SVETLANA BUREA

LINGUISTICS IN THE CLASSROOM

(A guide for future teachers)

"Language is a window into cultural heritage and future possibilities."

by Rita Mae Brown

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FOREWORD

Dear students,

"Linguistics in the Classroom (A Guide for Future Teachers)" is your comprehensive guide through the complex yet rewarding field of linguistics and its application in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This course book is designed for master`s degree students and both new and experienced teachers aiming to deepen their linguistic knowledge.

Languages serve as bridges to new worlds, offering windows into diverse cultures and ways of thinking. This course book has the goal to simplify the complexities of language learning and lead readers on the path toward effective communication and understanding.

The book introduces students to the basics of linguistics, its branches, and its significance in EFL teaching. It also aims to bring clarity to pronunciation and to present grammar and vocabulary issues in teaching English as a foreign language from the perspectives of different linguistic theories. Furthermore, it explores how language is linked to culture and how this knowledge can enhance teaching.

"Linguistics in the Classroom (A Guide for Future Teachers)" may be a good tool guiding students and teachers to enrich their teaching resources. It consists of nine themes and a rich bibliography that can facilitate your linguistic quest. Let it support your future teaching, and deepen your appreciation for the complex world of languages.

OVERVIEW OF LINGUISTICS AND ITS RELEVANCE TO TEACHING

Definition of linguistics and its branches
Importance of linguistic knowledge in teaching EFL
Understanding pronunciation, grammar,
and vocabulary

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Demonstrate understanding of linguistics and its relevance to teaching English as a foreign language
- Define linguistics and its branches (historical, descriptive, applied and cognitive)
- Explain the concept of slang, dialect and language varieties
- Describe how linguistic understanding aids in teaching pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary

> *Quote:*
> General linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of human behavior and of the human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential to human life as we know it, and one of the most far-reaching of human capabilities in relation to the whole span of mankind's achievements.
>
> **(R. H. Robins" General Linguistics- An Introductory Survey")**

Lesson Prompt:

According to many linguists, individuals can use language to tell something about themselves. Can you think of context in which groups use language to define their identity?

Provide an example of such a context, and explain the linguistic characteristics of the group of your choice. What do you think of the examples of others?

Answer Modeling: (One context in which groups use language to define their identity is through slang or specialized terminology. For example, within online gaming communities, players often develop a unique set of terms and expressions that reflect their shared experiences, strategies, and culture. This linguistic phenomenon helps establish a sense of belonging and exclusivity

within the group. The use of specific gaming jargon, like "GG" (Good Game) or "noob" (new player), contributes to the formation of a distinct linguistic identity for the gaming community. Slangs are a very clear example of language defining identity groups. It may mark a certain age group, social status, and even ethnicity).

The study of linguistics is often described as the scientific exploration of language. Linguists are the ones who research how we communicate with each other. They try to figure out all the little details about language and look at different parts of it. Human language, being a uniquely human trait, sets the stage for linguists to approach their study as insiders. As human beings, we inherently possess language skills, making language a central part of our lives. This insider perspective grants us the advantage of taking many aspects of language for granted, which outsiders might struggle to comprehend.

Yet, this insider position also presents challenges. While linguists primarily study human language, other scientists have explored communication systems in various species. For instance, birds use songs to establish territories, honey bees communicate food sources to their hives, and certain primate calls involve learned elements rather than being entirely instinctual.

Even when examining non - human communication, such as the complex song of the European robin (a specific species of bird), linguists observe structural elements like phrases and motifs. However, unlike human languages where units often carry specific meanings, in these non-human communications, evidence for specific meanings within these smaller units remains mysterious to human scientists.

What is linguistics? What does the term **linguistics** actually mean? The following definition is taken from *Collins English Dictionary*: **“Linguistics**, n. (functioning as sing.) The scientific study of language”.

As a working definition, “scientific study of language” will probably do, but the word “scientific” might appear problematic in this context, because language doesn’t seem to belong to the realm of science in its conventional sense. One certainly doesn’t imagine linguists in laboratories wearing white coats, and it isn’t immediately obvious how one could undertake experiments on language, something that resides ultimately in the head of a native speaker.

General linguistics is a field of study that studies human language from different perspectives. It recognizes that language plays a crucial role in how humans behave and think. One of the key concepts in linguistics is the idea of

"universal grammar," which suggests that all languages share certain fundamental elements such as *sounds, grammar rules, and ways of expressing ideas*. One example of universal grammar is the notion that all languages have a way to ask a question or make something negative. Another example is that every language has a way to identify gender or show that something happened in the past or present. These are considered to be universal components of grammar that are shared by all human languages.

Linguist *Noam Chomsky* proposed that the human species evolved a genetically universal grammar common to all peoples and that the variability in modern languages is basically on the surface only. This idea is connected to the ability of children to learn their native language, and generative grammarians believe that children's minds have a built-in grammar blueprint that's the same for everyone. This helps explain how kids pick up their language so easily–their brains are wired to spot and learn these universal rules from what they hear around them.

It's worth noting that the concept of universal grammar has been traced back to the 13th century, where *Roger Bacon*, a Franciscan friar and philosopher, observed that all languages are built upon a common grammar. Since then, the concept has been popularized by linguists such as Chomsky and has been the subject of much debate and researched.

Case Study:
An example of universal grammar is the principle of ***recursion****. Recursion is the ability to integrate structures within structures of the same type. For instance, in English, we can create sentences like:*
"The cat chased the mouse." "The cat that chased the mouse is black."
Here, the second sentence contains a structure integrated within the larger structure, illustrating the concept of recursion. This ability to embed clauses within clauses is found across various languages, such as Mandarin Chinese, Spanish, or Swahili, indicating a universal aspect of human language organization. This feature of recursion is believed to be part of universal grammar because it appears to be a fundamental and innate property of human language, shared by all languages, regardless of their linguistic diversity. Despite these shared features, there are thousands of languages spoken around the world, each with its own unique set of sounds, rules, and ways of communication. Linguists aim to understand language without showing favoritism towards any particular language. They study various language groups to gain insights from each one.
Recursion is equal with "nesting," "embedding," and "building language in layers." All these terms show how we can put parts of language into others

to make our messages more detailed and complex. Recognizing recursion as a key part of the universal grammar shows how crucial it is as a natural and common feature in all the languages people speak, underlining the natural language skills we all share.

Interesting to Know!!!

Estimates of the total number of languages spoken on Earth can vary, but linguists generally estimate that there are around 7,000 languages spoken worldwide. However, it's essential to note that the exact number might fluctuate due to various factors, including the classification of dialects, language vitality, and ongoing linguistic research. The number of languages is not static, and some languages face extinction over time while others emerge or evolve.

The World Atlas of Languages reports that there are 8,324 languages, spoken or signed, documented by the governments, public institutions, and academic communities; out of 8,324, around 7,000 languages are still in use. Ethnologies, on the other hand, report that there are 7,117 known languages spoken by people around the world, with 90% of these languages spoken by less than 100,000 people.

It's worth noting that the exact number of languages spoken on Earth is difficult to determine, and estimates can vary depending on the methodology used. Regardless, it's clear that language is a powerful tool that has played a key role in the invention of literally everything and continues to evolve over time.

While it would be ideal for linguists to have knowledge about every language, it is simply not feasible. Therefore, most linguists choose to focus on a select number of languages. By studying these languages in depth, they contribute to the overall understanding of the diverse nature of human language. It is important to note that being a linguist does not necessarily mean being fluent in multiple languages. Linguists approach language scientifically as a part of their work.

Dialect and Languages

A *dialect* is a substandard, low-status, often rustic form of language, generally associated with the peasantry, the working class, or other groups lacking in prestige. Dialect is also a term which is often applied to forms of language, particularly those spoken in more isolated parts of the world, which have no written form. It is often regarded as kind of (often erroneous)

deviation from a norm – as aberration of a correct or standard form of language. In this context, the British English dialect has words like "lorry" for what American English calls a "truck." Dialects often incorporate *slang* as different regions or groups develop their own informal expressions. What starts as slang in a particular group can sometimes become a standard part of the dialect over time. It is known that slang evolves rapidly and often becomes outdated or replaced by new slang over time. Words like "lit" (meaning exciting or excellent) or "ghosting" (suddenly cutting off all communication) are examples of contemporary slang.

According to *Peter Trudgill*, a dialect is a subdivision of a particular language and can be regarded as dialects of a language. For example, we may talk of the Parisian dialect of French, the Lancashire dialect of English, the Bavarian dialect of German, and so on. He considers that the dialect is a variety of a language that differs from others in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. It is important to note that according to his point of view dialects are not inferior forms of a language; they are simply different.

A language, on the other hand, is a system of communication that is used by a particular country or community. It is a complex system of symbols, signs, and sounds that are used to convey meaning. Languages can be spoken, written, or signed, and they can be used to express a wide range of ideas, emotions, and concepts.

Speaking about English, then it has rapidly grown into becoming the global language of communication and business. Thanks to the spread of the culture and subsequent growth of the British Empire, English has become the bridge that is used to communicate by people around the world.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Did you know that English isn't just one language but a whole bunch of different ways to speak it? Imagine this: over 160 different types of English are spoken all around the world! These different styles, called dialects, pop up thanks to how people talk and the places they live. It's like a language adventure!

Every single country where English is spoken in some capacity has its own different dialect of English language delivery. This primarily exists thanks to the tendency of humans to personalize the delivery of what they want to convey closer to the accents from their first language.

English Dialect Across the World

Now, let's take a peek at some of the cool spots where English sounds totally unique. In places like Australia, the US, the UK, India, Kenya, Jamaica, and more. In each of these places, English gets its own special flavor. It's not just about words; it's about how they say them. They use local phrases and words that might sound strange to someone from another place. These dialects often vary within different areas of the regions to evolve into sub-dialects. In the US alone, there are seven big groups of dialects. There's Western American English, North Central American English, Southern American English, and more.

Next, let's explore England. English language splits into seven major groups. There's Standard English, also known as 'the Queen's English', then Northern, East Midlands, West Midlands, East Anglia, Southern, West Country and Highland English.

On the other hand, English Dialects in Scotland can be categorized into 3 major groups: Highland English, Lowland Scottish and Glaswegian.

Case Study:
Dialect or Language?

One might object here that Geordie, Cockney, Glaswegian and Brummie are dialects rather than languages. But this argument is a difficult one to sustain, as linguists are unable to find a watertight distinction between the two. One criterion might be mutual intelligibility: while we wouldn't expect to understand another language, we might well understand a different dialect of a language we do speak. But this criterion soon poses problems. The 'dialects' of Chinese (e.g. Mandarin, Hokkien, Cantonese) share a writing system but are mutually unintelligible, whereas the Scandinavian 'languages' Swedish, Danish and Norwegian are similar enough to be mutually comprehensible (sometimes with a little effort). The difference in practice is generally determined on socio-political rather than linguistic grounds: we tend to associate languages with nation states where they are spoken. Or, as cynics would have it: "a language is a dialect with an army and a navy". To avoid problems of this kind, linguists talk of language ***varieties.***

Linguistics explores both the scientific aspects of human language and the unique characteristics of individual languages. It seeks to uncover the

commonalities that exist among languages, as well as the factors that set them apart. The main goal is to gain a deeper understanding of this essential aspect of human existence.

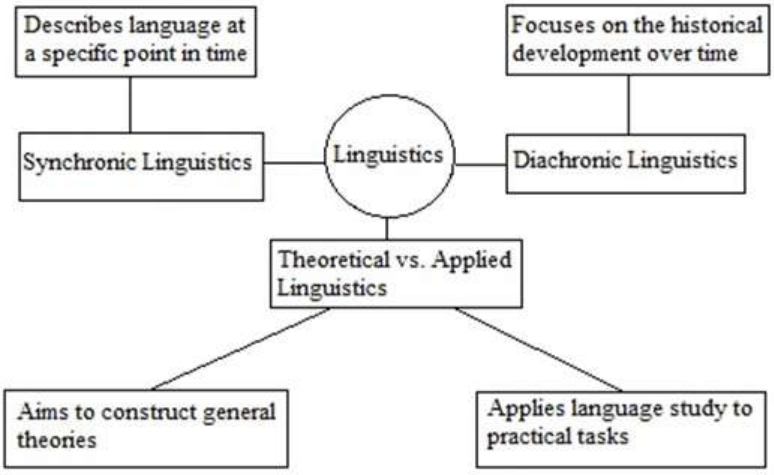


Figure 1. Synchronic vs. diachronic linguistics and theoretical vs. applied linguistics

Linguistics, the study of language, can be explored through various lenses, each offering unique insights into how languages function and evolve. We can split language study into two main kinds. The first kind looks at how a language is right now, at a certain point, giving us a clear picture of its current form- *synchronic approach*. The second kind goes into the past of languages, exploring how they've shifted and grown through time- *diachronic approach*.

There's also a difference between studying language to build big ideas about how all languages are put together and using this knowledge for practical stuff, like making teaching languages better. *Theoretical linguistics* focuses on building universal theories that explain language structure and guide the description of different languages. On the other hand, *applied linguistics* takes these scientific studies of language and uses them in real-world scenarios, particularly in enhancing language teaching methods. This multifaceted approach to studying languages not only deepens our understanding of linguistic structures but also improves practical applications in education and communication.

Speaking about linguistics branches let's turn it into an adventure! Imagine you're embarking on a journey through the Kingdom of Language, where you'll encounter more magical realms - each representing a different branch of linguistics.

✓ *Historical Linguistics - The Time Travelers' Realm:* Here, you'll step into a time machine and travel through the ages of languages! Explore ancient texts, decode forgotten words, and witness how languages change over time. It's like being a language archaeologist digging into the past!

✓ *Descriptive Linguistics - The Explorer's Map:* Welcome to a land filled with diverse languages! Grab your linguistic binoculars and observe the sounds, words, and grammar of various languages. Create your own linguistic map, noting down the unique features of each language. It's like exploring a new territory with its own linguistic landscape!

✓ *Applied Linguistics - The Problem-Solvers' Workshop:* Get ready to put your language skills to the test! Enter the workshop where language problems await. Help teachers improve language lessons, assist in making translation tools better, or even solve communication puzzles. You're a language superhero here, using linguistic knowledge to solve real-world issues!

✓ *Cognitive Linguistics - The Mind Maze:* Step into the labyrinth of the mind! Explore how our brains process language. Discover the hidden connections between thoughts and words, decode the mysteries of metaphors, and peek into the secret passages of memory and language understanding. It's like exploring the twists and turns of the mind's language maze!

Unlocking the Power of Language Knowledge in Learning English

When learning English as a foreign language, it's really important to understand how the language works. For us teachers, knowing a lot about language is of key importance. This understanding helps us guide students as they learn English, including how to pronounce words, use grammar, learn new words, and understand cultural differences.

Pronunciation- Figuring Out English Sounds

Understanding language helps us as teachers to comprehend the tricky sounds in English. It allows us to identify and address pronunciation issues by using our knowledge of phonetics and phonology. With this knowledge, we can bridge the gap between students' first languages and English sounds, making communication clearer and reducing accents.

For example, if a student is having trouble pronouncing the "th" sound, we can provide an explanation that involves placing the tongue between the teeth and blowing air out. By providing this explanation and practicing the sound together, we can help the student improve their pronunciation.

Understanding Grammar

Clear explanations of grammar are vital in language teaching. Our language knowledge lets us simplify complex grammar by looking at sentence structure and word forms. We make hard grammar rules easier for students to understand. This way, students can confidently work through sentence building, verb tenses, and more. For instance, in teaching the past tense, we explain that regular verbs get "-ed" added to their base. We also give examples and practice to make the rule stick. By simplifying grammar and explaining clearly, we help students use the rules well.

Expanding Vocabulary

Knowing about language is useful for teaching vocabulary. Teachers who understand where words come from, what they mean, and how they're related can share these insights. By looking at word families, prefixes, suffixes, and word origins, we help students grow their English vocabulary and get a better sense of how words are used. For example, with the word "unbelievable," we can show that "un-" means "not" and "believe" means to accept as true. Breaking down the word helps students understand the meaning and how to use "unbelievable."

Exploring Language Differences and Pragmatics

Knowledge about language also helps EFL teachers with language variations and practical use. We can guide students through different English dialects, accents, and regional ways of speaking. Plus, teachers with a talent for linguistics can highlight cultural nuanced details that are often difficult to notice or understand but are important for a full understanding of it. Understanding pragmatics helps students use language appropriately in various situations, enhancing their speaking skills and cultural awareness. For example, if a student is learning American English but is exposed to British English, we can explain the differences in vocabulary and pronunciation between the two. We also talk about cultural dos and don'ts in each place, getting the student ready to communicate well wherever they are.

Learning English as a second language requires a deep understanding of how the language works. As teachers, it is crucial for us to have knowledge about language itself. This knowledge is a powerful tool that helps us assist students in learning English, including pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and cultural differences.

Language Knowledge as a Guiding Compass

In today's diverse world of English learning, knowledge about language serves as the guiding tool for educators. It facilitates a nuanced understanding of the complexities of language, allowing teachers to design the instruction to meet each student's unique needs. By using their knowledge in how language works, EFL teachers empower students to confidently navigate the world of English with a deeper appreciation and mastery of the language.

In short, language knowledge is not just a tool; it is the foundation for effective English teaching. It transforms language learning into an engaging and enriching experience for students around the world. With teachers` understanding of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and cultural differences, they can help students unlock the power of language and achieve success in their English language journey. By fostering an environment that emphasizes both linguistic skills and cultural awareness, they prepare students to navigate and thrive in a globalized world.

In conclusion, linguistics, the scientific study of language, explores the unique human ability to communicate. Linguists study the structure and use of language, including non-human communication systems. The concept of universal grammar, proposed by Noam Chomsky, suggests that all languages share fundamental elements, facilitating children's natural language acquisition. This theory highlights the commonalities in human language while recognizing the diversity of languages worldwide. Through case studies, such as the principle of recursion found in various languages, linguistics reveals the shared features of human language. Despite the vast number of languages worldwide, each with unique characteristics, linguists aim to understand language universally, without bias. By focusing on language varieties and dialects, linguistics contributes to a deeper comprehension of human communication, bridging the scientific and cultural aspects of language.

? Task 1. Multiple Choice Questions: Overview of Linguistics and its Relevance to Teaching

1. What is the scientific study of language called?

a. Phonetics
b. Linguistics
c. Syntax
d. Semantics

2. Which linguist proposed the concept of universal grammar?

a. Ferdinand de Saussure
b. Noam Chomsky
c. William Labov
d. Edward Sapir

3. What is the primary goal of descriptive linguistics?

a. To construct general theories about language structure
b. To apply scientific language study to practical tasks
c. To describe and analyze the structure of individual languages
d. To focus on the historical development of languages

4. Which realm of linguistics involves exploring how our brains process language?

a. Historical Linguistics
b. Descriptive Linguistics
c. Applied Linguistics
d. Cognitive Linguistics

5. Why is knowledge of language important for EFL teachers?

a. To understand dialects and accents
b. To design instruction to meet students' unique needs
c. To break down complex grammar structures
d. All of the above

6. What concept is associated with the idea that all languages share fundamental elements such as sounds, grammar rules, and ways of expressing ideas?

a. Sociolinguistics
b. Recursion
c. Phonetics
d. Dialectology

7. How many languages are estimated to be spoken worldwide according to linguists?

a. 5,000

b. 8,000
c. 7,000
d. 10,000

8. **What is the distinction between synchronic and diachronic linguistics?**
a. Synchronic linguistics focuses on historical language development, while diachronic linguistics describes a language at a specific point in time.
b. Diachronic Linguistics focuses on the historical development of languages and their structural changes over time, while synchronic linguistics describes a language at a specific point in time.
c. Both focus on language development over time.
d. Both focus on language structure at a specific point in time.

❓ Task 2. Check Your Knowledge!

1. What is linguistics and how is it defined?
2. Can you explain the concept of universal grammar and its significance in linguistics?

Comprehension

1. Explain the differences between slang, dialect and language, and provide examples to illustrate these distinctions.
2. How does linguistic understanding aid in teaching pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary in EFL?

Application

1. Imagine you are teaching EFL. How would you use your knowledge of linguistics to address pronunciation challenges in English for a student?
2. As an EFL teacher, how would you apply your understanding of grammar to effectively break down complex structures for your students?
3. If a student is struggling with expanding their English vocabulary, how would you use your linguistic knowledge to support them?

❓ Task 3. Enhance Your Knowledge!!!

Useful Links:
1. Links to websites about the English language (omniglot.com) (https://en.wal.unesco.org/world-atlas-languages The World Atlas)
2. How many English Dialects are there? - Complete Guide | TranslateDay

HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS

Principles of historical linguistics
Language change: sound change, lexical change, …
Comparative method and reconstruction

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Understand how languages have changed over time, including how words are pronounced and used
- Learn about the different ways linguists figure out how languages are related and how they have evolved
- Explore how words can change in meaning, get new meanings, or how new words are made
- Discover how the structure of sentences and the way words are put together can change in a language

> *Quote:*
> Learning historical linguistics is like being a language detective. But instead of solving crimes, linguists solve the mystery of why English people say 'pineapple' when everyone else says “ananas”.
>
> **Unknown author**

Lesson Prompt:

Imagine being a linguist, studying the past of the languages to discover how they have changed, evolved, and influenced each other over thousands of years. You are going to explore the fascinating journey of languages, discovering how the words we use have shifted in sound and meaning, and how new languages are born from the mix of old ones. We'll look at the clues left behind in ancient texts, the puzzles of pronunciation, and the mysteries of lost languages.

How do you think languages change over time, and what might be the clues that tell us about their past to the present? What would you be most excited to discover about the language you learn or teach, and how it connects to others across history? Write three things about language evolution that would intrigue you the most?

Answer Modeling: I am particularly fascinated by ……over time. One aspect interests me the most is..... (a specific sound change, spelling, semantic shift, the significance of specific change (cultural, economic, linguistic), language contact, the birth of a new language, etc. The methods for investigating this example of… may be……. In conclusion…...

Historical linguistics, a subfield of linguistics, employs a diachronic approach to discover the evolutionary pathways of languages over time. The diachronic perspective is important for understanding how languages change, adapt, and eventually give rise to diverse linguistic landscapes. This approach examines the historical aspects of language development, studying shifts in phonetics, semantics, syntax, and morphology across various temporal stages.

Further, the diachronic approach in Historical linguistics will be presented, focusing on its principles, language changes, and methods.

Definition of Diachronic Approach in linguistics is centered on the examination of language evolution across time. The diachronic approach looks at how languages change over time. Unlike synchronic linguistics, which looks at a language at one specific moment, diachronic linguistics uses history to see how a language changes. It helps us understand how different languages come from older ones and how they turn into the languages we speak today.

Historical linguistics is like a time machine for languages, taking us on a journey to discover how they've evolved over centuries. To guide this exploration, linguists follow a set of principles that act as a roadmap through the complex landscape of language development. Here are three *key principles* that shed light on how languages have been changing and developing:

1. *Uniformitarian Principle:* This rule in Historical Linguistics suggests that the way languages change now is how they've always changed in the past. It means we can look at changes happening today and guess that similar changes happened before.

2. *Comparative Principle:* This important rule involves comparing different languages to find what they have in common and how they are different. By doing this, linguists can figure out how languages are related to each other and group them into families.

3. *Reciprocal Illumination:* According to this rule, studying languages can help us understand historical events better, and studying history can help us understand how languages have changed. Linguists often use old writings, archaeological discoveries, and cultural studies to support their ideas about language.

Language change is a fascinating and inherent phenomenon in linguistics, representing the natural evolution of languages over time. It involves a variety of processes that change the structure, vocabulary, and

usage of a language, reflecting the dynamic nature of human communication. Several factors contribute to language change, and understanding these shifts is crucial for linguists seeking to discover the details of linguistic evolution. Also, language changes happen gradually from one generation to the next as kids learn the language. Kids don't learn language perfectly, so small differences build up over many years. When speaking about changes, sounds can change in pronunciation to make them easier to say. For example, *some consonants might get softer or vowels might shift*. This is called "articulatory simplification."

Also, *spellings* can influence how words are said too. If a spelling is different than the pronunciation, people may start saying the word to match the spelling better. Our brains also cause changes through things like "analogy" and "reanalysis." Analogy means applying a rule consistently, like adding "-ed" to make past tense verbs even when the real rule is irregular. Reanalysis happens when we start seeing a word's meaning or structure differently over time. During the language evolution, interacting with speakers of other languages can lead to borrowing words from their language into our own through "language contact." This especially happens a lot if many people speak both languages. Sound changes usually start small in how words are said in certain situations and build up gradually. Over centuries, this can completely change the pronunciation of a language. Vowels, consonants, stress, and syllables are all affected. The same types of changes happen in all languages because humans learn language in similar ways. The main causes of language change are listed below.

Types of Language Change:

- *Phonological change* involves alterations in the sounds of a language. Over time, pronunciation can shift, leading to changes in vowels, consonants, or the overall phonetic patterns of words.

In a phonological split, allophones of the same phoneme come to contrast with each other due to the loss of the conditioning environment, with the result that one or more new phonemes are created. The English phoneme [ŋ] was the result of a phonological split (see Figure 2.). Originally, [ŋ] was simply the allophone of /n/ that appeared before a velar consonant. During Middle English, consonant deletion resulted in the loss of /g/ in word-final position after a nasal consonant, leaving [ŋ] as the final sound in words such as *sing*.

Example:

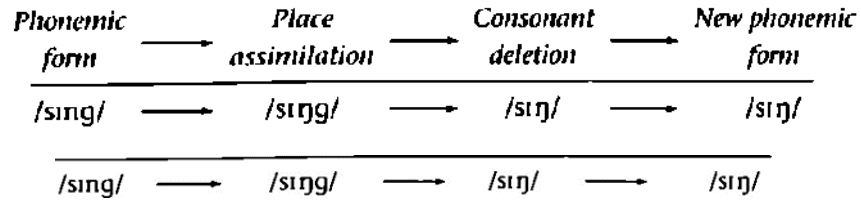


Figure 2. Stages in the phonological split of (n) and [ŋ]

The loss of the word-final [g] created minimal pairs such as sin (/sin/) and sing (/ŋ/), in which there is a contrast between /n/ and /ŋ/. This example represents a typical phonological split. When the conditioning environment of an allophonic variant of a phoneme is lost through sound change, the allophone is no longer predictable and thus becomes contrastive (i.e., phonemic).

- *Semantic change* refers to shifts in the meanings of words. Words can undergo broadening, narrowing, amelioration, or pejoration, altering their original meanings in various ways. Although changes in word meaning take place continually in all languages, words rarely jump from one meaning to an unrelated one. Typically, the changes occur step by step and involve one of the following phenomena.

- As **Table 1.** shows, *semantic broadening* is the process in which the meaning of a word becomes more general or more inclusive than its historically earlier form. In contrast, *semantic narrowing* is the process in which the meaning of a word becomes less general or less inclusive than its historically earlier meaning. In amelioration, the meaning of a word becomes more positive or favorable. The opposite change, pejoration, also occurs. Given the propensity of human beings to exaggerate, it is not surprising that the weakening of meaning frequently occurs. For example, our word soon used to mean “immediately” but now simply means “in the near future”.

Table 1. Semantic Change

Change	**Word**	**Old meaning**	**New meaning**
Semantic broadening	*bird* *barn*	small fowl place to store barley	any winged creature farm building for storage and shelter

Semantic narrowing	*hound* *meat* *disease*	any dog any type of food any unfavorable state	a hunting breed animal flesh illness
Amelioration	*pretty* *knight*	tricky, sly, cunning boy	attractive special title or position
Pejoration	*wench* *silly*	girl happy, prosperous	wanton woman, prostitute' foolish
Weakening of meaning	*wreck* *quell*	avenge, punish kill, murder	to cause, inflict to put down, pacify

• *Changes* in sentence structure and word order fall under *syntactic change*. These shifts can be influenced by language contact, cultural factors, or internal linguistic developments.

All languages make a distinction between the subject and direct object. This contrast is typically represented through case marking or word order. Since Old English had an extensive system of case marking, it is not surprising that its word order was somewhat more variable than that of Modern English. In unembedded clauses, Old English placed the verb in second position (much like Modern German). Thus find subject-verb-object order in simple transitive sentences such as the following.

S	**V**	**O**
He	geseah	pone mann.
He	saw	the man.

When the clause began with an element such as pa 'then' or ne 'not', the verb preceded the subject as in the following example.

V	**S**	**O**
Then	sent	the king the disc.
Then the king	sent	the disc.

Although this word order is still found in Modern English, its use is very limited and subject to special restrictions, unlike the situation in Old English.

V	**S**	**O**
Rarely has	he ever deceived	me.

When the direct object was a pronoun, the subject-object-verb order was typical.

S	O	V
Heo	hine	laerde.
She	him	advised.
She advised him.		

The subject-object-verb order also prevailed in embedded clauses, even when the direct object was not a pronoun.

S	O	V
When he	the king	visited, he boasted.
When he visited the king, he boasted.		

After case markings were lost during the Middle English period through sound change, fixed subject-verb-object order became the means of marking grammatical relations.

- *Morphological change* involves alterations in the structure of words, such as the addition or loss of prefixes, suffixes, or inflections.
- *Lexical change* means the vocabulary in a language is changing, words meaning are changing. Some new words are created, some old words are no longer used, and some words start to mean something different. Many cultures and religions are very interested in finding the first language ever spoken by humans. They believe that understanding this language can help us learn more about human history and culture. People often think this original language was very important, maybe even magical, allowing direct communication with gods or acting as a universal way everyone could understand. This idea is shown in a very old myth (Tower of Babel).

But the Lord came down to see the city and the tower that the men were building. The Lord said, "If as one people speaking the same language they have begun to do this, then nothing they plan will be impossible for them. Come, let us go down and confuse their language so they will not understand each other." So the Lord scattered them from there all over the earth, and they stopped building the city. That is why it was called Babel – because there the Lord confused the language of the whole world.

Genesis 11: 5–9

The story of the Tower of Babel is one of many stories where the mixing up of languages is seen as a punishment from the gods for human pride. In these stories, the way languages naturally change, "confusion of tongues", over time is seen as something bad. This leads people to look for the first, pure language, called in literature "uncorrupted" that existed before Babel, believing all other languages came from it. (see the case study below).

Case Study:

National language myths Written in the fifth century bce, Herodotus (History 2:2) recounts how Pharoah Psammetichus of Egypt had set out to discover the original language of mankind by ordering that two children should be raised in isolation by a shepherd, who was forbidden to speak to them. After two years, the children's first word was similar to bekos, the Phrygian word for bread, from which the Pharoah was forced to conclude that the Phrygians, and not the Egyptians, were the most ancient people.

As Robins (1997:153) points out, this tale has been recast with many different outcomes, revealing how the search for an "original" language is often suffused with nationalist ideology. The "language of Adam" has at various times been equated with Greek, Latin or Hebrew, and a real or imagined association with an ancient language has often been spuriously advanced to promote the cause of a contemporary one. A treatise published in 1569 by the Dutch scholar Goropius Becanus, for example, argued that the oldest language was Cimmerian, traces of which, he claimed, could be found in the Brabantic Dutch dialect. In the same year, Henri Estienne published an impassioned defence of the French language, at that time emerging as a serious rival to Latin in France and a competitor, notably with Italian, for international prestige, on the grounds of it being allegedly closer to ancient Greek than other European languages.

The Quest for Linguistic Origins

For ages, language scholars aimed to find an "uncorrupted" pre-Babelian tongue, an original language from which all others supposedly originated. Yet, this quest remained elusive until the 19th century when scholars, armed with the *Comparative Method*, achieved a breakthrough. Through careful analysis, they uncovered the shared ancestor of languages like Sanskrit, Latin, English, Swedish and Germanic: *The Proto-Indo-*

European language. This discovery marked a significant milestone, shedding light on language evolution and historical connections.

The Comparative Method, a fundamental tool in comparative linguistics, played a crucial role in reconstructing Proto-Indo-European. It entails systematic comparison to identify common features among languages, allowing linguists to trace linguistic relationships and reconstruct shared ancestors across various language families.

Prominent scholars who contributed to this linguistic journey include Sir William Jones, the first to propose the Indo-European language family in the late 18th century, and August Schleicher, who developed the family tree model. Additionally, linguists like Jacob Grimm and Rasmus Rask formulated sound laws such as Grimm's Law, explaining essential phonetic shifts crucial to reconstructing Proto-Indo-European. These scholars and their theories laid the foundation for our understanding of language evolution and connections.

The discovery and reconstruction of the common ancestor of languages like Sanskrit, Latin, Germanic, and Swedish are primarily attributed to the development and application of the Comparative Method in historical linguistics. This method, pioneered by linguists in the 19th century, involves systematically comparing languages to identify similarities and differences, having the goal of reconstructing a common ancestral language.

Bloomfield describes Pāṇini’s grammar (scholar in ancient India, was a **logician**, **Sanskrit philologist**, and **grammarian)**. His work has left an important mark on the study of language and linguistics. Pāṇini's grammar is appreciated for its precise and systematic approach, based entirely on observations rather than being influenced by the classical models of Latin or Greek. This innovative method allowed him to develop a comprehensive framework for Sanskrit that indicated unexpected connections between Sanskrit and several European language families. Specifically, Pāṇini's analysis showcased striking similarities between Sanskrit and well-known European language groups, such as the Romance languages (including languages like Romanian, Spanish, French, and Italian), the Germanic languages (such as German, Danish, English, and Dutch), and the Slavonic languages (including Russian, Czech, Polish, and Bulgarian).

By focusing on observation, Pāṇini was able to create a grammar that not only advanced the understanding of Sanskrit but also illuminated the shared linguistic heritage of a diverse range of languages. His work

underscores the interconnectedness of human languages and continues to inspire linguistic scholarship today. As the table below demonstrates, these similarities were far too common and regular to be the result of mere chance.

Table 2. Some Indo-European correspondences

Sanskrit	Latin	Ancient Greek	German	Russian	English
matar	mater	Mētēr	Mutter	Mati	mother
Dvāu	duo	dio	zwei	dva	two
mūṣ-	mūṣ-	Mus	Maus	mysi	mouse
yugám	iugum	zugan	Joch	igo	yoke
bhratar	frater	Phrātēr	Brüder	brat	brother

Such correspondences could only be explained, argued William Jones in a famous paper to the Asiatic Society in 1786, in terms of a common ancestor, which would later become known as Indo-European.

Case Study:
The Sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists; there is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the Sanskrit; and the old Persian might be added to the same family.

William Jones, 1786

So, the **philologists**, working from historical written sources, found correspondences between basic lexical items that were unlikely to have been borrowed, they posited a common ancestor in Indo-European. Of course, no written evidence for Indo-European, widely believed to have been spoken some 6,000 years ago, was available, but on the basis of regularities between its descendant languages, explained in terms of sound laws, a partial reconstruction known as **Proto-Indo-European** (PIE) was developed.

The best-known example of such correspondences is **Grimm's Law**, named after Jacob Grimm, but drawing on the observations of Schlegel, Kanne and Rask, which explains a number of correspondences between Latin,

Sanskrit and Germanic in terms of sound changes from Indo-European. In many words where Latin has [p], the Germanic languages have [f], as in the examples below.

Table 3. P/f correspondences in Latin and Germanic lang.

Latin	**Romanian**	**English**	**Swedish**	**German**
plenus	plin	full	full	voll
piscis	pește	fish	fisk	fisch
Pedis	picior	foot	fot	fuss
Pater	tata	father	fader	vater

Note that the letter v has the value [f] in German. Grimm explained this in terms of PIE voiceless stops [p, t, k] becoming fricatives [f, θ, x/h] in Germanic, but not in Latin, Greek or Sanskrit (compare Latin *canis*; Greek *kyōn* but German *Hund*; English *hound*). Related changes saw PIE voiced stops [b, d, g] become voiceless [p, t, k] (hence Latin *duo*, but English *two*; Swedish *tva*). From these regular patterns of sound change, August Schleicher developed the family tree model (which owed much to botanical classification methods developed by Linnaeus), tracing the "parentage" of living languages back to PIE. One version of the Indo-European family tree can be seen in the following diagram:

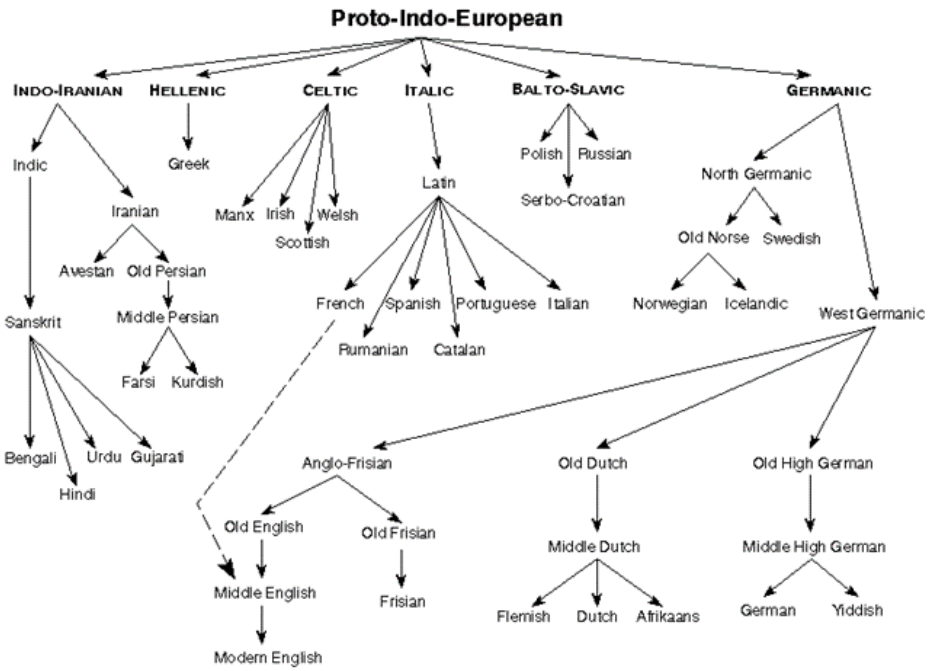


Figure 3. The Indo-European Language Family (by Jack Lynch)

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

A common ancestor parallels between Sanskrit, Latin and Greek led philologists to imagine a common ancestor, which was reconstructed from historical evidence as *Proto-Indo-European*. Family trees show historical relationships between languages, but fail to account for the effects of language contact.

The family tree of Indo-European languages is a helpful model that shows how many languages spoken in Europe, Asia, and other places are related over time. It explains why some languages have similar words and grammar rules while also being different. Linguists use the tree to compare languages at different stages of development. This lets them see how sounds, grammar, and vocabulary have changed as languages evolved. The tree also helps linguists reconstruct what the first Proto-Indo-European language may have been like long ago. Furthermore, looking at where branches of the tree spread geographically gives insights into how people migrated and interacted historically.

However, the tree model also has limitations. It makes language change seem simpler than it really was. It often ignores smaller variations between dialects and the fact that languages borrow words from each other. Linguists sometimes debate the decisions about which languages are related. The tree may not show enough how other languages and outside factors influenced development over time. Also, the tree presents a language as fixed, but languages are always evolving and changing in reality.

Now researchers are using new techniques like genetic analysis and computer models to improve the Indo-European language family tree. They are more interested in studying how languages influence each other through contact besides just their ancestral ties. Scholars also recognize that language change is dynamic rather than static, so they are developing more nuanced ways to represent how languages evolve over history.

The influence of Latin on the grammar and structure of English can be traced back to historical and sociolinguistic factors. As nation-states emerged in Europe, including England, there was a growing need to develop national standard languages. This period witnessed the rise of prescriptive linguistic works that sought to establish and regulate linguistic norms, often favoring the usage of a narrow social elite.

Latin, being the language of scholarship, religion, and diplomacy during the medieval and early modern periods, held significant prestige. It

was the language of the educated and the clergy, and many works of literature, science, and philosophy were written in Latin. The grammarian Priscian, whose comprehensive work "Institutiones Grammaticae" (Grammatical Institutions) was widely studied in medieval Europe, provided a model for the systematic organization of linguistic knowledge. His work, originally designed for Latin, influenced the grammatical norms that later shaped European languages.

As a result, grammars of European languages, including English, often followed the Latin model of Priscian. This influence was seen in the classification of parts of speech, the organization of syntactic rules, and the emphasis on grammatical correctness. The Latin model, however, was not always suited to the linguistic characteristics of each European language.

In the case of English, which is a Germanic language, the Latin model posed challenges. English has a distinct syntactic structure and a different set of grammatical features compared to Latin. The attempt to fit English into a Latin grammatical framework sometimes led to awkward constructions and prescriptive rules that didn't align with the natural evolution of the language.

Despite these challenges, the influence of Latin on English grammar persisted for centuries. The use of Latin in education and official documents further amplified its impact. It wasn't until the Renaissance and the subsequent development of English grammars tailored to the linguistic features of English itself that a more accurate and reflective understanding of the language emerged.

In summary, the adoption of the Latin model for English grammar can be attributed to the prestige of Latin as a language of scholarship and the need to establish linguistic norms during the emergence of nation-states in Europe.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

The Latin model. As nation states emerged in Europe, the need to develop national standard languages became keenly felt. Prescriptive linguistic works condemned all but the usage of a narrow social elite. Grammars of European languages generally followed the Latin model of Priscian, for which in many cases they were unsuited. Many modern prescriptive rules of English derive ultimately from Latin grammar.

While the Latin model provided a structured approach to grammar, it sometimes imposed artificial rules on English, highlighting the tension between linguistic prescription and the natural evolution of the language.

As new standard languages began to replace Latin in the nations of Europe, a flourishing market emerged for manuals of 'good' speech and writing. This prescriptive tradition, over which Latin cast a long shadow, was especially strong in France and Great Britain. *The prescriptive tradition* in linguistics involves prescribing rules and norms for how a language should be used, often based on notions of correctness, purity, or authority. This tradition seeks to establish and enforce standards for language usage, focusing on what is deemed proper or acceptable. The importance of the prescriptive tradition lies in its attempts to maintain linguistic norms and uphold a sense of linguistic authority, often for social, cultural, or educational reasons. Here are some examples of works and scholars who followed the prescriptive tradition.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

"*Prescriptive*" in the context of linguistics refers to an approach that sets out rules for how languages should be used, focusing on standards of correctness, grammar, and usage deemed proper or traditionally acceptable. This approach often contrasts with "descriptive" linguistics, which observes and records how language is actually used by speakers without making judgments about correctness or superiority.

Examples of grammars influenced by the prescriptive tradition are those that aim to guide users towards what is considered "correct" language use.

Examples of Grammars Influenced by the Prescriptive Tradition:

"A Short Introduction to English Grammar" by Robert Lowth (1762): This grammar work reflects the prescriptive attitudes of the 18th century, providing rules and judgments on proper English usage.

"English Grammar" by Lindley Murray (1795): Lindley Murray's grammar, widely used in the 19th century, is prescriptive in nature, offering rules for correct language usage, in spite of the fact that English – then as now – only regularly distinguishes nominative and accusative in pronouns (***he*** *saw me* vs. *I saw* ***him***). While prescriptive grammarians of English are no longer as captivated by Latin as they once were, many complaints about 'bad' English, start from assumptions about Latin grammar. Simon Heffer's *Strictly*

English: The correct way to write… and why it matters, published in 2011, still condemns the use of split infinitives, though its author seems more relaxed than his predecessors about ending sentences with prepositions.

"A Dictionary of the English Language" by Samuel Johnson (1755): While primarily a dictionary, Johnson's work included prescriptive elements, reflecting his opinions on language correctness.

In this context let us have a look at some key features of prescriptive tradition:

-*focus on "correctness*": certain forms are prescribed as inherently right, while others are deemed wrong or inferior;

*rule-based approac*h: grammar rules, often borrowed from Latin, are used to dictate proper usage;

-*emphasis on logic and clarity*: clarity and efficiency are often cited as justifications for specific rules;

-*normative focus*: prescriptive guidelines aim to establish a uniform standard for communication across diverse dialects and social groups.

Case Study:
Grammar and Morality
The preface to Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* reveals the author's intention to 'promote the cause of virtue as well as learning'. Murray was neither the first, nor the last, to equate 'good' English with moral virtue, as these 1985 comments by Norman Tebbit, the former Conservative cabinet minister, demonstrate: "If you allow standards to slip to the stage where good English is no better than bad English, where people turn up filthy … at school … all those things tend to cause people to have no standards at all, and once you lose standards there's no imperative to stay out of crime."
Similar sentiments expressed by Prince Charles, John Rae and Jeffrey Archer (Cameron 1995: 85–94) attest to the remarkable persistence of such attitudes wherever what Milroy and Milroy (1985) have called 'the linguistic complaint tradition' is strong.

Interesting facts:

J. Murray-The *first OED* was completed in 1928 and had a total of 414,800 words!

• 1920s - Introduction of RP by BBC:

• BBC selected the upper-class southeast England accent for its presenters, known as Received Pronunciation (RP) or 'the King's English.'

• RP gained prominence due to its use on radio and TV, associating it with social prestige.

• **Limitations on Regional Accents:**

• Strong regional accents were discouraged on radio, television, teaching, and politics.

• RP was deemed more socially acceptable and prestigious in public professions.

• **Shifts in the 1960s:**

• Social barriers began breaking down, making regional accents more widely accepted across all spheres.

• The increasing number of radio and TV programs demanded presenters with diverse accents.

The BBC's actions in the 20th century demonstrate how prescriptive principles were applied to standardize English pronunciation through RP. However, social changes and increasing media diversity eventually challenged this rigid approach, leading to a more inclusive and evolving notion of standard English. This case highlights the complex interplay between prescriptivism, social forces, and the dynamic nature of language itself.

In conclusion, historical linguistics, using a diachronic approach, digs into the evolutionary pathways of languages over time. This method examines language changes in phonetics, semantics, syntax, and morphology, offering insights into how languages evolve. Key principles like the Uniformitarian Principle, Comparative Principle, and Reciprocal Illumination guide this exploration, revealing that language change is a gradual, ongoing process influenced by various factors, including sound changes and language contact. Understanding these shifts is crucial for linguists, providing a comprehensive view of language development and its dynamic nature throughout history.

? Task 1. Multiple Choice Questions: Overview of Historical Linguistics

1. What is the uniformitarian principle in historical linguistics?

a. The principle that languages change in the same way now as they did in the past.

b. The principle that studying history can help us understand how languages have changed.

c. The principle that language change is influenced by factors such as pronunciation and word usage.
d. The principle that different languages can borrow words from each other, leading to changes in pronunciation and structure.

2.What is semantic narrowing in language change?
a. When the meaning of a word becomes more general.
b. When the meaning of a word becomes more specific.
c. When the intensity of a word's meaning lessens.
d. When words gain or lose prefixes, suffixes, or inflections.

3. How did Latin influence the development of English grammar?
a. Latin's influence on English grammar made English sound strange.
b. Latin's influence on English grammar led to the development of grammar rules that fit better with English itself.
c. Latin's influence on English grammar caused the loss of case markings and changes in word order.
d. Latin's influence on English grammar resulted in the creation of new words and the loss of old words.

4. According to the passage, what is reciprocal illumination in the study of language change?
a. The principle that studying history can help us understand how languages have changed.
b. The principle that different languages can borrow words from each other, leading to changes in pronunciation and structure.
c. The principle that language change is influenced by factors such as pronunciation and word usage.
d. The principle that the way languages change now is probably how they changed in the past.

5. How can studying language change help us understand historical events better, according to the passage?
a. Studying language change helps us understand how historical events influenced language.
b. Studying language change helps us understand the origins of historical events.

c. Studying language change helps us understand the impact of historical events on language.
d. Studying language change has no connection to understanding historical events.

? Task 2. Short Answer Questions

1. What is the role of Historical Linguistics?
2. What are some factors that contribute to language change?
3. How did Latin influence the development of English grammar?

? Task 3. Think, Reflect and Answer!

1. Consider a situation where you had to adapt your language or communication style to interact with someone from a different culture or background. How did this experience shape your understanding of language evolution?
2. Reflect on a time when you encountered a language borrowing situation. How did this influence your perception of the languages involved?
3. Think about a language rule or grammar structure that you find interesting. How do you think it has evolved over time and why?

Useful Links:

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d48bhkOiEuA
  (Proto-Indo European language and culture)
- https://ed.ted.com/lessons/where-did-english-come-from-claire-bowern (The origin of English language
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Germanic_languages (Germanic languages)

Scan the QR Codes:

DESCRIPTIVE LINGUISTICS

Definition of descriptive linguistics
Phonetics and phonology
Vowels and consonants

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Understand the basics of descriptive linguistics and its importance in studying language
- Explore phonetics, focusing on the production, transmission, and perception of speech sounds
- Investigate phonology, emphasizing the systematic organization of speech sounds
- Apply theoretical knowledge through practical examples and exercises

Quote:
"Language is the roadmap of a culture. It tells you where its people come from and where they are going."

(Rita Mae Brown, ”Descriptive Linguistics”)

Lesson Prompt:

Share experiences or challenges encountered in learning or teaching pronunciation in different languages.

Answer Modeling: Consider the tend to apply the syllable specific rhythm of specific native language to English, leading to unnatural-sounding speech that can hinder comprehensibility, … the lack of certain sounds in their native phonetic inventory, such as the "th" sounds (/θ/ and /ð/) in English, requires not just practice but a fundamental reshaping of their phonetic understanding and articulatory habits, etc. These challenges highlight the importance of tailored, patient, and comprehensive phonetic training when teaching pronunciation, the fascinating complexity of human language and the cognitive and physical adaptability of language learners. Reflecting on these experiences…

Introduction

Descriptive linguistics involves studying the structure and use of language in its natural form. For English teachers, understanding key aspects

such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics is essential. This knowledge helps teachers analyze and explain the English language, which improves language teaching and learning. Descriptive linguistics also contributes to language documentation, translation, interpretation, speech technology, and cultural understanding. By understanding the intricacies of linguistics, teachers can develop effective teaching materials and strategies that cater to learners' needs.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Why descriptive linguistics is important?

Language Change and Variation!

-Descriptive linguists observe how languages changed and developed over time.

-They document language variation and track shifts in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.

Helps teachers understanding real language!

-Descriptive linguistics provides insights into how people actually communicate.

-It helps teachers recognize common language patterns and variations.

https://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/Fall_2018/ling001/prescription.html

The study of language, linguistics, has developed a lot over the years, with one of its fundamental pillars being the theory of phonology. At the heart of phonology is the idea of the phoneme, a basic sound unit. Even though people have debated this concept, it remains a cornerstone for linguists in analyzing and understanding the phonological structures of languages.

In terms of the phoneme theory and by means of phonemic analysis languages can be shown to organize the selection they make of the available sound differences in human speech into a limited number of recurrent distinctive units. These are called *phonemes*, and it is found that their number in any language is relatively small, as compared with the great and potentially unlimited number of actually different sounds produced by speakers. The numbers of phonemes in any language differ both from one language to another and according to the way in which the linguist analyses his material, but upper and lower limits of around fifty and fifteen have been calculated, the most frequent count being around thirty.

The notable promoters of descriptive linguistics included *Edward Sapir.* He was a pioneering linguist who proposed the concept of

the *"phoneme",* which represents the psychological grouping of similar speech sounds (allophones) by native speakers; *William Labov* is recognized for his work in sociolinguistics and variationist studies. His research focused on language variation across social groups, emphasizing descriptive analysis of real-world language use and *Noam Chomsky,* who is primarily associated with generative grammar and transformational linguistics. However, early in his career, he engaged in descriptive work, especially in the study of syntax, and later, his focus shifted toward generative theories, which differ from strict descriptive approaches.

The Phonemic Principle and Phonemics

At the heart of phonology lies the phonemic principle, which asserts that languages organize the countless sound differences in human speech into a finite set of distinct units called phonemes. Despite the vast array of sounds produced by speakers, the number of phonemes in any language is relatively small, typically ranging from around fifteen to fifty. Moreover, the same phonemic system is often applicable to large groups of speakers within the same language or dialect.

Initially focused on segmental consonants and vowels, phonemic analysis illustrates how sounds are distributed and contrasted within a language. For instance, in English, the sounds /p/ and /b/ can occur in similar environments, such as in the words "pan" and "ban." However, they're seen as different phonemes because they can be used in place of each other in certain language situations.

Segmental phonemes are the building blocks of language, representing distinct sound units that are essential for communication. These phonemes have special features that make them stand out and be recognized in what we say.

One crucial property of segmental phonemes is their ability to be distinct or differentiable from one another. This means that two sounds must be able to occur in the same position and environment within a language, allowing speakers to perceive them as separate entities. For example, in English, the sounds /p/ and /b/ can both occur in the environment /-ren/, as in the words "pan" and "ban," respectively.

Furthermore, the concepts of phonemic distinctiveness and phonetic difference are important in understanding segmental phonemes. While two sounds may be phonetically different, they are grouped into the same

phoneme if they are phonetically similar and have complementary distribution. For instance, in English, the sounds /p/ and /b/ are considered allophones of the same phoneme because they occur in complementary environments and are phonetically similar in terms of their articulation.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Allophones are variations of the same phoneme or sound in a language. They don't change the meaning of a word but can sound slightly different depending on where they appear in the word or the sounds around them. For example, the way the "p" sound is pronounced in "spin" versus "pin" in English.

The phoneme *[t];* therefore, consists of several phonetically different sounds, or "members" and may be regarded logically as a class. Likewise, the phonemes /p/ and /k/ consist of different sounds similarly distributed in their environments (compare the [ph] and [p] of *pan* and *span* and the [kh] and [k] of *can* and *scan).* Sounds are grouped into a single class or phoneme if they can be shown to be phonetically similar (having something in common, articulatorily or auditorily distinctive) and in complementary distribution (not occurring in the same environment and so not distinctive).

The condition of phonetic similarity keeps [t] and [th], [p] and [ph] in the same phonemes respectively, as against the equally noncontrastive grouping of [t] and [ph], [p] and [th].

All the segmental sounds used in each language can be classed into a limited number of phonemes, and conversely the consonant and vowel phonemes exhaustively cover all the consonant and vowel sounds so occurring. All consonant and vowel contrasts between distinct forms in a language can be referred to one or other of its component phonemes. Thus English *man* /mæn/, containing three phonemes, may contrast at three points or places wherein a distinctively different sound unit may be substituted: *man, /mæn/, pan* /pæn/ *men* (/men/); *man, mad* /mæn/, /mæd/.

Additionally, segmental phonemes may exhibit free variation, where phonetically different sounds can occur interchangeably within the same environment without altering the meaning of the word. For example, in English, the final consonants /p/, /t/, and /k/ can be pronounced with or without audible release, demonstrating free variation in their pronunciation.

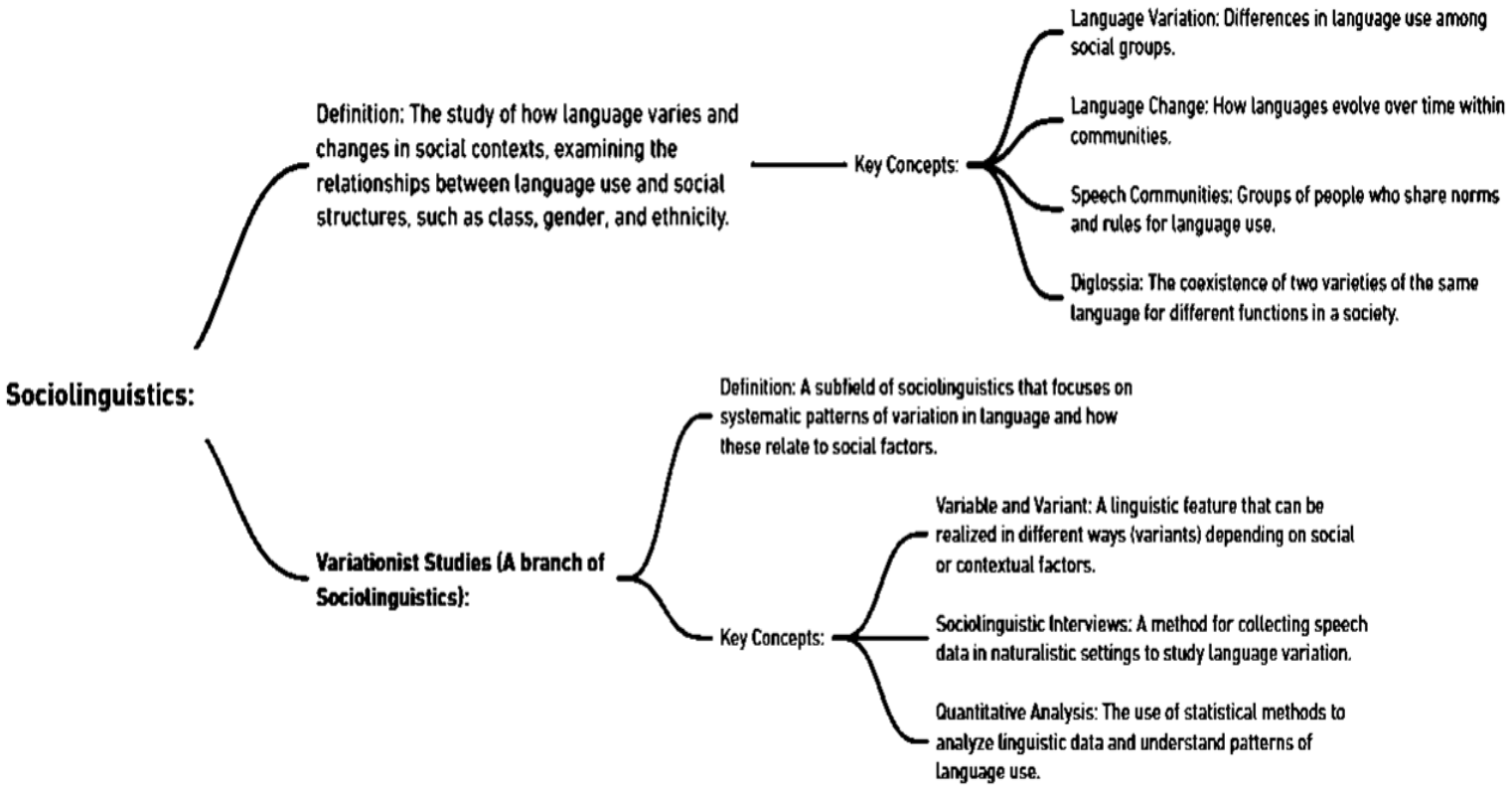


Figure 4. The Relationship within sociolinguistics and variationist studies

To sum up, segmental phonemes play a crucial role in language, allowing speakers to convey meaning through the systematic arrangement of distinct sound units. Understanding these phonemes and their properties is essential for effective communication and language learning.

Length of the Sounds

The distinction between long and short vowels is not universal across all languages. In some languages, varying the length of articulatory segments is merely a matter of style or random variation, rather than a distinctive feature of the phonological system. The analysis of distinctively long vowels in British English provides an example of how different approaches may lead to varied phonemic systems and numbers of phonemes.

One approach treats long vowels as separate vowel phonemes, with relative length being just one distinguishing feature. Another analysis views long vowels as sequences of two corresponding short vowels, with differences in quality being conditioned by the surrounding environment. A third approach assigns phonemic status to length itself, symbolized by additional marks, to represent both long and short versions of the same vowel phoneme.

Each of these analyses has its merits and drawbacks. The first approach employs more phonemes and symbols, highlighting differences in quality, but may obscure relationships between vowel pairs. The second approach simplifies the phonemic inventory but may overlook qualitative distinctions. The third approach strikes a balance by marking length without implying equivalence between long and short vowels. It is commonly used for broad transcriptions of British English.

In addition to vowel length, stress plays a crucial role in distinguishing lexically distinct forms in English. Linguists differ on the number of distinctive stress degrees required for analysis, with some recognizing three degrees in addition to absence of stress. The difference in the number of stress degrees between British and American English reflects theoretical differences in analysis.

Clear and Dark L: In English, the /l/ sound can have different qualities depending on its position in a word. For example, in words like "lip," "little," and "light," the /l/ sound is pronounced with the front of the tongue raised towards the hard palate, known as a *clear* /l/. However, in words like "full," "milk," and "old," the /l/ sound is pronounced with the back of the tongue raised towards the soft palate, known as a *dark* /l/. These differences in

pronunciation are allophonic and can occur in complementary distribution, depending on the surrounding sounds.

Fricative and Flapped /r/: In certain varieties of English, such as American English, the /r/ sound can be pronounced differently depending on its position in a word. For example, in words like "very" and "merry," the /r/ sound is pronounced as a f*ricative* [ɹ], produced with a continuous airflow and friction. However, in words like "writer" and "party," the /r/ sound is pronounced as a *flapped* [ɾ], produced with a quick tap of the tongue against the alveolar ridge. These variations are allophonic and can occur in free variation depending on the speaker and dialect.

Varieties of the Vowel /ɑ/: The vowel /ɑ/ in English can exhibit three slightly different qualities depending on its position in a word and the surrounding sounds. For example, in words like "china" and "color," the /ɑ/ sound is pronounced as a lower *central vowel* [ɑ], especially in utterance-final position. However, in words like "again" and "salad," the /ɑ/ sound is pronounced as a higher and rather *back vowel* [ɔ], especially when adjacent to a /k/ or /g/ sound. These variations are allophonic and can occur in complementary distribution based on the phonological environment.

In phonetic transcription, the length of sounds can be indicated using various symbols and diacritics. Here are some examples of how the length of sounds is shown in transcription:

1. Vowel Length*:*

- *Long Vowels:* Long vowels are typically represented by doubling the symbol of the corresponding short vowel. For example:
- Short vowel /æ/ in "cat" is represented as [æ].
- Long vowel /æː/ in "mad" is represented as [æː].
- *Diacritics:* Alternatively, a length diacritic, usually a colon [:], can be added after the vowel symbol to indicate length. For example:
- Short vowel /æ/ in "cat" is represented as [æ].
- Long vowel /æː/ in "mad" is represented as [æː].

2. Consonant Length*:*

- *Gemination:* Consonant length, or gemination, is indicated by doubling the consonant symbol. For example:
- Single consonant /t/ in "pat" is represented as [t].
- Geminate consonant /tː/ in "bitter" is represented as [tː].
- *Diacritics:* Alternatively, a length diacritic, such as a colon [:], can be placed after the consonant symbol to indicate gemination. For example:

- Single consonant /t/ in "pat" is represented as [t].
- Geminate consonant /t:/ in "bitter" is represented as [tː].

3. ***Stress and Length****:* Stress and length can also be indicated together in transcription. For example:

- The stressed syllable in "banana" is /bəˈnæ.nə/, where the primary stress is indicated by the stress mark (ˈ), and the length of the first syllable vowel is shown by the absence of a length diacritic.

"feet":

/fiːt/: The transcription indicates that the vowel sound in "feet" is a long /iː/ sound, represented by the symbol [iː]. The consonants /f/ and /t/ remain the same as their basic symbols.

"food":

/fuːd/: In "food," the vowel sound is also long, represented by /uː/. The consonants /f/ and /d/ are represented by their basic symbols.

"car":

/kɑːr/: The transcription for "car" shows that the vowel sound is long, represented by /ɑː/. The consonants /k/ and /r/ are represented by their basic symbols.

In all three words, the long vowel sounds are indicated by using the colon [:] diacritic after the vowel symbols (/iː/, /uː/, /ɑː/). The consonants are represented by their basic symbols without any additional diacritics because they are not lengthened in these words.

Furthermore, all languages use extra-loud contrastive or emphatic stress on specific words or parts of words. While some linguists do not consider this a separate phoneme, it nonetheless contributes to the overall emphasis and meaning of utterances.

In summary, phonemes of stress and length, categorized as suprasegmental phonemes, complement segmental consonant and vowel phonemes by characterizing features beyond individual segments.

The Syllable

A syllable is a unit of sound in a word, typically containing a vowel sound and usually including one or more consonant sounds that precede or follow the vowel. Syllables are the building blocks of words and are essential for understanding the rhythm and structure of spoken language.

Examples of types of syllables in English:

1. *Closed Syllable:* A closed syllable ends with a consonant sound, making the vowel sound short.

- Example: "cat" (/kæt/), "sit" (/sɪt/), "box" (/bɒks/)

2. *Open Syllable:* An open syllable ends with a vowel sound, allowing the vowel to be long.

- Example: "go" (/ɡoʊ/), "hi" (/haɪ/), "me" (/miː/)

3. *Vowel-Consonant-e Syllable (VCE):* This syllable pattern consists of a vowel followed by a consonant and a silent "e" at the end, which typically makes the vowel long.

- Example: "cake" (/keɪk/), "bike" (/baɪk/), "cute" (/kjuːt/)

4. *Consonant-L-E Syllable (CLE):* In this pattern, a consonant comes before an "l" and a silent "e," often resulting in a long vowel sound.

- Example: "table" (/teɪbəl/), "able" (/eɪbəl/), "riddle" (/rɪdəl/)

5. *Final Stable Syllable:* This syllable pattern consists of a consonant-vowel-consonant sequence at the end of a word, often resulting in a stable vowel sound.

- Example: "table" (/teɪbəl/), "trouble" (/trʌbəl/), "little" (/lɪtəl/)

These examples demonstrate the different types of syllables found in English words and how their structures influence the pronunciation of vowels and consonants.

Explore additional examples of syllables categorized by their number:

1. One-Syllable Words:

- Examples: cat, dog, hat, pen, sun
- Rate of Presence: One-syllable words make up a significant portion of the English vocabulary, constituting approximately 90% of all English words.

2. Two-Syllable Words:

- Examples: happy, table, kitten, flower, rabbit
- Rate of Presence: Two-syllable words are also quite common in English and make up about 7-8% of the total English vocabulary.

3. Three-Syllable Words:

- Examples: umbrella, elephant, strawberry, computer, October
- Rate of Presence: Three-syllable words are less common than one- and two-syllable words, comprising approximately 2-3% of the English vocabulary.

4. Four-Syllable Words:

- Examples: chocolate, telephone, butterfly, television, strawberry

- Rate of Presence: Four-syllable words are relatively rare compared to shorter words and make up around 1% or less of the total English vocabulary.

While one- and two-syllable words dominate the English language, longer words with three or more syllables are less common but still play important roles in communication and expression.

A glide in English pronunciation refers to a semi-vowel sound produced when the articulators move smoothly from one vowel sound to another or from a consonant sound to a vowel sound. Glides are also known as semivowels or approximants. They are produced with minimal constriction in the vocal tract, resulting in a smooth transition between sounds.

Examples of glides in English include:

1. The initial sound in "yes" [jɛs]
2. The initial sound in "you" [ju]
3. The final sound in "boy" [bɔɪ]
4. The final sound in "play" [pleɪ]

In these examples, the sounds [j] and [w] act as glides, transitioning smoothly between other sounds in the word.

The Vowels

In the English language there are only five vowels: ***A, E, O, I*** and ***U.***

Y and ***W*** sometimes act as a vowel.

For example, "Y" at the beginning of words, like *yellow,* is a consonant, but *'y'* at the end of the word is a vowel, like *sunny* and *baby.*

There are *20 vowel sounds* in English.

They are made by *opening our mouth more and allowing the flow of air,* without closing any parts of the throat or mouth. When two vowels are put together to make a sound, we call it a *vowel digraph*. For example, r**ea**d, b**oa**t, f**oo**t, m**oo**n, and r**ai**n.

Every English word contains a vowel. These can be pure vowels (short and long vowel sounds) or glide vowels (diphthongs).

The Consonants

The 21 consonants are b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z.

There are *24 consonant sounds.* They are made by *blocking air flow in some* kind of *way* using our tongue, lips, teeth or the roof of our mouth. *Voiced Consonants:* voiced sounds are produced with the vocal cords, for example, ***B, D, G, J, L, M, N, Ng, R, Sz, Th.*** *Unvoiced or Voiceless Consonants:* whispery sound without pitch, for example, ***Ch, F, K, P, S, Sh, T,*** and ***Th.*** When two consonants are

put together to make a sound, we call it a consonant digraph. For example, nephew, chip, phone, and bath.

Table 4. English vowels, diphthongs and glides

Short Vowel Sounds	Long Vowel Sounds	Diphthongs/Glide Vowels
/e/ -went, bet, dead, bed	/ɔː/ -law, bought, talk	/eɪ/ -face, rain, they
/ɒ/ -hot, pot, not, cloth	/iː/ -beat, seat, meet	/ɪə/ -near, fear, beer
/ə/-even, the, sofa	/ɜː/ -bird, heard, word	/ʊə/ -cure, tour, pure
/ɪ/ -bit, sit, give	/uː/ -food, mood, who	/ɔɪ/ -choice, boy, coin
/ʊ/ -put, push, took	/ɑː/ -father, car, start	/eə/ -square, air, care
/ʌ/ -but, money, nut		/aɪ/ -price, my, light
/æ/ -bat, cat, have		/aʊ/ -mouth, now, out
		/əʊ/ -goat, show, no

Types of consonant sounds

• *Stop Consonants:* airflow is stopped by the mouth and released, (p, b, t, d).

• *Fricative Consonants:* airflow has only a small space to travel, making it sound noisier, (f, v, s, z etc.).

• *Nasal Consonants:* airflow passes through the noise instead of the mouth, (m, n,).

• *Affricate Consonants:* begins like a stop consonant but ends with a fricative, (the "ch sound" /ʧ/ and "j sound" /ʤ).

• *Glide Consonants:* similar to a vowel sound in which the air is stopped, but not as much as the fricative or stop consonants, (w, j).

Places of articulation

The place where the sounds are produced for consonants are as follows:

1. *Bilabial sounds:* sounds made with two lips (p, b, m)

2. *Labia-dental sounds:* sounds (f, v), made with the lower lips and upper front teeth

3. *Dental sounds:* sounds produced with the tips of the tongue and upper front teeth contact (l, t, d, and n)

4. *Alveolar sounds:* sounds made by the touch of the tip of the tongue to the alveolar ridge (t, n and d)

5. *Palatal sounds:* sounds made when the tongue's blade strikes the hard palate (j)

6. *Velar sounds:* requires the back of the tongue and soft palate to come into touch with each other (k, g, ŋ)

7. *Glottal sounds:* the sound made in the larynx (h)

PVM Chart: English			PLACE							
			LABIAL		CORONAL				DORSAL	
	MANNER	VOICING	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
OBSTRUENTS	Stop	Voiceless	p			t			k	ʔ
		Voiced	b			d			g	
	Fricative	Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ			h
		Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ			
	Affricate	Voiceless					tʃ			
		Voiced					dʒ			
SONORANTS	Nasal	Voiced	m			n			ŋ	
	LIQUID Lateral	Voiced				l				
	LIQUID Rhotic	Voiced					ɹ			
	Glide	Voiced	w					j	w	

Figure 5. Types of English consonants

There are more types of phonetic theories like: articulatory, acoustic, descriptive, experimental, and phonological phonetics. These theories collectively provide insights into the production, transmission, and perception of speech sounds, contributing to our understanding of language and communication.

In schools, teachers primarily use descriptive phonetics and phonological theory to help students understand and produce speech sounds accurately. Descriptive phonetics involves teaching students the sounds of the language, often using the *International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)* to transcribe and describe them systematically. *Phonological theory* helps students understand the underlying patterns and rules governing how sounds behave in different linguistic contexts, such as how certain sounds change depending on their position in a word or the sounds around them. By combining these approaches, teachers can provide students with a solid foundation in phonetics and phonology, enabling them to improve their pronunciation, reading, and overall language skills.

? Task 1. Multiple Choice Questions: Overview of Descriptive Linguistics

1. According to the text, what is the main purpose of descriptive linguistics?

a. To analyze and explain the English language for language teaching and learning.

b. To track shifts in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.

c. To develop effective teaching materials and strategies for learners' needs.

d. To understand and document how languages change and develop over time.

2. Which linguist proposed the concept of the "phoneme"?

a. Edward Sapir; b. William Labov; c. Noam Chomsky; d. Rita Mae Brown

3. What is the function of glides in English pronunciation?

a. To smoothly transition between vowel sounds or from a consonant sound to a vowel sound.

b. To distinguish lexically distinct forms in English through stress and length.

c. To represent variations of the same phoneme or sound in a language.

d. To indicate the length of sounds in transcription using symbols and diacritics.

4. Based on the information provided, what is the relationship between phonetics and phonology?

a. Phonetics is the study of individual speech sounds, while phonology focuses on the organization and patterns of these sounds in language.

b. Phonetics and phonology are two terms that refer to the same concept in linguistics.

c. Phonetics is a subfield of phonology that specifically deals with vowel sounds.

d. Phonology is a subfield of phonetics that focuses on the physical production of speech sounds.

5. How does descriptive linguistics contribute to language documentation and cultural understanding?

a. By studying the structure and use of language in its natural form

b. By analyzing and explaining the English language for language teaching and learning
c. By tracking shifts in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar
d. By understanding how languages change and develop over time

? Task 2. Short Answer Questions

1. How do segmental phonemes contribute to effective communication and language learning?
2. What are the different types of syllables in English and how do they influence pronunciation?
3. How does the study of descriptive linguistics contribute to other fields such as language documentation, translation, interpretation, speech technology, and cultural understanding?

? Task 3. Reflect, Explore and Answer

1. Reflect on the importance of descriptive linguistics in language study. How do you think understanding key aspects such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics can improve your own language skills?
2. Explore the different types of syllables found in English words and how they influence the pronunciation of vowels and consonants. Can you identify any examples of closed syllables, open syllables, vowel-consonant- syllables, consonant-l- syllables, or final stable syllables in words you commonly use? How does understanding syllable patterns help with reading and pronunciation?

Useful Links:

1. https://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/english/features/pronunciation-voiceless-consonants/vlessconst8 (**The Sounds of English)**

2. https://campusweb.howardcc.edu/ehicks/YE618/Mastering%20American%20Pronunciation/Voiced_Voiceless_Sounds/Voiced_Voiceless_Sounds_print.html (**Voiced and Voiceless Consonants** Syllables and Word Endings)

UNDERSTANDING MORPHOLOGY: WORDS, MORPHEMES, AND STRUCTURE

Introduction to morphology
Words and morphemes
Derivational and inflectional morphology

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Grasp the concept of morphology and understand its role in linguistics
- Differentiate between types of morphemes (free vs. bound, inflectional vs. derivational)
- Identify and analyze word structures in various languages, focusing on morphological differences
- Apply morphological analysis to understand word formation and language classification

Lesson Prompt:

"Think of a word in any language you know that changes form based on tense, number, or case. Share the word and its different forms with the class. What does this variation tell us about the morphological structure of the language?"

Introduction to Morphology

Morphology is a branch of linguistics focused on the study of the structure and form of words in a language. It examines how words are formed from the smallest units of meaning, known as *morphemes.* Understanding morphology is essential for understanding how languages encode meaning at the word level, which in turn affects everything from grammar and syntax to semantics and linguistic evolution.

Words and morphemes

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

"Languages differ more in morphology than in syntax. The variety is so great that no simple scheme will classify languages as to their morphology. One such scheme distinguishes analytic languages, which use few bound forms, from synthetic, which use many. At one extreme is a completely analytic language, like modern Chinese, where each word is a one-syllable morpheme or compound word or phrase-word; at the other, a

highly synthetic language like Eskimo, which unites long strings into single words (...). This distinction, however, except for cases at the former extreme, is relative; any one language may be in some respects more analytic, but in other respects more synthetic, than some other language."
(Bloomfield 1933:207)

When we talk about *words* and how they're structured, it might seem straightforward at first. But, as we dive deeper, things get a bit complicated. Let's try to make sense of it in a way that's easy to understand, keeping the examples in mind. Imagine you're looking at a page in a book and someone asks you, "How many words are on this page?" You might start counting each word, thinking about whether things like "we'd" should count as one word or two because of the contraction. You'd probably not think about how many times you counted the word "the" or any other word that appears more than once.

Now, let's switch things and think about the words in a dictionary or the number of Spanish words you know. Here, you wouldn't count "dog" and "dogs" as two separate words. Instead, you'd think of them as the same word just in different forms. In linguistics, this idea of *a word* in its base form is called ***a lexeme***. Lexemes can be more than just single words; they can be phrases like "set up" or idioms like "to penny pinch" where you can't really break down the meaning into its parts.

So, lexemes are like the base model of a word, and we use special notations, like small capitals in texts, to talk about them. For example, when we write "read" in small capitals, we're talking about the action of reading in all its forms, like "reads," "reading," and so on.

Words can be tricky because they can do different things depending on the sentence. For example, in "He is thinking about Mary," "thinking" is a verbal participle, indicating an action which is ongoing; in "Bill was overly fond of thinking" the same form is a **gerund**, i.e. it functions as a noun (we could substitute, for example, "football" or "jam" for" thinking" and the sentence would remain grammatical). Here we need to distinguish a third sense of **word**, i.e. a **grammatical** or **morphosyntactic word**.

Defining what exactly a word is can be surprisingly difficult. We often think of a word as something that stands alone because of spaces on a page. But this doesn't really work all the time. For instance, not all languages even write words down with spaces, and spaces don't always match up with how we speak.

Linguists have tried different ways to define a word. One idea is that if you can use it by itself in answer to a question, it's a word. But some words we use all the time, like "the" or "a," don't fit this definition very well. One criterion offered by Bloomfield is that a word should be a **minimal free form**: *John*, *houses*, *riding*, *hopeless*, for example, all qualify as "words" because they could occur as one-word answers to a question ("What are you doing?" – "Riding"; "How's your arithmetic?" – "Hopeless!"). But this poses problems because some items which we would probably like to think of as words fail this criterion. In English, these would include "functional" items such as the articles *a* and *the*, or the subject pronouns:

Who's there?

- Me.

- I

Another idea is whether you can put other words in between parts of what you might think of as a word (separability criterion): *the dog* should be seen as a sequence of two words because adjectives, for example, can be interspersed between them, e.g. *the great big lovable old dog*. But this criterion proves no more watertight: *broad beans,* for example, looks like two words because *broad* and *beans* can both occur independently in other contexts (it's as **broad** as it's long; "Mum! I managed to sell the cow for some magic **beans**!"), but we cannot separate the two elements (broad big beans; how broad are your beans?), suggesting that they form a single lexical unit. This helps sometimes, but not always, like with the phrase "broad beans" which seems like two words but doesn't quite act like it.

Some people have even tried to use *stress criterion* patterns in speech or the possibility of pausing as ways to define words, but these methods have problems too. For example, "blackbird" is one word rather than two because, unlike "black bird," it carries only one main stress. This pattern works for a whole range of items, such as "thorough," "achieve," and "resist," but it would rule out many items that do not normally bear stress, such as "a," "the," "he," and "it." Additionally, not all languages have word-level stress; for instance, in French, stress is placed on the last syllable of the rhythm group, which may consist of several "words" based on other criteria. By whatever criteria we apply, then, some meaningful linguistic items look more like "words" than others: for this reason, it is often more productive to look at meaning-bearing elements, or **morphemes**. A word like *internationalization*, for example, seems naturally divisible into five elements: inter+nation+al+iz+ation.

The second, [nation], derives from a **free morpheme**, namely the noun *nation* which can occur independently (*a powerful nation,* etc.). The rest are **bound morphemes**, which can only occur as parts of bigger units and not on their own: *inter-* is a prefix conveying the notion of "between" in a range of adjectives (*interactive*, *interpersonal*, *interplanetary*), verbs (*interpose*, *interact*) and nouns (*interpol*, *interface*); *-al* is a grammatical suffix frequently used to derive adjectives from nouns (*structural*, *financial*, *orbital*); *-ize/ise* is a verbal suffix used to derive verbs, while *-ation* is an abstract noun suffix (*rationalization*, *penetration*, *realization*). That being said, **morphemes**, are minimal meaning-bearing units, uniting an arbitrary form and meaning or grammatical function. As we have seen, a distinction is usually made between **inflectional** morphemes and **derivational** morphemes.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Morphology: the study of word structure

Derivational morphology is concerned with the creation of new words.

Inflectional morphology involves the marking of grammatical categories (for example: number, tense or gender).

Derivation

• Languages may either borrow new lexical items from other languages, or create them from existing resources (derivation).

• *Derivation involving* bound morphemes is called affixation; word creation using free morphemes is known as compounding.

Derivational Morphology

All living languages are always growing, bringing in new words. This growth can happen in different ways. One common method is known as borrowing. This means a language picks up words from another language and starts using them, changing these new words to match its own sound and word-building patterns. For example, English has borrowed the word *ballet* from (French), *piano* (Italian), *robot* (Czech), *shampoo* (Hindi); *kangaroo* (Guugu Yimidhirr: North Queensland, Australia); *entrepreneur* (French); *rucksack* (German). In Romanian, a notable borrowed word is *weekend* taken directly from (English), or *iaurt* (Turkish) showcasing how terms often cross language boundaries seamlessly.

Another way to make **(derive**) new words is by using what the language already has (language`s existing lexical resources), like adding bits to the start

or end of a word, *bound morphemes* (think of prefixes and suffixes= **affixation**) or by combining whole words together, *free morphemes* **(compounding**). The bits and pieces used for this process are called word-building blocks. English has a lot of these, especially prefixes and suffixes:

Table 5. Some English affixes

Affix Type	**Affix**	**Examples**
Prefix	un-	unready, unprepared, unskilled, unattractive, undo, unfasten, unravel
Prefix	pre-	pre-existing, prenuptial, precondition, preschool
Prefix	trans-	transnational, transaction, trans-Siberian, transplant
Prefix	pan-	pan-European, pantheistic, pancultural
Suffix	-ize,-ise	empathize, realize, anaesthetize, bowdlerize
Suffix	-er, -or	adviser, captor, equalizer, thinker, bowler
Suffix	-ist	pianist, classicist, realist, esperantist, perfectionist
Suffix	-er; -est	wiser, wisest; bigger, biggest; slower, slowest
Suffix	-wise	workwise, timewise, lengthwise, anticlockwise

Prefixes in English, unlike suffixes, almost never change word class: there are a few, generally unproductive, exceptions such as *a-* which derives the adjectives *ablaze*, *awash* and *abuzz* from the nouns *blaze*, *wash* and *buzz*, and the verbal prefix *en-* in *enrage*, *enamour*, *entangle*. Not all languages restrict the functions of prefixes in this way.

In the case of ***compounding***, the elements combined are free rather than bound morphemes, but the meaning is often not reducible to that of the combined elements. Examples from English include *freefall* (vb.), *double-dip* (adj.), and *firewall* (n.), but Germanic languages are well known for using compounds to a much greater degree than would be acceptable in English, for example, Swedish *jarnvagsstation* (literally "iron way's station"), "railway station", or German *Arbeitsbeschaffungsmasnahme* (literally "work creation measure"), "job creation scheme".

When learning English, learners create new words often comes from how they understand the building blocks of words, *called morphemes*, to have specific meanings, just like they do those of full lexemes. However, there's a curious group of morphemes that don't seem to mean anything on their own except when they're part of certain words. These are called **cranberry**

morphemes, named after the word "cranberry," where "cran-" doesn't stand for anything outside of this word. Look at these examples:

- straw+berry
- black+berry
- goose+berry
- blue+berry
- cran+berry

Here, it seems like we're mixing two recognizable morphemes, but "cran" doesn't mean anything by itself. Another example is "lukewarm," where "luke-" modifies "warm" and comes from an old English word for “tepid”, but it's not used with this meaning in any other lexeme.

Learners not only pick up a list of these word-building blocks but also learn the rules for how they can be mixed together. They learn where to put prefixes and suffixes and understand that these bits can only go with certain types of words.

Take "uncontrollableness," for example.

It splits into "un+control+able+ness." Here, "control" must first pair with "able" to make "controllable" because the prefix "un-" goes with adjectives and verbs, not nouns. So, the correct form is "uncontrollable+ness," not "un+controllableness."

While many patterns in word creation are consistent, a lot is learned piece by piece. For instance, the suffix "-ness," which turns words into abstract nouns, is similar to "-ity." Some people might say "uncontrollability" instead of "uncontrollableness," and internet searches show a preference for one over the other in different cases. A quick Google search gave around 25,000 hits for *uncontrollableness*, but 241,000 for *uncontrollability,* and *unfathomableness* gave 41,600 hits as opposed to only 10,700 for *unfathomability.* The same highly unscientific test suggested a preference for *unremarkableness* over *unremarkability* but a strong preference the other way for *predictability* over *predictableness*. Similarly, there is no obvious reason why the antonyms of *complete* and *capable* are *incomplete* and *incapable* while those of *conscious* and *comfortable* are *unconscious* and *uncomfortable*: this is simply an arbitrary fact about present-day English. There's no clear reason why we have "incomplete" and "incapable" but "unconscious" and "uncomfortable"; it's just how English works right now.

Word creation shows many areas where the form or meaning can shift. For example, "-phobia" has a negative connotation in "xenophobia" and

"homophobia" that it doesn't have in "claustrophobia" or "agoraphobia." Also, while some insist on keeping "disinterested" and "uninterested" distinct, for many people these words mean the same thing.

Inflectional Morphology

As was mentioned earlier when discussing *lexemes*, sometimes different word forms are seen as variations of the same base word due to certain rules. For instance, in a dictionary, "book" and "books" are considered forms of the same word, with "books" simply being the plural of "book." The meaning of the plural form is easily inferred from the singular; knowing "book" lets you understand what "books" refers to.

The process of changing words to indicate grammatical categories, without creating new words, falls under **inflectional morphology**. It is crucial for learners to understand how English modifies words to express grammatical functions such as tense, number, and case. These changes follow specific grammatical rules. In English, nouns, especially those that can be counted, show number through singular and plural forms, although some may change irregularly (like "child" becoming "children"). Verbs in English change to show tense, aspect, and person. Taking "decide" as an example, it can appear in different forms to express these grammatical distinctions:

1 decide (infinitive; all present tenses except the third person)

2 decide**s** (third person, present tense)

3 decid**ing** (present progressive/present participle/gerund)

4 decid**ed** (past tense/past participle/passive participle)

The morpheme (marked in bold) which marks the particular grammatical function in question is often referred to as the **exponent**, thus *-ed* above is the exponent of <past> in English for *decide* and many other regular verbs. Languages differ considerably in the richness of their inflectional morphology. **Isolating** languages, for example, Mandarin or Vietnamese, have little or no inflectional morphology; the concept of “plural” in Mandarin, for example, has to be deduced from context (*one dog*, *two dog*, *many dog,* and so on) and is not marked on the noun itself. Romanian or Latin, by contrast, are examples of highly **inflecting** languages. Nominal inflection in Romanian, which includes changes to nouns to indicate aspects like number (singular or plural) and case (for example, nominative, accusative, genitive, dative), let's consider the noun "carte" (book) as an example. This table will show how "carte" changes form based on number and case:

Table 6. Nominal inflection in Romanian

Case/Number	**Singular**	**Plural**
Nominative/Accusative	carte	cărți
Genitive/Dative	cărții	cărților

In English, the way we change words to show different meanings (called inflectional morphology) has its own set of rules and limits, especially when you compare it to languages like Romanian. Let's look closely at how English does this and see how it's different from Romanian, keeping in mind that these changes are all based on clear grammar rules.

1. Tense and Aspect in Verbs

English verbs are inflected for tense and aspect, with markers for past tense (-ed for regular verbs) and present participle (-ing).

Example: "walk" becomes "walked" (past tense) and "walking" (present participle). In contrast, Romanian verbs undergo more extensive inflection to denote tense, mood, and aspect. For example, the verb "a merge" (to go) changes as follows: "merg" (I go), "mergeam" (I was going), "am mers" (I went).

2. Pluralization of Nouns

English typically adds -s or -es to form the plural. Example: "cat" becomes "cats"; "box" becomes "boxes".

Romanian, on the other hand, has a variety of plural endings based on the gender and the ending of the noun in its singular form, such as "pisică" (cat) becoming "pisici" and "cutie" (box) becoming "cutii".

3. Possessive Case

English uses an apostrophe followed by -s (or just an apostrophe after plural nouns ending in -s) to indicate possession. Example: "the girl's book" or "the girls' books". Romanian expresses possession through a variety of means, including possessive pronouns and suffixes, without an equivalent to the English possessive's. For instance, "cartea fetei" (the girl's book) uses the genitive case of "fată" (girl) - "fetei".

4. Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs

English forms the comparative and superlative of adjectives and adverbs by adding -er and -est or by using "more" and "most" for words of more than one syllable. Example: "tall" becomes "taller" (comparative) and "tallest" (superlative). Romanian adjectives and adverbs are inflected for comparative

and superlative forms, often with completely different words or by adding more contextually descriptive words. For example, "înalt" (tall) becomes "mai înalt" (taller) and "cel mai înalt" (the tallest).

Main Particularities

Limited Inflection: English has relatively limited inflection compared to Romanian, with fewer variations for gender, case, and number.

Regular vs. Irregular: While both languages have regular and irregular forms, English's irregular forms (e.g., go/went, mouse/mice) can be particularly challenging for learners due to the lack of a clear pattern, unlike Romanian's more systematic approach to inflection.

Function Words: English often relies on auxiliary verbs and prepositions to express grammatical relationships that are conveyed through inflection in Romanian.

Knowing how English and languages like Romanian differ in changing word forms to express different meanings can be quite a challenge for learners. This is because the rules for modifying words can vary a lot between languages. It's crucial for learners, especially those from Romanian or similar languages with more complex rules for word changes, to really understand how English handles these changes.

Allomorphs

Allomorphs are different shapes or versions of a word part (called a morpheme) that change in sound depending on where they're used, but keep the same meaning or function in a sentence. A morpheme is the smallest unit in a language that carries meaning. Imagine you have a word part that means something, but it can look a little different depending on where it's used or what words it's used with. These different looks are the allomorphs.

For example, the plural ending for nouns in English can be pronounced differently but represents the same idea of "more than one." So, the "s" in "cats" sounds like /s/, in "dogs" it sounds like /z/, and in "horses" it's /ɪz/. All these different sounds are allomorphs of the plural morpheme in English because they all show plurality but change form to fit the word they are attached to. The three allomorphs are, furthermore, in complementary distribution: |s| is used after voiceless consonants (e.g. caps, bets, bricks, coughs), |z| after voiced ones (beds, ribs, logs, lathes) and |iz| after the sibilants or ‘hissing sounds’ /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/ like in (mazes, wishes, matches). We can describe /s/, /z/ and /iz/ as three allomorphs of the

morpheme <plural>, although we should note here that we are using morpheme here in a slightly more abstract sense than hitherto: to avoid terminological confusion where the distinction is important some linguists reserve the term 'morpheme' for the abstract representation of a particular grammatical value (e.g. <plural> for the category of "number"), and use the term morph (or allomorph) for its actual realization.

The concept of allomorphs introduces complexity into the study of morphemes, particularly when dealing with *discontinuous morphemes*. Discontinuous morphemes are those that are not represented by a single, continuous string of sounds but rather are broken up and found in different parts of a word. For learners of a language, understanding and mastering the use of discontinuous morphemes can be particularly challenging. This is because the cognitive process of associating separated linguistic elements with a single grammatical function or meaning is more demanding than learning continuous morphemes.

An example of a discontinuous morpheme in English involves the formation of questions using auxiliary verbs. The question form in English often requires the inversion of the subject and the auxiliary verb, as well as the addition of *do/does/did* for simple present and simple past tenses in the absence of another auxiliary. This process is a morphological operation that affects the structure of the sentence to indicate a question but does so in a way that is not tied to a single, continuous morpheme. Another example of continuous morpheme is the following irregular plurals in English: *mouse – mice*, *foot – feet*, *tooth – teeth*, *man – men*, *louse – lice.* Though this fact is somewhat disguised by the orthography in the case of *louse/lice* and *mouse/mice*, all these examples involve monosyllabic items in which a vowel change occurs in the nucleus position in the plural, but the onset and coda are left unchanged.

The morpheme/allomorph distinction parallels that of phoneme and allophone at the phonological level. Allomorphs may, like allophones, be in complementary distribution, each occurring in a particular environment: this is the case, for example, for regular plural noun suffixes in English, the distribution of which is determined by the final consonant of the noun.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Classifying languages

Linguists have informally classified languages on the basis of their morphological structure:

• *Isolating languages* (e.g. Chinese) have no bound morphemes.

• *Agglutinating languages* (e.g. Turkish) have words built from morphemes with a single meaning or grammatical function.

• *Inflecting languages* (e.g. Romanian) use bound morphemes to mark several grammatical categories.

• *Polysynthetic languages* (e.g. Inuit) build "sentence-words" out of bound morphemes rather than constructing sentences from free ones, as for example in English.

As with the analytic/synthetic distinction, differences between languages are relative rather than absolute, and languages may combine elements of more than category.

? Task 1. Multiple Choice Questions: Overview of English Morphological Aspects

1. According to the text, what is one way in which English and Romanian differ in terms of inflectional morphology?

a. English has more variations for gender, case, and number than Romanian.

b. Romanian uses prefixes and suffixes to express grammatical relationships, while English relies on auxiliary verbs and prepositions.

c. English forms the comparative and superlative of adjectives and adverbs by adding -er and -est, while Romanian uses different words or adds contextually descriptive words.

d. Romanian has a limited number of allomorphs, while English has multiple allomorphs for each morpheme.

2. What is the function of inflectional morphology in English?

a. To create new words by borrowing from other languages.

b. To change word forms to indicate grammatical categories like tense, number, and case.

c. To modify words to express different meanings through the use of allomorphs.

d. To classify languages based on their morphological structure.

3. Based on the information provided in the text, what can be concluded about the relationship between morphology and word creation?

a. Morphology has no impact on word creation in any language.
b. Languages with more complex inflectional morphology have fewer ways to create new words.
c. Derivation is the only method of word creation that involves morphology.
d. Languages use different morphological processes to create new words.

a. **How does the concept of allomorphs introduce complexity into the study of morphemes?**

a. Allomorphs are different shapes or versions of a word part that change in meaning depending on where they're used.
b. Allomorphs are different shapes or versions of a word part that change in sound depending on where they're used.
c. Allomorphs are different shapes or versions of a word part that have the same meaning regardless of where they're used.
d. Allomorphs are different shapes or versions of a word part that have no impact on the study of morphemes.

5. According to the text, what is one way in which English and Romanian differ in terms of word creation?

a. English primarily creates new words through borrowing from other languages, while Romanian relies on compounding.
b. English uses prefixes and suffixes to create new words, while Romanian primarily uses affixation.
c. English has a larger number of word-building blocks (prefixes and suffixes) compared to Romanian.
d. Romanian has more irregularities in word creation compared to English.

? Task 2. Answer the Questions:

✓ What are morphemes, and how do they differ between free and bound morphemes? Provide an example of each from the lecture.

✓ What are cranberry morphemes, and why are they significant in the study of English morphology?

✓ How do inflectional and derivational morphology differ, and what impact do they have on word formation in English? Please provide an example of each from the lecture to support your explanation.

? Task 3. Take a look at the list of words and phrases that vary in complexity, including compounds, words with prefixes and suffixes, and examples of inflectional morphology.

-Analyze each word to determine how it was formed. Specifically, identify whether the word is the result of compounding, prefixation, suffixation, or an example of inflectional change. For each word, briefly explain the morphological process involved and, if applicable, identify the root word and the added morpheme(s).

List of Words for Analysis: underestimate, misinterpretation, unbelievably, counterculture, biodegradable, antidisestablishmentarianism, simplification, irreplaceable, disenfranchisement, interconnectedness.

? Task 4. Match each key term with the correct definition:

1. Lexemes	A. The process of creating new words by adding prefixes or suffixes to existing ones.
2. Inflection	B. The modification of a word to express different grammatical categories such as tense, mood, voice, aspect, person, number, gender, or case.
3. Derivation	C. The smallest grammatical unit in a language that carries meaning.
4. Allomorphs	D. Variant forms of a morpheme that appear in different phonological or morphological environments.
5. Morphemes	E. Morphemes that can stand alone as words.
6. Bound Morphemes	F. Morphemes that cannot stand alone and must be attached to another morpheme.
7. Free Morphemes	G. The study of the form and structure of words in a language, including their morphemes and
8. Morphology	H. The base form of a word before any inflectional changes.

Key Words and their definitions:

Morphology (noun)

the study of word structure

Example Sentence: The linguist specialized in morphology, analyzing the formation and meaning of words.

Lexeme (noun)
the base form of a word that includes all its inflected forms
Example Sentence: In English, 'run' is a lexeme that includes 'runs', 'ran', and 'running'.

Inflectional (adjective)
relating to the modification of words to indicate grammatical categories without creating new words
Example Sentence: English verbs undergo inflectional changes for tense, aspect, and person.

Derivation (noun)
the creation of new words by adding affixes or combining existing resources
Example Sentence: The English language has borrowed many words through derivation from other languages.

Allomorphs (noun)
different shapes or versions of a morpheme that change in sound depending on their use but maintain the same meaning or function
Example Sentence: The plural morpheme in English has three allomorphs: /s/, /z/, and /ɪz/.

Useful Links:

1. https://literaryenglish.com/types-of-morphemes-free-vs-bound-morphemes/ (Types of morphemes)
2. https://youtu.be/sifW8kGrNyc?si=5hZ8c6UDKHddyvzs (The difference between morphemes and allomorphs)

Scan the QR Codes:

SYNTAX AND GRAMMAR: STRUCTURING LANGUAGE

Introduction of syntax
Explore grammar and syntax
Approaches in English grammar
Sentence formation

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Grasp the basic concepts and significance of morphology in language structure
- Learn what syntax is, its importance, and how it functions within language
- Identify and analyze parts of speech, word phrases and sentence structure
- Understand the interaction between morphology and syntax in constructing meaningful sentences

> *"Colorless green ideas sleep furiously"*
>
> This sentence is famously constructed by Chomsky to demonstrate the distinction between *syntax* (sentence structure) and *semantics* (meaning). This sentence is grammatically correct, showcasing Chomsky's point that a sentence can be syntactically valid but semantically nonsensical, thus illustrating the importance of studying syntax as an independent component of language.
>
> **(Noam Chomsky "Syntactic Structures", 1957)**

Introduction

Syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing sentences in languages. It examines how words and morphological elements come together to form coherent and structurally sound sentences. Syntax provides the framework within which words are organized to convey meaning effectively. Understanding syntax helps linguists and language learners alike to grasp how different languages structure sentences, including the variations and similarities in word order, agreement, and the role of function words.

The Ambiguity Between Grammar and Syntax

In the world of language, two big key notions are grammar and syntax. For many people, *syntax* – in their everyday use of the term – is synonymous

with *grammar*, and equated with a prescriptive set of “dos” and “don’ts” for correct usage. According to this study, grammar is all about the *rules that tell us how to use words, make sentences, and even how sounds work in a language*. Grammar is like the rulebook for playing a game – it covers everything from spelling and sounds to putting words together.

Now, *syntax* is a special part of this big game. It focuses just on how we arrange words to make *sentences*. Imagine you have a box of word magnets for your fridge. Syntax tells you how to stick those magnets together to make sentences that make sense.

Over the years, scholars have looked at grammar and syntax in many ways. A long time ago, they mostly thought about rules – lots of rules. They said, "This is how you must do it," focusing a lot on the right and wrong ways to say things.

But then, new ideas were developed. *Structural Grammar* was stated to mid-20th century. It was based on the principles of structural linguistics, focusing on observable language patterns and the functions of word groups in sentences. Emphasizes language as a system of structured relations.

In the past century, some scholars like **Noam Chomsky** thought more about how our brains work with language. They suggested that maybe there's a kind of "*universal grammar*" in our minds that helps us learn any language. This idea made people look at grammar and syntax not just as rules but as something more natural and connected to how we think.

These modern thinkers showed that syntax isn't just about putting words in order. It's about how those orders can change the meaning or how something feels when you say it. It's like the difference between saying "The cat chased the mouse" and "The mouse was chased by the cat." Both tell the same story, but they feel different.

So, over the years, the way people think about grammar and syntax has changed a lot. It went from being all about rules to understanding how we naturally use language. Today, when scholars talk about grammar and syntax, they think about the big picture, including how we learn, how we understand each other, and even how our brains work. It's a journey from strict rulebooks to exploring the fascinating ways we use words to share our thoughts and stories.

Talking about sentence structure or syntax as the "grammar of sentences" sounds good, but defining a sentence can be just as tricky as defining "words." We often think a sentence starts with a capital letter and

ends with a period because of how we're taught to read and write, but that's not the whole story. Saying a sentence is "the expression of a complete thought" isn't too helpful either. Phrases like "elderberry wine," "exactly," or just "good!" can all express complete thoughts.

In the old days, grammar rules said that a sentence must have a subject (what or who the sentence is about) and a predicate (what is being said about the subject). Here are some examples:

1. *Dinosaurs existed.*
2. *Samantha is studying for her English exams.*
3. *Paul left a tip for the waiter.*

If we were speaking Latin, Russian, or Polish, finding the subject would be easy because of how nouns change form depending on their role in the sentence. English doesn't do this much anymore, but we still see it with pronouns. For example, in the sentences above, "Dinosaurs," "Samantha," and "Paul" are subjects because they can be replaced with pronouns like "they," "she," and "he." Everything else in these sentences is considered the predicate.

But, there's a problem with this definition. In the third sentence, you could argue that the sentence is about Paul, the tip, or the waiter, depending on how you say it. So, who's to say Paul is more important? Some experts think we should think of "Paul," "the tip," and "the waiter" as arguments of the sentence, and the predicate should describe a quality of these arguments or how they relate to each other. A sentence needs to have this kind of relationship to make sense.

Let's look closer at our examples:

- In sentence 1, "dinosaurs" is the subject, and "existed" is a simple action verb with no extra information needed.
- Sentence 2 has a subject, "Samantha," and also talks about "her law exams," which is what she's studying for. Here, the action (studying) involves both a doer (Samantha) and what she's studying (the exams).
- Sentence 3 mentions a subject, "Paul," a direct object, "the tip," and an indirect object, "the waiter," showing relationships between them.

These parts of a sentence are sometimes called *complements*, which help explain the roles different words play. But, not everyone agrees on what to call these parts. Also, while verbs are often the main action words, prepositions, adjectives, or nouns can also show relationships between things

in a sentence. For example, being "on" something, feeling "proud," or being someone's "friend" can all act as the heart of what a sentence is saying.

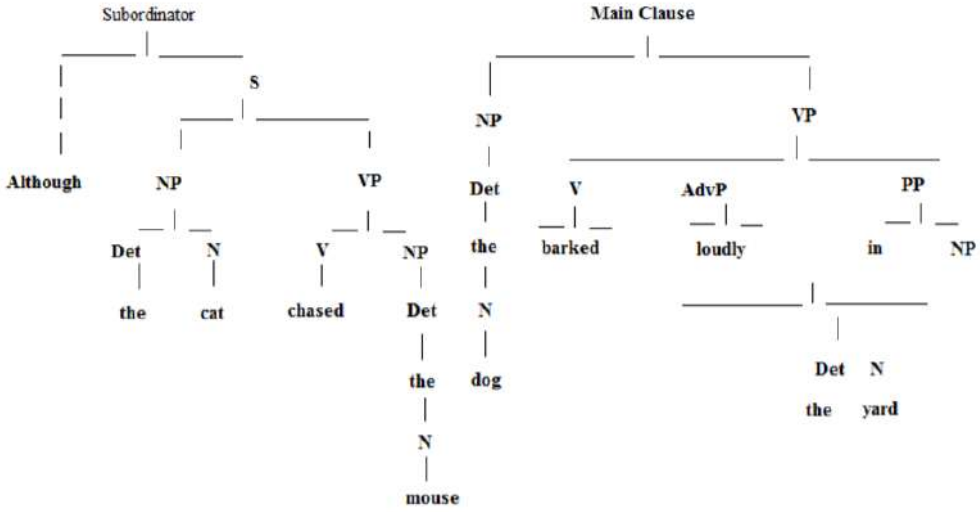


Figure 6. Sentence structure and semantics according to Chomsky`s theory

Case Study:

Pro-drop and ***dummy*** subjects

A further difficulty for our subject+predicate definition is the fact that many languages allow sentences not to have a specified subject. This phenomenon is known as **pro-drop**, and is particularly common in the Romance languages:

Spanish	*hablo español*	*(*I) speak Spanish
Romanian	*vorbim româna*	*(*we) speak Romanian
Italian	*parlano italiano*	*(*they) speak Italian

It might be argued that the 'subject' in these examples is understood, and can in fact be deduced from the personal verb ending.

In non-pro-drop languages, some specified subjects have no obvious referent. What, precisely, is raining in *it is raining*, for example, and what does 'it' refer to in *it is clear that we need a new plan*? Likewise, *there* in *There is a lot of confusion* has no referent and serves only to satisfy a requirement that English verbs have a specified subject. Subjects like these, which have a purely grammatical role, are generally known as **dummy subjects**.

Table 7. Methodologies and impacts of various approaches to English grammar analysis

Period	Focus	Scholars	Approach/Impact	Methodology/Key Concepts
Early Attempts (16th-18th Centuries)	Prescriptive modeling based on Latin grammar	William Bullokar	Applied Latin grammar rules to English, often leading to mismatches due to structural differences.	Forced alignment of English syntax with Latin, ignoring the unique characteristics of English.
19th Century	Descriptive analysis acknow-ledging English's unique features	Lindley Murray and others	Shifted from Latin comparisons to observing and describing English as it was used in real contexts.	Marked the beginning of modern English grammar analysis, focusing on practical usage rather than theoretical ideal.
20th Century: Structural Grammar	Sentence patterns and structures	Leonard Bloomfield early Noam Chomsky	Emphasized the scientific analysis of language structures, identifying repeatable patterns in sentence construction.	Introduced concepts like noun phrases and verb phrases, focusing on the observable structure of language.
20th Century: Transforma tional-Generative Grammar	Deep vs. surface structures	Noam Chomsky (later work)	Highlighted the underlying structures of sentences and the transformations that produce various sentence forms.	Revolutionized linguistics with ideas of a universal grammar and the capacity for infinite sentence generation from finite means.
20th Century: Other Approaches	-	Various	Encompassed methods like Phonological Syntax and Immediate Constituent Analysis, diversifying the study of grammar.	Explored the interplay between sound and structure, and analyzed sentences by breaking them down into constituent parts.
Current Landscape	Integration and diversify-cation	Various	No dominant theory; current research often merges insights from multiple approaches. Focus has expanded to include cognitive and sociolinguistic perspectives.	Blending structural, cognitive, and sociolinguistic approaches to address the multifaceted nature of language.
Additional Points	School Grammar	-	Continues to provide a foundation for grammar education despite criticisms of being too simplistic and rule-focused.	Often prescriptive, focusing on "correct" vs. "incorrect" usage, which may not reflect actual language use.

Period	Focus	Scholars	Approach/Impact	Methodology/Key Concepts
Ongoing Debate	-	-	The field remains dynamic, with ongoing debates about the most effective ways to understand and teach English grammar.	Reflects the evolving understanding of language, challenging and refining existing theories and approaches.

The table offers a more view of the evolution of English grammar studies, emphasizing the methodologies and key concepts that define each period and approach. It highlights the ongoing nature of grammatical research and the complexity of understanding and teaching English grammar.

Parts of Speech

When we talk about parts of speech, we're diving into concepts that have been around for a really long time, originally coming from ideas by scholars like Priscian in Latin times, who themselves were building on what the ancient Greeks thought. But, the old-school ways of defining parts of speech sometimes don't cut it. For example, we often think of nouns as "naming words," which seems straightforward for "Paul," "house," or "dog." But then, what about "name" in "I name this ship..." or "christen"? Those are actions, so they're verbs, not nouns.

And then there's the idea that verbs are "doing words." But words like "action," "busy," or "task" aren't verbs, they're nouns. Plus, there are plenty of verbs like "exist," "suffer," "know," "understand," and "dream" that don't really fit the mold of "doing" something in the active sense we might think.

So, we need a better way to define these parts of speech. Modern linguists like to think about words based on their roles in sentences and how they fit into the system of language, basically looking at what job they do. To figure out if a word like "cat" is a noun, we can try some tests:

- Nouns can have an article like "a" or "an" before them (so, "a cat" works, but "a realize" doesn't because "realize" isn't a noun).
- Nouns can be described with adjectives (like "a clever cat").
- Nouns can be the doer of an action (like in "the cat purrs").
- Nouns can have a plural form (like "cats").
- But, nouns don't work with pronoun subjects (so "he cats" doesn't make sense).

With tests like these, we see that "cat" checks off the boxes for being a noun, just like "house," "dog," "computer," and so on. Not every word has to pass every test perfectly. For instance, "sugar" and "sincerity" don't really use plurals, but they still act a lot like nouns in other ways.

Now, about pronouns – traditionally, they were thought of as stand-ins for nouns. So, "He" could replace "John" in a sentence, making "John loves reading Chekhov" turn into "He loves reading Chekhov." But, if we look closer, calling them "pro-nouns" might be stretching it. Trying to swap out every noun with a pronoun can lead to some wonky sentences that don't work grammatically.

To fix sentences where we replace nouns with pronouns, we need to swap out the whole chunk of the sentence that the noun is part of, not just the noun itself. This means that pronouns are really taking the place of the whole noun phrase in a sentence, not just the noun. Even though we're used to calling them pronouns, it's good to remember that they're really filling in for bigger parts of sentences. So, while we might not change the term "pronoun," understanding this helps us get how English really works.

Sometimes the distinction of grammatical category can be very confusing. Words like “mature” belong to the verb and the adjective classes *(the scheme is maturing; this is a mature garden). Words like* “choice” belong to the adjective and noun classes *(choicest flowers, you may take your choice).* The English classes of preposition, adverb, and conjunction are required for words like *at, with,* and *from, soon, seldom,* and *prettily,* and *if, when,* and *because,* respectively, each group having its own syntactic functions in the language. But words like “before” and “after” belong to all three classes: preposition in *he came before tea* (compare (cp): *he came at tea-time),* adverb in *he had come before* (cp: *he had come often)* and conjunction in *he came before we expected him* (cp: *he came when we expected him).*

The English word “round” belongs to five parts of speech: noun in *one round is enough,* verb in *you round the bend too quickly,* adjective in *a round tower,* adverb in *he came round,* and prepositions in *he wandered around the town.* Naturally, languages with less morphological word form variation admit of multiple-class membership more readily than languages wherein several of the distinct word classes are characterized by separate morphological paradigms.

Sentence Structure

When we look at a sentence on a page, we see little more than a sequence of words. However, the linear presentation of printed sentences belies their highly ordered and hierarchical internal structure. When we read a sentence aloud, we tend naturally to group certain items. Consider, for example, the simple English sentence below:

-*The little girl with the red ribbon ate the large doughnut.*

Here "The little girl", or "with the red ribbon" both seem to form natural groupings or **phrases**, while "girl with the" or "ribbon ate the large" do not. On this basis we can, provisionally, divide the sentence into three phrases:

-*The little girl with the red ribbon ate the large doughnut.*

These are not groupings of equals, however. Within each phrase, one item seems more important than the rest. Using traditional parts of speech, we can parse the first phrase, "The little girl", in the following way: *The little girl (**Art Adj N)***

Within this grouping, the noun (N) *girl* seems more important than the adjective (Adj) *little*: the sentence remains grammatical if we delete *little*, but not if we delete *girl*:

1. *The girl with the red ribbon ate the large doughnut.*

2. The little with the red ribbon ate the large doughnut.

Deleting the article produces a sequence (or **string)** that is more acceptable than the second example above but is nonetheless odd:

3. Little girl with the red ribbon ate the large doughnut.

There are, however, other good reasons for seeing the article as in some sense secondary to the noun here. One can think, for example, of grammatical sentences beginning with nouns unaccompanied by articles, but there are none beginning with articles without nouns:

Boys will be boys
Sincerity is a virtue
Paula missed the bus
The will be boys
The is a virtue
The missed the bus

Both the article and the adjective therefore seem subordinate to the noun *girl* in sentence 3 above. Phrases like these which have a noun as their **head** are known as **noun phrases** (NPs). The phrase *ate the large doughnut* itself contains an NP (*the large doughnut*), headed by the noun *doughnut*. But this

noun phrase itself seems to be subordinate to the verb (V) *ate*. Using the same test, deletion of the verb produces an ungrammatical sentence:

The little girl with the red ribbon the large doughnut.

While we cannot delete the verb, we can in this case delete the noun phrase *the large doughnut* and treat *ate* as a one-place predicate as defined above, or indeed substitute another verb in its place to produce a grammatical sentence:

The little girl with the red ribbon ate.

The little girl with the red ribbon listened.

The little girl with the red ribbon played.

We conclude that this is a **verb phrase** (VP), headed by the verb *ate*, and consisting of a verb and a noun phrase.

Table 8. More on types of phrase in English

Type of Phrase	**Example**
Noun Phrase (NP)	a bookshelf full of books
Verb Phrase (VP)	is reading quietly
Adjective Phrase (AdjP)	extremely interesting
Adverb Phrase (AdvP)	very quickly
Prepositional Phrase (PP)	in the old library
Infinitive Phrase	to read a novel
Gerund Phrase	reading at night
Participle Phrase	inspired by the author

In similar vein, the second grouping *with the red ribbon* can be construed as a prepositional phrase (PP), consisting of a preposition (P) *with* and a noun phrase *the red ribbon*. This prepositional phrase, however, seems less central to the sentence than the NP or the VP. We can delete it and the sentence remains grammatical:

The little girl ate the large doughnut.

If we delete the first noun phrase, however, the sentence becomes ungrammatical, and if we delete the verb phrase, the result is grammatical but no longer a sentence:

with the red ribbon ate the large doughnut

The little girl with the red ribbon

Furthermore, this prepositional phrase appears to form part of the noun phrase headed by *girl*. We have seen that pronouns can replace only full constituent NPs and, applying this substitution test to our sentence, we find that the pronoun *she* can substitute for *The little girl with the red ribbon* but not (in most varieties of English) for *The little girl* on its own:

She ate the large doughnut

She with the red ribbon ate the large doughnut

We can therefore say that *The little girl with the red ribbon* is a complex noun phrase (NP), consisting of noun phrase (NP) and a prepositional phrase (PP), and headed by *girl*. In traditional terms, this NP forms the subject (or subject complement) and the VP the predicate, within which the NP *the large doughnut* forms the direct object complement. We can now present the structure of this sentence in full, using the phrase-structure marker or tree diagram below:

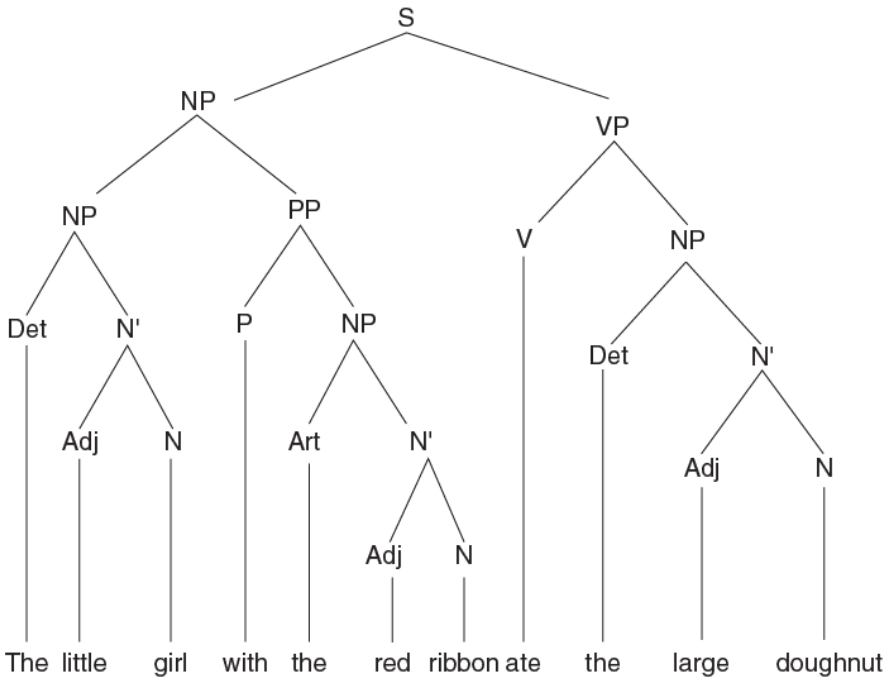


Figure 7. Phrase marker

The large NP and the VP are the two **constituents** of the sentence (S). The NP *the large doughnut* is a constituent of the VP, and the PP *with the red ribbon* is a constituent of the subject NP. Constituents like *the red ribbon*, which do not express arguments as we defined them in the previous section,

are called **adjuncts.** Adjuncts generally provide additional information about time, manner, or place and are therefore often adverbs or adverbial phrases:

*The man lifted the boy **carefully.***

*Dinosaurs existed **many millennia ago.***

*Mary yawns **several times a day.***

In addition to being hierarchically structured, sentences are **ordered**, though both the order of elements and their relative freedom of movement vary considerably between languages. Within the noun phrases, for example, we cannot place the article after the noun (*little girl the*), though articles may follow nouns in Swedish, at least when they are not qualified by adjectives, e.g. *flicka+n* (girl-the), *hus+et* (house-the). The order of phrases matters, too: *An apple ate the little girl* means something very different from *The little girl ate the apple*, just as *John loves Mary* does not – sadly for John – mean the same as *Mary loves John*.

In English, the position of the subject NP before the predicate VP is fairly fixed, and if we wish to modify it we have to signal that change by intonation or by a special construction, e.g. **passivization**, which turns an object into the subject of a sentence, or **clefting**, which signals to the listener/reader that the object has been removed from its expected place:

John loves Mary.

Mary is loved by John.

It is Mary John loves.

*Some languages use inversion of subject NP and VP to transform a statement into a closed (or yes/no) questio*n, as these examples from Dutch demonstrate:

U spreekt Nederlands. *You speak Dutch.*

Spreekt u Nederlands? *Do you speak Dutch?*

Hij gaat naar de kerk. *He goes to church.*

Gaat hij naar de kerk? *Does he go to church?*

This once was the normal way to form closed questions in English, but its use in modern English is severely restricted, with only a small set of verbs known as **modals**, plus the auxiliaries *to be*, *to have,* and *to do,* allowing inversion:

Has the Prime Minister taken leave of her senses?

Could you lend me a pen?

Must they always practice the drums on Sundays?

For all other verbs, the auxiliary *do*, which does allow inversion, must be supplied, as in the glosses of the Dutch examples above. This is known as ***do*-support**.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Flexible word order: Latin

Constituent order plays a more important role in determining argument structure in English than in many other languages. In Latin, for example, a rich system of **case marking** on noun allowed for much freer order of subject and object NPs and VPs.

The default or **unmarked** word order was subject–object–verb (SOV), but other orders, conveying the same information but with slightly different emphasis, were also possible.

In the examples below, the subject *lupus* (wolf) is marked as **nominative** (subject), and the object *gallinam* (hen) is marked as **accusative** (direct object), which allows the simple sentence "The wolf sees the hen" to be expressed in three different orders:

1 Lupus gallinam videt. (**SOV**)
2 Gallinam lupus videt. (**OSV**)
3 Videt lupus gallinam. (**VSO**)

In exploring the structure of sentences, or syntax, we encounter three main types of relationships between words, which are crucial for understanding how sentences are formed and how they function. These relationships are:

Positional Relations

These are the most direct relationships we can see, as they're all about where words sit in a sentence. In simpler terms, positional relations show us the order in which words appear. For example, in English, a basic sentence structure is subject-verb-object, as in "The cat (subject) sat (verb) on the mat (object)." This order tells us who is doing the action, what the action is, and who or what the action is being done to. Positional relations are like the visible lines that connect the dots in a picture, clearly showing how the parts of a sentence fit together.

Relations of Co-occurrence

These relations are a bit like the rules of a game, telling us which words naturally go together based on the roles they play. Co-occurrence relations aren't about the physical position of words but about their compatibility. For

instance, certain verbs require or rule out the presence of certain kinds of objects. The verb "sleep," for example, doesn't typically co-occur with an object ("He sleeps" not "He sleeps the bed"), whereas "build" requires one ("She builds a house"). These relations are more about understanding the "teamwork" between words, where some combinations work well together and others don't, based on the meanings and functions of the words involved.

Relations of Substitutability

This refers to the idea that you can swap out certain words or phrases in a sentence with others without losing grammatical correctness, though the specific meaning might change. It's a bit like changing one piece of a puzzle with another piece from a different puzzle, but both pieces fit in the same spot. For instance, in the sentence "The child read the book," we can substitute "the child" with "she" or "the book" with "it" to get "She read it." This swapping shows us how words relate to each other based on their grammatical roles. Substitutability helps us understand the flexibility of language, showing that sentences can maintain their structural integrity even as specific elements are changed.

While **positional relations** are straightforward and visible just by looking at a sentence, **relations of co-occurrence** and **relations of substitutability** require a bit more digging and comparing different sentences to uncover. These hidden, or covert, relations unlock a deeper understanding of how language works, revealing the unseen rules that guide the construction of meaningful sentences.

More About English Sentences

Simple and Compound Sentences. We've already talked about basic sentences that have just one main action word, or verb. But sometimes, we put together two or more sentences or bits of sentences, each with its own verb. These can be joined equally:

- John read the newspaper, and Peter cut the grass.
- It's either the dog leaves, or I do.

These examples are what we call compound sentences. In them, each part could be its own sentence because they stand on their own without relying on each other.

Complex Sentences. Then, there are sentences where one part depends on the other:

1. Steve realized ***his time had run out***.
2. Peter, ***who had never seen a gun***, was completely still.
3. Jenny and Julie were messaging each other as ***the band played "Rule Britannia."***

These are complex sentences because they have one main part that could be its own sentence and another part that adds more information but can't stand alone. In sentence 1, the extra bit adds more to what Steve realized. In sentence 2, it tells us more about Peter. And in sentence 3, it gives us more context about what Jenny and Julie were doing.

More on Complex Sentences

• *Relative Clauses:* These are the bits that give more detail about a noun, similar to adjectives. They start with words like "who," "which," or "where." There are two types:

• *Restrictive:* These are crucial for understanding the sentence. They narrow down exactly what we're talking about.

• *Non-restrictive:* These add extra info but aren't essential for the sentence's main point.

Compound sentences are linked by coordinating conjunctions or coordinators. **Compound sentences** are linked by words like "and," "or," "but," and "yet." Complex sentences, on the other hand, use different tricks to add the extra bits. For example, one part might start with "that" (showing it's adding to what we know from the main part), "who" (giving more about a person), or "while" (telling us when something happened).

Sometimes, in complex sentences, the extra part is essential to understanding the action described by the verb, like knowing "*that Pascal lied to Parliament caused a scandal*." Other times, these extra parts use different forms of the action word, like *"to get out"* or "*playing games,"* to add information without needing to fit the usual subject-action-object pattern.

Also, sometimes sentences use action words in their "-ing" form to add information, but traditionally, they're supposed to relate directly back to the subject of the main sentence. However, everyday speech is more flexible, even if it means bending rules that even Shakespeare sometimes stretched.

Case Study:

Spot the commas! Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

In writing, punctuation generally distinguishes **non-restrictive relative clauses** (e.g. 1 and 2 below) from **restrictive relative clauses**

(e.g. 3 and 4). The former, as parenthetical adjuncts, are usually surrounded by commas or brackets, whereas restrictive relative clauses are not:

1. How can the French, **who invented joie de vivre, the three-tier cheese trolley and Dior's jaunty New Look,** be so resolutely miserable? (*The Economist*)

2. Mikhail Kalashnikov, **who was in his 20s when he created the AK-47 just after the Second World War,** died in his home city of Izhevsk. (*The Guardian*)

3. Actually, calling Mandela a hero falls woefully short in adequately portraying the man **who fought apartheid…and changed the political landscape of his country.** (*Time*)

4. Offstage, the dancer **who once had a reputation for enjoying himself behind the scenes** has finally been called to heel. (*Radio Times*)

In speech, we have to rely on intonation to distinguish the two types of relative clause. In cases of doubt, try the 'incidentally' or 'by the way' test: non-restrictive relatives generally sound natural if either is inserted after the relative pronoun, whereas restrictive relatives do not.

? Task 1. Multiple Choice Questions: Check your Knowledge!

1. What characterizes pro-drop languages?

a. They allow subjects not to be specified
b. They use dummy subjects
c. They can be learned without professional help
d. They do not have three-place predicates

2. Which of these do not function as predicators?

a. Intransitive verb
b. Transitive verbs
c. Copulas
d. Prepositions

3. Which of the underlined items is a 'dummy subject'?

a. The man saw the dummy in the window.
b. It was obvious that they'd put a dummy in the window.
c. Put the hat on the dummy
d. All of the above

4. Which of the underlined items is a verb phrase (VP)?

a. The Elvis impersonator sang a few of the King's greatest hits
b. The Elvis impersonator sang a few of the King's greatest hits
c. The Elvis impersonator sang a few of the King's greatest hits
d. The Elvis impersonator sang a few of the King's greatest hits

5. Which of the following realizes a three-place predicate?

a. Nice guys always come third
b. Moore passed the ball to Hurst
c. The cat was on the bench
d. The chair collapsed under the weight

6. What is the underlined item in this sentence? "The policeman apprehended the burglar two minutes later".

a. An adjunct
b. An argument
c. A predicator
d. A subordinator

7. Why can the underlined element in this sentence not be replaced by" she"? " The tall woman from Huddersfield arrived late for the lecture". (She from Huddersfield arrived late for the lecture.)

a. Because pronouns replace NPs, and it isn't an NP
b. Because pronouns replace nouns, and this is an NP
c. Because it is an adjunct
d. Because pronouns replace NPs which are immediate constituents of S, and this NP is a constituent of a larger NP

? Task 2. Read the sentence and observe the way it is analyzed." While we acknowledge the challenges of climate change, we must also work together to develop innovative solutions that will protect our environment for future generations, ensuring a sustainable future for all." (political speech). As you have mentioned, according to the below sentence tree, the complex sentence uses different types of dependent clauses:

1. Adverbial clause "While we acknowledge the challenges of climate change"

This clause functions like an adverb by modifying the entire main clause "we must also work together to develop innovative solutions...". It tells us when (or under what condition) we need to work together - while

acknowledging the challenges. The subordinating conjunction used here is "while."

2. Relative clause: "that will protect our environment for future generations"

This clause modifies the noun phrase "innovative solutions." It specifies what kind of solutions are needed - ones that will protect the environment. The relative pronoun used here is "that."

Additionally: The sentence also uses a participial phrase "ensuring a sustainable future for all" which adds another layer of information about the purpose of the solutions. However, this is not a dependent clause because it doesn't rely on another clause for its meaning.

Read the sentences carefully, identify dependent or independent clauses and phrases!!! For each identified clause or phrase, analyze how it modifies or adds to the sentence. Consider what information it provides, how it changes the sentence's meaning, or the details it adds about time, reason, condition, purpose, etc**.**

Draw a sentence tree diagram (see fig.6,7.) for each below sentence. Start with the main clause as the root, and branch out to the dependent clauses and phrases, showing how they are connected to the main sentence and to each other.

A. "If you think you know this story, think again, because this thrilling new take on a classic tale will keep you guessing until the very last shocking twist, leaving you breathless and eager for more."

B. "Because the concert tickets sold out within minutes, I decided to try for a lottery spot, hoping against hope that I might still get to see my favorite band perform live."

? Task 3. Watch the video to discover more about Universal Grammar and answer at the following questions:

1. What is the distinction between learning and acquisition?
2. What is the hypothesis of universal grammar?
3. What evidence supports the idea of universal grammar?

? Task 4. Reflect on the Following and Write a Short Text

1. Reflect on your own experiences with language acquisition. How do you think you acquired your first language? Do you think it was a conscious

learning process or more of a subconscious acquisition? How does this compare to your experience learning a second language?

2. Consider the concept of universal grammar and innate knowledge of language. Do you agree with the idea that some aspects of language are inborn? Can you think of any examples from your own language use that support or challenge this idea?

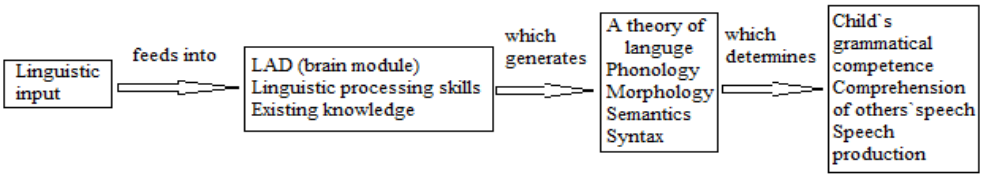


Figure 8. Child`s linguistic processing process

Interesting to Know!!!

In English syntax, the shortest grammatically correct sentence is just two words: "I am." It has a subject ("I") and a verb ("am"), and the sentence ***"The complex houses married and single soldiers and their families."*** is perfectly grammatical, but it can be tricky to parse. It demonstrates how the same word can function differently (in this case, "complex" as a noun and "houses" as a verb), making English syntax both fascinating and challenging.

Useful Links:

1. https://pressbooks.pub/morethanwords/chapter/chapter-6-syntax/ (**More than Words: The Intersection of Language and Linguistics)**
2. https://open.umn.edu/opentextbooks/textbooks/803 (**Transformational Grammar for Learners of English)**
3. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yO8D6PlFLfw (**Universal Grammar**)

Scan the QR Codes:

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Overview of applied linguistics
Language teaching methodologies
Second language acquisition theories

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Understand the interdisciplinary nature of applied linguistics and its relevance to language teaching and learning
- Identify various methodologies and their theoretical underpinnings in language teaching
- Understand key theories of FLA and their implications for language learning
- Analyze case studies and apply theoretical concepts to real-world language learning scenarios

Quote:
"One language sets you in a corridor for life. Two languages open every door along the way."

Frank Smith

Lesson Prompt:
"Think of a language you have tried to learn other than your mother tongue. What strategies did you find most effective? Share your experiences and speculate why those strategies worked for you."

Introduction to Applied Linguistics

The foreign language acquisition (FLA) is a multifaceted process. It goes beyond simple language learning and includes cognitive, emotional, social, and technological aspects. FLA can start at any point of life and often occurs inside formal educational contexts, as contrast to the spontaneous assimilation of a first language during childhood. The cognitive mechanisms underlying language acquisition are at the center of our investigation, with particular emphasis on the functions of memory, attention, and linguistic analysis. One important factor that determines proficiency is the learner's affective landscape in FLA, which is characterized by their *motivation, feelings, and attitudes*. The topic also explores the significance of social situations, highlighting the need of connection with native speakers and

cultural immersion for real language usage and understanding. The impact of methodological approaches to FLA, such as task-based learning, communicative language teaching and blended approach in developing linguistic competences will be investigated in this topic. Furthermore, the theme also returns to the long-standing discussion of the critical period hypothesis, arguing that although adult learners can achieve high proficiency with enough motivation and effort, younger learners may have an edge in pronunciation. So, some theories of FLA will be discussed. The goal is to explain all the different parts of learning a new language and the best ways to go about it.

Teaching Methodologies in FLA

In the field of language acquisition, more teaching methodologies were outlined over time, each with its own philosophy and approach towards facilitating language learning. These methods range from traditional to modern, each aiming to address different aspects of language competence. Among the most notable are *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT), which prioritizes the ability to communicate in real-life situations; the *Grammar-Translation Method*, focusing on reading and writing through direct translation; the *Audio-Lingual Method*, emphasizing repetition and drills to instill linguistic patterns; *Task-Based Learning* (TBL), which uses real-world tasks to foster practical language use; and the *Blended Approach*, combining traditional classroom techniques with digital learning tools. These methodologies offer diverse paths to language learning, reflecting the evolving landscape of educational needs and technological advancements.

Theories of FLA

The study of languages and psychology have both influenced theories regarding second language learning. One of the main difference between these theories is how they see the role of internal factors against external factors in learning. Some linguists believe that there is a unique language-learning area of our brains that exists from birth and contains universally applicable rules. However, a large number of psychologists believe that language acquisition does not require a specific area of the brain. Rather, they think that learning a new language is facilitated by the same brain processes that we use for many other learning activities.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

"*Every child learns an immense amount about language, its structure, its use, and much else, from very limited and degenerate data*." This observation leads to the profound question at the heart of Universal Grammar: How do children achieve such a remarkable feat? The answer, lies in the inherent structure of the mind itself, equipped with a language faculty that is preconfigured to process linguistic information, filter it, and generate grammatical structures that are very complex.

(Noam Chomsky "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax" 1965)

The concept of **universal grammar (UG)** suggests there's a built-in grammar blueprint in human brains that makes us all naturally good at picking up languages. This idea came from Noam Chomsky in the late 1960s when he noticed something interesting about how kids learn their first language. Even when other types of learning seemed tough for them, they could still pick up language easily. This was true even for kids who didn't have the same intellectual abilities as others. Chomsky saw that the language kids hear isn't always perfect—people make mistakes, stutter, or don't finish sentences. Plus, when little kids make language mistakes, grown-ups don't always correct them. But somehow, kids grow out of these mistakes and end up speaking like the adults around them. So, Chomsky figured that kids must have something in their brains helping them out, something he first called a language acquisition device (LAD) and later referred to as UG. He thought of it as a part of the brain already set up to handle language, with a set of rules that apply to all languages. Kids just need to figure out how the specific language they're hearing uses these rules.

Chomsky's idea was mainly about how we learn our first language. There's a lot of debate about whether this universal grammar also helps with learning a second language, especially as we get older. Some people think there's a "critical period" for language learning when the brain is really ready to pick up a new language, and after this period, it's harder because we rely on different, more general learning skills instead of this built-in grammar guide.

Researchers trying to understand how we learn a second language sometimes look at UG to see if it's in play. They're more interested in what people know about a language (their "competence") rather than how they use it ("performance"). To get at this knowledge, they might ask someone to say

if a sentence sounds right or use toys to act out a sentence. This helps them figure out what language rules someone really knows, even if they don't use them all the time. For example, if a kid gets mixed up and has a toy tiger chase a lion when trying to show "The tiger is chased by the lion," it might mean they're still figuring out how to use passive sentences in their language.

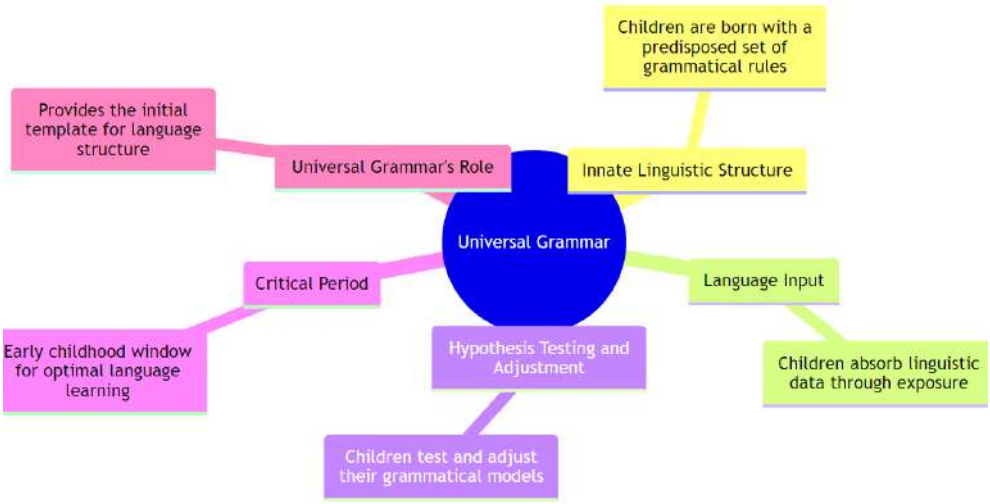


Figure 9. The mechanism by which languages are learned, according to Noam Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar

The Monitor Theory, which focuses on the process of second language acquisition, suggests that there are two primary components to this process: learning the language through *intense study* and *acquiring it naturally*. Stephen Krashen presented this theory in the 1970s and it consists of five main concepts. The core idea is that there's a big difference between "acquisition," which happens when you're naturally absorbed in communicating, and "learning," which is when you're consciously trying to understand the language's rules. Learning a language is similar to how we naturally learn up our native tongue through authentic communication. However, acquiring a language requires consciously practicing to its grammar. The "monitor hypothesis" says that although language learners pick up new vocabulary naturally and use it in daily conversation, the rules they have learned serve as a means of self-correction when they have the opportunity to reflect.

According to Krashen's "natural order theory," learners acquire language characteristics in stages that are similar to those of first-language acquisition. According to the "comprehensible input hypothesis," learners

benefit from contact with language that is just a little bit more complex than what they are now proficient in but is still understandable in certain contexts. The "affective filter theory," however, highlights that for acquisition to be successful, learners must be motivated and receptive to new information. Learners may not be as receptive to taking in new linguistic information if they are insecure or unmotivated.

Despite being criticized for being a little vague and difficult to verify through experiments, Monitor Theory has had a big impact on teaching second languages. Many teachers and students are aware of the difference between learning a language naturally and studying it more consciously.

Psychological Perspectives

Behaviorism gained popularity in the early 1900s as a theory to explain how people learn, particularly when learning a new language. According to this theory, learning up a language is achieved through imitating others, practicing a lot, receiving feedback, and developing habits. The point of view went something like this: the environment we live in provides us with the language we need to learn. Giving us feedback when we attempt to learn the new language is another way it helps. When we use language correctly and receive praise for it, we begin to use it automatically and develop a habit of doing so (Skinner, 1957).

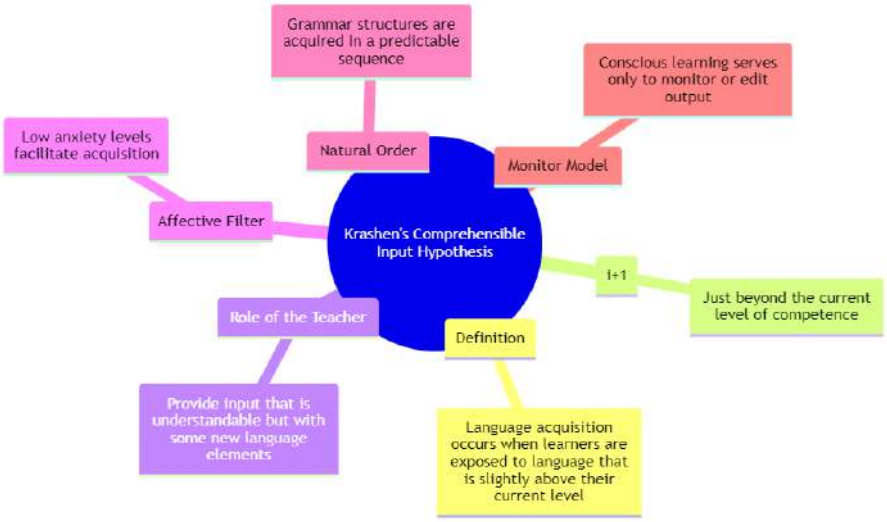


Figure 10. Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis

However, a scholar by the name of Chomsky began to doubt this old theory in 1968. Children say things they have never heard before, indicating

to him that they're not simply copying but also inventing new sentences based on norms. People began to question behaviorism as a result, believing there were other explanations for how language is learned. Though behaviorism eventually lost attraction some of its concepts returned later under the new name "Connectionism."

Behaviorism also claimed that learning a new language could be slowed by the habits we develop throughout our early speech development. This gave rise to the hypothesis that learning would be simpler if there were similarities between the previous and the new language. It would be more difficult if they were different. Tests, however, revealed that this assumption was not always true. It couldn't predict all the mistakes learners made or explain why learners from different backgrounds made the same mistakes. This showed that the first language doesn't always have a big effect on learning a new one (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982), but later research found that it does have some complex effects that change as we get better at the new language (Kellerman and Sharwood Smith, 1986; Odlin, 1989).

Essential concept corner!!!

Behaviorism (Early 1900s) - B.F. Skinner

Approach: Language learning through imitation, practice, feedback, and habit formation.

Criticism: Challenged by Chomsky for failing to account for the creative aspect of language use.

Cognitive Psychology

Since the late 1980s, there's been a new interest in how psychology explains the way we learn languages. Cognitive psychologists believe that learners don't need special brain parts just for learning languages. Instead, they think learning a second language is like other types of learning which need learners` attention and effort. Students might not always be aware they're paying attention to it.

They suggest that at first, students learn language through what's called “declarative knowledge” -basically, learning facts. With practice, this knowledge turns into “procedural knowledge”, which is more about knowing how to do things without thinking too hard. Eventually, it becomes “automatic,” meaning learners can use the language easily without much thought (DeKeyser, 2003). Another way to look at it is through *controlled* and *automatic* processing.

Controlled processing is when learners are trying hard to understand something new or complex. This takes a lot of mental effort. For instance, they might be good at chatting in a new language but find it hard to follow a lecture in that language because it takes more effort to understand (Segalowitz, 2003).

The idea is, with enough practice, language use becomes *automatic*. Learners don't have to think about it much, so they can focus more on what they are talking about rather than how they are saying it. This explains why beginners in language learning seem to work so hard at it.

Also, sometimes, learners suddenly get better because of something called *restructuring*. This is when the things they've learned separately come together into mind, making them suddenly better at the language. But, this can also make learners make new mistakes, like getting mixed up when asking questions in English because they are applying a new rule they`ve learned (McLaughlin, 1990; McLaughlin and Heredia, 1996).

Lastly, some researchers say that to really learn something in a language, students need to *notice* it. It's not enough just to hear the language; they need to pay attention to what makes up the meaning. This has become a big topic in teaching languages (Schmidt, 1990, 2001).

The theory known as **Processability Theory** provides us with an understanding of the stages that individuals go through when learning a second language. Studying how people learned German and then English gave rise to this theory. It was discovered that students acquire language skills in an established sequence. Everyone learns the language in the same steps, except for certain aspects known as "developmental" characteristics. Some people may learn some parts, referred to as "variational" characteristics but not others, and they may acquire them in any particular order. For example, learners may begin by using a language's typical sentence structure. Eventually, they become aware of and begin to use words at the start or finish of phrases. They can only handle sentence fragments that are increasingly complex after that. This idea states that you cannot skip stages or advance to a more difficult level before finishing the previous one. This gives rise to the “Teachability Hypothesis”, according to which teachers can only share knowledge that students are prepared to receive at this point in their development. Interactionist perspectives focus on the idea that a lot of language learning happens through talking with others. This is because people often change how they speak to make it easier for learners to understand.

Research has shown that just like young children learn their first language by talking with adults and other children, second language learners benefit from speaking with both native speakers and other learners.

By improving their comprehension, students are better able to pick up the language. These interactions, in which students must make an effort to both comprehend and be understood, have been demonstrated by researchers such as Long (1985) and Mackey (2007) to be highly beneficial for language acquisition.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!
Unlock Your Language Potential Through Social Interaction.

Engaging in meaningful communication isn't just practice; it's the core of learning. By interacting with others, you unlock a treasure of linguistic input, practice your output, and receive invaluable feedback in real time. *Interactionist perspectives* focus on social interactions can transform your linguistic abilities and cultural understanding!

Sociocultural Perspectives

Theories that look at language learning from a sociocultural viewpoint suggest that our culture and how we think are closely connected. They believe learning happens first between people and then within each person. Through talking and working together, learners build knowledge which then becomes a part of their own understanding. Sociocultural theorists, like Vygotsky (1987) who started this idea, agree with cognitive psychologists that we use similar ways of learning for both language and other types of knowledge. However, they stress the importance of social, cultural, and even biological factors in learning. This approach to learning a second language has been further explored by scholars such as Swain, and Ohta (2000). They all show how being part of a community and interacting with others play a big role in how we acquire a new language.

L1 Influence in Learning a Foreign Language

Even though some experts in foreign language acquisition have doubted the value of contrastive analysis, a majority of teachers and researchers remain persuaded that learners use their understanding of other languages when attempting to learn a new one. Contemporary studies indicate that the impact of the first language (L1) on learning a foreign language (L2) is

nuanced and changes over time. Learners don't just apply everything from their first language directly to the foreign language. As they advance in their knowledge of the L2, they start to identify similarities between their first language and the foreign language, which were not initially obvious during the early phases of learning.

Research has shown that certain language aspects are more influenced by the first language than others. Pronunciation and the sequence in which words are arranged are areas more likely to reflect the learner's first language, in contrast to the usage of grammatical markers.

Learning a Foreign Language

Research shows that teaching can really help people learn a new language, especially in how quickly they learn and how well they end up using the language. This doesn't mean learners skip over the natural steps of picking up a language that they would go through if they were learning outside of a classroom. Instead, teaching can help them move through these steps quicker and start using the language more like native speakers' sooner (Lightbown and Spada, 2013).

Since studies have shown learners go through certain stages when picking up a new language, teachers and researchers have wondered just how much teaching helps. Krashen (1982) thought that teaching mainly helped with what he called "learning," and might even get in the way of "acquisition," or picking up a language naturally. He believed just being exposed to understandable language was enough for learners to progress. Pienemann (1989) suggested that teaching should match up with the stages learners are at. Research has found teaching that targets the next stage in learning can be really helpful (Spada and Lightbown, 1999). Other studies have shown that learning advanced language features early on might help learners progress through the basic stages faster (Lightbown, 2005; Hamilton, 1994).

However, teaching doesn't let learners skip stages altogether. Even if learners do well on tests after being taught, they usually go back to speaking how they did before when they're talking naturally. Some teaching methods might change the usual way learners pick up a language. For example, if classroom teaching focuses on one grammar rule at a time, learners might develop some unusual habits or ideas about the language (Lightbown, 2000).

One way to give learners a more natural experience is through *communicative and content-based teaching*. In these classes, the focus is on

understanding and communicating real meaning, not just learning grammar rules one by one. This can help learners get better at understanding and speaking the language, even though some language features might still be rare in classroom talk. For instance, learners might not hear some grammatical forms often enough to learn them well from classroom language alone (Swain, 1988; Tarone and Swain, 1995).

Even with good teaching, learners might still make mistakes, especially in communicative classes where the goal is to be understood. Some mistakes, especially those related to meaning, might be easier to fix with teacher feedback. But errors that don't mess up the meaning, like putting an adjective after a noun by mistake, might be harder to notice and fix without specific teaching about how the learner's first language and the new language are different (Spada and Lightbown, 2005).

Recent studies have looked at how teaching that draws attention to language forms-ranging from very clear rules to hints-can help learners in classes that focus on communication. These studies show that explicit teaching and feedback can be really beneficial (Ellis, 2001; Spada, 1997; Spada and Tomita, 2010).

In conclusion, the topic, has highlighted the dynamic nature of language learning theories and practices, illustrating how our understanding of language acquisition continues to evolve. The transition from traditional to modern approaches in teaching a language, reflects a deeper understanding of the language acquisition process, emphasizing the natural, interactive, and contextual aspects of learning a language. Theories such as Krashen's distinction between “acquisition” and “learning” and the importance of “comprehensible input” have fundamentally changed our perspective on effective language teaching, steering away from rote memorization of grammatical rules towards fostering real communication skills. By embracing the complexities of the process and recognizing the diverse needs of learners, teachers can provide effective, engaging, and enriching language learning experiences.

Case Study:

A. Examine these two learning experiences, each reflecting a unique approach to acquiring a new language.

Experience 1: Classroom Focus

In the first experience, learners engage in a classroom setting where the emphasis is on understanding the grammatical structures of the new language. Lessons are primarily led by the teacher, who explains rules, conducts drills, and corrects mistakes directly. The learners spend a considerable amount of time completing exercises in textbooks and worksheets that reinforce grammar and vocabulary. Interaction in the target language among peers is limited.

Experience 2: Immersion Focus

The second experience places learners in a language immersion environment. Here, the focus is on using the language in practical, real-life situations. The teachers facilitate activities that require communication, such as group discussions, role-playing, and projects that involve interacting with native speakers. Grammar instruction occurs, but it's integrated into activities and often addressed indirectly through corrections in the flow of conversation. The learning material includes authentic resources like news articles, videos, and songs in the target language.

B.

- Which experience focuses more on naturally using the language? What theory might this match?
- Which experience emphasizes learning with rules and practice? What theory does this resemble?
- Considering the role of authentic materials and interaction with native speakers, which experience promotes language learning as a social activity? What theory supports this method?
- Reflecting on your own language learning preferences, which of these experiences would you find more engaging and effective? Why?

? Task 1. Answer the Questions:

✓ What is the core concept of Universal Grammar (UG) as proposed by Noam Chomsky, and how does it relate to first language acquisition?

✓ According to Stephen Krashen's Monitor Theory, what are the differences between "acquisition" and "learning" in the context of second language acquisition, and how does the "Comprehensible Input Hypothesis" contribute to language learning?

✓ How does the Processability Theory explain the stages of second language development, and what implication does the "Teachability Hypothesis" have for language teaching?

✓ Describe the role of social interaction in language learning according to Interactionist Perspectives. How do these perspectives suggest learners benefit from engaging with native speakers and other learners?

? Task 2. Complete the blanks in the text with the appropriate terms based on your understanding of the main theories in foreign language acquisition. Use the following words and word phrase to fill in: *universal grammar (UG), communication and learning, processability, sociocultural, perspective, first language, teachers, main concepts, native speakers, learning mechanisms, behaviorism, monitor, language learning, the human brain, through interaction, automatic, interactionist.*

1. The concept of _____ suggests there's a built-in grammar system in _____ that helps us learn languages naturally. This theory, proposed by Noam Chomsky, highlights that children can easily learn their _____due to this innate ability.

2. The _____ Theory, introduced by Stephen Krashen, outlines that there are two primary components to learning a new language: acquiring it naturally through _____it through focused study. This theory consists of five_____, including the "Natural Order Theory" and the "Comprehensible Input Hypothesis."

3. _____ was a popular theory in the early 1900s, which explained _____as a result of imitation, practice, feedback, and habit formation. However, this theory was later challenged by researchers who noticed that learners could generate sentences they had never heard before.

4. Cognitive psychologists argue that learning a second language doesn't require special brain parts but rather involves general _____like attention and effort. This _____suggests that with practice, language use becomes _____, allowing learners to use the language easily without much thought.

5. The _____ Theory explains the stages learners go through when acquiring a second language, proposing that learners cannot skip stages. This theory led to the "Teachability Hypothesis," which states that

_____can only effectively teach language aspects that students are developmentally ready to learn.

6. _____ perspectives emphasize the role of social interaction in language learning. Researchers in this field argue that interacting with others, including _____and fellow learners, is crucial for improving comprehension and language acquisition.

7. Theories from a _____ viewpoint suggest that learning happens first _____with others and then becomes internalized by the individual. This approach, initially proposed by Vygotsky, stresses the importance of social, cultural, and biological factors in learning a new language.

? Task 3. Reflect and Share Your Points of View:

1. Reflect on your own language learning experiences and compare them to the theories discussed in the text. How do these theories align with or differ from your personal experiences?

2. Reflect on the role of motivation and affective factors in language learning. How have your own motivation and emotions influenced your language acquisition journey? Provide specific examples.

Discover -Lesson Key Words:

Multifaceted (adjective) having many different aspects or features

Example Sentence: The issue of climate change is multifaceted, involving scientific, economic, and political factors.

Cognitive (adjective) relating to mental processes such as thinking, remembering, and problem-solving

Example Sentence: The study aimed to investigate the cognitive abilities of children with autism.

Assimilation (noun) the process of becoming similar to something or someone else. Example Sentence: The assimilation of immigrants into a new culture can be a complex and challenging experience.

Proficiency (noun) a high level of skill or expertise in a particular subject or activity. Example Sentence: She achieved a high level of proficiency in playing the piano after years of practice.

Immersion (noun) the state of being deeply engaged or involved in something

Example Sentence: Living in a foreign country provides an immersive language learning experience.

Behaviorism (noun) a psychological theory that explains how people learn by imitating others, practicing, receiving feedback, and developing habits.

Example Sentence: Behaviorism suggests that language learning occurs through imitation, practice, and habit formation.

Competence (noun) the knowledge and ability to apply language's rules and structures. Example Sentence: Although she has a high level of competence in French grammar, her speaking skills still need improvement.

Motivation (noun) the internal drive or desire to achieve a goal or accomplish a task.

Example Sentence: His motivation to learn Spanish comes from his love for the culture and his desire to communicate with native speakers.

Useful Links:

1. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ccsf0yX7ECg **(Language acquisition**)
2. https://youtu.be/jr_hK2Owq8o?si=mWTuA91KJ0FuLuXg **(Theories in language acquisition)**
3. https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Psychological-Mechanisms-Underlying-Second-Language-Schmidt/a34696052e4bbb4b9fbad80fef3ba266c17a7ceb **(Fluency in Second language …)**

Scan the QR Codes and find more about language acquisition:

Revise: Main Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

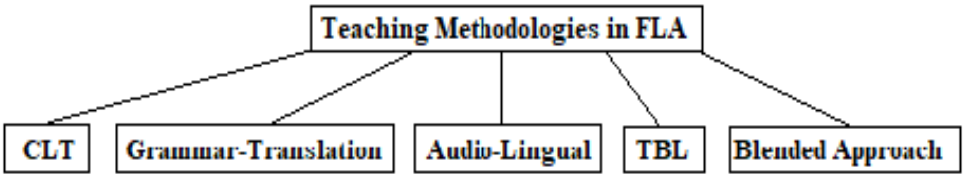


Figure 11. Main methods of teaching EFL

Grammar-Translation Method

- Focuses on reading and writing through direct translation.

Audio-Lingual Method

- Emphasizes repetition and drills to instill linguistic patterns

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

- Prioritizes the ability to communicate in real-life situations.

Task-Based Learning (TBL)

- Uses real-world tasks to foster practical language use.

Blended Approach

- Combines traditional classroom techniques with digital learning tools.

Flipped Learning

- Students learn new content at home and practice in class.

Suggestopedia

- Uses music, art, and relaxation techniques to facilitate learning.

Project Work

- Engages students in completing projects to apply language skills.

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning)

- Integrates language learning with subject matter instruction.

Flipped Learning

- Students learn new content at home and practice in class.

Experiment with all of these teaching methods and blend them to achieve better results. Continuously adapt and refine your approach to discover what works best for your students!!!

ENHANCING LISTENING SKILLS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Listening models
Types of listening processes
Listening skills, strategies and difficulties

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Recognize listening as an active, multifaceted process involving sound recognition, tone identification, and contextual understanding
- Examine key listening models including Communication Theory, Information Processing, Social/Contextual, and Situated Action models
- Identify effective strategies for improving listening skills, emphasizing the integration of both bottom-up and top-down processing
- Discuss common challenges learners face in listening and strategies to overcome them

Quote:
"Listening is an art that requires attention over talent, spirit over ego, others over self."

Dean Jackson

Introduction to Complexity of the Listening Process

Listening means making sense of spoken words, helped by what we already know (prior knowledge) and the situation around us (sound and visual input). It's not just one thing but many tasks together, like knowing sounds, catching the tone showing what's important, and figuring out how it fits the conversation. Usually, we don't notice these steps when we listen in our native language. It feels easy unless something makes it hard, like noise or a new accent. Listening gets tougher in a foreign language because we often have only one chance to get it right (to process the (linguistic and other) input) in real-time, though sometimes we can ask the speaker to repeat or rephrase.

Before, listening was viewed as a passive process, that supposed just receiving info without effort. Now we know it's an" active" process. Good listeners work hard to understand, not just hear. They don't just decode words; they also catch the unsaid meaning, and that good listeners are just as active

when listening as speakers are when speaking. This change in thinking about listening also changes how we see 'right' answers. It shows how different people might understand the same words differently and how important the situation and other non-spoken things are.

Listening isn't the same as reading aloud. It has unique parts like:

- It usually happens once and can't be redone (one-shot nature).
- It has a rich prosody (sounds, stress, intonation, and rhythm which is absent from the written language).
- It includes quick speech sounds that are different from writing.
- It often requires fast thinking and responding.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Listening is a complex process, it is a bundle of related processes-recognition of the sounds uttered by the speaker, perception of intonation patterns showing information focus, interpretation of the relevance of what is being said to the current topic.

(N. Spada, "What is Listening?" 2020)

Listening Models

Our understanding of how we make sense of what we hear has gotten much better over time. In the last fifty years, we've seen many new ideas about this. Let's look at four important ones:

One main idea is the "Communication Theory," also called "the mathematical theory of communication" (Shannon and Weaver, 1949). This idea was first made to help make phone and radio systems work better. It used terms like "sending," "signal," "receiving," and "noise." This theory didn't focus much on people's role in talking and listening because it was more about solving a technical problem. It cared more about whether messages were clear, not really how people understood them, and it was used more to check if machines were working right, not so much about the people using them.

The Information Processing Model

The "Information Processing" model is the second approach to understanding how we grasp spoken language, heavily shaped by studies in computer science and smart machines. The concepts of receiving data, processing it, and finally producing a result are central to this model. Since humans are thought to have a limited capacity for processing information, we need to focus more on one part of the task at a time. Examples of this model include "Perception, Parsing, and Utilization" by Anderson in 1985 and

"Identify, Search, File, and Use" by Brown in 1995. Though these frameworks suggest different steps in understanding, it's now accepted that people can only manage to process information as it happens by using parallel distributed processing. This involves taking in and combining information from various sources at the same time and working from the bottom up (looking for hints in the language used) and from the top- down (using what we prior knowledge to help understand).

The Social/Contextual Model

From this point of view, people do more than just handle information. They understand things by bringing together their social life and personal thoughts, as Ohta said in 2000.

This way of thinking shows us as active people who create meanings. Unlike the communication theory and the way, we process information, making meaning isn't just happening in our heads. It also happens when we talk and interact with others. Even in strict settings like experiments, people talking to each other work out meanings to understand each other well. People who believe in this idea about language, like van Lier did in 1996 and 2000, think context is very important. He didn't like using computer terms such as "input" and "output" because he thought they made things too simple and ignored how listeners play an active part in conversations.

The Situated Action Model

The Situated Action model presents a new approach, indicating that our comprehension of language and behavior is deeply rooted in how we evolved. Information processing models suggest that people are primarily focused on storing knowledge, whereas evolutionary psychologists think that humans are mostly focused on interpreting information to accomplish tasks. In 1999, Barsalou made the case that language evolved as a means of coordinating group activities such as hunting, collecting, and early manufacturing, reflecting evolutionary demands compared to the far later influences of formal education or science.

This model recognizes that while storing information is an essential component of understanding, most of our daily interactions include planning for future tasks, such as determining where to get fresh food or how to care for an ill child.

These four models of understanding listening-the Communication Theory, Information Processing, Social/Contextual, and Situated Action models-aren't in competition but rather complement each other. Each model

can explain different aspects of listening. Even the simplest model, like the Communication Theory, has its place in describing straightforward tasks, such as writing down a phone number. A fuller picture of how we listen and understand emerges when these models are combined, showing that successful listening involves a mix of these approaches.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

A certain level of linguistic proficiency is required in order to handle listening comprehension. This includes a minimum level of mastery of the features of the sound system, but also of the grammatical system (at sentence level) and of discourse.

Strategy instruction is not revolutionary or faddish. Neither is it something that should be viewed as an 'add-on' to what happens in the listening lesson. Strategy instruction is at the root of teaching learners how to tackle a listening text. It involves showing learners the clues to getting at meaning when gaps in their competence make that difficult. Moreover, strategy instruction can contribute significantly to learner autonomy.

(Brown, 1990)

When students listen, they use two main ways of understanding: *"bottom-up"* and *"top-down"* processing. Good listeners use both methods to properly understand what they hear. Being able to mix information from these two approaches is crucial for good listening comprehension. Over time, researchers' focus on these methods has changed. For example, a 1986 issue of a journal had many articles on using context and what we already know (top-down) to understand. But, a 2008 issue of another journal had more articles on understanding the basic sounds and structure of language (bottom-up). This shows how interest in different aspects of listening has shifted over the years.

Bottom-up processing is about putting together sounds or parts of speech in order, step by step, as we hear them. It was once thought to fully explain how we listen, like recording what we hear without missing anything (Anderson and Lynch, 1988). But, even though understanding from a broader perspective (top-down processing) is also key, we can't skip the step-by-step (bottom-up) work. We need to figure out the different sounds at the basic level to help with the broader understanding later on. For instance, listeners must tell apart sounds that are alike to make sense of words (Byrnes (1984); Brown (1990).

How listeners mix clues from both the detailed and broader views vary. Field (2004) found in a study with English learners that when faced with a new word that sounds like a familiar one, listeners reacted differently. Some ignored the exact sounds and guessed a known word that didn't really fit, while others noticed the new word and tried to write down how it sounds. Field named these approaches 'lexical' and 'phonological.' The study showed the risk of relying too much on known words, which can lead to misunderstandings and ignore the actual context or sound of words.

Top-down processing is like looking at the full picture before focusing on the details, aiming to understand the overall meaning rather than just identifying the sounds or words. Listeners guess the speaker's intent and adjust their understanding as needed, actively building their interpretation (Anderson and Lynch, 1988). This method depends on using what we already know. The concept of "schema" involves using our stored knowledge and experiences to understand new information. There are two main types: "content schema," which is our knowledge about various subjects like earthquakes, and "rhetorical schema," which is about understanding the structure of different types of conversations or texts, such as lectures or sermons.

Understanding becomes easier when we connect what we're hearing to knowledge we already have. Predicting and inferring are key strategies here. Predicting means guessing the rest of the message with limited information. Inferring involves understanding deeper, implied meanings beyond the direct words, or "reading between the lines." This approach shows listening as an active, engaging process where background knowledge plays a crucial role in understanding (Mendelsohn, 1994).

Given the importance of these processing strategies, teachers can greatly enhance students' listening skills by incorporating activities that encourage both bottom-up and top-down processing. For example, dictation exercises focus on bottom-up skills by requiring students to pay close attention to phonetic details and word structure. On the other hand, predicting the content of a listening passage based on a title or introductory sentence engages top-down processing, helping students to use their existing knowledge to understand the context. By alternating between these activities, teachers can ensure that students develop a balanced approach to listening. Furthermore, incorporating real-world listening materials, such as podcasts or conversations, can give students a more authentic experience and better prepare them for real-life communication.

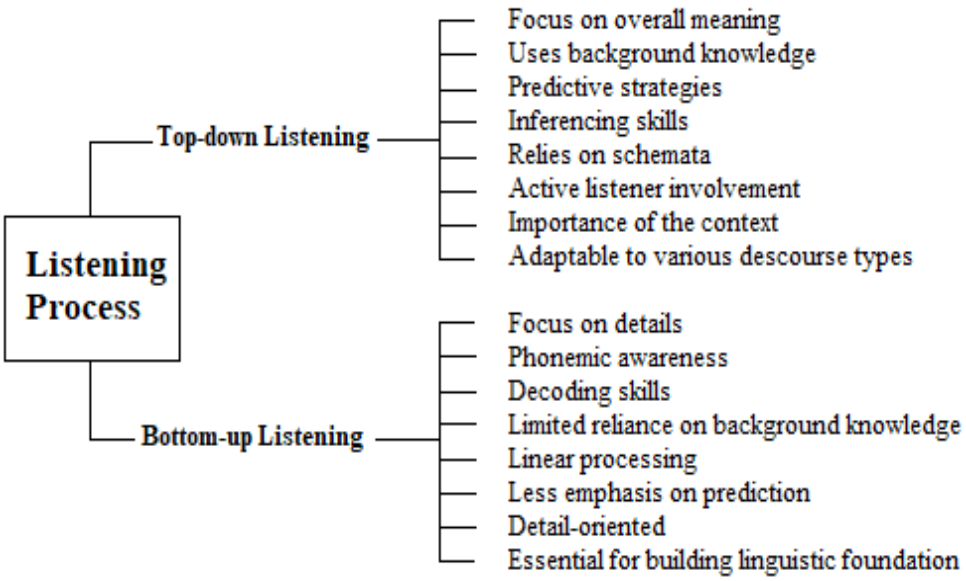


Figure 12. Specific features of the top-down and bottom-up listening processes

Listening Skills

Listening involves a variety of sub-skills, which vary depending on the context. Richards (1983) first divided them into 33 micro-skills for everyday conversation and 18 for academic listening, such as in lectures. This categorization prompts two significant inquiries. First, it questions the overlap between conversational and academic listening skills, suggesting that while all conversational skills are necessary for academic contexts, academic listening also requires additional, specialized skills. This could mean a total of 51 distinct skills for academic listening.

Secondly, Richards proposed a hierarchical structure within these skills, implying that mastering certain skills may be prerequisite to others. For example, understanding a word's meaning is contingent upon recognizing its sound pattern. Richards' work has been of great importance in aiding language teachers to identify and focus on specific listening skills, and remains a key reference in the development of teaching materials.

Expanding on Richards' framework, Rost (1990) introduced the concept of skill clusters, differentiating between 'enabling skills' for understanding the speaker and 'enacting skills' for responding. Rost's work raises questions about the efficacy of sequential skill training and the ability of learners to integrate these skills in real communication scenarios.

Table 9. Micro-skill clusters in listening comprehension

ENABLING SKILLS

Perception

1. Recognizing prominence within utterances, including
   - Discriminating sounds in words, especially phonemic contrasts
   - Discriminating strong and weak forms, phonetic change at word boundaries
   - Identifying use of stress and pitch (information units, emphasis, etc.)

Interpretation

2. Formulating content sense of an utterance, including
   - Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words
   - Inferring implicit information
   - Inferring links between propositions
3. Formulating a conceptual framework linking utterances, including
   - Recognizing discourse markers (clarifying, contrasting)
   - Constructing a theme over a stretch of discourse
   - Predicting content
   - Identifying elements that help you to form an overall schema
   - Maintaining and updating the context
4. Interpreting (possible) speaker intentions, including
   - Identifying an "interpersonal frame" speaker-to-hearer
   - Monitoring changes in prosody and establishing (in) consistencies
   - Noting contradictions, inadequate information, ambiguities
   - Differentiating between fact and opinion

ENACTING SKILLS

5. Making an appropriate response (based on 1–4 above), including
   - Selecting key points for the current task
   - Transcoding information into written form (for example, notes)
   - Identifying which points need clarification
   - Integrating information with that from other sources
   - Providing appropriate feedback to the speaker

Source: adapted from Rost (1990)

Listening and Strategies

Research into how people learn languages has shown that using and teaching strategies can help (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Chamot (1987) defines learning strategies as techniques or actions that help students learn and remember language and content better. This has led to a strategy-focused way of teaching listening. Since people don't often think about how they listen in their native language unless they have trouble, the idea is to help foreign language learners consciously apply the strategies they use without thinking in their first language.

Learning strategies are divided into three groups: meta-cognitive (planning and understanding one's own learning process), cognitive (directly dealing with the learning material), and social/affective (involving interaction and emotions). Skilled listeners mix these strategies, changing their approach based on the situation, a skill Vandergrift (2003) called "orchestration."

Recent studies, especially by Vandergrift et al. (2006), have emphasized meta-cognitive strategies. They created a questionnaire to measure how aware learners are of their listening strategies and tested it in Canada, Singapore, and the Netherlands. They found five key factors linked to successful listening: problem-solving (making and checking guesses), planning and elaboration (preparing and evaluating), avoiding mental translation, personal knowledge (confidence and self-perception as a listener), and directed attention (focusing on the task).

Table 10. Listening strategies

COGNITIVE	**META-COGNITIVE**	**SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE**
Predicting/Inferencing • from the text • from the voice • from the body language • between discourse parts **Elaboration** • from personal experience • from world knowledge	• advance organization • self-management **Comprehension monitoring** • confirming comprehension • identifying words not understood **Directed attention** • concentrating	**Questioning (two-way tasks)** • asking for clarification • asking for repetition • using comprehension check **Cooperation** • working with other learners **Anxiety reduction** • encouraging yourself

• from academic learning • from imagination **Contextualization** **Imagery** **Summarization** • mental • physical (notes) **Translation** **Repetition** **Transfer from other language(s)** **Deduction Fixation** • stopping to think about spelling • stopping to think about meaning • stopping to memorize	• persevering despite problems **Selective attention** • listening for familiar words • listening for the overall message • noticing the information structure • noticing repetition and reformulation • listening to specific parts **Evaluation** • checking interpretation against predictions • checking interpretation against knowledge • checking interpretation against context	• comparing yourself with others • focusing on success **Relaxation** • using physical techniques • using visualization

Difficulties Students Meet While Listening

Studying how FL learners have been taught to listen, it's clear that the choice of listening materials wasn't always based on how hard or easy they were. This often led to using materials that didn't fit well with the students' needs or the tasks they were supposed to do after listening. The focus was more on whether the topic was suitable, not on other important factors. However, recent research has worked on figuring out what makes some listening passages harder or easier to understand. Authors like Rubin (1994), Brown (1995), and Anderson and Lynch (1988) have been referenced by Buck (2001) who summarized their findings into a list of characteristics that influence the difficulty of listening materials.

Table 11. Sources of difficulty in foreign language listening

INPUT CHARACTERISTICS
Language
Speech rate
Unfamiliar accent
Number of speakers
Similarity of voices
Use of less frequent vocabulary
Grammatical complexity
Embedded idea units
Complex pronoun reference
Explicitness
Implicit ideas
Lack of redundancy
Organization
Events narrated out of natural time order
Examples preceding the point they illustrate
Content
Unfamiliar topics
Number of things and people referred to
Unclear indication of the relative importance of protagonists in the text
Shifting relationships between protagonists
Abstract content
Context
Lack of visual or other support
TASK CHARACTERISTICS
Tasks tend to be more difficult when they require:
Processing of more details
Integration of information from different parts of the text
Recall of gist (for example, writing a summary) rather than exact content
Separation of fact from opinion
Recall of non-central or irrelevant details
A delayed response, rather than an immediate one

Source: adapted from Buck (2001)

In conclusion, an efficient approach in coping with learners' difficulties is to design listening activities that follow the main stages like pre-listening, while listening stages and then an extended post listening stage in which gaps in the learners listening skills could be examined and redressed through short micro-listening exercises.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Improving weak listening:

- *Instruct students to start easy* (students are recommended to start with short listening exercises. They listen to it as many times as they want. They can listen only, or listen and read the script, but they should work with this material until they start noticing some improvement in their listening skills.
- *Move towards something that`s a little more difficult* (students should continue using tailored materials but are also encouraged to attempt engaging with longer conversations beyond the book).
- *Repetition and timeframe:* encourage students to listen to the same audio file several times, tell them this is the best way-repetition gets result!
- *Use the scripts:* Learn students to listen to the audio with the script, then without it, repeating as needed to eventually understand without reading. The goal is to gradually wean the student off the scripts altogether and have them just listen for comprehension.
- *Exposure to more "real-life" material*: look for media resources that are specifically targeted to EFL students and come complete with audio, reading material and comprehension exercises.
- *Time for the "real" stuff*: Finally, after months of hard work, student should be ready to tackle real life audio and video material (You Tube videos, TV series, news broadcast, etc.).

Interactive Activities

In order to master students listening skills teachers give them a number of practice that involves *true or false, multiple choice, multiple matching or gap filling exercises*. In these exercises students must listen to a recording and then solve them. This format is used in the most international language exams.

Dictation is an activity to learn languages by listening and writing down what you hear. It is a highly effective task. There are diverse types of dictation starting with checking spelling to higher level to focus on specific grammar point. Dictations can be used for checking comprehension, listening for details, or starting discussions. Whether the teacher does the dictation or use recordings, students will get used to more complex and diverse exercises. One less regular but very interactive *is running dictation*:

The activity combines writing, reading, speaking, and listening for a tremendous whole language experience. Here's how it works. Divide the class into two teams and then split the teams in half. One half of each team stays seated and the other half stands at the board. It works best if each team is an equal distance from their seats to the board. Each team is given an envelope with a cutup excerpt. Teachers can use a piece of a reading, a dialogue, or a conversation. The seated-half teams must quickly assemble the jumbled up reading into what they believe is the cohesive story. Give them a certain amount of time to do this-maybe a minute or two. Then the seated students stand in line at their desks each with a slip of paper from the reading, in the order that they desire to be. This is where it gets crazy and loud.

The students at the board should each have a marker and each student takes a turn writing a line on the board. The student with the first slip of paper must clearly shout what it says so the student at the board-a fair distance apart-can write down the line word for word. Teachers can establish as many rules as they like, but the fun part is not letting them linger on any one line for very long. Use a timer or buzzer to designate when the next student is up. This activity breaks the monotony of routine, allows the students to be loud, and hones listening and speaking skills in an effective way. Try it with beginners or take it to the next level with the advanced students.

Music to My Lexicon (try in your classroom!)

Choose a song. Anything will work, so match the song to the personality of the class. Before class, make a list of interesting vocabulary words that appear in the song.

a. Give the list to your students and review the pronunciation of each word. Then play the song for them and let them cross off the words on the list as they hear them.

b. Get the lyrics to the song you want to play and replace each fifth word with a blank. Or you can target specific words you want your students to listen for. As they listen to the song, students will have to fill in the blanks in the lyrics.

Use for this the following free site:

https://www.textcompare.org/cloze-test-maker/

? Task 1. Multiple Choice Questions: Check your Knowledge!

1. What is listening?

a. A passive process of receiving information without effort.
b. A complex process that involves various tasks.
c. A one-shot nature activity that cannot be redone.
d. A skill that does not require prior knowledge.

2. Which model views listening as an active process?

a. Communication Theory Model.
b. Information Processing Model.
c. Social/Contextual Model.
d. Situated Action Model.

3. What is an example of bottom-up processing in listening?

a. Guessing the speaker's intent.
b. Inferring implicit meanings.
c. Recognizing sounds and decoding words.
d. Using prior knowledge to understand.

4. What is an example of top-down processing in listening?

a. Discriminating sounds in words.
b. Catching the unsaid meaning.
c. Focusing on stress and intonation.
d. Decoding complex grammatical structures.

5. Which strategy can help improve listening skills?

a. Predicting and inferring.
b. Translating word for word.
c. Ignoring unfamiliar accents.
d. Listening to audio without scripts.

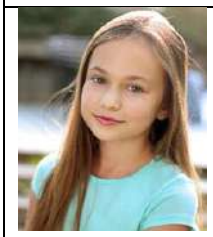
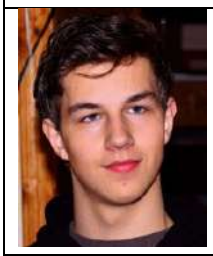
6. What are some characteristics that can make listening materials difficult?

a. Familiar topics and vocabulary.
b. Redundancy and explicitness.
c. Slow speech rate and clear pronunciation.
d. Unfamiliar accents and complex grammar.

7. What is a recommended approach to improving weak listening skills?

a. Listening to longer conversations beyond the textbook.
b. Avoiding repetition and exposure to real-life materials.
c. Focusing only on written exercises for listening practice.
d. Using translation as the primary listening strategy.

? Task 2. Analyze the listening experiences described by the students in the table below and determine which type of listening process each student is using: bottom-up or top-down. Why?

	Dan hears the key words *past, library, next* and *5 minutes* when he asks someone for directions. He uses *his knowledge of the world* and guesses that the speaker is telling him to continue walking for about 5 minutes and keep going when he passes the local library.
	Ann knows about sports but only catches the words *team, lose, 10* and *players*. She *uses her knowledge of the topic* to help her understand that the speaker is describing a football team who lost their match because they only had 10 players instead of 11.
	Jana hears a new word when her friend is talking: *I don't really like ???* but my dad says *I should eat it because it's good for me!* She can *guess the meaning from* the co-text because her friend has been talking about healthy food.
	Alin isn't sure if the speaker said *a lot of fun* or *a lot of sun*. *He waits until the speaker has said a little bit more so he can check his ideas*, and one of these options suddenly makes more sense.

PRAGMATICS AND FUNCTIONAL LANGUAGE USE IN SOCIAL CONTEXTS

Pragmatics and speech acts
Pronunciation and its impact
Theories to practical use
Social interactions strategies

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Understand how pragmatics and speech act theory apply to real-life language use
- Learn the importance of tone, pace, and stress in effective communication
- Use speech act theory and Grice's Cooperative Principle to enhance communication skills
- Develop strategies for polite requests, promises, apologies, and other social interactions in the target language

> *Quote:*
> "Language is a tool for action, not just a means of conveying information."
>
> **J.L. Austin**

Introduction: Pragmatics-Saying What You Mean

Pragmatics deals with understanding spoken language and its teaching. Discourse analysis and corpus linguistics, which involve studying large collections of real-life language use, have shown that language is about communicating meaning within social contexts, moving beyond traditional sentence-based grammar teaching (McCarthy, and Carter, 2007). This shift focuses on functional nature of speech acts ranging from single words to long speeches, suggesting a move from form-focused to text- and function-based language teaching (Burns, 2001; Thornbury and Slade, 2006; Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

Context is crucial to communication, especially in speaking, which is an essential daily activity. Effective communication requires an understanding of the cultural and social environments in which it takes place. This involves learning specific points, such as when and how to speak, which are determined by the objectives of the speaker in a particular circumstance.

By understanding the pragmatic and functional use of language in social contexts, individuals can navigate conversations more effectively and achieve their communication goals.

Complexities of pronunciation, highlighting the importance of tone, pace, and stress in speech as communication tools. It influences not just how we are perceived by others but also how well we are able to communicate. Although teaching and learning pronunciation involves special problems because many components of pronunciation happen automatically, it is essential for language teachers and learners alike (Gilbert, 2008).

John Austin and John Searle Speech Act Theory

When learning English as a foreign language, understanding how we use language in real life is as important as grammar and vocabulary. This is where "speech acts" come in. Speech acts are all about what we do with words: promising, apologizing, thanking, and more:

- "I promise I'll return your book by tomorrow."
- "I assure you, I'll help you with your homework tonight."

- "I'm really sorry for being late. It won't happen again."
- "My apologies for misunderstanding your words. I didn't mean to upset you."

- "I really appreciate your support during this time."
- "Thanks for your advice, it was really helpful."

There is much more to conversation than the simple communication of factual information. We use language to perform actions, too: *I promise*, or *I bet you*, for example, by their very expression imply a commitment on the part of the speaker; many people find it difficult to say *I'm sorry*, because much more than mere words is involved.

John Austin and *John Searle* are the authors of works on speech act theory. This theory, particularly the concept of illocutionary acts, provides a deeper layer of insight into how language functions in social contexts. They demonstrated that using these speech acts correctly can greatly improve communication skills in English, making interactions more meaningful and effective.

Austin introduced the idea during his Harvard lectures in 1955 that language doesn't just describe reality; it transforms it.

John Searle further developed Austin`s ideas, classifying speech acts into categories such as assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Illocutionary acts, a key focus of their work, are about the intention behind speech acts-what the speaker intends to achieve by uttering a phrase or sentence. Then, *Wittgenstein* (a later influence) compared language to a toolbox with countless functions, from giving orders to making jokes.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Language is a tool for action, not just a means of conveying information. When we speak, we do not just say things, but we also do things. John Searle called these "*performative utterances*" or *speech acts*. He expanded on Austin's Speech Act Theory by classifying speech acts into five main categories*: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Assertives* convey information or describe the world, directives aim to get the listener to do something, and commissives commit the speaker to a future action. *Expressives* reveal the speaker's feelings or attitudes, while *declarations* bring about a change in the external world through their utterance.

J.L. Austin and John Searle developed Speech Act Theory and argued that our language does not only describe reality but that it can be used to perform acts. https://www.thecollector.com/author/andres-barrero/

The Concept of Illocutionary Force

Illocutionary acts are central to Speech Act Theory. These acts involve saying something with a **conventional force**, such as informing, ordering, warning, requesting, or refusing. When we make sentences, we perform illocutionary acts that go beyond literal meaning. Let's have a look at types of speech acts: Austin suggests that there are three kinds of force, associated with the nature of the speech act performed (Levinson 1983):

-*locutionary acts* that refers to saying something meaningful-uttering words, phrases, or sentences.

-*illocutionary acts* that are the speech acts themselves-what we achieve by saying something (e.g., convincing, persuading, deterring, advising, promising, declaring, etc.).

-*perlocutionary acts* that refer to the effects of illocutionary acts (of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence) (e.g., surprising, misleading) on the listener or recipient.

The distinction between the second and third type may be difficult to draw in practice. Austin offers the following concrete example: "Shoot her!"

Here, he suggests, the utterance may have the *illocutionary force* of ordering, urging or advising the addressee to shoot someone, but the *perlocutionary force* of persuading, forcing or frightening the addressee into shooting her (and also of frightening the intended victim). The *perlocutionary* force is the most obviously context-dependent aspect of the speech act, the illocutionary force being often conventionalized within the sentence type. In the above example, the illocutionary force of ordering is conventionally associated with a particular sentence type (imperative), but direct imperatives are often avoided in practice, for reasons we explore below, in favor of *indirect speech acts*. For example, instead of saying "Shut the door!" one might use an interrogative form ("Can/will you shut the door?"), or even superficially declarative statement ("Brr! It's cold in here!") in the hope that the interlocutor will take the hint.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

Using performatives

Verbs such as *promise*, *declare*, *bet*, *swear*, *order*, which constitute an action by virtue of being uttered, are called performatives. To be used appropriately, their relevant felicity conditions must be met, otherwise a misfire or an abuse will result. *(How to do Things with Words)*

(J.L. Austin, 1962)

Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson Politeness Theory

Politeness theory sheds light on how language use is influenced by social norms, interpersonal relationships, and the desire to maintain face (both positive and negative) during communication.

Politeness theory, proposed by *Penelope Brown* and *Stephen Levinson*, builds on the idea of speech acts. This is an excerpt from Brown and Levinson (1987) conversation related to politeness: The need to be polite, is an important driver of the way we express ourselves in most circumstances, from the use of indirect speech acts we alluded to above, to the insertion of conversational fillers such as "I'm sorry…" or "Not being funny, but… ". It

suggests that when people communicate, they are often trying to maintain a balance between expressing themselves and being considerate of others' feelings. This theory introduces the concept of "face" (a person's social image) and suggests strategies people use to "save" or "threaten" someone's face during communication.

Negative face refers simply to an individual's desire to be free from imposition, while **positive face** refers to one's need to be viewed positively by one's peers and to be accepted as part of a group. In certain circumstances, speech acts can be seen as **Face-threatening acts** (FTAs), the force of which speakers attempt in normal circumstances to minimize. One of the felicity conditions for using an imperative or an overt performative verb such as *command* or *order*, for example, is that the speaker be in a position of power or authority over the addressee, and thereby have the authority to require compliance from his/her. But the act of saying "Get me a cup of coffee!" or "I order you to get me a cup of coffee" , threatens the addressee's face by underlining the difference in status and imposition upon him/her. The speaker may therefore wish to attenuate this status difference and thereby protect the latter's face, often at the expense of his/her own, by using an *indirect speech act*, e.g. "Would you mind getting me a cup of coffee?" or "May I ask you to get me a cup of coffee?" Although lacking the force of an order, a request similarly threatens the addressee's negative face: the addressee in turn will strive to avoid the less favored choice of saying no, which would constitute a threat to the speaker's positive face (now you know why so many people complain "I just couldn't say "no"!"). Politeness is seen as a way of mitigating face-threatening acts.

Grice's Cooperative Principle

Paul Grice's Cooperative Principle focuses on how people achieve effective communication in conversations. He proposed four maxims (Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner) that speakers usually follow to make their contributions as informative, true, relevant, and clear as necessary. This principle underlines the expectation for cooperation between speakers and listeners to make conversations work.

Trying to connect speech acts and cooperation then both speech act theory and Grice's Cooperative Principle recognize the functional aspect of language. While speech act theory looks at the kinds of actions we perform

with words, Grice's principle deals with the way we manage to do so effectively, adhering to certain conversational norms and expectations.

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

The four main rules or "maxims" that guide us to communicate effectively according to *Grice's Cooperative Principle:*

1. *The Maxim of Quantity*: Be as informative as needed. Don't give too much or too little information. If someone asks if you want tea or coffee, simply saying "yes" is not very helpful.
2. *The Maxim of Quality*: Try to be truthful. Don't say what you believe is false or things you lack evidence for. If you haven't seen a movie, don't say it's good or bad.
3. *The Maxim of Relation:* Be relevant. Stick to the topic. If someone asks how your weekend was, they probably don't want to know what you had for lunch last Tuesday.
4. *The Maxim of Manner:* Be clear. Avoid being vague or ambiguous. Say things in a way that's easy to understand. Instead of saying "The precipitation was sufficient," say "It rained enough."

Understanding these types of speech acts, principles and the intentions behind them can significantly enhance the teaching and learning of a foreign language. By integrating speech act theory into language instruction, educators can help students not just to form grammatically correct sentences but to use language purposefully to achieve specific outcomes in communication. This approach aligns with the shift towards function-based teaching highlighted by O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007), as it places emphasis on the use of language in real-life social interactions rather than abstract grammatical structures.

In practice, teaching that incorporates an awareness of speech acts encourages students to consider the context, purpose, and effect of their language use. It helps learners to navigate the nuances of polite requests, promises, apologies, and other social interactions in the target language. For instance, understanding the difference between directly asking for something ("Give me the book") and a more polite indirect request ("Could you give me the book?") can be crucial in effective communication and is deeply rooted in the understanding of illocutionary acts.

Furthermore, speech act theory can aid language teachers in designing lessons that go beyond vocabulary and grammar to include pragmatic competence-the ability to use language effectively and appropriately in social contexts. This may include teaching students how to recognize and produce speech acts that are appropriate to their communicative goals, leading to more nuanced and effective language use.

In conclusion, connecting speech acts analysis and the insights from corpus linguistics with the key concepts introduced by Austin, Searle and Grice, especially illocutionary acts, provides a robust framework for improving foreign language teaching. By focusing on the functional and pragmatic aspects of language use, educators can better prepare learners for real-world communication, where the success of interaction often depend on the ability to navigate social contexts and intentions through speech.

Interactive Activities

In the dynamic world of language learning, particularly in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL), it's essential to move beyond the basics of grammar and vocabulary to the minor nuances of real-life communication. This involves understanding not just what we say, but how we say it, and the impact it has on our interactions. The theories introduced by John Austin and John Searle on speech acts, Paul Grice's Cooperative Principle, and the Politeness Theory offer deep insights into these communicative nuances. To equip our students with the communicative competence necessary for efficient interactions, teachers must employ strategies and activities that will them to become good communicators: *set up role-playing scenarios* where students must use various speech acts (promises, requests, apologies, etc.) in context; match-up cards with conversational situations, learn students how to use English language in different social scenarios (e.g., declining an invitation, making a suggestion) and let them brainstorm and practice responses that demonstrate positive and negative politeness strategies; organize debates or discussion panels on controversial topics and practice respectful and effective communication, even in potentially face-threatening situations, etc.

Activity: "The Polite Request Relay"

Grade Level: 4th Grade -Materials Needed:

A set of flashcards with simple actions written on them (e.g., "pass the pencil", "open the door", "borrow a book"), a small soft ball or bean bag, space in the classroom for students to move around safely.

Task Instructions:

- **Divide the Class**: Split the class into two teams and line them up at one end of the classroom. At the other end, place a table with the flashcards face down.
- **Explain the Rules**: Explain to the students that they will be participating in a relay race to practice making polite requests. One student from each team will run to the table, pick up a flashcard, and then use a polite request to ask their teammates to perform the action written on the card.
- **Model the Language**: Before starting the race, model the activity by demonstrating how to make a polite request. For example, pick a flashcard and say, "Could you please pass the pencil?" or "May I borrow a book?" Emphasize using "Could you please..." or "May I..." to start their requests.
- **Start the Relay**: On your signal, the first student from each team runs to the table, chooses a flashcard, and returns to their team. They must then use a polite request to ask a teammate to perform the action. For example, if the card says "open the door," they could say, "Could you please open the door?"
- **Team Participation**: After completing the action, the teammate runs to the table to pick the next flashcard, and the relay continues. Praise all students for their effort and participation. Highlight the importance of using polite language in daily interactions.

? Task 1. Read the Case Study "Safety First: Pre- (and Pre-Pre-) Requests" carefully. Identify and list the speech acts (following Austin and Searle's theory) present in Steve's conversation with Paula, categorizing them into pre-pre-request, pre-request, and request. Reflect on how each speech act serves to navigate the social sensitivity of the situation and attempt to protect both Steve's and Paula's "face" in accordance with Politeness theory.

Case Study:

Safety first: pre- (and pre-pre-) requests

In some cases, particularly where the nature of a request is sensitive, the threat to the face of the addressee, and potentially also that of the speaker in the event of a refusal, is perceived to be significant enough for

the speaker to wish to avoid making the request directly. In such circumstances **pre-sequences** are common, allowing all parties to save face. The question 'Are you doing anything on Saturday night?', for example, looks like a simple request for information, but may in practice mean 'I'm working my way up to asking you out on a date'. It therefore functions as a **pre-request**, protecting both parties' face by enabling them if needs be to maintain that no actual invitation was ever made: the response 'Yes, I'm busy with my drama rehearsal', for example, directly answers the question posed and allows the (positive) face-threatening 'I don't actually want to go out with you' to be avoided. But in the same way as 'polite' requests using conditional structures have become conventionalized, so pre-requests like the one above are in some cases equally transparent, and addressees will respond to them as if they were in fact direct requests ('**I'm sorry, but** I'm very busy'). It is not uncommon, therefore, for the conversationally wary to resort to **pre-pre-requests** for additional face protection:

Steve: I guess you must get bored of an evening, now that your boyfriend's been sent to prison? (pre-pre-request)

Paula: Well, yes, now you mention it the evenings do drag on a bit.

Steve: Are you doing anything this evening? (pre-request)

Paula: I don't think so…

Steve: Would you like to come to the cinema with me? (request)

Pre-sequences like these illustrate the complexity of conversation structure, a focus of scholarly attention in the branch of linguistic study known as **conversational analysis**, founded in the late 1960s and early 1970s, and associated notably with the sociologists Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson.

? Task 2. Using the same case study, examine Steve's approach to asking Paula out by applying Grice's Cooperative Principle.

Discuss how Steve's conversation strategy aligns or conflicts with Grice's four maxims (Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner). Consider the effectiveness of Steve's communication in terms of being informative, truthful, relevant, and clear while managing the politeness and face-saving aspects of the interaction.

? Task 3. Multiple Choice Questions: Check your Knowledge!

1. What is the focus of pragmatics?
a. Understanding written language
b. Understanding spoken language and its teaching
c. Understanding grammar and vocabulary
d. Understanding sentence-based grammar teaching

2. What is the concept of illocutionary acts in speech act theory?
a. The effects of speech acts on the listener or recipient
b. The intention behind speech acts and what the speaker intends to achieve
c. The act of saying something meaningful-uttering words, phrases, or sentences
d. The conventional force associated with speech acts

3. What is the co-operative principle?
a. A prescription for successful conversation
b. A robust assumption of co-operation on the part of participants in an interaction
c. A hypothesis that human beings generally tell the truth in one-to-one conversation
d. A belief among conversationalists that their interlocutors are telling the truth, even though they themselves might not be

4. What would politicians generally prefer to do in an interview?
a. Violate the quantity rather than the quality maxim
b. Violate the quality rather than the relevance maxim
c. Not violate the maxim of manner
d. Lie through their teeth

5. What is the significance of pronunciation in language teaching and learning?
a. It helps in understanding the functional nature of speech acts
b. It determines the objectives of the speaker
c. It influences how well we are able to communicate
d. It focuses on sentence-based grammar teaching

Key and Useful Words and Definitions:

- *Pragmatics:* The study of how context influences the interpretation of language.
- *Speech Acts:* Actions performed via speaking, such as apologizing, requesting, or promising.
- *Illocutionary Act:* The intended meaning behind what is said.
- *Perlocutionary Act:* The effect or response elicited by what is said.
- *Politeness Theory:* Explores how people manage face-saving and face-threatening acts in communication.
- *Cooperative Principle:* A guideline for effective communication, suggesting speakers make their contributions as informative, true, relevant, and clear as necessary.
- *Assertives:* Speech acts that commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition. Examples include stating, claiming, or reporting. They are used to describe a state of affairs or to assert that something is the case.
- *Directives:* Speech acts that aim to cause the hearer to take a particular action. Examples include requests, commands, and advice. Directives attempt to get the listener to do something.
- *Commissives:* Speech acts that commit the speaker to some future action. Examples include promises, vows, and threats. Commissives involve the speaker taking on an obligation to perform a certain action.
- *Expressives:* Speech acts that express the speaker's attitudes and emotions towards the proposition, such as congratulating, apologizing, and condoling. Expressives are used to convey the speaker's feelings or emotional states.

Useful sites:

1. https://youtu.be/MPwpk-YgvjQ?si=7X_O1u6h05oOcF_0 (**Pragmatics Gives Context to Language)**
2. https://youtu.be/MPwpk-YgvjQ?si=tq3mwK4Q-r2WN7e_ (**Language, speaking and pronunciation practice)**

READING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Reading in L1 and L2
Key aspects of reading
Reading strategies and
text comprehension

Objectives (students will be able to):

- Notice how reading in a foreign language is different and challenging
- Practice reading strategies that make understanding texts easier
- Discuss essential components of reading, including word recognition and comprehension strategies
- Use understanding of word forms, sentence structures, and text organization to improve reading comprehension

> *Quote:*
> "When you read a book, you hold a thousand lives in your hands—a thousand worlds waiting to be explored."
>
> **Unknown**

Introduction to Reading

Reading in a foreign language opens up a world of new possibilities, allowing learners to discover different cultures, ideas, and ways of thinking. It is an important skill that not only enhances language proficiency but also broadens one's understanding and appreciation of the global community. Engaging with texts beyond one's native language can be both challenging and rewarding.

Reading in a foreign language isn't just about understanding words on a page. It's a complex activity that involves several key steps. Firstly, when the learners read, they deal with the language itself - this includes sounds, word forms, meanings, and how sentences are put together, as well as understanding the bigger picture the text paints.

Then, there's another level where they really scan the text. Here, they summarize what they've read, guess meanings based on what they already know, check if they're achieving their reading goals, and fix any

misunderstandings they might have. Even though this sounds like a lot, fluent readers do this so smoothly that they hardly notice the effort involved.

Lastly, reading taps into learner`s broader thinking skills. This means using learners` short-term and long-term memory, being motivated, setting goals for their reading, learning through patterns, making connections, and applying what they learn. All these skills not only help them with reading and language but also in understanding the world around them (Grabe and Stoller, 2020; Ellis, 2015).

Essential Concepts Corner!!!

"Reading in a foreign language isn't just a slower path on the same road as reading in your first language; it's a whole new journey with its own set of challenges and diversities, from how we understand language to our personal experiences and backgrounds."

(Grabe and Stoller, 2020)

Different L1/L2 Starting Points for Reading

When learning English as a foreign language, the journey of reading starts differently than it does with our first language. For beginners, those reading in a foreign language often have fewer language tools to work with at the beginning. They might not know as many words, or understand the grammar and the way stories are put together as well.

Most children learning their first language have been talking and listening for about 4 to 5 years before they start reading. By the time they begin, they've already picked up a lot of their language's rules without even thinking about it. They keep learning more complex language used in books until they're about 12, but they have a good grasp on the basics early on. By the age of six, a child might know between 5,000 to 7,000 words (Graves, 2016).

However, when it comes to reading in a second language, many students are starting to read at the same time they're still getting the hang of speaking in that new language. They're older than first language learners when they start, and they don't have a big amount of language knowledge to help them understand what they're reading. In short, they're working with a lot less language experience (Grabe and Stoller, 2020).

L1/L2 Reading Differences

For many students learning English as a second language, an interesting advantage is that they already know how to read in their first language. This prior knowledge can have a mixed impact on learning to read in English. On one hand, their understanding of how reading works in their first language can help them pick up English reading skills faster. On the other hand, it can sometimes cause confusion, especially when the two languages are very different.

When students start reading in English, they don't just leave their first language behind. Their knowledge of that first language affects how they understand English words and sentences. This can be helpful, like when both languages share similar rules, but it can also make things tricky if the languages do very different things (Dronjic and Bitan, 2016; Verhoeven, 2017).

Students also face unique challenges because they're juggling two languages in their minds. They have to deal with things like remembering words in both languages and figuring out when to use certain reading strategies. But the more they read in English and the more help they get from teachers, the easier it becomes to navigate these challenges. Over time, with lots of reading practice and supportive guidance, learners can overcome these hurdles and become fluent readers in English, no matter what their first language is (Koda, 2005).

L2 learners have greater awareness of linguistic knowledge through the L2

Students learning English as a foreign language often gain a deeper understanding of how languages work. They develop a sharper awareness of language details and how to think about their learning process compared to native English speakers, who might not think as much about how they use their language.

This deeper thinking about language, known as meta-linguistic knowledge, comes from learning about English vocabulary, grammar, and how we put ideas together to make sentences and stories. Because they've had lessons on these topics, students learning English can use this knowledge to help them understand what they read better.

Meta-cognitive knowledge is all about understanding our own thoughts and how we learn. For students learning English, this means thinking about their goals, how they approach reading, and what to do if they get stuck. This kind of awareness is really helpful for learning to read in a new language. It lets students use strategies they've learned to tackle reading challenges.

However, if the reading material is too hard for their current level in English, students might find it tough to use what they know to help them understand. Even with all their awareness of language and learning strategies, sometimes finding the right English words or knowing the best way to figure something out can still be a challenge (Koda, 2008).

Motivation and Attitudes

When we look at reading in our first language compared to a foreign language, we notice different reasons why students might be motivated to read. They also feel differently about reading, which can include how confident they feel, how much they're interested, how involved they are, and how they react emotionally to reading. These attitudes can come from different aspects, like what we aim to achieve in school, our families and communities, our previous learning, or the general culture around reading and writing. We know being motivated to read is super important for getting better at it, so it's really important for teachers to know how to encourage their students. Besides the specific reasons for wanting to read or do reading tasks, learners also come with their own feelings about reading in English language. These attitudes are often shaped by their past learning experiences and the differences between their first and foreign language communities. How students see their ability to do reading tasks, and how they see themselves as learners and readers, can really affect how they feel about themselves, influence students' self-esteem, emotional responses to reading, interest in reading and willingness to persist (Washington, Terry and Seidenberg, 2014). Understanding these feelings and attitudes is just as crucial in teaching reading in a second language as it is in the first language, as they can be big factors in how well students do in school.

Key Aspects of Reading:

1. *Word Recognition:* Recognizing individual words and their meanings.
2. *Orthography (Spelling):* Understanding the correct spelling and arrangement of letters.
3. *Alphabetics and Phonics*: Grasping the relationship between letters and their corresponding sounds.
4. *Phonemic Awareness*: Sensitivity to the sounds within words.
5. *Vocabulary*: Building a rich word bank.
6. *Comprehension:* Understanding the meaning.
7. *Fluency:* The ability to speak or write a language smoothly, accurately, and with ease.

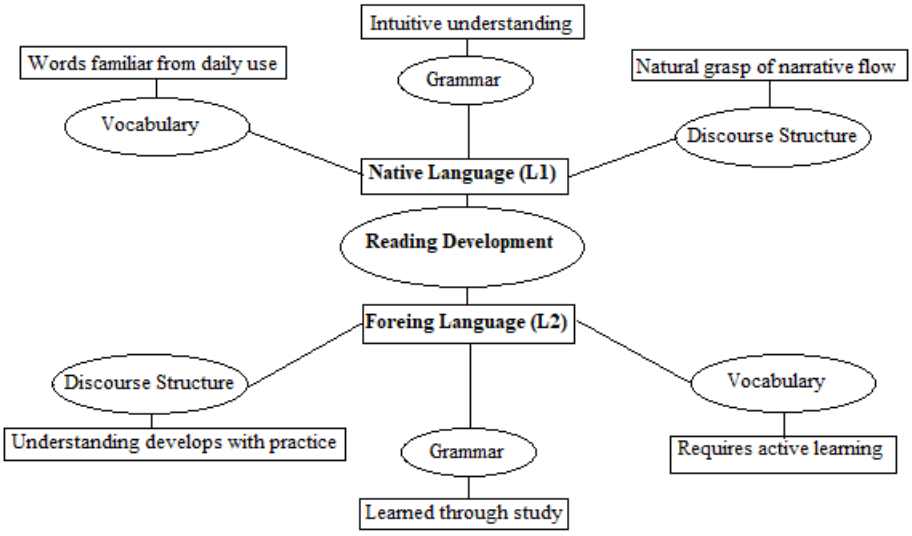


Figure 13. Differences between first language (L1) and foreign language (L2) reading development

Vocabulary Knowledge

Research shows that learners who read fluently have a big vocabulary and that knowing lots of words helps a lot with reading (Grabe and Stoller, 2020; Graves, 2016). The more you know about a word, the better you can read. This idea is called the 'Lexical Quality Hypothesis' (Andrews, 2015). It means both knowing many words and knowing them well is important for reading well. The best way to learn lots of words is by reading a lot. Reading helps students to think critically and understand complex ideas, which is key for succeeding. (Farnia, 2013; Verhoeven, 2017). But, reading isn't enough on its own. Teaching, the use of specific strategies helps too. Still, learners can't get good at reading without lots of practice.

People often wonder how many words students need to know to read well in a foreign language at school without much help. While numbers vary, the average is about 40,000 words for native speakers and around 8,000 to 9,000 word families for those reading in a foreign language (L2) (Graves, 2016; Gardner, 2013; Nation, 2013; Koda, 2019). Learners learn many of these words by seeing them often when they read.

According to many studies rich vocabulary is closely linked to understanding what students read in a foreign language. Having a rich vocabulary in the language help students to read and understand a wide range

of texts. Reading a lot and seeing lots of words can really help them learn (Beck, 2016; Meyer, 2017).

Morphology, Syntax, and Discourse Structure Knowledge

Studies show that knowledge of grammar, sentence structures, and the way information is organized in texts greatly helps learners understand what they read. Knowing about different morphological knowledge is especially useful for advanced readers. This understanding helps not just by improving direct reading skills but also by supporting other key reading abilities. In recent years, research has shown its importance for both first language (L1) and foreign language (L2) readers.

For example, understanding word forms (derivational morphology) has been linked to better vocabulary growth and reading comprehension among older students. Similarly, knowing how sentences are put together (grammar) is crucial for reading well in both L1 and L2. Studies have found that grammar knowledge is a strong predictor of reading skills. The findings of the study indicate a significant direct relationship between morphological awareness and reading comprehension and a strong significant mediated relationship through vocabulary to reading comprehension (Deacon and Kieffer, 2018).

Understanding how information is structured in texts (discourse structure) is also of key importance. Texts use certain patterns like cause and effect, comparison, or steps in a process to organize information. Teaching students about these patterns can help them understand texts better. Discourse structures are patterns of organization that are used to convey information in a coherent manner. They are relatively few in number and recur regularly across texts in various combinations. These structures include cause–effect, chronology, classification, comparison–contrast, definition, description, for–against, problem–solution and procedure (sequence). Research has shown that this understanding supports reading comprehension and can be taught effectively (Meyer and Wijekumar, 2017; Meyer and Lei, 2017).

In L2 reading, using tools like graphic organizers to understand text structures has proven beneficial. It helps students see how texts are organized, connect different parts of texts, and use these patterns in their own writing. Studies have shown that this approach can significantly improve reading comprehension.

Reading Strategies-Text Comprehension

As educators, our goal is to empower students to become proficient readers in English as a Foreign Language (EFL). There are more key reading

strategies that can significantly enhance students' comprehension skills. Let`s analyze some of them that are important in an efficient activity of text comprehension:

- *Predicting Content:* Before reading, encourage students to predict the content of a text based on the title, headings, and any images. This activates their prior knowledge and sets a purpose for reading.
- Skimming: Teach students to skim a text first to understand its general idea. This involves quickly reading titles, headings, and the first sentences of paragraphs. It helps students get an overview without becoming overwhelmed by details.
- *Scanning:* Scanning is useful for finding specific information. Instruct students to look through the text rapidly for keywords or numbers that are relevant to the questions they are trying to answer.
- *Making Connections:* Encourage students to connect the text with their own experiences, other texts they've read, and the world around them. This makes the reading more relatable and easier to understand.
- *Visualizing:* Visualizing involves creating mental images based on the text. This strategy can be particularly helpful in engaging students and aiding their comprehension of descriptive passages.
- *Asking Questions:* Teach students to ask questions about the text as they read. Questions can be about vocabulary, content, or the author's intent. This strategy keeps students engaged and promotes deeper understanding.
- *Summarizing:* After reading, students should practice summarizing the text in their own words. This reinforces their understanding and helps them identify the main ideas and supporting details.
- *Inferencing:* Encourage students to use clues from the text to infer meanings or conclusions that aren't explicitly stated. This develops critical thinking and deeper comprehension.
- *Vocabulary Strategies:* Equip students with strategies to decipher the meaning of new words through context clues, word parts (prefixes, roots, suffixes), and using a dictionary effectively.
- *Annotating:* Teach students to annotate the text by highlighting key points, underlining new vocabulary, and writing notes in the margins. This active engagement with the text improves retention and comprehension.

In conclusion, implementing these strategies in teaching practice can improve students' reading comprehension in English. Each strategy

empowers students to become more independent and confident readers. Usually these strategies are introduced gradually and then are incorporated more as students become skillful with them.

? Task 1. Select a substantial text excerpt from a textbook or other reading resource.

Students: Imagine a group of high-intermediate or low-advanced students of English from either heterogeneous or homogeneous L1 backgrounds (you decide which), whose language requirements include reading skills in the social sciences.

Activity: The activity focuses on reading strategies to comprehend the text and to use the information for other tasks. These strategies may include *setting a purpose for reading, previewing the text, predicting key information, skimming the text to determine main ideas, note-taking, summarizing, clarifying difficult concepts, identifying supporting ideas and evidence.*

Task for the students

- How might you model the application of the reading strategies listed above (and others) to the selected text?
- How can you help students make their use of each strategy 'meta-cognitive' to include student awareness of what the strategy is, how to use the strategy, why the strategy should be used, when and where to use the strategy, and how to help students evaluate their use of the strategy?

? Task 2. Motivation as a Key factor in Students' Achievement. A "Motivation meter" activity can contribute to the increase of students' motivation. Design a "Motivation Meter" activity to help students become more aware of their motivation levels and understand what influences their willingness to engage in reading tasks over time. Familiarize yourself with the concept of the "Motivation Meter" activity, including its objectives, materials needed, and step-by-step instructions.

Motivation Meter Activity

Objective: To help students track and reflect on their motivation for reading in a foreign language, understanding the factors that influence their drive to read over time.

Materials Needed:

- Printable or digital "Motivation Meter" chart

- Stickers or digital markers
- Journal or digital log for personal reflections

Instructions:

1. Setup Your Motivation Meter: The Motivation Meter is a simple chart with dates on the horizontal axis (x-axis) and motivation levels on the vertical axis (y-axis), ranging from 1 (low motivation) to 10 (high motivation). Each student receives their own meter to personalize.

2. Weekly Tracking: At the end of each week, students assess their motivation level for reading in the foreign language and place a sticker or digital marker on the Motivation Meter at the point that corresponds to their motivation level for that week.

3. Influences Log: Beside each weekly entry, students write a brief note in their journal or digital log about what influenced their motivation level. This could include aspects like:

- A particularly interesting reading assignment
- Challenges or difficulties encountered
- External influences (e.g., discussions with peers, watching a related movie)
- Personal feelings (e.g., excitement about new vocabulary learned, frustration with complex grammar)

4. Monthly Reflection: At the end of each month, students review their Motivation Meter and notes, reflecting on patterns or trends in their motivation. They answer questions such as:

- What were my highest and lowest motivation points this month?
- What activities or events corresponded to changes in my motivation?
- How did my feelings about reading in the foreign language change over the month?

5. Class Discussion: Optionally, hold a class discussion where students can share their experiences and strategies that helped maintain or increase their motivation. This encourages peer learning and support.

Think about: developing a detailed plan for implementing the "Motivation Meter" activity in your future classroom, the age and language proficiency level of your students; create a set of reflection questions for the monthly review part of the activity; think how you will evaluate students' engagement with the activity, the depth of their reflections, and the impact on their reading motivation.

Reading and Writing Activity

Reading is typically integrated with other linguistic skills such as writing, listening, grammar, and speaking, creating a comprehensive language learning experience. This holistic approach ensures that each skill is reinforced through interconnected practice.

When paired with **writing**, reading exposes students to various writing styles, vocabulary, and sentence structures. Let us discuss about an activity *Running dictation* that will make the students to have fun and read and write.

Objective: To develop reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills through a fun and engaging activity.

Setup:

- Prepare a short text and post it on the wall or blackboard at the front of the classroom.
- Divide the students into two groups.
- Each group designates a "runner" who will read the text and then return to their group to dictate it.

Procedure:

1. The first runner from each group runs to the text, reads a phrase, chunk, or sentence, and memorizes it.
2. The runner returns to their group and dictates what they read to a "writer" who writes it down.
3. The next runner from each group then runs to the text and repeats the process.
4. The activity continues until the entire text has been transcribed by each group.

Outcome:

- Students practice reading (by the runner), speaking (by the runner when dictating), listening (by the writer), and writing (by the writer).
- The activity fosters teamwork and reinforces memory and comprehension skills.

Checking knowledge questions

1. Think about the concept of universal grammar as introduced by Chomsky, specifically its implications for language learning and innate linguistic structures. What is universal grammar according to Noam Chomsky?
2. Explore the idea of recursion (What is the principle of recursion in linguistics? Is it a universal feature across different languages?), and give examples.
3. How do linguists differentiate between a language and a dialect?
4. How does linguistic understanding aid in teaching pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary in EFL?
5. Explain the difference between a dialect and a language, and provide examples to illustrate this distinction. What are the main dialects of British English?
6. How do the principles of Uniformitarianism, Comparative analysis, and Reciprocal Illumination in Historical Linguistics help linguists reconstruct the evolution of languages?
7. Examine how various linguistic processes such as reanalysis, semantic change, borrowing, and articulatory simplification collectively contribute to the evolution of a language (e.g., vowel shift). Provide a detailed example that demonstrates the interaction of these processes in shaping modern English.
8. What is the role of Historical Linguistics? How did the Latin language influence the development of the English language? Discuss diachronic and synchronic approaches.
9. Discuss the impact of Edward Sapir, William Labov, and Noam Chomsky on the development of phonological theories, specifically highlighting how their contributions have shaped modern understanding of phonemes and language variation.
10. What is prescriptive and descriptive linguistics? Give examples that reflect these two approaches.
11. What is morphology? What are morphemes, and how do they differ between free and bound morphemes? Provide examples of each.
12. How do inflectional and derivational morphology differ, and what impact do they have on word formation in English? Provide an example of each to support your explanation.
13. What is linguistics? What are the various methods of word formation in languages? Please explain each method with examples.
14. What is syntax, and how does it differ from grammar? Additionally, explain the concept of language phrases, describe their different types, and provide examples for each type.

15. What is syntax? Define and explain the concept of a clause, including its types. Also, describe the different types of sentences and provide examples for each type.
16. What does it mean to be an active or a passive listener? Give examples and describe metacognitive (planning and understanding one's own learning process), cognitive (directly dealing with the learning material), and social/affective (involving interaction and emotions) listening strategies that may be efficient in a classroom setting.

Applying knowledge questions

1. Imagine you are teaching ESL. How would you use your knowledge of linguistics to address pronunciation challenges in English for a student?
2. If a student is struggling with expanding their English vocabulary, how would you use your linguistic knowledge to support them?
3. Given the principles of Decay Theory, how can a teacher use these principles to design activities aimed at reinforcing new vocabulary words? Detail specific activities that incorporate repeated exposure and spaced repetition within the classroom setting. (This application question focuses on the practical implementation of Decay Theory, emphasizing strategies for reinforcing vocabulary through carefully structured activities that make use of repeated exposure and spaced repetition principles.)
4. Given the concept of universal grammar, how might a linguist explain the ability of children from different linguistic backgrounds to learn multiple languages at an early age? (Apply the idea of universal grammar to a real-world scenario involving bilingual or multilingual language acquisition in children.)
5. Discuss how the concept of recursion could be used to enhance language teaching methodologies. Think about the theoretical concept of recursion in practical use, exploring how understanding this linguistic feature could influence the way languages are taught.
6. Think about a language rule or grammar structure that you find interesting. How do you think it has evolved over time and why?
7. Reflect on the importance of descriptive linguistics in language study. How do you think understanding key aspects such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics can improve your own language skills?
8. Analyze each word to determine how it was formed. Specifically, identify whether the word is the result of compounding, prefixation, suffixation, or

an example of inflectional change. For each word, briefly explain the morphological process involved and, if applicable, identify the root word and the added morpheme(s). List of Words for Analysis: underestimate, misinterpretation, unbelievably, counterculture, biodegradable, antidisestablishmentarianism, simplification, irreplaceable, disenfranchisement, interconnectedness.

9. What are the differences between active and passive listening? Provide examples of each. Additionally, discuss how metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective listening strategies can be effectively applied in a classroom setting.
10. What is the difference between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts according to John Austin's Speech Act Theory? Explain Grice's Cooperative Principle and its four maxims. How do they contribute to effective communication? How would you use them in the English classroom?

List of Acronyms:

PIE- Proto-Indo-European
IPA- International Phonetic Alphabet
FLA- Foreign language acquisition
FL- Learners-Foreign language learners
NP-Noun phrase
PP-Prepositional phrase

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