian structural picture, and wasn't pursued. {12}

■ The Contemporary Scene

What's the scene today? A very lively but confused picture of new dimensions, difficulties and antagonisms. One comparatively new approach is that of brain physiology. Much, perhaps the greater part, remains to be understood of precisely how the brain functions. But it is clear that consciousness (being aware of the world, having mental images, and feelings and intentions) proceeds by a complex system of neural loops and feedbacks. Speech comes with the development of the mouth and larynx, concomitantly with the growth of the cortex and its networks through to the hippocampus, amygdala and brainstem. Sounds are linked by learning with concepts and gestures to give meaning. Syntax emerges to connect conceptual learning with lexical learning. Language allows us to elaborate, refine, connect, create and remember. All this happens together. Animals learn as they need to. Dogs, for example, reared in total isolation, have no understanding of pain and will sniff repeatedly at a lighted match. And for human beings the sense of self comes through the joint development of social and linguistic behaviour, each operating on the other, so that attempts to study speech in narrow disciplines — physiology, psychology, linguistics, information theory, structuralism , etc. — are doomed to failure.

What is to be done, given the mountain of complex and technical data each discipline brings to the total picture? One promising start is the hypothesis of Lakoff and Johnson, sometime students of Chomsky's but working more from their studies of metaphor. Human beings, they suppose, create models of cognition that reflect concepts developed in the interaction between brain, body and environment. These models, which they call schemas, operate through bodily activities prior to speech development, and are very various, if not amorphous. Very tentatively, they suggest that the schema may operate so as to provide our five different conceptual approaches — through images, metaphors, part for whole, propositional and symbolic. Linguistic functions are propositional and symbolic. Grammatical constructions are idealized schemas. And so on. The approach is technical and

preliminary, but overcomes some of the difficulties noted above.

Is this optimism widely shared? Not at present. Scientists and academics have invested too much in chosen disciplines to lightly abandon their positions. Nor perhaps should they. But what is emerging is the folly of believing that any one approach provides all the answers. Or that any simplistic, navel-gazing theory like Structuralism will serve. As with linguistic philosophy, more problems emerge the deeper we look, which is perhaps not surprising given the creative, ad-hoc way language develops and our use necessarily of one small part of it to investigate the whole.

This and other pages in the theory section have been collected into a free pdf ebook entitled 'A Background to Literary Theory'. Click here for the download page.

Tasks:

1. In groups make a small presentation on the linguistic schools, their representatives. Render on the features of linguistic schools.
2. What are the differences in the doctrines of the linguistic schools?
3. What are the advantages and drawbacks in the theory of the schools?

Questions:

1. What stages of development of linguistics do you know?
2. What is structural linguistics?
3. Who are the representatives of London school?
4. Who are representatives of Prague school?
5. What is generative grammar?

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GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES, CONTEMPORARY STUDIES OF GRAMMAR

Plan:

1. Linguistic schools and contributions of scholars into linguistics (continue)
2. Categorization
3. Grammatical and logical categories
4. Opposition
5. Types of grammatical categories

Aim: to define the notion of grammatical categories

Key words and word combinations: grammatical category, opposition, material factor, form, material expression.

A Grammatical Model of a Language:an attempt to represent systematically and overtly what the native speaker of that language intuitively knows.A Model:a system of rules that relates patterned sounds to predictable meanings and which reflects a speaker's ability to 'make infinite use of finite means'.

Grammatical Models of English Language:(When- Who- Where- Belief/ Aim- Characteristics- Strengths- Weaknesses) 1- Traditional Latin-influenced Models: 2- Structuralism 3- Scale and Category 4- Transformational Generative Grammar (TG) 5- Case Grammar

Traditional Latin-influenced Models:•Based on Latin which is based on Greek •Since Plato and Aristotle and Until 1920s Greek: •end of 2nd century BC: Dionysius Thrax –described Greek and classified words in terms of case, gender, number, tense, voice, mood •3 centuries later: Apollonius Dyscolus: improved Thrax model by including rules of combining words into acceptable sentences.

3.Latin: •Similar structure to Greek •Therefore: There was a belief that their grammatical categories were valid for all languages •7th Century: Vernacular grammars appeared in Europe (Irish) •English and European Languages were described according to Latin categories because it was the language of religion and scholarship, and if it had a different system it was described as deficient and modified to match the Latin model. •This model was unsuited to modern English because English is an uninflected language. Differences between Latin and English grammar) •Weakness: Latin-oriented grammars failed because they did not recognise that each language is unique in its organization and patterns •Strength: it recognized that languages were complex and flexible and have some similarities.

Structuralism:•Developed in the US •Is influenced by the cultural and political setting •At the beginning of 20th century (after 1920): US grammar differed from Britain •In US: anthropological approach which emphasizes spoken medium because the existence of many unwritten and dying Amerindian languages. •In Britain: orthographic system which emphasizes written medium because of the focus on Indic languages which had long traditions of literacy and scholarship. •Structuralism started in Leonard Bloomfield's Language and is still influential today •Belief: that each language was unique and must be described in terms of its own individual patterning. Strength: Attempted to look on language study as a science, and had many achievements which were utilised in all the following models •Viewed language as a highly structured, predictable system where one could move from sound to sentence, discovering the significant units at each language and providing rules for combining them. 1-Started with the phoneme: smallest significant unit of a language's sound system 2-Then morpheme: smallest unit of syntax 3-2 kinds of morphemes: bound morphemes (-un) and free morphemes (words). 4-Word classes: determined by both form and function. Structuralists avoided relying on 'meaning' and they showed that English consisted of words belonging to open classes (open-ended: new ones can be created or moved from a class to another such as verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs) and to closed sets (function words: their role is to express grammatical relationships and has little semantic value such as determiners, pronouns, prepositions and auxiliary verbs example. •Structuralists worked out that English contained the following word classes: Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, exclamations •This doesn't differ from earlier classifications of Latin-oriented model, but it differed in: 1-Giving priority to speech 2-Assuming if native speakers used a structure regularly then that structure was correct 3-Ruling out reliance on meaning 4-Offering precise instructions for building phonemes into morphemes, morphemes into words, words into phrases, clauses and sentences 5-Aiming to rely on verifiable, repeatable data. Weakness: •concentrated on surface of language and analysing data in terms of sequence, with

successive elements being increasingly predictable •instead of evaluating language, they undervalued the creativity of speakers and the fact that sentences could look alike and yet be very different. It describes language (written and spoken) in terms of 3 primary levels: substance form situation 1-Substance: for the spoken medium (relates to sounds 'phonic substance') and for the written medium (relates to marks on the paper 'graphic substance') 2-Form: divided into 2 levels (lexis and grammar) o Lexis: deals with the study of words, their shape and ability to collocate with others. o Grammar : deals with the elements of a structure and the relationship between elements Situation: deals with extralinguistic phenomena such as gesture, non-linguistic noises, number of participants, time and place of occurrence. It relates to Firth's idea of 'context of situation': an utterance could only be satisfactorily explained if the context in which it occurred was known. In this model: •phonology was seen as linking substance and form and four units of phonology were described for E : the phoneme, the syllable, the foot, and tone •there were 5 grammatical units ranked from smallest to largest: (morpheme, word, phrase, clause, and sentence) •Sentences were described according to the categories 'SPOCA' and the aim was to establish systems which accounted for their form, possible occurrence, negation and finiteness. •This is a principal technique of this model: which is to offer networks that make the relationships between all elements in a sentence explicit

Transformational Generative Grammar (TG)1957- an American: Noam Chomsky published Syntactic Structures•A reaction against structuralism•The first model to acknowledge formally the significance of deep structure

Aims of TG: To create an explicit model of what an ideal speaker of the language intuitively knows. So, the model assigns a structure to all the sentences of the language. •Chomsky distinguished between 'competence' and 'performance'. Competence: 'the ideal speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language. Performance: ' the actual use of language in concrete situations'. Competence is the perfect storehouse of linguistic knowledge while performance can be faulty. TG formulate

hypotheses about competence by idealising performance, that is, by removing performance accidents such as hesitations, unnecessary repetition, lack of attention, fatigue, slips of the tongue, false starts, •TG is interested in competence and this is the main difference between structuralism and TG. Structuralism is text-based, while TG does not use text and is more interested in in what produced the text than in the text itself.Four Characteristics of TG: 1- It must make explicit how the brain (or the speaker's competence) is capable of generating an infinite set of sentences by the operation of finite set of items (words and structures). Example p A TG model must be explicit and self-sufficient not based on intuition. Its rules alone must allow us to decide whether a structure is acceptable. 3- Although it must not rely on intuition, it must be in harmony with a native speaker's intuition. It must assign a structure to all sentences accepted by a native speaker and reject others. 4- The model must have 3 components: a phonological component, a syntactic component, and a semantic component. So it associates noise and meaning.

1- The phonological component: -It is an extension and refinement of the work done by structuralists -It deals with phonemes and how they are combined as well as rules for stress and intonation -It is the part of TG model that received the least criticism 2- The semantic component: -It deals with meaning and interpretation of it -Chomsky's techniques received a lot of criticism, and it was less satisfactory than work on phonology and syntax. 3- The syntactic component: -Chomsky's approach to syntax differs from other models.

TG splits the syntactic component into two parts: 1- a base subcomponent : generates the deep underlying pattern represented by a tree diagram (labelled bracketing – phrase marker) example p a transformational subcomponent: generates a surface structure. Transformation rules allow the grammarian to explain: 1-deletion 2-addition/insertion 3-permutation/transposition 4- substitution. In brief: A TG grammar aims to: Pair a given string of noises with a given meaning by means of a syntactic component. TG is neutral with regard to production and

reception; the arrow works both ways because a speaker can associate meaning with noise or noise with meaning. The ultimate aim of TG is understanding of: Language, of all universals common to all languages And through this an understanding of the human mind.

Grammar It is a sub-theory simulated by TG grammar

C. J. FillmoreIn surface structure: a verb of change (such as OPEN) can have the same meaning with different nouns filling the subject slot. (example p.101)In deep structure: nouns are involved in a 'case' relationship with verbs.Case is universal in languagesIn Latin: the relationships show up in surface structure as case endings.In English: they are indicated by sentence position and the use of prepositions. **8 cases show the relationship between verbs and nouns:** 1- Agentive 2- Experiencer 3- Instrumental 4- Objective 5- Source 6- Goal 7- Locative 8- Temporal.

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

Grammatical categories

The grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

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

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

3. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means.

According to L. Barkhudarov`s opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the following features:

- general grammatical meaning;

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

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

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

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

1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;

2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;

3. singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;

4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz).

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

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

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

3. They are opposed to each - other;

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

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

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

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech. As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterised by three criteria: **semantic** (the meaning), **morphological** (the form and grammatical catrgories) and **syntactical** (functions, distribution).

Semantic features of the noun. The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality. According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses:

1. According to the type of nomination they may be **proper** and **common**;

2. According to the form of existence they may be **animate** and **inanimate**. Animate nouns in their turn fall into **human** and **non-human.**

3. According to their quantitative structure nouns can be **countable** and **uncountable.**

This set of subclasses cannot be put together into one table because of the different principles of classification.

Morphological features of the noun. In accordance with the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: simple,derived (stem + affix, affix + stem – *thingness*); compound (stem+ stem – *armchair*) and composite (the Hague). The noun has morphological categories of number and case. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of gender.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used un the sentence in all syntacticfunctions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

2. The category of number

The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity. The number category is realized through the

opposition of two form-classes: the plural form :: the singular form. The category of number in English is restricted in its realization because of the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness. The number category is realized only within subclass of countable nouns.

The grammatical meaning of number may not coincide with the notional quantity: the noun in the singular does not necessarily denote one object while the plural form may be used to denote one object consisting of several parts. The singular form may denote:

a) oneness (individual separate object – *a cat*);

b) generalization (the meaning of the whole class – *The cat is a domestic animal*);

c) indiscreteness (нерасчлененность or uncountableness - *money, milk*).

The plural form may denote:

a) the existence of several objects (*cats*);

b) the inner discreteness (внутренняярасчлененность, pluralia tantum, *jeans*).

To sum it up, all nouns may be subdivided into three groups:

1. The nouns in which the opposition of explicit discreteness/indiscreteness is expressed : *cat::cats*;

2. The nouns in which this opposition is not expressed explicitly but is revealed by syntactical and lexical correlation in the context. There are two groups here:

A. Singularia tantum. It covers different groups of nouns: proper names, abstract nouns, material nouns, collective nouns;

B. Pluralia tantum. It covers the names of objects consisting of several parts (jeans), names of sciences (mathematics), names of diseases, games, etc.

3. The nouns with homogenous number forms. The number opposition here is not expressed formally but is revealed only lexically and syntactically in the context: e.g. *Look! A sheep is eating grass. Look! The sheep are eating grass*.

3. The category of case.

Case expresses the relation of a word to another word in the word-group or sentence (my sister's coat). The category of case correlates with the objective category of possession. The case category in English is realized through the opposition: The Common Case :: The Possessive Case (sister :: sister's). However, in modern linguistics the term "genitive case" is used instead of the "possessive case" because the meanings rendered by the "`s" sign are not only those of possession. The scope of meanings rendered by the Genitive Case is the following :Possessive Genitive : Mary's father – Mary has a father,

a) Subjective Genitive: The doctor's arrival – The doctor has arrived,

b) Objective Genitive : The man's release – The man was released,

c) Adverbial Genitive : Two hour's work – X worked for two hours,

d) Equation Genitive : a mile's distance – the distance is a mile,

e) Genitive of destination: children's books – books for children,

f) Mixed Group: yesterday's paper

Nick's school

John's word

cannot be reduced to one nucleus

To avoid confusion with the plural, the marker of the genitive case is represented in written form with an apostrophe. This fact makes possible disengagement of –`s form from the noun to which it properly belongs. E.g.: *The man I saw yesterday's son*, where -`s is appended to the whole group (the so-called group genitive). It may even follow a word which normally does not possess such a formant, as in *somebody else's book*.

There is no universal point of view as to the case system in English. Different scholars stick to a different number of cases.

1. There are two cases. The Common one and The Genitive;

2. There are no cases at all, the form `s is optional because the same relations may be expressed by the 'of-phrase': *the doctor's arrival – the arrival of the doctor*;

3. There are three cases: the Nominative, the Genitive, the Objective due to the existence of objective pronouns *me, him, whom*;

4. Case Grammar. Ch.Fillmore introduced syntactic-semantic classification of cases. They show relations in the so-called deep structure of the sentence. According to him, verbs may stand to different relations to nouns. There are 6 cases:

1) Agentive Case (A) John opened the door;

2) Instrumental case (I) The key opened the door; John used the key to open the door;

3) Dative Case (D) John believed that he would win (the case of the animate being affected by the state of action identified by the verb);

4) Factitive Case (F) The key was damaged (the result of the action or state identified by the verb);

5) Locative Case (L) Chicago is windy;

6) Objective case (O) John stole the book.

4. The Problem of Gender in English

Gender plays a relatively minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages. There is no gender concord, and the reference of the pronouns *he, she, it* is very largely determined by what is sometimes referred to as 'natural' gender for English, it depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Thus, the recognition of gender as a grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association.

According to some language analysts (B.Ilyish, F.Palmer, and E.Morokhovskaya), nouns have no category of gender in Modern English. Prof.Ilyish states that not a single word in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting male or female being. Thus, the words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms due to peculiarities of their lexical meaning. The difference between such nouns as *actor* and *actress* is a purely lexical one. In other words, the category of sex should not be confused with

the category of sex, because sex is an <u>objective biological category.</u> It correlates with gender only when sex differences of living beings are manifested in the language grammatically (e.g. *tiger – tigress*). Still, other scholars (M.Blokh, John Lyons) admit the existence of the category of gender. Prof.Blokh states that the existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (*he, she, it*). Accordingly, there are three genders in English: the neuter (non-person) gender, the masculine gender, the feminine gender.

1. **The category of voice.**

   2.**The category of mood.**

3. **The category of posteriority.**

4. **The category of tense.**

5. **The category of number.**

Key words and expressions: category, categorization, tense, voice, posteriority, classification, number.

VERB

Tense	Aspect	Mood
Voice	Person	Number
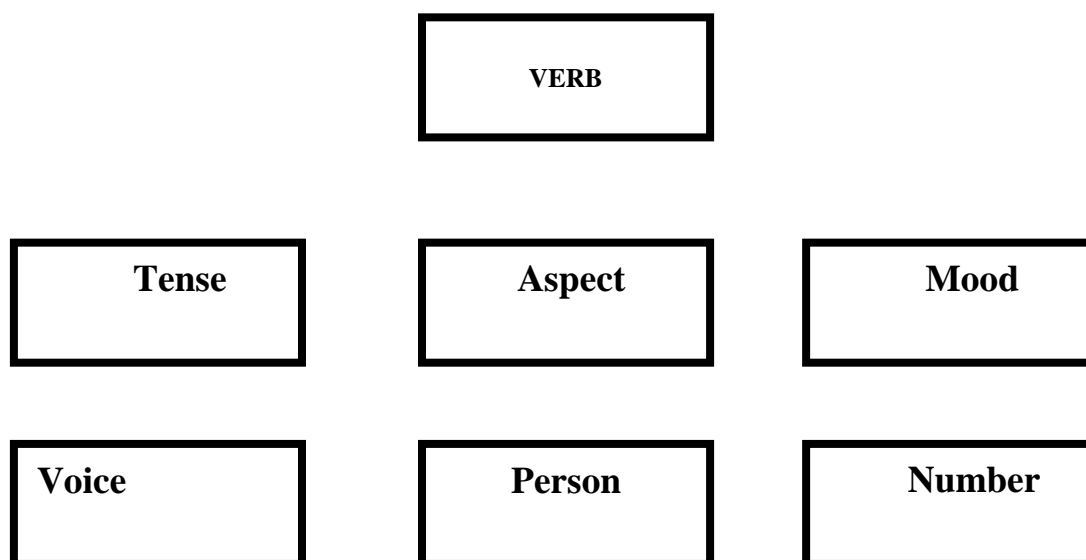
The Category of Voice

By the category of voice we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object.

The majority of authors of English theoretical grammars seem to recognize only two voices in English: the active and the passive.

H. Sweet (42), O. Curme (26) recognize two voices. There are such terms, as <u>inverted object, inverted subject</u> and <u>retained object</u> in Sweet's grammar.

The Inverted object is the subject of the passive construction. The Inverted subject is the object of the passive constructions.

<u>The rat</u> was killed by the dog. O. Jespersen (34) calls it "converted subject".

But in the active construction like: "*The examiner asked me three questions*"either of the object words may be the subject of the passive sentence.

I was asked 3 questions by the examiner.

Three questions were asked by the examiner.

Words <u>*me*</u> and <u>*three questions*</u> are called retained objects.

H. Poutsma (39) besides the two voices mentioned above finds one more voice –reflexive. He writes: "It has been observed that the meaning of the Greek medium is normally expressed in English by means of reflexive or, less frequently, by reciprocal pronouns". It is because of this H. Poutsma distinguishes in Modern English the third voice. He transfers the system of the Greek grammar into the system of English. He gives the following examples: *He got to bed, covered himself up warm and fell asleep.*

<u>H. Whitehall</u> (43)

This grammarian the traditional terms indirect and direct objects replaced by inner and outer complements (words of position 3 and 4) consequently. The passive voice from his point of view is the motion of the words of position 3 and 4 to position one. The verb is transformed into a word-group introduced by parts of *be, become, get* and the original subject is hooked into the end of the sentence by means of the preposition by.

<u>Different treatment of the problem is found in theoretical courses written by Russian grammarians</u>

The most of them recognize the existence of the category of voice in present-day English. To this group of scientists we refer A.I. Smirnitsky (20), L.

Barkhudarov, L. Steling (14), Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's (22) according to their opinion there are two active and passive voices. But some others maintain that there are three voices in English. Besides the two mentioned they consider the reflexive voice which is expressed by the help of semantically weakened self-pronouns as in the sentence:

He cut himself while shaving.

B.A. Ilyish (15) besides the three voices mentioned distinguishes two more: the reciprocal voice expressed with the help of each-other, one another and the neuter ("middle") voice in such sentences as: *The door opened. The college was filling up*.

The conception reminds us Poutsma's view. (39) He writes: "A passive meaning may also not seldom be observed in verbs that have thrown off the reflexive pronoun and have, consequently, become intransitive. Thus, we find it more or less distinctly in the verbs used in: *Her eyes filled with tears* ..."

We cannot but agree with arguments against these theories expressed by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: "These theories do not carry much conviction, because:

1) in cases like he washed himself it is not the verb that is reflexive but that pronoun himself used as a direct object;

2) washed and himself are words belonging to different lexemes. They have different lexical and grammatical meanings;

3) if we regard washed himself as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender, person, non-person (washed himself-washed itself), that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word-group washed himself;

4) similar objection can be raised against regarding washed each-other, washed one another as analytical forms of the reciprocal voice. The difference between "each other" and "one another" would become a grammatical category of the verb;

5) A number of verbs express the reflexive meanings without the

corresponding pronouns: *He always washes in cold water. Kiss and be friends*.

The grammatical categories of voice is formed by the opposition of covert and overt morphemes. The active voice is formed by a zero marker: while the passive voice is formed by (be-ed). So the active voice is the unmarked one and the passive-marked.

To ask- to be asked

The morpheme of the marked form we may call a discontinuous <u>morpheme.</u>

From the point of view of some grammarians O. Jespersen (33), O. Curme (26), G. Vorontsova (11) verbs get / become к Participle II are passive constructions. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) seem to be right when they say that in such constructions get / become always retain lexical meanings.

Different opinions are observed as to the P II.

G. V. Vorontsova (11), L. Barkhudarov and D. Steling (4) the combination be к PII in all cases treat as a passive voice if PII is not adjectivized (if particles <u>very,</u> <u>too</u> and adverbs of degree <u>more</u> (most) do not precede PII on the ground that PII first and foremost, a verb, the idea of state not being an evident to this structure but resulting from the lexical meaning of the verb and the context it occurs in).

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) arguing against this conception write that in such cases as: His duty is fulfilled we deal with a link verb кPII since:

1) it does not convey the idea of action, but that of state, the result of an action:

2) The sentence correspond rather *He has fulfilled his duty*, as the perfective meaning of Participle II is particularly prominent.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

The problem of the category of mood i.e., the distinction, between the real and unreal expressed by the corresponding forms of the verb is one of the most controversial problems of English theoretical grammar. The main theoretical difficulty is due:

1) to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality and

2) to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality. Another difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries should would, may (might) which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

Opinions differ in the establishment of the number of moods in English.

Below we'll consider views of some grammarians on the problem.

H. Sweet (42): "By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate".

1. There are two moods in English which oppose to each other

Thought -form fact mood

The thought- form is divided into 3 moods:

1. conditional mood-the combination of should and would with the infinitive, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.

2. permissive mood-the combination of may/might with the infinitive.

3. compulsive mood-the combination of the finite form of the verb "to be" with the supine. If it were to rain I do not know what shall we do.

G.O. Curme (26): "Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker".

He distinguishes three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact.

2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive forms: the old simple subjunctive and newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used.

3. The function of the Subjunctive is to represent something not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopeless, likelihood, while the past subjunctive indicates doubt, unlikelihood, unreality;

I desire that he go at once.

I fear he may come too late.

I would have bought it if I had had money.

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action expressed by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. The three moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive are found in almost all the grammars of Russian grammarians. We say «almost» because Barkhudarov and Steling (4) consider only the first and third.

- in the indicative mood the speaker presents the action as taking place in reality;

- in the imperative mood the speaker urges the listener to perform some action.

- in subjunctive mood the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

As to the number of mood we do not find common opinion: Smirnitsky and some others speak of six moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, conditional and suppositional).

B. Ilyish and Ivanova (14) find three (Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive) B.A. Ilyish divides the latter into two forms-the conditional and the subjunctive and so on.

The indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed category of the verb.

According to Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) the grammarians are unanimous about the meaning of the Subjunctive Mood. While in all other respects opinions differ. It seems interesting to compare the opinions of Whitehall (43) (above) and Khaimovich on the problem: "The system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in a state of development. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use".

O. Jespersen (33) argues against Sweet's definition of Mood; he writes that it would be more correct to say that mood expresses certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence.

P. Whitehall (43): "Although the subjunctive is gradually dying out of the language, English is rich in devices for expressing one's psychological moods toward happenings that are imaginary".

Other Categories of the Verbs

Besides the already discussed categories of the verb, there are some other categories like aspect, order, posteriority, tense and others.

These categories are very often mixed up: most authors consider them within the tense category. To illustrate this we'll view the conception of Henry Sweet.

To H. Sweet (42) there are three tenses in English. "Tense is primarily the grammatical expression of distinctions of time".

Every occurrence, considered from the point of view of time, must be either past (I was here yesterday), present (he is here today), or future (he will be here tomorrow).

Simple and Compound Tenses: The present, preterite and future are simple tenses. All the perfect tenses are referred by him to compound tense. These tenses combine present, past and future respectively with a time anterior to each of these periods:

present perfect = preterite к preterite;

pluperfect (past p.) = pre-preterite к preterite;

future perfect = pre - future к future

Primary and secondary Tenses: He writes: "When we speak of an occurrence as past, we must have some point of time from which to measure it.

When we measure the time of an occurrence from the time when we are speaking, that is, from the present, the tense which expresses the time of the occurrence is called a primary tense. The present, preterite, future and perfect (the present perfect) are primary tenses.

A secondary tense on the other hand, is measured not from the time when we

are speaking, but from some past or future time of which we are speaking and consequently a sentence containing secondary tense makes us expect another sentence containing a verb in a primary tense to show the time fromwhich that of the secondary tense is to be measured. The pluperfect and future perfect are both secondary tenses.

He will have informed his friends by the time they (the quests) arrived.

He had informed his friends when the quests arrived.

Complete and Incomplete Tenses. The explanation of this classification of tenses by H. Sweet is vague and confused because he mixes up the lexical and grammatical means, compare:

I have lived my life.

1 have lived here a good many years.

The first is complete and second is incomplete. As one can see there's no difference in the form of verbs. He makes his division because of different distribution of the tense forms. But one point is clear in his conception. He considers continuous tense to be also incomplete as for instance:

The clock is   striking twelve while.

The clock has struck twelve. (complete)

Continuous Tenses are opposed to Point-Tenses:

I've been writing letters all day.

We set out for Germany.

Though even here we observe some confusion. Such examples are also considered to be continuous or recurrent:
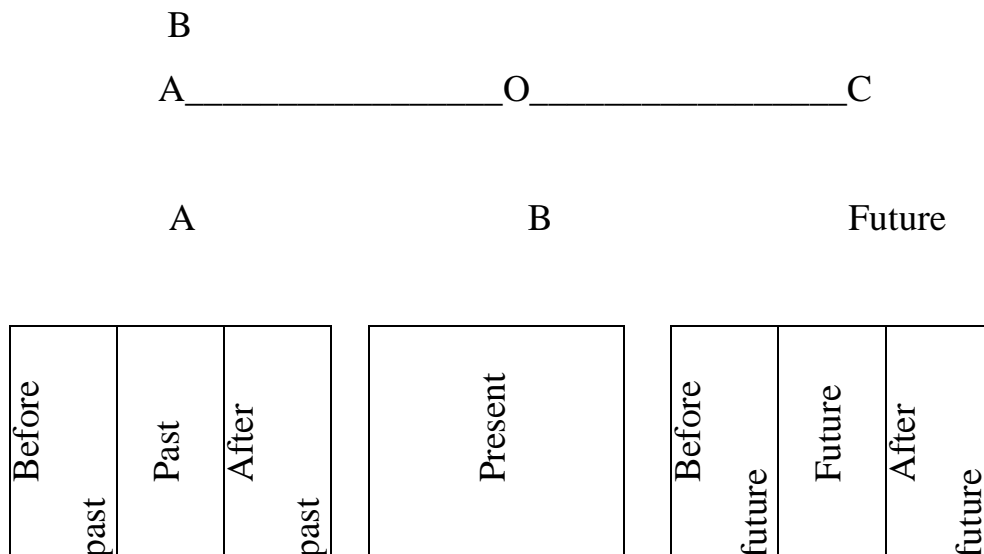
He goes to Germany twice a year.

Definite and Indefinite Tenses: the shorter a tense is, the more definite it generally is in duration. Long times (continuous and recurrent) - are generally more indefinite:

I write my letters in the evenings.

I am writing a letter.

Q. Jespersen (34):

O. Jeperson's view of the grammatical tenses in English is illustrated in the table below:

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                    B
        A_____O_____C


        A                    B                    Future
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Before past	Past	After past	Present	Before future	Future	After future

After-past time: I know of no language which possesses a simple tense for this notion. A usual meaning "obligation" in English most often is expressed by "was to":

Next year she gave birth to a son who was to cause her great anxiety.

After future. This has a chiefly theoretical interest, and I doubt very much whether forms like I shall be going to rewrite (which implies nearness in time to the chief future time is of very frequent occurrence).

The Continuous tenses he calls expanded ones: is writing, will be asking, will have been asking ... or composite tense-forms.

The categories of tense, aspect and order characterize an action from different points of view.

The tense of a verb shows the time of the action; the aspect of a verb deals with the development of the action, while order denotes the order of the actions.

When discussing grammatical categories we accepted that a grammatical category is a grammatical meaning which has a certain grammatical means tobe expressed.

The analyses of the following example will help us to make certain conclusions: *When you come he will have been writing his composition*. The predicates of the sentence are in the indicative <u>mood.</u> And, as has been stated, it is in this mood all the grammatical categories of the verb are expressed. The tense is future and it is expressed by the auxiliary word/verb will. The <u>order</u> is prior and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb <u>have</u>қ -*en* or -*ed*. The aspect is continuous and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb be қ*ing*.

Since all these categories have their own means we may call them grammatical ones. And as any category must have certain opposition (while defining the grammatical categories we defined it as "at least having two individual forms").

The category of tense is orientated with regard to the present tense. The tense category is the system of three-member opposition. So the present tense may be called as the point of measurement or orientation point.

The category of <u>order</u> is a system of two-member opposition: prior and non-prior. Compare:

I work - I have worked.

So the prior order marker have қ *ed* is opposite to the zero of non-prior. As in English there are three tenses. This grammatical category can be expressed in all of them. Present: I work – I have worked. Past: I worked – I had worked. Future: I shall work – I shall have worked.

The category of aspect is a system of two-member opposition: Continuous – Non-continuous: I work – I am working.

T<u>o be - *ing*</u> is the morpheme of the continuous meaning. This category is found in all the three tenses.

Present: I work – I am working

Past: I worked – I was working.

Future: I'll work – I'll be working.

The means of expression of these categories are arranged in a certain sequence. In the active voice they are arranged in the following way:

Tense is expressed in the first component of the predicate: order – in first or second (second if it is in the future tense), aspect – in the second or third components. The order means always precede the aspect means if both are found in the predicate.

If the predicate is in the passive voice the tense is again expressed by the first component of it while the means of the passive voice follows the means of the aspect and order categories.

Note: In the future tense the passive meaning and the aspect (continuous) is incompatible.

The Category of Posteriority

This category is distinguished by B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya. As they put it this category is the system of two member opposition:*shall come - should come.will come - would come*

their meaning is: absolute and relative posteriority.

When posteriority is expressed in relation to the moment of speech it is called absolute. If posteriority is with regard to some other moment then it is relative.

If we accept this category, according to the definition of the grammatical category it is expressed by auxiliary verbs shall and will for absolute posteriority and should and would for relative. Shall and will cannot denote at the same time, two meanings: those of tense and posteriority, if in this case - there are two meanings then we must admit that the auxiliaries will- would, shall-should consist of two morphemes each. Applying the usual procedure we cut the words into w-ill and w-ould; sh-all and sh-ould; w-w and sh-sh are combined into morphemes of tense, and ill-all as allmorphs of the morpheme of absolute posteriority while ould-ould - as morpheme of relative posteriority.

The Categories of Number and Person

The category of person is the system of two member opposition. It is available only in the Present Tense in singular number. B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) state that "the third person with a positive morpheme being opposed to the first

person with a zero morpheme". In the future tense sh- of the first person is opposed to w- of the second and third persons.

A similar treatment of the problem is observed in works of L.S. Barkhudarov (2), (4), who opposes third person to the common person (1st, 2nd persons) because "almost all the verbs in the 1st and 2nd persons have a zero marker".

So far as to the category of number is concerned many grammarians consider that it is in its purity represented only in the verb "to be", for other verbs the opposition of the 3rd person singular, to 3rd person plural accepted (in the present-tense).

Tasks:

1. In groups discuss the grammatical categories of nouns, verbs.

2. Present the information about categories in English, compare with grammatical categories in Uzbek language. Render on their differences and similarities.

Discussion questions:

1. Why do we categorize the grammatical meanings?

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

3. Whose conceptions on grammatical category do you know?

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

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

6. What types of grammatical categories do you know?

Plan:

1. Semantic categories.
2. Genetic typology of languages.
3. Typological method.
4. Distributive method

Aim: to introduce the linguistic analyses methods

Key words and expressions: genetic, typology, classification, areal, district, distribution, transformation, immediate constituent analyses.

Four semantic categories

AGENT

Brown noted that children usually make a distinction between animate

beings and inanimate objects. Animate beings are things that are alive such as dogs, cats, horses, people, and so on. All of these are capable of acting under their own volition. Brown used the term AGENT to describe the semantic category that

includes words that refer to animate beings. Examples of AGENT words would, therefore, include *mummy*, *daddy*, *Fido*.

OBJECT

In contrast to animate beings, inanimate objects are not alive and they are,

therefore, not capable of acting independently or of making decisions. The semantic category used to include all inanimate objects is simply labeled OBJECT. This category would, therefore, include such things as *table*, *spoon*, *cup*, and similar, usually concrete, objects.

ACTION

A third semantic category is that of ACTION. Words in this category which expres   the idea of action include such words as *kick*, *run*, *bark*, and so on.

LOCATION

Words in this semantic category express the notion of place. They may indicate where an AGENT or OBJECT is, or moves to, and where an ACTION is performed. Examples include *garden*, *house*, *bath*.

Relating semantic categories

Buckley (2003) suggests that children begin to combine words into short combinations when their **expressive vocabulary** has reached between 50-100 words. However, the two-word utterances that children produce are not the product of random combinations of words. Rather, children are systematic and logical in the way they combine words to express meaning. Roger Brown noted that children produce utterances by relating one semantic category to another. We will consider some of these next.

AGENT + ACTION

A common relation found in the majority of children between the ages of about 20-

AGENT	ACTION
Daddy	Go

30 months is that of AGENT + ACTION. Consider the following.

Here the word *daddy* represents an animate being, one that can act by its own will and make independent decisions. The word *go* expresses the meaning of an ACTION, in this case 'going'. A further example is set out below.

AGENT	ACTION
Dog	Bark

Again, *dog* refers to an animate being. Whilst a dog may not be considered capable of making decisions in the same way a human is, it nevertheless is alive and can act independently. It is, therefore, considered to be an AGENT. The word *bark* is another expression of an ACTION – in this case, an action typically associated with a dog and not a daddy! Further examples include the following.

A GENT	ACTION
Mummy	Run
Bird	Sing
Horse	Jump

ACTION + OBJECT

Another common semantic relation is that of ACTION + OBJECT. Here is an

example:

ACTION	OBJECT
Kick	Ball

Here, *kick* is an ACTION in the same way that *bark* was considered an ACTION in *dog bark* and *go* was considered an ACTION in *daddy go*. The inanimate

OBJECT in this two-word utterance is clearly the *ball*. Now, the exact meaning the child intends when uttering a phrase like *kick ball* needs to be gleaned from the context in which it is said. For example, if the child is kicking a ball then this utterance may be intended to mean, 'I'm kicking the ball'. However, if the ball is on the floor in front of you and the child points to you and says, 'kick ball!' then this may be meant as, 'you kick the ball now'. The first interpretation is more like the child describing what he or she is doing and the second more like giving an instruction. Further examples of ACTION + OBJECT include the following.

ACTION	OBJECT
Drink	Milk
Cut	Paper
Eat	Dinner

Beyond two words

For most children the so-called **Two Word Stage** is completed by 30 months of age. The next stage of development involves the child adding a third word to the two-word combinations. This is the **Three Word Stage**. The two-word combinations are, therefore, used as the building blocks for the longer three-word utterances.

(AGENT + ACTION) + LOCATION

Consider the earlier example of an AGENT + ACTION, daddy go. Using this as the foundation, the child can expand it by adding a third semantic category. For

example, the child may add the category of LOCATION as follows.

AGENT	ACTION	LOCATION
Daddy	Go	Home

ACTION	OBJECT	LOCATION
Kick	Ball	garden

Here, *home* represents a LOCATION to which daddy may go. The child has, thus, expanded the AGENT + ACTION combination to the longer and more specific AGENT + ACTION + LOCATION. It is easy to see, then, how two-word combinations can be used as building blocks to produce a variety of different meanings by the addition of different LOCATION words. Further examples include:

AGENT	ACTION	LOCATION
Daddy	Go	bed
Daddy	Go	work
Daddy	Go	school

(ACTION + OBJECT) + LOCATION

A similar development can be seen by reconsidering our earlier example of *kick*

ball which was described as an ACTION + OBJECT. Again, the child can expand this two-word utterance by the addition of a LOCATION word. For example, the child could indicate where he or she wishes to kick the ball:

Once again, *garden* represents a LOCATION word and the utterance has expanded from the two-word building block of ACTION + OBJECT to ACTION + OBJECT + LOCATION. Further examples include:

AGENT	ACTION	LOCATION
Kick	Ball	house
Kick	Ball	park
Kick	Ball	path

Obviously there are more possible combinations and expansions of two-word utterances than we have space here to consider. However, the examples provided should give some idea of the systematic and logical way in which children develop onger utterances. An additional, and rather useful way, is by combining one or more utterances with the word and (see Lengthening Utterances with 'And').

THE GENETIC TYPOLOGY OF LANGUAGES

The genetic classification or typology deals with the origin of languages. There aremany languages in the world which relate to many language families. No one so far coulddefine the exact number of languages and language families. But the widest spreadlanguage families are Indo – European, Chinese – Tibetan, Turkic, Semitic and others.The biggest language family is the Indo – European family of languages. They havedescended from a language which is generally thought to have been spoken by tribesmany centuries ago. So far no one knows where the initial tribes of this language lived.There are some ideas but the last one is: that they lived somewhere to the east of Europeand in the territory of Iraq (Ivanov, Rteveladze, 1996). In the course of time they split upand some moved westword to Europe, others moved towards Asia, towards India. Theirlanguages changed and became different from one-another, though they kept words andways of using them which had been passed from the original Indo-European motherlanguage. Some tribes became particularly powerful which stretched over the Europe,including the British Isles. Today there are more than ten widespread Indo-Europeangroups of languages, some of them are: Slavonic/Slavic, Romance, Germanic, Indian,Persian, Baltic and others which are descended from Proto-Indo-European language,which may also be called as a source language. Modern English is one of the Germanicgroup of Indo-European family of languages. Nowadays it is not difficult to prove thatthe mentioned languages are related to each other. Some words about the Uzbek language. Uzbek is said to be a Turkic language. In modernlinguistics there are two different approaches in classifying Turkic languages. Somelinguists use the "term" "Turkic" while others use the term

Altaic. Those who use theterm "Turkic family" they keep in mind the languages like Uzbek, Turkish, Kazakh,Kirghiz, Tatar, Uyghur, Azari, Yakut and some others while those who use the term"Altaic" family they include the languages like Japanese, Mongolian and Korean too. Thelanguages that are included into the Turkic family are very similar both from the point of view of vocabulary and grammar. But it is not that easy to prove that Japanese is relatedto Uzbek, Turkish, Turkmen and other Turkic languages. The similarity may be observedin the grammatical structure which maybe said to be an agglutinating language but so faras to the vocabulary much has to be proved. There are some words like "uchi" and "soto"which may be related to Turkic languages, compare:"uchi" (Japanese) – "ichi" (Uzbek) both of which are translated as "inside". "Soto"(Japanese) – "satkhi" (Uzbek) – "outside". Since initial Turkic tribes lived in Siberiathere`s no doubt that some of them moved to the territory of Japan, Korea & Mongoliawhich are much closer than Central Asia, the territory of Turkey.

The subject of linguistic typology, branches

Typology is a brunch of linguistics which studies the structural similarities btw. languages regardless of their history.

Typology studies: 1. what features do all lang. have in common? 2. In what ways do different lang. differ from each other? 3. how does the sound system of the native lang. differ from the sound system of the foreign lang? 4.How do grammatical categories differ? 5. how sentences and phrases are built in different lang.? 6. How are words built in different languages.

Comparative typology classifies languages according to their structure. Although languages may differ in their material (i.e. have no words of the same root, or common morphemes) their structure (i.e. relations between the elements, functions of the elements) may be similar. *e.g. The Russian and Bulgarian languages are kindred languages. Their material is similar. They have many words*

of the same root. However, structurally they are different. The Russian language has a system of six cases and the Bulgarian language has no category of case. The English, Turkic and Chinese languages are very different materially. Their origin is different. However, in all these languages, an adjective can precede a noun and there is no grammatical agreement between these parts of speech. Therefore, they belong to the same structural type. Another aim of comparative typology is to establish the most general characteristics common for several or all languages. Such characteristics are called language universale.

Branches of typology.

- phonological – studies sounds and their classification and types
- lexical – (words and their meaning)
- phraseology – (phraseological units)
- morphological – (structure of a word , category, case, gender)
- general – (types of language, classification)
- special – (modern eng. – middle eng.)

Types of languages

Linguists try to find common features. This common features are called **linguistic universals.** (we may speak about: semantic, phonological, syntactic, grammatical universals.)

When the same universals are typical with the number of lang-s we speak about a type.

Structural classification contains 4 groups: 1. isolating, 2. flextional, 3. agglutinative, 4. incorporative.

But lang-s are never pure type. They usually combine elements of a variety of types but some features prevail. This classification was put forward by German linguist Humboldt. Friedrich Schlegel classified languages into two types:

inflexional (having word endings) and non-inflexional (having affixes). His brother August Schlegel suggested distinguished 3 types: -languages without any grammatical structure (showing grammar relations by word order Chinese); - lang-s which use affixes; - with inflections.

Wilhelm Humboldt added one more group and gave all the types the names by which they are still known: 1. **flexional languages.** Grammar relations are shown in these languages by means of polysemantic morphemes. e.g. Рус. *временной* The inflexion -ой belongs to an adjective of masculine gender, singular, in nominative case. Roots can very rarely be used as a separate word (c.f. **врем).* Indo-European and Semitic languages belong to inflexional languages. **2. Agglutinating languages.** Grammar relations are shown by a series of monosemantic morphemes, "glued" to each other. e.g. Turkish: Okul (школа) - okullar (школы) - okullarimiz (нашишколы) - okkularimizda (внашихшколах). Roots can be used as independent words (c.f. *okul)* 3. **Isolating languages.** They have no word changing morphemes. Grammar relations are shown by word order. The Chinese language belongs to this group. 4. **Polysynthetic languages. (incorporating)** Words in the languages of this group are united so that a phrase or a sentence may consist of a single word. Such structure is found in the Chukchi language, some Indian languages. Scholars used to think that the types of languages corresponded to stages of language development. So they thought that once every language was isolating by its structure and through the other stages is to become flexional sooner or later. Some looked upon this process as "perfecting" of the language, others thought it to be "degrading". Modern linguistics is against the idea of "better" or "worse" languages.

Methods of typological analyses.

+ The main method of typological studies is the comparative method.

Comparative linguistics applies this method as well, but in that trend the elements compared are similar materially, which allows the scholar to establish their genetic

affinity. Typology compares elements that are similar functionally. e.g. The English, Russian and Turkish languages have affixes which form nouns with the meaning "the doer of an action". These are the English affix -er, the Turkish one -ci, the Russian -тель. They consist of different phonemes and have no common origin, but they have the same function in the language. So they can be studied in comparative typology. Elements compared must have some common, similar **(isomorphic)** features in different languages. e.g. All case inflexions express relations between an object and other objects, phenomena or processes. At the same time the elements of each language have some special **(allomorphic)** characteristics peculiar for this language. e.g. Different languages have their own case systems with peculiar case meanings. Isomorphic characteristics serve as a basis for typological classification. They are called **typological constants.** One of typological constants is existence of the category of case. Using it, we can classify all languages into two groups: the ones having a system of declension and the ones lacking it. Difference between languages may lie not only in the fact of existence/non-existence of some element, but also in the place of the element within its microsystem. When two languages are compared one of them serves as a prototype. For language students such a prototype is usually their native language. But the description of the English language by Russian-speaking students will differ considerably from the one made by French-speaking students. We can't get a really scientific, objective description in this way. A "neutral" language must be found, which can serve as a prototype for any language. Boris Andreevitch Uspenskiy suggested using isolating languages as prototypes because their structure is the simplest, and features isomorphic for all languages are explicit and distinct in them. But other scholars argue that the structure of isolating languages is not as simple as it seems, and some artificial prototype language must be constructed for the purposes of typological comparison. Typological characteristics of a language revealed with the help of comparison of this language to a prototype language are correlated. They form a system. According to Georgiy Pavlovitch Mednikov some elements

and phenomena of this system occupy the leading position in it and the speaker subconsciously chooses such language means which are in harmony with the leading tendency. This leading grammatical tendency was given the name of determinant. e.g. The Semitic languages (according to G.P. Mednikov) have a tendency to grammaticalization. That's why verbal meaning is prevalent in word roots, consonants are used for expressing lexical meaning and vowels are used for expressing grammatical meanings. The Chinese language has a tendency to lexicalization. It doesn't express explicitly the information which is clear from the context (plurality is expressed only when not clear from the context). Differences between languages can be quantified. A quantitative method was introduced by Joseph Greenberg. It is called the method of typological indices. The most typical approach presupposes comparing languages "level by level", i.e. the phonological level of one language is compared to the phonological level of the other, then the morphological, the syntactical, the lexical levels are compared. However, similar functions can be performed by elements of different levels in different languages, e.g. I *don't* lend my books to anyone (phonology) Янедаюмоихкнигникому (vocabulary) I don't lend my books to *anyone* (phonology) Янедаюмоихкнигкомупопало, (vocabulary) Вызнаете, гдемагазин, (phonology) You know where the shop is. (Syntax) Вызнаете, гдемагазин? (phonology) Do you know where the shop is?

Distributional method.

Distributional method describes environments of linguistic units (morphemes, words, phrases), representing them symbolically: N – noun, A– adjective, T – article,V – verb, D – adverb.

Distribution is the total of all the environments in which an element can occur; all occurrences can be symbolized. The distribution of the verb *to make* can be presented in the following way: *He makes me do it* (NVNVtoN), *He makes up for smth* (Nvup for N), *I make a present* (NVTN), *I make a bed* (NVTN), etc.

There are a number of postulates here to be observed:

if two or more distributional formulas are identical their meanings are identical;

if two or more distributional formulas are different their meanings are different.

But in actual usage this method turns out to be too formalized, as one and the same distributional formula conceals different meanings. Semantically different structures *I make a bed, I make a basket, I make a road, I make a promise* are symbolized by one and the same formula NVTN. The Distributional method doesn't reveal any difference between the structures *Napoleon's victory and Napoleon's defeat*, though we feel intuitively that they are semantically different.

The IC Method (method of immediate constituents)

This method was elaborated by the head of American Descriptive Linguistics Leonard Bloomfield.The IC method aims at describing any complex form ranging from long sentences to multi-element words in terms of their constituents. The form is divided into two parts, the remaining parts are also divided into parts until ultimate indivisible pieces are arrived at:

*un][gent]le][man][ly.*The main requirement on the morphological level is that ultimate constituents (or at least one of them) should be recognizable as morphemes: *book//let*; *let* is a diminutive suffix. The word *ham//let (a small village)* can also be divided into 2 parts , though we do not know what *ham* here means.

Proceeding from the intuition of a native speaker, L.Bloomfield analyzed the sentence *Poor John ran away* in the following way Po*or][John// ran][away.*

The main requirement of the method on the syntactical level is that ultimate constituents should be words.

There are several varieties of diagramming of this analysis. We can represent the candelabra division (1) and the derivation tree division (2).

Poor John ran away (1) (candelabra diagram)

```
└_____┘  └_____┘

└_____┘

S
/ \
```

NP VP (2) This is a derivation tree division.

/ \ / \

A N V D

Poor John runs away

S

/ \

NP VP

/ \ / \

T N V D

The rain falls greyly

The word *greyly* semantically refers to the noun *rain*, but the diagram doesn't show it.

Transformational method.

The method shows the derivation of a sentence, but it's formalized, mechanistic, it disregards meanings and can't be employed to analyze polysemy, homonymy, ambiguity, implicit syntactic relations, syncretism.

This method is based on the notions of a <u>kernel</u> , which is the simplest elementary subject-predicate structure with explicit grammatical relations, <u>transformation</u> which is a process of rearranging elements in syntactic structures with meanings being kept unchanged, transformation rules (<u>addition</u> is adding elements, <u>deletion</u> is cutting elements out, <u>substitution</u> is replacing one element by another one in the same position , <u>permutation</u> is replacing elements (putting from the beginning into the end and vice versa) : *John drank his beer => the beer was drunk by John.* <u>R</u>ecategorization consists in changing the category of an element (verbalization of a noun, nominalization of a verb, etc).

The transformational method rearranges syntactic structures keeping their meanings unchanged. Its postulates are : if two or more structures are transformed identically, their meanings are identical; if two or more structures are transformed differently, their meanings are different.

This method has a broad sphere of application. We can clarify relations between structures, reveal semantic similarities and differences between structures disambiguate ambiguous structures, reveal covert information from implicit relations, etc. Transforming identical Genitives we reveal their internal differences: *Napoleon's victory => Napoleon won a victory over someone* (subjective genitive*). Napoleon's defeat => Somebody has won the victory over Napoleon (*objective Genitive*). A Soldier's uniform => a uniform habitually worn by a soldier (*descriptive genitive*). Children's bedroom => the room for children* (destination Genitive). *John's arrival => John arrives, John arrived, will arrive* (temporary Genitive)

Transformational method is more powerful as it reveals hidden implicit relations between the constituents of a sentence (*The rain falls greyly => the rain is falling and it is grey).*

By this method we can interpret double predicates: *The moon rose red => the moon rose and it was red*. *Rose* is an explicit predicate and *is red* is an implicit one. We can also describe a predicate of double orientation: *He is said to have come; he to have come* is a Subjective with the infinitive construction, *he* is a subject; *is said to have come* is a predicate of double orientation as *to have come* refers to the subject and *is said* refers to a subject beyond the border of the sentence *=> they say that he has come*.

By means of this method we can analyze neutralization between coordination and subordination: *He married early which surprised everybody => Him married early and that surprised everybody* (a complex sentence with an attributive clause is transformed into a compound sentence, the semantic difference between them being neutralized).

By means of this method we can analyze predicative constructions with infinitives, gerunds, participles.

A simple sentence carrying a predicative construction with a non-finite form of the verb can be analyzed into a complex sentence with a subordinate clause where the formerly non-finite form is presented as a finite form functioning as a simple verbal predicate: *He heard music coming from theroom inside => he heard that the music was coming from the room inside*.

Task:

1. In groups do a small research using the methods of linguistic research.
2. Discuss the benefits and drawbacks of the methods.

Questions:

1. What is the typological method?

2. Describe the genealogical classification of languages?

3. What is distributive method?

4. What are the features of the transformational method?

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE FOREIGN LINGUISTICS THEORIES. COMMUNICATIVE LINGUISTICS, LINGUOPRAGMATICS, PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, GENDER LINGUISTICS, NEUROLINGUISTICS, INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION, LINGUOCULTUROLOGY

Plan:
1. **Linguoculturology as an actively developing field of linguistics**
2. **Psycholinguistics and its aim.**
3. **Gender linguistics.**

Aim: to introduce the modern branches of linguistics

Key words and expressions: linguoculturology, concept, cognition, culture, world picture, psycholinguistics, mind, psychology, gender, gender linguistics, pragmatics, speech acts.

Linguoculturology as an actively developing field of linguistics

The tendency for different fields of knowledge to penetrate one into another is one of the determinative features of the 20th century science. Every person is a part of national culture which includes national traditions, language, history and literature. Nowadays, the economical, cultural and scientificcontacts between nations are becoming closer. Thus, the investigations dedicated tointercultural communications, correlations of language with culture and languagepersonality are important today. The activation of culturological studies turned thespotlight on linguoculturology.The purpose of our report is to comment on linguoculturology as a science andgive the review of the different fields of linguoculturology.

Linguoculturology as an independent field of linguistics first appeared in the 70th of the 20th century on a base of the triad by Emil Benvenist: language, cultureand human personality. The aim was to activate the facts about language and cultureof the country of studying language with the help of philological methods ofteaching.The scientists who works in this field are: A. Wierzbickaya, R.M. Keesing, R.Langacker, V. Maslova, V. Karasic, S. Vorcachev, V. Telia, V. Shaklein, F. Vorobev,J. Stepanov, E. Levchenko, V. Kononenko, V. Zhayvoronok.According to V. Maslova's research the term "linguoculturology" means thescience, which appeared at the intersection of linguistics and culturology. Thisscience investigates the question of reflection and consolidation of nation's culture inlanguage [2].It should be emphasized that linguoculturology concerns both the sience ofculture and the science of language. It represents a sertain unity of knowlege aboutnational-cultural peculiarities of nation and their reflection in language.

The aim of linguoculturology is to study the methods which the language embodies in its units, to keep and to transmit culture.The main task of linguiculturology is to study and to describe language andculture in their interaction. According to V. Telia goal of this field of linguistics is to study and to describe interrelation of language and culture, language and ethnos,language and national mentality [3].Methods of linguoculturology are the collection of analitical techniques,operations and procedures which are used in analysis of interaction of language andculture. It should be noted that different methods can be used during the investigationsbut the most useful are conceptual, descriptional, contextual, analitical,comparisonable ones.The special field of investigations is the linguoculturological analysis of textsas the real keepers of culture. Here can be used such methods and techniques ofinvestigations as interpritational to psycholinguistical ones.The main category of linguoculturology is concept which is defined as theconventional mental unit directed to the complex studying of language, mind and culture.The main object of linguoculturology is the interconnection and interaction ofculture and language in the process of its operation; the study of interpretation of thisinteraction as a whole system.The subject of linguoculturology is the national forms of existence of nationswhich are reproduced in a system of language communication and which are basedupon their cultural possessions. In other words the subject of linguoculturology is thelanguage picture of the world.Linguoculturology can be divided into five main fields according to thepurposes of the investigations.

1. Linguoculturology of separate social group, ethnos in any bright epochfrom the point of view of culture (the investigation of concrete linguistic situation).

2. Diachronic linguoculturology (the investigation of changes of linguocultural state of ethnos in a period of time.

3. Comparative linguoculturology (the investigation of linguoculturaldemonstrations of different but interconnected ethnoses.

4. Confrontational linguoculturology (the youngest field). There are only several works in this area. The most interesting is M. Golovanivskaya

"Frenchmentality from the point of view of Russian person" [1].

5. Linguocultural lexicography (practice the compiling of linguo-area studies dictionaries).

Consequently, we came to conclusion that linguoculturology is a new actively developing field of linguistics. According to R.M. Frumkina the distribution oflinguoculturology began in a time when it was found that there was no place forculture in the science of language. Every culture has a number of concepts which arethe markers of its identity [4]. For example, the key markers in British culture arelaw, lie, privacy, etc. Moreover, every language is an original system which is etchedin native speakers' mind and build up their world perception, thereforelinguoculturology is a promising field for linguistic investigations.

- "Language offers a window into cognitive function, providing insights into the nature, structure and organization of thoughts and ideas. The most important way in which cognitive linguistics differs from other approaches to the study of language, then, is that language is assumed to reflect certain fundamental properties and design features of the human mind."(Vyvyan Evans and Melanie Green, *Cognitive Linguistics: An Introduction*. Routledge, 2006)

- "Cognitive Linguistics is the study of language in its cognitive function, where *cognitive* refers to the crucial role of intermediate informational structures with our encounters with the world. Cognitive Linguistics... [assumes] that our interaction with the world is mediated through informational structures in the mind. It is more specific than cognitive psychology, however, by focusing on natural language as a means for organizing, processing, and conveying that information...

- "[W]hat holds together the diverse forms of Cognitive Linguistics is the belief that linguistic knowledge involves not just knowledge of the language, but knowledge of our experience of the world as mediated by the language." (Dirk Geeraerts and Herbert Cuyckens, eds., *The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics*. Oxford University Press, 2007)

Cognitive Models and Cultural Models

- "Cognitive models, as the term suggests, represent a cognitive, basically psychological, view of the stored knowledge about a certain field. Since psychological states are always private individual experiences, descriptions of such cognitive models necessarily involve a considerable degree of idealization. In other words, descriptions of cognitive models are based on the assumption that many people have roughly the same basic knowledge about things like sandcastles and beaches. "However,... this is only part of the story. Cognitive models are of course not universal, but depend on the culture in which a person grows up and lives. The culture provides the background for all the situations that we have to experience in order to be able to form a cognitive model. A Russian or German may not have formed a cognitive model of cricket simply because it is not part of the culture of his own country to play that game. So, cognitive models for particular domains ultimately depend on so-called *cultural models*. In reverse, cultural models can be seen as cognitive models that are shared by people belonging to a social group or subgroup. "Essentially, cognitive models and cultural models are thus just two sides of the same coin. While the term 'cognitive model' stresses the psychological nature of these cognitive entities and allows for inter-individual differences, the term 'cultural model' emphasizes the unifying aspect of its being collectively shared by many people. Although 'cognitive models' are related to **cognitive linguistics** and psycholinguistics while 'cultural models' belong to sociolinguistics and anthropological linguistics, researchers in all of these fields should be, and usually are, aware of both dimensions of their object of study."(Friedrich Ungerer and Hans-Jörg Schmid, *An Introduction to Cognitive Linguistics*, 2nd ed. Routledge, 2013)

Research in Cognitive Linguistics

- "One of the central assumptions underlying research in cognitive linguistics is that language use reflects conceptual structure, and that therefore the study

of language can inform us of the mental structures on which language is based. One of the goals of the field is therefore to properly determine what sorts of mental representations are constructed by various sorts of linguistic utterances. Initial research in the field (e.g., Fauconnier 1994, 1997; Lakoff & Johnson 1980; Langacker 1987) was conducted by way of theoretical discussions, which were based on the methods of introspection and rational reasoning. These methods were used to examine diverse topics such as the mental representation of presupposition, negation, counterfactuals and metaphor, to name a few (cf Fauconnier 1994)."Unfortunately, the observation of one's mental structures via introspection may be limited in its accuracy (e.g., Nisbett & Wilson 1977). As a result, investigators have come to realize that it is important to examine theoretical claims by using experimental methods...""The methods that we will discuss are ones that are often used in psycholinguistic research. These are:

a. Lexical decision and naming features.

b. Memory measures.

c. Item recognition measures.

d. Reading times.

e. Self report measures.

f. The effects of language comprehension on a subsequent task.

Each of these methods is based on observing an experimental measure to draw conclusions about the mental representations constructed by a certain linguistic unit."(Uri Hasson and Rachel Giora, "Experimental Methods for Studying the Mental Representation of Language." *Methods in Cognitive Linguistics*, ed. by Monica Gonzalez-Marquez et al. John Benjamins, 2007).

Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental aspects of language and speech. It is primarily concerned with the ways in which language is represented and processed in the brain.

A branch of both [linguistics](#) and psychology, psycholinguistics is part of the field of cognitive science.The term *psycholinguistics* was introduced by American psychologist Jacob Robert Kantor in his 1936 book, "An Objective Psychology of Grammar." The term was popularized by one of Kantor's students, Nicholas Henry Pronko, in a 1946 article "Language and Psycholinguistics: A Review." The emergence of psycholinguistics as an academic discipline is generally linked to an influential seminar at Cornell University in 1951.

"Psycholinguisticsis the study of the mental mechanisms that make it possible for people to use language. It is a scientific discipline whose goal is a coherent theory of the way in which language is produced and understood," says Alan Garnham in his book, "Psycholinguistics: Central Topics."

Two Key Questions

According to David Carrol in "Psychology of Language," "At its heart, psycholinguistic work consists of two questions. One is, What knowledge of language is needed for us to use language? In a sense, we must know a language to use it, but we are not always fully aware of this knowledge.... The other primary psycholinguistic question is, What cognitive processes are involved in the ordinary use of language? By 'ordinary use of language,' I mean such things as understanding a lecture, reading a book, writing a letter, and holding a conversation. By 'cognitive processes,' I mean processes such as perception, memory, and thinking. Although we do few things as often or as easily as speaking and listening, we will find that considerable cognitive processing is going on during those activities."

How Language Is Done

In the book, "Contemporary Linguistics," linguistics expert William O'Grady explains, "Psycholinguists study how word meaning, sentence meaning, and [discourse](#) meaning are computed and represented in the mind. They study how complex words and sentences are composed in speech and how they are broken down into their constituents in the acts of listening and reading. In short, psycholinguists seek to understand how language is done... In general,

psycholinguistic studies have revealed that many of the concepts employed in the analysis of sound structure, word structure, and sentence structure also play a role in language processing. However, an account of language processing also requires that we understand how these linguistic concepts interact with other aspects of human processing to enable language production and comprehension."

An Interdisciplinary Field

"Psycholinguistics... draws on ideas and knowledge from a number of associated areas, such as phonetics, semantics, and pure linguistics. There is a constant exchange of information between psycholinguists and those working in neurolinguistics, who study how language is represented in the brain. There are also close links with studies in artificial intelligence. Indeed, much of the early interest in language processing derived from the AI goals of designing computer programs that can turn speech into writing and programs that can recognize the human voice," says John Field in "Psycholinguistics: A Resource Book for Students."

Gender linguistics or Linguistic Genderology

The term "gender" appeared in the contemporary linguistic paradigm much later, than in other humanities, namely in the second half of XX century. Originally works in this field and the first systemic descriptions of male and female peculiarities of speech were made on the basis of German and Romanic language groups. But starting with the middle of the nineties the researches in this sphere began to develop rapidly. Nowadaysthisprocessis so swift, that it is possible to speak confidently about the appearance of a new branch of Linguistics – Linguistic genderology (or "Gender linguistics").

Though "gender" is not a linguistic category, the analysis of language structures enables us to get the information about the role of the gender in this or that culture; about the behavioral norms, fixed in various texts for men and women; about the way the concept of gender norms, femininity and masculinity changes in time; which stylistic peculiarities can be rendered as purely female or male; how femininity and masculinity are conceived and interpreted in different

languages and cultures. Thus, language study helps determine by means of which linguistic mechanisms the manipulation with gender stereotypes becomes possible. D. Spender claims that language in its essence is initially predisposed to the establishment of a man's superiority in the society. This statement provoked heated discussions concerning the problem: if such phenomena are caused by the fact, that language creates reality, or if words, which are at our disposal, are irrelevant to the mental processes.

At the present stage there is a number of works, where an attempt of systemic understanding and language description is made in connection withthe phenomenon of sex; where a theoretical model of a gender is created and the systematization of methodological approaches to the research of the gender problem in linguistics is done. The questions, connected with the elaboration of a system of linguistic research of a gender, with creation of concepts in gender researches, are at the moment regarded of a paramount importance in modern linguistics.

Generally, when studying the problems of correlation between gender and language, we can distinguish three main approaches:

A purely gender approach comes to interpretationof an exclusivelysocialnature of male and female language and is aimed at revealing of those semantic differences,which can be explained by peculiarities of redistribution of social power in society. For all that "male" or "female" language is definedas a certain functional derivative from the basic language, used inthose cases, when speech partners are on different levels of social hierarchy.

A socio–psycholinguistic approach - reduces scientifically the "female"and "male" language to the peculiar features of language behavior of sexes. For scientists, working in this direction, statistics or determination of average parameters have a fundamental importance andare a basic for creation of psycholinguistic theories of male andfemale types of speech behavior.

The representatives of the third direction emphasize a cognitive aspect of distinctions in the language behavior of sexes.

In the modern scientific paradigm all three approaches are considered to be complementary and only in their integrity they possessan explanatory power.A.V.Kirilina, making the more detailed and systemic analysis of linguistic genderology's problems, distinguishes six basic tendencies,which can be differentiated conceptually, as well as from the pointof view of methodology and the character of material under investigation:sociolinguistic gender researches, feminist linguistics, gender researches proper (studying speech behavior of both sexes), researches of masculinity (the youngest direction which appeared inthe end of XX century), psycholinguistic researches, cross-cultural, linguo-culturalresearches including the hypothesis of gender subcultures.

At the same time A.V. Kirilina considers, that the given classification israther relative, and all these schools have much in common, since similar problematic and the object of research are characteristicfor all groups listed above. First of all, as a rule, the correlation between thelanguage and sex become the object of research, i. e. the question of how sex is manifested in the language – nominative system, lexicon, syntax,the category of gender, etc. The main aim of such researches isthe description and explanation of how sex is shown in the language, what estimationsare ascribed to men and women in language and in what semantic fieldsthey are the most widespread.

In the second place, the aim of gender researches in language can be considered as studying of speech behavior of sexes, the allocation and the description of male andfemale speech pattern's features. Thus, the researches are more oftenheld from the point of view of socio–cultural determinism, or within the theory of biodeterminism.

In the third place, it is necessary to emphasize that gender researches inlinguistics are often of an interdisciplinary and comparative character.
In the fourth place, practically any area of linguistics can beviewed from the point of view of gender.
Finally, the gender problematic in linguistics has a pronouncedapplied character, and particularly within this researchparadigm a great number of successful

attempts were made in the course of language planning and reforming.

Pragmatics is a branch of **linguistics**, which is the study of language.

Pragmatics focuses on **conversational implicature**, which is a process in which the speaker implies and a listener infers. Simply put, pragmatics studies language that is not directly spoken. Instead, the speaker hints at or suggests a meaning, and the listener assumes the correct intention.

In a sense, pragmatics is seen as an understanding between people to obey certain rules of interaction. In everyday language, the meanings of words and phrases are constantly implied and not explicitly stated. In certain situations, words can have a certain meaning. You might think that words always have a specifically defined meaning, but that is not always the case. Pragmatics studies how words can be interpreted in different ways based on the situation.

A Definition of Pragmatics

- the study of the practical aspects of human action and thought.
- the study of the use of linguistic signs, words and sentences, in actual situations.[1]

Pragmatics outlines the study of meaning in the interactional context

It looks beyond the literal meaning of an utterance and considers how meaning is constructed as well as focusing on implied meanings. It considers language as an instrument of interaction, what people mean when they use language and how we communicate and understand each other.

Jenny Thomas [2] says that pragmatics considers:

- the negotiation of meaning between speaker and listener.
- the context of the utterance.
- the meaning potential of an utterance.

What would happen to language if Pragmatics did not exist?

Pragmatics acts as the basis for all language interactions and contact. It is a key feature to the understanding of language and the responses that follow this. Therefore, without the fucntion of Pragmatics, there would be very little understanding of intention and meaning.

We would like to demonstrate this by showing you how life would be WITHOUT Pragmatics:

'Can you pass the salt?'

Literal Meaning: Are you physically able to do this task?

Literal Response: 'Yes'

(Pragmatic Meaning: Will you pass me the salt?

Pragmtic Response: pass the salt to the speaker.)

What time do you call this?'

Literal Meaning: What time is it?

Literal Response: A time (e.g. 'twenty to one.')

(Pragmatic Meaning: a different question entirely, e.g. Why are you so late?

Pragmatic Response: Explain the reason for being so late.)

Pragmatics is a branch of general linguistics like other branches that include: Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax and Semantics.Charles Morris's famous definition of pragmatics was "the study of the relation of signs to interpreters-"Levinson's consideration of pragmatics was "the study of those relations between language and context that is grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language."Mey's definition was "Pragmatics studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society.".Ran Yongping expressed his idea in his book A Survey of Pragmatics : "Pragmatics is a discipline not only concerning the sense, but also concerning the derivation of sense and the understanding of underlying meaning as its objects.

Other definitions 2: " Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning" 1."Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning."2: " Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning"3:" Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said"4:" Pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance." (Yule:2008).

Background of Pragmatic

The origin of pragmatics goes back to ancient Greek and Roman academic works.pragmatics develops from philosophy. Why?The term "pragmatics" first appeared in linguistic philosophy in 1930s, for then western philosophers began to shift their focus onto the studies of language symbols, which developed into semiology later.The early pragmatics was just a branch of semiology that was under the philosophers' studies, which means that pragmatics originates from the philosophers' studies on language.2. The theoretic basis for pragmatics is from philosophy. To be more specific, pragmatics originates from the following aspects: the studies of semiology; the studies of linguistical philosophy in the 20th century and the studies of function linguistics on language forms.

The development of pragmatics

Morris, is the one who played the most important role in the first stage of the development of pragmatics.He held an opinion that the studies of pragmatics must involve the aspects of society, of psychology, of nerve, of culture and of other things that affected the symbols and their meanings.The most influent thing that he did on pragmatics was that in 1938 he had divided semiology into three parts: syntactics, semantics and pragmatics.

The development of pragmatics

The famous philosopher Carnap had very similar ideas with Morris1. He made some supplement, and he thought that the studies of pragmatics should be on the relationship between users and words as well as the reference of words. He

made the aims of pragmatics studies more specific, that is the relationship between language users and words and the reference relationship.2. He divided studies into pure theoretic ones and descriptive ones.Bar-Hiller, the student of Carnap, suggested that the studies of pragmatics should have definite aims and he claimed that the definite aims should be on decitics such as "I", "Here", "Now".Austin and Searle put forward the Speech Act Theory, which was the most influent topic in the studies of pragmatics during the second stage.

The three Stages in the Development of Pragmatics

The first stage is from the late 1930s to late 1940s, during this period, some philosophers such as Pierce, Morris and Carnap considered pragmatics to be a branch of semiology and all the studies were within the domain of philosophy. The second stage is from the beginning of 1950s to late 1960s. During this period, three famous philosophers called Austin, Searle and Grice made studied on speech act and implicature theory, and their achievements sustained the basic theory of pragmatics. The third stage is after 1970s, the biggest three issues happened and pragmatics became an independent discipline.

Schools of Pragmatics. The studies of Pragmatics are divided into two big schools British & American School and European School which can be subdivided into France School, Prague School and Copenhagen School.British & American School is traditionally centering on studying the sentence structure and grammar, and their studies of pragmatics is also restricted to several definite topics such as deictic expressions, conversational implicature, presupposition, speech and conversation structure.European School has a wide visual and understanding, and their studies even include conversation analysis, cultural anthropology, social linguistics and psycholinguistics during intercommunication.

Types of Pragmatics. There are three divisions of Pragmatics: 1.Micro-pragmatics 2. Macro-pragmatics 3. Meta-pragmatics

1. Micro-pragmatics. The studies of Micro-pragmatics are, on the level of language using, centering upon the discussion of pragmatic tasks aroused by the understanding of language symbols' reference and implicature during conversation, including Context, Conversational implicature, Reference, Pragmatic Principles, speech Acts and Conversation Analysis.

2. Macro-pragmatics. The studies of Macro-pragmatics are, on the level of society & culture, focus on the problems of how to use language for language user during the process of communication, including Pragmatic Acts, Literary Pragmatics, Pragmatics Across Cultures and the Social Aspects of Pragmatics. .

3. Metapragmatics. Metapragmatics which can be considered as a review, a survey or a reflection of pragmatics itself, including making statements about itself, questioning itself, improving itself, quoting itself and rethinking the methodologies and theoretic system during the process of its studies

Pragmatics and other linguistics aspects

In contrast to phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, which describe different levels of language structure, Pragmatics deals with language use. It is still a fairly young discipline in linguistics, and is thus defined in a variety of ways. However, Pragmatics is mostly used in connection with the relationship between linguistic signs and their users (as depicted in the cartoon above). It investigates how context (both situational and linguistic contexts) affects the meaning of utterances.

The essence of pragmatics

Syntax addresses the formal relations of signs to one another, semantics deals with the relation of signs to what they denote, and pragmatics has a big deal with the relation of signs to their users and interpreters

The difference between grammatical analysis and pragmatic analysis

First, grammatical studies look for rules while pragmatic studies look for principles. Rules are black and white, i.e. you are either right or wrong. For instance, you have to say "He studies linguistics"; the –s is required by a rule. Principles are not black and white; you can obey them to some extent and violate them to some extent. For example, one principle says we should tell the truth and another says we should be polite in our speech.

Secondly, in grammar studies, we end up with products while in pragmatics we always deal with processes. In other words, after we have analyzed a sentence grammatically, our job is done; in a pragmatic inquiry, we deal with an ever-unfolding process-as the discourse goes on and on, the extra meaning of some words become clearer and clearer. The field of pragmatics deals with the principles of language use that explain how extra meaning is conveyed without being encoded in language. Therefore, we need to investigate the speaker meaning, i.e. how meaning is communicated by the speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). Thus, pragmatics concentrates more on the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves (which is analysed in semantics).

Tasks:
1. In groups do small research in particular branch of linguistics.
2. Speak about the specific features of each branch of linguistics?

Questions:
3. What are the main branches in foreign contemporary linguistics?
4. What are the matters of considerations in linguoculturology?
5. How the intercultural communication can be syudied in linguoculturology?
6. What is cognition?
7. What is the matter of analyses in psycholinguistics?
8. What is the matter of analyses in gender linguistics?

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V. ГЛОССАРИЙ

Term	Definition in English
Aspect	Verbs can show not only the time location of an action (by grammatical tense), but also features such as whether the action is thought of as completed or continuing. A change in a verb which shows such a feature is often called an aspect of the verb. Compare ate with was eating in He ate rapidly when I came in and He was eating rapidly when I came in. Both refer to events in the past time; the difference lies in the implied relationship between the actions of 'eating' and 'coming in'. Syntactically, English has two marked aspects: progressive and perfect. The progressive aspect is formed by using the auxiliarybe and the verb ending -ing. For example, I am eating it now implies both that the time is the present and that the 'eating' is currently in progress. The perfect aspect is formed by using the auxiliary have and the appropriate verb ending (usually -en or -ed): e.g. I have eaten it now, which implies both that the time is the present and that the 'eating' is finished. An English verb can show no aspect (e.g. runs or ran), progressive aspect (e.g. is running or was running), perfect aspect (e.g. has run or had run) or both perfect and progressive aspects (e.g. has been running or had been

	running). The table below shows the possible combinations of <u>tense</u> and aspect in English verbs.
case	Grammatical case refers to the role a word plays in the structure of a sentence, such as the subject of the clause or object of the verb. Some languages change the form of a word (inflect) to indicate case, while other languages rely on word order. It is important to understand the difference between part of speech (nouns, verbs, etc.) and case (subject, object, etc.) because these are the foundation of syntax. Understanding the meaning of sentences and larger texts depends on understanding case.
Clause	A constituent of a sentence that is itself like a sentence in that it contains a verb
corpus	A collection of spoken or written linguistic texts used to observe greater patterns in language. Uses include generating lists of words that are commonly used together or identifying vocabulary popular in a specific genre.
Dialect	Linguistically it is impossible to distinguish meaningfully between the notions of language and dialect. The notion 'dialect of' is perhaps useful in referring to a regional or social variety of what is perceived to be the 'same' language (e.g. working-class Sevillian speech is a 'dialect'

	of Spanish). By this definition all speakers of a language speak dialects of that language, and the speech of the middle classes of Burgos is no less a 'dialect' of Spanish. The standard language usually evolves as a **prestige dialect** for essentially political reasons.
Gender	Grammatical gender differs from natural gender. Unlike English, which does not use grammatical gender, some languages assign nouns an arbitrary gender to categorize them. This affects how modifiers such as adjectives and articles are conjugated. This is common in Romance languages. Natural gender, meaning the sex of individuals, sometimes, but not always, matches the grammatical gender assigned to words. For example, the word for girl in Italian, la ragazza, is feminine in both grammatical and natural gender.
language family	Historical relationships between modern languages. Languages with common ancestry are grouped in linguistics as language families. This includes Romance languages, such as French and Spanish, which have Latin as a common ancestor, or Germanic languages such as Dutch, English, and German, which are descended from Proto-Germanic. Knowing the classifications of languages helps to explain how they relate to each

	other.
lexeme	The four words eat, eats, eating and eaten are morphological variants of the word eat. The past tense ate is not so obviously morphologically connected to eat, but nevertheless has the same underlying meaning. Thus we may say that the five words eat, eats, eating, eaten and ate form a single lexeme, i.e. a single 'meaning entity'. A dictionary would be expected to contain only one definition for all five words. A lexeme is thus equivalent to what is often called a 'head word' in a dictionary.
Idiolect	The speech of an individual
Inflection	A suffixorending
Linguistics	The scientific study of language and its functions. Linguistics encompasses all aspects of human language from its history to the social implications. Research in linguistics provides modern information on language around the world and how best to understand complex topics, such as syntax or phonetics.
Language	A communication system used by a group of people that assigns agreed upon meaning to arbitrary collections of sounds and symbols. To be a language, the system must be capable of communicating abstract concepts, such as emotions, and being used reflexively to talk about

	the language. These constraints are important for understanding how one person cannot invented a language alone because language depends on a communication exchange. Animal communication is also not considered language because abstract thought is limited.
morpheme	The smallest meaningful unit in a language. Morphemes can be thought of as the building blocks of meaning and can be a standalone word or an affix – a prefix or suffix – that carries lexical or grammatical meaning. For example, the word cat is a morpheme in English because it has lexical meaning on its own and cannot be broken down into smaller pieces. The word cats has two morphemes, the lexical morpheme cat and the suffix s, which is a grammatical morpheme meaning plural.
natural language	Any language naturally used by people, i.e. not a man-made language like a programming language or Esperanto.
phoneme	Any sound that is used in a meaningful way by a specific language. The International Phonetic Alphabet lists all possible phonemes in human language and all humans are capable of making all phonemes. However, each language has a set number of phonemes. Therefore, people studying a new language can struggle to produce sounds that are not phonemic in their first language. For example, /i/ is the vowel in the English word beet and /ɪ/ is the vowel in bit. Both of these vowels are

	phonemes in English because they make a meaningful difference in a word. However, in Spanish, these sounds are not both phonemic because replacing one with the other does not change meaning. In Spanish, they are regarded as slight variations of the same sound.
pragmatics	A technical term meaning, roughly, what the person speaking or writing actually meant, rather than what the words themselves mean.
referentialsemantics	A system where the meaning of a word just is the thing it refers to.
Segmental writing system	Usually alphabets. These systems use relatively few symbols that combine to form a range of phonemes and morphemes, representing spoken language. The meaning of the term segmental in linguistics differs from the meaning of segments in translation memory.
semantic feature	A semantic feature is a 'primitive' which a language processor (human or computer) is assumed to be able to determine independently of the language system. The meaning of words such as nouns or adjectives can then be described in terms of sets of these features. For example we might describe the meaning of words such as boy,man,girl and woman in terms of the features YOUNG, MALE and HUMAN. Boy would be [+YOUNG, +MALE, +HUMAN], womanwould be [-YOUNG, -MALE, +HUMAN].

semantics	Used as a technical term for the meaning of words and sentences (see also pragmatics).
syntax	The syntax of a language comprises, roughly speaking, the patterns into which its words can be validly arranged to form sentences. The combination of morphology and syntax is sometimes called the grammar of a language.
tense	The time to which a verb refers in a clause. Because language can communicate abstract thought, a verb can be inflected to indicate the time at which it took place. This includes past, present, and future tenses, as well as some more complex tenses like interior past. Other aspects of verbs, such as whether an action is complete or its duration, is not included in tense.
vocabulary	A collection of words used by a group or individual for a specific purpose. Vocabulary can be specific, such as a list of scientific animal names, or it can refer to the full working vocabulary of an individual. The nuances of this term are important for translation, as well as for formulating relevant lists of terminology.
writing system	The conventions for writing in a language. The writing system of a language can indicate pronunciation, stress, syllable timing, or just lexical meaning. These systems can be classified into 3 general types. See logographic, syllabic, and alphabetic writing systems for more details.

VI. ФОЙДАЛАНИЛГАН АДАБИЁТЛАР РЎЙХАТИ

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