И.Д. МАМАЕВ

АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК ДЛЯ ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИХ ЦЕЛЕЙ

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Учебное пособие

Тематические разделы пособия охватывают широкий круг проблем, посвященных языкознанию (семантика, прагматика и пр.). В каждом разделе представлены оригинальные научные статьи на английском и русском языках, а также вспомогательные лексико-грамматические и переводные упражнения, нацеленные на усвоение англоязычной лингвистической терминологии. В приложениях содержатся списки речевых оборотов, которые помогут студентам построить грамотную академическую речь.

Предназначено для студентов, обучающихся по направлениям подготовки «Перевод и переводоведение», «Теоретическая и прикладная лингвистика», «Интеллектуальные системы в гуманитарной среде».

Р е ц е н з е н т канд. филол. наук, доц. каф. «Теоретическая и прикладная лингвистика» БГТУ «Военмех» *Г.Д. Невзорова*

Утверждено
редакционно-издательским
советом университета

I.D. MAMAEV

ENGLISH FOR LINGUISTIC PURPOSES

Study guide

М22   **Mamaev, I.D.**

English for linguistic purposes: study guide/ I.D. Mamaev. – St. Petersburg: Publishing house BSTU «VOENMEH» named after D.F. Ustinov. 2023. – 81 p.

English for specific purposes provides effective communication for contemporary professional linguists. The topical chapters of the study guide cover a wide range of issues related to linguistics (semantics, pragmatics, etc.). Each chapter contains original academic papers both in English and Russian, as well as useful vocabulary, grammatical and translation exercises that are aimed at mastering linguistic terminology in English. The appendices contain lists of speech patterns that will help students in writing a coherent academic speech.

It is recommended for students majoring in "Translation and Translation Studies", "Theoretical and Applied Linguistics", "Intelligent Systems in Humanities".

UNIT 1. AN INTRODUCTION TO ISSUES IN GENERAL LINGUISTICS

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

What is General Linguistics?

General Linguistics examines the diversity of language structures and use in the languages of the world – in other words, we examine and develop linguistic theory on a comparative basis. This includes both the search for common features (*language universals*) and probing the limits of variation in natural languages (*linguistic typology*). We assume that typology and research into universals is not limited to the structure of *sounds*, *words*, and *sentences*, but also extends into the level of meaning (*semantics/pragmatics*), the lexicon, and *discourse* structures.

We aim to study typology and universals on a broad and solid empirical base. We stress attention to primary data (audio and video recordings, written texts, experimental data). Because little is known about most of the over 7000 languages spoken in the world today, this includes language description and documentation (*linguistic fieldwork*), i.e., the compilation of an extensive *corpus* of varied primary data of a given idiom.

It is essential that the theories of language and grammar we work with be of use for language description and comparison. Particularly, structural properties found in a given language should be appraised as part of the language's system and not simply with reference to a theoretical model, so as not to suffer from euro-centric bias. Linguistic theory must also be able to address the *cognitive* and social roots of language-based thinking and acting, which means considering language structure and use as being part of *communicative behavior* as a whole.

Language comparison is not limited to contrasting language structures and types of language use from different parts of the world, but also includes studying the *chronological development* of historical stages of one and the same language (language change). The study of language change not only examines and systemizes diversity, but also tries to answer the question of the mechanisms of linguistic diversification and of why languages are different and constantly changing in the first place.

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
extralinguistic	Any element which is postulated by the linguist but which has no realization in language, e.g., the plural morpheme which some linguists might assume to be present, but not realized
paradigm [ˈpærədaɪm]	A reference to one point of time in a language
structuralism	The set of forms belonging to a particular word-class or member of a word-class
synchronic	A reference to linguistics in which the main aim is to list and classify features and phenomena
zero	A type of linguistic analysis which stresses the interrelatedness of all levels and sub-levels of language. It was introduced at the beginning of the 20th century by Ferdinand de Saussure
taxonomic [tækˈsɒnəmɪ]	The possibility of using language to talk about language
sign language	An application of a word to another with which it is figuratively but not literally associated
reflexiveness	A situation where the linguist chooses to ignore details of language use for reasons of greater generalization
metaphor	A communication system in which people use their hands to convey signals
idealization	Any phenomenon which lies outside of language

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. What are the different levels of linguistic analysis? Determine the relationship between linguistics and other disciplines.
2. Can you describe the kinds of questions scholars explore in linguistics? Why are they pivotal?
3. Do you know anything about the relationship between research in linguistics and artificial intelligence (AI)? What roles might linguistics scholarship play in the next era of AI research?
4. How will the English language look like in a century? Explain why.
5. What are the most popular constructed languages? Why is it difficult to construct a unified language?
6. Give any examples of synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of languages. Are synchronic and diachronic approaches connected with each other? If so, why?
7. What is the (Sapir–Whorf) hypothesis of linguistic relativity about? Give some examples.
8. What is linguistic ambiguity? Give some examples.
9. Describe such a Saussurean dichotomy as *Language and Speech*.

10. What is sociolinguistics about?

Task 4. Translate the following text into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

Согласно Соссюру, язык — то, что нужно изучать в первую очередь. Всё функционирование языка — речь — можно отодвинуть на второй план или «на потом». Соссюр противопоставил внутреннюю лингвистику, изучающую язык, и внешнюю лингвистику, исследующую прочие виды речевой деятельности. Лекция о речи в его курсе для студентов, положенном в основу книги, имелась в плане, но так и не была прочитана. Идеи Соссюра позволили более строго и последовательно заниматься теми проблемами, которые и раньше находились в центре внимания лингвистов, когда они писали грамматики и составляли словари. Поэтому противопоставление языка и речи было принято большинством ученых первой половины XX в., как и предложенная им расстановка приоритетов. На этом постулате основывалось большинство школ структурной лингвистики, господствовавшей в мировой науке о языке в 1920–1950-е гг. (в нашей стране ее расцвет пришелся на 1960–1970-е гг.). Но и языковеды, не принадлежавшие к структурному лагерю, обычно занимались теми проблемами, которые Соссюр отнес к языку…

В. М. Алпатов. Языкознание: От Аристотеля до компьютерной лингвистики

Task 5. Do you know David Crystal who is one of the most popular contemporary linguists? Watch one of his speeches that is dedicated to reflecting on the future of the English language[1]. Do you agree with Crystal's idea on English becoming the global language? Speak for at least 3 minutes.

Task 6. Complete the following quotes by Ferdinand de Saussure. Fill in the gaps with suitable prepositions.

1. … language, thought is a vague, uncharted nebula. 2. Psychologically our thought – apart … its expression in words – is only a shapeless and indistinct mass. 3. Speech has both an individual and a social

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[1] BritishCouncilSerbia. (2013, December 14). *David Crystal - Will English Always Be the Global Language?* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5 Kvs8SxN8mc

side, and we cannot conceive … one without the other. 4. A linguistic system is a series of differences of sound combined … a series of differences of ideas. 5. … the study of language to remain solely the business of a handful of specialists would be a quite unacceptable state of affairs. 6. In practice, the study of language is … some degree or other the concern of everyone. 7. But a paradoxical consequence … this general interest is that no other subject has fostered more absurd notions, more prejudices, more illusions, or more fantasies. 8. … a psychological point of view, these errors are … interest in themselves. 9. But it is the primary task … the linguist to denounce them, and to eradicate them as completely as possible. 10. It is useful … the historian, among others, to be able to see the commonest forms of different phenomena, whether phonetic, morphological or other, and how language lives, carries on and changes … time.

Task 7. Create 10 linguistic sentences with the words from tasks 1 and 2. Write them down into your glossary.

Task 8. Translate the following text into Russian. Pay special attention to translating English terms.

…Sentences are made up of words. In principle, we could refer to these basic building blocks by indicating where in a sentence a word occurs. For instance, if we want to refer to *cat* in *My first cat was called Felix*, we might say 'the third word'. Or we could identify *wood carving* in *My brother's favourite hobby is wood carving* by referring to the 'sixth and seventh word'. It will be obvious that this is not a very efficient way of going about it. It is also counterintuitive: language functions in predictable, systematic, generalizable ways. And the fact that in *My first cat was called Felix*, we can replace the word cat with *dog, goldfish, monkey* or *parakeet* but not with *sings, handsome, quickly, behind* or *since* is no coincidence.

Indeed, sentences are much more than simple strings of words. Sentences in English are structured on the basis of a limited number of underlying principles. It is therefore much more efficient to use specific terms to refer to words in sentences that behave in the same way. For instance, **nouns** can be easily recognized because, unlike verbs, they can be preceded by words such as *the, these* or *every* (words we call **determiners**): *the grass, these birds, every student*. **Adjectives** can be identified relatively easily because they almost always either occur between a determiner and a noun (*the fluffy clouds*) or are used to characterize the subject referent after a verb like be, look or seem (*Those clouds are/look/seem fluffy*). When we use words like 'noun', 'determiner'

and 'adjective', we are referring to what are traditionally called **parts of speech**…

Task 9. It is time you made your own presentations on the general issues in linguistics. Here is the list of open-access articles that you can easily find on the Internet. Your task is to choose one of them and render it in English. Remember to:
- introduce the work;
- mention the sources that authors use in their studies;
- describe the method of the research;
- report the authors' results;
- give your own comments on the article.

It is also important to use some academic phrases that allow you to sound more natural (see the *Appendices* section). Don't forget to support your speech with a presentation.

1. LIEBER, R., & PLAG, I. (2021). The semantics of conversion nouns and -ing nominalizations: A quantitative and theoretical perspective. Journal of Linguistics, 1-37. doi:10.1017/S0022226721000311.

2. VAN DER KLIS, M., LE BRUYN, B., & DE SWART, H. (2021). A multilingual corpus study of the competition between past and perfect in narrative discourse. Journal of Linguistics, 1-35. doi:10.1017/S0022226721000244.

3. KINN, T. (2022). Regular and compositional aspects of NPN constructions. Journal of Linguistics, 58(1), 1-35. doi:10.1017/S0022226721000116.

4. HOGEWEG, L., & VICENTE, A. (2020). On the nature of the lexicon: The status of rich lexical meanings. Journal of Linguistics, 56(4), 865-891. doi:10.1017/S0022226720000316

5. BRANDTLER, J. (2019). The question of form in the forming of questions: The meaning and use of clefted wh-interrogatives in Swedish. Journal of Linguistics, 55(4), 755-794. doi:10.1017/S0022226718000634.

6. POLGÁRDI, K. (2015). Syncope, syllabic consonant formation, and the distribution of stressed vowels in English. Journal of Linguistics, 51(2), 383-423. doi:10.1017/S0022226714000486

7. HASPELMATH, M. (2021). Explaining grammatical coding asymmetries: Form–frequency correspondences and predictability. Journal of Linguistics, 57(3), 605-633. doi:10.1017/S0022226720000535.

8. SIMS-WILLIAMS, H. (2021). Token frequency as a determinant of morphological change. Journal of Linguistics, 1-37. doi:10.1017/S0022226721000438.

UNIT 2. PHONETICS

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

Phonetics: The Study of Speech Sounds

Phonetics is concerned with the wide variety of sounds used by speakers of human languages. There is a huge number of possible *speech sounds*, also called *phones* or *segments*, of which each individual language uses only a small portion. It is, however, important to note that any human, child or adult, can learn how to pronounce all of these sounds, even the ones that do not usually occur in their native languages.

There are three types of phonetics that reflect three different ways to approach speech sounds:

Table 1 – The three types of phonetics

Type	Field of study
articulatory phonetics	The study of *the production of speech sounds*. It describes how the organs of speech, also called articulators, are used to produce, i.e. articulate, the individual speech sounds and classifies them according to the involved mechanism of production
acoustic phonetics	The study of *the transmission and the physical properties of speech sounds*. It is an objective approach to describing sounds, concerned with measuring and analysing the physical properties (such as *duration*, *frequency* and *intensity*) of the sound waves we produce when we speak
auditory phonetics	The study of *the perception of speech sounds*. It studies how sounds are perceived and processed by the listener

These three main phases of the speech chain can also be depicted in diagram form, keeping in mind that the brain of the speaker controls the production of speech sounds and the brain of the listener has to analyze the sounds received by the ear...

The *sound-producing system* has three basic components that are involved in the production of speech sounds: first *the lungs*, second *the larynx* (or voice box) containing *the vocal folds* (= folds of muscle popularly known as vocal cords) and the *glottis* (= the space between the vocal folds), and third *the vocal tract* above the larynx, including the oral and nasal cavities.

The majority of sounds used in the world's languages are produced by an airstream that is pushed up from the lungs (= pulmonic) and leaves the body through the mouth or the nose, or sometimes both (= egressive 'outwards'). This is called an *egressive pulmonic airstream mechanism*.

All English speech sounds are produced in this way. Other airstream mechanisms are possible, e.g. mechanisms making use of ingressive airstream (= ingressive 'inwards'), but will not be discussed here.

The airstream from the lungs is modified by the so-called *organs of speech* (or *articulators*) to produce a variety of different sounds. The description and classification of sounds for the most part depends on how and where the airstream is modified by these articulators. We distinguish movable (or mobile) *active articulators* that can be voluntarily controlled, such as the lips or the tongue, and immovable (or non-mobile) *passive articulators* that cannot be voluntarily controlled, such as the alveolar ridge or the hard palate. Despite the name "organs of speech", however, it must be pointed out that biological functions, in particular eating and breathing rather than speech, are the primary purpose of these organs…

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
affricate	It is a place of articulation characterized by the tip of the tongue being held against the back of the upper teeth
allophone	It is a system of transcribing the sounds of languages which consists of some Latin and Greek letters and a variety of additional symbols and diacritics
alveolar	It is a term which refers to all the suprasegmental properties of language such as pitch, loudness, tempo and rhythm
dental	That part of the sound system of a language which involves the use of pitch to convey information
glottal	It is a phonetic segment which consists of a stop followed immediately by a fricative
glide	It is a term referring to sounds produced at the gap in the vocal folds
IPA	It is a realization of a phoneme
labio-dental	It is a classification of sounds which are formed at the alveolar ridge (the bone plate behind the upper teeth)
intonation	It is a sound which from the point of view of phonological classification lies between a vowel and a consonant. It is formed with little friction and has a high degree of sonority which accounts for why glides are found near the nucleus of syllables. Sometimes called a semi-vowel
prosody	This term describes a consonant which is formed by the lower lip making contact with the upper teeth as in English and German *[f]* and *[v]*

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. What is a monophthong?
2. What are the characteristics of diphthongs?

3. Can you provide us with examples of onomatopoeia in English?
4. What are the nasal sounds in English?
5. What is the manner of articulation for the *[p]* sound?
6. Why are limericks useful for training phonetic skills?
7. In what situations does one use low fall?
8. In what situations does one use low rise?
9. What are the differences between American pronunciation and British pronunciation?
10. What is vowel reduction in phonetics?

Task 4. Translate the following text into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

Устная речь воспринимается на слух как слитный поток разнообразных, часто повторяющихся звуков, производимых речевым аппаратом. Все положения и движения речевых органов, которые в своем взаимодействии производят звуки языка, мы условимся называть артикуляциями, а различные изменения тона голоса – интонацией. Так как артикуляция и интонация в живой речи неотделимы друг от друга, термин «произношение» должен пониматься как совокупность этих фонетических компонентов устной речи.

Вследствие своих специфических законов развития звуковая форма речи значительно отклоняется от буквенного письма. В силу этого обстоятельства фонетика, предметом которой является устная речь, пользуется своей системой знаков звукового обозначения. Запись речи с помощью такой системы называется транскрипцией. Знаки фонетической транскрипции обычно даются в квадратных скобках.

Речевой аппарат человека, независимо от того, каков его родной язык, представляет собой анатомически одну и ту же структуру. Из этого, однако, не следует, что и звуки различных языков должны быть одинаковыми. В действительности тождественность строения речевого аппарата у людей, говорящих на разных языках, проявляется лишь в том, что в звуковых системах языков можно наблюдать общие звуковые типы и общие закономерности в модуляциях голоса. Так, например, во всех языках можно обнаружить различные виды двугубных согласных типа *[м, б, п]*; те или иные артикуляции переднеязычных или заднеязычных согласных; в каждом языке имеется какой-либо оттенок гласных типа *[а]* или *[о]* и, наконец, те или иные разновидности повышения и понижения голоса при произнесении слов и предложений.

Тщательное изучение тождественных по типу звуков из различных языков показывает, что, несмотря на внешнее сходство по акустическому впечатлению, они артикулируются не одними и теми же, а особыми, характерными для каждого языка укладами и движениями органов речи, своеобразным режимом речевого дыхания, голоса и мышечного напряжения. Весь комплекс таких специфических особенностей языка называется его артикуляционной базой…

А.Л. Терехов. Практический курс фонетики английского языка

Task 5. In Old English, *[f]* and *[v]* were in complementary distribution. Unlike Modern English, this means that *[f]* and *[v]* were allophones of the phoneme */f/* and that there were no minimal pairs involving these phones. Analyse the following data from the *Lord's Prayer* by looking at the phonetic environments and the position in which the allophones occur. Define the phonetic environments in which the two allophones of */f/* occur in Old English and try to state the resulting phonological rule, generalising as much as possible.

[ˈfaeder] – fæder *'father'*
[ˈheovon] – heofon *'heaven'*
[hla:f] – half *'loaf (of bread)'*
[ˈyvele] – yfele *'evilly, badly'*

Task 6. Give the conventional spelling or spellings for the following English words and phrases provided in broad transcription.
a) /tʃiːt/
b) /sʌn/
c) /baɪt/
d) /əʊld ˈɪŋglɪʃ/
e) /əˌsɪmɪˈleɪʃ(ə)n/
f) /lɪŋˈgwɪstɪks ɪz fʌn/
g) /fəʊˈnetɪks tuː/
h) /ˈhærɪ ˈpɒtə/
i) /dʒɔːdʒ ˈdʌbljuː bʊʃ/

Task 7. Read the text below and fill in the gaps.

intonation, transcription, speech, language, stress, hearing, speaking

Imagine you're sitting in a busy restaurant in a big city _____ many different foreign languages spoken. It's noisy, but you want to impress your friends with your (amazing) ability to tell which _____ is which. One important clue to help you is language melody, which

includes _____ (when a syllable is louder, longer, and higher because the talker uses extra breath) and _____ (a changing tune during a phrase or sentence). For instance, someone _____ Spanish has a very different melody than someone speaking Mandarin, and you can hear it if you know what you're listening for. However, capturing these details in written _____ is much more difficult, particularly if you need to compare healthy and disordered _____...

Task 8. Read the text below and fill in the gaps.

> men, creaky, linguists, surveys, characteristic, media

Creaking as the new cool?

Creaky voice is rather noticeable and can be introduced into singing styles to give a _____ quality to the voice (think of Britney Spears, Ke$ha, and Lady Gaga). Other _____ personality figures such as the Kardashian sisters have a creaky quality.

Recent studies have led some _____ to question whether creaky voice may be picking up in the United States, perhaps as a fad among young, white, urban upscale women. Some _____ have shown a surprisingly high rate of fry register in the voices of these subjects (in one study, more than two-thirds of the 34 young American women sampled). Creaky voice was formerly thought to be more prevalent in _____. For example, a British survey showed higher _____ voice usage among men. Some sociolinguists suggest that an emphasis on creaky voice may be a kind of group bonding thing, where participants indicate they're hanging out with the right crowds. At this writing, the sample sizes are small and it isn't certain exactly what's going on.

UNIT 3. MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

Morphology and syntax as two parts of linguistic description

In linguistics, *syntax* is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages. The term **syntax** is also used to refer directly to the rules and principles that govern the sentence structure of any individual language.

In linguistics, *morphology* is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of a given language's *morphemes* and other linguistic units, such as *root words*, *affixes*, *parts of speech*,

intonation/stress, or *implied context* (words in a lexicon are the subject matter of lexicology).

As the *word* is the main unit of traditional grammatical theory, it serves the basis of the distinction which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax. Morphology deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their *grammatical categories* and their *semantics* while traditional syntax deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics). We can therefore say that the word is the main unit of morphology.

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. First of all, it is the main expressive unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language, it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of *'language'* and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit, the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides – the content and expression sides: concept and sound form.

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
indicative	The form in which a sentence actually appears in speech; contrast this with *deep structure*
case	A part of a word to which prefixes and/or suffixes can be added
inflection	A non-distinctive variant of a morpheme, e.g. *-keit* and *-heit* in German (*Heiterkeit, Schönheit*) which vary according to the final consonant of the base to which they are suffixed but share the same grammatical function of nominal derivation
stem	An inflection which indicates the relationship of a noun to other elements in a sentence
suppletion	Any linguistic element which requires the presence of another in a structure or whose form is determined by another element or a grammatical category
dependent	A form in a paradigm which etymologically comes from another source, e.g., the past tense form *went* in English is not formally related to the verb *go*
noun phrase	A factual mood which is used to make statements rather than issue commands (imperative) or make uncertain, hypothetical statements (subjunctive)

Words	Definitions
subordination	Any part of a sentence which has a noun as its head
surface structure	A general reference to a relationship of dependence between two elements, units or phrases
allomorph	An alteration made to a word to indicate a certain grammatical category, e.g., number and case with nouns or person, number and tense with verbs

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. What is a morphological adaptation? Give some examples of the morphological adaptation of loanwords.
2. What is a clitic? Give some examples from the Russian or English language.
3. Do affixes have any meanings? If so, give some examples.
4. What is an infix? Give some examples.
5. Think of the feminitives in the Russian language. What affixes are used to form them? Do they have any meanings? If there are two options for creating a feminitives, which one would you choose and why?
6. What is an allomorph? What are the allomorphs of the morpheme with the meaning "plural" in this set of English words: criteria, dogs, oxen, deer, judges, stimuli?
7. What is a reduplication? Give some examples.
8. What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence? When he arrived in the morning, the old man had an umbrella and a large plastic bag full of books.
9. What is a morphological derivation? Give some examples.
10. What is a compound in linguistics? Give some examples.

Task 4. Translate the following text about morphology into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

…Слово «морфология» составлено из двух древнегреческих корней и в переводе означает, собственно, «учение о форме» (*ср.* традиционный немецкий аналог *Formenlehre*, буквально воспроизводящий структуру греческой модели). Сам этот термин не является специфичным для лингвистики и возник также вне лингвистики: в 1822 г. … Гёте предложил использовать его в естественных науках (в биологии, физиологии и геологии он применяется для описания различных «форм» живой и неживой природы до сих пор). В лингвистику же он оказался перенесен только во второй половине XIX в., когда «биологическая метафора» вообще, как известно, была в исследовании языка очень популярна.

В лингвистике, однако, значение этого термина (несмотря на авторитет Гёте, стоявшего у его колыбели) оказалось в конечном счете весьма далеким от первоначального «изучения форм»... Наиболее общепринятое и устоявшееся в современной науке понимание хорошо сформулировано И. А. Мельчуком: «Морфология есть часть лингвистики, занимающаяся словом во всех его релевантных аспектах»…

В. А. Плунгян. Общая морфология

Task 5. Translate the following text about syntax into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

…Синтаксис как наука о строении словосочетания и предложения имеет две основные задачи: описательную и объяснительную (теоретическую). Синтаксическое описание – это множество правил, которые характеризуют синтаксический компонент знания языка. При составлении этих правил используется грамматический метаязык – термины и символы с определенным значением и правила их употребления.

Задача объяснения при исследовании синтаксиса, как и вообще в науке, заключается в том, чтобы понять, почему наблюдаемые факты именно таковы, какие они есть. Это означает, в частности, ответ на вопрос, почему синтаксические структуры в различных языках, в том числе не связанных ни родством, ни географической близостью, обнаруживают многочисленные (и нередко поразительные) сходства. Описание имеет дело с каким-то одним языком, объяснение (теория) — с Языком вообще…

Я. Г. Тестелец. Введение в общий синтаксис

Task 6. Does grammar matter? Nowadays it is believed that the communication between people can exist without using proper grammar rules. Do you agree with this statement? Watch one of the TED videos[2] and deliver your own speech on the importance of grammar. Speak for at least 3 minutes.

Task 7. Complete the following quotes about morphology and syntax. Fill in the gaps with suitable prepositions.

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[2] TED-ed. (2016, April 12). *Does grammar matter?* [Video]. TED. https://www.ted.com/talks/andreea_s_calude_does_grammar_matter

1. Speech is more intimate … its syntax than writing. It has shorter clauses and more no-content words to link these clauses up. Writing is denser, … longer clauses and more content words. Speech is simple words … complex sentences; writing is complex words … simple sentences (*Joe Moran*). 2. Florid language frequently leads … merry lovemaking when accompanied … the correct diction, syntax, and timing (*Stewart Stafford*). 3. Morris's general style … interaction … his students most certainly also contributes … his and their success … advancing our knowledge of morphology (*Ora Matushansky*). 4. I escape disaster … writing a poem … a joke in it: The past, present, and future walk … a bar—it was tense (*Kelli Russell Agodon*). 5. Syntax is the study … the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed … particular languages. Syntactic investigation … a given language has as its goal the construction of a grammar that can be viewed as a device of some sort … producing the sentences of the language under analysis (*Noam Chomsky*). 6. Bad writing is more than a matter … (expletive deleted) syntax and faulty observation; bad writing usually arises … a stubborn refusal to tell stories … what people actually do to face the fact, let us say, that murderers sometimes help old ladies cross the street (*Stephen King*). 7. And so for example, say the relation … a verb and an object, a transitive verb and an object is the same semantically whether the verb precedes or follows the object, it doesn't care, you know (*Noam Chomsky*). 8. Moving … the conventional direction, phonetics concerns the acoustic dimensions of linguistic sound. Phonology studies the clustering of those acoustic properties … significant cues. Morphology studies the clustering of those cues … meaningful units. Syntax studies the arrangement of those meaningful units … expressive sequences. Semantics studies the composite meaning of those sequences (*Randy Allen Harris*).

Task 8. Write an essay on one of the following topics.

- Grammar is politics by other means.
- Grammar is the greatest joy in life, don't you find?
- Grammar and logic free language from being at the mercy of the tone of voice.
- I was born to be a punctuation vigilante.
- The greater part of the world's troubles is due to questions of grammar.

Task 9. Make a review on an article that is dedicated to the morphology and syntax of any language.

UNIT 4. CURRENT STUDIES IN SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

Semantics

Semantics, the study of word meaning and sentence meaning, abstracted away from contexts of use, is a descriptive subject. It is an attempt to describe and understand the nature of the knowledge about meaning in their language that people have from knowing the language. It is not a *prescriptive* enterprise with an interest in advising or pressuring speakers or writers into abandoning some meanings and adopting others (though pedants can certainly benefit from studying the semantics of a language they want to lay down rules about, to become clear on what aspects of *conventional meaning* they dislike and which they favour). A related point is that one can know a language perfectly well without knowing its history. While it is fascinating to find out about the historical currents and changes that explain why there are similarities in the *pronunciations* or *spellings* of words that share similarities in meaning – for example: **arms** (body parts, weapons) **army, armada and armadillo** – this kind of knowledge is not essential for using present-day English... Historical linguists investigating language change over time sometimes concern themselves with semantic (and pragmatic) matters. They are then doing historical (linguistic) semantics (and/or pragmatics).

Semantic description of language knowledge is different from the encyclopedia maker's task of cataloguing general knowledge. The words **tangerine** and **clementine** illustrate distinctions that are not part of our knowledge of English, but rather a fruiterer's kind of expertise, which some other people also know, but which most users of English do not have to know. As long as they are aware that these are citrus fruits, they do not need English lessons on this point…

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
connotation	A collective term for sets of meanings which are taken to belong together, e.g. *colour, furniture, food, clothes*
denotation	The relationship between a word and the non-linguistic, 'outside' world
semantic field	Additional meaning which arises due to the associations a word has
speech act	A statement which can be assessed as being true or false

Words	Definitions
proposition	The act of speaking with another individual
synonym	A set of words which always co-occur and where the meaning is not necessarily derived by concatenating the individual parts of the idiom
sense relations	That part of a sentence which is the focus of interest and usually introduced at the beginning
topic	A word which is taken to have the same meaning as one or more other words
comment	The semantic relationships which obtain between words as opposed to those which hold between words and the outside world
idiom	A term applied to the new information conveyed in a sentence

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. How is semantics related to other linguistic disciplines?
2. What problems can arise in the semantic classification of words?
3. Think about what words can be attributed to the *empire* semantic field? What references will you use for searching for information?
4. What is the nature of the relationship between the signified and the signifier in the sign?
5. What do you know about Roget's Thesaurus?
6. Do you know anything about other meanings of the *semantics* word? If so, what are they?
7. What is WordNet? If you failed to know anything about it, surf the Net to find out more information.
8. What is valence? Give some examples in Russian and English.

Task 4. Translate the following text into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

…Кобозева, утверждая, что предмет лингвистической семантики двойственен, определяет семантику не как науку о значении языковых выражений, а как «раздел языкознания, изучающий содержание единиц языка и тех речевых произведений, которые из этих единиц строятся». Она обращает внимание на то, что во многих языках, в том числе и в русском, различаются понятия «значение» и «смысл», *Sinn* и *Bedeutung* по-немецки, *sense* и *meaning* по-английски, *sens* и *signification* по-французски и т.д. Толковые словари приводят эти слова как синонимы, однако интуитивно носитель языка чувствует, что это не одно и то же. Анализируя многие примеры, Кобозева приходит к выводу, что «значение» воспринимается обыденным сознанием как часть некой знаковой системы, а «смысл» – как некий экстенсионал, проецирование содержания на когнитивную и коммуникативную сферы…

…В итоге Кобозева приходит к выводу, что значение и смысл – два нетождественных, хотя и близких концепта. Для прояснения смысла она вводит параметр времени Т: «Значение Х-а – это информация, связываемая с Х-ом конвенционально, т.е. согласно общепринятым правилам использования Х-а в качестве средства передачи информации. Смысл Х-а для Y-а Т – это информация, связываемая с Х-ом в сознании Y-а в период времени Т, когда Y производит или воспринимает Х в качестве средства передачи информации» …

С. А. Гашков. История семантики. Семантика в кругу наук

Task 5. It is time you focused on lexical semantics. Watch the video[3] and comment on it in terms of linguistics. Why is it crucial to study lexical semantics nowadays?

Task 6. Read the following idea by Anna Wierzbicka, a well-known polish linguist. Answer the questions.

…How is it possible to admit that to study language is to study the correlations between sound and meaning and, at the same time, to try to keep linguistics maximally "meaning-free"? Bloomfield's own reason for this contradictory position is quite clear: he wanted linguistics to be a serious and rigorous discipline – "a science"; and it was not clear at the time how, if at all, meaning could be studied in a rigorous and "scientific" manner. In fact, even today, many defenders of the central role of meaning in linguistics don't seem to mind if meaning is spoken of in a loose, vague, ad hoc way, without any coherent methodology. On this point, I must say that I agree with Bloomfield: if we really want to study, in a rigorous way, correlations between sounds and meanings (or between forms and meanings), our standards of rigour and coherence in talking about meaning shouldbe just as high and exacting as in talking about sounds and forms.

As I have tried to demonstrate for a quarter of a century, the key to a rigorous and yet insightful talk about meaning lies in the notion of semantic primitives (or semantic primes).

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[3] Ashworth, E. (2020, September 24). *Lexical semantics*. YouTube. Retrieved June 3, 2022, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=e_3h0fB8Rhg&ab_channel=EvanAshworth

To take an example. Two prominent researchers into child language and the authors of a very valuable study on the acquisition of meaning, Lucia French and Katherine Nelson start their discussion of the concept "if" by saying: "it is difficult to provide a precise definition of the word *if*". Then, after some discussion, they conclude: "the fundamental meaning of *if*, in both logic and ordinary language, is one of implication".

Two common assumptions are reflected in these statements. First, that it is possible to define all words — including *if* — and second, that if a word seems difficult to define, one had better reach for a scientific word of Latin origin (such as *implication*) to 'define' it with. In my view, these assumptions are not only false; they jointly constitute a stumbling block for semantic analysis. One cannot define all words, because the very idea of 'defining' implies that there is not only something to be defined (a definiendum) but also something to define it with (a set of definables) …

1. How do you define *semantic primes*?
2. Give some primes of such semantic categories as *speech*, *mental predicates*, *time*, *space*, and *logical concepts*.
3. Can these primes have any syntactic relations? If you doubt, try to find an answer in some reference book.
4. Why is it difficult to apply unified semantic primes for all the languages?
5. In your opinion, is it possible to turn linguistics into a serious and rigorous discipline — "a science" (by Bloomfield)?

Task 7. Identify the meaning relation of the words for each of the following pairs.

1) leave – return;
2) chair-leg – chair;
3) young – old;
4) bright – intelligent;
5) examiner – examinee;
6) flower – rose;
7) freedom – liberty.

Task 8. Explain the structural ambiguity in the following sentences. Draw syntactic trees of each sentence and denote the ambiguity.

1) The student hit the teacher with the book.
2) I shot an elephant in my pajamas.
3) A lady watched an actor with opera glasses.

4) Fighting animals could be dangerous.
5) Visiting relatives can be tiresome.

Task 9. When discussing the nature of meaning, we distinguished between extension and intension. Give the extension and intension of each word or phrase. Fill in the following table.

Words or Phrases	Extensions	Intensions
Prime Minister of the United Kingdom		
capital of United States		
King of the United Kingdom		
vegetable		
daughter of Homer Simpson		
President of Russia		
ship		

Task 10. Once J.R. Firth said, *"You shall know a word by the company it keeps."* Comment on this statement. Write a short essay. Use more than 200 words.

Task 11. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

What Does Pragmatics Do?

Pragmatics is the systematic study of how people understand and communicate more than the literal meaning of words or sentences when they speak, write or gesture, or, in more general terms, when they interpret and produce what linguists call *utterances*. Utterances are spoken, written or gestured contributions within a particular social context that derive their meaning partly from that context. Therefore, pragmatics is also called the study of *utterance meaning*, or *meaning in context*, or *meaning in interaction*. These terms take into account that contexts develop and redevelop dynamically, most markedly when we engage in live encounters with others. Our utterances are not only shaped by the contexts in which they occur but also create new contexts for what can follow. In other words, they are not only *context shaped* but also *context renewing*. This chapter focuses mainly on a selection of central pragmatic principles and processes that enable us to create and interpret meaning in context.

Why do we very often not spell out explicitly what we mean? On the one hand, this has to do with saving effort by leaving many things unsaid. On the other hand, it has to do with social and cultural norms, which may vary strongly across cultures. Differences in how humans from different

cultures use and understand language, and linguistic phenomena that occur when people from different cultures communicate, are examined and compared within *cross-cultural pragmatics* and *intercultural pragmatics*. Cross-cultural and intercultural pragmatics are two closely related and relatively new subfields of pragmatic research. In the age of globalisation, studies of this kind are rapidly gaining importance.

Students of a foreign language will know from their own experience, for example as exchange students or from travels, that the best theoretical command of a language is not sufficient as soon as it comes to communicating with real people. As you know from the chapters on syntax and semantics, our general linguistic competence provides us with rules that tell us how to judge whether a sentence is grammatical, and how to make sense of single words or single sentences. But as indicated above, this may not be sufficient when you try to communicate with other people. What you need to successfully communicate in face-to-face conversation, on the telephone, or when writing letters, e-mails or text messages, is *pragmatic competence*. Pragmatic competence is the ability to use language appropriately within social contexts…

Task 12. Explain the *deixis* term. Give some examples of such types of deixis as *person deixis*, *place deixis*, *time deixis*, *social deixis*, *discourse deixis*.

Task 13. Translate the following text into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

Термин «прагматика» (от греч. *πράγμα* – «дело», «действие») был введен в научный обиход одним из основателей семиотики — общей теории знаков — Ч. Моррисом. Следуя идеям Ч. Пирса, Моррис разделил семиотику на семантику — учение об отношении знаков к объектам действительности, синтактику — учение об отношениях между знаками и прагматику — учение об отношении знаков к их интерпретаторам, то есть к тем, кто пользуется знаковыми системами. Прагматика, таким образом, изучает поведение знаков в реальных процессах коммуникации. В качестве основной предшественницы прагматики Ч. Моррис назвал риторику.

Приведенная характеристика, возможно, достаточна для построения общей семиотической теории, но не для определения области, конкретных задач и проблем прагматических исследований естественных языков, которые, постепенно расширяясь, обнаруживают тенденцию к стиранию границ между лингвистикой и смежными дисциплинами (психологией, социологией и этнографией), с одной

стороны, и соседствующими разделами лингвистики (семантикой, риторикой, стилистикой) — с другой. Прагматика отвечает синтетическому подходу к языку.

…Дейксис и оценочные предикаты акцентировали связь значения с переменной величиной из области внеязыковой действительности, идентифицируемой через субъект речи: местоимения указывали на переменные предметы, оценочные предикаты — на переменные признаки. Служебные слова не позволяли отвлечься от другой переменной величины — речевого контекста, эксплицитного и имплицитного. Наконец, коммуникативная установка связывала высказывание с меняющимися участниками коммуникации — субъектом речи и ее получателем, фондом их знаний и мнений, ситуацией (местом и временем), в которой осуществляется речевой акт.

Совокупность названных факторов образует мозаику широко понимаемого контекста, который как раз и открывает вход в прагматику смежных дисциплин и обеспечивает ей синтезирующую миссию.

Контекст находится в отношении дополнительности к другому, центральному для прагматики понятию — речевому акту. Взаимодействие речевого акта и контекста составляет основной стержень прагматических исследований, а формулирование правил этого взаимодействия — ее главную задачу. Анализ значения дескриптивных слов «тянет» в сторону семантики, а определение недескриптивных значений — в сторону прагматики. Для первых характерна семантическая чувствительность, вторые чувствительны к контексту. Чтобы правильно употребить слова *лампа* или *зеленый*, главное — не ошибиться в выборе внеязыкового объекта. Для того чтобы корректно пользоваться словами такого типа, как *ты, даже, сегодня, здесь, ведь, же, еще, только* и т. п., сведения о прагматическом окружении очень важны.

Различение слов, ориентированных на денотат, и слов, лишенных такой направленности, было одним из отправных тезисов логической семантики. Б. Рассел пользовался для обозначения этих категорий терминами указательные (indicative) и неуказательные слова.

Если значению конкретных (индикативных, идентифицирующих) имен может быть дано остенсивное или дескриптивное определение, то раскрытие смысла недескриптивных слов неотъемлемо от их употребления в контекстно и ситуативно обусловленном высказывании. «Когда вы хотите объяснить слово "*лев*"», – писал Б. Рассел, – «вы можете повести вашего ребенка в зоопарк и сказать ему: "Смотри, вот лев!"». Но не существует такого зоопарка, где вы могли бы показать ему

"если", или "этот", или "тем не менее", так как эти слова не являются индикативными».

Наряду со служебными элементами языка, о которых упоминает Рассел, тонкой контекстной чуткостью обладают слова, связывающие смысл предложения с говорящим. Понятие субъекта речи объединило, возможно, наибольший комплекс прагматически релевантных вопросов. Именно обращение к автору высказывания знаменовало собой переход от анализа стабильного значения слова к рассмотрению изменчивого содержания высказывания. Если логика, а также структурная лингвистика первой половины нашего века стремились освободиться от говорящего субъекта и свести все свои содержательные категории к отношениям предложений к действительности и к отношениям между предложениями, то начиная с середины века организующим центром "смыслового пространства" стал человек со всеми его психологическими комплексами…

<div align="right">

Н. Д. Арутюнова, Е. В. Падучева.
Истоки, проблемы и категории прагматики

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UNIT 5. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

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 early 1950s by the American *Descriptivist* Zellig Harris. The purpose of discourse analysis is to demonstrate the way that the communicative forces of discourse collectively result in meaning.

The discourse analyst uses a spoken or written text as his/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 often use terms such as cohesion and coherence. In general terms, according to Quine, "*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".

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 Manning 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".

Evidence suggests that some learners process a text by starting with the smallest units of language before building up the full meaning, while others start with a more global view and then go back to the smallest details. Others experts consider the way learners employ existing knowledge to help them process new information.

As far as linguistic output is concerned, it is obvious that spoken and written language require 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 cues*. By using these aids, speakers are able to modify the power of the words that they use.

Many scholars agree that communication through speech is extremely challenging. 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 no long-lasting record of a speech act.

Although the writer is not able to benefit from paralinguistic clues in the same way as the speaker, he/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 support.

Some researchers claim that communication through texting, social networks and other online forums "blends the nature of writing and speaking in some astonishing new ways". Indeed, this new communication modes can be considered quite groundbreaking. For instance, recent research into the use of emoticons and smileys in e-mail communications shows that they actually add crucial paralinguistic features.

To sum up, in discourse analysis researchers are concerned with how language is actually being used and how the different features of discourse can help understand the ways in which real communication is achieved.

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
attitude	The language used by teachers and students to communicate with each other in the classroom.
categorization	The use of multiple languages or language varieties (usually in conversation).

Words	Definitions
classroom discourse	This can involve assigning something to a particular category; for example, words can be assigned to grammatical or semantic categories, whereas utterances could be assigned to pragmatic categories according to their function (apology, request, disagreement etc.).
code switching	It is a person's judgement towards something. Attitudes are generally positive or negative, although people can potentially also possess ambivalent attitudes (e.g. be both positive and negative) or profess to have no attitude (e.g. not really care).
corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS)	The term is often used to refer to words or phrases that appear to have no grammatical or semantic function, such as *you know*, *like*, *oh*, *well*, *I mean*, *actually*, *basically*, *OK* as well as connectives like *because*, *so*, *and*, *but* and *or*.
critical discourse analysis	A form of discourse analysis that uses corpus linguistics methods and tends to take a critical approach to analysis.
discourse community	It is accurate and intentional plans of practices adopted to achieve a particular social, psychological or linguistic aim. They are realized via systematic uses of language.
discourse markers	It is a small group of people (often with shared characteristics such as age) and a moderator who facilitates a focused discussion around a particular subject.
discursive strategy	A group of people who share a set of discourses, understood as basic values and assumptions, and ways of communicating about those goals.
focus group	An approach to the analysis of discourse which views language as a social practice and is interested in the ways that ideologies and power relations are expressed through language.

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the difference between the *discourse* term and the *text* term?
2. What is *phatic communication*? Try to define it in a sentence.
3. What is the main purpose of *critical discourse analysis*?
4. What is *propositional meaning*? Try to define it in a sentence.
5. How do newspaper articles often show *intertextuality*?
6. Can you describe a way to collect *oral discourse*? In your opinion, what are its advantages and disadvantages?
7. What is *spontaneous* discourse? Give an example.
8. What does *the information-code model of communication* look like? Can you diagram it?
9. Do you agree that the concept of a *sentence* turns out to be less significant for the structure of discourse than the concept of a *clause*? Explain your answer

10. What is a *frame*? What other disciplines use *frame models* besides discourse?
11. Compare and contrast the discourse features of a written text and a spoken text.
12. Explain how body language and other paralinguistic features can be used to enhance verbal communication.
13. 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.

Task 4. Here is an excerpt of a family conversation. A grandmother and a grandfather in one location are talking to their granddaughter who is in another place. They are using Zoom, a video-calling service, so they can only see whatever is positioned directly in front of the other person's laptop camera. You are a discourse researcher. You have to make a transcript of the conversation. The following notation is used.

Transcript Notations

GM = grandmother
GD = granddaughter
GF = grandfather
____ = emphasis
<.> = noticeable pause, less than one second long
<..> = noticeable pause, between one and two seconds long
↗ = rising intonation

After making a transcript, you have the following written conversation.
GM: hi Jessie
GD: hello hello I wanna show you this
GM: move that move that left or maybe your right so I can see it <.> I am never sure which way to say
GD: can you see ↗it <..> I made it at school at art club
GM: oh it's wonderful did you make it at church
GD: at art club
GM: oh yes it's today that your daddy picks you up <..> grandpa is here now
GF: hello sweetie
GD: where were you grandpa
GF: I was bringing the dog in from the back
GM: would you show grandpa your picture please
GF: if you stop moving we can see better <..> there it is

GM: is it a fairy

GD: fairies have wings

GM: oh of course they have wings <.> you're not so interested in them anymore

GF: is it a mon↗ster

GD: grandpa <u>stop</u> it

Now try to make an analysis of this excerpt. Answer the following questions.

1. Identify some features of politeness in GM's turns.
2. According to Grice's cooperative principle, explain whether GD's turn is violating, flouting or adhering.
3. Why did GD stress "*at art club*"?
4. Identify discourse markers in the text. Explain the likely meaning of these discourse markers.
5. Identify an instance of turn-taking by current speaker selects next. Explain how a speaker selects the next speaker.
6. Identify a vocative in the text.
7. Identify some informal language features in the excerpt.
8. Identify an adjacency pair. Explain what type of pair it is.
9. What is the role of the rising intonation in the turns of GD and GF?

Task 5. Translate the following text into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

…Речевой акт как научный концепт обязан своей известностью аналитическому по методам, логико-философскому по изначальным интересам и лингвистическому по результатам учению об элементарной единице языковой коммуникации — теории речевых актов. Основу теории речевых актов составили идеи, зародившиеся в 30-х гг. и позже изложенные английским логиком Дж. Остином в лекциях, прочитанных в 1955 г. в Гарвардском университете (США) и опубликованных в 1962 г. под названием *How To Do Things With Words*. Впоследствии эти идеи получили ревизию и развитие в трудах американского логика Дж. Сёрля: монографии *Speech Acts* и ряде статей…

Главная идея теории речевых актов сводится к тому, что мы, произнося предложение в ситуации общения, совершаем некоторое действие или, точнее, действия: приводим в движение артикуляционный аппарат, упоминаем людей, места, объекты, сообщаем что-то собеседнику, веселим или раздражаем его/ее, просим, обещаем, приказываем, извиняемся, порицаем; причем эти

действия обусловлены намерением или интенцией говорящего. Отметим, что интенциональность здесь понимается в далеком от феноменологии смысле.

В структуре речевого акта с минимальными вариациями выделяются локутивный, иллокутивный и перлокутивный акты... Локутивный акт сводится к речепроизводству как таковому. Уточняя это размытое определение, Дж. Сёрль выделяет собственно акт произнесения или «акт высказывания» и «пропозициональный акт», включающий референцию и предикацию. Кент Бах и Роберт Харниш в своей модели речевого акта в похожей функции также выделяют «акт высказывания».

Иллокутивный акт является центральным понятием теории речевых актов. Он соотносится с коммуникативным намерением или интенцией говорящего, совмещая целеполагание с выражением пропозиционального содержания высказывания. Сущность иллокутивного акта отражается в речевом акте как его иллокутивная сила или иллокутивная функция. Сюда же включается ряд компонентов: иллокутивная цель, способ достижения цели, интенсивность иллокутивной силы, предварительные условия, условия пропозиционального содержания, условия эффективности и успешности, определяемые правилами социального поведения, нормального входа и выхода, условиями искренности для говорящего и слушающего. Все они поддаются формализации методом иллокутивной логики, что позволяет на базе теории множеств представить разные типы иллокутивных актов как логические формулы.

Индикаторы иллокутивной силы указывают на то, как именно должна приниматься и пониматься пропозиция в высказывании, с какой иллокутивной силой. Дж. Сёрль в английском языке к таким индикаторам относит среди прочих ударение, интонацию, наклонение глагола, порядок слов и перформативные глаголы.

Перлокутивный акт выражает результат речевого воздействия, которого говорящий интенционально достигает, выполняя локутивный и иллокутивный акты: поздравляет, убеждает, угрожает, обещает, заключает пари, выносит приговор и т.д. Перлокутивный акт шире иллокутивного эффекта, т.е. понимания высказывания адресатом в функции, предписанной говорящим: перлокуция не столь жестко связана с самим высказыванием и обусловлена прагматическим контекстом…

М. Л. Макаров. Основы теории дискурса

Task 6. The following text is a transcript of a conversation among a caller (C); the fire department's emergency services dispatcher (D); and a nurse (N). You are a discourse researcher. You have to make a transcript of the conversation. The following notation is used.

Transcript Notations
C = caller
D = dispatcher
N = nurse
_____ = emphasis
(   ) = pause (for example, (0.8) = eight tenths of a second)
((xxx)) = extra non-verbal information provided by the transcriber

After making a transcript, you have the following written conversation.
D: Fire department
(0.8)
C: Yes, I'd like tuh have an ambulance at forty one thirty nine Haverford please
(0.5)
D: What's thuh problem sir?
C: I: don't know, n'if I knew I wouldn't be ca:lling you all
(0.5)
D: Are you thuh one th't needs th'ambulance?
C: No I am not. It's my mother.
(1.1)
D: Lemme letya speak with thuh nurse
(0.3)
C: Oh, bull shit!
(1.7)
((in background)) Nurse, line one (1.0) Nurse, line one
(1.2)
N: This is thuhfi:re department nurse, what iz thee address?

Now try to make an analysis of this excerpt. Answer the following questions.
1. Where is a vocative in the conversation?
2. What are some features of politeness of C?
3. Are there any discourse markers in the written conversation? If so, find any and comment on them.
4. Explain whether D's turn in the first line violates, flouts or adheres to the maxim of quantity.

5. Identify an instance of turn-taking by 'current speaker selects next'. Explain how a speaker selects the next speaker.
6. As far as you might have noticed, there are no intonational notations. If some intonational notations had been used, in what way would it have improved the analysis?
7. Identify two informal features of C's language use. Do you think C is allowed to use informal language in his speech when at work?
8. Why was C likely to stress the first syllable of 'mother' in one of the lines (…*It's my mother…*)?

Task 7. Watch the video[4] on discourse analysis and comment on it. Summarize all your knowledge in the field. What are the advantages of discourse analysis?

Task 8. It is time you made your own presentations on current discourse studies. Here is the list of open-access articles that you can easily find on the Internet. Your task is to choose one of them and render it in English.

1. Crible, L., Abuczki, Á., Burkšaitienė, N., Furkó, P., Nedoluzhko, A., Rackevičienė, S., ... & Zikánová, Š. (2019). Functions and translations of discourse markers in TED talks: A parallel corpus study of underspecification in five languages. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *142*, 139-155.

2. Crible, L., & Pascual, E. (2020). Combinations of discourse markers with repairs and repetitions in English, French and Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *156*, 54-67.

3. Leipold, S., Feindt, P. H., Winkel, G., & Keller, R. (2019). Discourse analysis of environmental policy revisited: traditions, trends, perspectives. *Journal of Environmental Policy & Planning*, *21*(5), 445-463.

4. Kuswoyo, H., Sujatna, E. T. S., Indrayani, L. M., & Rido, A. (2020). Cohesive conjunctions *and* and *so* as discourse strategies in English native and non-native engineering lecturers: A corpus-based study. *International Journal of Advanced Science and Technology*, *29*(7), 2322-2335.

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[4]Ashworth, E. (2021, March 21). *Discourse Analysis*. YouTube. Retrieved June 6, 2022, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R2o743ikYeY&ab_channel=EvanAshworth

5. Derin, T., Putri, N. S., Nursafira, M. S., & Hamuddin, B. (2020). Discourse Analysis (DA) in the Context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL): A Chronological Review. *ELSYA: Journal of English Language Studies*, *2*(1), 1-8.

6. Cuenca, M. J., & Crible, L. (2019). Co-occurrence of discourse markers in English: From juxtaposition to composition. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *140*, 171-184.

7. Dumlao, R. P., &Wilang, J. D. (2019). Variations in the use of discourse markers by L1 and L2 English users. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *9*(1), 202-209.

8. Lin, Y. (2021). Legitimation strategies in corporate discourse: A comparison of UK and Chinese corporate social responsibility reports. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *177*, 157-169.

9. Walter, D., Ophir, Y., & Jamieson, K. H. (2020). Russian Twitter accounts and the partisan polarization of vaccine discourse, 2015–2017. *American Journal of Public Health*, *110*(5), 718-724.

10. Garimella, K., De Francisci Morales, G., Gionis, A., &Mathioudakis, M. (2018, April). Political discourse on social media: Echo chambers, gatekeepers, and the price of bipartisanship. In *Proceedings of the 2018 world wide web conference*, 913-922.

UNIT 6. LINGUISTICS AND TRANSLATION

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

The Importance of Linguistics to Translation

Translation as we know is the transfer of meaning from one language to another. It is not the transfer of words from one language to another. This is because languages are not just different words. Translation then, represents the transformation of thoughts, feelings or desires, originally designed in one language into the same kind of thoughts, feelings and desires in another language. In other words, translation mediates between languages. House defines translation as "not only a *linguistic act*, it is also a cultural one, an act of communication across cultures".

Linguistics, on the other hand, is the scientific study of language. It has three categories: the language form, the language meaning and language in context. This is further divided into subfields which include morphology, phonology, syntax, semantics etc. Although linguistics is a study of language, a number of other disciplines are relevant to language and intersect with it…

A translator acts as a *mediator* between languages. And language according to Bellos is "how a social group constitutes and identifies itself". Language is culturally *embedded*. It both expresses and shapes cultural reality, and the meanings of linguistic items. Translation mediates not only between languages but also between cultures…

Lexical asymmetries also are apparent in differences in semantic fields of corresponding words across two languages and in divergent patterns of *semiosis*. There are also morphological asymmetries such as the *tense* differences between languages that require distinguishing completed action from continuous action, or distinction in languages that mark gender or number and those that do not. Syntax is also often highly variable between languages, particularly in translation across two language families, and idioms are by definition almost always asymmetrical across languages. The knowledge of linguistics can be applied in translation and interpreting. This kind of analysis can be successfully applied in looking at structures and idioms of one language and comparing them to their semantic counterparts in another language. In this era of information technology and machine translations, computational linguistics is very important. In some cases, it is observed that a particular phrase, idiom or concept exists only in one language or it is a common expression in several languages…

Translation has remained a central component of the language learning process because it uses materials and results from other linguistic disciplines. It is a known fact that without language, translation cannot exist and a translator cannot work without the knowledge of both the *source* and *target languages*. *Cross-linguistics understanding* underlies the reading and writing skills necessary for translation, translation description and translation criticism. Since linguistics gives one an understanding of the mechanics of language, knowledge of linguistics will be of great help to the translator. Catford describes this better in his definition of translation as, "an operation performed on languages". Studying linguistics enables one to learn how language works, how it changes and varies, how it is used, preserved and processed. When you study linguistics, you are at the crossroad of every discipline and translation too is at the crossroad of every discipline. Fawcett observes that "a translator who lacks at least a basic knowledge of linguistics is somebody who is working with an incomplete toolkit" …

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
audiovisual translation	The term usually refers to a translation aimed at giving a condensed version, or summary, of the contents of the original text

Words	Definitions
back-translation	It refers to the process of adapting a product to a particular local market, from a linguistic, cultural and technical point of view
gist translation	It refers to the translation of texts contained in audiovisual products, i.e. products combining sound and video components, such as films and TV programmes
localization	It is a word-for-word translation of a target text, or a stretch of it, back into the source language. This is normally intended to illustrate either the target text or the translation process to an audience that does not understand the target language
machine translation	It is a wide and varied area of enquiry having the study of translating and translations as its core
translation studies	It is translation performed automatically by a computer with different degrees of human involvement
computer-assisted translation	It provides a written version of the dialogue or speech contained in a film or other audiovisual product, usually displayed at the bottom of the screen
subtitling	The term refers to a translation technique applied to a source language expression and involving the literal translation of its component elements
calque	The term refers to a method of language transfer used in audiovisual translation. It consists in superimposing pre-recorded voicing in the target language on the original audio, which is however left audible in the background
voice-over	It is translation carried out at a professional level, with the help of specific computer tools aimed at improving the efficiency of the translation process

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. In your opinion, what is good translation?
2. What is computer-aided translation (CAT) tools? Can you name some of them? What are their pros and cons?
3. What is compression in terms of translation? How can it be defined?
4. What kinds of transformations in the process of translation do you know?
5. Why is it crucial to be broad-minded when you are a translator or an interpreter?
6. What is consecutive translation? What are the differences between consecutive translation and simultaneous translation?
7. What is machine translation? What are the differences between machine translation and computer-aided translation?
8. In what way are topics and comments realized both in Russian and English?

9. What tools can contemporary translators and interpreters use to simplify their work?
10. What are the ways of rendering equivalent-lacking lexical, phraseological and grammatical units?

Task 4. Translate the following text into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

…Синхронизацию видеотекста мы опишем отдельно, поскольку она имеет целый ряд специфических черт. Живая синхронизация видеотекста переводчиком, т. е. синхронный перевод через микрофон того, что говорят в данный момент герои кинофильма или диктор (в случае, если это документальный фильм), почти полностью вытеснил в последние годы так называемое дублирование — замену текста, звучащего на иностранном языке, на подготовленный текст на языке перевода в исполнении актеров. Произошло это в первую очередь потому, что звуковой ряд кино: тембр голоса, интонации, специфика произносимых реплик на языке подлинника, фоновые шумы в кадре общепризнанно считаются частью художественного замысла автора фильма, и зрители должны иметь возможность познакомиться с ними в том виде, в котором их создал автор.

При живой синхронизации реплики героев на иностранном языке приглушенно звучат через динамики, а голос переводчика слышен через наушники. Как правило, это подготовленный синхрон. Переводчику заранее предоставляют видеокассету с фильмом и монтажные листы (текст фильма по кадрам и сценам) на иностранном языке. Переводчик готовит перевод и создает свои монтажные листы. При этом у него есть возможность отрепетировать свой будущий синхронный перевод. Особая сложность заключается в «укладывании» текста в кадр, поскольку длина звучания переведенного текста может не совпадать с длиной звучания текста в оригинале. Тогда переводчику приходится сокращать или увеличивать текст.

Помимо этого, существует проблема передачи эмоциональности действующих лиц фильма. На это есть две точки зрения, которые и соответствуют двум различным стилям работы синхронизаторов кино. Согласно первой точке зрения, переводчик обязан быть еще и актером и по возможности полно передавать голосом и интонациями эмоциональный заряд кинодействия, т. е. быть транслятором эмоций. Переводчики, разделяющие эту точку зрения, при переводе стараются подражать интонациям героев и копируют их эмоции (смех, раздражение, испуг и т. п.). Согласно второй точке зрения, весь эмоциональный заряд должен исходить от подлинного текста и от

экранного действия, переводчик же транслирует только безэмоциональный текст. Его ровный голос, контрастируя с эмоциональными голосами героев, вдвойне подчеркивает эмоциональный фон фильма. В реальности этот контраст часто придает всему тексту подлинника несколько иронический оттенок.

В редких случаях, например при незапланированных показах на кинофестивалях или конференциях, переводчику приходится синхронизировать кинотекст без подготовки. Качество такой синхронизации, разумеется, всегда ниже…

И.С. Алексеева. Введение в переводоведение

Task 5. Work in groups. Study the four types of careers associated with translating and interpreting in the box below. Choose one type you would like to find out more about and then discuss these questions.

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localization translation, medical interpreting, marketing/advertising translation, judicial/legal translation
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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?

Task 6. Translate the following sentences into Russian paying special attention to the ***make*** verb. How does context determine the choice of the Russian equivalent? Explain every choice in English.

1. You're *making* a big mistake, Mrs. Grey.
2. I always *make* a cup of tea last thing. She drinks it in bed…
3. It *made* me feel worse than ever.
4. They were *made* for each other.
5. "I'm not going to *make* any speech," the Boss said.
6. Clutterbuck's father *makes* all the beer round here.
7. "And flags, Diana. There should be flags left over from last time." "I *made* them into dusters," said Dingy…
8. Presently, the door opened again, and two more boys looked in. They stood and giggled for a time and then *made* off.
9. "Me, a butler," said Philbrick. "I wasn't *made* to be anyone's servant."
10. The clerk *makes* for the door, whistling the latest popular love ballad.

Task 7. Read the text and do the following exercises.

Diversity of languages

(1) The problem I propose to discuss is rather a hard nut to crack. (2) Why does homo sapiens, whose digestive track functions in precisely the

same complicated ways the world over, whose biochemical fabric and genetic potential are essentially common in all peoples and at every stage of social evolution — why does this unified mammalian species not use one common language? (3) It inhales, for its life processes, one chemical element and dies if deprived of it. (4) It makes do with the same number of teeth and vertebrae. (5) In the light of anatomical and neurophysiological universals, a unitary language solution would be readily understandable. (6) But there is also another "natural" model. (7) A deaf, non-literate observer approaching the planet from outside and reporting on crucial aspects of human appearance and behaviour, would conclude with some confidence that men speak a small number of different, though probably related, tongues. (8) He would guess at a figure of the order of half a dozen with perhaps a cluster of dialects or pidgins. (9) This number would be persuasively concordant with other major parameters of human diversity. (10) Why, then, this mystery of Babel?

1. What is the meaning of the following idiom in sentence (1): *a hard nut to crack*?
2. Is there a difference in meaning between *to breathe* and *to inhale* verbs?
3. In what way can you define the *understandable* adjective*: something that can be understood* or *something that seems quite natural*?
4. What is *pidgin* (8)? What are the differences between a pidgin and a dialect?
5. What options can be offered for translating the *fabric* word (2)?
6. Choose the option of translating the *deaf* word: *глухой* или *невоспринимающий звуки*. Explain your choice.
7. Is it possible to translate (5) as follows: *«В свете анатомических и нейрофизиологических универсалий существование единого языка было бы вполне понятным»*? Give your reasons for agreeing or disagreeing with this option.
8. Translate (7) taking into account the definite article before the *planet* word. Which option is better: *земля*, *планета*, *наша планета*?
9. Can we use the Russian *догадываться* word "guess" when translating the English *to guess* in sentence (8)?
10. What is the best option of translating *half a dozen* in sentence (8): *полдюжины, полдесятка, несколько*or*пять-шесть*?
11. Translate the text in writing.

Task 8. Translate the sentences using the following strategies.

Part I. Antonymic translation.

1. The woman at the other end asked him to hang on.

2. I don't dislike you, Mr. Mont, but Fleur is everything to me.
3. Shut the window to keep cold air out.
4. He keeps the fortune from falling into the hands of greedy relatives,
5. "Macon, are you awake?"
6. He stayed out of sun during the middle part of the day.
7. Alexander fought to hold a grin back.
8. The elder boys were still up, sitting around the TV.
9. She keeps this room locked. The maids have been ordered to keep out.
10. (In the Zoo) "Don't the animals hate being locked up, Papa?" the boy asked.
11. Alice shrieked and clapped her hands to her ears to shut out the sound she had imagined.
12. He left the form on the counter and walked out very quickly keeping a hand in his pocket to silence his keys.
13. I don't suppose you are in any hurry to get back?
14. Their attitude was not unfriendly.
15. They had little to say to each other.
16. The permission is not given unless authorized by the dean.

Part II. Generalization.

1. He was a thin, stoop-shouldered man not much under six feet tall.
2. At this moment O'Brien glanced at his wrist-watch.
3. Yesterday two soldiers were shot, the news agency says.
4. The police force of New York employs 25,000 officers – the equivalent of the population of Monaco.
5. He wants his dinner.
6. The Boss was already sitting in the front by the driver's seat when I got to the Cadillac.
7. A waiter advanced staggering under the weight of an ice-pail from which emerged a Jeroboam of champagne.
8. "What'll you have now – cheese?" "Thank you, sir; I've had too much already, but I won't say 'No'" "Two Stiltons," said Michael.
9. She closed the bathroom door behind her, sat on the edge of the bathtub, and smoked a Virginia Slim.
10. Mark looked at her without blinking for a long minute, and convinced himself she could be trusted.
11. Three long years had passed over my head since I had tasted ale, beer, wine, or, liquor of any kind.
12. The dog sniffed every inch of the ground.
13. A 120-voice choir was performing in the open air.

14. The five-minute meeting with reporters was over.

Task 9. Translate the following sentences with elliptical and emphatic constructions into Russian. Explain the choice of every translation option in English.

1. Most analysts agree that America is something of an exception among developed, modern nations. Religion is not in decline here, as in most other western countries. In the last decades it seems, **if anything**, to be growing.
2. **It was a Roman who** said it was sweet to die for one's country.
3. **It is the mathematicians that** are the true inheritors of Pythagoreanism.
4. Although it was known for a long time that light is a form of energy, **it was not until** Maxwell discovered its electromagnetic character that most of its behave our was satisfactorily explained. Syria **ready** to fight.
5. **It is to German philosophy of the nineteenth century that** we must turn for a systematically developed conception of all things as ongoing ceaseless change.
6. Fasten your seatbelt **while seated**.
7. **It was the philosopher Hegel who** first gave the best account of a completely evolving universe.
8. **It is not society as such but society as a definite system of men's material and ideological relationships that** constitute the subject matter of historical materialism.
9. **It is not only through the reading of history but also through the contemplation of what it has left us – works of art, sites and monuments – that** we gain a better understanding of how we have become what we are.
10. **Gulf coast in ruins**.
11. **Hardly had Java been introduced when** the advanced manufactures began moving it into the mobile phones.
12. **Soviets in a new attack**.
13. **It is because people live by social production that** human societies have a history different in kind from, say, the history of community of ants.
14. **Only gradually did modern thinkers realize** that, in addition to logic, moral philosophy and physics, there are other distinct modes and directions for philosophic discovery.
15. Not only chemistry was completely transformed by the basic changes in physics but **so was biology**.
16. **It is the quality of our work which** will please God and not the quantity. (Gandhi)

17. Older men declare the war. But **it is the youth that** fight and die. (Hoover)
18. A schoolboy **to kill** all his classmates.
19. **Not only does H2O2 act** as an oxidizing agent but it also acts as a reducing agent.
20. **It was not until** Roentgen discovered X-rays that scientists began to take interest in this subject.
21. **Three million jobless by April?**
22. Linguists will not soon be able to create a flawless tool for processing texts and speech, **if ever**.
23. **Though intelligent**, he was very poorly educated.
24. **If necessary**, we'll take drastic steps to prevent it.
25. He had a small heart attack **while asleep**.
26. The whole cost of government **did impose** a heavy burden upon the taxpayers.
27. Britain **Getting Warmer**, Say Scientists
28. Helen Mirren's performance as 'The Queen' was absolutely flawless. **Not for nothing was she awarded** both an Oscar and a Golden Globe.
29. Why It Matters That Jesus Really **Did Rise** From the Dead?
30. **Impatient as** Americans sometimes become with Europe, very few Americans would like to live in a world where Europe was not faring well.

Task 10. One of the state-of-the-art solutions in the translation domain is machine translation. We are sure that you know what it is. You have a table below. Find out information about each machine translation approach, fill in the table and discuss it with your partner or lecturer.

Approach	Definition	Examples of systems	Pros	Cons
Rule-based				
Statistical				
Neural				
Hybrid				

Task 11. It is time you made your own presentations on current translation studies. Here is the list of open-access articles that you can easily find on the Internet. Your task is to choose one of them and render it in English.

1. Chéragui, M. A. (2012). Theoretical Overview of Machine translation. *ICWIT*, 160-169.

2. Laviosa, S. (1998). The corpus-based approach: A new paradigm in translation studies. *Meta, 43(4)*.

3. Laviosa, S. (2004). Corpus-based translation studies: Where does it come from? Where is it going? *Language matters, 35(1)*, 6-27.

4. Sdobnikov, V. V. (2019). Translation studies today: Old problems and new challenges. *Russian Journal of Linguistics, 23(2)*, 295-327.

5. Alfuraih, R. F. (2020). The undergraduate learner translator corpus: a new resource for translation studies and computational linguistics. *Language Resources and Evaluation, 54(3)*, 801-830.

6. Jiménez-Crespo, M. A. (2018). Crowdsourcing and translation quality: Novel approaches in the language industry and translation studies. *Translation quality assessment*, 69-93.

7. Alpaca, S. M. (2022). Validation of the Concept of Structural Semantics in the Field of Translation Studies, *London Journal of Research in Humanities and Social Sciences, 22(2)*, 19-29.

8. Zhang, M., & Munday, J. (2018). Innovation in discourse analytic approaches to translation studies. *Perspectives, 26(2)*, 159-165.

9. Xu, M., Huang, C., & You, X. (2016). Reasoning patterns of undergraduate theses in translation studies: An intercultural rhetoric study. *EnglishforSpecificPurposes*, *41*, 68-81.

10. Razmjou, L., & Ghazi, J. A. (2013). Listening Practice Influence on the Use of Communication Strategies in Oral Translation. *Theory&PracticeinLanguageStudies*, *3*(9), 1645-1650.

UNIT 7. SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

Guidelines for Language Classroom Instruction

What goes on in the language classroom between the teacher and students is obviously the core area of information pertaining to formal *second language (SL) teaching* and learning. *"Out-of-class'' knowledge* of language teaching in areas such as *needs analysis*, *curriculum design*, *lesson planning*, *materials design*, and *evaluation* is, of course, necessary for a truly professional operation, but so long as there is a teacher working with a group of students, the essence of classroom SL teaching resides in the nature of instruction and interaction between teachers and students.

In this chapter we identify and discuss some of the more important characteristics and principles of this interaction. Our conception of the teacher is someone with a great number of decisions to make at even

moment of classroom instruction. In some cases, research findings can guide those decisions. In others, research can inform professional judgment, but decisions must be based on experience and intuition rather than knowledge. However, decisions will be aided by a knowledge of the range of instructional alternatives available, as well as by an awareness of the cultural context and personal values of the teacher and students.

When a second language is taught, a number of major steps must be taken. First, elements of the language or its use, or skills such as *learning strategies*, must be brought into the classroom and presented or highlighted. The teacher and, under certain *learner-centered conditions*, the students select elements of the SL in this phase. Second, that which has been selected and presented must be learned; the teacher has to arrange matters and events to bring this about. Third, the teacher must provide knowledge of results, that is, correction or feedback, to the students.

We should not ignore that these processes take place in a *social milieu*, and that because of the way language functions between individuals, these processes cannot be totally separated from the social climate which develops among students and between teacher and students, though space does not perm it us to address this important point here. Finally, let us note that conscientious SL teachers usually come out of a class asking themselves how the class went – in other words, engaging in a process of self-evaluation. We believe that this is a vital process for professional self-development, and one which needs to be explicitly structured into SL teachers' routines…

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
Second Language Acquisition (SLA)	The outcome of L1 and L2 learning, also known as the stable state of adult grammar.
input	Vygotsky's term for the unvocalized self-talk that many adults use to control their own thought and behavior.
final state	An individual set of characteristics which correlates with success in language learning.
automatization	In SLA, the language that learners produce in speech/sign or in writing.
Broca's area	L2 use that involves interpreting the meaning of others by reading or listening.
receptive activities	Errors that result from negative transfer of L1 to L2.
interlingual errors	An area in the left frontal lobe of the brain that is responsible for the ability to speak.
aptitude	Whatever sample of L2 learners are exposed to.

Words	Definitions
inner speech	The activation and retrieval of certain elements in memory whenever appropriate input is perceived.
output	A term that refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language.

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. What are the differences in learning L1 and L2?
2. What are the differences in teaching L1 and L2?
3. Why are some learners more successful than others?
4. Why are some teachers more successful than others?
5. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are seen as essential activities for L2 use in an academic context, and often in interpersonal communication as well. Do you feel any of these skill areas are stronger in your own L2 use? Why do you think that is?
6. The level of L1 reading ability is a very strong predictor of success in L2 reading ability. Has this been true in your life? What is your attitude toward reading in L1 versus in L2? Why do you feel this way?
7. It is postulated that younger learners are probably more successful in informal and naturalistic learning contexts, and older learners are more successful in formal instructional settings. Do you agree or disagree? Support your ideas with appropriate comments.
8. If you have studied a second language, what are some of the linguistic elements that have been most difficult for you to master (morphology, phonology, syntax, etc.)? Why do you think they have been harder?
9. Based on your personal and educational experience, do you expect to prefer or feel more comfortable with one of the perspectives on SLA (linguistic, psychological, social)? Why or why not? If so, what are some strategies you can use to keep an open mind to the perspectives you might not privilege?
10. Listen to someone who speaks your language non-natively and write down some ungrammatical sentences they have spoken. Comment on them. Do you think all of them are incorrect?

Task 4. Translate the following text into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

Для того чтобы понять, что нас, преподавателей иностранных языков в России, ждет впереди, надо сначала посмотреть, что у нас позади. Каковы традиции нашей профессии в нашей стране? С каким багажом (или грузом?) знаний и умений мы вступаем в эпоху неслыханных технических

возможностей всемирного, глобального общения, или коммуникации, — возможностей, которые нельзя реализовать без знания языков? Соответственно никогда раньше мы не были в центре столь пристального общественного внимания, никогда не были так востребованы наши знания и умения.

Небывалый спрос породил небывалое по размаху предложение. В 90-х гг. прошлого века пышным цветом расцвело разного рода шарлатанство непрофессионалов, предлагавших курсы с заманчивыми названиями («английский за две недели», во сне, в полном погружении и т.д. и т.п.). Лавины учебников из «стран изучаемых языков», бесконечные реформы образования, смены министров и всей вертикали власти в сфере образования, ЕГЭ, Болонья и т.д. и т.п. Все это мы, перегруженные и недооплаченные, выдержали, выстояли и, с удивительной быстротой «догнав и перегнав Америку» (пользуясь лексикой советских времен), овладели инновационными идеями и методами и чувствуем себя, как говорится, «не хуже других». Кстати, советский лозунг насчет Америки здесь неуместен, поскольку англоязычные страны печально знамениты отсутствием и желания, и интереса изучать иностранные языки по очень простой причине: они без труда и без затрат от рождения владеют английским языком, уверенно претендующим на статус глобального…

В числе других перспектив развития направлений языкового образования в мире и в нашей стране наиболее продвинутыми являются следующие аспекты.

1. Развитие дистанционного, онлайнового образования. Особенно популярным в качестве орудия производства станет, видимо, усовершенствованная модель мобильного телефона.

2. На круглом столе, организованном Комитетом по образованию Госдумы РФ для обсуждения причин падения духовно-нравственного уровня среди учащихся средних и высших учебных заведений, речь шла уже о «введении в школах и вузах отдельного предмета "регионоведение"»…

3. Оптимизация и формы и содержания Единого государственного экзамена (ЕГЭ), введение его устной формы.

4. Дальнейшее развитие полиглотии как науки на стыке языкознания, педагогики и культурологии.

5. Преодоление разрыва между лингвистическими теориями, с одной стороны, и практикой их преподавания — с другой.

6. Наряду с оптимизацией имеющейся системы преподавания иностранных языков энергично продвигать и развивать систему самообучения, в которой роль преподавателя будет заключаться в том,

чтобы мотивировать и консультировать изучающих иностранный язык самостоятельно.

7. Перспективным, по-видимому, можно считать направление, построенное на сочетании преподавания и самообучения. Если использовать известную метафору, речь идет о том, чтобы одновременно и «наполнять сосуды» (преподавание), и «зажигать факелы» (стимулировать к самообучению).

Учитель иностранного языка должен сознавать свою роль проводника в этом чужом и поэтому неприятном мире и, главное, помнить: не научить Ученика своему предмету — очень плохо, но отпугнуть его, внушить отвращение к предмету — преступно, потому что потом его уже никто не научит. Отношения с учащимися нужно строить на принципах взаимного уважения.

Впереди долгая и трудная дорога, но мы готовы «весело шагать по просторам»!

С.Г. Тер-Минасова. Преподавание иностранных языков в современной России. Что впереди?

Task 5. Study the words in the box below. Complete each sentence with a word from the box.

> exposure, external, interference, interpersonal, subsystem, subconscious, transform, transfer, uniform, universal

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. Differences between the first language and the second language might cause _____.
4. Chomsky believes that humans have an innate _____ grammar.
5. Negatives or interrogatives are two examples of a grammatical _____.
6. Language _____ can result when there are many similarities between are the first and second language.
7. Learner differences mean second language acquisition is not a _____ course of development.

Task 6. Here a number of quotations about teaching. As you read them, think about the following questions.

1. What quotation conforms most closely to your idea of what teaching is?
2. Which one do you reject and why?

3. What can you say about people who have written such things?
1) *I touch the future. I teach.* (Ch. McAuliffe)
2) *A teacher is like a candle which lights others while consuming itself.* (Kahn)
3) *I am a teacher. A teacher someone who leads. There is no magic here. I do not walk on water. I do not part the sea. I just love children.* (M. Collins)
4) *One of the beauties of teaching is that there is no limit to one's growth as a teacher: just as there is no knowing beforehand how much your students can learn.* (H. Kohl)

Task 7. Watch one of Chomsky's lectures[5] and comment on it.

Task 8. For questions 1-9, read the text below and decide which answer (A, B, C or D) best fits each gap.

Sound Advice for Language Learners

A recent (1) _____ of a language learning magazine has consulted a number of experts in the (2) _____ of second language acquisition. Their advice may prove invaluable for those (3) _____ a language course. One suggestion is that you assess whether you are likely to be successful at learning a language. Did you enjoy studying languages at school, for example? Do you have enough time to learn a language? The major cost will be your own time and effort. If proof of your level of proficiency is important you must make sure that the course on offer leads to a (4) _____ qualification. Also, be realistic in your goals. If you don't set achievable aims you are more likely to give up. Do not be deceived (5) _____ thinking that the most expensive courses are the best. (6) _____ around to get the best possible value for money. You should also bear in mind that the quicker you learn a language the more quickly you forget it. Sandra Miller, a French teacher, tried to teach herself German by enrolling on a (7) _____ course. Already fluent in four languages and with a sound knowledge of teaching methodology her chances of making progress were high. Three years (8) _____ she remembers very little. She feels her biggest mistake was not to follow (9) _____ her first experience. "I should have consolidated what I'd learn by continuing to study, even if it were by myself."

[5]Abdessamia Bencheikh. (2019, June 27). *Noam Chomsky, Fundamental Issues in Linguistics (April 2019 at MIT) - Lecture 1* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r51 4RhgISv0&t=635s&ab_channel=AbdessamiaBencheikh

1. **A)** series   **B)** release   **C)** programme   **D)** issue
2. **A)** area   **B)** domain   **C)** branch   **D)** field
3. **A)** thinking   **B)** wondering   **C)** considering   **D)** looking
4. **A)** valued   **B)** understood   **C)** recognised   **D)** regarded
5. **A)** in   **B)** by   **C)** about   **D)** into
6. **A)** Shop   **B)** Push   **C)** Nose   **D)** Run
7. **A)** fast   **B)** rapid   **C)** crash   **D)** quick
8. **A)** from   **B)** onward   **C)** on   **D)** forward
9. **A)** on   **B)** out   **C)** up   **D)** through

Task 9. Read the following article and render it in 10-12 sentences.

Earn after you learn

Teaching English as a foreign language can be a great way to travel the world and earn money at the same time.

Teaching English as a foreign language can be a great way to travel the world and earn money at the same time. However, some graduates actually like the idea of pursuing a career in teaching English long-term, and there are numerous courses at various levels of teaching, from the fast-track TEFL to a diploma or masters.

To find the right course a good place to start is TEFL.com – a website with lots of relevant information and helpful advice, including a comprehensive list of institutions in the UK offering TEFL courses. The site also offers a job search facility to assist qualified students in finding work.

Amanda Simpson, client services at TEFL.com, said: "When deciding which course to take, the best bet is to look at what your needs are. If you want a career in teaching English then definitely find one designed for that purpose, like an MA or diploma; but if you want to travel around the world, then do a shorter course which will supply you with teaching skills.

"Some countries, like Japan, will employ people without a teaching qualification as long as the teacher is a native speaker of English. However, most countries do now expect a qualification."

Monica Poulter, subject officer at the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate advises checking that the course you want to do is validated by an external body and if it includes teaching practice. "This is an important element in preparing people to be English language teachers," she said. "Another guide to finding the right course is to look at what the employers are asking for. And make sure employers will recognise the qualification you will gain at the end."

If you want to jet off around the world and teach English as you go, the TEFL course at the University of Luton might be worth considering. It is

validated by Trinity College and is an intensive four-week programme with a practical orientation.

Students undertake seven hours teaching practice, of which six hours are assessed and graded with detailed feedback from tutors. Time is also spent observing class teachers on video and for real.

The course covers all aspects of classroom management, from the selection and adaptation of teaching materials to the teaching of language skills, grammar pronunciation, speaking, reading and writing.

John Lapwood, who has completed the Luton course, said: "I went into the course with no teaching experience or knowledge of grammar and phonetics. So, it was a steep learning curve and extremely stressful at the same time. But it was also highly enjoyable. The group atmosphere was very positive – helpful and stimulating. You have got to go into it whole-heartedly otherwise you could find it hard to get through.

"Right after the course finished, I got a job in a college in China, where I spent three years teaching. I would strongly recommend teaching straight away as it is possible to lose the knowledge quite quickly."

International House offers a diploma of English language teaching for adults. The course is aimed at graduates hoping to pursue a career as a teacher, and one of the entry requirements is that students have a minimum of two years English language teaching.

The course is taught through a combination of practical teaching experience and written assignments. Teaching practice is with learners of different levels and observed by tutors and external examiners.

"The course was an intense eight weeks and I didn't have any social life whilst doing it," said Jonathon Holloway, who has just completed the Delta course. "It was quite traditional and seemed to be focused on information for people going on to an MA in teaching. It also steers people in the direction of being able to produce their own teaching materials and text books.

"I am off to Brazil in January to be a director of studies. The Delta course has given me a broader overview so that now I can take on a management role as well as train other people to teach English. In my new job I will be overseeing the syllabus, organising courses and doing some teacher training."

If you are looking to make a career out of teaching English then an MA in applied linguistics is a logical next step as it can lead to lecturing or managing in the world of TEFL.

The course would give you knowledge of educational policy and practice and an insight into developments in linguistics in the light of your previous experience. Assessment is based entirely on coursework, not teaching practice.

Alistair Wehbeh, who is about to complete the MA in applied linguistics and English language teaching at St Mary's College, Twickenham, said: "I can

now teach new students to teach English because I have a good theoretical grounding. The course is mainly theoretical although it does focus on methodology and more practical things, like designing learning materials for teachers or students.

"Many students travel with the MA and go to places like the Middle East and China. The course is geared towards people who have either done an initial certificate in teaching English or a diploma and have taught for a couple of years.

"It would be unwise to do the MA without that. You would be unlikely to be able to follow the links and the themes in the components of the MA without the knowledge of teaching in a classroom."

The Guardian, Dec. 15, 2001

Task 10. Write an essay that is based on one of the following questions.

1. What can teachers of English for specific purposes (ESP) do to improve their knowledge of special subjects?
2. Why is it pivotal to use modern IT tools in teaching ESP?
3. What kind of ESP in of current importance for you right now?
4. What are the challenges in teaching English for linguistic purposes? Are there any ways to overcome them?

UNIT 8. LITERATURE

Task 1. Read the following text and answer the questions.

William Shakespeare
(1564-1616)

Little is known about the events of William Shakespeare's life. He was born in Stratford-upon-Avon in 1564, probably on April 23rd. His father, a glover by trade, was a prominent local figure who held important positions in the government of the town. His mother came from a prosperous local family.

William Shakespeare probably attended Stratford grammar school, but he did not go on to study at university. When he was eighteen, he married Anne Hathaway, who was eight years his senior, and six months later his first child Susanna was born, followed three years later by twins Hamnet and Judith.

It is commonly believed that Shakespeare left Stratford to avoid being arrested for poaching. He went to London where he did a series of jobs, including holding theatre-goers' horses outside playhouses. He eventually became an actor, and by 1592 he was sufficiently well-known as a dramatist to be the subject of an attack by the playwright Robert Greene (1558–1592).

Greene wrote a pamphlet in which he complained that uneducated dramatists were becoming more popular than university men like himself. In it he called Shakespeare 'an upstart Crow, beautified with our feathers'.

In 1595 Shakespeare joined an important company of actors called *The Lord Chamberlain's Men* (later changed to *The King's Men)* and performed at court. His success as a dramatist grew. He mixed in high social circles and the Earl of Southampton, to whom he dedicated his sonnets, became his patron and friend. His improved financial standing allowed him to invest in the building of the Globe Theatre and in 1597 he bought *New Place,* the finest house in Stratford.

He retired to his hometown in 1611, where he died on April 23rd 1616.

1. When and where was Shakespeare born?
2. Who did he marry and at what age?
3. Why did Robert Greene call him 'an upstart crow'?
4. What was *The Lord Chamberlain's Men?*
5. What was *The Globe?*
6. How did he spend the last years of his life?

   Task 2. Can anybody love us if we are not very good-looking or even quite ugly? Are we condemned to a life of misery if we do not look like a film star? Read what Shakespeare thinks in the following sonnet.

Sonnet 130

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun;
Coral is far more red than her lips' red:
If snow be white, why then her breasts are dun[1]:
If hairs be wires[2], black wires grow on her head.

I have seen roses damask'd[3], red and white,   5
But no such roses see I in her cheeks;
And in some perfumes is there more delight[4]
Than in the breath that from my mistress reeks[5].

I love to hear her speak, – yet well I know
That music hath a far more pleasing sound: 10
I grant[6] I never saw a goddess go[7], –
My mistress, when she walks, treads[8] on the ground.

And yet, by heaven, I think my love as rare
As any she belied with false compare[9].

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VOCABULARY:

¹dun dark
²wires long, thin pieces of metal. In Elizabethan poetry the word ʿwireʾ was used to refer to golden, shiny hair
³damask'd light red or pink
⁴delight pleasure
⁵reeks has an unpleasant smell
⁶grant admit
⁷go walk
⁸treads walks with a heavy step
⁹As any ...
compare as any woman who was mistakenly praised for being more beautiful than her

Task 3. Shakespeare describes his love through a series of comparisons. Complete the table below with the terms of comparison. Are the comparisons negative or positive?

The poet's mistress	Terms of comparison
eyes	…………..................
her lips	…………………...
her breasts	…………………...
her hairs	………………………
her cheeks	………………………
her breath	………………………
the way she walks	………………………

Task 4. In describing his mistress, the poet appeals to the reader's sense of sight, smell and hearing. Say which comparisons appeal to which sense.

Sight .... Lines ....
Smell .... Lines ....
Hearing .... Lines ....

Task 5. The terms of comparison Shakespeare used (eyes/sun, lips/coral, breasts/snow, etc.) are typical of Elizabethan courtly love poetry. Do you find these comparisons original or banal? Does Shakespeare use them seriously or is he ridiculing this type of poetry?

Task 6. Although it was written as a witty attack on courtly love sonnets, the message of the poem is serious. Which of the following statements best summarises the topic of the poem? What makes you think so?

• Women should not be glorified in poetry.

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- There are many different types of beauty.
- True love does not demand physical perfection.
- Beauty lies in the eye of the beholder.

Task 7. A parody imitates the work of another author, usually with the intention of ridiculing it. Shakespeare's Sonnet 130 is a parody of a form of poetry which was popular in Elizabethan England. The Petrarchan love sonnet, in which a poet compared his lover to natural beauties, was named after the fourteenth-century Italian poet who wrote a series of love sonnets for his beloved Laura. This form of poetry was first imitated in England by Sir Thomas Wyatt at the beginning of the sixteenth century and met with great success. Shakespeare himself often wrote this form of love sonnet. However, in Sonnet 130 he chooses to make fun of it. Task Sonnet 130 is almost a mocking reply to a Petrarchan sonnet. Using the Shakespearean 'reply' as a basis try to reconstruct the type of sonnet that is being parodied.

Petrarchan Sonnet	Sonnet 130
My mistress' eyes are like the sun(...)	My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun (...)

Task 8. Do you know of any other forms of parody, for example, films that parody other films or comic actors that imitate and parody famous people? Think of an example and try to explain how it works.

UNIT 9. COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS

Task 1. Read the following text. Find the right definitions to the italicized words. Summarize it in several sentences.

Natural Language Processing and Artificial Intelligence

Artificial intelligence (AI) is the study, design and creation of *intelligent agents*. An intelligent agent is a natural or artificial system with perceptual abilities that allows it to act in a given environment to satisfy its desires or successfully achieve planned objectives. Work in AI is generally classified into several sub-disciplines or branches, such as *knowledge representation*, *planning*, *perception* and *learning*. All these branches are directly related to *natural language processing (NLP)*. This gives the relationship between AI and NLP a very important dimension. Many consider NLP to be a branch of AI while some prefer to consider NLP a more independent discipline.

In the field of AI, planning involves finding the steps to follow to achieve a given goal. This is achieved based on a description of the initial states and possible actions. In the case of an NLP system, planning is

necessary to perform complex tasks involving several sources of knowledge that must cooperate to achieve the final goal.

Knowledge representation is important for an NLP system at two levels. On the one hand, it can provide a framework to represent the linguistic knowledge necessary for the smooth functioning of the whole NLP system, even if the size and the quantity of the declarative pieces of information in the system vary considerably according to the approach chosen. On the other hand, some NLP systems require extralinguistic information to make decisions, especially in ambiguous cases. Therefore, certain NLP systems are paired with ontologies or with knowledge bases in the form of a semantic network, a frame or conceptual graphs.

In theory, perception and language seem far from one another, but in reality, this is not the case, especially when we are talking about spoken language where the linguistic message is conveyed by sound waves produced by the vocal folds. Making the connection between perception and voice recognition (the equivalent of perception with a comprehension element) is crucial, not only for comprehension, but also to improve the quality of *speech recognition*. Furthermore, some current research projects are looking at the connection between the perception of spoken language and the perception of visual information.

Machine learning involves building a representation after examining data which may or may not have previously been analyzed. Since the 2000s, machine learning has gained particular attention within the field of AI, thanks to the opportunities it offers, allowing intelligent systems to be built with minimal effort compared to *rule-based symbolic systems* which require more work to be done by human experts. In the field of NLP, the extent to which basic machine learning is used depends highly on the targeted linguistic level. The extent to which machine learning is used varies between almost total domination within speech recognition systems and limited usage within high level processing such as in discourse analysis and pragmatics, where the symbolic paradigm is still dominant.

Task 2. Match the terms with the definitions.

Words	Definitions
deep learning	It is a network or circuit of biological neurons, or, in a modern sense, an artificial neural network, composed of artificial neurons or nodes.
neural network	It is a discipline that concerns the collection, organization, analysis, interpretation, and presentation of data (even textual).
computational semantics	It is an empirical law formulated using mathematical statistics that refers to the fact that for many types of data studied in the physical and social sciences, the rank-frequency distribution is an inverse relation.

Words	Definitions
statistics	It is a class of modern grammatical theories that are all based on the dependency relation and that can be traced back primarily to the work of Lucien Tesnière.
topic model	It is part of a broader family of machine learning methods based on artificial neural networks with representation learning.
Zipf's law	It is a branch of linguistics that comprises defining suitable logics for linguistic meaning representation, automatically constructing them and reasoning with them
lemma	It is a type of statistical model for discovering the abstract "topics" that occur in a collection of documents.
dependency grammar	It is the canonical form of a set of words that can be used for processing.
word embedding	It is the task of grouping a set of objects (even textual) in such a way that objects in the same group are more similar to each other than to those in other groups.
clustering	It is a term used for the representation of words for text analysis, typically in the form of a real-valued vector that encodes the meaning of the word such that the words that are closer in the vector space are expected to be similar in meaning

Task 3. Check your linguistic skills. Answer the following questions.

1. In your opinion, what are contemporary problems of processing Russian texts?
2. In your opinion, what are contemporary problems of processing English texts?
3. How many meanings of the *ontology* word do you know? Do you happen to find this word in a text about NLP?
4. How can machines evaluate textual sentiment?
5. Can a linguistic corpus be a database? Why?
6. Give an example of your using an NLP tool in your life.
7. Imagine you are a programmer. Describe your plan of creating an app for English learners.
8. What are the advantages of e-dictionaries?
9. Why NLP is pivotal nowadays?
10. Should modern translators and interpreters be taught how to use NLP tools? Why?

Task 4. Translate the following text about morphology into English. Pay special attention to translating Russian terms.

Первые лингвистические корпусы текстов появились в 60-егг. прошлого столетия. В 1963 г. в Брауновском университете (США) впервые был создан большой корпус текстов на машинном носителе (Brown

Corpus). Авторы корпуса У. Френсис (W. Francis) и Г. Кучера (H. Kucera) спроектировали его как набор из пятисот двухтысячесловных прозаических печатных текстов американского варианта английского языка. Тексты принадлежали пятнадцати наиболее массовым жанрам англоязычной печатной прозы США и были напечатаны в 1961 г. Корпус сопровождался большим количеством материалов его первичной статистической обработки — частотный и алфавитно-частотный словарь, разнообразные статистические распределения. Появление Брауновского корпуса вызвало всеобщий интерес и оживленные дискуссии. Прежде всего они коснулись принципов отбора текстов и состава, потенциально решаемых на таком корпусе задач. Затем последовали Ланкастерский корпус английского языка (Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen Corpus, LOB), Уппсальский корпус русского языка. Среди современных корпусов английского языка наиболее известны Британский национальный корпус (British National Corpus), Международный корпус английского языка (International Corpus of English), лингвистический Банк английского языка (Bankof English) и др. В настоящее время корпусы созданы для многих языков мира. Ведется работа и над созданием Национального корпуса русского языка.

В первой половине 90-х гг. корпусная лингвистика окончательно сформировалась как отдельный раздел науки о языке. При этом она тесно взаимодействует с компьютерной лингвистикой, используя ее достижения и в свою очередь обогащая ее.

Поиск в корпусе данных позволяет по любому слову построить конкорданс – список всех употреблений данного слова в контексте со ссылками на источник. Корпусы могут использоваться для получения разнообразных справок и статистических данных о языковых и речевых единицах. В частности, на основе корпусов можно получить данные о частоте словоформ, лексем, грамматических категорий, проследить изменение частот и контекстов в различные периоды времени, получить данные о совместной встречаемости лексических единиц и т.д. Представительный массив языковых данных за определенный период позволяет изучать динамику процессов изменения лексического состава языка, проводить анализ лексико-грамматических характеристик в разных жанрах и у разных авторов, и т.д. Корпусы призваны служить также источником и инструментом многоаспектных лексикографических работ по подготовке разнообразных исторических и современных словарей…

Можно сказать, что корпусная лингвистика имеет своим предметом теоретические основы и практические механизмы создания и использования представительных массивов языковых данных,

предназначенных для лингвистических исследований в интересах широкого круга пользователей.

В.П. Захаров. Корпусная лингвистика

Task 5. Watch the video about NLP[6] and fill in the gaps.

1. Star Wars fans _____ the golden life-sized hospitality robot C-3PO.
2. NLP refers to the branch of artificial intelligence that gives the machines the ability to _____.
3. NLP is also a lot more _____ than you may realize.
4. While NLP seems really cool, yet _____ technology concept, it is actually pretty easy to learn.
5. You start off by performing _____ which is to break the entire document down into its constituent sentences.
6. For the algorithm to understand these sentences, we _____ in a sentence.
7. We can make the learning process faster by getting rid of _____ which do not add much meaning to our statement…
8. Once we have our _____, we use a machine learning algorithm like Naïve Bayes to teach our model humans' sentiment and speech.

Task 6. Create 10 linguistic sentences with the words from tasks 1 and 2. Write them down into your glossary.

Task 7. Run a basic NLP experiment.

1. Visit *Voyant*[7].
2. You have to find a small English text of approximately 6000 characters on technical (physics, chemistry ...) or humanitarian topics (linguistics, literary criticism ...).
3. Copy and paste the text into the title window that will appear on the site.
4. In the top bar, find the *Terms* tab. Choose words that, in your opinion, can act as terms of the area you have chosen, with an absolute frequency that is equal to or greater than 3. Translate the terms into Russian (you can check dictionaries if necessary).

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[6] Simplilearn. (2021, March 17). *Natural Language Processing In 5 Minutes | What Is NLP And How Does It Work? | Simplilearn* [Video]. YouTube.
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CMrHM8a3hqw&ab_channel=Simplilearn
[7] https://voyant-tools.org/

5. In the *Phrases* tab, select two- or three-word collocations, which might also be terms of your area. Find the right options of Russian translation.
6. Prepare a five-minute speech in which you will outline the main results. Support your speech with a presentation.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Constructing apologies: reflexive relationships between apologies and offenses

What is the relationship between an apology and the offense it addresses? A simple response to this question was offered by Goffman (1971) to the effect that apologies are, or at least should be, proportional to the offenses they are designed to remediate. Goffman's principle of proportionality is a norm of politeness that can be understood as a method of matching the extent of redress to the extent of the face threat (aka. virtual offence) of a previous action. Sociolinguists and scholars in the field of politeness theory have long documented variables influencing departures from this norm, including social distance and power, social class and status, gender and so on. The present study will address orthogonal processes through which the norm of proportionality is upheld and reinforced notwithstanding the recurrence of departures.

Goffman's claim of proportionality is somewhat easier to make than it is to substantiate. From a theoretical perspective, the offering of an apology, and its particular format, are products of what might be regarded as layers of considerations, both about whether an apology is due, and about the form an apology should take. The first consideration is whether there is an offense to be addressed, or whether the potentially apologizable incident was merely a misfortune to which no moral fault should be attributed. A second consideration is whether the offender should acknowledge agency in the commission of the offense, and perhaps expand this into a recognition of responsibility and culpability for the offense. Third, should the offender work to mitigate (or accentuate) the offense, through characterizations of harm, or of responsibility, or culpability? All three layers of assessment are involved in judgments of the proportionality of apologies to the offenses they address, and all are implicated in the interactional processes we describe here.

Similarly, the linguistic resources deployed in apologies vary considerably, especially when considered cross-linguistically and cross-culturally. For example, noting that Russian speakers require an acknowledgment of responsibility as an essential component of an apology, Ogiermann (2009) observes that *"I'm sorry"* is understood as a

simple expression of regret and as insufficient to count as an apology – an observation that does not generally hold for English speakers.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the relationship between more elaborate apology formats and the offenses they address. In analyzing offenses, we distinguished between those that were local and endogenous to the interaction (self-correction, delays in response, interrupting a co-participant, etc.) which we conceived to be comparatively minor, and offenses that were distal and exogenous to the interaction itself (refusals of requests, missed obligations, previous or subsequent impositions, etc.) which we regarded as more substantial. As a measure of the extensiveness of the apology, we hypothesized a cline from the most minimal explicit apology (a bare "*Sorry"*) through the explicit acknowledgment of agency ("*I'm sorry"*), to what we termed expanded apologies, which included naming the offense and/or accounting for it. According to our hypothesis, more substantial virtual offenses should generally receive more extended apologies.

While we were able to operationalize the nature of larger apologies in terms of both offense and apology format, we found that many contextual features of the interaction complicated any straightforward association between the two. Thus, an extensive apology *I'm terribly sorry I forgot your birthday last week*, which might seem appropriately built for the lapse in question, might not come out in this form because the depiction of the lapse (e.g., *I forgot your birthday last week*) might have been stated earlier, leaving only *I'm terribly sorry* in the apologizing turn.

Speakers' orientations to the 'seriousness' of an offense are manifest, and come to the interactional surface, in cases in which they adjust or re-calibrate the design of an apology, to select a form that they take to be more appropriate than the initially chosen form, to their assessment of the level of severity of their transgression. However, even before we come to consider such adjustments to or (self-)corrections of apologies, it is worth bearing in mind that the matter of whether or not an apology is relevant may already be the focus of divergent assessments between participants about whether someone's conduct amounted to a transgression at all, and hence whether an apology was due. Drew and Hepburn (2016) showed that in cases of "absent" apologies, in sequences in which an apology is not offered, an offended party may treat an apology as having been due, thereby treating the other's conduct as a transgression for which an apology would have been appropriate. The non-provision of an apology is tacitly an indication that the other treats their (own) conduct as not requiring an apology.

In our opinion, the principle of proportionality is constitutive in how interactants evaluate apology formulations, or constructions. By constitutive we mean that the relationship between a speaker's assessment of a virtual offense and the apology s/he constructs is unavoidably a part of the process in which apologies are formulated and received. According to this constitutive view, proportionality is less a matter of empirical outcome than it is a matter of the "lens" through which apologies are inevitably considered as a matter of normative convention. From the point of view of the individual participant, therefore, whenever there is an apology, it will be examined in terms of the operation of the principle. In those cases where proportionality is determined to have been fulfilled, the principle will be treated as upheld. However, in cases where there is a departure from the principle, participants (and observers) may adduce other reasons for its "failure", thereby reconstituting the normativity of the principle even while registering that the principle has been departed from.

Abridged from: *Journal of Pragmatics*, 2019

Constructing America by writing about Italy

To what extent can literature, and in particular travel literature, inform discourse on ethnicity and ethnic identity? This paper proposes to explore the relationship between the proliferation of Italian travel literature in nineteenth century America and the construction of Italian-Americanness that emerges in the first works published by Italian American writers in the early twentieth century.

Unlike other immigrant groups associated with the "Great Wave" of immigration at the turn of the century, the Italians, or at least their image, effectively "emigrated" to the better homes in American cities several decades before their physical persons began arriving to inhabit humbler quarters in those same cities. The vehicle by which this was accomplished was "travel literature," which can be broadly defined as writing in which an identifiable subject travels to a foreign and/or unfamiliar destination and offers his or her readers at home a written report of the experience. While primarily non-fiction, in the form of journalism, travel guides and travel memoirs, travel literature can also include works of fiction, particularly since distinctions between fictional and non-fictional travel works can sometimes prove difficult. Moreover, travel writing has been closely linked with the development of the novel, further blurring the distinction between the two.

Travel writing, in all its representative forms, was immensely popular in the nineteenth century, and many prominent writers, such as Margaret Fuller, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Mark Twain, William Dean Howells and

Henry James, utilized the genre as much to improve their income as to speed up their literary careers. For all of these authors, Italy was the travel destination par excellence, and given the proven record of success of Italian travel writing, it is not too surprising that the first published works by Italian American authors contain thematic and stylistic elements evocative of their nineteenth century antecedents. The utilization of familiar "Italian travel" material served multiple purposes, ostensibly to render the works appealing to an American readership, but also and perhaps more importantly, to smuggle the topic of differentness or otherness into the discourse on American identity.

The tremendous popularity and profitability of travel literature in the nineteenth century is perhaps best exemplified by Mark Twain. Today renowned for having written "the Great American Novel" ("Huckleberry Finn"), Twain weathered his various financial troubles through his travel books, most notably "The Innocents Abroad" (1869) and "A Tramp Abroad" (1880), which sold better than his novels and provided the author with his most consistent source of income. Some of the most popular sections of "The Innocents Abroad" were those devoted to Italy in which he pokes fun at the gullibility of American tourists as they fall victim to smooth-talking guides and vendors of souvenirs of questionable quality. Twain's particularly disrespectful tone was due in large part to his not feeling anything new could be said about Italy. Twain writes, "What is there in Rome for me to see that others have not seen before me? What is there for me to touch that others have not touched? What is there for me to feel, to learn, to know, that shall thrill me before it passes to others? Nothing whatsoever".

Overall, evidence in the form of the sheer number of Italian-themed works published, and their wide circulation in book form and in respected periodicals suggests that Italy, more so than any other locale, was the preferred "destination" of nineteenth century readers. Why Italy? If, as Goodman asserts, travel when performed as an art provides a means of "worldmaking" and of self- fashioning, then the nineteenth century's literary focus on Italy is indicative of how the land, its people and its culture provided authors and readers alike with a particularly effective lens for viewing American identity. Leonardo Buonomo holds that nineteenth century America's preoccupation with Italy in literary and intellectual circles resulted from the nation's insecure sense of self and an urgency to define a national identity. He asserts that Italy "functioned as the perfect Other" and thus a most effective instrument by which nineteenth century America constructed a national identity.

Unlike everything that was new and becoming in nineteenth century America, in Italy the past mattered more than the present or future. Italy's lack of technological innovation was viewed as "both melancholy and appealing," with a sense of longing for the pre-industrial relation between man and nature. And the Italians themselves were romanticized, as if having "stepped out of the pages of a pastoral poem, or a painting." Their leisurely pace of life and apparent contentment with their lot is envied by those swept up in American competition and push for continual advancement. Moreover, the distrust with which American Protestants approached Catholicism, viewing it as a form of paganism, was tempered by a genuine admiration for the art of the Renaissance, a form of Catholic expression that nonetheless represented the maxim of human artistic achievement. Italy presented the American traveler/writer with an unparalleled opportunity to pursue art and high culture while at the same time exposing him or her to a sensual and dangerous underside that, while potentially corrupting, still could, in Luigi Barzini's terms, provide one with "a feeling of resignation, acceptance, and repose".

Nineteenth century Americans both signified and affirmed their upper-class status through expressions of Italophilia. The Italian imagery employed by Gilded Age writers included both "sunny" and "dark" elements, all of which contributed to its appeal to the American public. A combined sense of attraction and repulsion was to become a characteristic response of the nineteenth century American writers to Italy, and one of the conventions that would prove to have particular appeal to the American public. Mark Twain perhaps best expressed this duality in his characteristically humoristic tone, decrying Italy to be "one vast museum of magnificence and misery."

Abridged from: *Italian Americana*, 2015

Theorizing and studying the language-teaching mind: mapping research on language teacher cognition

The terms "teacher thinking" or "teacher cognition" have been in circulation for almost three decades, with much excellent work undertaken to study them. Foregrounding the intellectual dimension was a necessary and productive move toward better understanding the fullness of the work of teaching. Teaching combines public activity – classroom actions, routines, interactions, and behaviours, which are publicly accessible through observation (including video and audio recordings) - with private mental work – planning, evaluating, reacting, deciding, which remain invisible to outsiders and beyond the reach of researchers.

For many decades, this mental work was simply not part of the picture of teaching; it was not studied or even acknowledged. The work of teaching was essentially understood as what could be seen and externally documented; what those interactions and behaviours meant to participants was not part of the picture. Underlying reorientations to the mind and meaning-making in psychology, and to meaningful study of activity in anthropology, supported the notion that teachers might be engaged in meaning-based cognitive activity that was shaped by the social context of their classroom.

Over the past 30 years, research in language teacher cognition has developed into a productive, and at times somewhat ad hoc enterprise. Organizing a comprehensive map of that landscape seems both necessary and timely.

The notion of mind in teacher cognition research is a changing one. Like any idea, it has evolved through a mix of internal dynamics of definition and external trends in related areas of social science. In language teaching, we can trace that movement from the period of the 1970s, when there was a singular view of classroom methodology in the Direct and Audiolingual methods, and teacher thinking was not part of that view. The goal of making learners' responses and use of the target language automatic fostered a parallel view of automaticity in teaching. The highly structured drilling in ALM teaching called for little cognitive work on the part of the teacher; in fact, the less thought and the more patterned behaviour, the better.

This view of teaching and cognition continued in the 1980s with the development of so-called innovative methods. That was an important shift, however. During the period of ALM teaching, the psychological rationale for learning was found in the theories of behaviorist psychology. With innovative methods (usually defined as Community Language Learning, the Natural Approach, the Silent Way, and Suggestopedia), each method carried with it a way of thinking. In order to teach the Silent Way, the teacher assumed that particular view of language and learning.

It could be argued that the innovative methods of the 1980s exposed thinking as a component of classroom teaching. If a teacher could choose or decide how to teach, then there must be some cognitive capacity governing those choices and decisions. The notion of teachers as informed decision makers, or of teaching as decision making, became the vernacular for this new capacity. What was referred to as principled eclecticism or subsequently as the post-method condition throughout the 1990s confirmed

and extended this invention of the methodological mind. The post-method condition enables practitioners to generate location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative practices. With this post-method view of cognition, language teachers could be seen to be making decisions and negotiating competing contextual demands to shape curriculum and pedagogy toward learning. The notion of a teaching mind that could be seen as independent, though directly connected to classroom practice, essentially created a new locus of study. The emerging idea of teaching cognition established a focus on teachers as the principal classroom actors.

Conceptualizations of the language-teaching mind have evolved throughout the 1990s and 2000s. Research on language teachers' personal practical knowledge and narrative studies broadened ideas of how language teacher cognition occurred in reality. A new view of the sociohistorical ontology has taken hold in which systems are seen as fundamentally chaotic and therefore complex, laying emphasis on the dynamic, emergent aspects of teaching-learning interactions. It portrays language teacher cognition itself as dimension of these changing systems.

Attributes of complex systems, including ecology, dynamism, change, unpredictability, interconnectedness, and nonlinearity, confronted notions of fixedness and codification in language description and acquisition. From a complex systems perspective, Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) critiqued traditional approaches to research and argued for new methodological research principles. These included consideration of context, avoidance of reductionism, awareness of dynamic processes and changing relationships, avoidance of dualistic analysis, and consideration of both the stability and variability of the system under investigation.

Kiss (2012) is a recent example drawing on complexity theory, referred to in his article as Complexity Science. In this empirical study, he analysed teacher learning in an intensive postgraduate course, and specifically how the teachers made meaning by drawing on their past experiences. Through thematic analysis of reflective journals, anonymous post-course questions, and comments written by these teachers, Kiss was able to map the teachers' cognitions, which proved to be temporally diverse (spanning past, present, and future) and included a multitude of references through which each teacher positioned themselves variously as learner, teacher, administrator, and personal self. These identities often overlapped and spanned different time periods: for instance, the teachers strongly related to the learner identity in terms of the past and present, while the teacher and administrator identities were most often associated with the

future. Kiss concluded that teacher learning can be viewed as dynamic, non-linear, dependent on prior experience, unpredictable and chaotic, and that this perspective had wide implications for teacher training programmes.

<div align="right">Abridged from: *The Modern Language Journal*, 2015</div>

John Rupert Firth

Firth, J.R. (John Rupert); (b. 1890, d. 1960; British), professor of English at the University of the Punjab, Lahore (1920-1928), senior lecturer at University College London (1928-1938), then senior lecturer, reader and Professor of General Linguistics at the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London (1938-1956). He is an important figure in the foundation of linguistics as an autonomous discipline in Britain; known for his original ideas on phonology and the study of meaning.

J.R. Firth was a man of his time. Born in Keighley, Yorkshire, in late 19th century Britain, when it still held much of the world in imperial subjugation, his career was marked by the existence of the British Empire. He attended the local grammar school, studied for a BA and MA in history at Leeds University, and briefly taught the subject at a Leeds teacher training college. Just before the First World War, he went to India, still part of Britain's Empire, to work for the Indian Education Service. He also undertook military service in India during the war (and in Afghanistan and Africa), returning to the imperial Education Service after the armistice as a professor of English at the University of the Punjab. There Firth began his study of the area's languages, which were to provide linguistic data for later publications; his time in India had a lasting effect on his career.

Firth's main writing interests, can be split into four: (i) the idea that the study of 'meaning' and 'context' should be central in linguistics, (ii) discussion of the history of linguistics, especially of linguists from Britain, (iii) work on phonology, particularly the development of a model called 'Prosodic Analysis', and (iv) linguistic descriptions and encyclopaedia articles on Indian and southern Asian languages, particularly their orthography and phonology. Aspects of (i), (ii) and (iv) are present in his writing from the start; (iii) only developed later. He is best known for (i) and (iii), where he laid out his views as to how language works and how linguists should approach its analysis. While by no means incompatible, there is, however, no necessary connection between his ideas in these two areas.

Firth's ideas on (i) are fundamental to his conception of language, as he considered the analysis of the meaning of utterances to be the main goal of linguistics; this was unusual at a time when contemporaries such as Bloomfield were positively excluding meaning from linguistic study. Firth rejects any kind of distinction between 'langue' and 'parole' (as Saussure made before Firth) or 'competence' and 'performance' (as Chomsky did after him), because, for Firth, language was not an autonomous entity, and was not to be studied as a mental system. Rather, in keeping with the behaviourist and positivist ideas of the contemporary intellectual environment (see the work of Skinner, for example), Firth saw language as a set of events which speakers uttered, a mode of action, a way of 'doing things', and therefore linguists should focus on speech events themselves. This rejected the common view that speech acts are only interesting for linguists to gain access to the 'true' object of study – their underlying grammatical systems.

As utterances occur in real-life contexts, Firth argued that their meaning derived just as much from the particular situation in which they occurred as from the string of sounds uttered. This integrationist idea, which mixes language with the objects physically present during a conversation to ascertain the meaning involved, is known as Firth's 'contextual theory of meaning' or his theory of 'context of situation', a phrase which he borrowed from Malinowski.

Some of Firth's ideas on meaning were developed in his misleadingly titled article *The Technique of Semantics* (1935). Much of the article deals with the history of usages of the term 'semantics' and of the study of meaning, although it does make a start at recognising a taxonomy of possible situation types (never developed further). Firth proposes to use the term 'semantics' to describe his whole approach to language, which is to link all levels of linguistic analysis (from phonetics to lexicography) with their contexts and situations. He does not maintain this usage elsewhere in his writings, but he does extend the meaning of 'meaning' in remarkable ways, writing about the 'phonological meaning' of phones and the 'grammatical meaning' of constituents. This was due to his overarching definition of meaning as the function or effect of an item in a particular context, thus phonological entities have meaning because they can contrast and have relations with other entities in particular phonological environments. At a lexical level, this embraces the notion of the 'collocation', that is, which other words a particular word consistently co-occurs with (part of the 'meaning' of words in collocations, such as 'an

egregious ass' is that they co-occur together). These usages of 'meaning' allowed Firth to perceive a fundamental unity among linguistic levels, linked through the search for statements of 'meaning' at each level. It has frequently been pointed out, not least by Lyons (1966), that this stretches the meaning of 'meaning' until it snaps, and that while situations must be understood for the interpretation of utterances, considerably more is required to give a full description of meaning.

Just after the war, Firth published *The English School of Phonetics* (1946), his main contribution to the history of linguistics. This illustrates Firth's conviction that he was working in a long linguistic tradition, stretching back centuries. The article is coloured by the impression that Firth finds it important to praise the work of those who wrote in England, but Firth's interests in this area were important in stimulating other work in the field (for example in co-workers such as R.H. Robins).

The first publication where Firth set out his phonological ideas is *Sounds and Prosodies* (1948), although it is not easy to extract them from the article. One fundamental idea is a rejection of purely phonemic analysis, as practiced by others working in phonology at the time (such as Trubetzkoy and Bloomfield). Some kind of segments still exist in the approach (called 'phonematic units'), but, crucially, the phonologist can also assign features of phonetic form to 'prosodies' which are nonsegmental entities that can be tied to any piece of phonological structure – spread over a whole word, or syntactic unit, or part of a syllable, for example. The metaphor 'spread' should not be taken dynamically, however, as no notion of 'phonological process' is countenanced; rather the static domain of a prosody is described. Thus, assimilations and vowel harmony are simply described in terms of the span the feature (the 'prosody') has in the observable form of an utterance. Phonematic units can be nearly empty of distinctive phonological specification, if this is analysed as prosodic. Furthermore, anything which is described with reference to syntagmatic, rather than paradigmatic structure can be a prosody, including 'juncture' phenomena, which mark out linguistic boundaries, and features restricted to particular positions in a syllable.

Prosodic Analysis further assumes a clear separation between 'phonetics' and 'phonology'. Phonematic units and prosodies are not assumed to have 'intrinsic' or obvious phonetic content. They must be accompanied by 'exponency' statements which state formally how a particular piece of phonological structure maps onto the phonetics. This

allowed Firthians to combine an abstract phonology with detailed phonetic description.

Firth died suddenly on 14th December 1960 in Lindfield, Surrey. He had seized the opportunities which came his way and left British linguistics stronger than when he entered it. His connections with the British Empire enabled his career, but he repaid this by working on many underinvestigated languages of the Empire. His theories were the product of novel, inspirational thinking: a posthumous festschrift was published 1966, full of ideas.

Abridged from: *Key Thinkers in Linguistics and the Philosophy of Language*, 2005

Linguistic theory and description

Chomsky has stated in a number of sources that there are three levels of "adequacy" upon which grammatical descriptions and linguistic theories can be evaluated: *observational* adequacy, *descriptive* adequacy, and *explanatory* adequacy.

If a theory or description achieves observational adequacy, it is able to describe which sentences in a language are grammatically well formed. Such a description would note that in English while a sentence such as *He studied for the exam* is grammatical, a sentence such as *studied for the exam* is not. To achieve descriptive adequacy (a higher level of adequacy), the description or theory must not only describe whether individual sentences are well formed but in addition specify the abstract grammatical properties making the sentences well formed. Applied to the previous sentences, a description at this level would note that sentences in English require an explicit subject. Hence, *studied for the exam* is ungrammatical and *He studied for the exam* is grammatical. The highest level of adequacy is explanatory adequacy, which is achieved when the description or theory not only reaches descriptive adequacy but does so using abstract principles which can be applied beyond the language being considered and become a part of "Universal Grammar." At this level of adequacy, one would describe the inability of English to omit subject pronouns as a consequence of the fact that, unlike Spanish or Japanese, English is not a language which permits "pro-drop," i.e. the omission of a subject pronoun that is recoverable from the context or deducible from inflections on the verb marking the case, gender, or number of the subject.

Within Chomsky's theory of principles and parameters, pro-drop is a consequence of the "null-subject parameter". This parameter is one of

many which make up universal grammar, and as speakers acquire a language, the manner in which they set the parameters of universal grammar is determined by the norms of the language they are acquiring. Speakers acquiring English would set the null-subject parameter to negative, since English does not permit pro-drop; speakers of Italian, on the other hand, would set the parameter to positive, since Italian permits pro-drop.

Because generative grammar has placed so much emphasis on universal grammar, explanatory adequacy has always been a high priority in generative grammar, often at the expense of descriptive adequacy: there has never been much emphasis in generative grammar in ensuring that the data upon which analyses are based are representative of the language being discussed, and with the notion of the ideal speaker/hearer firmly entrenched in generative grammar, there has been little concern for variation in a language, which traditionally has been given no consideration in the construction of generative theories of language. This trend has become especially evident in the most recent theory of generative grammar: minimalist theory.

In minimalist theory, a distinction is made between those elements of a language that are part of the "core" and those that are part of the "periphery." The core is comprised of "pure instantiations of UG" and the periphery "marked exceptions" that are a consequence of "historical accident, dialect mixture, personal idiosyncracies, and the like". Because "variation is limited to nonsubstantive elements of the lexicon and general properties of lexical items", those elements belonging to the periphery of a language are not considered in minimalist theory; only those elements that are part of the core are deemed relevant for purposes of theory construction. This idealized view of language is taken because the goal of minimalist theory is "a theory of the initial state," that is, a theory of what humans know about language "in advance of experience" before they encounter the real world of the language they are acquiring and the complexity of structure that it will undoubtedly exhibit.

This complexity of structure, however, is precisely what the corpus linguist is interested in studying. Unlike generative grammarians, corpus linguists see complexity and variation as inherent in language, and in their discussions of language, they place a very high priority on descriptive adequacy, not explanatory adequacy. Consequently, corpus linguists are very skeptical of the highly abstract and decontextualized discussions of language promoted by generative grammarians, largely because such

discussions are too far removed from actual language usage. Chafe sums up the disillusionment that corpus linguists have with purely formalist approaches to language study, noting that they "exclude observations rather than ... embrace ever more of them" and that they rely too heavily on "notational devices designed to account for only those aspects of reality that fall within their purview, ignoring the remaining richness which also cries out for understanding." The corpus linguist embraces complexity; the generative grammarian pushes it aside, seeking an ever more restrictive view of language.

Because the generative grammarian and corpus linguist have such very different views of what constitutes an adequate linguistic description, it is clear why these two groups of linguists have had such a difficult time communicating and valuing each other's work. As Fillmore jokes, when the corpus linguist asks the theoretician (or "armchair linguist") "Why should I think that what you tell me is *true*?", the generative grammarian replies back "Why should I think that what you tell me is *interesting*?" (emphasis added). Of primary concern to the corpus linguist is an accurate description of language; of importance to the generative grammarian is a theoretical discussion of language that advances our knowledge of universal grammar.

Even though the corpus linguist places a high priority on descriptive adequacy, it is a mistake to assume that the analysis of corpora has nothing to offer to generative theory in particular or to theorizing about language in general. The main argument against the use of corpora in generative grammar, Leech observes, is that the information they yield is biased more towards performance than competence and is overly descriptive rather than theoretical. However, Leech argues that this characterization is overstated: the distinction between competence and performance is not as great as is often claimed, "since the latter is the product of the former." Consequently, what one discovers in a corpus can be used as the basis for whatever theoretical issue one is exploring. In addition, all of the criteria applied to scientific endeavors can be satisfied in a corpus study, since corpora are excellent sources for verifying the falsifiability, completeness, simplicity, strength, and objectivity of any linguistic hypothesis.

Despite Leech's claims, it is unlikely that corpora will ever be used very widely by generative grammarians, even though some generative discussions of language have been based on corpora and have demonstrated their potential for advancing generative theory. Working within the framework of government and binding theory (the theory of

generative grammar preceding minimalist theory), Aartsused sections of the corpus housed at the Survey of English Usage at University College London to analyze "small clauses" in English, constructions like *her happy* in the sentence *I wanted her happy* that can be expanded into a clausal unit (*She is happy*). By using the London Corpus, Aarts was not only able to provide a complete description of small clauses in English but to resolve certain controversies regarding small clauses, such as establishing the fact that they are independent syntactic units rather than simply two phrases, the first functioning as direct object and the second as complement of the object. Haegem an employed government and binding theory to analyze empty categories (i.e. positions in a clause where some element is missing) in a specific genre of English: recipe language. While Haegeman's investigation is not based on data from any currently available corpus, her analysis uses the type of data quite commonly found in corpora. Haegeman makes the very interesting claim that parametric variation (such as whether or not a language exhibits pro-drop) does not simply distinguish individual languages from one another but can be used to characterize regional, social, or register variation within a particular language. She looks specifically at examples from the genre (or register) of recipe language that contain missing objects (marked by the letters *[a]*, *[b]*, etc. in the example below):

(1) Skin and bone chicken, and cut [a] into thin slices. Place [b] in bowl with mushrooms. Purée remaining ingredients in blender, and pour [c] over chicken and mushrooms. Combine [d] and chill [e] well before serving.

Government and binding theory, Haegeman observes, recognizes four types of empty categories, and after analyzing a variety of different examples of recipe language, Haegeman concludes that this genre contains one type of empty category, wh-traces, not found in the core grammar of English (i.e. in other genres or regional and social varieties of English).

What distinguishes Haegeman's study from most other work in generative grammar is that she demonstrates that theoretical insights into universal grammar can be obtained by investigating the periphery of a language as well as the core. And since many corpora contain samples of various genres within a language, they are very well suited to the type of analysis that Haegeman has conducted. Unfortunately, given the emphasis in generative grammar on investigations of the core of a language (especially as reflected in Chomsky's recent workin minimalism), corpora will probably never have much of a role in generative grammar. For this reason, corpora are much better suited to functional analyses of language:

analyses that are focused not simply on providing a formal description of language but on describing the use of language as a communicative tool.

Abridged from: *English Corpus Linguistics: An Introduction*, 2002

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Being cautious

One of the most noticeable aspects of academic communication is the tendency for writers to avoid expressing absolute certainty, where there may be a small degree of uncertainty. It is also pivotal to avoid making over-generalisations, where a small number of exceptions might exist. The following devices might come in handy.

Devices that distance the author from a proposition

It is thought/believed that …
It has been reported that …
It is a widely held view that …
It has commonly been assumed that …
According to Green (2022), …
According to many in the field …
Many scholars hold the view that …
Green (2022) holds the view that …
Recent research has suggested that …
If Green's (2022) findings are accurate, …

Being cautious when giving explanations
A likely/probable/possible explanation of … is …
… might be due to …
It is probable/possible that …

Being cautious when explaining results
This inconsistency may be due to …
This discrepancy could be attributed to …
A possible explanation for this might be that …
This rather contradictory result may be due to …
It seems possible that these results are due to …
The observed increase in X could be attributed to …
There are several possible explanations for this result.
There are two/three likely causes for the differences between …
A possible explanation for these results may be the lack of adequate …
Since this difference has not been found elsewhere it is probably not due to …

Devices for avoiding over-generalisations
In general, this requires …
In general terms, this means …
Xs use generally accepted principles to …
X is generally assumed to play a role in …
Authors generally place an emphasis on …
Generally accepted methods for X include: …
Studies which show no effect are not generally published.
Research articles generally consist of the following components: …

Appendix 2. Being critical

As an academic writer, you are expected to be critical of the sources that you use. This essentially means questioning what you read and not necessarily agreeing with it just because the information has been published. Academic writers need to develop habits of constructive thinking, they need to find reasons why they do not accept something as being true.

Devices that introduce general criticism

The most important of these criticisms is that Green failed to note that …
The X theory has been vigorously challenged in recent years by a number of writers.
These claims have been strongly contested in recent years by a number of writers.
More recent arguments against X have been summarised by Black and Green (2019).
Critics have also argued that not only do surveys provide an inaccurate measure of X, but the …
Many analysts now argue that the strategy of X has not been successful.
Jones (2020), for instance, argues that …

Devices that offer constructive suggestions

The study would have been more interesting if it had included …
These studies would have been more useful if they had focused on …
The study would have been more relevant if the researchers had asked …
The questionnaire would have been more useful if it had asked participants about …
The research would have been more relevant if a wider range of X had been explored.

Devices that introduce problems and limitations

The main weakness with this theory is that …
The key problem with this explanation is that …
However, this theory does not fully explain why …
One criticism of much of the literature on X is that …
However, there is an inconsistency with this argument.
A serious weakness with this argument, however, is that …
One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether …
Black's argument relies too heavily on qualitative analysis of …
Many writers have challenged Black's claim on the grounds that …
Smith's analysis does not take account of X, nor does he examine …
It seems that Black's understanding of the X framework is questionable.
The existing accounts fail to resolve the contradiction between X and Y.
One of the limitations with this explanation is that it does not explain why…

Appendix 3. Listing and classifying

When we classify things, we group and name them on the basis of something that they have in common. By doing this we can understand certain qualities and features which they share as a class. We list things when we want to treat and present a series of items or different pieces of information systematically. The order of a list might also indicate rank importance.

Devices that introduce lists

This topic can best be treated under three headings: X, Y and Z.
The key aspects of … can be listed as follows: X, Y and Z.
There are three reasons why the English language has become so dominant.
The disadvantages of the new approach can be discussed under three headings, which are: …
This section has been included for several reasons: it is …; it illustrates …; and it describes…

Devices that classify a topic

X can be classified into X_i and X_{ii}.
X can be categorised into X_i, X_{ii} and X_{iii}.
Several taxonomies for X have been developed …
Different methods have been proposed to classify …
X may be divided into several groups: a) …, b) … or c) …

Generally, X provides two types of information: X_i and X_{ii}.

It has become commonplace to distinguish X_i from X_{ii} forms of X.

X is generally classified into two types: X_i, also known as …, and X_{ii} or …

There are two basic approaches currently being adopted in research into X. One is …

The theory distinguishes two different types of X, i.e. pragmatic X and semantic X (Green, 2021).

The works of Green fall under three headings: (1) dialogues and …, (2) collections of facts, and …

Appendix 4. Comparing and contrasting

If we can highlight similarities and differences between two things, we can easily increase our understanding and learn more about both. This usually involves a process of analysis, in which we compare the specific parts as well as the whole. Mind the following devices that allow you to characterize common and different features.

Devices that introduce different features

X is different from Y in a number of respects.

X differs from Y in a number of important ways.

There are a number of important differences between X and Y.

Areas where significant differences have been found include X and Y.

In contrast to earlier findings, however, no evidence of X was detected.

A descriptive case study differs from an exploratory study in that it uses …

Smith (2018) found dramatic differences in the rate of decline of X between Y and Z.

Devices that introduce similar features

Both X and Y share a number of key features.

There are a number of similarities between X and Y.

The effects of X on human health are similar to those of Y.

Both X and Y generally take place in a 'safe environment'.

These results are similar to those reported by (Green et al. 2022).

This definition is similar to that found in (Black, 2018) who writes: …

The return rate is similar to that of comparable studies (e.g. Green et al. 2020).

The approach used in this investigation is similar to that used by other researchers.

Studies have compared Xs in humans and animals and found that they are essentially identical.

Appendix 5. Defining terms

Academic writers define terms so that the readers understand exactly what it is. When important words are not clearly understood, misinterpretation may result. In fact, many disagreements might arise as a result of different interpretations of the same term.

Devices that specify terms

The term 'X' is used here to refer to …
In the present study, X is defined as …
The term 'X' will be used solely when referring to …
In this essay, the term 'X' will be used in its broadest sense to refer to all …
In this paper, the term that will be used to describe this phenomenon is 'X'.
In this thesis, the terms 'X' and 'Y' are used interchangeably to mean …
Throughout this article, the term 'X' is used to refer to informal systems as well as …
While a variety of definitions of the term 'X' have been suggested, this paper will use the definition first suggested by Green (2022) who saw it as …

Devices that comment on definitions

	includes …
	allows for …
	highlights the …
	helps distinguish …
	takes into account …
This definition	poses a problem for …
	will continue to evolve.
	can vary depending on …
	was agreed upon after …
	has been broadened to include …

Appendix 6. Signalling transition

Academic writers are also expected to indicate they are moving from one topic to another. These are known as transition statements and examples of these, together with some previewing statements, are given below.

Devices that preview sections of text

The section below describes …
What follows is an account of …
The following is a brief description of …
In the section that follows, it will be argued that …
The problem of X is discussed in the following section.
A more detailed account of X is given in the following section.
The structure and functions of X will be explained in the following section.
The following part of this paper moves on to describe in greater detail the…

Devices that introduce a new topic

Regarding X, …
As regards X, …
In terms of X, …
In the case of X …
With regard to X, …
With respect to X, …
On the question of X, …
As far as X is concerned, …

Devices that move from one section to the next

Turning now to …
Let us now turn to …
Let us now consider …
Moving on now to consider …
Turning now to the experimental evidence on …
Before proceeding to examine X, it is important to …
Before explaining these theories, it is necessary to …
Having defined what is meant by X, I will now move on to discuss …
So far, this paper has focused on X.
The following section will discuss … This chapter has demonstrated that …
It is now necessary to explain the course of …

Devices that preview a following section

In the chapter that follows, we present …
The next chapter describes the synthesis and evaluation of …
A summary of the main findings, together with …, is provided in the next chapter.

The next chapter describes the procedures and methods used in this investigation …

In the next section, I will present the principal findings of the current investigation …

These analytical procedures and the results obtained from them are described in the next chapter.

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