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Series Editor: Terry Phillips
Anthony Manning

English for LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

in Higher Education Studies
Course Book



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Series editor: Terry Phillips

TerDU AKIM
№ 32109



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Introduction

English for Language and Linguistics is designed for students who plan to take a course in the field of language or linguistics entirely or partly in English. The principal aim of *English for Language and Linguistics* is to teach students to cope with input texts, i.e., listening and reading, in the discipline. However, students will be expected to produce output texts in speech and writing throughout the course.

The syllabus focuses on key vocabulary for the discipline and on words and phrases commonly used in academic English. It covers key facts and concepts from the discipline, thereby giving students a flying start for when they meet the same points again in their faculty work. It also focuses on the skills that will enable students to get the most out of lectures and written texts. Finally, it presents the skills required to take part in seminars and tutorials and to produce essay assignments.

English for Language and Linguistics comprises:

- student Course Book including audio transcripts and wordlist
- the Teacher's Book, which provides detailed guidance on each lesson, full answer keys, audio transcripts and extra photocopiable resources
- audio CDs with lecture and seminar excerpts

English for Language and Linguistics has 12 units, each of which is based on a different aspect of language studies. Odd-numbered units are based on listening (lecture/seminar extracts). Even-numbered units are based on reading.

Each unit is divided into four lessons:

Lesson 1: vocabulary for the discipline; vocabulary skills such as word-building, use of affixes, use of synonyms for paraphrasing

Lesson 2: reading or listening text and skills development

Lesson 3: reading or listening skills extension. In addition, in later reading units, students are introduced to a writing assignment which is further developed in Lesson 4; in later listening units, students are introduced to a spoken language point (e.g., making an oral presentation at a seminar) which is further developed in Lesson 4

Lesson 4: a parallel listening or reading text to that presented in Lesson 2 which students have to use their new skills (Lesson 3) to decode; in addition, written or spoken work is further practised

The last two pages of each unit, *Vocabulary bank* and *Skills bank*, are a useful summary of the unit content.

Each unit provides between 4 and 6 hours of classroom activity with the possibility of a further 2-4 hours on the suggested extra activities. The course will be suitable, therefore, as the core component of a faculty-specific pre-sessional or foundation course of between 50 and 80 hours.

It is assumed that prior to using this book students will already have completed a general EAP (English for Academic Purposes) course such as *Skills in English* (Garnet Publishing, up to the end at least of Level 3), and will have achieved an IELTS level of at least 5.

For a list of other titles in this series, see www.garneteducation.com/

1 WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?

1.1 Vocabulary

guessing words in context • prefixes and suffixes

- A** Read the text. The red words are probably familiar to you in general English. But can you think of a different meaning for each word in language studies?

Tom enjoys his hobbies because he has a lot of stress at work. He spends every weekend on the football pitch. Yesterday his girlfriend asked him to stop playing football. 'Let's study French together,' she said. 'France is exciting; I read about it in a newspaper article.' But Tom is no linguist. He interpreted his girlfriend's advice as interference. At first he was tongue-tied and said nothing, but he was tense. That evening, he sent his girlfriend a short text message. It was over, but he didn't want to make a speech.

- B** Read these sentences from linguistics texts. Complete each sentence with one of the red words from Exercise A.

- 1 The English _____ is spoken in some form by nearly a third of the population.
- 2 A _____ can be a piece of writing or a written record of spoken words.
- 3 Varying the tension in the vocal cords can alter _____.
- 4 The politician's address was _____ simultaneously into Cantonese.
- 5 An academic _____ engages in the scientific study of language.
- 6 _____ is the term in phonetics for the degree of force used to produce a syllable.
- 7 _____ is a primary medium through which language is expressed.
- 8 The category _____ is used in the grammatical description of verbs.
- 9 In sociolinguistics, _____ refers to errors caused in one language through contact with another language.
- 10 An _____ is a word such as *the* in English, which is put next to a noun to show the type of reference that is being made to that noun.

- C** Study the words in box a.

- 1 What is the connection between all these words?
- 2 What is the base word in each case?
- 3 What do we call the extra letters?
- 4 What is the meaning of each prefix?
- 5 Can you think of another word with each prefix?

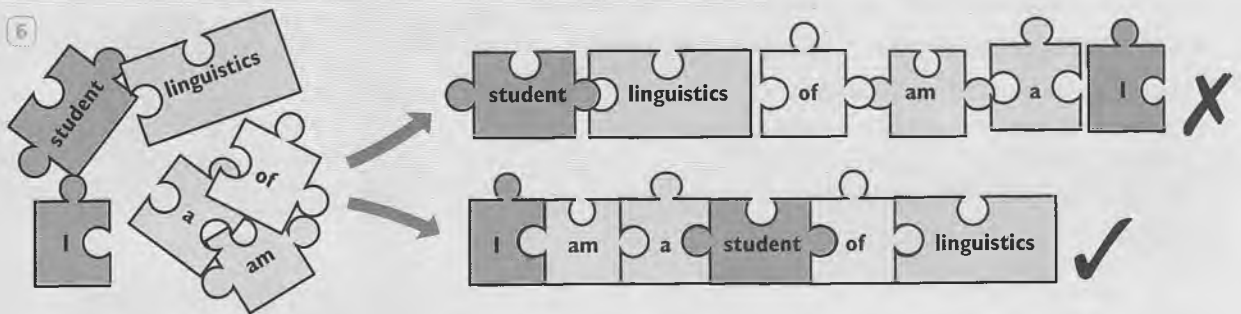
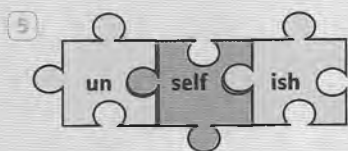
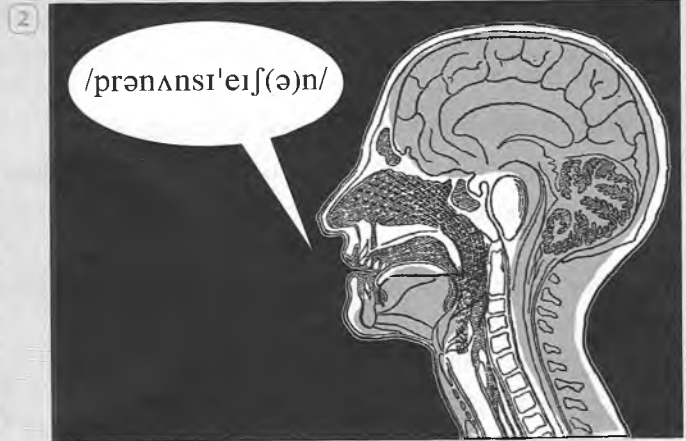
a
adverb bilingual conjunction
homophone interlanguage
metalanguage microphone
monolingual multilingual
preposition pronoun
ungrammatical

- D** Study the words in box b.

- 1 What is the connection between all the words?
- 2 What is the base word in each case?
- 3 What do we call the extra letters?
- 4 What effect do the extra letters have on the base word?
- 5 Can you think of another word with each suffix?

b
countable displacement
fluently grammatical interpreter
linguist literacy morphology
pronunciation transcribed
translator

- E** Discuss the pictures on the opposite page. Use words from this page.



7 In her final exams, she demonstrated a good knowledge of semantics, and she completed her assignment satisfactorily.

8 The principle is the same. The principal gave a welcoming speech.


1.2 Listening

preparing for a lecture • predicting lecture content • making notes

A You are a student in the Language Studies Faculty of Hadford University. The title of your first lecture is *What is language and linguistics?*

- 1 Write a definition of language and linguistics.
- 2 What other ideas will be in this lecture? Make some notes.

See *Skills bank*

B  Listen to Part 1 of the talk. What does the lecturer say about languages? Tick the best choice.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| a They are usually very simple. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b They have different varieties. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c They are all used in the same way. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d They are spoken in various countries. | <input type="checkbox"/> |


C  Listen to Part 2 of the talk.


- 1 Which words does the lecturer define?
- 2 How is each word defined?

D  Listen to Part 3 of the talk.

- 1 Which features are mentioned?
- 2 What does each feature involve?

E In Part 4, the lecturer describes different branches of linguistics.

- 1 How many branches do you know?
- 2 What is the main focus of each branch?
- 3  Listen. Which branches does the lecturer mention?

F  In Part 5, the lecturer gives a definition of language and linguistics. Listen and mark each word in the box below:

- *La* if it is connected with Language
- *Li* if it is connected with Linguistics

analyse	<input type="checkbox"/>	organic	<input type="checkbox"/>
design	<input type="checkbox"/>	system	<input type="checkbox"/>
explain	<input type="checkbox"/>	unique	<input type="checkbox"/>

G Write a definition of language and linguistics. Use words from Exercise F.

H Look back at your notes from Exercise A. Did you predict:

- the main ideas?
- most of the special vocabulary?
- the order of information?



1.3 Extending skills

lecture organization • choosing the best form of notes

A What can you ...

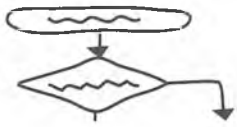
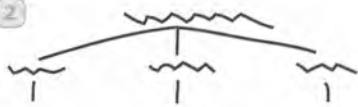
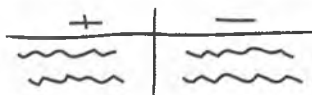
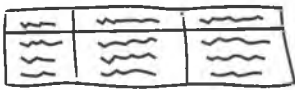
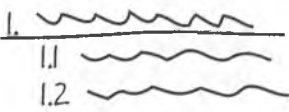
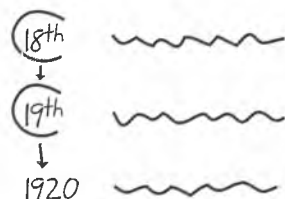
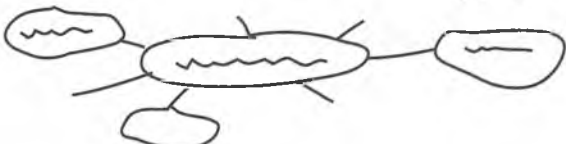
- | | | |
|---------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1 define? | 4 interpret? | 7 predict? |
| 2 transcribe? | 5 contrast? | 8 classify? |
| 3 analyse? | 6 pronounce? | 9 stress? |

B How can you organize information in a lecture? Match the beginnings and endings.


- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 question and | contrast |
| 2 problem and | definition |
| 3 classification and | disadvantages |
| 4 advantages and | effect |
| 5 comparison and | events |
| 6 cause and | supporting information |
| 7 sequence of | process |
| 8 stages of a | solution |
| 9 theories or opinions then | answer |

C How can you record information during a lecture? Match the illustrations with the words and phrases in the box below.

tree diagram flowchart headings and notes spidergram table timeline two columns

1 	2 	3 
4 	5 	6 
7 		

D Match each method of organizing information in Exercise B with a method of note-taking from Exercise C. You can use one method for different types of organization.

E  Listen to six lecture introductions. Choose a possible way to take notes from Exercise C in each case.

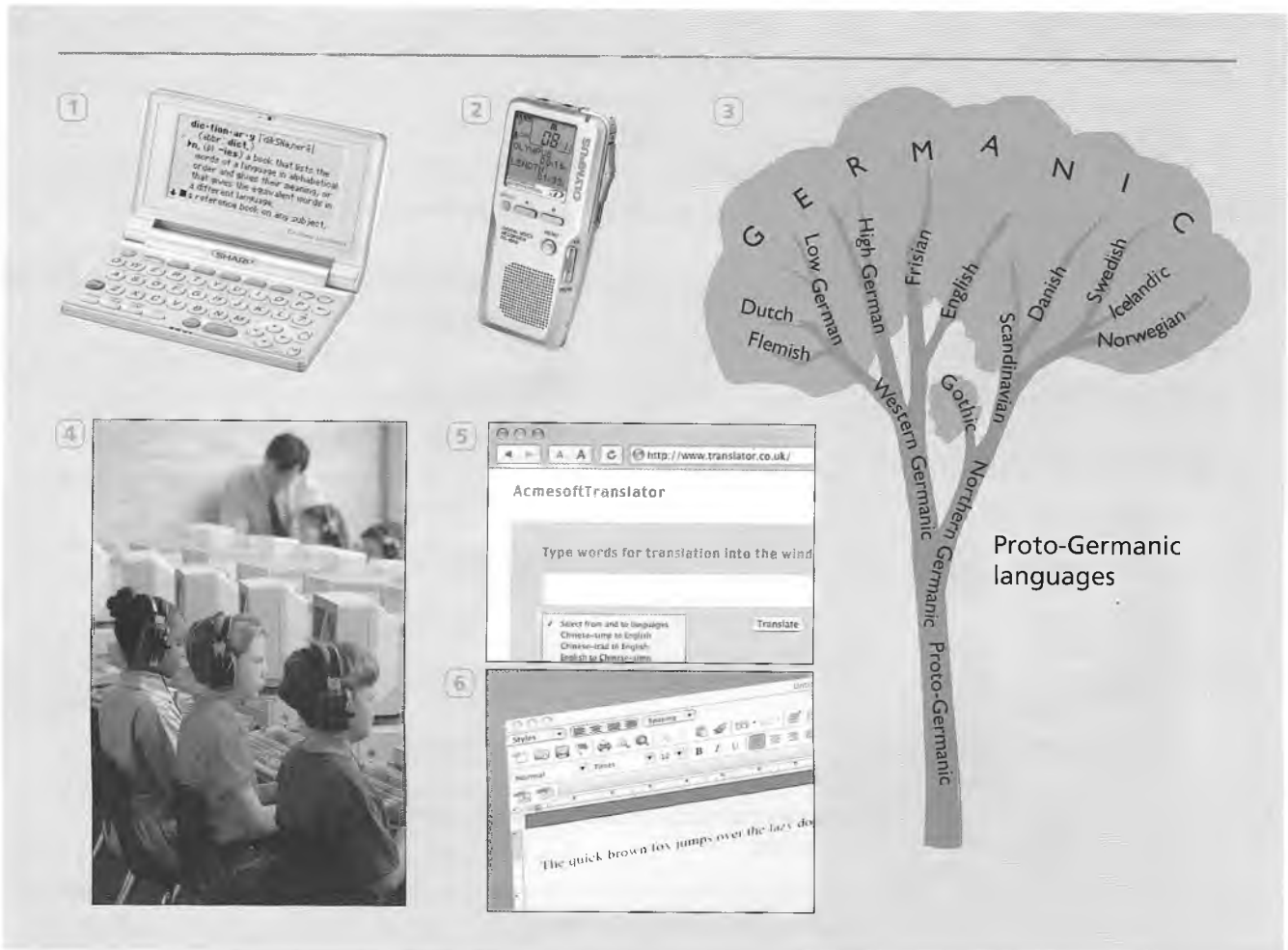
Example:

You hear: *Today I am going to talk about the different branches of linguistics that we cover here at Hadford. There are seven main branches ...*

You choose: *tree diagram*

1.4 Extending skills

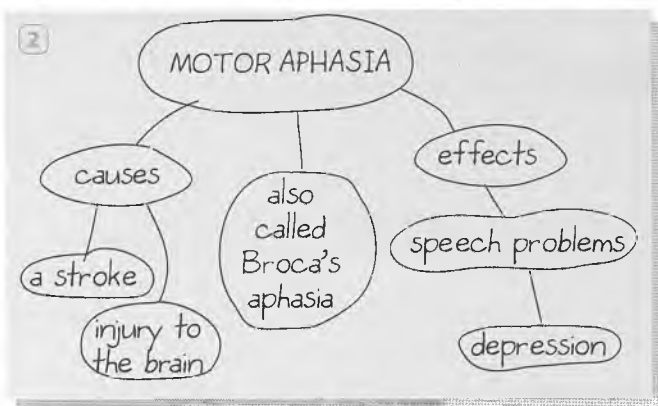
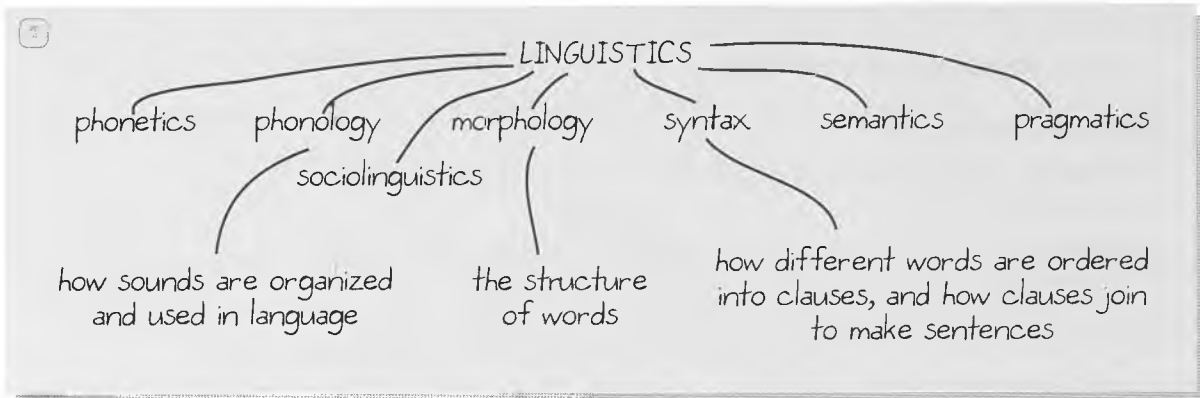
making notes • speaking from notes



A Study the pictures. What do pictures 1–6 show? Use words from the box.

branch electronic digital software laboratory translation recorder word-processing

- B** Cover the opposite page. Listen to the lecture introductions from Lesson 3 again. Make an outline on a separate sheet of paper for each introduction.
- C** Look at your outline for each lecture. What do you expect the lecturer to talk about in the lecture? In what order?
- D** Listen to the next part of each lecture. Complete your notes.
- E** Uncover the opposite page. Check your notes with the model notes. Are yours the same or different?
- F** Work in pairs.
- 1 Use the notes on the opposite page. Reconstruct one lecture.
 - 2 Give the lecture to another pair.



3

(a) SPREAD OF ENGLISH

5th century - English arrived in England with Angles and Jutes

5th - 11th century - English spread to Cornwall, Wales, Cumbria and south Scotland

12th century - spread to Ireland

16th century onwards - spread with the empire

(b) INFLUENCES ON ENGLISH

German (shared roots)

↓

Celtic languages in Britain after 5th

↓

Vikings

↓

Influenced by Norman French after 1066

↓

Latin & Greek from 15th onwards

↓

After 15th British empire

↓

American English

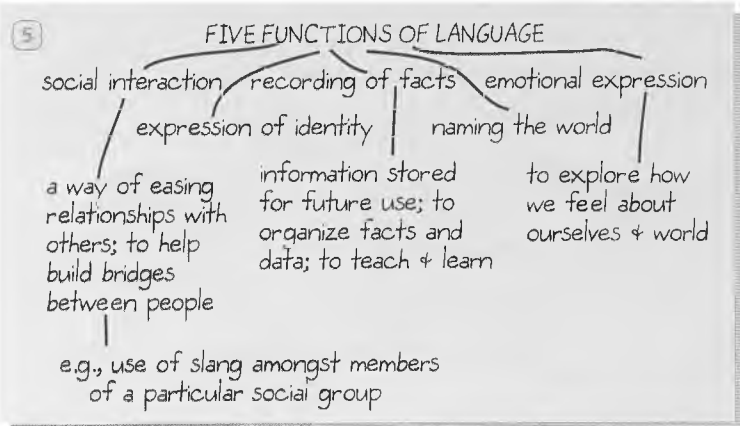
↓

ENGLISH TODAY

4

History of Linguistics

- 5th BCE Panini - India (prefixes and suffixes)
- 4th BCE Aristotle - Greece - sentence parts
- 2nd BCE Thrax - Greece - first real grammar studies
- 6th CE Greek influence on Roman linguists
- 14th CE other Europeans begin analysing their languages



6

COMMUNICATION

FEATURES	ANIMAL	HUMAN
Uses signals	✓	✓
Uses symbols	X	✓
Has duality of pattern	X	✓

Guessing words in context

Using related words

Sometimes a word in general English has a special meaning in language and linguistics.

Examples:

stress, tongue, interpret

If you recognize a word but don't understand it in context, think:

What is the basic meaning of the word? Does that help me understand the special meaning?

Example:

*The **tongue** is in the mouth, so other meanings of **tongue** might involve the mouth. If English is a **tongue**, perhaps **tongue** means language because languages are spoken using the mouth.*

Removing prefixes

A **prefix** = letters at the **start of a word**.

A prefix changes the meaning of a word.

Examples:

rephrase = phrase again

multilingual = speaking many languages

If you don't recognize a word, think:

Is there is a prefix? Remove it. Do you recognize the word now? What does that prefix mean? Add it to the meaning of the word.

Removing suffixes

A **suffix** = letters at the **end of a word**.

A suffix sometimes changes the part of speech of the word.

Examples:

translate → *translator* = verb → noun

fluent → *fluently* = adjective → adverb

A suffix sometimes changes the meaning in a **predictable way**.

Examples:

displace + *ment* = the act of (displacing)

interpret + *er* = a person who (interprets)

count + *able* = able to (be counted)

If you don't recognize a word, think:

Is there a suffix? Remove it. Do you recognize the word now? What does that suffix mean? Add it to the meaning of the word.

Skills bank

Making the most of lectures**Before a lecture ...****Plan**

- Find out the lecture topic.
- Research the topic.
- Check the pronunciation of names and key words in English.

Prepare

- Get to the lecture room early.
- Sit where you can see and hear clearly.
- Bring any equipment you may need.
- Write the date, topic and name of the lecturer at the top of a sheet of paper.

During a lecture ...**Predict**

- Listen carefully to the introduction. Think: *What kind of lecture is this?*
- Write an outline. Leave space for notes.
- Think of possible answers/solutions/effects, etc., while the lecturer is speaking.

Produce

- Write notes/copy from the board.
- Record sources – books/websites/names.
- At the end, ask the lecturer/other students for missing information.

Making perfect lecture notes

Choose the best way to record information from a lecture.

question and answer	→	headings and notes
problem and solution	→	headings and notes/two-column table
classification and definition	→	tree diagram/spidergram
advantages and disadvantages	→	two-column table
comparison and contrast	→	table
cause and effect	→	spidergram
sequence of events	→	timeline or flowchart
stages of a process	→	flowchart (or circle if it is a cycle)
theories or opinions then supporting information	→	headings and notes/two-column table

Speaking from notes

Sometimes you have to give a short talk in a seminar on research you have done.

- Prepare the listeners with an introduction.
- Match the introduction to the type of information/notes.

2 DEVELOPMENTS IN LINGUISTICS

2.1 Vocabulary

using an English–English dictionary

A How can an English–English dictionary help you understand and produce spoken and written English?

B Study the dictionary extract on the opposite page.

- 1 Why are the two words (top left and top right) important?
- 2 How many meanings does *language* have?
- 3 What do you notice about the plural of *lingua franca*?
- 4 Where is the stress on *linguistics*? What about *linguist*?
- 5 What is the pronunciation of *gua*, *gue* or *gui* in each bold word in this extract?
- 6 What are the two different pronunciations of *language laboratory*?
- 7 What part of speech is *linguistic*?
- 8 What meaning of *marker* would you expect in a text from the field of linguistics?
- 9 Which is correct? *Linguistics is/are the scientific study of language*. Explain your answer.
- 10 Can we write: *The academic study of lingoes is referred to as linguistics*. Why (not)?

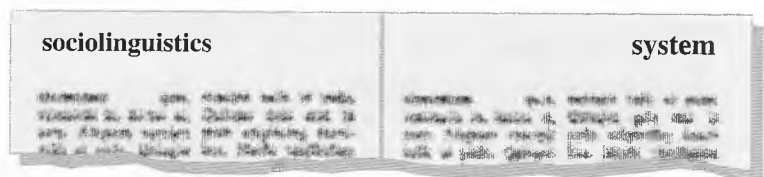
C Look at the bold words in the dictionary extract on the opposite page.

- 1 What order are they in?
- 2 Write the words in the box in the same order.

speech function branches
variation common modify
specialize morphology rules
semantics utterance accent

D Look at the top of this double page from an English–English dictionary.

- 1 Which words from Exercise C will appear on this page?
- 2 Think of words before and after some of the words in Exercise C.



E Look up the red words in a dictionary.

- 1 How many meanings can you find for each word?
- 2 What kind of noun/verb/adjective is each one?
- 3 Which meanings are most likely in a linguistic text?

F Look up the green words.

- 1 Where is the stress in each word?
- 2 What is the sound of the underlined letter(s) in each word?
- 3 Choose three of the words. Write a sentence containing each one.

G Test each other on the words from Exercises E and F. Give the dictionary definition of one of the words. Can your partner guess which word you are defining?

H Which branches of linguistics do the illustrations on the opposite page show? Use some of the words from this lesson.

language

language /'læŋgwɪdʒ/ *n* 1. [U] a system for the expression of thoughts, feelings, etc., by the use of spoken sounds or conventional symbols 2. [U] the faculty for the use of such systems, a distinguishing characteristic of humans as compared with other animals 3. [C] the language of a particular nation or people 4. [U] any other means of communication, such as gesture or animal sounds: *the language of love* 5. [U] the specialized vocabulary used by a particular group: *medical language* 6. [U] a particular manner or style of verbal expression: *Your language is disgusting.* 7. [C] a particular system of commands used in computing

language laboratory BrE /'læŋgwɪdʒ lə'bɒrətɪri/; AmE /'læbrə'tɔ:ri/ *n* a room equipped with audio equipment, etc., for learning foreign languages

langue /lɒŋ/ *n* *Linguistics* [U] language as an abstract system or social institution, the common possession of a speech community c.f. **parole**

lingo /'lɪŋɡəʊ/ *pl n* **lingoes** [C] *inf.* any foreign or unfamiliar language, jargon, etc.

lingua franca /'lɪŋgwə'fræŋkə/ *pl n* **lingua francas** or *linguae francae* 1. a language used for communication among people of different mother tongues: *English is the lingua franca for many business people in Western Europe.*

2. hybrid language containing elements from several different languages used in this way

marker

3. any system of communication providing mutual understanding

lingual /'lɪŋgwəl/ *adj* 1. *anat.* of or relating to the tongue 2a. *rare* of or relating to language or languages 2b. (in combination): *bilingual* 3. articulated with the tongue **lingually** *adv*

linguist /'lɪŋgwɪst/ *n* 1. a person who is skilled in foreign languages 2. a person who studies linguistics

linguistic /lɪŋ'gwɪstɪk/ *adj* 1. of or related to language 2. of or relating to linguistics

linguistics /lɪŋ'gwɪstɪks/ *n* [U] the scientific study of language

mark¹ /mɑ:k/ *v* [T] 1. to stain or damage 2. to give a rating: *The teacher marked the test.* 3. to use language in a particular way to make a point: *You can mark a neutral sentence with an adverb such as 'clearly', 'unfortunately', 'interestingly'*

4. to stay close to an opponent in a team game

mark² /mɑ:k/ *n* [C] 1. a stain 2. a point, e.g., in a test: *She got 18 marks out of 20.*

marked /mɑ:kt/ *adj* 1. stained 2. given particular emphasis

marker /mɑ:kə(r)/ *n* [C] 1. a person who marks someone or something 2. an instrument for writing on, e.g., a whiteboard 3. an indication of a morphological or syntactic operation, e.g., *final s* in English is a *marker* of plural or third person singular in the present simple tense.

1	ɪ SEAT	ɪ BIG	ʊ BOOK
	e PEN	ə ABOUT	ɜ: WORD
	æ CAT	ʌ CAP	ɑ: PARK
	p PIN	b BED	t TOP
	f FAIR	v VAN	θ THIN



4



2.2 Reading

using research questions

- A** What is a linguist? Write a definition in one sentence.
- B** Study the text on the right of this page.
- 1 Which of the branches of linguistics can you define?
 - 2 Why are linguists interested in each of these branches?
 - 3 Which branches interest you the most?
- C** You are going to read a text. What should you do before you read a text in detail? *See Skills bank.*
- D** The text is about branches of linguistics.
- 1 Think of some research questions before you read.
 - 2 Compare your questions with those in the Hadford University assignment on this page.
- E** Study these topic sentences from the text and answer the questions below.

By definition, human language is unique to mankind.

Modern linguistics is usually described as a social science.

Linguists are not necessarily polyglots.

As mentioned above, linguistics has several branches.

Phonetics and phonology focus on language sounds.

The study of words and grammar is referred to by linguists as morphology and syntax.

The relationship between language and meaning is frequently divided into semantics and pragmatics.

Language and its link to society is the sociolinguist's area of speciality.

Language is, of course, created and interpreted in the brain.

Whatever field a linguist specializes in, he or she is likely to be concerned with similar questions.

- 1 Which branches do the topic sentences mention?
- 2 Where do you expect to find the answer to each question in the Hadford University assignment? Write 1, 2 or 3 next to some of the topic sentences.
- 3 What do you expect to find in the other paragraphs?

- F** Read the text on the opposite page and check your ideas. *See Skills bank.*



HADFORD University

Faculty of Language Studies

Syllabus: Branches of modern linguistics

- phonetics
- phonology
- morphology
- syntax
- semantics
- pragmatics
- sociolinguistics
- psycholinguistics



HADFORD University

Faculty of Language Studies

Assignment

Do some research into the basic concepts of linguistics. Make notes to answer these questions:

- 1 What makes language inherently human?
- 2 What aim do linguists have in common?
- 3 What is 'psycholinguistics'?
- 4 Who is the most famous linguist of modern times?

Branches of the linguistics tree



By definition, human language is unique to mankind. It distinguishes us from animals. Other creatures can communicate with a fixed number of symbols, but their languages lack the flexibility of human language. Abstract symbols in human language can combine to make an unlimited number of meaningful utterances. It is no surprise to a linguist that programmers have not yet managed to create a computer which can translate accurately from one language to another in real time. The many branches of linguistics show the complexity of language.

Modern linguistics is usually described as a social science. One reason may be that the function of language is not just communicating facts. It is part of being a member of a particular society. Language seems to be central to culture. It has been said that when you learn a foreign language, you join a new culture. In fact, we often use the same word for the language name and the cultural group: for example, *French/the French*; *Greek/the Greeks*.

Linguists are not necessarily polyglots. A polyglot speaks many languages, and it is certainly an advantage for a linguist to know a foreign language, but a linguist is interested in *language* rather than *languages*. The distinction is subtle but vital. Linguists may refer to individual languages for the purposes of their research, but their ultimate goal is to gain a deeper insight into the workings of all languages.

As mentioned above, linguistics has several branches. Most linguists will have a good understanding of all branches but will specialize in one area. The main branches are phonetics and phonology, morphology and syntax, semantics and pragmatics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

Phonetics and phonology focus on language sounds. Phonetics deals with how speech sounds are produced in all languages. It also considers the ways in which these sounds are perceived. On the other hand, phonology concentrates on the phonemes, or basic units of sound, in a particular language.

The study of words and grammar is referred to by linguists as morphology and syntax. Words are formed of morphemes. The way words are arranged in sentences is called syntax. Noam Chomsky, probably the most influential linguist of the 20th century, wrote extensively about syntax. He also suggested that all children have a language acquisition device which enables them to make sense of meaningful sounds in their mother tongue.

The relationship between language and meaning is frequently divided into semantics and pragmatics. The direct understanding of words and utterances comes within the realm of semantics. However, pragmatics investigates the different meanings which can emerge from the varying ways and contexts in which language is used. It is also concerned with how we use context and shared knowledge to understand the meaning of utterances.

Language and its link to society is the sociolinguist's area of speciality. Amongst other things, this area of linguistic study explores the nature of language variation and the way in which this is manifested in the form of such phenomena as dialects and accents.

Language is, of course, created and interpreted in the brain. Psycholinguistics is concerned with mental activity associated with language use. In other words, the relationships between language and thought. Psycholinguists often study individuals whose language use is impaired due to brain damage.

Whatever field a linguist specializes in, he or she is likely to be concerned with similar questions. What is language? What causes language variation? How is language learnt?

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2.3 Extending skills

topic sentences • summarizing

A Study the words in box a. They are all from the text in Lesson 2.

- 1 Give two common meanings of each word.
- 2 Check with your dictionary.

a branch function goal focus
unit study form direct field

B Study the words in box b. They are all from the text in Lesson 2.

- 1 What is the base word in each case? What is the part of speech of the base word?
- 2 Does the prefix/suffix change the part of speech?
- 3 Does it change the meaning of the base word?

b flexibility unlimited specialize
influential acquisition relationship
utterance

C Look back at the topic sentences from the text in Lesson 2 (Exercise E, page 16). Don't look at the text on page 17. What information comes after each topic sentence? Suggest possible content.

Example:

Phonetics and phonology focus on language sounds.

The difference between phonetics and phonology, e.g., phonetics – how speech sounds are produced; phonology – the phonemes of a particular language

D Write a summary of the text on page 17. Paraphrase the topic sentences. Add extra information and examples. *See Skills bank.*

2.4 Extending skills

using research questions • summarizing

A Can you remember all the different branches of linguistics from Lesson 2?

B The lecturer has asked you to research the history of linguistics.

- 1 What do you already know about this subject?
- 2 Think of good research questions before you begin reading.
- 3 Look quickly at the text on the opposite page. What is the best way to record information while you are reading?

C Study the text on the opposite page.

- 1 Highlight the topic sentences.
- 2 Read each topic sentence. What will you find in the rest of the paragraph?
- 3 Which paragraph(s) will probably answer each research question? Read those paragraphs and make notes.
- 4 Have you got all the information you need? If not, read other paragraphs.

D Use the Internet to research one of the branches of linguistics from the list in Lesson 2. First think of your research questions.

- 1 Make notes.
- 2 Write a series of topic sentences which summarize your findings.
- 3 Report back to the other students. Read out each topic sentence then add extra details.

From Panini to Chomsky



Noam Chomsky

Humans have used language since the species first evolved. But when did people start to explore linguistics? And how have we viewed language throughout recorded history?

We can trace the origins of linguistics to ancient India and Greece. Research in India began in the 5th century BCE. The linguist Panini identified rules for the assembly of words. He suggested that words are built from different pieces, including prefixes and suffixes. He also developed rules for pronunciation. He based these rules on the different parts of words.

The Greek Aristotle was the first known European to study linguistics. He identified different sentence parts in his work *Categories*. Aristotle used the terms *subject* and *predicate*. This was the birth of sentence analysis.

In the 2nd and 1st centuries BCE, the Greeks went on to classify parts of speech. Many of the terms they coined are still common today, including nouns, verbs and articles. Dionysius Thrax used the Greek language for his research. He identified the different functions of word endings, or inflections. This was the foundation of modern grammatical study.

Thrax's approach spread across Europe during the 2nd century BCE due to the Roman conquest. Greek influence can be found in Roman language studies from the 6th century CE. Priscian, a Roman grammarian, inspired an approach to Latin teaching still practised today.

In the 14th century CE, other Europeans began to analyse their languages. These studies followed Priscian's work on Latin, even though the languages of Europe are different from Latin. In the 17th century, a group from Port Royal in France questioned Priscian's approach. This group suggested a link between thought patterns and grammatical structures.

The study of language families became popular in the 18th century. Linguists such as Rasmus Rask and Jakob Grimm, better known for his fairy tales, researched the historical roots of European and Asian languages. This led to an investigation of language change and the ways in which languages are related.

In the late 19th century, Saussure questioned the theory that language is made up of discrete parts. He argued that language is a system of related components. According to Saussure, parts of a sentence influence other parts. This approach is known as structuralist. For Saussure, language was a collection of interrelated systems. He gave us the terms *diachronic* and *synchronic* linguistics. Diachronic refers to language change. Synchronic considers the study of language at a particular point in time.

Edward Sapir (1884–1939) wrote about language and culture. Sapir's student Benjamin Whorf (1897–1941) also researched the same field. These two linguists believed that language structure can affect the way people see the world.

More recently, Noam Chomsky's work (b. 1928) has added academic credibility to linguistics. Some of Chomsky's work has focused on a generative grammar. This involves drawing up an account of the rules for sentence building. The aim is to examine the full possibilities of human grammar. However, some modern linguists now prefer a more humanistic approach. This involves the function of language and how a language fulfils those functions.

Chomsky is also interested in universal grammar. He argues that language is innate to humans. His theory claims that we are born with certain grammar rules. Chomsky believes that these are programmed into our brains. His theory suggests that all humans share one basic common grammar. However, research has not yet been able to prove this.

The work of linguists is dynamic and organic. Linguistic theories are continually challenged and reconsidered in pursuit of the truth. How will we view language in a hundred years' time?

Using your English–English dictionary

This kind of dictionary helps you actually learn English.

Using headwords and parts of speech

1 Find the correct **headword**.

These **bold** words in a dictionary are in alphabetical order. Look at the words on the top left and top right of the double page. Find a word which comes just before and after your word.

2 Find the correct **meaning**.

If there are different meanings of the word, they appear in a numbered list. Look at all the meanings before you choose the correct one in context.

3 Find the correct **part of speech**.

Sometimes the same headword appears more than once, followed by a small number. This means the word has more than one part of speech, e.g., *n* and *v*. Work out the part of speech before you look up a word.

Clues:

- Nouns come after articles (*a/an/the*) or adjectives.
- Verbs come after nouns or pronouns.

Learning to pronounce words

The symbols after the headword show you how to pronounce the word. Learn these symbols (the key is usually at the front or the back of the dictionary).

The little line in the symbols shows you how to stress the word.

Example:

/ɪŋ'ɡwɪstɪks/ **but** /'ɪŋɡwɪst/

Learning to use words correctly in context

Nouns can be **countable** or **uncountable**. This information is important for using articles and verb forms (e.g., *is/are*) correctly. Look for the symbol [C] or [U].

Some verbs need an object. They are **transitive**. Some verbs don't need an object. They are **intransitive**. This information is important for making accurate sentences. Look for the symbol [T] or [I].

Some words can be spelt in **British** English (e.g., *colour, centre*) or **American** English (e.g., *color, center*). Choose the correct spelling for the text you are working on.

Skills bank

Doing reading research**Before you start reading ...**

- Think of research questions. In other words, ask yourself: *What must I find out from my research?*
- Look at headings, sub-headings, illustrations. Look for patterns or variations in presentation, e.g., a series of dates; words in **bold** or *italic* script.
Think: *What information do they give me?*
- Decide how to record information from your reading. Choose one or more methods of note-taking. See Unit 1 *Skills bank*.

While you are reading ...

- Highlight the topic sentences.
- Think: *Which paragraph(s) will probably give me the answer to my research questions?*
- Read these paragraph(s) first.
- Make notes.

After reading ...

- Think: *Did the text answer all my research questions?*
- If the answer is no, look at other paragraphs to see if the information is there.

Using topic sentences to summarize

The topic sentences of a text normally make a good basis for a summary. Follow this procedure:

- Locate the topic sentences.
- Paraphrase them – in other words, rewrite them in your own words so that the meaning is the same. Do not simply copy them. (This is a form of plagiarism.)
- Add supporting information – once again, in your own words.

Examples:

Paraphrase of topic sentence	<i>The study of language families became popular in the 18th century.</i>
Supporting information and examples (summarized)	<i>Linguists such as Rasmus Rask and Jakob Grimm researched the historical roots of European and Asian languages.</i>

- Check your summary. Check that the ideas flow logically. Check spelling and grammar. If your summary is short, it may be just one paragraph. Divide a longer summary into paragraphs.

3 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LEARNING

3.1 Vocabulary

stress within words • suffixes

A Discuss these questions.

- 1 How do children learn their first language?
- 2 Why do people learn a second language?

B Study the pictures on the opposite page. Use words from box a to talk about them.

- 1 Which different language-learning situations can you see?
- 2 What is the aim of the people in each situation?

C Look at the words in box a.

- 1 Where is the main stress in each multi-syllable word?
- 2 Sort the words into groups according to their stress patterns.

D Complete each sentence with a word from box a. Change the form if necessary.

- 1 _____ is a key factor in second language learning.
- 2 There are many _____ which affect language acquisition.
- 3 Audiolingualism and Total Physical Response are two types of language-teaching _____.
- 4 It is necessary to _____ rules and create a system in order to learn a second language.
- 5 Chomsky believes that the human brain is _____ programmed for language acquisition.
- 6 _____ is an abbreviation which means *first language*.

E Change the part of speech of these words from box a.

- 1 acquisition (n) → _____ (v)
- 2 diverse (adj) → _____ (n)
- 3 interfere (v) → _____ (n)
- 4 motivation (n) → _____ (v)

Write sentences using the new words.

F Study the words in box b. Find the prefix and try to work out its meaning in each case.

b	exposure	interference	subconscious	transform	uniform
	external	interpersonal	subsystem	transfer	universal

G Complete each sentence with a word from box b. Change the form if necessary.

- 1 First languages are acquired through _____ to the language that children hear around them.
- 2 In most cases first language acquisition is a _____ process that we are unaware of.
- 3 Learner differences mean second language acquisition is not a _____ course of development.
- 4 Differences between the first language and the second language might cause _____.
- 5 Language _____ can result when there are many similarities between the first and second language.
- 6 Chomsky believes that humans have an innate _____ grammar.
- 7 Negatives or interrogatives are two examples of a grammatical _____.

acquisition aptitude
cognitive communicative diverse
foreign genetic independent
instrumental integrative
interfere internalize L1 L2
methodology motivation
multiple personality variable



3.2 Listening

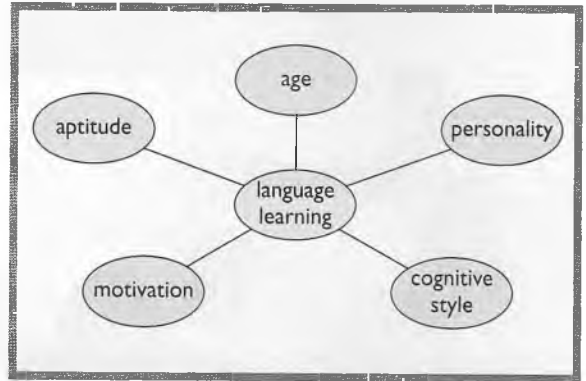
preparing for a lecture • predicting lecture content • making notes

A Study the slides from a lecture about language acquisition and learning.

- 1 What will be in this lecture? Make a list.
- 2 Write down some key words you expect to hear.
- 3 Check the pronunciation of the key words, with other students or with a dictionary.
- 4 How are you going to prepare for this lecture?

B Listen to Part 1 of the lecture.

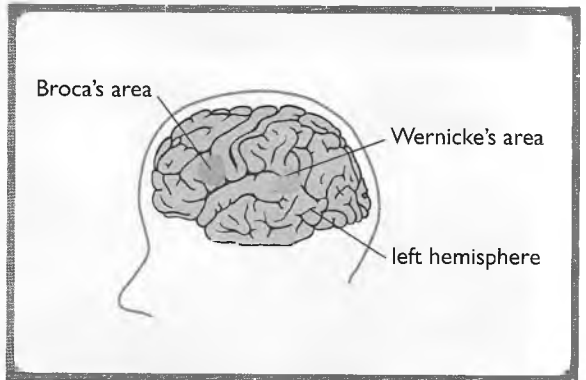
- 1 What exactly is the lecturer going to talk about? Tick the topic(s) you heard.
 - common language errors _____
 - language learning _____
 - language acquisition _____
 - language families _____
 - learning to write _____
- 2 What reason does the lecturer give for the choice of topic?
- 3 What is a good way to organize notes for this lecture?



Slide 1

C Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.

- 1 What is the main idea of this section?
- 2 What is a *universal grammar*?
- 3 What problem do second language learners have, according to Chomsky?



Slide 2

D Listen to Part 3 of the lecture.

- 1 How could you organize notes for this part?
- 2 What are the key words and definitions?



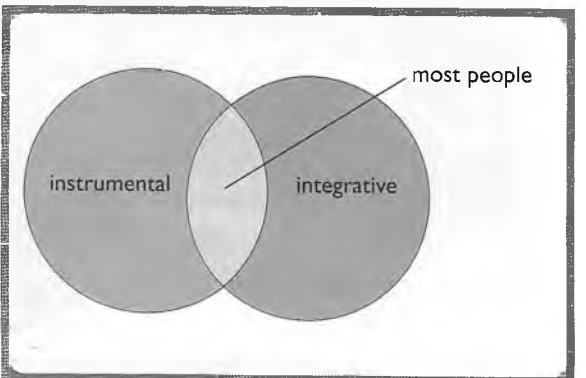
Slide 3

E Listen to Part 4 of the lecture.

- 1 Check your definitions.
- 2 What research must you do now?

F Listen and say whether the sentences are true or false.

- 1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____
4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____



Slide 4

G Look at Slides 1–4. Give each slide a title from a–d below.

- a Types of motivation c Learner variables
b Learning materials d Universal grammar

3.3 Extending skills

stress within words • using information sources • reporting research findings

A Listen to some stressed syllables. Identify the word below in each case. Number each word.

Example: You hear: 1. *uni* /ju:nɪ/ You write:

- | | | | | | |
|-------------|-------|--------------|-------|--------------|-------|
| acquisition | _____ | instrumental | _____ | subconscious | _____ |
| aptitude | _____ | integrative | _____ | transferable | _____ |
| cognitive | _____ | interference | _____ | uniform | _____ |
| exposure | _____ | methodology | _____ | unique | _____ |
| foreign | _____ | motivation | _____ | universal | 1 |
| genetically | _____ | personality | _____ | variable | _____ |

B Where is the main stress in each multi-syllable word in Exercise A?

- 1 Mark the main stress.
- 2 Practise saying each word.

C Work in pairs or groups. Define one of the words in Exercise A. The other student(s) must find and say the correct word.

D Look at the comments made by three different students about their intelligence types.

- 1 Which of these students is most like you in the way that they learn?
- 2 Describe the features of your intelligence type. How do you work and learn effectively?
- 3 Copy and complete the table below after reading the comments made by Yuki, Bemi and Ahmet.

Name	Intelligence type	Example
	visual	
	intrapersonal	
	bodily/kinaesthetic	

Yuki



I always understand better if I can see a picture or a diagram.

Bemi



I learn by doing; I try things out to see if they work. I never sit still.

Ahmet




I get a lot out of talking to others and discussing my ideas.

E Before you attend a lecture you should do some research.

- 1 How could you research the lecture topics on the right?
- 2 What information should you record?
- 3 How could you record the information?

F You are going to do some research on a particular lecture topic. You can use dictionaries, encyclopedias and the Internet.



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- 1 Bilingualism
- 2 The good language learner
- 3 L2 interference
- 4 The role of multiple intelligences in language teaching

Student A

- Do some research on **the good language learner**.
- Tell your partner about your findings.

Student B

- Do some research on **multiple intelligences**.
- Tell your partner about your findings.

3.4 Extending skills

asking for information • reporting information

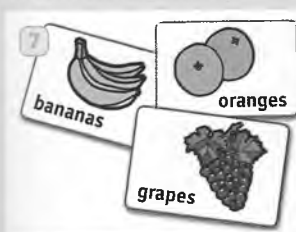
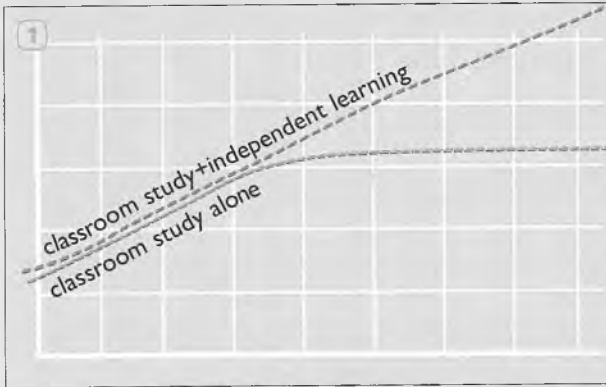
- A** You are going to listen to a lecture which develops further the topic of the lecture in Lesson 2.
- 1 Make a list of points from that lecture.
 - 2 What is the lecturer going to talk about today? (Clue: You researched it in Lesson 2.)
 - 3 🎧 Listen to the end of the last lecture again and check your ideas.
- B** What are the qualities of a good language learner?
- 1 Make a list of qualities. The pictures (1–6) at the top of the opposite page may help you.
 - 2 🎧 Listen to Part 1 of today's lecture and check your ideas.
 - 3 What is the best way to make notes from this lecture? Prepare a page for your notes.
- C** 🎧 Listen to Part 2 of the lecture. Make notes. If necessary, ask other students for information.
- D** 🎧 Listen to Part 3 of the lecture. Label each picture (7–14) at the bottom of the opposite page with the correct intelligence type.
- E** 🎧 Listen to the final part of the lecture. How can research into multiple intelligences help language teachers to teach?
- F** Imagine you had to report this lecture to a student who was absent.
- 1 Study the transcript at the back of the book. Find and underline or highlight key sections of the lecture.
 - 2 Now find and underline key *sentences* from the lecture.
 - 3 Make sure you can say the sentences with good pronunciation.
 - 4 Compare your ideas in groups.
- G** Think of words from this unit for each definition.

the drive to learn without realizing a short way to write *second language*
between different people shared by all understand and apply language rules

- H** Match the words and definitions.

- | | | |
|---|-------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1 | multiple | the same |
| 2 | genetically | many |
| 3 | uniform | biologically inherent |
| 4 | acquire | an idea to be tested through research |
| 5 | hypothesis | the nature of your character |
| 6 | device | differing from person to person |
| 7 | personality | learn subconsciously |
| 8 | variable | a mechanism |

- I** Write a sentence to describe each of the language-learning situations at the top of the opposite page. Use vocabulary and ideas from this unit to help you.



Stress within words

Nouns, verbs, adjectives and **adverbs** are called **content words** because they carry meaning.

One-syllable words

Some content words have **one syllable** or sound. This is always stressed.

Examples: 'learn, 'say, 'speak, 'word

Two-syllable words

Some content words have **two syllables**. Two-syllable nouns and adjectives are often stressed on the first syllable. Two-syllable verbs are often stressed on the second syllable.

Examples:

Nouns	'language, 'process, 'factor
Adjectives	'foreign, 'complex, 'verbal
Verbs	a'cquire, ex'press, trans'form

Exceptions:

Nouns	de'sign, e'ffect
Adjectives	di'verse, u'nique, co'rrect
Verbs	'process, 'vary

Multi-syllable words

Some content words have **three or more syllables**. Multi-syllable words are often stressed three syllables from the end.

Example:

Ooo oOoo ooOoo

This is true for most words ending in:

~ize	'summarize, in'ternalize
~sis	a'nalysis, hy'pothesis
~ate	'accurate, 'conjugate
~ify	'classify, 'specify
~phere	'atmosphere, 'hemisphere
~ical	bio'logical, 'physical
~ity	uni'versity, transfera'bility
~ular	par'ticular, 'regular
~al	gra'mmatical

Exceptions:

Multi-syllable words ending in the following letters are normally stressed two syllables from the end.

~ic	lin'guistic, in'trinsic
~tion	trans'lation, situ'ation
~sion	ex'pression
~ent	pro'ficient, e'fficient

Stress sometimes moves to fit the patterns above when you add a suffix.

Example:

'person – perso'nality

Skills bank

Getting information from other people**From the lecturer**

We can sometimes ask a lecturer questions at the end of a lecture. Introduce each question in a polite or tentative way.

Examples:

Could you go over the bit about multiple intelligences again?

I didn't quite understand what you said about language acquisition.

I wonder if you could repeat the list of learner variables.

Would you mind giving the source of that quotation again?

From other students

It is a good idea to ask other students after a lecture for information to complete your notes.

Examples:

What did the lecturer say about universal grammar?

Why did he mention children?

I didn't get the bit about personality.

Be polite!

It sometimes sounds impolite to ask people a direct question. We often add a polite introduction.

Examples:

Is there a difference between language acquisition and language learning?

→ *Do you know if there is a difference between language acquisition and language learning?*

What does 'interference' mean?

→ *Can you remember what 'interference' means?*

Reporting information to other people

We often have to report research findings to a tutor or other students in a seminar. Make sure you can give:

- sources – books, articles, writers, publication dates
- quotes – in the writer's own words
- summary findings – in your own words

4 LANGUAGE AND TECHNOLOGY

4.1 Vocabulary

computer jargon • abbreviations and acronyms • verb and noun suffixes

A Study the words in box a.

- 1 Which words or phrases relate to computers and the Internet? Which relate to books and libraries? Find two groups of words.
- 2 Find pairs of words and phrases with similar meanings, one from each group.
- 3 Check your ideas with the first part of *The Computer Jargon Buster* on the opposite page.

B Complete the instructions for using the Learning Resource Centre with words or phrases from box a.

C Study the abbreviations and acronyms in box b.

- 1 How do you say each one?
- 2 Divide them into two groups:
 - abbreviations
 - acronyms

Explain your choices.
See Vocabulary bank.

b CAL CALL HTML HTTP ICAME
ICE ISP MT RAM ROM USB
VLE WWW

D Test each other on the items in Exercise C.

- 1 What do the letters stand for in each case?
- 2 What do they mean?
- 3 Check your ideas with the second part of *The Computer Jargon Buster* on the opposite page.

E Study the nouns in box c.

- 1 Make a verb from each noun.
- 2 Make another noun from the verb.

a books browse/search catalogue close
cross-reference database electronic resources
exit/log off hyperlink index library
log in/log on look up menu open page
search engine results table of contents
web page World Wide Web



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Learning Resource Centre

Instructions for use:

If you want to access web pages on the _____, you must first _____ to the university Intranet with your username and password. You can use any _____ but the default is Google. _____ for web pages by typing one or more keywords in the search box and clicking on *Search*, or pressing *Enter*. When the results appear, click on a _____ (highlighted in blue) to go to the web page. Click on *Back* to return to the results listing.

You can also use the university _____ of learning resources. Click on *Linguistics and Language Resources* on the main _____.

c class computer digit
identity machine

The Computer Jargon Buster

There are many common words used about books and libraries which are translated into jargon words when we talk about using computers and the Internet for similar functions.

books	electronic resources
index	search engine results
cross-reference	hyperlink
catalogue	database
library	World Wide Web
table of contents	menu
look up	browse/search
page	web page
open	log in/log on
close	exit/log off

There are many abbreviations and acronyms in computing. Learn some useful ones.

Abbr./Acr.	What it stands for	What it means
CAL	computer-assisted learning	using computers to help you learn
CALL	computer-assisted language learning	using computers to help you learn languages
HTML	hypertext markup language	a way to write documents so they can be displayed on a website
HTTP	hypertext transfer protocol	a set of rules for transferring files on the WWW, usually included at the beginning of a website address (e.g., http://www.)
ICAME	International Computer Archive of Modern and Medieval English	a collection of English-language material available for computer processing
ICE	International Corpus of English	a database of different samples of spoken and written English
ISP	Internet service provider	a company which gives individuals, companies, etc. access to the Internet
MT	machine translation	using computers to translate language
RAM	random-access memory	the memory which the computer uses for basic processes
ROM	read-only memory	a type of permanent computer or disk memory that stores information that can be read or used but not changed
USB	universal serial bus	a standard way to connect things like printers and scanners to a computer
VLE	virtual learning environment	an online classroom
WWW	World Wide Web	a huge collection of documents that are connected by hypertext links and can be accessed through the Internet

4.2 Reading

preparation for reading research • topic development

- A** Discuss these questions.
- 1 How are computers used in language learning and linguistics today?
 - 2 How has their use in language learning and linguistics changed in the last 50 years?
 - 3 How can computers assist in communication?
- B** Look at the title of the text on the opposite page.
- 1 What do the abbreviations stand for?
 - 2 What would you like to know about them? Make a list of questions.
- C** One student wrote some ideas about CALL and VLE before reading the text.
- 1 Write **A** (I agree), **D** (I disagree) or **?** (I'm not sure) next to the ideas on the right.
 - 2 Add any other ideas you have.
- D** Work in pairs.
Student A: Study Figure 1 on the opposite page.
Student B: Study Figure 2.
Cover the figures. Explain each figure to your partner.
- E** Read all the topic sentences from the text on the opposite page.
- 1 What is the structure of this text? Choose Structure A or B on the right.
 - 2 What do you expect to find in each paragraph?
- F** Read the text and check your predictions.
- G** Answer these questions.
- 1 What exactly is CALL?
 - 2 How do students learn from a VLE?
 - 3 Why don't translators use machine translation?
- H** Topics sometimes develop inside a paragraph.
- 1 Does the topic develop in each paragraph in the text? If so, underline the word or words which introduce the change.
 - 2 What is the effect of the word or words on the development of the topic?

See *Skills Bank*.

Most modern language centres have computers and make use of CALL. _____

Sometimes they have an online classroom or a VLE. _____

Often there are online activities. _____

Grading can never be computerized. _____

Computer-assisted language learning is always better than face-to-face learning. _____

Only very skilled students can use a VLE. _____

People can communicate with each other using the Internet. _____

A language corpus is a type of database. _____

Machine translation is very effective. _____

Translation no longer requires people. _____

Structure A

Para	Contents
1	Introduction to computers in linguistics
2	CALL and computer software
3	Computers and corpus linguistics
4	Computers and MT
5	What is a VLE?

Structure B

Para	Contents
1	Introduction to corpus linguistics
2	CALL and computer software
3	MT and the role of computers in linguistics
4	Language teaching and VLE
5	How IT works

CALL, IT and VLEs

Computers are closely linked to the work of today's modern linguist in a way that Panini and Aristotle could never have imagined. Although the very first computers filled an entire room, technology has developed quickly and now computers have had an impact on many aspects of linguistic study. Indeed, language and computing are two fields which have an understandably close connection. The human brain is the model for computer hardware. Likewise, computer software is based on human language. It is not surprising, therefore, that linguists see great importance in computer literacy.

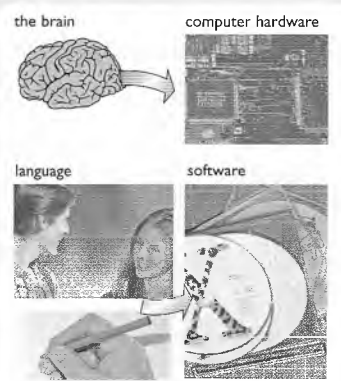


Figure 1:
Human inspiration for computing

The teaching and learning of languages in many classrooms today involves the use of a series of different tools for computer-assisted language learning (CALL). These computerized tools include a range of useful software packages. In general, the different software which is available can be divided into two main groups. The first group includes office-based software, which is designed to satisfy a series of more general communication needs: for example, word-processing, presentations, e-mail and web authoring. The second group of software packages includes those applications which have been designed particularly for the purpose of language learning. Many teachers recognize the benefits of using software from both of these groups in order to develop good work presentation skills as well as to provide fun interactive learning experiences which can be made similar to real communication situations.

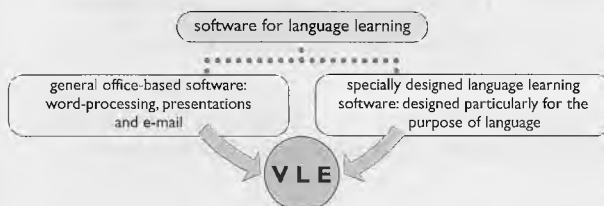


Figure 2: The role of software in language learning

Thankfully, information technology (IT) also offers academic linguists a range of key advantages in the field of corpus research. Every student of modern linguistics will come across the term 'corpus linguistics' during the course of their studies. This field in particular has been strongly influenced by the development of computer technology. Corpus linguistics refers to the analysis of collected language samples through computerized electronic media. Linguists have long been interested in analysis of language samples. However, over the last 20 years, developments in computer technology have led to considerable advancements in this area.

In contrast, the field of machine translation (MT) has developed more slowly since it was first considered in the 1950s. There are several reasons for this. Firstly, it is extremely difficult to design a universal computer Interlingua which can translate effectively between any two human languages. Secondly, given the absence of a computerized Interlingua, machine translation needs to analyse the source text and translate it based on comparative analysis of information held on the two languages in question. Although linguistic knowledge is a key element of the translation process and machine translators can now achieve this aim with some level of proficiency (Babel Fish is a good example), nevertheless, it is intuition and cultural knowledge which can make the difference between a good and bad translation. Unfortunately, it has not yet been possible to programme a computer with such qualities.

Many people believe that the future of CALL and IT can be found in the virtual learning environment (VLE). In many ways, the VLE combines the functions of the two different software groups discussed above. In basic terms, a VLE is a website that brings together a number of key learning activities and resources and which is made accessible through a single portal. To some extent, it is like an online classroom. Through accessing the first page of the VLE, students are able to navigate the site in order to make use of the functions they require. Typically, this might include discussion boards, student web pages, listening activities and web-based assessments.

4.3 Extending skills

using the Internet effectively

A Discuss these questions.

- 1 You want to find out about computers in language learning and linguistics now. Where would you look for the information? Why?
- 2 What keywords would you use to make this search? Why?

B Your search produces 50 results. How can you select the most useful ones without reading all of them? Look at the list of criteria on the right and put a tick or '?'.

C You want to research the following. Choose up to three keywords or phrases for each search.

- 1 popular VLEs
- 2 online translation tools
- 3 online language learning activities to practise pronunciation

D Go to a computer and try out your chosen keywords.

Criteria for choosing to read a result

It contains all of my keywords. _____

The document comes from a journal. _____

It is in the first ten. _____

It has this year's date. _____

It is a large document. _____

The website address ends in .org _____

The website address ends in .edu _____

The website address contains .ac _____

It is a PDF file. _____

It refers to language learning and/or linguistics. _____

It refers to a person I know (of). _____

It refers to an organization I know (of). _____

4.4 Extending skills

analysing Internet search results • reporting research findings

A What information is contained in the results listing of a search engine?

- 1 Make a list.
- 2 Check with the results listings on the opposite page.

B Scan the results listings. Answer these questions.

- 1 What keywords were entered?
- 2 Why was *journal* used as a keyword? Why is it not in inverted commas?

C Answer these questions.

- 1 Which results contain abbreviations or acronyms?
- 2 Where is each website address?
- 3 Where is the size of each document?
- 4 Are any of these PDF documents?
- 5 Which documents have dates?
- 6 Why are the words in different colours?
- 7 Which results have all the keywords?
- 8 Which results refer to journals?
- 9 Which results come from educational sites?
- 10 Which results are commercial sites?
- 11 What does *similar pages* mean?
- 12 What does *cached* mean?

D Continue your research on computers in language learning and linguistics now by entering the keywords into a search engine and accessing three of the results. Compare your findings with other students.

E Choose the most interesting result. Write a paragraph about the information you discovered. Develop the topic within the paragraph with discourse markers and stance markers.

Google [Web](#) [Images](#) [Groups](#) [News](#) [Froogle](#) [Maps](#) [more »](#) [Sign in](#)

[Advanced Search](#)
[Preferences](#)

Web Results 1 - 8 of about 138 for "**computer assisted language learning**" journal "**latest technology**" (0.45 seconds)

- 1 **Language Learning and Technology Journal**
Language Learning and Technology is a fully refereed **journal** by experts in the fields of second language acquisition and **computer assisted language learning** ...
www.public.iastate.edu/~apling/526/journal/lltj.html - 20k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#)
- 2 **Humbul : English Studies : English for speakers of other languages ...**
CALL, or **Computer Assisted Language Learning@Chorus**, is a resource targeted ...
The **journal** is a refereed academic publication for "the English as a Second ...
www.humbul.ac.uk/output/headlist.php?sub=english&code=FN.221 - 22k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#)
- 3 **Paper for SAAAD conference 1997**
What improves education is not necessarily the **latest technology** but well-designed ...
Collett, Pg (1993) **Computer Assisted Language Learning** for Academic ...
hagar.up.ac.za/catts/learner/smorgan/saaad.html - 38k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#)
- 4 **Technophilia vs. Technophobia: A Preliminary Look at Why Second ...**
Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and **computer-assisted language learning** (CALL):
Past ... **Journal of Research on Computing in Education**, 26, 220-237. ...
www.utpjournals.com/product/cmlr/563/563-Lam.html - 86k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#)
- 5 **Introduction: technology in teaching literature and culture: some ...**
Computer-assisted Language Learning is highly successful both as an area of
research, ... **Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication** 1.2 (1996). ...
users.ox.ac.uk/~ctitext2/publish/occas/eurolit/porter.html - 44k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#)
- 6 **Learning Technology newsletter, Vol. 4 Issue 3, July 2002**
Computer Assisted Language Learning, October 1998 Vol. 11 No. 4 pp. 363-380 ...
Journal of Network and Computer Applications. Academic Press. Vol. ...
lutf.ieee.org/learn_tech/issues/july2002/index.html - [Similar pages](#)
- 7 **TESOL Publications: Technology**
... not because they use the **latest technology**. ... as-yet-unrealized potential of
computer-assisted language learning for the ... member \$24.95). **TESOL Journal** and
TESOL ... www.tesol.edu/pubs/catalog/tech.html - 24k - Supplemental Result -
[Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#)
- 8 **Documenting and Maintaining Indigenous Languages**
... on second language acquisition and **computer-assisted language learning**. ...
jan.ucc.nau.edu/~jar/RIL_6.html - 69k - [Cached](#) - [Similar pages](#)

Common suffixes

Suffixes for verbs

There are some common verb suffixes.

Examples

~ize	computerize, internalize
~ify	modify, specify, codify
~ate	integrate, translate
~en	deepen, widen

When you learn a new noun or adjective, find out how you can make it into a verb.

Suffixes for nouns

There are many suffixes for nouns. But verbs ending in ~ize, ~ify and ~ate form nouns with ~ation.

Examples

Verb	Noun	
~ize	~ization	computerization, internalization
~ify	~ification	modification, specification
~ate	~ation	integration, translation

Understanding abbreviations and acronyms

An **abbreviation** is a shorter version of something. For example, PC /pi:si:/ is an abbreviation for *personal computer*.

An **acronym** is similar to an abbreviation, but it is pronounced as a word. For example, CALL /kɔ:l/ is an acronym for *computer-assisted language learning*.

We normally write an abbreviation or acronym with **capital letters**, although the full words have lower case letters.

We **pronounce** the vowel letters in **abbreviations** in this way:

A	/eɪ/
E	/i:/
I	/aɪ/
O	/əʊ/
U	/ju:/

We normally **pronounce** the vowel letters in **acronyms** in this way:

A	/æ/
E	/e/
I	/ɪ/
O	/ɒ/
U	/ʌ/

Skills bank

Developing ideas in a paragraph**Introducing the topic**

In a text, a **new paragraph** signals the start of a **new topic**. The topic is given in the **topic sentence** which is at or near the beginning of the paragraph. The topic sentence gives the **topic**, and also makes a **comment** about the topic.

Example:

Information technology offers linguists a range of key advantages in the field of corpus research.

The **topic** is *information technology*.

The **comment** is that *this offers a range of advantages*.

The sentences that follow then expand or explain the topic sentence.

Example:

Every student of modern linguistics will have come across the term 'corpus linguistics' during the course of their studies. This field has been influenced by the development of computer technology.

Developing the topic

A paragraph is normally about the same basic topic (the 'unity principle'). However, within a paragraph, ideas often **develop** beyond the comment. This development is often shown by:

- a **discourse marker**: *but, however, etc.*
- a **stance marker**: *unfortunately, etc.*

Examples:

Linguists have long been interested in analysis of language samples.

However, over the last twenty years ...

Unfortunately, it has not yet been possible to programme a computer with such qualities.

Discourse markers generally make a connection between the previous information and what comes next. They mainly introduce **contrasts** or **additional information**.

Stance markers show the **attitude** of the writer to the information, i.e., whether he/she is surprised, pleased, unhappy, etc. about the information.

Recording and reporting findings

When you do research, record information about the source. Refer to the source when you report your findings.

Examples:

Crystal (2004) states that ...

As Anderson suggests in his 2007 article in the Journal of Linguistics, ...

According to Campbell and Poser in their book Language Classification (2008), ...

As the writer of the article on The Guardian Unlimited (March 4, 2008) says, ...

You should give the full information about the source in your reference list or bibliography. For more information about this, see Unit 10 *Skills bank*.

5 LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

5.1 Vocabulary

word sets: synonyms, antonyms, etc.

- A** Look at the people on the opposite page.
- 1 What jobs do these people do? What is their role in society?
 - 2 Think of adjectives to describe each person.
- B** Study the words and phrases in box a.
- 1 Find pairs of words with similar meanings.
 - 2 What part of speech is each word?

a
accent belonging to circumstances class
communication community connection dialect gender
interaction link local maintain membership of part
pronunciation regional role sex situation society
socioeconomic status sustain variety

- C** Study the Hadford University handout on this page.
- 1 Find a word in box a for each blue word. Change the form if necessary.
 - 2 Find another word in the handout for each red word.
- D** Study the words in box b.
- 1 Find pairs of opposites.
 - 2 Add more words to make a set.
 - 3 Give a name to each word set.

b
educated elderly female male poor rich
uneducated upper-class working-class young

- E** Work with a partner.
- 1 Choose two people on the opposite page. Describe the people using words from box b.
 - 2 Your partner should guess which people you are talking about.
- F** Look at Figure 1.
- 1 What does the map show?
 - 2 Where do people have Scouse, Cockney, Geordie and Brummie accents?
- G** Study the description of Figure 2 on this page. Write one word in each space.



HADFORD University

Faculty: Language Studies

Lecture: Introduction to language and society

Language is not ...

- ... used in the same way by all members of society.
- ... only a means of communicating ideas.

So how does language reflect society?

Our usage of language is affected by the society that we live in and the role we play within that society.

- 1 **Social interaction** – as well as conveying messages, language is used to maintain comfortable relationships between people. For example, after sneezing we say, 'Bless you!'
- 2 **Gender identity** – research suggests that being male or female influences our employment of language.
- 3 **Regional identity** – use of a regional pronunciation indicates belonging to a particular geographical area or community.
- 4 **Social networks** – people of a similar socioeconomic status or social background often also have a variety of language usage in common.

Figure 2 _____ the distribution _____ native English speakers _____ dialect. The majority of native English speakers are _____ (70.7%). Although Britain is the origin _____ the English language, British English speakers _____ to only 15.9% of _____ native speakers. Together, Australian, Canadian and _____ types of English _____ the remaining 13.4%.

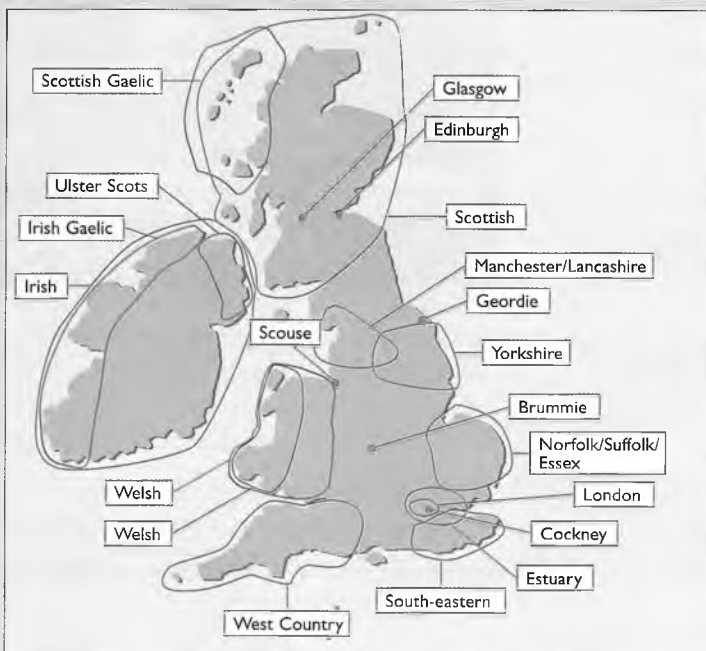


Figure 1: Languages, dialects and accents of the British Isles

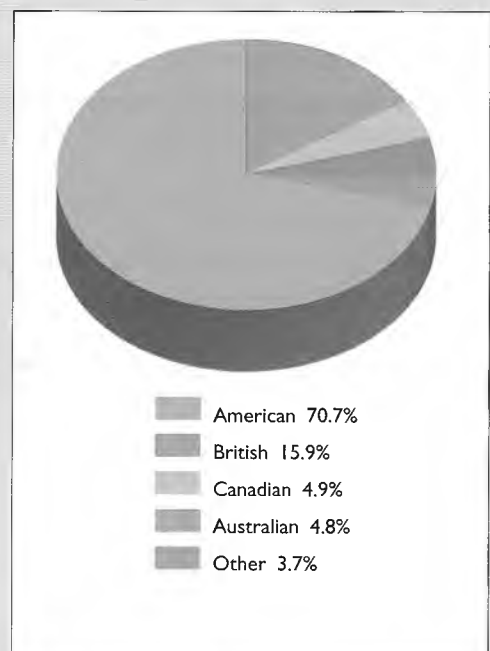



Figure 2: Distribution of native English speakers by dialect

5.2 Listening

'signpost' language • lexical cohesion • dealing with fractured text

A You are going to hear a lecture about key concepts in sociolinguistics.

- 1 Look at the lecture slides. What will you hear?
Make a list of points.
- 2 Put your points in a logical order.

B  How will the lecture be organized? Listen to Part 1 of the lecture. Number these topics.


- the film *My Fair Lady* _____
- regional language varieties _____
- definition of sociolinguistics _____
- social groupings _____
- gender _____

C Study the topics in Exercise B and look at Slides 1–3.

- 1 Write some key words for each topic.
- 2 What is the best way to make notes?
- 3 Make an outline for your notes.

D  Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.

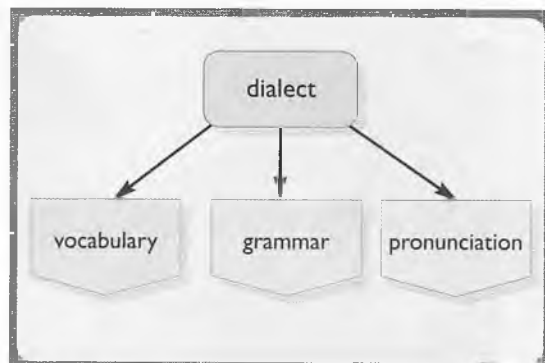
- 1 Add information to your outline notes.
- 2 Which of the topics in Exercise B are mentioned?
- 3 What is Geordie an example of?

E  Listen to Part 3 of the lecture. Make notes.

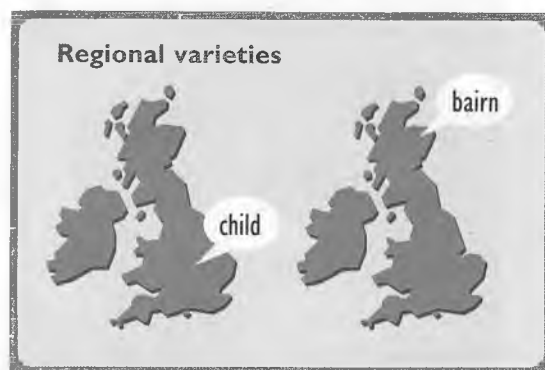
- 1 Which topics in Exercise B are mentioned?
- 2 Give two examples of different social roles suggested in the lecture.
- 3 What is a sociolect?
- 4 What is an idiolect?
- 5 What is the lecturer talking about when she loses her place?

F The lecturer used these words and phrases. Match synonyms.

- | | |
|--------------|-------------------|
| 1 variety | sex |
| 2 region | affected |
| 3 grouping | lexis |
| 4 identity | belonging |
| 5 vocabulary | network |
| 6 gender | dialect |
| 7 influenced | geographical area |



Slide 1



Slide 2



Slide 3

5.3 Extending skills

note-taking symbols • stance markers • restatement

A Look at the student's notes on the right. They are from the lecture in Lesson 2.

- 1 What do the symbols and abbreviations mean?
- 2 The notes contain some mistakes. Find and correct them.
- 3 Make the corrected notes into a spidergram.

B Listen to the final part of the lecture.

- 1 Complete your notes.
- 2 Why does the lecturer have to stop?
- 3 What is the homework task?

C Listen to some stressed syllables. Identify the word below in each case. Number each word.

Example: You hear: 1 sem /sem/

You write:

- | | | | | | |
|------------|-------|------------|-------|----------|-------|
| analyse | _____ | influenced | _____ | regional | _____ |
| assignment | _____ | network | _____ | research | _____ |
| community | _____ | outline | _____ | seminar | 1 |
| dialect | _____ | particular | _____ | variety | _____ |

Sociolinguistics = lang. + soc.
 Key concepts
 NB dialects = varieties
 (i) social groupings/networks → varieties
 sociolect = indiv. unique use
 idiolect = lang. of group/subculture
 (ii) reg. dialects
 e.g., Brummie = London
 Geordie = Newcastle
 Cockney = Birmingham
 (iii) m/f (f stronger reg. accents)
 Film: My Fair Lady ≈ sociolinguistic experiment

D Study the extract from a lecture on the right.

- 1 Think of one word for each space.
- 2 Listen and check your ideas.
- 3 Match words or phrases from the blue box with each word or phrase from the lecture.
- 4 Think of other words or phrases with similar meanings.

basically consequently
 evidently in other words
 obviously probably
 some people say that is to say

E Discuss the research task set by the lecturer.

- 1 What kind of information should you find?
- 2 What ideas do you have already?
- 3 Where can you find more information?


_____, sociolinguistics explores the connection between society and language use. _____, the clearest example of this connection is provided by regional varieties. _____, over the years the language used in different areas of a country develops in different ways. *What I _____ is*, people's use of language adapts to their circumstances and needs, and this can create different varieties of the same language. *Of _____*, no two people have the same set of circumstances, so *it _____ that* no two people use language in exactly the same way.

5.4 Extending skills

making effective contributions to a seminar

A Study Figure 1 on the opposite page.

- 1 What does it show?
- 2 Which influences could be included in the 'other' section?
- 3 Where do you think the information has come from?

B  Listen to some extracts from a seminar about varieties of English.

- 1 What is wrong with the contribution of the last speaker in each case? Choose from the following:
 - it is irrelevant
 - the student interrupts
 - the student doesn't contribute anything to the discussion
 - it is not polite
 - the student doesn't explain the relevance
- 2 What exactly does the student say, in each case?
- 3 What should the student say or do, in each case?

C  Listen to some more extracts from the same seminar.

- 1 How does the second speaker make an effective contribution in each case? Choose from the following:
 - brings the discussion back to the main point
 - brings in another speaker
 - asks for clarification
 - links when not sure the contribution is new
 - paraphrases to check understanding
 - gives specific examples to explain a point
 - links when not sure the contribution is relevant
 - disagrees politely
 - links to a previous speaker
- 2 What exactly does the student say, in each case?
- 3 What other ways do you know of saying the same things?

D Make a table of **Do's** (helpful ways) and **Don'ts** (unhelpful ways) of contributing to seminar discussions.

Do's	Don'ts
ask politely for information	demand information from other students

E Work in groups.

- 1 Interview one of the students in your group and complete an idiolect map for him/her.
- 2 Conduct a seminar. Discuss Jason's idiolect map and the idiolect map you have just made. One person should act as observer.

F Report on your discussions and present your idiolect map.

G Work in groups of four. Each person should research and discuss one of the four main research methods that can be used to do research into sociolinguistics.

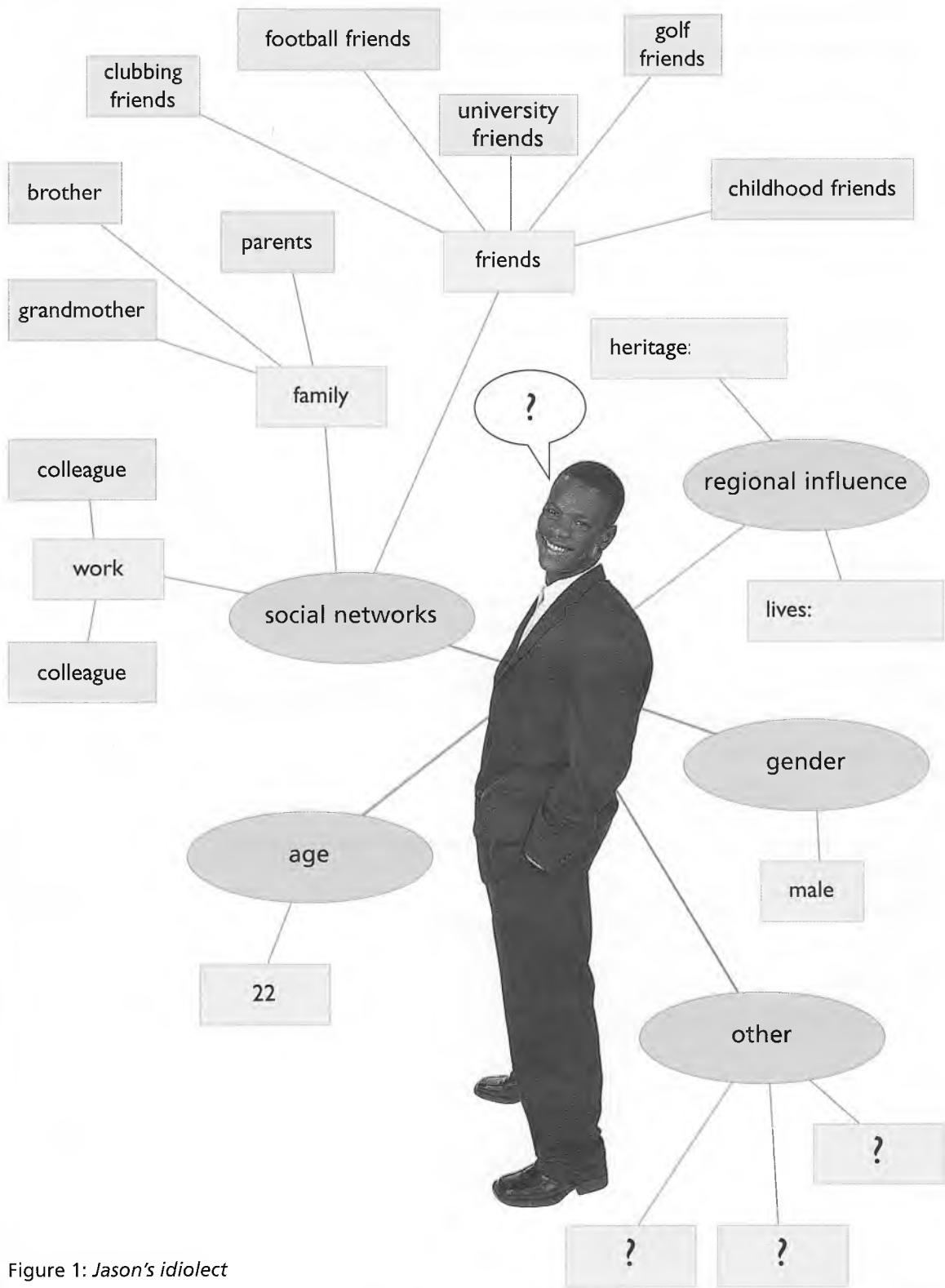


Figure 1: Jason's idiolect

Vocabulary sets

It is a good idea to learn words which go together. Why?

- It is easier to remember the words.
- You will have alternative words to use when paraphrasing research findings.
- It is not good style to repeat the same word often, so writers, and sometimes speakers, make use of words from the same set to avoid repetition.

You can create a vocabulary set with:

synonyms	words with similar meanings, e.g., <i>products/goods/items</i>
antonyms	words with opposite meanings, e.g., <i>male/female</i>
hypernyms	a general word for a set of words, e.g., <i>vehicle = car, truck, lorry, etc.</i>
linked words	e.g., <i>young, teenage, in his/her 20s, middle-aged, old</i>

Stance

Speakers often use certain words and phrases to show how they feel about what they are saying. Common stance words are:

adverbs	<i>arguably naturally obviously</i>
phrases	<i>of course, ... it's essential to/that ... some people say that ...</i>

In many cases, different stance words and phrases are used in spoken and written language.

Spoken	Written
<i>another thing</i>	<i>additionally</i>
<i>it seems</i>	<i>evidently</i>
<i>unfortunately</i>	<i>regrettably</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>contend</i>

Skills bank

Signpost language in a lecture

At the beginning of a lecture, a speaker will usually outline the talk. To help listeners understand the order of topics, the speaker will use phrases such as:

To start with I'll talk about ...

Then I'll discuss ...

After that, we'll look at ...

I'll finish by giving a summary of ...

During the lecture, the speaker may:

indicate a new topic	<i>Moving on (from this) ...</i>
say the same thing in a different way	<i>What I mean is, ... That is to say, ... To put it another way, ...</i>
return to the main point	<i>Where was I? Oh yes. To return to the main point ... As I was saying ...</i>

Seminar language

The discussion leader may:

ask for information	<i>What did you learn about ...? Can you explain ...? Can you tell me a bit more about ...?</i>
ask for opinions	<i>What do you make of ...? This is interesting, isn't it?</i>
bring in other speakers	<i>What do you think, Majed?</i>

Participants should:

be polite when disagreeing	<i>Actually, I don't quite agree ...</i>
make relevant contributions	<i>That reminds me ...</i>
give examples to explain a point	<i>I can give an example of that.</i>

Participants may:

agree with previous speaker	<i>I agree, and that's why ... That's true, so I think ... You're absolutely right, which is why ...</i>
disagree with previous speaker	<i>I don't think I agree with that. In my opinion ... I'm not sure that's true. I think ...</i>
link to a previous speaker	<i>As Jack said earlier, ... Going back to what Leila said a while ago ...</i>
ask for clarification	<i>Could you say more about ...?</i>
paraphrase to check understanding	<i>So what you're saying is ...</i>
refer back to establish relevance	<i>Just going back to ...</i>

Participants may not be sure if a contribution is new or relevant:

I'm sorry. Has anybody made the point that ... ?

I don't know if this is relevant.

6 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

6.1 Vocabulary

paraphrasing at sentence level

A Study the words in the blue box. They all have a meaning in English language teaching.

- 1 Copy and complete the table. Put the words in one or more boxes, in each case.
- 2 Add or take away affixes to make words for the empty boxes. (Some may not be possible.)
- 3 What is the special meaning of each word in language learning and linguistics?
- 4 Find a synonym for each word.
- 5 Group the words in the blue box according to their stress pattern.

analyse assessment context
correct design imitate monitor
paraphrase pedagogy prepare
repetition train

Noun	Verb	Adjective
Context	contextualize	

B Study the pictures and table on the opposite page. Discuss these questions, using words from Exercise A.

- 1 What does the table show?
- 2 What differences do you notice between the different teaching approaches?

C A trainee teacher (Student A) has written about teaching approaches, but there are some mistakes. Change the blue words, so the sentences are true.

D Another trainee teacher (Student B) has written about teaching approaches. Match each sentence with a corrected sentence from Exercise C.

E Look at Figures 1 and 2 on the opposite page. Which two teaching methods are shown?

F Think about how you were taught the following:

- reading
- listening
- writing
- vocabulary
- speaking
- grammar

- 1 Which methods/approaches did your teacher use?
- 2 In one or two sentences, write about the way you were taught each of the items above.
- 3 Give your sentences to your partner. Your partner should try to guess which item you have described.
- 4 Rewrite your partner's sentences with the same meaning.

Student A

- 1 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a well-known approach to the teaching of first and foreign languages.
- 2 CLT is concerned with the needs of students to communicate inside the classroom.
- 3 Students are forced to use the target language in a variety of real-world contexts. CLT is usually teacher-centred.
- 4 This communicative aim is ignored in the choice of language content and teaching materials.
- 5 There is an absence of role-play, pair and group work.

Student B

- a This approach focuses on the real communicative situations which students find themselves in.
- b One popular approach to L2 pedagogy is known as Communicative Language Teaching.
- c The CLT approach also influences the type of language which is taught and the resources which are used.
- d The focus is not on the teacher. Students are persuaded to communicate through actual use of authentic language.
- e The emphasis is on collaboration with other learners for communicative purposes.



Language teaching methodologies

ELT approach	Teacher roles	Learner roles
Audiolingualism	language modeller drill leader	pattern practicer accuracy enthusiast
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	needs analyst authentic task designer	improviser negotiator
Total Physical Response (TPR)	commander action monitor	order taker performer

Source: Theodore S. Rodgers, (2001), Center for Applied Linguistics, www.cal.org/resources/Digest/rodgers.html



Figure 1



Figure 2

6.2 Reading

identifying subject-verb-object in long sentences • paraphrasing

- A** Discuss these questions.
- 1 What do you find the most difficult aspect of communicating in another language?
 - 2 What factors affect students' ability to communicate in a second or foreign language?
- B** Study Figure 1. Match the communicative competencies in the diagram with the descriptions on notes A–D.
- C** Look at the illustration, the title, the introduction and the first sentence of each paragraph on the opposite page. What will the text be about?
- D** Write some research questions, using your ideas from Exercises A, B and C above.
- E** Read the text. Does it answer your questions?
- F** Study the highlighted sentences in the text. Find and underline the subject, verb and the object or complement in each sentence. *See Skills bank*
- G** Two students paraphrased parts of the text.
- 1 Which parts of the text do they paraphrase?
 - 2 Which paraphrase is better? Why?



Figure 1: *Communicative competence*
Source: P. McKenzie-Brown
www.languageinstinct.blogspot.com

A The ability to combine a language's elements in order to speak or write. This is also known as fluency.

B The use of verbal and non-verbal strategies to allow for lack of skill in the other three areas.

C The skill of using language appropriately according to particular social situations.

D The extent to which the features and rules of the language have been learnt.

Student A

ELT teachers who believe strongly in an eclectic approach recommend that it should only be used in a principled way.

It is important to take into account the needs of target students when adapting the teaching approach.

In this way, a teacher can avoid the problems which arise when eclecticism is used without principles.

To sum up, contextualization is fundamental in the choice of approach ...

... because it ensures that procedures are organized, not random.

Student B

Supporters of eclecticism in ELT advise against unrestrained pluralism.

They recommend that teachers should adapt teaching in line with a student needs analysis.

This allows the teacher an altogether more principled choice of approach.

The guiding principles of an approach need to match the learning situation.

As a result, the 'anything goes' mentality can be avoided.

- H** Work in groups. Each group should write a paraphrase of a different part of the text.

Can you juggle your approach?

Any trainee teacher of English as a foreign language has to study at least some of the many different pedagogical approaches which have, at one time or another, been championed as the most effective means of teaching language proficiency. For example, approaches such as Communicative Language Teaching, audiolingualism and task-based learning are frequently referred to by language-teaching professionals.

Confronted with constantly changing fashions in preferred teaching methodologies, many language teachers are now opting to practise coherent pluralistic language teaching in order to produce lessons based on something called 'informed eclecticism'. In other words, some teachers see the benefit in juggling a range of different approaches. But what does the juggling of approaches to ELT really involve?

Instead of adopting a single approach, many instructors now realize the advantages of selecting different teaching approaches according to who they are teaching and the particular language skills they are focusing on. Whereas Total Physical Response may be useful for teaching the parts of the body to primary school students, it may be more appropriate to use Communicative Language Teaching in order to prepare a group of exchange students for a homestay holiday in France.

Clare Nukui, a tutor at the University of Reading, warns against the use of unconstrained pluralism in the choice of language-teaching approaches. 'Eclectic use of activities, without reference to ELT theory or contextual considerations, can be very dangerous. Different approaches are, of course, better suited to some contexts than others. Principled eclecticism requires a great deal of knowledge of language-teaching methodology in order to ensure that students' needs are being adequately addressed.' Random, unprincipled teaching, as described by Clare Nukui, is widely considered to be misguided and has often been criticized because it may be atheoretical, subjective and unsystematic.



Even ardent advocates of eclecticism in ELT advise against uninformed decision-making. As an alternative, the use of contextual adaptation, in line with a student needs analysis, is recommended. This facilitates an altogether more principled choice of approach. The use of a carefully calculated selection of appropriate teaching methodology, in accordance with the nature of the language being taught and the specific idiosyncrasies of the student body, can overcome many of the disadvantages of unconstrained pluralism. In brief, the guiding principles of a selected approach need to fit with the learning situation. This enables avoidance of an 'anything goes' mentality, which in some cases has led to a disorganized combination of procedures.

The ELT professional who practises informed eclecticism is very sensitive to the need for organization and effective training in order to achieve satisfactory results. Likewise, any trained juggler is aware that this art requires much more than simply throwing balls in the air in haphazard fashion.

According to Clare Nukui, newly qualified English language teachers are best advised to practise teaching which is rooted in one or two tried and tested theories before they try their hand at eclecticism. 'Successful language teaching involves much more than simply pulling pre-packaged approaches off a shelf and teaching a series of interesting exercises to your class. Understanding the philosophy of second language acquisition and relating it to teaching practice effectively takes time and experience. I would advise any student teacher to undertake a thorough study of the guiding principles behind language teaching before they experiment with eclecticism. If teachers do not take this advice, they risk making uninformed decisions and becoming the clowns in their own classrooms.'

6.3 Extending skills

understanding complex sentences

- A** Study the words in box a from the text in Lesson 2.
- 1 What part of speech are they in the text?
 - 2 Find one or more words with a similar meaning to each word.
- B** Complete the summary with words from Exercise A.
- C** Study the words in box b.
- 1 What is each base word and its meaning in language and linguistics?
 - 2 How does the affix change the part of speech?
 - 3 What is the meaning in the text in Lesson 2?
- D** Study sentences A–E on the opposite page.
- 1 Copy and complete Table 1. Put the parts of each sentence in the correct box.
 - 2 Rewrite the main part of each sentence, changing the verb from active to passive or vice versa.
- E** Look at the 'Other verbs' column in Table 1.
- 1 How are the clauses linked to the main part of the sentence?
 - 2 In sentences A–C, what does each relative pronoun refer to?
 - 3 Make the clauses into complete sentences.

a teacher advantage
particular choice unsystematic
recommend facilitate
situation philosophy

_____ who practise eclecticism in their _____ of approach to language teaching are _____ to consider the _____ in which they are teaching. Failure to follow the _____ of language-teaching methodology can lead to an uninformed approach. Knowledge of the _____ pedagogy which informs ELT approaches can _____ effective classroom practice and avoid _____ teaching through haphazard decision-making. This brings key _____ to both students and teachers.

b pedagogical pluralistic
unconstrained unprincipled
misguided atheoretical
disorganized pre-packaged

6.4 Extending skills

writing complex sentences

- A** Make one sentence for each box on the right, using the method given in red. Include the words in blue. Write the sentences as one paragraph.
- B** Study the notes on the opposite page which a student made about a case study. Write up the case study. Include the ideas from Exercise A.
- 1 Divide the notes into sections to make suitable paragraphs.
 - 2 Decide which ideas are suitable topic sentences for the paragraphs.
 - 3 Make full sentences from the notes, joining ideas where possible, to make one continuous text.

Mr Rogers taught a lesson in academic writing to class B. Mrs Green observed the lesson.

relative, passive Last week

He used the electronic whiteboard as a teaching resource. He used a set of laptops as a teaching resource.

passive, ellipsis during the class

Mr Rogers asked the students to give a short presentation. The presentation was good for speaking practice.

relative, passive, ellipsis In addition

Mr Rogers planned a very interesting and successful lesson. Mr Rogers received excellent feedback from Mrs Green.

participle As a result

A In the UK, Communicative Language Teaching, which is also known as CLT, influenced many teachers during the 1980s.

B Three of the many approaches to ELT, which are of notable importance, will be described here.

C Ideally, language teachers should engage in continuing professional development, which is sometimes provided through conferences, as this is a useful way to keep up-to-date with new theories and approaches in teaching methodology.

D As well as understanding his or her students' level of ability, a teacher must be fully aware of the class's aims in studying the language.

E Having chosen Total Physical Response as the most appropriate approach, the teacher noticed a significant improvement in linguistic proficiency.

Table 1: Breaking a complex sentence into constituent parts

	Main S	Main V	Main O/C	Other V + S/O/C	Adv. phrases
A	Communicative Language Teaching	influenced	many teachers	which is also known as CLT	In the UK during the 1980s

Lesson planning for ELT

- * good lesson planning = describe clearly (→ use lesson again in future)
- * most teachers suggest 1 plan for 1 class
- * this case study = academic writing lesson (taught to int'l studs at UK uni)
- * 4 sections in plan = topic + content, goals + objectives, procedures + methods, evaluation
- * topic + content
 - * what is being taught?
 - * = focus of teaching - e.g., referencing, cautious language
 - * goals + objectives = explains aims
 - * teacher describes aims, e.g., 'to write formally', 'to describe processes'
 - * aims = areas from within main content - e.g., (cautious language) 'might', 'could'
 - * procedures + methods = choice of approach and learning tasks
 - * = main part of plan; describes tasks and approach chosen by T
 - * some approaches, e.g.,
 - task-based
 - CLT
 - TPR
 - audiolingual
- * evaluation (after teaching) = poss. most important part of plan
 - * has lesson successfully met objectives?
 - YES → make only small changes to plan for future use
 - NO → rewrite lesson

NB: TPR not likely choice for academic writing

Reporting findings

You cannot use another writer's words unless you directly quote. Instead, you must restate or **paraphrase**.

There are several useful ways to do this:

use a synonym of a word or phrase	<i>teacher</i> → <i>instructor</i> <i>in the first stage</i> → <i>at the beginning</i>
change negative to positive and vice versa	<i>the quality of lesson planning improved</i> → <i>the quality of lesson planning didn't decline</i>
use a replacement subject	<i>teaching standards may decline</i> → <i>there may be a decline in teaching standards</i>
change from active to passive or vice versa	<i>the teacher could prepare lessons more effectively</i> → <i>lessons could be prepared more effectively</i>
change the order of information	<i>in the first phase of teacher training, lesson planning is time-consuming</i> → <i>it is time-consuming to plan lessons early in the teacher-training cycle</i>

When reporting findings from one source, you should use all the methods above.

Example:

Original text	<i>Lesson observations are a crucial part of initial teacher training.</i>
Report	<i>While student teachers are undergoing the first stages of teacher training, the observation of lessons is of particular importance.</i>

Important

When paraphrasing, you should aim to make sure that 90% of the words you use are different from the original. It is not enough to change only a few vocabulary items: this will result in plagiarism. A paraphrase should only be used in conjunction with a clear acknowledgement of the source.

Example:

Original text	<i>If teaching is insufficiently linked to the theory of language teaching then effective learning is unlikely to take place.</i>
Plagiarism	<i>If teaching is inadequately linked to the principles of language teaching then effective learning is not likely to take place.</i>

Skills bank

Finding the main information

Sentences in academic and technical texts are often very long.

Example:

Following the publication of Calderhead's research (1984) into lesson planning, it became apparent that classroom teachers do not always consider the aims and outcomes of teaching.

You often don't have to understand every word, but you must **identify the subject, the verb and the object**, if there is one.

For example, in the sentence above, we find:

subject = *teachers*

verb = *don't consider*

object = *aims and outcomes*

Remember!

You can remove any leading prepositional phrases at this point to help you find the subject, e.g., *Following the publication ...*

You must then find **the main words which modify** the subject, the verb and the object or complement.

In the sentence above we find:

Which teachers? = classroom teachers

How consider? = not always

What aims and outcomes? = ones concerned with teaching

Ellipsis

Sometimes, if the meaning is clear, words are implied rather than actually given in the text.

Examples:

Communicative Language Teaching, (which is) also known as CLT, ...

The students had access to special electronic voting buttons through which their opinions (were recorded) and answers to multiple choice questions were recorded.

7 LANGUAGE TESTING

7.1 Vocabulary

compound nouns • fixed phrases

A Study the words in box a.

- 1 Match nouns in column 1 with nouns in column 2 to make compound nouns.
- 2 Which word in each phrase has the strongest stress?

a	1	2
answer	examination	board booklet
external	multiple	choice class
proficiency	revision	examiner item
second	test	marker test

B Study the phrases in box b.

- 1 Complete each phrase with one word.
- 2 Is each phrase followed by:
 - a noun (including gerund)?
 - subject + verb?
 - an infinitive?
- 3 What is each phrase used for?

b as described ... as well ... in addition ...
 in order ... in such a way ... in the case ...
 known ... the end ... the use ...

C Look at the pictures on the opposite page showing the test creation process at Lonbridge Examination Board. What happens at each stage?

D Read the extracts A – F on the right.

- 1 Match each extract with a picture on the opposite page.
- 2 Complete each sentence with one or more phrases from box b. Use each phrase once only.

E Look at the Hadford University handout on the opposite page. What is it about?

F Read the Hadford University handout. Match the phrases in box c with the blue phrases in the handout.

G Read the Lonbridge Examination Board memo below about reading assessments. Complete it using phrases from boxes b and c.

_____ to prepare students for university study, we need to _____ their intended course. In particular, it is important to help students with _____ subject-specific vocabulary.

My recommendation, therefore, is that the English test includes _____ of a cloze activity. _____ of cloze activities, students are tested on how well they can _____ sentences which contain missing vocabulary items. My opinion is _____ teaching students from _____ academic disciplines.

Creating language tests

- A** After trialling, it is important to analyse the reliability of the test _____ as the validity of test scores.
- B** _____ to the trialling of individual questions, the full test should be piloted on a group of students _____ in the test specification.
- C** To start with, the purpose and context of the test need to be described _____ to develop a test blueprint, which is _____ as a specification. This is a type of plan for the test.
- D** At _____ of the test production stage, the training of markers will be necessary.
- E** _____ of a test specification helps in the moderation of test items. _____ of problem questions, revisions and improvements can be made.
- F** Individual questions should be trialled with students _____ that difficulties or weaknesses in each question can be identified.

c a number of a variety of
 in this case bear in mind
 based on deal with
 the beginning of the development of

Lonbridge Examination Board *Creating language tests*



Test specification

A test specification, or 'spec', is a useful planning tool for test development. The spec makes it easier to handle a situation where different skills will be evaluated by a test. For the Hadford English Test, the start of the process is to clarify the purposes of the test. Then, using this information, prototype questions are designed. Finally, the prototypes are piloted and evaluated by the examiners who use various criteria in order to create a final version of the test.

7.2 Listening

fixed phrases • sequencing information in sentences

A You are going to hear this lecture. Write four questions you would like answered.

B Listen to Part 1 of the lecture.

- 1 What is the lecturer going to talk about today? Write *yes* or *no*.
 - importance of language testing
 - how tests are created
 - well-known proficiency tests
 - ethics
 - validity of tests
 - why and how test specifications are used
- 2 Why are language tests important?

C Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.

- 1 Make notes in an appropriate form.
- 2 What is *backwash*?
- 3 Who needs to use students' test results? Explain.

D Match each phrase in the first column of the table on the right with the type of information that can follow.

E Listen to Part 3 of the lecture.

- 1 Makes notes on the information that comes after the phrases in Exercise D.
- 2 Were your questions in Exercise A answered?

F Listen for sentences 1–4 in Part 4 of the lecture. Which sentence (a or b) follows in each case? Why? See *Skills bank*.

- 1 Argument 1 supports construct validity.
 - a This argument suggests that a test's construct validity can be improved by using a blueprint.
 - b The improvement of construct validity by using a blueprint is suggested in this argument.
- 2 A test specification can be divided into different sections.
 - a Examples of these sections are reading, writing, listening and speaking.
 - b Things like reading, writing, listening and speaking are examples of these sections.
- 3 The second argument supports the creation of new test versions.
 - a When making new versions of a test, the important thing is that questions can be created which test language in a similar way to previous versions.
 - b What's important about new versions of a test is that questions can be created which test language in a similar way to previous versions.
- 4 Lastly, there is test evaluation.
 - a In test evaluation, one clear outcome is that it is sometimes necessary to revise items.
 - b What's clear is that in the test evaluation process, it is sometimes necessary to revise items.

G This lecturer is not very well organized. What problems are there in the lecture?

HADFORD University

Language tests (Lecture 1)


Lecture overview

- Importance of language testing
- Backwash
- Test specifications
- Review and further research

Fixed phrase	Followed by ...
1 An important concept (is) ...	a different way to think about the topic
2 What do I mean by ...?	an imaginary example
3 As you can see, ...	a key statement or idea
4 Looking at it another way, ...	a concluding comment giving a result of something
5 In linguistic terms, ...	a new idea or topic that the lecturer wants to discuss
6 Say ...	a comment about a diagram or picture
7 As a result ...	a consequence of something
8 The point is ...	an explanation of a word or phrase
9 In this way ...	an idea that the lecturer wants to explain in a certain context

7.3 Extending skills

stress within words • fixed phrases • giving sentences a special focus


- A**  Listen to some stressed syllables. Identify the word below in each case. Number each word.

Example:

You hear: 1 *sis* /sis/

You write:

assessment	_____	examination	_____	specification	_____
backwash	_____	measure	_____	trustworthy	_____
consequently	_____	piloting	_____	validity	_____
consistently	<u>1</u>	reliability	_____	version	_____

- B**  Listen to the final part of the lecture from Lesson 2.

- 1 Complete the notes on the right by adding a symbol in the space.
- 2 What research task(s) are you asked to do?

- C** Study the tasks in box a. Find one or more phrases in box b for each task.

- D** Rewrite these sentences to give a special focus. Begin with the words in brackets.

- 1 Ruch first referred to specifications in the early 1900s. (*It*)
- 2 The use of a test spec is very important for good planning. (*What*)
- 3 Test specifications guide test writers. (*The advantage*)
- 4 Making valid and reliable tests is highly complex because a wide variety of different factors need to be considered. (*Two sentences. First = 'It'; Second = 'The reason'*)
- 5 Validity and reliability can be built into tests through planning. (*It*)

See **Skills bank**.

- E** Choose one section of the lecture. Refer to your notes and give a spoken summary. Use the fixed phrases and ways of giving special focus that you have looked at.

- F** Work with a partner.

- 1 Choose a short text and practise writing sample test items for a HET reading test.
- 2 Present your test items to another pair. Practise using fixed phrases and ways of giving special focus.

1. Language testing = complex
 ___ many factors to consider
 ___ , weather / test-taker's personality
 ___ unreliability

2. Planning ___ difficult
 must consider

- Who are you testing?
- What are you testing?
- Which items are used?

___ use test spec = guide for test writers
 planning ___ validity ___ reliability

3. Research topic ___ validity

- a. validity (___ reliability)
- b. write test spec

a referring back to a recently mentioned topic
 making a major point adding points
 finishing a list giving examples restating


b and so on
 In other words, ... Let's take ...
 Let me put it another way.
 Not to mention the fact that ...
 Plus there's the fact that ...
 The fact of the matter is, ...
 You've already heard ...

7.4 Extending skills


making effective contributions to a seminar

A Look at the information on the opposite page about the Hadford English Test.

- 1 What does the information show?
- 2 How many sections are there in the test?
- 3 What type of language proficiency does HET aim to test?


B  Listen to the first extract from a planning meeting about HET.

- 1 What are the tutors discussing?
- 2 Where is the test taking place?

C  Listen to the meeting. Are these sentences true or false?

- 1 The examiners think that training is too time consuming. _____
- 2 Double marking is a form of moderation. _____
- 3 Grade descriptors describe what students need to do to get a particular grade. _____
- 4 The chief examiner is in favour of double marking. _____
- 5 The new system is less fair to the students. _____

D Study the tasks in box a and the phrases in box b.

- 1 Write **a**, **b**, **c** or **d** next to each phrase to show its use.
- 2  Listen to the meeting again to check your answers.

E Work in groups of four to research the key stages of test development.

- 1 Each person should choose a different stage.
 - Student A: Describing the testing situation.
 - Student B: Creating and trialling test items.
 - Student C: Piloting the full test with students.
 - Student D: Developing scales and training markers.
- 2 After reading the notes, report back orally to your group. Use fixed phrases to ask for and give clarification.

F Work in groups. Choose one of the tests shown in the pictures on the opposite page.

- 1 What are the special features of each type of test. Discuss with your group.
- 2 Report to the class on your discussion, explaining some of the particular features of the different tests.

- a**
- a introducing
 - b asking for clarification
 - c agreeing/disagreeing
 - d clarifying

- b**
- I'd like to make two points. _____
- First, ... _____
- Can you expand on that? _____
- The point is ... _____
- What's your second point? _____
- My second point is ... _____
- Yes, but ... _____
- I don't agree with that _____
- because ... _____
- Sorry, but who/what are you/we _____
- talking about, exactly? _____
- We need to be clear here. _____
- In what way? _____
- What I'm trying to say is, ... _____
- Can you give me an example? _____
- Look at it this way. _____
- Absolutely. _____
- I'd just like to say that ... _____





HADFORD *University*



Hadford English Test (HET)

What is HET?

HET is a test in English for academic purposes solely for students seeking to join the University of Hadford.

Why take HET?

HET has been designed for international students who want to study at Hadford University.

The results of the HET test can usually be obtained within 48 hours of the test's administration.

Where can I take HET?

To arrange to take the test in Hadford, please contact HET@hadford.ac.uk

HET will also be administered in China, Cyprus, Japan and Saudi Arabia. For overseas test dates please contact HEToverseas@hadford.ac.uk

What does HET involve?

HET comprises four papers:

- Listening
- Reading and writing
- Grammar
- Speaking

The test takes three hours.

Listening

The listening paper assesses your ability to understand a lecture.

Reading and writing

The reading and writing paper assesses the ability to read and understand academic texts and to complete two short writing activities.

Grammar

The grammar paper assesses your command of grammar in academic situations.

Speaking

The speaking paper assesses your ability to interact with an examiner and to discuss academic issues.

University Language
Proficiency Test



Name: _____

English for Business

End of Semester Test

Name: _____

(LPT)
Language
Placement Test



Name: _____

Lonbridge Language School

Know your needs

Self-help language test

Name: _____

Language of Law
Module 3

Name: _____

Recognizing fixed phrases from linguistics (1)

There are many fixed phrases in the field of Language and Linguistics studies.

Examples:

Phrase	Meaning in the discipline
<i>test item</i>	a question used in a test
<i>item bank</i>	a collection of test questions
<i>test validity</i>	the extent to which test scores can be trusted; if a test item does not accurately measure a target skill, then the item is not valid
<i>test reliability</i>	the agreement of test with itself or another test; if, for example, students can get the right answers by guessing, the test is not reliable
<i>examiner training</i>	teaching examiners to award marks consistently and fairly

Keep a list of fixed phrases and remind yourself regularly of the meanings.

Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (1)

There are also a large number of fixed phrases which are commonly used in academic and technical English in general.

Examples:

Phrase	What comes next?
<i>As we have seen ...</i>	a reminder of previous information
<i>An important concept is ...</i>	one of the basic points underlying the topic
<i>As you can see, ...</i>	a reference to an illustration OR a logical conclusion from previous information
<i>As shown in ...</i>	a reference to a diagram or table
<i>... in such a way that ...</i>	a result of something
<i>In addition to (X, Y)</i>	X = reminder of last point, Y = new point
<i>As well as (X, Y)</i>	
<i>In the case of ...</i>	a reference to a particular topic or, more often, sub-topic
<i>... based on ...</i>	a piece of research, a theory, an idea
<i>Bear in mind (that) ...</i>	key information which helps to explain (or limit in some way) previous information
<i>The point is ...</i>	the basic information underlying an explanation
<i>in order to (do X, Y)</i>	X = objective, Y = necessary actions/conditions
<i>In X terms, ...</i>	explaining something in a certain context
<i>In other words, ...</i>	the same information put in a different way
<i>Looking at it another way, ...</i>	
<i>In this way ...</i>	a result from previous information
<i>Say ...</i>	an example
<i>What do I mean by ...?</i>	an explanation of X

Skills bank

'Given' and 'new' information in sentences

In English, we can put important information at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. There are two types of important information.

- 1 Information which the listener or reader already knows, from general knowledge or from previous information in the text. This can be called 'given' information. It normally goes at the beginning of the sentence.
- 2 Information which is new in this text. This can be called 'new' information. It normally goes at the end of a sentence.

Example:

In Lesson 2, the lecturer is talking about the language testing process, so the testing process in general = given information.

Given	New
<i>The testing process</i>	<i>can be improved by using a test blueprint.</i>
<i>In a blueprint,</i>	<i>you get specifications for content and the way it should be tested.</i>

Giving sentences a special focus

We sometimes change the normal word order to emphasize a particular point, e.g., a person, an object, a time.

Examples:

Normal sentence	<i>Bachman researched language testing in the 1990s.</i>
Focusing on person	<i>It was Bachman who researched ...</i>
Focusing on object	<i>It was language testing which Bachman researched ...</i>
Focusing on time	<i>It was in the 1990s that Bachman ...</i>

Introducing new information

We can use special structures to introduce a new topic.

Examples:

Validity is an important aspect of writing language tests.

→ **One important aspect of writing language tests is validity.**

Three main arguments exist for using a test spec.

→ **There are three main arguments for using a test spec.**

A test spec is very important for good planning.

→ **What's very important for good planning is the use of a test spec.**

Objectivity is very important.

→ **What I mean is ... it's really important to be objective.**

Clarifying points

When we are speaking, we often have to clarify points. There are many expressions which we can use.

Examples:

Let me put it another way ...

What I'm trying to say is ...

Look at it this way ...

The point/thing is ...

8 THE SPREAD OF ENGLISH

8.1 Vocabulary

identifying synonyms • making nouns from verbs • paraphrasing

A Discuss the following questions.

- 1 In what ways can a language be powerful or dominant?
- 2 What *power* is there in the items in box a?

B In pictures A–D, what do you learn about the spread of English?

C Look up each noun in box b in a dictionary.

- 1 Is it countable, uncountable or both?
- 2 What is its language and linguistics meaning?
- 3 What is a good synonym?
- 4 What useful grammatical information can you find?

D Study the lists of verbs in box c.

- 1 Match the verbs with similar meanings.
- 2 Make nouns from the verbs if possible.

E Look at the Hadford University handout.

- 1 How does the writer restate each section heading in the paragraph?
- 2 Find synonyms for the blue words. Use a dictionary if necessary.
- 3 Rewrite each sentence to make paraphrases of the texts. Use:
 - synonyms you have found yourself
 - synonyms from Exercise C
 - the nouns you made in Exercise D
 - passives where possible
 - any other words that are necessary

Example:

...the number of other users of English has multiplied at a very rapid rate since Shakespeare's epoch.

Since Shakespeare's era, the quantity of non-native speakers of English has increased rapidly.

F Look at Figure 1 on the opposite page.

- 1 What were the first two main branches of the spread of English?
- 2 Which branch has had more impact so far?
- 3 Which main branch is likely to have the bigger impact in the future?

a advertising education government
media politics research trade

b banter barter bilingualism
community culture endangerment
global village globalization heritage
immigration imperialism lingua franca
native speaker tourism trade

	1	2
	multiply	utilize
	use	comprehend
	exchange (goods)	increase
	translate	communicate
	understand	trade
	play a role in	achieve
	reach	transmit
	correspond	decode
	broadcast	extend
	spread	contribute (to)



English, past and present

A The language of Shakespeare

Four hundred and fifty years ago, during the lifetime of William Shakespeare, the number of English speakers is thought to have reached no more than 7 million. At this time in history, the majority of English speakers were residents of the British Isles. English was not utilized or understood elsewhere in Europe and had not yet spread outside its country of origin.



B The world language

Today, approximately 1.8 billion speakers use English. However, only about 400 million of the people who regularly correspond in English can be described as native speakers. This means that the number of other users of English has multiplied at a very rapid rate since Shakespeare's epoch. English has played an important role in improving global relations because of the need for countries to communicate and trade with each other. The language has now achieved a truly international position.

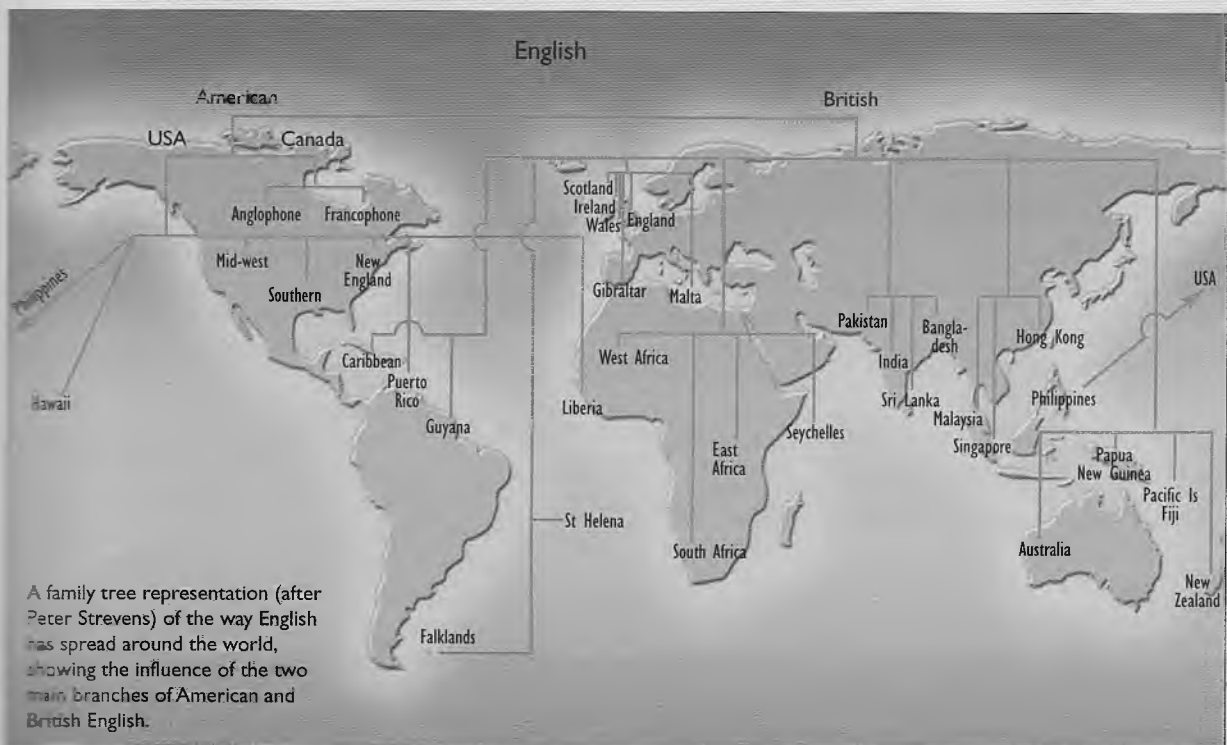
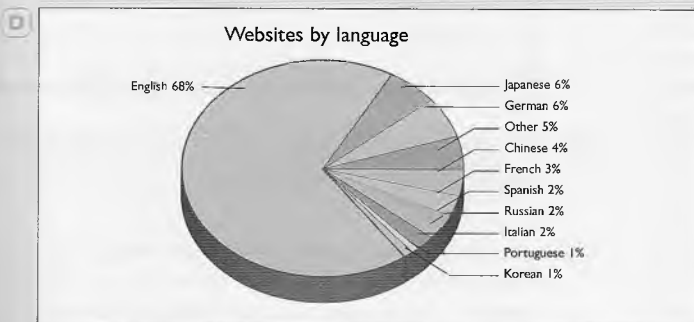
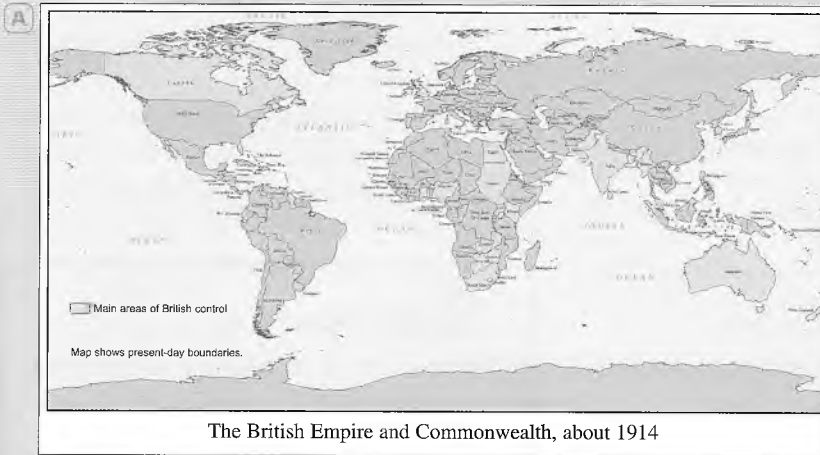


Figure 1: Family tree of English

8.2 Reading

recognizing essay types • understanding complex sentences with passives • defining terms

- A** Look at the words in the blue box.
- 1 In your country, which languages are used in each of the situations?
 - 2 What affects the choice of language in these different situations?
 - 3 What influence does this have on different people in your country?

- B** Look at the four essay types on the right.
- 1 What should the writer do in each type?
 - 2 Match each essay type with one of the questions below (A–D).
 - 3 What topics should be covered in each essay question?

- C** Read the title of the text on the opposite page and the first sentence of each paragraph.
- 1 What will the text be about?
 - 2 Choose one of the essay questions in Exercise B. Write four research questions which will help you to find information for your essay.

- D** Read the text.
- 1 Using your own words, make notes from the text on information for your essay question.
 - 2 Work with another person who has chosen the same essay question as you. Compare your notes.

- E** Study the highlighted sentences in the text.
- 1 Underline all the subjects and their verbs.
 - 2 Which is the main subject and verb for each sentence?

- F** Study the table on the right.
- 1 Match each word or phrase with its meaning.
 - 2 Underline the words or phrases in the text which the writer uses to give the definitions.

a conference a classroom
a movie a lecture a menu
a court of law a TV show a radio show
a journal a sign a book a poster
a song a newspaper



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There are four main essay types

- descriptive
- analytical
- comparison
- argument

- A** What are the advantages and disadvantages of using an international language?
- B** 'Endangered languages with few speakers should be protected from killer languages such as English.' To what extent do you agree with this statement?
- C** Explain why English has become the language of business today.
- D** What are the implications for a government which is considering the adoption of English as an official language? Describe how one or two countries have dealt with these implications.

Word/phrase	Meaning
1 census	originating in and typical of a region or country
2 comeovers	a language given legal and governmental status within a given country
3 speech community	an official survey of a population carried out at set intervals
4 neo-native speaker	a word used on the Isle of Man to describe immigrants
5 official language	a group that includes all the speakers of a single language
6 indigenous	speakers of a language taught from birth by non-native speakers

Manx lessons



It is well known that the cultural and environmental influences which surround a person or society are reflected in language. However, the modern phenomenon of the global village requires the widespread use of a global language. Currently, due to the impact of British Imperialism, and the rise of power in the USA, it seems to be English which fulfils the role of global language. This use of English as an international lingua franca or an official language may present certain benefits for the career or lifestyle of an individual or the economy of a business or country. However, the implications for global communities as a whole may not always be so positive.

The following are the implications which have to be considered by governments when deciding whether to make English official:

- Will the official status put the status of the indigenous, or original, language(s) at risk?
- Could the use of English threaten local culture and diversity?
- Might an official language, a language commonly awarded legal and governmental status in a country, also change the language of the media?
- How will different members of society be influenced and affected by the new official language, especially when the new tongue is associated with progress and development?
- Can language education easily be made accessible to all members of the community?

The potential impact of some of the considerations above is illustrated by the case of Manx Gaelic, which is spoken on the Isle of Man, a self-governing British island. The Isle of Man is located in the Irish Sea at the geographical centre of the British Isles. The situation faced by Manx provides a good example through which the potential dangers are illustrated. The sharp decline in Manx speakers during the 19th century meant that the community was largely taken over by users of the English language. According to Cumming (1848), a resident geologist and school master of the Isle of Man, by the middle of the 19th century the vast majority of islanders spoke some English. Less than 20 years later, it was estimated by Jenner (1874), an expert in Celtic, that less than one-third of the island's population spoke Manx on a regular basis. In 1901, the official census, a survey which collects information from the local population, demonstrated that less than 10 per cent of Manx people could speak the local language. This had further reduced to a mere 1.1 per cent by 1921.

The reasons for the dominance of English and the endangerment of Manx can largely be linked to a growth in immigration. An influx of 'comeovers', which is a local term used to describe immigrants, started from the late 18th century onwards. This was followed by a large

number of English-speaking tourists who began visiting from the 1830s. The result was a new need for bilingualism in the barter and banter involved in trade and tourism. A bilingual is a native speaker of two languages. The outcome was a downgrading of the status of the Manx language. In other words, the Manx language became less important because English was thought to bring with it relative advantage. The number of native speakers of Manx continued to dwindle throughout the 20th century until Ned Maddrell, the last known native speaker, passed away on 27th December 1974.

In addition to the rise of English as the everyday means of communication on the Isle of Man, the decline in the usage of Manx Gaelic has also led to the supremacy of English as the island's language of literature and the arts. The limited audience provided by the Manx speech community – a group of people identified by shared language use – could not compete with the potential of English as a global language. This resulted in a break in the link between the island's culture and its language. Ironically, in many cases, even those wishing to revive the Manx language and culture have turned to English, as it offers the widest forum for expression.

As the Manx example illustrates, despite the benefits of communication, trade, commerce and tourism, the dominance of the world's global language has suppressed important aspects of the island's cultural identity. This is a warning to any country or state considering awarding English, or any other global language, an official status.

In recent years, a Manx language renaissance has begun to gather speed and the number of bilingual children who have been brought up as Manx neo-native speakers (described as speakers taught from birth by non-native speaking parents) is on the increase. The Manx government also now supports various Manx language teaching projects. It is exactly this kind of venture which will need to continue to develop if the Isle of Man's linguistic and cultural heritage is ever to regenerate significantly. It is clear that important lessons can be learnt from the Isle of Man's experience by the governments of other regions.

8.3 Extending skills

understanding passives in dependent clauses • using essay plans

A Find the words in the box in the text in Lesson 2.

- 1 What part of speech is each word?
- 2 Think of another word which could be used in place of the word or phrase in the text. Use your dictionary if necessary.

widespread global status
estimated influx downgrading
dwindle supremacy audience
potential revive forum
expression suppressed venture

B Study sentences A–D from the text in Lesson 2.

- 1 Identify the dependent clause.
- 2 Copy the table under the sentences and write the parts of each dependent clause in the table.
- 3 Rewrite the sentence using an active construction.

Example:

It is well known that language reflects the cultural and environmental influences which surround a person or society.

C Look at the essay plans A and B and extracts 1 and 2 on the opposite page.

- 1 Match each plan with an essay title in Lesson 2.
- 2 Which essay is each extract from?
- 3 Which part of the plan is each extract from?

A It is well known that the cultural and environmental influences which surround a person or society are reflected in language.

B The following are the implications which have to be considered by governments when deciding whether to make English official.

C The situation faced by Manx provides a good example through which the potential dangers are illustrated.

D It is clear that important lessons can be learnt from the Isle of Man's experience by the governments of other regions.

Subject	Verb	By whom/what
The cultural and environmental influences	are reflected	in language.

D Work with a partner.

- 1 Write another paragraph for one of the plans.
- 2 Exchange paragraphs with another pair. Can they identify where it comes from?

8.4 Extending skills

writing complex sentences • writing essay plans • writing essays

A Make complete sentences from these notes. Add words as necessary.

① nevertheless – outlook – Manx language – not think – completely bleak

② issues – illustrate – Manx speech community – last 150 years

③ English – grow in power – native language – no longer pass – parents to children

④ adoption – English as official language – positive and negative – implications

⑤ important lessons – learn – governments – example of Manx

⑥ English – use – not only general transactions – also high culture

B The sentences in Exercise A are topic sentences for paragraphs in essay D in Lesson 2. Put them in the best order for the essay. What is the main topic for each paragraph?

C Look at the essay question on the right.

- 1 What kind of essay is this?
- 2 Do some research and make an essay plan.
- 3 Write the essay.

'English has become a global language because it is both easy to learn and superior to other languages.'
To what extent do you agree with this statement?

A

- 1 Introduction: Describe the role played by communication skills in business. Introduce facts and statistics showing that English is a corporate lingua franca. Refer to text: business/career benefits through use of English.
- 2 Main body: Discuss areas where English currently plays a significant business role: e-mail, telephone, meetings, negotiations, advertising/marketing. Explain English is powerful in business because of its status as a global language and easily accessible learning resources.
- 3 Conclusion: Companies that want to increase profit and maintain a global reputation need to associate themselves with a global language.

B

- 1 Introduction: Define – endangered language – refer to text: Explain – traditionally languages develop in line with the communication needs of the speech community. Global languages now threaten languages with smaller speech communities.
- 2 Thesis statement – arguments for protection versus arguments against need for protection.
- 3 Main body A: Link between biodiversity and language diversity – Diversity shows rich understanding of the world, environments and cultures. A loss of diversity is a loss of human understanding.
- 4 Main body B: Survival of the fittest. Loss of languages is part of natural selection. Fewer languages will make communication easier.
- 5 Conclusion: Suggest: endangered languages should be protected but also recognize importance of international communication. Give examples of successful multilingual nations.

1

Under normal circumstances, languages develop in relation to the environment in which they are found. However, due to the power of globalization and the need to communicate internationally, the use of second languages for business and official purposes is becoming more and more common. This essay will investigate the threats posed by powerful international languages like English and examine whether local languages need to be protected. The situation of the Isle of Man and its people will be used to highlight some of the typical issues for indigenous languages.

2

As the previous section explains, it cannot be denied that using an international language does have some important benefits in business. In this section the different contexts in which English is used in the world of business will be described in further detail. The discussion will first consider English used on the telephone and through e-mail.

Understanding new words: using definitions

You will often find new words in academic texts. Sometimes you will not be able to understand the text unless you look the word up in a dictionary, but often a technical term will be defined or explained immediately or later in the text.

Look for these indicators:

<i>is or are</i>	<i>a bilingual is a native speaker of two languages</i>
brackets	<i>The number of bilingual children who have been brought up as Manx neo-native speakers (described as speakers taught from birth by non-native speaking parents) is on the increase.</i>
<i>or</i>	<i>Will the official status put the status of the indigenous, or original, language(s) at risk?</i>
<i>which</i>	<i>An influx of 'comeovers', which is a local term used to describe immigrants, started from the late 18th century onwards.</i>
a comma or dash (–) immediately after the word or phrase	<i>In 1901, the official census, a survey which collects information from the local population, demonstrated ...</i> <i>The limited audience provided by the Manx speech community – a group of people identified by shared language use – could not compete with ...</i>
phrases such as <i>that is, in other words</i>	<i>The outcome was a downgrading of the status of the Manx language. In other words, the Manx language became less important because English was thought to bring with it relative advantage.</i>

Remember!

When you write assignments, you may want to define words yourself. Learn to use the methods above to give variety to your written work.

Understanding direction verbs in essay titles

Special verbs called **direction verbs** are used in essay titles. Each direction verb indicates a type of essay. You must understand the meaning of these words so you can choose the correct writing plan.

Kind of essay	Direction verbs
Descriptive	<i>State ... Say ... Outline ... Describe ... Summarize ...</i> <i>What is/are ...?</i>
Analytical	<i>Analyse ... Explain ... Comment on ... Examine ...</i> <i>Give reasons for ... Why ...? How ...?</i>
Comparison/evaluation	<i>Compare (and contrast) ... Distinguish between ...</i> <i>Evaluate ... What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of ...?</i>
Argument	<i>Discuss ... Consider ... (Critically) evaluate ...</i> <i>To what extent ...? How far ...?</i>

Skills bank

Choosing the correct writing plan

When you are given a written assignment, you must decide on the best writing plan before you begin to write the outline. Use key words in the essay title to help you choose – see *Vocabulary bank*.

Type of essay – content	Possible structure
<p>Descriptive writing List the most important points of something: e.g., in a narrative, a list of key events in chronological order; a description of key ideas in a theory or from an article you have read. Summarize points in a logical order. Example: <i>Describe how one or two countries have dealt with the adoption of English as an official language.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● introduction ● point/event 1 ● point/event 2 ● point/event 3 ● conclusion
<p>Analytical writing List the important points which in your opinion explain the situation. Justify your opinion in each case. Look behind the facts at the how and why, not just what/who/when. Look for and question accepted ideas and assumptions. Example: <i>Explain why English has become the language of business today.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● introduction ● definitions ● most important point: example/evidence/reason 1 example/evidence/reason 2 etc. ● next point: example/evidence/reason 3 example/evidence/reason 4 etc. ● conclusion
<p>Comparison/evaluation Decide on and define the aspects to compare two subjects. You may use these aspects as the basis for paragraphing. Evaluate which aspect(s) is/are better or preferable and give reasons/criteria for your judgment. Example: <i>What are the advantages and disadvantages of using an international language?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● introduction ● state and define aspects Either: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● aspect 1: subject A v. B ● aspect 2: subject A v. B Or: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● subject A: aspect 1, 2, etc. ● subject B: aspect 1, 2, etc. etc. ● conclusion/evaluation
<p>Argument writing Analyse and/or evaluate, then give your opinion in a thesis statement at the beginning or the end. Show awareness of difficulties and disagreements by mentioning counter-arguments. Support your opinion with evidence. Example: <i>'Endangered languages with few speakers should be protected from killer languages such as English.'</i> <i>To what extent do you agree with this statement?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● introduction: statement of issue ● thesis statement giving opinion ● define terms ● point 1: explain + evidence ● point 2: explain + evidence etc. ● conclusion: implications, etc. <p>Alternatively:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● introduction: statement of issue ● define terms ● for: point 1, 2, etc. ● against: point 1, 2, etc. ● conclusion: statement of opinion

9

TRANSLATING AND INTERPRETING

9.1 Vocabulary

fixed phrases • translation and interpreting terms

A Match the words to make fixed phrases.

- | | | |
|---|--------------|--------------|
| 1 | machine | translation |
| 2 | simultaneous | translator |
| 3 | source | jargon |
| 4 | mother | interpreting |
| 5 | freelance | tongue |
| 6 | technical | dictionary |
| 7 | bilingual | language |

B Study the words and phrases in the blue box.

- Complete each phrase in column 2 with a word from column 1.
- Which phrase can you use to:
 - agree only partly with a point
 - begin talking about several points
 - introduce the first of two ideas
 - focus on the point which the writer/speaker thinks is the most important
 - give a reason for a point
 - mention an idea
 - talk about certain circumstances
 - introduce the second of two ideas
 - mention a problem with someone's idea

C Look at the people on the opposite page.

- Is each person likely to need translation or interpreting services, or both?
- What is each person's particular need for these services?
- Match each person with the correct quote (A–F).
- Replace the words in *italics* with a phrase from Exercise B.

D Read the extract from the Hadford University handout on this page about translating and interpreting.

- Match the blue words in this extract with the definitions on the opposite page.
- Use your dictionary to check words you do not know.

E Complete the table on the right.

1	2
to	... start with
the	... people think
some	on ... other hand
many	to ... extent
this	on ... one hand
that	... real question is
	on ... grounds that
	... would be great, except
	in ... sort of situation



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The translation and interpretation process normally involves some of the following activities:

- studying passages of text and rewriting them in the target language, often by using word-processing software and a bilingual dictionary
- analysis of verbal communication in one language and explaining accurately in the target language, either face to face or using conferencing equipment
- using a thesaurus, professional dictionaries, reference books and electronic resources to understand specialist vocabulary
- researching language for specific purposes and consulting with clients who have expertise in the appropriate field, including discussion of any ambiguous points; networking and liaising with corporate institutions, legal departments and governmental organizations

Base form	Other related forms	
accurate	accuracy	accurately
consult		
edit		
interpret		
profession		
special		
translate		



- A** 'I want to keep you in hospital for a few days *because* your condition needs monitoring.'
- B** 'As our two companies will be working together, *what we really need to know is* how we can both benefit.'
- C** '*These plans could be fine, it's just* that I can't understand the notes which are written on them.'
- D** '*First of all*, you could put a hyperlink here to give access to translations of this page in other languages.'
- E** 'As the president mentioned, we are all *partly* responsible for the problems caused by global warming.'
- F** '*Under these circumstances*, I'll need to see a translation of the document in English before it can be used in court.'

Definitions

- A** customers
- B** meeting or contacting people who can be of professional help to you
- C** area of expertise
- D** ideas that can be understood in more than one way
- E** an investigation of key elements
- F** computer programs used for creating written documents
- G** using spoken words to convey a message or idea
- H** obtaining advice from someone
- I** a term for information stored on the Internet, on CD-ROMs and on databases
- J** hardware and software used for communication purposes during large group meetings
- K** the language into which a text is being translated
- L** a book similar to a dictionary, but in which words are arranged in groups that have similar meanings
- M** words used by those in a particular group or area of activity
- N** in person
- O** books designed to be consulted for specific facts

9.2 Listening

using the Cornell note-taking system

A Study the slide on the right. What questions do you think the lecturer will answer?

B Listen to Part 1 of the lecture.

- 1 Complete the *Notes* section below.
- 2 What is the lecturer's story about? Why is it not given in the notes?
- 3 Complete the *Summary* section.
- 4 Answer the *Review* questions.

C Create a blank Cornell diagram. Listen to Part 2 of the lecture.

- 1 Complete the *Notes* section.
- 2 Write some *Review* questions.
- 3 Complete the *Summary* section.
- 4 Were your questions in Exercise A answered?

D Study the phrases in column 1 of the blue box. Listen to some sentences from the lecture. Which type of information in column 2 follows each phrase?



Careers using languages (Lecture 1)

- Translating & interpreting – fields and sectors
- Skills and study routes
- Localization translation


1	2
1 In terms of ...	a developing trend
2 Research has shown that ...	information about a point the speaker will make later
3 It could be argued that ...	aspect of a topic the speaker wants to focus on
4 As we shall see, ...	a statement the speaker agrees with
5 Increasingly we find that ...	a conclusion
6 It's true to say that ...	an idea the speaker may not agree with
7 So it should be clear that ...	

<u>Review</u>	<u>Notes</u>
Careers in translating and interpreting include ... ?	Translators + interpreters usually specialize in one _____ Common areas of specialism include: ○ _____ services ○ financial services ○ _____ politics ○ _____ interpretation ○ marketing and _____
Translation skills include ... ?	Translation skills • excellent understanding of _____ source material + target language • knowledge of technical _____, computer _____, writing and _____ skills
Interpreting skills include ... ?	Interpreting skills • excellent understanding of _____ source language and accurate use of _____ expressions • cultural _____ = crucial for client liaison and _____
<u>Summary</u>	

9.3 Extending skills


recognizing digressions • understanding source references

A Study the words and phrases in box a.


- 1 Mark the stressed syllables.
- 2  Listen and check your answers.
- 3 Which is the odd one out in each group? Why?

B Study the phrases in box b.

- 1 Do you think the phrases show a digression (start or end) or a relevant point? Write **D** or **R**.
- 2 Look at the **D** phrases. Do they start or end the digression?

C  Listen to the final part of the lecture from Lesson 2.

- 1 Take notes using the Cornell system. Leave spaces if you miss information.
- 2 What topic does the lecturer mention that is different from the main subject?
- 3 Why did he mention this topic?
- 4 What is your research task?
- 5 Compare your notes in pairs. Fill in any blank spaces.
- 6 Complete the *Review* and *Summary* sections.

D  What information does the lecturer provide about sources? Listen to the extracts and complete the table below.

	Extract 1	Extract 2	Extract 3
Name of writer			
Title and date of source			
Location			
Type of reference			
Relevant to ...?			
Introducing phrase			

E Use your notes to write 75–100 words about translating and interpreting.

F Work in groups. Study the four types of career associated with translating and interpreting in box c. Choose one type you would like to find out more about and then discuss these questions.

- 1 What kind of information will you need to find?
- 2 What ideas do you already have?
- 3 Where can you go to find more information?

- a**
- 1 translator, interpreter, sector
 - 2 bilingual dictionary, computer literacy, cultural awareness, judicial services
 - 3 editing skills, target language, research skills
 - 4 medical, financial, judicial

b

Now, where was I?

It's the first of these points that I'm going to focus on now ...

By the way, ...

Anyway, let's get back to ...

I have a little story to tell you ...

I'd like to move on now to ...

You don't need to take notes on this ...

The point of that story was ...

If we turn now to ...

When we look at interpreting we'll find ...

- c**
- localization translation
 - medical interpreting
 - marketing/advertising translation
 - judicial/legal interpreting

9.4 Extending skills

making effective contributions to a seminar/debate

- A** Look at the words in the blue box. Identify their stress patterns.
- B** Work in pairs.
 Student A: Think of good ways to take part in a seminar.
 Student B: Think of bad ways to take part in a seminar.

- C** You are going to hear some students in a seminar. They have been asked to discuss the question: 'What is the role of the translator in society?'

- 1 Listen to the seminar extracts. Put a ✓ for a good contribution and a X for a poor one in the table below.
- 2 Give reasons for your opinion.
- 3 Identify some additional information in the good contributions.

Student	✓/X	Reasons
Extract 1		
Extract 2		
Extract 3		
Extract 4		

- D** Work in a group of three or four.
- 1 Discuss your information for Lesson 3, Exercise F.
 - 2 Discuss how best to present this information.
 - 3 Present a description of each type of translating and interpreting career to the whole class.

- E** Work in groups. You are going to take part in a debate. The title is *This house believes the future of translation is MT.*

- 1 Make a list of the advantages (Group 1) and disadvantages (Group 2) of MT.
- 2 Read all the texts on this page and the next page. Add points to your list.
- 3 Conduct the debate.

analysis consecutive documents essential
 interpret judicial simultaneous specialist
 technique translator

Is the future MT?

MT computer software attempts to translate from one language to another. The simplest versions, which translate at word level, are the basis of electronic dictionaries. This can be called *direct translation*.

However, for sentence- or text-level translation, more sophisticated processes are required. The source text must first be decoded for meaning, which is sometimes called the *interlingua*. That meaning must then be encoded into the target language. In order to do these two processes perfectly, the software must be able to:

- recognize and produce the syntactic structures and morphological features of the languages involved
- disambiguate multiple meanings of words
- recognize the meaning of metaphors and idioms.

At the highest level, it must identify and correctly render specialist terminology from a particular variety of language, e.g., legal or medical.

Perhaps surprisingly, translation in highly specific fields (e.g., legal contracts) can be more accurate because there tends to only be one translation of a word or phrase and there is a great deal of standard text. On the other hand, with fiction or journalism, the software has to cope with a potentially unlimited range of input language.

The goal of MT is fully automated translation, but that is a long way in the future. However, even a relatively limited amount of human input before sending a document for computerized translation (for example, tagging all proper nouns) can improve its efficiency markedly.

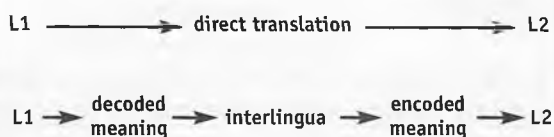


Figure 1: Simple and complex MT models



According to Laurie Gerber, MT is not a useful tool when the alternative to machine translation is human translation by a bilingual. However, in many situations, particularly in the commercial world, that is not the case. Companies simply cannot afford to have all their documents translated, perhaps into many languages. It may not even be possible to find bilingual speakers of the languages of all the target markets. In this situation, MT is a worthwhile method. In other words, MT is a useful tool when the alternative to machine translation is ... no translation.

Working toward success in machine translation,

Laurie Gerber

<http://www.eamt.org/summitVIII/papers/gerber.pdf>

If you use translating software, here are some hints for helping it do a good job, adapted from advice offered by the now-defunct Globalink translation service:

Use concise, direct language.

Do not use idioms or slang.

Avoid complex sentences.

Avoid metaphors.

Avoid words with more than one meaning.

Finally, review any translation before sending it to another person.

<http://spanish.about.com/library/weekly/aa111698.htm>

Time flies like an arrow is a well-known simile in English. It clearly means that time moves quickly and in a straight line. A human translator would have no problems in decoding this meaning and could then easily encode it into the target language.

However, MT software is almost too clever for its own good, when faced with a sentence like this. The software recognizes that *time*, *flies* and *like* have multiple meanings/parts of speech, so not only does it find the metaphorical translation, it also offers:

Rainer Schulte, director of the Center for Translation Studies at the University of Texas at Dallas and the editor of *Translation Review*, said machine translation was very much in its infancy.

'Machine translation, certainly in any area of intellectual pursuit, is pretty much useless,' Dr Schulte said. 'We'll never get to the point, at least not in the foreseeable future, where machine translation could translate essays, fiction or nonfiction books.'

At the University of Central Florida, however, a professor of German, Finley M. Taylor, said language instructors were using machine translation to help first-year students gain confidence in their ability to recognize errors. 'In doing this, we want to make them sharpen their skills,' he said. 'It builds up their confidence. They can say: "This is wrong. I can find mistakes."' "

Teri O'Connell, a machine-translation expert at American Management Systems, said machine translation is generally used there 'to determine if a foreign document has any value and should be translated by a person'.

From *The New York Times* April 30, 1998 © The New York Times. All rights reserved.

When run through the Babel Fish computer translator from English to French and back again, *I am a reporter for The New York Times* becomes *I am a journalist during times of New York*. *She is having a bad hair day* becomes, via Italian, *It is having a defective day of hats*. But if you want to grasp the major points of a Web page without learning five years of Portuguese or hiring a 25-cents-a-word translator, it is a great convenience.

(same source as above)

- *Time flies* (a particular kind of fly) *like to eat arrows*.
- *You should measure the speed of flies* (time them) *in the same way that you measure the speed of arrows*.
- *You should measure the speed of flies which resemble arrows*.
- *You should measure the speed of flies in the same way that arrows measure the speed of flies*.

MT has a long way to go with simile and metaphor, and disambiguating words with multiple parts of speech or meaning.

example from Pinker, S. (1994). *The language instinct*

Recognizing fixed phrases from linguistics (2)

Make sure you understand these phrases from translation and interpreting.

community languages

consecutive interpretation

cultural awareness

simultaneous interpretation

technical jargon

specialist terminology

machine translation

mother tongue

freelance translator

bilingual dictionary

target language

source language

interlingua

Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (2)

Make sure you understand these fixed phrases from general spoken academic English.

As we shall see, ...

But the real question is ...

From the point of view of ...

In a case like this, ...

In terms of ...

In the sense that ...

In this sort of situation, ...

That's the reason why ...

Increasingly we find that ...

It could be argued that ...

It's true to say that ...

Many people think ...

On the grounds that ...

On the one hand, ...

Research has shown that ...

So it should be clear that ...

That would be great, except ...

To some extent ...

To start with, ...

Skills bank

Using the Cornell note-taking system

There are many ways to take notes from a lecture. One method was developed by Walter Pauk at Cornell University, USA.

The system involves **Five Rs**.

- record** Take notes during the lecture.
- reduce** After the lecture turn the notes into one- or two-word questions or 'cues' which will help you remember the key information.
- recite** Say the questions and answers aloud.
- reflect** Decide on the best way to summarize the key information in the lecture.
- review** Look again at the key words and the summary (and do this regularly).

Recognizing digressions

Lecturers sometimes move away from the main point in a lecture to tell a story or an anecdote. This is called a **digression**. You must be able to recognize the start and end of digressions in a lecture.

Sometimes a digression is directly relevant to the content of the lecture, sometimes it has some relevance and sometimes, with a poor lecturer, it may be completely irrelevant. Sometimes the lecturer points out the relevance.

Don't worry if you get lost in a digression. Just leave a space in your notes and ask people afterwards.

Recognizing the start	<i>That reminds me ...</i>
	<i>I remember once ...</i>
	<i>By the way ...</i>
Recognizing the end	<i>Anyway, where was I?</i>
	<i>Back to the point.</i>
	<i>So, as I was saying ...</i>

Understanding the relevance	<i>Of course, the point of that story is ...</i>
	<i>I'm sure you can all see that the story shows ...</i>
	<i>Why did I tell that story? Well, ...</i>

Asking about digressions	<i>What was the point of the story about the job in Japan?</i>
	<i>Why did she start talking about note-taking?</i>
	<i>I didn't get the bit about ...</i>

Referring to other people's ideas

We often need to talk about the ideas of other people in a lecture or a tutorial. We normally give the name of the writer and/or the name of the source. We usually introduce the reference with a phrase; we may quote directly, or we may paraphrase an idea.

Name and introducing phrase	<i>As Esselink suggests ...</i>
	<i>To quote Esselink ...</i>
Where	<i>in Practical guide to localization ...</i>
What	<i>... localization contracts are likely to become ongoing projects.</i>

10 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

10.1 Vocabulary


'neutral' and 'marked' words • expressing confidence/tentativeness

- A** Study the words in box a.
- 1 Use your dictionary to find out the meanings.
 - 2 What part of speech is each word?
- B** Read the Hadford University handout.
- 1 Use your dictionary or another source to check the meanings of the highlighted phrases.
 - 2 Which are the stressed syllables in each phrase?
- C** Look at the pictures on the opposite page.
- 1 Match each picture with a dialogue below.
 - 2 For each picture, describe how language is being used. Use some of the highlighted phrases from Exercise B and words from Exercise A.
- D** Study the words in box b.
- 1 Check the meanings, parts of speech and stress patterns.
 - 2 Put the words into the correct box in the table below, as in the example.

Neutral	Marked
rise, increase	rocket, soar
fall, decrease	
important	
big, large	
useful	
good	
small	

- E** Read the extract from the module description for discourse analysis.
- 1 Use a marked word in place of each of the blue (neutral) words.
 - 2 Look at the red phrases. How strong are they?

a
 convention discussion gossip
 greeting imply infer
 interaction response
 social stimulus utterance

 **HADFORD** University

What is discourse analysis?

Discourse analysis (DA) refers to the linguistic study of authentic connected speech or written discourse. DA is a qualitative method of studying the organization of language communication above sentence structure and surface level. The focus is, therefore, on larger language units or conversational exchanges. Discourse analysis investigates speech acts of stimulus and response which are used in social interaction and different contexts. Phenomena are explored such as phatic communion, especially in greeting and parting, the pragmatic value of an utterance, as opposed to its grammatical value, and substitution and ellipsis, usually for lexical cohesion. Cohesive devices and discourse markers are features which are frequently studied.

b
 enormous essential excellent
 fantastic huge insignificant key
 massive minimal minor outstanding
 plunge rocket significant soar
 superb tremendous tiny vital

It is generally accepted that discourse analysis can be a good investigation tool in a variety of important disciplines, including sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. It is also clear that interest in discourse analysis has risen in recent decades. As discourse analysis is undoubtedly a big growth area for research, this module represents a good opportunity for students to familiarize themselves with useful methods and important techniques.

Although it is fair to say that there is a large range of approaches to discourse analysis, students who take this module can be confident of learning more about how forms of language are used in communication. It is unlikely that the syllabus in your handbook will change but there may be some small adjustments.



- A 'Atchoo.'
'Bless you.'
- B 'You'll never believe who I saw John with!'
'Who? Who was it? Tell me, tell me!'
- C 'Are you blind?'
'Shut it and get off.'
- D 'Jason's mum gives him chocolate for breakfast.'
'I'm not Jason's mum, so eat your cereal.'
- E 'Hi. How are you?'
'Fine. And you?'
- F 'In general, I don't think this candidate is qualified for the job.'
'I agree. But on the other hand, he has very good experience.'
- G 'Black or white?'
'White, please.'

10.2 Reading

identifying stance and level of confidence • inferring implicit ideas

- A** Study the sentence on the right. Each phrase in box a could go in the space. What effect would each one have on the meaning? Mark from *** = very confident to * = very tentative.
- B** Survey the text on the opposite page.
- 1 What will the text be about?
 - 2 Write three research questions.
- C** Read the text. Does it answer your questions?
- D** Answer these questions.
- 1 What does the writer mean by *communicative forces*?
 - 2 What is the difference between *top-down* and *bottom-up* processing?
 - 3 Which form of communication do you think the writer considers more complex: speaking or writing?
 - 4 What are *paralinguistic clues*?
 - 5 What is meant when the writer describes language as *organic*?
- E** Find the phrases in box b in the text. Is the writer *confident* (C) or *tentative* (T) about the information which follows?
- F** Look at the writer's description of texting, chatrooms and online forums (paragraph 6).
- 1 Underline the marked words.
 - 2 What does the choice of words tell you about the writer's opinion of these forms of communication?
 - 3 Find neutral words to use in their place.
- G** Study the example sentence on the right, and then sentences A and B.
- 1 Divide sentences A and B into small parts, as in the example sentence.
 - 2 Underline any joining words (e.g., conjunctions).
 - 3 Find the subjects, verbs, objects/complements and adverbial phrases which go together.
 - 4 Make several short simple sentences which show the meaning.

Concern about the reaction of his audience
_____ the large
number of pauses in the president's speech.

a probably caused _____
may have contributed to _____
was possibly one of the factors which
contributed to _____
could have been a factor which led
to _____
caused _____
seems to have caused _____

b applied linguists usually agree _____
researchers recognize _____
Evidence suggests _____
it is obvious _____
Many experts concur _____
Some researchers claim _____
it is likely _____

Example:

For example, | recent research into the use of emoticons | and | smileys in e-mail communications | shows | that | they | actually add | crucial paralinguistic features.

A

The purpose of discourse analysis is to demonstrate the way that the communicative forces of discourse collectively result in meaning.

B

In general terms, cohesion refers to the grammatical and lexical relationship within a text, whereas coherence refers to the arrangement of ideas and operates at the level of semantic logic.

Discourse Analysis

Although the origins of the word *discourse* are not entirely clear, applied linguists usually agree that the term *discourse analysis* was first used in the 1950s by an American academic called Zellig Harris (Martins, 2000). The purpose of discourse analysis is to demonstrate the way that the communicative forces of discourse collectively result in meaning (Quine, 2005). The discourse analyst uses a spoken or written text as his or her source of data and aims to identify features of language use which shed light on the communication of meaning, intention and inference. These features can include not only lexis and grammar but also inferred meanings and body language. Researchers analysing discourse also often use terms such as *cohesion* and *coherence*. In general terms, according to Quine (*ibid.*), 'Cohesion refers to the grammatical and lexical relationship within a text, whereas coherence refers to the arrangement of ideas and operates at the level of semantic logic.' (p.77)

The linguistic approach to discourse analysis can be described as the examination of how humans use language to communicate and how linguistic messages are constructed and interpreted. In discourse analysis, researchers recognize the central position of people as speakers, writers, readers and hearers. As Weinhof (2007) describes it, 'It is speakers and writers who choose a topic, convey meaning, use pragmatic strategies and structure language production, while hearers and readers interpret and draw inferences.' (p.14). Classroom discourse analysts might be interested in whether students are using a more 'top-down' or 'bottom-up' form of processing to understand a text. Evidence suggests that some learners process a text by starting with the smallest units of language before building up to the full meaning, while others start with a more global view and then go back to the smaller details. Other classroom researchers, using the schema theory (Carol, 1983), consider the way learners employ existing knowledge to help them process new information.

As far as output is concerned, it is obvious that spoken and written language require quite different skills. Speaking benefits from a wide range of effects including voice quality, facial expression and body language. These areas are also known as paralinguistic clues (Davies, 2001). By using these tools, speakers are able to modify the power of the words that they use. For example, a speaker who says 'I'd love to' whilst making a distressed face is likely to mean the opposite of the actual words he or she uses.

Many experts concur that communication through speech is extremely challenging (Davies, *ibid.*). Speakers need to monitor what they have just said while simultaneously continuing the conversation with their interlocutor and planning their next response or utterance. Unlike writing, there is usually no enduring record of a speech act.

Although the writer is not able to benefit from paralinguistic clues in the same way as the speaker, he or she is often able to review existing writing and make pauses when necessary without worrying about being interrupted. In other words, time can be taken to reword or reorganize what has been written and to consult reference materials for additional assistance.

Some researchers claim that communication through texting, chatrooms and other online forums 'blends the features of writing and speaking in some astonishing new ways' (Glass, 2003). Although the 'old school' may grumble about floods of new-fangled features and plummeting standards in English, the innovation can also be considered quite groundbreaking. For example, recent research into the use of emoticons and smileys in e-mail communications shows that they actually add crucial paralinguistic features.

In brief, in discourse analysis researchers are concerned with how language is actually being used and how the different features of discourse can help us understand the ways in which real communication is achieved. And because language is organic, it is likely that new features will become apparent as new research is conducted.

10.3 Extending skills

essay types • situation-problem-solution-evaluation essays

- A** Read the three essay questions. What types of essay are they?
- B** Look at text A on the opposite page. Copy and complete Table 1.
- C** Look at text B on the opposite page. Copy and complete Table 2.
- D** Look again at the solutions in Exercise B (Table 1). What are their possible advantages and disadvantages?
- E** Read the title of essay 3 again.
- 1 Make a plan for this essay.
 - 2 Write a topic sentence for each paragraph in the body of the essay.
 - 3 Write a concluding paragraph.

- 1 Compare and contrast the discourse features of a written text and a spoken text.
- 2 Explain how body language and other paralinguistic features can be used to enhance verbal communication.
- 3 Describe, with some actual examples, the common problems and drawbacks experienced through e-mail as opposed to direct face-to-face communication. Consider how individuals can best solve these difficulties.

Table 1

Situation	
Problem	
Solutions	

Table 2

Solution	
Argument for	
Argument against	

10.4 Extending skills

writing complex sentences • references and quotations

- A** Expand these simple sentences. Add extra information. Use the ideas in Lesson 3.
- 1 E-mail leads to miscommunication because it lacks paralinguistic features.
 - 2 Emoticons and smileys are sometimes considered to be too informal.
 - 3 In an e-mail, capital letters can seem like shouting.
 - 4 Repeating punctuation marks is a way to show surprise, stress or confusion.
 - 5 Explaining your meaning fully may lead to less misunderstanding.
- B** Look at text C on the opposite page. Copy and complete Tables 1–3.
- C** Look at text D on the opposite page.
- 1 Complete a further row of Table 1.
 - 2 How could you write this as a reference?
- D** What do the abbreviations in the blue box mean?
- E** Look back at the text on page 81 (Lesson 2).
- 1 Find all the direct quotes from research sources (e.g., Quine, 2005, p.77).
 - 2 Mark the page numbers for books and journals next to the correct reference on the opposite page.
 - 3 What punctuation and formatting is used before and within each direct quote?

Table 1: Referencing books

Author(s)	Place	Date	Publisher

Table 2: Referencing journals

Name of journal	Volume	Pages

Table 3: Referencing websites

Retrieval date	URL

& © cf. edn. ed(s). et al.
 ibid. n.d. op. cit. p. pp. vol.

A

Case Study 1

Some DA research claims to have discovered that female roles in conversation include more utterances such as *mm* and *oh*. One particular research project, conducted by Jones (2006, p.231), supports this hypothesis in some ways. Jones (ibid.) points out that '...*mm* and *oh* are used to manage the conversation flow'. Nevertheless, further analysis of this study shows that samples of discourse were collected from just two conversations between the same three individuals. Although these conversation transcripts do indeed show that the two female interlocutors used utterances such as *mm* more frequently than their male counterparts, these

results alone do not prove that women in general feel obliged to take on the role of conversational 'caretaker'. This example shows the importance of avoiding generalizations based on research which is restricted in scope. Ways to avoid this include collection of further data in order to analyse discourse between different men and women in a wider range of situations, incorporating a wider range of variables. Alternatively, the limitations of the existing project could be acknowledged and the focus could be moved from women in general to the particular interlocutors in this study. Even in this case, it is likely that transcripts of additional conversations would be required.

Source: Jackson (2005)

B

One of the first questions which analysts of discourse in any discipline need to answer is, 'How is the data going to be collected?' In most cases, the answer is through the recording of conversations and their subsequent transcription. The benefit of this is that a permanent record of discourse can be captured for the purpose of future research. However, it is important to note that there is a great deal of variation in the methods that different researchers use to represent speech in writing. Consideration also needs to be given to the ethics of research, and the impact of this on authenticity.

C

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D

Case Studies in Discourse Analysis

Dorothy Jackson

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Recognizing fixed phrases from linguistics (3)

Make sure you understand these key phrases.

<i>bottom-up processing</i>	<i>lexical cohesion</i>	<i>semantic logic</i>
<i>cohesive devices</i>	<i>lexical relationship</i>	<i>social interaction</i>
<i>connected speech</i>	<i>paralinguistic clue</i>	<i>speech act</i>
<i>discourse analysis</i>	<i>phatic communion</i>	<i>top-down processing</i>
<i>discourse marker</i>	<i>pragmatic value</i>	

Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (3)

Make sure you understand these key phrases from general academic English.

<i>One of the ...</i>	<i>In this sort of situation ...</i>
<i>In some circumstances, ...</i>	<i>It is obvious/clear that ...</i>
<i>Even so, ...</i>	<i>It appears to be the case that ...</i>
<i>... , as follows: ...</i>	<i>Research has shown that ...</i>
<i>The writers assert/conclude/suggest that ...</i>	<i>The evidence does not support this idea.</i>

Recognizing levels of confidence in research or information

In an academic context, writers will usually indicate the level of confidence in information they are giving. When you read a 'fact' in a text, look for qualifying words before it, which show the level of confidence.

Examples:

It appears to be the case that ... / This suggests that ... (tentative)

The evidence shows that ... / It is clear that ... (definite/confident)

Recognizing 'marked' words

Many common words in English are 'neutral', i.e., they do not imply any view on the part of the writer or speaker. However, there are often apparent synonyms which are 'marked'. They show attitude, or stance.

Examples:

'Hey! Your accent isn't like mine,' said Amanda. (neutral)

'Hey! Your accent isn't like mine,' shrieked Amanda. (marked)

Shrieked implies that the writer thinks Amanda's voice is harsh and loud.

When you read a sentence, think: *Is this a neutral word, or is it a marked word? If it is marked, what does this tell me about the writer's attitude to the information?*

When you write a sentence, think: *Have I used neutral words or marked words? If I have used marked words, do they show my real attitude/the attitude of the original writer?*

Extend your vocabulary by learning marked words and their exact effect.

Examples:

Neutral	Marked
<i>speech</i>	<i>chat, lecture</i>
<i>pause</i>	<i>take a breather</i>
<i>say, state</i>	<i>assert, maintain, claim, argue, allege</i>
<i>imply</i>	<i>hint at</i>
<i>discuss</i>	<i>argue about</i>

Skill bank

Identifying the parts of a long sentence

Long sentences contain many separate parts. You must be able to recognize these parts to understand the sentence as a whole. Mark up a long sentence as follows:

- Locate the subjects, verbs and objects/complements by underlining the relevant nouns, verbs and adjectives.
- Put a dividing line:
 - at the end of a phrase which begins a sentence
 - before a phrase at the end of the sentence
 - between clauses
- Put brackets round extra pieces of information.

Example:

In recent years some discourse analysts have made claims about how particular discourse devices are used, but in many cases evidence has not supported this belief.

In recent years | some discourse analysts have made claims | about how particular discourse devices are used, | but (in many cases) evidence has not supported this belief.

Constructing a long sentence

Begin with a very simple SV(O)(C)(A) sentence and then add extra information.

Example:

	Women	manage	conversations		
<i>As a number of recent studies have shown,</i>	<i>women</i>	<i>often manage</i>	<i>conversations</i>	<i>very actively</i>	<i>using questions and utterances such as mm and oh.</i>

Writing a bibliography/reference list

The APA (American Psychological Association) system is probably the most common in the social sciences. Information should be given as shown in the following source references for a book, an Internet article and a journal article. The final list should be in alphabetical order according to the family name of the writer. See the reference list on page 83 for a model.

Author	Date	Title of book	Place of publication	Publisher
Smith, A.	(1999).	<i>Lexical cohesion.</i>	London:	Allan & Unwin.

Writer or organization	Date (or 'n.d.')	Title of Internet article	Date of retrieval	Full URL
Google.	(2007).	<i>DA Today.</i>	Retrieved April 4, 2007 from	http://www.DAtoday.org

Author	Date	Title of article	Title of journal	Volume and page numbers
Smith, R.	(1988).	Academic discourse communities: How far should we go?	<i>TESOL Quarterly.</i>	<i>23(1), 29–52.</i>

More information on referencing (including other systems such as MLA) can be found on: <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/10/> or www.westwords.com/guffey/apa.html

11 PRONUNCIATION AND PHONOLOGY

11.1 Vocabulary

linking ideas

A Look at the diagram on the opposite page.

- 1 Name the factors.
- 2 Discuss how each factor might influence pronunciation.
- 3 Can you think of any other factors which might affect pronunciation?

B Study the linking words and phrases in box a.

- 1 Put them into two groups for:
 - a introducing reasons and results.
 - b building an argument.
- 2 Is each linking word used to join ideas:
 - a within a sentence?
 - b between sentences?
- 3 Can you think of similar linking words?
- 4 How can the words in question 1b be used to support an argument? Put them in a suitable order for building an argument.

C Study the words in box b.

- 1 Sort the words into two groups according to whether they are concerned with *people* or with *change*.
- 2 In pairs, explain your decisions.
- 3 Are the words nouns, verbs or adjectives? What is the stress pattern of each word?
- 4 Can you think of other words or phrases with the same meaning?

D Read the text on the right.

- 1 Complete each space with a word or phrase from box a or box b. Change the form of the word if necessary.
- 2 Can you think of other words or phrases with the same meaning as the blue words?
- 3 Find all the words and phrases in the text connected with *people* and *change*.
- 4 Match the words or phrases below with a later word or phrase that refers back to them.

Example:

a native of *someone brought up in*
region education someone
generations

E Do the quiz on the opposite page.

a also although because finally
firstly for example however in addition
moreover next one result is secondly
since such as therefore

b age group change class effect
evolve gender generation
influence inhabited native
person trend variation youth

According to linguists, there are many factors which _____ the particular accent or pronunciation of English that a person uses.

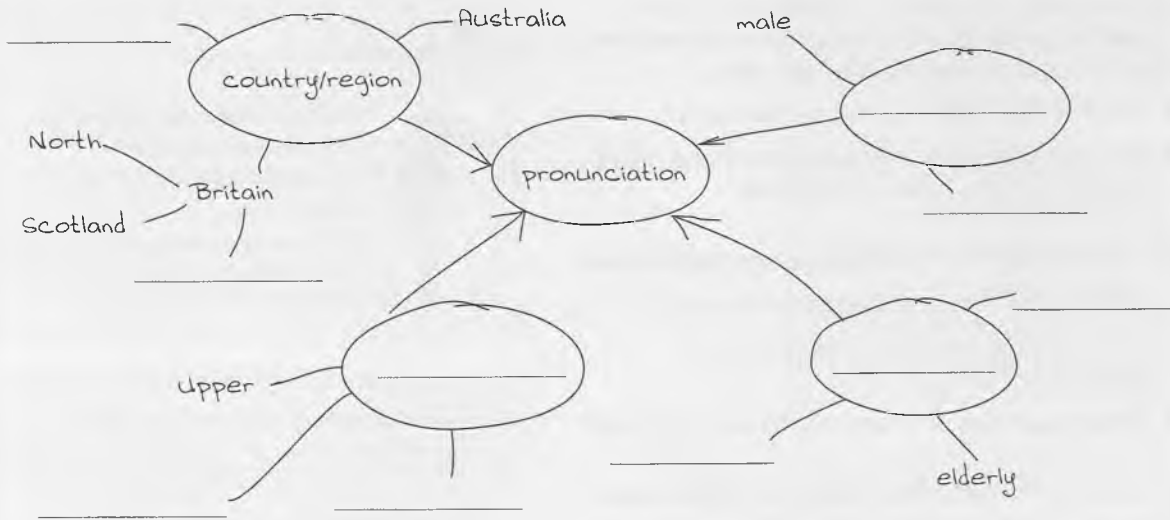
_____, there is the region inhabited. _____, a native of one area in Britain is likely to use a different accent and perhaps even a different dialect from someone brought up in another part of the country.

_____, social _____ still has an influence, in the United Kingdom at least, on the kind of education someone receives, which in turn may affect their accent. _____, if a person has private schooling, he or she may come to use received pronunciation.

_____, age is also a factor which can cause variation in pronunciation. The language that young people use tends to evolve, _____ youth culture has its own trends and means of expression. _____ that some features of pronunciation may differ between _____. For example, some younger age groups in the UK now often display intonation patterns, such as the rise at the end of statements, which only marked the Australian accent a few years ago.

_____, some people think that _____ also has a role to play in the variation of pronunciation. Research by Peter Trudgill in the 1970s suggested that women were more likely than men to use the 'prestige' pronunciation of certain sounds. According to Trudgill, this indicated that women aspired to a higher social status. Other researchers, _____, believe that this is more a question of class rather than of gender.

What factors have an impact on pronunciation?



How good are your phonetics and phonology?

Do the quiz and find out.

- 1 What is the difference between *phonetics* and *phonemics*?
- 2 What is involved in the phonology of a language?
- 3 What is a phoneme?
- 4 What is IPA?
- 5 What is RP?
- 6 What is a lingua franca?
- 7 What is a diphthong?
- 8 What is a bilabial sound?
- 9 What is a fricative sound?
- 10 What is a stop sound?

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2005)

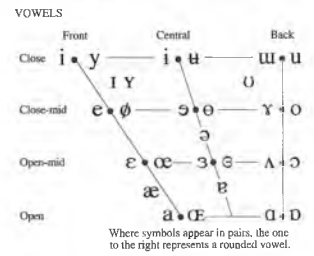
CONSONANTS (PULMONIC) © 2005 IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill				ʀ					ʁ		
Tap or Flap				ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	ɹ̠	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l			ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
ʘ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	ʼ Examples:
Ʉ Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	ɓ Bilabial
ǀ (Postalveolar)	ɗ Palatal	ɗ Dental/alveolar
ǃ Palatoalveolar	ɠ Velar	ɠ Velar
ǂ Alveolar lateral	ɠ Uvular	ɣ Alveolar fricative



OTHER SYMBOLS

ʌ Voiced labial-velar fricative	ɕ ʑ Alveolo-palatal fricatives
ʷ Voiced labial-velar approximant	ɺ Voiced alveolar lateral flap
ɥ Voiced labial-palatal approximant	ɺ Simultaneous ʃ and x
ɦ Voiced epiglottal fricative	
ʕ Voiced epiglottal fricative	ʡ Alliterates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary.
ʔ Epiglottal plosive	

DIACRITICS Diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ɲ̥

• Voiceless	̥ n̥ d̥	• Breathy voiced	̤ b̤ a̤	• Dental	̪ t̪ d̪
• Voiced	̤ s̤ t̤	• Creaky voiced	̰ b̰ a̰	• Apical	̺ t̺ d̺
• Aspirated	̚ t̚ d̚	• Linguolabial	̻ t̻ d̻	• Laminal	̼ t̼ d̼
• More rounded	̙ ɔ̙	• Labialized	̙ t̙ d̙	• Nasalized	̃ ẽ
• Less rounded	̙ ɔ̙	• Palatalized	̟ t̟ d̟	• Nasal release	̚ d̚
• Advanced	̟ u̟	• Velarized	̙ t̙ d̙	• Lateral release	̚ d̚
• Retracted	̙ e̙	• Pharyngealized	̙ t̙ d̙	• No audible release	̚ d̚
• Centralized	̙ e̙	• Velarized or pharyngealized	̙ t̙ d̙		
• Mid-centralized	̙ e̙	• Raised	̙ e̙	(̙ = voiced alveolar fricative)	
• Syllabic	̚ n̚	• Lowered	̙ e̙	(̙ = voiced bilabial approximant)	
• Non-syllabic	̚ e̚	• Advanced Tongue Root	̙ e̙		
• Rhoticity	̙ a̙	• Retracted Tongue Root	̙ e̙		

SUPRASEGMENTALS

- ˈ Primary stress
- ˌ Secondary stress
- ː Long
- ˑ Half-long
- ˑ Extra-short
- ˑ Minor (foot) group
- ˑ Major (intonation) group
- ˑ Syllable break
- ˑ Linking (absence of a break)

TONES AND WORD ACCENTS LEVEL. CONTOUR

˥ or ˧ Extra high	˥ or ˧ Rising
˥ High	˥ Falling
˥ Mid	˥ High rising
˥ Low	˥ Low rising
˥ Extra low	˥ Rising-falling
˥ Downstep	˥ Global rise
˥ Upstep	˥ Global fall


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11.2 Listening


recognizing the speaker's point of view • making notes • writing up notes

A You are going to listen to a lecture by a guest speaker in the Linguistics department at Hadford University. Look at the poster on the right.

- 1 What is the lecture going to be about?
- 2 Decide on how you are going to make notes. Prepare a page in your notebook.

B  Listen to Part 1 of the lecture and make notes.


- 1 What is the focus of the lecturer's talk?
- 2 What are the two main areas that the lecturer will discuss?
- 3 What examples of these factors does he give?


C  Listen to the rest of the lecture and make notes.

D Using your notes, answer the questions on the handout on the right.

E Refer to the model Cornell notes on page 105.

- 1 Check your answers with the model.
- 2 Complete the *Review* and *Summary* sections of the Cornell notes.

F  The lecturer talks about the status of native-speaker phonology. Listen again to part of the lecture. Which words tell us whether the information is fact or opinion?

G  Study the phrases in the blue box. Which type of information below follows each phrase? Listen to some sentences from the lecture.

- restatement
- definite point
- summary of a source
- example
- another point
- tentative point
- clarification
- purpose for speaking

H Write out one section of your notes in complete sentences.

See *Skills bank*.



Visiting Speaker: Dr Nathan Esser
15th February 5.00 p.m.

'Pronunciation for international understanding'

Dr Esser will explore key factors affecting international communication in today's global environment.


- 1 What did the lecturer discuss first?
- 2 What did Macaulay challenge in the 1980s?
- 3 What proportion of people speak RP in England nowadays?
- 4 What example does the lecturer give of problems with RP phonology?
- 5 What has been suggested as an alternative model for English learners?
- 6 What is the problem about making intelligibility the goal for a phonological system?
- 7 What improvement does the Lingua Franca Core offer to the teaching of English phonology?
- 8 Why might a native speaker of Spanish have problems with pronouncing the English words *bet* and *vet*?
- 9 Why do many learners of English have a problem with discriminating between *fill* and *feel*?

- 1 That is to say
- 2 in an attempt to ...
- 3 Don't misunderstand me
- 4 we have to accept that ...
- 5 not only that, but ...
- 6 Briefly, he highlights ...
- 7 It is fair to say that ...
- 8 ... gives a good description of ... in ...
- 9 To some degree
- 10 ... is in no doubt that ...
- 11 ... is a case in point
- 12 With respect to ...


11.3 Extending skills

stress in phrases • building an argument

A Study the phrases in box a.

- 1 Mark the stressed syllables in each phrase.
- 2  Listen and check your answers.
- 3 Which phrases have adjective + noun? Which word has the stronger stress in these phrases?


B Look at the topics below.

- monolingual classes
 - teacher training
 - non-native speaker teachers
- 1 What would you like to know about these topics in relation to pronunciation?
 - 2 Prepare a page to make some notes.
 - 3  Listen to the final part of the lecture and make notes. If there is information which you miss, leave a space.
 - 4 Compare your notes with someone else. Fill in any blank spaces.

C Answer the questions on the Hadford University handout, using your notes.**D** Study the stages of building an argument (a–f) in box b.

- 1 Put the stages in an appropriate order.
- 2 Match each stage with a phrase from box c.

E Look at box b again.

- 1  Listen to a section from the lecture. Make notes on what the lecturer says for each stage of the argument (a–f).
- 2 Check your answers to Exercises D and E1.

F Use your notes to write 75–100 words about the main points in the final part of the lecture.**G** In groups, discuss the research task set by the lecturer. Talk about these questions.

- 1 What is the task?
- 2 What ideas do you already have?
- 3 What kind of information will you need to find?
- 4 Where can you go to find more information?

Report back to the class on your discussion. In Lesson 4 you will take part in a seminar on this topic.

a

accent model
 bilabial fricative
 language learner
 native speaker
 phonemic distinction
 phonetic realization
 phonological feature
 received pronunciation
 speech community
 vowel sound



HADFORD University

- 1 What question does the lecturer ask at the beginning of the lecture?
- 2 What two types of teacher does he mention?
- 3 Which type of teacher might be better at teaching pronunciation in a monolingual class?
- 4 What reasons does the lecturer give for this choice?
- 5 What is your research task?

b

a giving a counter argument
 b giving your opinion
 c stating the issue
 d supporting the reason with evidence
 e rejecting a counter argument
 f giving a reason for your opinion

c

It's quite clear that ...
 The question is ...
 The research has concluded that ...
 I'm afraid that ...
 Some people would suggest ...
 The evidence lies in the fact that ...

11.4 Extending skills

stress in phrases • making effective contributions to a seminar

A Study the terms in box a.

- 1 Explain the meaning of the terms.
- 2 Mark the main stress in each term.

B Study the words in box b. Match the words in columns 1 and 2 to make phrases.

C Study the Lingualab.com web page (A) on the opposite page. What activities or resources can you identify for pronunciation and phonology?

D Study the phrases in box c.

- 1 When would you use these phrases in a seminar and for what purpose?
- 2 Which phrases can you use for linking your new point to a contribution by another speaker?

E Listen to some students taking part in a seminar. They have been asked to discuss the question: 'What is the attitude of people in your country to models of English pronunciation?'

While you listen, make a note of:

- 1 the main topic of each extract
- 2 further details of each topic.

F Study the InterPron.com web page (B) and answer these questions.

- 1 What is the main aim of this page?
- 2 What can teachers get from this site?
- 3 Give examples of the following.
 - a consonants
 - b consonant clusters
 - c long v. short vowel minimal pairs
 - d words with the stress on the:
 - first syllable
 - second syllable
 - third syllable
 - fourth syllable
 - e *th* sounds
 - f weak forms
 - g words with schwa
 - h pitch movement

G Discuss your research findings from the task in Lesson 3, Exercise G. One person from the group should report the conclusions of the discussion to the class.

a
government language policy
international English
pronunciation
key research findings
lingua franca interactions
native-speaker accents

b	1	2
British		speaker
consonant		patterns
IPA		plan
language		quality
lesson		laboratory
native		accent
regional		symbols
stress		cluster
vowel		English

c
I'd like to start by explaining ...
To carry on from this first point, I want secondly to look at ...
I don't think that is the main reason.
That seems like a very good point X is making.
I'm going to expand the topic by mentioning ...
On the other hand, you might want to say that ...
As well as this issue, we can also look at a very different issue.
So to sum up, we can say that ...
Does anybody have any opinions or anything they would like to add?
I think we need a different viewpoint.
OK, to continue then ...
Following on from what X has said ...

A

000

Lingualab.com the online language laboratory



Look here for help with your pronunciation of British English

Practise your pronunciation

- Vowels
- Diphthongs
- Consonants
- Consonant clusters
- Fricatives and plosives
- Difficult words
- Sounds and spelling

Free stuff

- Download [IPA chart](#) and [fonts](#) for your PC

Labialized	t ^w d ^w	~
Palatalized	tʃ dʃ	n
Velarized	tʰ dʰ	l

Work at suprasegmental features

- Intonation in conversations
- Stress patterns in common words

For teachers

Lingua franca interactions. [Download a free article](#) by our sponsor, Dr Nathan Esser.

Regional accent recordings

- UK accents
- US and Canadian accents
- Australian and New Zealand accents
- South African accents
- Irish accents
- Caribbean accents

Have you got a good ear?

Complete a [short test](#) to see if you can identify where ten different speakers come from.

B

000

InterPron.com Pronunciation for international English

The appearance of different varieties of international English has led a number of linguists to challenge the ideal of native-speaker accents in the teaching of English. This website presents my key research findings on the pronunciation of English as a global language and suggests some classroom-based activities for improving the teaching of international English pronunciation.



Essential English pronunciation:

- 1 consonants
- 2 consonant clusters
- 3 long and short vowels
- 4 word stress

Non-essential elements:

- 1 *th* sounds
- 2 weak forms
- 3 schwa
- 4 pitch movement

InterPron made easy

Click [here](#) to access a series of 10 lesson plans which take into account the essential and non-essential elements of international English pronunciation

<http://www.interpron.com/lessons.pdf>

Linking words

We use linking words and phrases to join ideas together in a sequence, to show how the ideas are related.

Some linking words can be used to join independent and dependent clauses in a sentence:

Examples:

*Some features of pronunciation may differ between generations, **because** youth culture has its own trends and means of expression.*

OR

***Because** youth culture has its own trends and means of expression, some features of pronunciation may differ between generations.*

Other linking words join sentences in a text

Example:

*Youth culture has its own trends and means of expression. **As a result**, some features of pronunciation may differ between generations.*

When building an argument, it is a good idea to use linking words to add points:

Examples:

<i>Firstly, ...</i>	<i>Another point is ...</i>	<i>In addition, ...</i>	<i>... whereas ...</i>
<i>For example, ...</i>	<i>Secondly, ...</i>	<i>Moreover, ...</i>	<i>Finally, ...</i>

Using words with similar meanings to refer back in a text

It is a good idea to learn several words with similar or related meanings. We often build cohesion in a text by using different words to refer back to something previously mentioned.

Examples:

First mention	Second mention	Third mention	Fourth mention
<i>native speaker</i>	<i>first-language user</i>	<i>mother-tongue speaker</i>	<i>L1 native</i>
<i>change</i>	<i>alter</i>	<i>evolve</i>	<i>develop</i>
<i>influence</i>	<i>effect</i>	<i>determine to some extent</i>	<i>partly result in</i>

Recognizing fixed phrases from academic English (4)

In Units 7, 9 and 10, we learnt some key fixed phrases from general academic English. Here are some more to use when speaking.

*Don't misunderstand me.
I'm afraid that just isn't true.
in an attempt to ...
... is a case in point
not only that, but ...
Some people say ...*

*the effect of ...
there is a correlation between ... and ...
to some degree ...
to the extent that ...
What's more ...
with respect to ...*

Skills bank

Writing out notes in full

When making notes we use as few words as possible. This means that when we come to write up the notes, we need to pay attention to:

- the use of numbers and symbols for words and ideas, e.g.,
Notes: Macaulay (1980s): RP used by < 3% British pop.
In the 1980s, Macaulay observed that RP was used by less than 3 per cent of the British population.
- making sure the grammatical words are put back in, e.g.,
Notes: → RP challenged as model for learners
The role of RP as a model for learners of English has been challenged.
- making the implied meanings clear, e.g.,
Notes: Other linguists: 'inefficient model'
Other linguists have suggested it is an inefficient model.

Building an argument

A common way to build an argument is:

- 1 First, state the issue:
Who is best placed to exploit an in-depth understanding of the phonetics of English and the students' L1?
- 2 Next, give a counter argument:
Some people would immediately suggest the native-speaker teacher.
- 3 Then give your opinion:
I'm afraid that this choice isn't always the best.
- 4 Then give evidence for your opinion:
Classroom observations show that the language teacher who has experience of particular nationality groups and their L1 phonology probably has an advantage.

Linking to a previous point

When you want to move the discussion in a new direction, introduce your comments with phrases such as:

Following on from what X said, I'd like to talk about ...

I'm going to expand the topic by mentioning ...

As well as (native-speaker accent), we can also look at a very different sort of issue.

Summarizing a source

When we talk about the ideas of other people in a lecture or a seminar, we often give a summary of the source in a sentence or two.

Examples:

A book by (name of writer) called (name of book) published in (year) gives an explanation of how ...

Briefly, (name of writer) explains how ...

An introduction to (topic) can be found in (name of writer/book).

12 GRAMMAR

12.1 Vocabulary

referring back • introducing quotations/paraphrases

A Study the words and phrases in box a.

- 1 What part or parts of speech does each word refer to?
- 2 Check the stress and pronunciation.
- 3 Give examples of each of the grammatical terms.

B Read Text A on the opposite page.

- 1 According to the writer, what is the point in learning grammar?
- 2 Look at the highlighted words. Connect each word to the noun it refers to.
Example: *them* refers to previously mentioned noun (*people*)

C Study the verbs in box b. They can be used to introduce quotations or paraphrases/summaries.

- 1 Check the meanings of any words you don't know.
- 2 Which verbs have similar meanings?
- 3 Which verbs are not followed by *that*?
- 4 When can you use each verb?
Example: *accept* = the writer reluctantly thinks this idea from someone else is true

D Read Text B on the opposite page. Look at the highlighted sentences.

- 1 What is the function of each sentence?
Example: *Course designers should also identify a set of key language patterns and a framework of examples* = opinion or recommendation.
- 2 In an assignment, should you refer to the highlighted sentences by **quoting directly** or by **paraphrasing**?
- 3 Choose an appropriate introductory verb from box b and write out each sentence as a direct quotation or paraphrase. Add the source references.

E Look at the extracts from a grammar book, on the right. Then read the research notes about grammar teaching on the opposite page (Text C). What should a teacher consider when choosing between implicit and explicit grammar teaching?

- 1 Discuss in pairs.
- 2 Write a paragraph giving your recommendations. Include one of your sentences from Exercise D, question 3.

a

active comparative
complement conditional countable
deictic intransitive modal object
passive phrase plural pro-form
quantifier singular subject
subjunctive superlative tense
transitive uncountable

b

accept agree argue assert
cite claim concede
consider contend describe
disagree dispute emphasize
illustrate indicate insist note
observe point out
report show state suggest

Inductive

1. Study the examples.
2. Make questions in the same way.
He is a doctor. → *Is he a doctor?*
She is tired. → *Is she tired?*
They are at home. → *Are they at home?*
She is a manager. → ...?
He is ill. → ...?
They are at school. → ...?

Deductive

- 1 Study the tables. How do you make a statement with *be* into a question?
- 2 Write three more questions.

Statements

Subject	Verb (be)	Complement	
He	is	a doctor	.
She		tired	.
They	are	at home	.

Questions

Verb (be)	Subject	Complement	
Is	he	a doctor	?
	she	tired	?
Are	they	at home	?

A What is the point in learning grammar?

Throughout history, people have been constantly looking for ways to understand the world around them better and this is why we have developed theories about natural systems. One of the most important of these systems is language, which is arguably the most creative ability of human beings. Its role in the evolution of our species is vital; without it we would not have developed to where we are today. There is virtually no limit to what humans can express through language but this infinite potential is controlled by an underlying set of rules which we call grammar. Understanding these rules can help us to work out what people mean when they attempt to express themselves. In all natural languages, the real

world is classified into objects and actions, but each language has its own way of putting meaning into words. For example, in a syntactic language like English, the part of speech is recovered from the position of a word in a sentence. In a morphological language, this is indicated by the form of the word. But some people believe that learning the grammar in one language is a good starting point for understanding the grammar of another since all languages have grammatical rules and structures. The results of such study can also help us to understand and celebrate the flexibility and power of language.

from Arnold, M. (2007). *Why learn grammar?* Hadford: Hadford University Press.

B Grammar course design

^a Designing a grammar course can be a very complex activity. First of all, teachers have to give consideration to the needs of their students and their level of proficiency. ^b Course designers should also identify a set of key language patterns and a framework of examples. Relevance and accessibility of the examples will help the learning process. ^c Both teachers and students must be provided with samples of language which are authentic and clear.

^d At some point, as Gladwell (2005) asserts, 'choices have to be made about whether the teaching of grammar will be explicit or implicit'.

Will the students be taught grammar rules directly, or will they be allowed to induce how grammar is used through the use of examples?

Furthermore, it should be remembered that a grammar course is not an adequate language course in itself (Willis & Wright, 2000)*. ^e The grammar class is usually more effective when it is delivered alongside other language classes which include a wider range of skills.

* Willis, D. & Wright, J. (1995). *Collins Cobuild basic grammar: Self-study edition with answers*. London: Harper Collins.

From Towers, C. (2007). *Teaching grammar*. Hadford: Hadford University Press.

C Strengths and weaknesses of grammar teaching

Implicit grammar teaching	Strengths	Weaknesses
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independent learning is encouraged by learning through discovery. Activities tend to be learner-centred rather than teacher-centred. Linguistic problem-solving strategies are developed which can be applied to real-life situations. Language practice opportunities can be created through groupwork. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The approach can be time-consuming. There is a danger of students developing a wrong understanding of how grammar is used. More lesson planning may be required by the teacher. Some students may prefer to be told the rule directly.
Explicit grammar teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explicit teaching is direct and to the point. Explicit teaching may sometimes be the quickest and most efficient way to explain a point. Clear examples can be given early on. Explicit teaching aligns with many students' expectations of the language classroom. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overt focus on grammar may be demotivating and boring for some students. Terminology may be difficult for younger learners or students of lower levels of ability. Explicit teaching can be more teacher-centred. There is much more to language learning than memorizing rules.

12.2 Reading

linking ideas in a text • quoting and paraphrasing

A Discuss the following questions.

- 1 What is the role of grammar in language learning?
- 2 What was your own experience of learning grammar?

B Survey the text on the opposite page. What will the text be about? Write three questions to which you would like answers.

C Read the text. Does it answer your questions?

D Write **T** or **F** next to each of the phrases on the right to show if it is a true or false representation of the writer's meaning.

E For each paragraph of the text:

- 1 Identify the topic sentence.
- 2 Think of a suitable title.

F Look at the underlined words in the text. What do they refer back to?

G Study the highlighted words and phrases.

- 1 What do they have in common?
- 2 What linking words can you use to show:
 - contrast?
 - concession?
 - result?
 - reason?
- 3 Write the sentences with the highlighted items again, using other linking words with similar meanings.

H Read the text on the right. A student has written about grammar study, but the quotations and paraphrases have not been correctly done. Can you spot the mistakes and correct them?

I Write a paragraph for a university lecturer, summarizing Towers' comments on implicit and explicit knowledge of grammar. Decide whether you should quote or paraphrase the material from the text.

F	Grammar study is a very modern activity.
	Grammar study is often considered fashionable.
	We all have a good command of grammar in our own languages, even though we may not realize it.
	It is easy to communicate effectively without grammar.
	The meaning of words changes in different contexts.
	Dictionaries are only useful for vocabulary learning.
	Implicit knowledge is knowledge that we are unaware of.
	Second-language learners are more likely to have a high level of implicit grammar knowledge than native speakers.

As Towers (2008) explains that grammar does not exist in order to complicate language study. On the contrary, its purpose is to aid communication through a **shared framework**. According to Towers, she says that meaning cannot be conveyed efficiently without grammar and 'only by looking at an item in a grammatical context' that a particular meaning can be understood.

Beliefs about grammar

By Chloe Towers

THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR can be traced back to ancient Greek and Roman communities. The interest shown by these early civilizations indicates that grammar has long been explored by some of society's most knowledgeable academics and intellectuals. Consequently, over time, the activity has acquired a bookish and somewhat mystifying reputation. Nowadays, grammar study is often considered to be abstract and separate from the practicalities of everyday language use. Talk of grammar can bring conversation to a standstill and even frighten people to such an extent that they are put off language learning altogether. Such beliefs appear to be widespread and, therefore, in recent years, some language teachers have avoided mentioning grammar at all.

In actual fact, the role of grammar is not to complicate language study. Its real function is to help people to communicate accurately by managing the way in which words are used. People who are attempting to communicate need to use a shared framework if they wish to make themselves easily understood. If they do not use the same framework, communication is much less efficient.

Most communication involves words but without the organizing function of grammar, any lexicon is extremely restricted in its usefulness. The vocabulary of any language represents an enormous resource and provides us with the means of describing and cataloguing a part of the world around us. Nevertheless, a word's meaning can differ greatly according to the situations in which it can be used. Consider *He read the book* and *He booked a table*. It is only by looking at an item in a grammatical context that a particular meaning can be fully understood. So, although dictionaries are usually thought of as lists of words



and meanings, they actually provide an extremely rich source of grammar in use.

Many misunderstandings about grammar develop from the difference between implicit knowledge and explicit knowledge. In our first language (L1), we are usually unaware of our developing knowledge of grammar, which accrues from early childhood. When learning a second language (L2), however, we are usually taught how to describe sentence structure and state grammar rules. Your implicit grammar knowledge tells you that something is wrong in a sentence, but it is your explicit knowledge which enables you to describe the nature of a mistake and state the rule which has been broken.

The distinction between implicit and explicit grammar knowledge is clearly illustrated by the differences between native and non-native speakers. L1 speakers tend to have a high level of implicit grammar knowledge, because they have acquired the grammar of their mother tongue without actively being taught

it. The fact that they are unable to formally state the rules of English grammar may lead them to think that they don't know any grammar at all. On the other hand, L2 learners, who may be able to describe parts of speech and recite grammar rules, may not be able to produce grammatical sentences consistently, because this knowledge is very different from the internalized, implicit knowledge of the language which the native speaker benefits from.

Today, most language teachers are familiar with methods through which grammar can be taught practically and communicatively. Contemporary teaching usually makes use of both implicit and explicit teaching methods. Learning exercises can be employed which allow students to discover grammar rules through context and examples. In other situations, where it is still useful for students to learn patterns and rules, care is taken to make these relevant and communicative. In this way, it is possible that future generations of students may learn to see grammar as a friend rather than a foe. ■

12.3 Extending skills

research reports: introduction, method, conclusion

- A** Study the words in the box.
- 1 Check the pronunciation and grammar.
 - 2 What are their meanings in a research report?
- B** Read the introduction to Report A and the conclusion to Report B on the opposite page.
- 1 What methods were used in each piece of research?
 - 2 What are the elements of an introduction and a conclusion?
- C** Read the two *method* paragraphs on the right.
- 1 Copy them into your notebook. Put the verbs in brackets in the correct form.
 - 2 Identify the original research questions, the research methods and other important information.
- D** What are the sections of a research report? What order should they go in?

conduct data discussion
findings implication interview
interviewee interviewer limitation
method questionnaire random
recommendation research question
respondent results sample
survey undertake

Report A: Method

A written questionnaire (*design*) to find out perceptions of classroom grammar study and how grammar (*see*) by students in relation to other language skills. Two hundred questionnaires (*send*) to students studying in Anglospeak language schools in three cities in the UK, of which 20 (*return*). In addition, 20 students and 10 teachers (*interview*) at Anglospeak in London on one day in June. Seventy per cent of the whole sample (*be*) women.

Report B: Method

In order to find out how grammar learning (*present*) in the main EAP textbook used at Anglospeak, a survey of the book's grammar exercises and activities (*undertake*). The textbook which (*examine*) was *Leap forward*.

12.4 Extending skills

research reports: questionnaires, findings, discussion

- A** Describe the data in Figures 1, 2 and 3.
- B** Look at the first paragraph from the *findings* section of Report A.
- 1 Complete the spaces with quantity phrases. Put the verbs in the correct tense.
 - 2 Write another paragraph, using Figures 1, 2 and 3.
- C** Read the notes on the review of the textbook *Leap forward*. Then write a discussion paragraph for Report B using the ideas from the notes.

Report A: Findings

Firstly, on the negative side, _____ (80%) of students (*say*) that grammar study was boring. Only _____ (10%) (*rate*) it as interesting. Although 30% of the respondents (*claim*) to prefer implicit grammar teaching, 70 % did not agree. In addition, a _____ minority (45%) (*state*) that their grammar ability (*improve*) without the need for teaching. Finally, _____ the respondents (70%) (*not want*) to continue studying grammar.

Report A: Introduction

Grammar plays some role in almost all language teaching contexts. As a result, most language teachers have to make important decisions about which grammar teaching methodology to adopt. This report will describe a survey undertaken to find out students' and teachers' attitudes towards classroom grammar teaching and learning. Recommendations will also be made as to how teaching can be modified in line with students' and teachers' comments.

Report B: Conclusion

To conclude, it is clear that *Leap forward* provides a good basis for the grammar component of courses at Anglospeak. Useful structures are covered and a variety of stimulating activities are employed. However, the strict alternation between implicit and explicit methodology may well not suit the majority of learners at the school. In our opinion, therefore, the school should consider supplementing the implicit activities with explicit ones in the odd-numbered units, and supplementing the explicit activities with implicit ones in the even-numbered units. In this way, the preferred learning style of all students will be accommodated at all times.

Report A

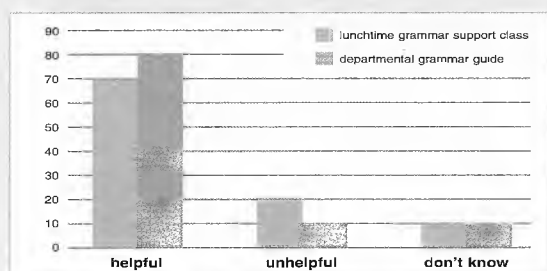


Figure 1: Students' opinion of grammar support offered by school

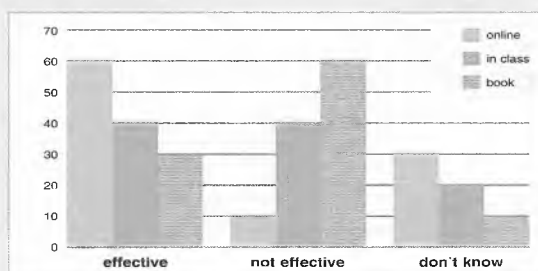


Figure 2: How effective is the study of grammar in different mediums?

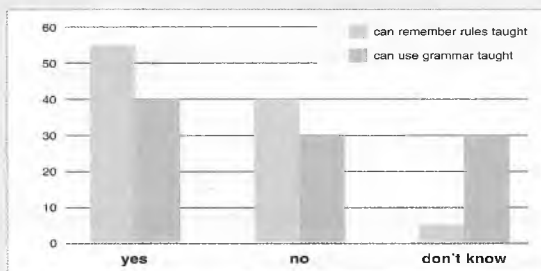


Figure 3: Students' ability to recall grammar

Report B: Notes on 'Leap forward'

Odd-numbered units

implicit grammar teaching = good for students who prefer inductive methodology
 e.g., in U1, grammar associated with word forms: no rules provided
 in U3, passive is taught implicitly

Even-numbered units

explicit grammar teaching = good for students who prefer deductive methodology
 e.g., in U2, structure of question forms provided at end of unit
 in U4, explicit rules for relative clauses given in table

∴ 'Leap forward' accommodates both styles

BUT inductive students don't learn from even-numbered units and deductive students don't learn from odd-numbered units

∴ teachers must supplement

Introductory verbs

Choosing the right introductory verb is important. Your choice of introductory verb shows what kind of statement the writer is making.

Example:

Towers (2007) emphasizes the need to provide samples of language which are 'authentic and clear'.

Your choice of introductory verb also shows what you think of another writer's ideas. This is an important part of academic work.

Example:

Towers (2007) contends that the teaching of grammar works better when integrated with other classes.

Verb	The writer ...
<i>agree</i>	thinks this idea from someone else is true
<i>accept, concede</i>	reluctantly thinks this idea from someone else is true
<i>consider, emphasize, note, observe, point out, state, suggest*</i>	is giving his/her opinion
<i>argue, assert, claim, contend, insist</i>	is giving an opinion that others may not agree with
<i>cite</i>	is referring to someone else's ideas
<i>disagree, dispute</i>	thinks an idea is wrong
<i>suggest*</i>	is giving his/her recommendation
<i>describe</i>	is giving a definition/description
<i>illustrate, indicate, show</i>	is explaining, possibly with an example
<i>report</i>	is giving research findings

**suggest* can have two meanings

Linking ideas in a text

Linking words, which join ideas within a sentence or between sentences, convey different meanings:

	Within sentences	Between sentences
Contrast	<i>but, whereas, while</i>	<i>However, In/By contrast, On the other hand</i>
Concession	<i>although, despite/ in spite of the fact that</i>	<i>However, At the same time, Nevertheless, Despite/In spite of + noun, Yet</i>
Result	<i>so, so that</i>	<i>So, As a result, Consequently, Therefore</i>
Reason	<i>because, since, as</i>	<i>Because of + noun, Owing to + noun, Due to + noun</i>

Referring to quantities and group sizes in a report

A/An	<i>overwhelming/large/significant slight/small/insignificant/tiny</i>	<i>majority</i>	(of + noun)
		<i>minority</i>	
		<i>number</i>	
Over	<i>half a quarter a third</i>		
More	<i>than</i>	<i>x%</i>	
Less			

Skills bank

Structuring a research report

A research report is an account of some research which has been undertaken to find out about a situation or a phenomenon, e.g., *How do our students learn grammar? How is grammar presented in a textbook?*

- Introduction introduce topic; background information; reasons for research
- Methods research questions; how research was carried out
- Findings/results answers to research questions
- Discussion issues arising from findings; limitations of research
- Conclusion summary of main findings; implications; recommendations; possibilities for further research

Writing introductions and conclusions**Introduction**

- Introduce the topic of the report.
- Say why the topic is important.
- Give background information.
- Give an outline of the report plan.

Note: No substantial information; this belongs in the body of the report.

Conclusion

- Summarize the main points in the report without repeating unnecessarily.
- Make some concluding comments such as likely implications or recommendations.

Note: No new information; all the main points should be in the body of the report.

Deciding when to quote and when to paraphrase

When referring to sources, you will need to decide whether to quote directly or to paraphrase/summarize.

- **Quote** when the writer's words are special or show a particularly clever use of language. This is often the case with strongly stated *definitions* or *opinions*.
- **Paraphrase/summarize** descriptions and factual information.

Incorporating quotations

- Use an introductory verb.
- Don't forget the quotation marks.
- Make the quote fit the grammar of the sentence.
- Show any missing words with '...'
- Copy the original words exactly.
- Add emphasis with italics and write '[emphasis added]'
- Add words which are not in the original but are necessary to fully understand the quotation out of context. Put the extra words in brackets.

Do not quote more than one sentence **within the body** of a paragraph.

If you want to quote two or three sentences, put a colon and write the quote as indented text, so that it clearly stands out from the body of your essay.

However, think very carefully before you include a long quote. It is usually better to paraphrase in this case.

Additional material

7.4

Student A

Describing the testing situation

- Who is the test for? *International university students, students of business studies, ...*
- What aspect of English is being tested?
- Which particular language skills or constructs need to be assessed through the test?
- What type of test is required? *Diagnostic, achievement, proficiency ...*
- Who is going to use the test scores? *Schools, universities, employers ...*

7.4

Student C

Piloting the full test with students

- Do the pilot tests, conducted with sample groups of students, show any problems?
- Do some items appear to be too easy or too difficult?
- What does feedback about the test suggest?
- What do test statistics show?
- What changes need to be made?
- Can changes also be made to the overall test specification?

Symbols and abbreviations for notes

Symbols

&, +	and, plus
-	less, minus
±	plus or minus
=	is, equals, is the same as
≈	is approximately equivalent to
≠	is not, is not the same as, doesn't mean, does not equal, is different from
>	is greater than, is more than, is over
<	is less than
→	gives, produces, leads to, results in
←	is given by, is produced by, results from, comes from
↑	rises, increases, grows
↓	falls, decreases, declines
"	ditto (repeats text immediately above)
∴	therefore, so
∵	because, as, since
≡	at
C	century, as in 20 th C
§	paragraph
#	number, as in #1
?	this is doubtful

Abbreviations

e.g.	for example
c.	approximately, as in c.1900
cf.	compare
Ch.	chapter
ed./eds	editor(s)
et al.	and the other people (used when referring to a book with more than one author)
etc.	and all the rest
ff.	and the following as in p.10ff.
fig.	figure (used when giving a title to a drawing or table)
i.e.	that is, that means, in other words
ibid.	in the same place in the source already mentioned
NB	important
n.d.	no date given
No., no.	number
op. cit.	in the source already mentioned
p.	page
pp.	pages, as in pp.1-10
re.	concerning
ref.	with reference to
viz.	namely
vol.	volume

7.4

Student B

Creating and trialling test items

- Which test items can be used to test the required constructs?
- Are these items/questions likely to provide the right kind of response from students?
- What do other teachers and testers think about the example questions/items?
- Are the items in line with the test specification?
- Do some items need to be revised or replaced?

7.4

Student D

Developing scales and training markers

- What is the best way of reporting test results?
- What is a grade A, B, C ...?
- What are the grading criteria?
- How can different markers learn to agree on grade boundaries?
- Has marking moderation been properly completed?
- How can markers be trained effectively and consistently?
- Do markers have any suggestions for changes to the test?

11.2 Model Cornell notes

Review

Notes

Eng = global L. F.

non-nat. sp. > nat. sp.

∴ convers. non-nat + non nat > nat + non-nat

∴ Eng. not belong nat. sp. ✓

RP challenged as model for learners:

- Macaulay (1980s): used by <3% British pop. + ↓; also diff. for learners (e.g., certain diphthongs)
- Other lings: 'inefficient model'; Scot. accent = better?

new goal = intelligibility, not RP

BUT intellig.: diff. to define + diff. to teach

L. F. Core

= comm. core of pron.

Jenner → desc. of LFC but nat. sp. = main interlocutors

Jenkins → comm.: non-nat + non-nat

Consid. for LFC:

- phonetic realization (L1 sound v. English sound), e.g., pron. of /b/ + /v/ by Spanish spkrs of Eng.
- English vowel sounds = longer

Summary

IPA chart for English

Vowels

/ɪ/ <u>t</u> ip	/i:/ <u>s</u> ea	/ʊ/ <u>c</u> ook	/u:/ <u>f</u> ood	/eɪ/ <u>s</u> tay	/ɪə/ <u>n</u> ear	/e/ <u>p</u> en
/ə/ <u>a</u> bout	/ɜ:/ <u>w</u> ord	/ɔ:/ <u>f</u> our	/ʊə/ <u>p</u> ure	/ɔɪ/ <u>t</u> oy	/əʊ/ <u>g</u> o	/æ/ <u>m</u> at
/ʌ/ <u>c</u> up	/ɑ:/ <u>p</u> art	/ɒ/ <u>h</u> op	/eə/ <u>h</u> air	/aɪ/ <u>m</u> y	/aʊ/ <u>h</u> ow	

Consonants

/b/ <u>b</u> at	/d/ <u>d</u> o	/f/ <u>s</u> tiff	/g/ <u>g</u> old	/h/ <u>h</u> and	/j/ <u>y</u> ou
/k/ <u>c</u> ap	/l/ <u>l</u> og	/m/ <u>m</u> an	/n/ <u>p</u> en	/ŋ/ <u>s</u> ong	/p/ <u>m</u> op
/r/ <u>r</u> ight	/s/ <u>m</u> iss	/ʃ/ <u>f</u> ish	/t/ <u>t</u> en	/tʃ/ <u>ch</u> ip	/θ/ <u>th</u> in
/ð/ <u>th</u> is	/v/ <u>v</u> et	/w/ <u>w</u> in	/z/ <u>z</u> oo	/ʒ/ <u>tr</u> ea <u>su</u> re	/dʒ/ <u>j</u> ump

Wordlist

Note: Where a word has more than one part of speech, this is indicated in brackets. The part of speech given is that of the word as it is used in the unit. So, for example, *approach* is listed as *approach (n)*, although it can also be a verb.

	Unit		Unit		Unit
A		C		cultural awareness	9
ability	7	capture (v)	10	customer	9
accent (n)	2, 11	class (n)	5		
access (n and v)	4	clause	12	D	
accuracy	9	client liaison	9	data	5
acquisition	2, 3	cloze	7	database	4
active	12	cognitive	3	decode	8
adverb	1	coherence	10	deductive	12
ambiguous	9	cohesion	10	deictic	12
analyse	1, 5, 6, 7	cohesive device	10	descriptors	7
analysis	1, 2, 10	colonialism	8	design (v)	6
Anglophone	11	communication	1	determiner	12
approach (n)	6	communicative	3, 6	diachronic	2
aptitude	3	community	5, 8	diagnostic	7
argot	11	comparative	12	dialect	1, 2, 5, 9, 11
article	1, 12	compatible	4	dictionary	9
assessment	6, 7	competence	6	diphthong	11
attitudes	5	complement (n)	12	discourse	10
audience	8	components	2	displacement	1
audiolingual	6	comprehension	7	diverse	3
audiolingualism	6	computer literacy	9	diversity	8
authentic	6	computerize	4	document (n)	4, 9
		conditional	12	dominance	8
B		conferencing	9		
backwash	7	conjunction	1, 12	E	
banter (n)	8	connected	10	eclectic	6
barter (n)	8	connection	5	eclecticism	6
bilabial	11	consecutive	9	editing skills	9
bilingual	1, 9	consonant cluster	11	electronic media	4
bilingualism	8	construct (n)	7	ellipsis	6, 10
blueprint	7	consult	9	emoticon	10
bottom-up	10	consultation	9	empire	8
branch (n)	2	context	6	endangerment	8
broadcast (v)	8	corpus	4	environment	8
browse (v)	4	countable	1, 12	estimate (v)	8
		criteria	7	ethics	7
				evaluation	6, 7

	Unit		Unit		Unit
examination	7	I		J	
examiner	7	identity	5	judicial	9
exchange (n)	10	idiolect	5		
expand	8	imitate	6	K	
expertise	9	imperialism	8	key in	4
explicit	12	implicit	12	keyword	4
exposure	3	imply	10	kinaesthetic	3
expression	8	improvise	6		
external	3, 7	independent	3	L	
		independent learning	12	L1	3
F		indigenous	8	L2	3
facilitate	6	inductive	12	laboratory	1, 11
feedback (n)	6, 7	infer	10	language variety	11
field (n)	9	inflection	2	learner-centred	12
financial	9	influence (n and v)	1	legal	9
foreign	3	influx	8	lexical	10
form (n)	2	input (n and v)	4	lexicon	12
forum	8, 10	instrumental	3	lingua franca	2, 8, 11
freelance	9	integral	4	linguist	1, 2
fricative	11	integrate	4	linguistic	1
function (n and v)	1, 2, 4	integrative	3	localization	9
		intelligibility	11	log in/log on	4
G		interaction	5, 10	log off	4
gender	5, 11	interface (n)	4		
generative	2	interference	1, 3	M	
genetic(ally)	3	Interlingua	4	machine translation	9
globalization	8	interlink (v)	4	Manx	8
global village	8	interlocutor	11	marked	10
gossip (v)	10	internalize	3, 12	marker	2, 10
governmental	8	interpersonal	3	market (n)	9
grading	7	interpretation	9	marketing	9
grammatical	1, 10	interpreter	1, 9	marking	7
guidance	7	interpreting	9	measure (v)	7
		interview (n and v)	5	measurement	7
H		intonation	11	media	8
hardware	4, 9	intransitive	12	medical	9
heritage	8	intrapersonal	3	menu	4
homophone	1	IPA (International Phonetic		metalanguage	1
hyperlink	4	Alphabet)	11	metaphor	9
hypothesis	3	item	7	methodology	3, 6, 12
				microphone	1

	Unit		Unit		Unit
minimal pair	11	phonetics	1, 2, 9, 11	relative (pronoun)	6
modal	12	phonological feature	11	reliability	7
model (n and v)	6, 11	phonology	1, 2, 11	repetition	6
moderation	7	phrase (n)	12	resident (n)	8
modify	2	pilot (v)	7	resource (n)	6
monitor (v)	6	pitch (n)	1, 11	results	7
monolingual	1, 11	placement	7	revision	7
morpheme	1, 2	plural	12	role	5, 6
morphological	12	pluralism	6	RP (Received Pronunciation)	11
morphology	1, 2	pluralistic	6		
mother tongue	9	politics	8	S	
motivation	3	population	8	scale (n)	7
multilingual	1, 8	pragmatic	10	schema theory	10
multiple	3	pragmatics	2	schwa	11
multiple choice	7	prefix (n)	1	score (n)	7
		preposition	1, 12	script (n)	7
N		primary	5	search (n and v)	4
native speaker	11	procedure	6	search engine	4
negative	7	process (n)	7	search results	4
network (n)	5	production	7	secondary	5
networking	9	professionalism	9	sector	9
		proficiency	6, 7	semantic	10
O		pro-form	12	semantics	2
object (n)	12	pronoun	1, 12	services	9
objective (n)	6	proofreading	9	simultaneous interpreting	9
organic	10	prototype	7	singular	12
output (n and v)	4	psycholinguistics	1, 2	smiley	10
				society	5, 8
P		Q		socioeconomic	5
paralinguistic	10	qualitative	5, 10	sociolect	5
paraphrase (n and v)	6	quantifier	12	sociolinguistics	1, 2
passive	6, 12	quantitative	5	software	4, 9
password	4	questionnaire	5	source language	9
pedagogical	6			sources	5
pedagogy	6	R		specialism	9
personality	3	reach (n)	8	specialist	9
phatic communion	10	reciprocal	7	specification	4, 7
philosophy	6	regenerate	8	speech	2
phoneme	2, 11	region	5, 8	speech act	10
phonemics	11	regional	5, 11	speech community	11
phonetic realization	11	relationship	5	spread (n)	8

status	5, 8	T			
stimulus	10	target language	9	uncountable	12
stop (n)	11	task	6	ungrammatical	1
stress (n and v)	1	teacher-centred	12	uniform (adj)	3
subconscious	3	technical jargon	9	universal	3
subject (n)	12	tense (n)	1, 12	username/ID	4
subjunctive	12	terminology	9, 12	utterance	2, 10
substitution	10	thesaurus	9		
subsystem	3	top-down	10	V	
suffix	1	TPR	6	validity	7
superlative	12	train (v)	6	variable	3
suppress	8	trainee	6	variation	2
supremacy	8	training	7	variety	5
survey (n)	5	transcribe	1, 10	verbal expression	9
syllable	1	transcript	10	version	7
symbols	11	transfer(able)	3	virtual	4
synchronic	2	transform	3	visual	3
syntactic	12	transitive	12	vocabulary	9
syntax	1, 2	translation	9	vowel	11
		translator	1, 9		
		trial (v)	7	W	
				word-processing	9

Transcripts

Unit 1, Lesson 2, Exercise B 1.1

Part 1

I would like to take this opportunity to welcome you to the Faculty of Language Studies. Before I introduce you to the tutors in this faculty, I want to ask two basic questions: What is a language? And what is linguistics?

Firstly, what is a language? Well, everybody knows that English is a language and that Spanish and Japanese are others in this category. But we also know that English is not used in the same way in New York as it is in London. You may also know that English is not used in the same way in London as it is in the north of England, say, or the west of England. So English is a language, but it has many varieties. We could say there are many 'Englishes', just as there are many 'Spanishes'. The intrinsic meaning of *language* is 'a shared system of expression particular to a nation or people'. But in fact, one language can have many varieties: for example, British English, American English, Cockney (which is London English), Scouse (which is English spoken by people from Liverpool), and so on. What is French to a businessman in Paris is not the same French used by an old woman in Lyon. You can be sure that it will be very different to that of a teenage boy in Quebec.

Unit 1, Lesson 2, Exercise C 1.2

Part 2

We all know that words change their meaning according to the context they are used in. This change in meaning can sometimes be quite significant. The word *pitch*, for example, can be used to refer to the field area available for playing football or cricket. However, in phonology, it is the range of voice level available through the vocal cords. As language users, it is important for us to understand how words are used differently in different situations. The understanding that language usage adapts to the context and environment leads us to the broader definition of the word *language* which we linguists prefer. This definition is not restricted to the 6,000 distinct communication systems including key languages such as English, Chinese and French. It includes any form of speech within these categories, including dialect. Dialect, by the way, is the variety of a language used in a particular part of a country.

Unit 1, Lesson 2, Exercise D 1.3

Part 3

So we have defined language, but what about linguistics? The linguistics that you will study in this faculty is concerned with the scientific study of language as a communicative and cognitive system. I'll let you write that definition down ... the scientific study – of language – as a communicative – and cognitive – system.

During your studies here you will have the opportunity to focus on a range of different branches of linguistics. Human language is by definition uniquely human. By choosing to study language and linguistics, you will be exploring an area which is central or intrinsic to humanity. You probably know that understanding the intrinsic or basic meaning of a word can help you to learn how it is used in different contexts. In the same way, by trying to learn more about the basic features of language, we can also learn more about humans in general.

In the 1960s, an American linguist, named Charles Hockett, demonstrated that all human languages share a series of key design features. The communications systems of other creatures do not display these features. There are three key features. They are displacement, creativity and duality.

Displacement can be defined as the ability to talk about things which are not happening right here and right now. Animals can make communicative noises but they cannot express past or future or probability, for example. They cannot displace from the here and now.

Creativity enables us to understand and produce new utterances easily. Chomsky has said that language is rule-governed creativity. Creativity is fundamental to human language.

Finally, there is duality, from *dual*, meaning *two*. Duality refers to the existence of a series of elements which have no meaning in themselves, but which combine to form units which do have meaning. The letters C-A-T have no meaning in themselves, for example, but combined as *cat*, they have a clear meaning in English. You probably have a picture of the animal in your head now. But combine them again as *act*, A-C-T, and a different image jumps into your head – and, incidentally, a different type of image, since *cat* is a noun and *act* is a verb. TAC and CTA and ATC have no meaning in English – at least, not

at the moment. I'll return to duality in a lecture next week. We'll also be talking about signals and symbols.

Unit 1, Lesson 2, Exercise E 🎧 1.4

Part 4

No animals can communicate through a medium which includes all the features of human language, but all humans can. Human activity is complex and varied, and so is the study of language and linguistics.

I shall now return to the different branches of linguistics which you will encounter in this faculty. These range from morphology and syntax to the study of areas such as psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. These areas may seem unfamiliar to you now, but if you use your knowledge of affixes, and combining forms, then you can work out the meanings of some of these branches. For example, psycholinguistics is concerned with psychology and how language affects learning. Sociolinguistics involves society and people's attitudes to standard and non-standard forms of language. The *-ology* in *morphology* brings us back to the concept of linguistics as a scientific study. In this case, morphology refers to the study of word structure, in other words how different elements, or morphemes, combine to form what we call words.

Oh and the *syn* in syntax means *together*. So, syntax means the way words are combined or arranged in sentences.

Unit 1, Lesson 2, Exercise F 🎧 1.5

Part 5

So, to sum up, what is language and what is linguistics? Language is a unique and organic communication system. It is unique because it is only humans who possess it. It is organic because it grows and changes all the time, just like a plant or any organism. Language can also be defined through its key design features. It is unique because of its close relationship with the human mind, the brain and society. What about linguistics? The role of linguistics is to analyse and explain language. But we can go further than that. Linguistics is also the study of the way language is used in everyday life, the way it is employed.

Unit 1, Lesson 3, Exercise E 🎧 1.6

Introduction 1

Today I'm going to talk to you in more detail about the branches of linguistics that we cover here at Hadford. There are seven main branches: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics and sociolinguistics. I will focus on three of these branches, which will be covered this term. Firstly, there is phonology, the study of sounds in speech and how they are used. Secondly, there is morphology, the branch which studies the structure or forms of words. Thirdly, there is syntax, which investigates the ordering of words. Collectively these three branches are often called *microlinguistics*.

Introduction 2

In this lecture, I'm going to discuss motor aphasia, or the loss of the power to articulate speech through brain damage. In general English, a motor means a machine which moves or powers something. Of course, the brain isn't really a machine. However, under certain circumstances, people can experience trouble performing the motor or output aspects of speech. I'm now going to look at the causes of motor aphasia and the effects.

Introduction 3

OK. Are we all ready? Right, I'll begin. I'm often asked, 'How did English become global?' The answer is that the process began as soon as it arrived in England in the 5th century, having travelled from continental Europe. In this lecture, we're going to look at the impact that English as a global language has had on the world. First, I'm going to mention some key dates in the spread of English. Then I'll describe how English has developed and been influenced since its origin.

Introduction 4

This week I'm going to talk about how it all began. Who were the first true linguists? When did linguistics begin? We'll start with Panini in India in the 5th century BCE. You will also see that there were many developments before Europeans began to analyse their languages in the 14th century.

Introduction 5

In this week's lecture, I'm going to consider the functions of language. There are five main functions which are common to all languages. Firstly, social interaction, a way of easing relationships with others. Secondly, recording of

facts, a means of storing information for future use, usually in written form. Thirdly, emotional expression, a way of expressing how we feel, including opinion and emotions. Fourthly, expression of identity, a way for a group of people who share similar views to show their similarity. Fifthly and finally, naming the world, a way of taking note and making sense of our environment.

Introduction 6

Last week, we defined language and linguistics. Today, we're going to compare animal and human communication. Some people would argue that language is a uniquely human characteristic, and others would say that a number of other species also use a form of language. Although there is some similarity between animal and human communication, there are also crucial differences which make human language distinct. Firstly, we'll look at the similarities, and then at the differences. Finally, we'll see how these differences form a type of communication which is inaccessible to any other species.

Unit 1, Lesson 4, Exercise D 1.7

Lecture 1

Let's look first at phonology, which studies how sounds are organized and used in language. The phoneme plays a key role here. The word phoneme was created in 1876 by the Polish academic Jan Baudouin de Courtenay, whose work is considered to be the foundation of what we now know as phonology. Phonemes are meaningless sound units which language users put together to form meanings. Listen to speakers of different languages and you will note quite quickly that different tongues use different ranges of sounds. The main aim of phonology is to understand the rules of how these meaningless phonemes are combined in order to represent meaning in a particular language. In practice, a phonologist examines the sound patterns of a particular language by identifying the phonetic sounds and trying to clarify the way in which speakers interpret these sounds. At least one of your sessions will be in the language laboratory. Dr Bodsworth will be teaching this module in the first half of this semester. You will need to have access to a Dictaphone or a digital voice recorder for your first assignment.

Now, let's move on to morphology. Morphology studies the structure of words. In fact, the term was first used by the great German poet Johann

Wolfgang Goethe, to describe the study of the structure of animals and plants. In years to come, it was used to describe the area of grammar that investigates the structure of words.

The German August Schleicher was the first linguist to describe languages in terms from biology. In living organisms, separate cells form tissues which form organs, which in turn form systems. In language, phonemes combine to form meaningful sounds; morphemes or bits of words combine to form whole meaningful words; syntactic units like nouns and verbs and adjectives combine in rule-governed ways to form sentences. It's easy to see why Schleicher started to see the similarity between languages and living organisms.

I've just mentioned syntactic units. The third branch of linguistics that you will be studying at the end of this semester is syntax. This looks at the way words come together. It focuses on how different words are ordered into clauses, and how clauses join to make sentences. Syntax can have an important impact on communication. For example, the position of a verb in a sentence can mean the difference between a statement and a question. If you get that wrong, it could cause a lot of trouble and misunderstanding in some situations. Different languages have very different rules of syntax.

Unit 1, Lesson 4, Exercise D 1.8

Lecture 2

Aphasia is caused when one or more of the brain's language areas is damaged. Sometimes, injury to the brain is the result of a stroke. A stroke happens when blood is unable to get to part of the brain. If the usual supply of blood is stopped, then brain cells can die. Aphasia can also be caused by serious injuries to the head and by other types of brain damage. As a result of motor aphasia, structures for language production are damaged.

Motor aphasia is also sometimes called Broca's aphasia. This is because the damaged area of the brain is named after Paul Broca, who is best known for his work in neurology, or the scientific study of the nervous system. Broca researched the functions of the brain during the 19th century.

People who suffer from this type of aphasia are often unable to speak at all or they might be able to use only single words.

Patients with Broca's aphasia often also suffer from depression because they know they have

language problems. By the way, scientists have found that gorilla brains don't have Broca's area. That is one reason why they can't use language like we do.

Unit 1, Lesson 4, Exercise D 1.9

Lecture 3

So, let's look at the spread of English. The language first came to England in the 5th century with the Angles and Jutes. Between the 5th and 11th centuries, it made its way to Cornwall, Wales, Cumbria and the south of what is now Scotland. In these areas, English met the traditional Celtic languages. Many people from the English upper class also took the language to Scotland, as they left England after the invasion of the Normans in 1066. English made its way to Ireland in the 12th century. From the 16th century on, England was emerging as an imperial nation, and as the British empire grew, so did the spread of English.

So, English is a well-travelled language. On its way, it has developed through contact with other languages and cultures. English still has many grammatical similarities with German because of the shared roots of the two languages. After its arrival in England in the 5th century, it was influenced by the Celtic languages of Britain. It also took many words from the Vikings who invaded England before the Norman conquest in 1066. The arrival of the Normans in the 11th century introduced French as the language of government and made a deep impact on the English language. From the 15th century onwards, words came into the language from Latin and Greek. Then a whole range of influences came with the British empire. Today, in the 21st century, e-mail and word-processing software make it easy for the written language to travel great distances in very short spaces of time. British English is perhaps most influenced by American English. Many British people find this hard to accept. However, because of the power of the USA, the process is likely to continue.

Unit 1, Lesson 4, Exercise D 1.10

Lecture 4

As I said earlier, Panini is one of the first linguists. Panini lived in India in the 5th century BCE. He was interested in the structure of words, including prefixes and suffixes. Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, first examined sentence parts in the 4th century BCE. Two centuries later, another

Greek, Thrax, led one of the first real grammatical studies. However, it wasn't until the 6th century CE that the Greek influence reached the Romans. Other Europeans waited until the 14th century to start analysing their languages. And it was not until after 1799, when the French discovered the Rosetta Stone, that people finally learnt how to decode the meaning of Egyptian hieroglyphs. We have come a long way in a short period of time when you think that we now have access to electronic dictionaries and computer translation websites.

Unit 1, Lesson 4, Exercise D 1.11

Lecture 5

OK – the five functions of language. Let's consider social interaction first. This is a way of easing relationships with others. Language is used to help build relationships or bridges between people. For example, a group of schoolchildren using a type of slang common to young people might be building friendships within their group.

Secondly, recording of facts. This is information stored for future use. Such stored facts are necessary for the development of society. They help us to pass on information as well as to organize facts and data. We use language in this way to teach and learn.

Thirdly, emotional expression. We use language in this way to explore how we think and feel about ourselves and the world around us.

Unit 1, Lesson 4, Exercise D 1.12

Lecture 6

People have long been fascinated with the concept of interspecies communication. The prefix *inter* means between, and *species* means different kinds of animals. The similarities between animal and human communication can be found in the definition of the word *communication* itself. Communication includes the use of both signals and symbols. Signals are noises or gestures that have a clear meaning. They usually mean just one thing. They are used in the same situation every time. Animal and baby cries or laughing are a good example of signals in both humans and animals. So, there is a common ground. Both animal and human communication contains signals.

On the other hand, human communication also uses symbols. Symbols consist of sounds or gestures

that have different meanings for different groups of people. Symbols need to be learnt, and can have different meanings in different situations.

For Charles Hockett, an important contemporary linguist, the most significant feature that marks human language is *duality of pattern*. Duality of pattern is the ability to make an unlimited number of meaningful words out of a limited amount of meaningless sounds. Animal communication does not have duality of pattern.

Unit 3, Lesson 2, Exercise B 🎧 1.13

Part 1

OK. Is everybody here? Right, let's start. Today I'm going to talk about language acquisition and language learning. As you are all studying linguistics it is necessary to consider how we humans manage to master the communication tool which we call language. First of all, let's clarify the difference between language acquisition and language learning. The American linguist Stephen Krashen described the difference between these two terms quite clearly and briefly. Language acquisition refers to the subconscious process of internalizing a language and its rules. In contrast, language learning is the type of conscious language development which often takes place in the foreign language classroom. Research into first language, or L1, acquisition can be very useful when we come to think about how people learn a second language, or L2, effectively. It is also important to remember that there are many factors which influence second language development. Language learning is not a uniform process because people are different and live in diverse environments. So later we're going to take a closer look at the variables which play a role in language learning. But before we look at second language learning, let's investigate more closely how we acquire our mother tongue.

Unit 3, Lesson 2, Exercise C 🎧 1.14

Part 2

Chomsky, the American linguist, has completed a great deal of important research in the field of L1 acquisition since the 1960s. According to Chomsky, although environment does play a role in L1 acquisition, all humans are genetically programmed with a language acquisition device. This brain function enables children to process and order the language that they are exposed to. Chomsky's hypothesis claims that the complex

nature of language and its rules would be too difficult for us to acquire if our brains were not equipped with a language processor. It is precisely this capability, known as a universal grammar, which enables any child in any country to learn any first language efficiently, provided that they are given sufficient exposure from birth.

Now, let's move on to second language learning. Chomsky has also studied how people learn a second language. His research supports the idea that language is made up of a system of rules. Chomsky believes that all natural languages contain a common set of central rules. There are also other rules, which differ from language to language. The theories developed by Chomsky indicate that when learning a second language, learners find it easier to learn these central rules than the rules which are unique to that particular language. When learners find an L2 rule which isn't a central transferable rule, they will try to understand that rule by using their knowledge of their first language. This can lead to errors through L1 interference.

Unit 3, Lesson 2, Exercise D 🎧 1.15

Part 3

So now we know a little more about the different processes involved in language acquisition and learning. As I mentioned earlier, the way in which we learn second languages is determined by a number of key factors which differ from person to person. The nature of these variables can assist or inhibit the internalization of the rule system that enables second language learning. Clearly, different learners learn in different ways. It is impossible to describe all the factors which can play a role in language learning; however, there are certain key factors which have been identified by linguists. These include age, motivation, aptitude, personality and cognitive or learning style.

In contrast to popular opinion, children are not necessarily the best language learners in all respects, but there is evidence that age does play an important role. As you might expect, the best native-speaker-like results are achieved by people who have the maximum number of years of exposure. Yet research shows that teenagers are better at learning grammar and vocabulary than either children or adults. However, pronunciation tends to be more accurate in learners who started at a very young age.

Motivation is also crucial. Language-learning motivation is usually divided into two main areas: *integrative* and *instrumental*. Integrative motivation is driven by a want to join or mix effectively with the native-speaker group which uses the target language.

Incidentally, where there is no dominant native-speaker group, a pidgin can develop. This is a new means of communication with elements of more than one language. If this pidgin is then taught to children of its speakers, it is known as a Creole. Instrumental motivation is the study of a language to achieve an aim such as the passing of a test, or getting a better job. Most people have mixed motivation, but research seems to show that integrative motivation is the most powerful.

Aptitude is the ability to systemize the rules required in language learning. It is not to be confused with intelligence, which also describes non language-related skills. Interestingly, although our universal grammar enables everyone to master an L1, it seems that our capacity to deal with the challenges and differing rules of a second language can vary from person to person.

It is also believed that our personality and cognitive style might play a role in our learning. However, it should be pointed out that just how they influence learning is not yet clear. Research has not yet been able to identify the best personality type, as no two people are exactly the same. Personality is, of course, the things which make you individual – whether you are an optimist or a pessimist, whether you are cautious or a risk taker, whether you are introvert or extrovert. Some people think that outgoing students might find it easier to learn speaking skills, as they're less worried about making mistakes. But being good speakers doesn't necessarily make them good writers or give them a good memory for vocabulary. Nevertheless, difference in people's personality has led to an understanding that people also learn in different ways. This is why in recent times teachers have been encouraged to consider different methodologies and approaches. You've probably heard of terms such as the communicative approach, audiolingualism and the once popular grammar translation method. An understanding of multiple intelligences and cognitive or learning styles is also a useful way to take different learners' needs into account.

Unit 3, Lesson 2, Exercise E 1.16

Part 4

So, to summarize, language acquisition is concerned with how we learn our L1, and language learning focuses on how we learn second or foreign languages. Chomsky supports the existence of a universal grammar which pre-programmes the brain to make sense of the different rules of language. As far as L2 learning is concerned, our success may be influenced by a number of factors, or key variables. One key variable is the motivation that a learner has for learning a second language. Instrumental motivation is the kind that you feel when you want to do something with the new language. Integrative motivation is the kind that you feel when you want to become part of the speech community of the new language. Another key variable is personality, or the things that make you individual. Taking account of these variables in the classroom could have an impact on the speed and efficiency of learning.

OK, that's it for today. Next time, we'll try to identify some more qualities of the good language learner. I'll also explain why different learning styles and intelligence types can affect language development. Don't forget to do a bit of research on that before you come. Thanks, see you next week.

Unit 3, Lesson 2, Exercise F 1.17

- 1 L1 acquisition is largely subconscious.
- 2 Language learning focuses on how we learn our first language.
- 3 The speed and efficiency of learning are not affected by learner variables.
- 4 Outgoing people are always better language learners.
- 5 Chomsky believes that the brain is programmed to process language.
- 6 Language aptitude and intelligence are the same thing.

Unit 3, Lesson 3, Exercise A 🧠 1.18

- 1 uni'versal
- 2 'aptitude
- 3 trans'ferable
- 4 u'nique
- 5 ge'netically
- 6 perso'nality
- 7 ex'posure
- 8 instru'mental
- 9 'integrative
- 10 metho'dology
- 11 inter'ference
- 12 moti'vation
- 13 acqui'sition
- 14 sub'conscious
- 15 'cognitive
- 16 'uniform
- 17 'foreign
- 18 'variable

Unit 3, Lesson 4, Exercise B 🧠 1.19**Part 1**

In the last lecture we talked about language acquisition and the variables which can affect language learning. Today I'm going to talk about common features of good language learners. These features include being willing to take risks and learn from mistakes, effective revision, being well organized and independence from the teacher.

I will also consider different cognitive learning styles by referring to research into something called *multiple intelligences*. All right, let's begin ...

Unit 3, Lesson 4, Exercise C 🧠 1.20**Part 2**

Risk-taking is an important part of language learning. In other words, learning through trial and error. As learners try to apply the rules of the L2 to different communicative situations they are able to judge their level of success and if necessary restructure or reword what they are saying if it is incorrect. This is an important part of the learning process.

Effective revision of classroom study by reviewing and going over notes will help the learner to

improve their knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical patterns. You can't learn a language just by studying in the classroom.

An organized approach can also help to make the learning experience more effective. Keeping accurate records is important. For example, learning vocabulary can be made more effective if the learner organizes his or her records into logical and related subject areas. This helps people to see how vocabulary from the same area is connected. You should try this – it can really help if you try to learn vocabulary by thinking of it in relation to other words.

But perhaps the most important feature of most good language learners is their ability to work independently on an ongoing basis after classroom teaching has finished. This could include actively doing further learning activities without prompting. An understanding that progress comes through independent learning and maximizing the time available will help to produce the best results.

Unit 3, Lesson 4, Exercise D 🧠 1.21**Part 3**

Nevertheless, some recent research into learning styles has shown that different people learn best in different situations. This theory has been called *multiple intelligences*. Different intelligence types have been organized into eight areas which identify the ways in which different people learn.

People with high verbal-linguistic intelligence are good at using words and language. On the other hand, logical learners have a strong ability to use reason and logic. Visual learners see the world in terms of pictures and images. Bodily learners are stimulated through movement and action, whereas musical intelligence refers to the ability to produce and appreciate music. Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to relate to and understand others, while intrapersonal intelligence is concerned with self-reflection. Those with natural intelligence interact well with nature and the environment. What types of intelligence describe you? You can find some interesting Internet sites about this subject.

Some linguists think that if we are able to identify the learning styles which best describe students' approach to study, then we can find ways to improve their language-learning success. Teachers can even design activities which take the different learning styles into account. This could have a clear impact on language learning.

Unit 3, Lesson 4, Exercise E 1.22

Part 4

By taking into account the different intelligence types, teachers can ensure that learning exercises suit the different types of people in the class. It is a way of helping people to learn in the way that suits them best. Of course, it would be impossible to design every lesson according to all of the different intelligence types. However, individual lessons in a course could be planned in order to reflect the different intelligence types. This could be an important way to help to maintain motivation, which we have already identified as a key learner variable.

Unit 5, Lesson 2, Exercise B 1.23

Part 1

Good morning, everyone. This morning we're going to begin the topic of sociolinguistics. So, er ... Firstly, let's define sociolinguistics. Well, sociolinguistics examines the link between language and society. Sociolinguists analyse the ways in which language use varies according to different situations.

You might now be wondering, 'What's the point in studying sociolinguistics?' Well, ... sociolinguistics demonstrates how human language reflects the reality of the world in which we speakers live. What I mean is, er ... sociolinguistics is important because it helps us to understand how and why language is used by people in different circumstances.

Now, today I'm going to give you an outline of a few key concepts which we are going to look at. You'll be able to cover all the important points that I mention in more detail in your seminars.

To start with, I'll talk about the way social groupings and networks affect the language people use. Later, I'll move on to regional dialects. After that, we'll touch on research which examines the way in which men's and women's speech differs. By the way, I'll use *dialect* and *variety* to mean the same thing. A *dialect* or *variety* means the form of language used by different groups of people. This includes vocabulary as well as grammar and pronunciation.

Then, I'll be talking about the film *My Fair Lady*, which shows sociolinguistics in practice. It's also really quite fun. Finally, before you leave I'll be giving you your first piece of homework.

Unit 5, Lesson 2, Exercise D 1.24

Part 2

Essentially, sociolinguistics explores the connection between society and language use. I suppose you could say that sociolinguists are looking to see how our speech is influenced by who we are and what we are doing. Arguably, this connection is most noticeably demonstrated in regional varieties.

So, what is a regional variety? Well, a regional variety is a dialect of a language used in a specific geographical area of a country. Some regional dialects are so distinct from standard varieties that they are known by particular names. It is likely that some of you have heard of British dialects of English such as 'Brummie' from the Birmingham area, 'Geordie' from Newcastle upon Tyne and 'Scouse' from Liverpool.

And why are there so many regional dialects in Britain? That's a very good question. English has been used in this country for more than 1,500 years, and over time, the English used in different areas of Britain has changed. People's language use has adapted as a result of their own needs, and outside influences.

Unit 5, Lesson 2, Exercise E 1.25

Part 3

So, let's move on. The variety of language we use is also affected by our social groupings or networks. The type of language used by a particular social group or subculture is often referred to as a *sociolect*. The roles played by an individual, in identifying with social networks and showing membership, can have an impact on language and therefore the use of lexis and grammar. At any given time, a person's language can vary according to which role they are playing and the particular situation they are in. A good way of explaining this is to think of the different roles that you play in your own life. I bet that the way you speak to your parents is quite different to the way that you speak to your boyfriend or girlfriend. No doubt, interacting with a bank clerk is not the same as chatting to your niece or nephew. Talking on the phone to colleagues at work differs greatly from speaking to your friends on the phone at home. Of course, no two people have the same set of circumstances, so it follows that no two people use language in exactly the same way. An individual's unique use of language is called an *idiolect*.

Finally today, I would like to draw your attention to one further influence on language variety. Sources from research show that an individual's language usage is influenced by gender. This means that there are some noticeable differences in the way in which men and women speak.

Er ... Where was I? Oh, yes. Differences caused by a person's sex can include areas such as word choice and pronunciation. Studies have shown that male speakers of any regional dialect tend to use the most pronounced regional accents.

Before next class, I'd like you to study a few short clips from the film *My Fair Lady*. You can watch it in the Resources Centre. Of course, the examples in this film are a bit simplistic, but they do show how social roles are mirrored in language. The film focuses on a kind of sociolinguistic experiment. It examines the work of linguist Professor Higgins, who tries to teach a poor uneducated working-class Cockney girl, Eliza Doolittle, to behave like an educated lady. In order to prove to the upper classes that Eliza is a sophisticated and educated lady, she has to disregard her regional and socioeconomic background and completely change the way she speaks. As you will see, this is easier said than done ...

Unit 5, Lesson 3, Exercise B 1.26

Part 4

Of course, *My Fair Lady* is just a story. How do real sociolinguists collect the necessary data? Well, in some cases, it's actually not so different from the work of Professor Higgins in the film. Like Professor Higgins, sociolinguists obviously rely on research, fieldwork and analysis. There are several ways to categorize linguistic research. Let me see ... one way is to distinguish between primary and secondary research. Another important distinction is between qualitative and quantitative research. However, ... oh, dear ... sadly, I see that we've run out of time. This means that I'll have to ask you to do some research. For your first assignment, I'd like you to find out what is meant by the four types of research I've just mentioned, that is, primary and secondary research, and qualitative and quantitative research. We'll discuss what you've found out next time I see you.

Unit 5, Lesson 3, Exercise C 1.27

- 1 'seminar
- 2 'outline
- 3 a'ssignment
- 4 'dialect
- 5 re'search
- 6 co'mmunity
- 7 'network
- 8 'analyse
- 9 par'ticular
- 10 'regional
- 11 va'riety
- 12 'influenced

Unit 5, Lesson 3, Exercise D 1.28

Essentially, sociolinguistics explores the connection between society and language use.

Arguably, the clearest example of this connection is provided by regional varieties.

Clearly, over the years the language used in different areas of a country develops in different ways.

What I mean is, people's use of language adapts to their circumstances and needs, and this can create different varieties of the same language.

Of course, no two people have the same set of circumstances, so it follows that no two people use language in exactly the same way.

Unit 5, Lesson 4, Exercise B 1.29

Extract 1

LECTURER: All right, Leila and Majed, what did you find out about attitudes to regional varieties of English?

LEILA: Well, first of all, we interviewed a student who comes from Liverpool.

MAJED: I love Liverpool! That's where The Beatles come from.

Extract 2

LECTURER: And what else did you do?

LEILA: We put together a questionnaire. It was really difficult.

MAJED: That's rubbish. It only took half an hour.

Extract 3

LECTURER: Leila, can you give us an explanation of your idiolect map for the person you researched?

LEILA: Well, yes, it has a picture of the person we interviewed in the middle, and then you can see the various factors which influence his particular idiolect.

LECTURER: What do the rest of you make of this? Evie, what about you?

EVIE: Well, erm ... I'm not sure really.

Extract 4

LECTURER: Majed, can you explain your research? How did you decide which different influences to put on the idiolect map?

MAJED: Well, yes, it's based on what our interviewee, Jason, told us.

JACK: So it's secondary.

Extract 5

LECTURER: What do you mean by 'secondary', Jack?

JACK: I mean it's an example of secondary research. We did two things – we asked someone for information and then ...

EVIE: Actually, that's primary.

Unit 5, Lesson 4, Exercise C 1.30

Extract 6

LECTURER: Let's go back to the idiolect map for the moment. Let's see how it can help us to understand the factors which influence the language that Jason uses.

LEILA: Well, we can see that Jason's language use is affected by different factors such as the region where he lives and the people he knows. What do you think, Majed?

MAJED: Absolutely. There are also other influences such as age and gender.

Extract 7

MAJED: It's clear that the society Jason lives in has an important effect on the language that he uses.

JACK: Sorry, I don't follow. Could you possibly explain why that's important?

MAJED: Well, basically, the language he uses is affected by the people he mixes with and the situations he encounters.

Extract 8

EVIE: I don't understand how being in a different situation affects the way he speaks. He's still the same person, after all.

LEILA: Well, as the lecturer explained, people often use language in different ways to suit different situations. For example, speaking to your parents is quite different to the way that you speak to your boyfriend or girlfriend.

Extract 9

MAJED: So, an idiolect refers to an individual's unique use of language.

JACK: If I understand you correctly, you're saying that the word idiolect means a person's individual dialect.

MAJED: Yes, that's right.

Extract 10

LECTURER: This is all very interesting, isn't it?

EVIE: Yes, and if we just go back to the idiolect map for a moment, you'll see that his language is probably even affected by the different types of friends that he has.

LEILA: Correct!

Extract 11

JACK: I think the whole idea is silly. I mean, I don't change my language that much.

MAJED: I'm not sure that's true. I think you do it without being aware of it.

Extract 12

LECTURER: So why do you think idiolect is important in language learning?

EVIE: As someone said earlier, we have to decide what language is common core and what is idiolectic. We want to teach common core, not teenagers' street slang, for example.

Extract 13

LECTURER: Any other ideas?

MAJED: I'm sorry. Has anybody made the point that idiolect may be more significant in some speech communities than in others? I mean, older people in Britain probably don't change the way they speak as much as teenagers.


LECTURER: Yes, actually. Leila did say that earlier, but it's an important point.

Extract 14

LECTURER: So, any other points anyone would like to make?

EVIE: I don't know if this is relevant but in some languages, like Greek, there are two completely different dialects, *demotiki* and *katharevousa* and most people can speak both.

LECTURER: Yes, they would both form part of a particular person's idiolect.

Unit 7, Lesson 2, Exercise B  2.1**Part 1**

Good morning, everyone. What I'm going to talk about today is language testing and its importance in applied linguistics. In other words, why we need tests and how we create them. These days there are many types of language tests: proficiency tests, placement tests, diagnostic tests, et cetera, and these tests often have an important influence on educational and career opportunities. Bearing in mind their impact on people's lives, we need to think about how we design effective and valid tests. What I mean is ... it's really important to be objective and to make sure that the test is valid. This involves ethics. However, we'll look at ethics in more detail later on, I mean, another time. So, er ... also in later lectures, we'll analyse some well-known commercial proficiency tests.

Today, however, we will deal with the general importance of language testing as well as the question of validity. We'll look at how a test blueprint, also known as a specification, can improve the testing process. And we'll also look at the concept of backwash and why and how test specifications are used.

Unit 7, Lesson 2, Exercise C  2.2**Part 2**

As we have seen in an earlier session, language testing is important because it can be thought of as both having an influence on applied linguistics and being influenced by applied linguistics. As we know, developments in applied linguistics often inform language testing; in addition, testing has a direct impact on teaching in some contexts. The relationship is reciprocal. Now, another term for the relationship between testing and teaching is backwash. Indeed, as well as the *positive* influence of test backwash on teaching, we need to think about the possibility of *negative* backwash. In other words, we need to be sure that teaching is

based on students' needs, not just on the tests they will take. In some cases, teaching to tests can cause serious problems if the tests are not targeted at the appropriate language ability. As you might expect, this can be really important for the people taking tests, and for companies and universities that give people jobs and places on courses based on test results. Whether you are designing an answer booklet, writing a set of multiple-choice questions or planning a revision class, it is useful to learn more about the testing process.

Unit 7, Lesson 2, Exercise E  2.3**Part 3**

Now, an important concept in language testing is the notion of 'validity'. What do I mean by validity? Well, to help you understand this idea clearly, can you look for a moment at the leaflet I have given you from Lonbridge Examination Board? As you can see, the test creation process involves several stages before a finished and trustworthy assessment is produced. Looking at it another way, when the examination board pilots, or tries out, a test, and revises questions, or test items, it is actually trying to improve the validity of test scores. In fact, a great deal of time is spent on construct validity. In linguistic terms, we can define construct validity as the extent to which test scores accurately represent language skills or abilities.

Let's look at an example of this. Say Lonbridge Examination Board has developed a new test of academic writing. The test is used by universities to decide which students to offer places to. At the test piloting stage, it is discovered that one of the test items has been badly written. It actually tests mathematics rather than academic writing. As a result, the item is revised to focus on writing skills. The difference between the two versions of the test is that the second has higher validity; it is a more trustworthy measure.

Why is validity so important? Well, the point is that if an examination board makes a test which is not a valid measure of language ability, then the test scores can't be relied on. Ten out of ten doesn't really mean a high language level if the questions don't measure what they say they measure. But people believe numbers, even if they are not arrived at in a valid way. This is why piloting a test or assessment is so important. Good examination boards or schools often employ external examiners to help with this. In this way, problems can be sorted out before the test is used.

Unit 7, Lesson 2, Exercise F 🎧 2.4

Part 4

Now ... er ... let's see ... oh dear, I see we're running short of time ... but perhaps I should just say something about test specifications.

Three main arguments exist for using a test spec. Argument 1 supports construct validity. This argument suggests that a test's construct validity can be improved by using a blueprint. This blueprint, known as a test specification, can be divided into different sections. Examples of these sections are reading, writing, listening and speaking – in other words, the different papers in the test. In some specifications, there may be additional subsections, too, if it is necessary to describe the different abilities or constructs which are being focused on.

Making new versions of a test completely from scratch is not very efficient. So the second argument supports the creation of new test versions. What's important about new versions of a test is that questions can be created which test language in a similar way to previous versions. This is what happens at the examination board, for example, when a new version of a test is needed, say, once every three months. The specification is used to make sure that the test writers are writing the right sort of questions. In fact, the Hadford English Test, or HET, which some of you took before joining this university, has a really detailed spec. Consequently, new versions can be made quickly and consistently.

Lastly, there is test evaluation. What's clear is that in the test evaluation process, it is sometimes necessary to revise items. This is often based on feedback from students and the people who use test scores. With this in mind, the specification can be used to make changes and to make sure that changes fit in with the general aims and the other sections of the test.

Now ... oh dear, I was going to show you some of the sections from the Hadford English Test specification, but ... ah ... I see that time is moving on. So instead, I'm going to ...

Unit 7, Lesson 3, Exercise A 🎧 2.5

- 1 con'sistently
- 2 'piloting
- 3 'consequently
- 4 va'lidity
- 5 specifi'cation

- 6 'version
- 7 as'sessment
- 8 exami'nation
- 9 relia'bility
- 10 'backwash
- 11 'measure
- 12 'trustworthy

Unit 7, Lesson 3, Exercise B 🎧 2.6

Part 5

I'm going to give a brief review of today's lecture and introduce some more key research into language testing that you'll need to think about – in other words, some other texts you should look at in the library.

Now, the fact of the matter is, it's a highly complex task to make valid and reliable tests. The reason for this is that there is a wide variety of factors which need to be considered – not to mention the fact that some of these factors are totally outside the control of the tester. Let's take the weather as an example. A severe change in the weather can affect test conditions and therefore results, but of course it's something that examination boards or schools can't control. Plus there's the test takers' personality and learning style which affects the way they react to different questions. Factors like these can make tests unreliable. You should probably look at the work of Bachman on this point. I'll come back to reliability later when I give your research topic for the next class.

OK. Where was I? Oh, yes ... So planning good tests is really difficult: you have to think about who you are testing, what you are testing, which test items you are using, and so on. Therefore, what's very important for good planning is the use of a test spec. You've already heard me talk about test specifications. These days, many examination boards and schools use them to help with planning and writing tests. The advantage of test specs is that they guide test writers. So, although it was in the early 1900s that Ruch first referred to creating specifications (in relation to industry), they still have a contemporary usage in language testing today.

To sum up then, language test writing must be carefully planned. Let me put it another way ... it is through planning that validity and reliability can be built into tests.

Oh, I almost forgot your research topic. OK, one

important aspect of writing language tests is validity, and we have talked a lot about this today. Now I'd like you to do some more research into *reliability* which is not the same as validity. I'd also like you to write an example test specification for a reading test based on a short text. When you've written the spec you'll need to write the test questions. Five questions will be enough. Bring your work to class on Monday next week.

Unit 7, Lesson 4, Exercise B 2.7

Part 1

Now, as you all know, 50 students are going to take the Hadford English Test next week on Thursday from 9 a.m. to 11 a.m. I will need the assistance of at least four trained examiners and invigilators. The listening, reading and writing and grammar tests are going to take place in the Great Hall. The speaking tests will then be held on Friday afternoon from 2 p.m. to 5 p.m. in the language centre. Also, I will need someone to register students when they arrive for the speaking tests. So, who can do Thursday or Friday?

Unit 7, Lesson 4, Exercise C 2.8

Part 2

DR SMITH: Well, I'd like to make two points. First, I think we need more training before we mark the test.

DR JONES: Can you expand on that, Simon?

DR SMITH: Sure, Eva. What I think is a good answer might not be what you think is a good answer.

DR JONES: So?

DR SMITH: So the point is that if we don't mark in the same way, the test results won't be reliable.

CHIEF EXAMINER: OK. So, what's your second point, Simon?

DR SMITH: I was just coming to that. My second point is that we should double mark every script.

DR RUSSELL: Yes, but that's going to be really time-consuming and we've got better things to do with our time.

DR VERDE: Well, I don't agree with that, Frank, because from what I've read about testing academic skills, double marking is really important.

DR RUSSELL: Sorry, but what are we talking about, exactly? Testing academic skills? Or the Hadford English Test?

DR SMITH: Yes, we need to be clear here. According to what I've read, in all types of testing, double marking can help to avoid inconsistencies between markers. It's a form of moderation.

DR RUSSELL: In what way?

DR SMITH: Well, if two markers disagree on a mark then a discussion can take place until they agree on the most suitable score.

DR JONES: I don't really get it. What if they can't agree?

DR SMITH: What I'm trying to say is, the two markers can look at the grading criteria in relation to the script and discuss the grades that they would give. If this is done regularly they are likely to come in line with each other over time.

DR JONES: I still don't understand. Can you give me an example, Simon?

DR SMITH: OK. Look at it this way. Frank and Anna look at script A and decide on a grade. But they don't talk about it until they have marked the script. They give their grade by looking at the descriptors which describe what a student needs to do to get a certain grade. If they have different grades, they discuss why until they can agree with each other. Usually it isn't too difficult to come to an agreement. When they do the next script, they are likely to think in a more similar way. This takes more time to start with but the markers are likely to work more efficiently.

DR VERDE: So everybody wins! Even if it does take more time.

CHIEF EXAMINER: Absolutely. This is a really good idea and I suggest we follow this practice from now on. We need to use first and second markers. Also, it isn't enough to have one training session when you first become an examiner. Examiners need to keep checking that they are in line with other markers.

DR VERDE: Yes, and I'd just like to say something else. It seems to be much fairer to the students who are taking this test. We need to make sure that the marks we give them are as accurate as possible.

Unit 9, Lesson 2, Exercise B 2.9

Part 1

Good morning, everyone. This morning, I'm going to introduce two key careers which are often associated with language learning and language professionals. As you might expect, the two main areas that I will focus on will be translating and

interpreting. On the one hand, this will be of particular interest to those of you who are studying subsidiary language modules and, on the other hand, it will also be useful for those of you who are studying Applied Language if you are interested in working in editing or other language services in the future. I'm going to talk first about the different fields and sectors which frequently need translating and interpreting services, and then I will outline some of the main skills and training required by translators and interpreters. Some people think that anyone who can speak a second language can also translate or interpret, but as we shall see, the process is much more complex than this. After I've described the key skills, I will describe typical MA course content using the MA in Translation and Interpreting here at Hadford as an example.

But before we begin I have a little story to tell you ... You don't need to take notes on this. After I finished university I once got a job working for a small export company in Japan. I thought this would be great, except that, as well as teaching English to the staff, which by the way I was qualified to do, my job was also to work as a part-time interpreter and translator for the school director, Mr Yoshimoto. I had a degree in Japanese, but my business language skills were very limited. Unfortunately, Mr Yoshimoto and I had considerable trouble communicating. I can remember a number of times when I thought I knew exactly what to say, but in fact, I had completely misunderstood the message or used the wrong words. Anyway, although I continued to struggle when translating his e-mails and interpreting in meetings, I wasn't too worried about the situation; we were usually able to get a message across to some extent and Mr Yoshimoto always seemed happy enough. Then one day, to my surprise, I was taken to one side by a colleague and given a letter advising me to find a new job on the grounds that my work was not meeting Mr Yoshimoto's requirements. I had clearly completely misread the situation and Mr Yoshimoto wasn't happy at all.

Of course, the point of this story is that communication in a case like this between speakers of different languages can be a very complex and important matter which requires proper training. Anyway... let's get back to the main part of my lecture. I was talking about the different sectors of translation and interpreting and about the skills and training that are

required. It's the first of these points that I am going to focus on now.

To start with, it could be argued that one of the most interesting features of language is the flexibility with which it can be applied to all different human situations. This being the case, it's true to say that translation and interpretation across all sectors would be too challenging for any one individual. In other words, it is impossible for any one translator or interpreter to specialize in the language of all possible areas of expertise. Increasingly, we find that most translators or interpreters tend to specialize in one particular field so that they can develop the subject and technical knowledge along with the related vocabulary, terminology and jargon. In fact, many professionals work as freelance translators so that they can manage their own workload. Research has shown that common fields of translation include: legal or judicial services (working with local communities and community languages); financial services; international politics; medical interpretation; and the process of marketing and localization. I'll talk more about localization later today.

If we turn now to training for translators and interpreters, the real question is: what skills other than general language proficiency are required? Bearing in mind that the full range of skills is often overlooked, let's take a few moments now to consider the different skills and training which are recommended. What exactly are the essential skills that translators and interpreters need? In terms of translation it is crucial that professionals have an excellent understanding of written source material in the required target language, along with a sound knowledge of technical terminology. Computer literacy will also be important in order to create the final translated document. The translator will need to have highly developed writing and research skills in order to create an authentic and accurate text.

When we look at interpreting, we find that the emphasis is on the development of an excellent understanding of the spoken source language and the accurate use of verbal expressions in the appropriate context, such as meetings and conferences. In this sort of situation, using the wrong words can have serious implications. From the point of view of networking and client liaison, cultural awareness will play a crucial role.

Unit 9, Lesson 2, Exercise C 🗣️ 2.10**Part 2**

So, from the skills that I have just highlighted it should be clear that gaining the correct skills and training is an important matter. Let's turn now to the traditional way to gain these skills, which is through a postgraduate qualification in translation and interpreting. To give you an idea of what you might study on a course like this, let's look at the different modules which students at Hadford study on our own Translating and Interpreting MA. In the first term, students study Translation and Interpreting Theory, Translation in Practice and Introduction to Interpreting Skills. This gives students a thorough grounding in the theory and practice required. In the remaining terms students specialize in two areas of field study and then choose two modules from sociolinguistics, editing skills and computer-assisted translation. Research has shown that a postgraduate degree is now the best route to employment in interpreting, translating and any language services-related field. However, work experience also gives an important insight into the real-life application of skills. I certainly would have benefited from some experience before I started my job in Japan, that's for sure.

Now where was I? Oh yes, right, I was talking about the importance of work experience and I'd like to move on now to an opportunity which will arise at the end of this term. Interlang Language Services is a company based in Hadford which specializes in translating, interpreting and editing. In the past, ILS has recruited students from the University and it is offering three two-week work placements in week 11 for students who might be interested in working for them in the future. I think this would be an excellent way to gain some work experience and to see if this sort of work might suit you. Even if you are not interested in working in this particular company, it would look good on your CV and might be attractive to other potential employers.

Unit 9, Lesson 2, Exercise D 🗣️ 2.11

- 1 In terms of translation, it is crucial that professionals have an excellent understanding of written source material in the required target language, along with a sound knowledge of technical terminology.
- 2 Research has shown that a postgraduate degree is now the best route to employment

in interpreting, translating and any language services-related field.

- 3 It could be argued that one of the most interesting features of language is the flexibility with which it can be applied to all different human situations.
- 4 But as we shall see, the process is much more complex than this.
- 5 Increasingly we find that most translators or interpreters tend to specialize in one particular field.
- 6 It's true to say that translation and interpretation across all sectors would be too challenging for any one individual.
- 7 So, from the skills that I have just highlighted, it should be clear that gaining the correct skills and training is an important matter.

Unit 9, Lesson 3, Exercise A 🗣️ 2.12

- 1 trans'lator, in'terpreter, 'sector
- 2 bi'lingual 'dictionary, com'puter 'literacy, 'cultural a'wareness, ju'dicial 'services
- 3 'editing skills, 'target language, re'search skills
- 4 'medical, fi'nancial, ju'dicial

Unit 9, Lesson 3, Exercise C 🗣️ 2.13**Part 3**

OK, so let's move on again to look at one of the particular activities which translators are actually involved in. This should be of interest to all of you, as it is connected to the way in which language fits the local context in which it is used. I'm going to introduce you to localization translation which is a growing field in the modern global market. Your core text on this subject is *Practical guide to localization* by Bert Esselink, which was first published in 2000. According to Esselink, 'in many cases, localization has proven to be the key factor for international product acceptance and success'.

Successful localization relies on aligning the translation with the cultural needs of the target market, ensuring that symbols and ideas are culturally appropriate. If we consider the translation of a website or an advertising campaign as an example, the text content can often be translated relatively easily; however, any mention of culturally specific issues, or the

use of photography and charts or diagrams, will require modification in line with the audience or market it is designed for.

A shared language does not always prevent localization problems when a product is marketed overseas. In countries such as the UK, the USA, Canada and Australia, where English is the first language, even minor differences in the dialect, use of metaphor and culture can mean that localization is of crucial significance. Some obvious changes are required between almost any two countries, especially where money is involved. Localization is necessary where any reference is made to currency or prices.

The way in which dates are written can also differ between countries and continents. In the UK, 1/11/2010 refers to 1st November, but in the USA this means 11th January.

Within Europe differences in the way in which numbers are written need to be considered. Speakers of English usually mark thousands using a comma, whereas a full stop is used to write decimals. In Europe it is the exact opposite.

As well as capturing the meaning of a text or document, localization translators have to think about what is right for the particular target audience. Sometimes it may be necessary to add a description, to change the vocabulary or to omit something completely.

Moving on to look at some examples, I'm going to focus on three products which have been influenced by localization translation.

Firstly, Coca-Cola. Two methods exist for the use of a foreign brand name in another language community. One possibility is phonetic translation, where similar sounding words or characters are used. The other system uses local words or characters which create a similar impression rather than a similar sound.

Coca-Cola cleverly blended the phonetic and symbolic methods and produced the brand *ke kou ke le*, which can be translated in Mandarin Chinese as 'permit the mouth to rejoice'.

Secondly, a different drink which has had less success with its initial localization is Pocari Sweat – this is a Japanese sports beverage. When this Japanese product was originally marketed in the USA, it was not well received.

Although in Japan the word *sweat* was used because of its positive connection with energy and sporting activity, the imagery was not equally positive in the USA. As a result, the word *sweat*

had to be omitted before the product was accepted by American consumers.

By the way, I see that some of you are using the Cornell note-taking system. That's very good. Do you all know about this? No? Right, well, if you want to know more about it, I suggest you look at *How to study in college* by Walter Pauk, the 9th edition, published in 2007. It's very good, and it should be in the university library. I'm sure that you all know the importance of taking good notes – and this system is particularly useful.

So let's get back to the main topic of translation and localization. Take a look finally at the next slide: Starbucks Coffee. The Starbucks Company often attempts to bring in a local element to its stores in different countries. The company has, however, recently experienced some criticism of this localization. Customers in some countries have remarked that they visit the store because of the particular brand of American leisure culture which the coffee house has become associated with. Some customers have complained that this style should not be diluted with local features.

So, from the three examples I have just provided, you can see some of the challenges which face the localization translator. It's clear that you need more than just the necessary foreign language skills. There is good news for those of you looking for work, though; in the modern marketplace the localization translator will need to be kept close at hand. As Esselink suggests, in the book I mentioned earlier, localization contracts are likely to become ongoing projects, with regular updates and product revisions.

That's all I'm going to say for the moment on localization translation. Are there any questions so far? No? Good. Now, when I see you in tutorials we'll look in more detail at your career plans. I'll also be happy to talk more about the MA here at Hadford if you are interested. In the meantime, I'm going to set you a research task. Right, now listen carefully ... your task is to find out about all the different careers that are associated with language learning and linguistics. I'd like you to work in groups of four. Each group should find out about the potential career options and report back on its findings.

Unit 9, Lesson 3, Exercise D 2.14

Extract 1

Your core text on this subject is *Practical guide to localization* by Bert Esselink, which was first

published in 2000. According to Esselink, 'in many cases, localization has proven to be the key factor for international product acceptance and success.'

Extract 2

By the way, I see that some of you are using the Cornell note-taking system. That's very good. Do you all know about this? No? Right, well, if you want to know more about it, I suggest you look at *How to study in college* by Walter Pauk, the 9th edition, published in 2007. It's very good, and it should be in the university library.

Extract 3

As Esselink suggests, in the book I mentioned earlier, localization contracts are likely to become ongoing projects, with regular updates and product revisions.

Unit 9, Lesson 4, Exercise C 2.15

Extract 1

It seems quite clear that translators play a very important role. Let's look at three basic functions: firstly, translators help people from different speech communities to communicate with each other; secondly, international governments often rely on people with translating skills; and thirdly, businesses could not always operate efficiently in the modern world without people who have these language skills ...

Extract 2

erm, I think interpreting skills are kind of important. Well, I mean really important. It is possible, we can see, how this is very important. Let's look at this website to show ... oh sorry, that's not working, just a minute ... right, so here is a list of reasons why we need interpreters ... er, you can see I think, it's clear ... do you have any questions about this?

Extract 3

I suppose we could ask the question: will translators eventually be replaced by computers? Currently, machine translation is still rather inaccurate but software is developing all the time and in the future computers might replace human translators. On the other hand, the fine details and specialized meanings which are frequently conveyed in the context of language are difficult to programme into a computer, so there is a strong likelihood that the human eye will always be required ...

Extract 4

Well, the main challenge, I feel, is capturing the original author's meaning as used in the source document, while creating a new document in a different language which retains the same feel. What I mean is, you can't just change the words, you have to think about the target language culture and the genre of the text. If we look at the chart I've prepared here, we can see some of the main challenges which face translators who specialize in different fields. For example, if we look at legal translators, obviously these people will need experience of law-related professions and contexts in both the source language culture and the target language culture.

Unit 11, Lesson 2, Exercise B 2.16

Part 1

Good morning. My name is Dr Nathan Esser and I'm a language consultant. It's a pleasure to be here today.

As we all know, English has become, in the last 50 years, a global lingua franca. This has led to a number of developments, but today I'm going to discuss changes in the phonology of international English which have arisen from the current status of English. That is to say, I shall mainly be looking at the way in which the *phonology* of English, and attitudes towards pronunciation, are changing with the growth in new communities of English speakers around the world. In particular, I'll be discussing the status of native-speaker accents, such as Received Pronunciation. In addition, in an attempt to provide practical advice for teachers of English, I'll be considering how the Lingua Franca Core could help teachers with the teaching of appropriate pronunciation.

Don't misunderstand me. I don't want to imply that everybody should try to speak English like a native from the United Kingdom or the United States. Indeed, it may be that the days of British or American pronunciation are numbered for the majority of learners of English around the world, as we shall see.

Unit 11, Lesson 2, Exercise C 2.17

Part 2

Firstly, then, we have to accept that the growth of English as a lingua franca means that non-native speakers of English now outnumber native

speakers – not only that, but the evidence shows that there are now more conversations and communications between non-native speakers of English than between non-native speakers and native speakers. Some people say that English no longer belongs to its native speakers and that the supremacy of native-speaker phonology is under threat. In my view, this is true, and we native speakers have to accept it.

The status of native-speaker phonology as the standard was first challenged by excellent research conducted in the 1980s by Macaulay, using the example of Received Pronunciation. Briefly, in an article called 'RP RIP', he highlights the fact that, despite high regard for the accent, RP was, at that time, spoken by less than 3 per cent of the British population. Moreover, even this figure was decreasing. Research conducted in the late 1990s has demonstrated that the new generation of native speakers of British English tends to use non-RP vowels. Macaulay's work also draws attention to the difficulties which RP presents for learners, including the pronunciation of certain diphthongs.

Moreover, numerous linguists have suggested there are more efficient accent models than RP for learners of the English language – for example Scottish English. Incidentally, a lot of newsreaders in the UK are Scottish, and a lot of voice-overs for adverts use a Scottish accent, so perhaps it is better even for native speakers. Anyway, where was I? Oh, yes.

It is fair to say that many teachers now no longer consider native-speaker norms, such as those presented by RP, to be the goal of pronunciation. They suggest instead that intelligibility should be the aim of most language learners. That is all well and good. However, it should be remembered that what is intelligible for me may not be intelligible for you. Standard pronunciation arises in a speech community precisely to serve the purpose of mutual intelligibility. Therefore, it is hard to define what intelligible actually means, and even harder to teach.

With this challenge in mind, other linguists have aimed to identify shared native-speaker qualities which enable native speakers to communicate with speakers of other dialects of English. This has resulted in the attempt by some experts to describe a common core of pronunciation. Jenner gives a good description of what is now known as the Lingua Franca Core in an article entitled 'Teaching pronunciation: the common core'.

This shift in thinking presents a more achievable goal for learners of a second language by

removing the challenge of native-speaker pronunciation. Nevertheless, early models of the Lingua Franca Core still positioned native speakers as the main interlocutors with second-language users. Subsequent models, however, recognize that the situation has to some degree changed. Jenkins, for example, in *The phonology of English as an international language*, is in no doubt that communication between non-native speakers now plays an important role in the development of phonology.

I will now give you some examples of the phonological features of English and key considerations which are believed to be important for the Lingua Franca Core.

A situation which sometimes occurs when learners have pronunciation difficulties is known as phonetic realization. This happens when a mother-tongue sound is used in place of an English sound, which results in an approximation of the correct sound. As a result, a breakdown in intelligibility can sometimes occur. The use of the letters 'b' and 'v' in Spanish is a case in point. In Spanish 'b' and 'v' are pronounced in the same way, either as a bilabial stop /b/ when used at the start of a word or as a bilabial fricative like /v/ between vowels. But the consonants 'b' and 'v' can be in minimal opposition in English – there is a big difference between a *bet* and a *vet*, between *ban* and *van* and between *buy* and *vie*. Even if a Spanish speaker is going to speak in English to a French speaker, he must be able to make the meaningful phonemic distinctions in English.

With respect to vowels, the sounds in English are much longer than vowel sounds used in many other languages. Consequently, the *quality* of vowels is not as significant as the *length* of vowel sound used. Therefore, the appropriate use of short and long vowels in English is very important for learners. *Hit* is not the same as *heat*, you *sit* on a *seat*, and you *feel ill*, rather than *fill* an *eel*.

Unit 11, Lesson 2, Exercise F 🗣️ 2.18

Firstly, then, we have to accept that the growth of English as a lingua franca means that non-native speakers of English now outnumber native speakers – not only that, but the evidence shows that there are now more conversations and communications between non-native speakers of English than between non-native speakers and native speakers. Some people say that English no

longer belongs to its native speakers and that the supremacy of native-speaker phonology is under threat. In my view, this is true, and we native speakers have to accept it.

The status of native-speaker phonology as the standard was first challenged by excellent research conducted in the 1980s by Macaulay, using the example of Received Pronunciation. Briefly, in an article called 'RP RIP', he highlights the fact that, despite high regard for the accent, RP was, at that time, spoken by less than 3 per cent of the British population. Moreover, even this figure was decreasing. Research conducted in the late 1990s has demonstrated that the new generation of native speakers of British English tends to use non-RP vowels. Macaulay's work also draws attention to the difficulties which RP presents for learners, including the pronunciation of certain diphthongs.

Unit 11, Lesson 2, Exercise G 2.19

Extract 1

I'm going to discuss changes in the phonology of international English which have arisen from the current status of English. That is to say, I shall mainly be looking at the way in which the phonology of English, and attitudes towards pronunciation, are changing with the growth in new communities of English speakers around the world.

Extract 2

In addition, in an attempt to provide practical advice for teachers of English, I shall be considering how the Lingua Franca Core could help teachers with the teaching of appropriate pronunciation.

Extract 3

Don't misunderstand me. I don't want to imply that everybody should try to speak English like a native from the United Kingdom or the United States.

Extract 4

Firstly, then, we have to accept that the growth of English as a lingua franca means that non-native speakers of English now outnumber native speakers.

Extract 5

Not only that, but the evidence shows that there are now more conversations and communications

between non-native speakers of English than between non-native speakers and native speakers.

Extract 6

Briefly, in an article called 'RP RIP', he highlights the fact that, despite high regard for the accent, RP was, at that time, spoken by less than 3 per cent of the British population.

Extract 7

It is fair to say that many teachers now no longer consider native-speaker norms, such as those presented by RP, to be the goal of pronunciation.

Extract 8

Jenner gives a good description of what is now known as the Lingua Franca Core in an article entitled 'Teaching pronunciation: the common core'.

Extract 9

Subsequent models, however, recognize that the situation has to some degree changed.

Extract 10

Jenkins, for example, in *The phonology of English as an international language* is in no doubt that communication between non-native speakers now plays an important role in the development of phonology.

Extract 11

The use of the letters 'b' and 'v' in Spanish is a case in point.

Extract 12

With respect to vowels, the sounds in English are much longer than vowel sounds used in many other languages.

Unit 11, Lesson 3, Exercise A 2.20

'accent model
 bilabial 'fricative
 'language learner
 native 'speaker
 phonemic di'stinction
 phonetic reali'zation
 phonological 'feature
 received pronunci'ation
 'speech community
 'vowel sound

Unit 11, Lesson 3, Exercise B 2.21

Part 3

Let's turn now to the implications for teaching pronunciation to international students. If the Lingua Franca Core is our basis, then it is important that the best means of teaching is considered. This inevitably leads us to think about teacher training. The question is: who is best placed to exploit an in-depth understanding of the phonetics of English and the students' L1?

Let us consider the choice between two teachers who are both bilingual speakers of English and the students' L1. One comes from an Anglophone country, the other from the L1 speech community. Which teacher would be preferable? Some people would immediately suggest the native-speaker teacher, but I'm afraid that this choice isn't always the best.

While monolingual classes may not always represent the best forum for teaching pronunciation skills, classroom observations show that the language teacher who has experience of particular nationality groups and their L1 phonology probably has an advantage. Although an English native speaker may be able to demonstrate native-speaker modelling in the classroom, it is quite clear that the benefits of this are fairly limited. The research has concluded that satisfactory modelling can also be provided by a non-native speaker, based on the Lingua Franca Core. The evidence lies in the fact that the majority of learners of English as a foreign language manage to communicate in English with very little experience of native-speaker teaching.

In order to teach pronunciation in the monolingual classroom, teachers should be familiar with the phonetic systems both of English and of the students' L1. However, not all teacher-training courses delivered in English native-speaking countries test teachers' knowledge of phonetics or the use of IPA symbols. By contrast, in many countries where English is taught as a second language, studying to teach English requires the learning of the phonetics both of the students' L1 and the English system.

As far as empathy and psychological understanding are concerned, it is likely to be the non-native speaker teachers who have the edge, as they will have first-hand experience of their students' pronunciation difficulties. It is unlikely that native-speaker teachers have ever really had to adjust their pronunciation in order to make themselves understood in their own first language.

There are, of course, some exceptions for visitors to areas with different regional accents.

In conclusion, it is clear that English has become a language with international significance, and as a result the phonology of English no longer belongs solely to the native speaker. Approaching English from the perspective of international understanding, it is clear that students' pronunciation objectives can be considered quite differently. This has led linguists and teachers to consider the benefits of teaching the Lingua Franca Core, which has international intelligibility at its root and provides a more achievable objective. With this in mind, the ideal teacher of the Lingua Franca Core to groups of monolingual students is likely to be a fluent, bilingual speaker of either nationality; however, the non-native speaker teacher has certain key advantages.

OK. Here's your research task for next week's seminar. What is the attitude of people in your country to models of English pronunciation? I don't just mean the attitude of the Ministry of Education or whoever controls public and private teaching of English. I mean the attitudes of teachers and students as well. What sort of English do they want to learn? And could anything be done to change their attitude?

Unit 11, Lesson 3, Exercise E 2.22

The question is: who is best placed to exploit an in-depth understanding of the phonetics of English and the students' L1?

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majority of learners of English as a foreign language manage to communicate in English with very little experience of native-speaker teaching.

Unit 11, Lesson 4, Exercise E 2.23

Extract 1

The lecturer we listened to last week introduced a number of interesting issues. In my part of the seminar, I would like to build on what he said and talk about a number of policy changes which have been made in language teaching in my country over the last few years. Among these are changes to the way in which pronunciation is handled. Teaching is now based more on lingua franca interactions. In other words, people, in the Ministry of Education at least, are less concerned with native-speaker models.

Extract 2

OK, following on from what David has said, I'd like to mention some of the reasons why native-speaker models are still very popular in my country. It is clear that, as a result of my country's membership of the commonwealth, some people are reluctant to stop teaching RP. Basically, this means that schools still tend to aim for native-speaker accents. If they are looking to introduce a new classroom-based activity or policy, the government usually buys in research from native-speaking countries and this leads some people to think that native-speaker modelling is still the ideal. So, this is a kind of pedagogical imperialism.

Extract 3

I'm going to expand the topic by mentioning another important initiative which has been started in my country. Recently, the government has paid for research to identify the essential English pronunciation. Depending on the result of this project, the curriculum will be changed to allow teachers to teach English pronunciation based on core phonological features. Let me try and make this clearer with an example. For instance, where I come from, people have particular trouble pronouncing the English word *the*. If a new government language policy is adopted we can stop wasting time on learning to pronounce this word like a native speaker and move on to work on more important factors, such as vowel length.

Extract 4

As well as thinking about government policy, we need to think about personal preference. I think most people in my country want to learn English with American pronunciation, because they want to listen to American music, get jobs in American corporations and, perhaps, even travel to the States. Even if the government had a policy for some kind of international English pronunciation, I think people would still prefer to learn to produce an American accent. Sometimes Americans don't understand you when you use a British accent!

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Anthony Manning is Acting Director of the International Foundation Programme (IFP) at the University of Reading. Before joining the University of Reading, Anthony taught in France, Germany, China and Japan. He was also a lecturer at a Japanese College situated within the University of Durham, and at an International College in Reading. Anthony's research interests include English for specific purposes and English as a global language.



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