МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ДОНЕЦЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ ВАСИЛЯ СТУСА
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ ФІЛОЛОГІЇ, ПСИХОЛОГІЇ ТА ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ

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МЕТОДИЧНІ ВКАЗІВКИ ДЛЯ САМОСТІЙНОЇ РОБОТИ З ДИСЦИПЛІНИ «Іноземна мова професійного спрямування»

для здобувачів 1 року навчання СО «Бакалавр» за освітньо-професійними програмами спеціальностей 125 «Кібербезпека», 122 «Комп'ютерні науки» факультету інформаційних і прикладних технологій

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Високий рівень володіння англійською мовою є значущою складовою ефективної навчальної та наукової діяльності майбутніх спеціалістів у сфері кібербезпеки, правових та соціальних аспектів захисту інформації, програмування та комп'ютерної техніки, програмних і технічних методів захисту інформації та іншої дотичної фахової проблематики.

Пропоновані методичні вказівки для самостійної роботи з дисципліни «Іноземна мова професійного спрямування» укладено для здобувачів 1 року навчання СО "Бакалавр" за освітньо-професійними програмами спеціальностей 125 «Кібербезпека» та 122 "Комп'ютерні науки" факультету інформаційних і прикладних технологій Донецького національного університету імені Василя Стуса. Метою методичного посібника є формування комунікативної, лінгвістичної, соціокультурної та професійної компетенції здобувачів, що сприятиме ефективному застосовуванню здобутих знань у професійній площині.

Посібник складається з трьох розділів і охоплює такі актуальні теми як, «Language Corpora and Artificial Intelligence», «Dictionaries» та «Discourse Analysis». Кожен з поданих розділів містить наступні секції: "Reading Section", "Speaking Section". "Picture Description Worksheet", "Listening (Audiovisual Comprehension) Section". Наприкінці посібника подано завдання для самоконтролю з ключами, "Self-Assessment Final Test".

Посібник містить наукові статті та відео з актуальних питань комп'ютерної та корпусної лінгвістики, завдання різних типів, тематичні фото для опису, теми для есе та інструкції для написання, що в комплексі забезпечує формування відповідних компетентностей: (1) здатність спілкуватися іноземною мовою у професійній діяльності, опрацьовувати фахову літературу іноземною мовою; (2) використовувати іноземну мову для організації ефективної міжкультурної комунікації; (3) використовувати іноземну мову в усній та письмовій формі, у різних жанрово-стильових різновидах і регістрах спілкування, для розв'язання комунікативних завдань у різних сферах життя.

UNIT 1
LANGUAGE CORPORA AND ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

PART 1

 ***READING SECTION***

I. Answer the questions below. Give your reasons. Provide examples from your own experience, if possible.

1. Do different social groups use characteristically elaborated or restricted language codes?
2. What is the role of new technologies in the fields of linguistics?
3. What is Corpus Linguistics? What is Computational Linguistics?
4. What approaches can characterize Empirical Linguistics appropriately?

II. Comment upon the following quotes related to the topic of the unit under consideration. Do you agree or disagree to the ideas suggested? Give your reasons.

1. "Every linguistic sign is located on two axes: the axis of simultaneity and that of succession." *(Roman Jakobson)*

2. "It is common now to address theoretical issues through the examination of bodies of naturally occurring language use." *(Bybee)*

3. "Any linguistic pattern is recognized as a construction as long as some aspect of its form or function is not strictly predictable from its component parts or other constructions recognized to exist. In addition, patterns are stored as constructions even if they are fully predictable as long as they occur with sufficient frequency." *(Goldberg)*

4."The patterns of a word can be defined as all the words and structures which are regularly associated with the word and contribute to its meaning. A pattern can be identified if a combination of words occurs relatively frequently, if it is dependent on a particular word choice, and if there is a clear meaning associated with it." *(Hunston & Francis)*

5. "[…] corpus linguistics is a whole system of methods and principles of how to apply corpora in language studies and teaching/learning, it certainly has a theoretical status. Yet theoretical status is not theory in itself." *(Mc Enery)*

LANGUAGE CORPORA. EMPIRICAL LINGUISTICS.

<…> Since the 1990s, a "language corpus" usually means a text collection which is:

• large: millions, or even hundreds of millions, of running words, usually sampled from hundreds or thousands of individual texts;

• computer-readable: accessible with software such as concordancers, which can find, list and sort linguistic patterns;
• designed for linguistic analysis: selected according to a sociolinguistic theory of language variation, to provide a sample of specific text-types or a broad and balanced sample of a language.

Much "corpus linguistics" is driven purely by curiosity. It aims to improve language description and theory, and the task for applied linguistics is to assess the relevance of this work to practical applications. Corpus data are essential for accurately describing language use, and have shown how lexis, grammar, and semantics interact. This in turn has applications in language teaching, translation, forensic linguistics, and broader cultural analysis. In limited cases, applications can be direct. For example, if advanced language learners have access to a corpus, they can study for themselves how a word or grammatical construction is typically used in authentic data. Hunston (2002, pp. 170–84) discusses data-driven discovery learning and gives further references.

However, applications are usually indirect. Corpora provide observable evidence about language use, which leads to new descriptions, which in turn are embodied in dictionaries, grammars, and teaching materials. Since the late 1980s, the influence of this work is most evident in new monolingual English dictionaries (CIDE, 1995; COBUILD, 1995a; LDOCE, 1995; OALD, 1995) and grammars (e.g., COBUILD, 1990), aimed at advanced learners, and based on authentic examples of current usage from large corpora. Other corpus-based reference grammars (e.g., G. Francis, Hunston, & Manning, 1996, 1998; Biber et al., 1999) are invaluable resources for materials producers and teachers.

Corpora are just sources of evidence, available to all linguists, theoretical or applied. A sociolinguist might use a corpus of audio-recorded conversations to study relations between social class and accent; a psycholinguist might use the same corpus to study slips of the tongue; and a lexicographer might be interested in the frequency of different phrases. The study might be purely descriptive: a grammarian might want to know which constructions are frequent in casual spoken language but rare in formal written language. Or it might have practical aims: someone writing teaching materials might use a specialized corpus to discover which grammatical constructions occur in academic research articles; and a forensic linguist might want to study norms of language use, in order to estimate the likelihood that linguistic patterns in an anonymous letter are evidence of authorship.

So, if corpus linguistics is not (necessarily) applied linguistics, and is not a branch of linguistics, then what is it? It is an empirical approach to studying language, which uses observations of attested data in order to make generalizations about lexis, grammar, and semantics. Corpora solve the problem of observing patterns of language use. It is these patterns which are the real object of study, and it is findings about recurrent lexico-grammatical units of meaning which have implications for both theoretical and applied linguistics.

Large corpora have provided many new facts about words, phrases, grammar, and meaning, even for English, which many teachers and linguists assumed was fairly well understood. Valid applications of corpus studies depend on the design of corpora, the observational methods of analysis, and the interpretation of the findings.

Applied linguists must assess this progression from evidence to interpretation to applications, and this chapter therefore has sections on empirical linguistics (pre- and post-computers), corpus design and software, findings and descriptions, and implications and applications.

I use these presentation conventions. LEMMAS (LEXEMES) are in upper case. *Word-forms* are lower case italics. 'Meanings' are in single quotes. Collocates of a node are in angle brackets: UNDERGO <surgery>.

Since corpus study gives priority to observing millions of running words, computer technology is essential. This makes linguistics analogous to the natural sciences, where it is observational and measuring instruments (such as microscopes, radio telescopes, and x-ray machines) which extended our grasp of reality far beyond "the tiny sphere attainable by unaided common sense" (Wilson, 1998, p. 49).

Observation is not restricted to any single method, but concordances are essential for studying lexical, grammatical, and semantic patterns. Printed concordance lines (see Appendix) are limited in being static, but a computer accessible concordance is both an observational and experimental tool, since ordering it alphabetically to left and right brings together repeated lexico-grammatical patterns. A single concordance line, on the horizontal axis, is a fragment of language use (*parole*). The vertical axis of a concordance shows repeated co-occurrences, which are evidence of units of meaning in the language system (*langue*).

The tiny sample of concordance lines in the Appendix is not representative. In a real study one might have hundreds or thousands of concordance lines, but I can use this sample for illustration. Concordance data are often especially good at distinguishing words with related propositional meanings, but different connotations and patterns of usage. The Appendix therefore gives examples of *endure*, *persevere*, *persist*, and *undergo*, which are all used to talk about unpleasant things which last a long time, but which differ in their surrounding lexis and grammar. For example, we can observe how the word-form *persist* occurs in distinct constructions. When its subject is an abstract noun, it often denotes unpleasant things (*fears*, *problems*), often medical (*symptoms*, *headaches*), and often has a time reference (*for over a year*, *for up to six weeks*). Alternatively, when the subject of *persist in* is animate, it is often used of someone who persists, often unreasonably or *in the face of* opposition, in doing something which is difficult or disapproved of. Such recurrent co-occurrence patterns provide evidence of typical meaning and use.

It is sometimes objected that concordances place words in small, arbitrary contexts, defined by the width of a computer screen, and ignore contexts of

communication. However, it is an empirical finding that evidence for the meaning of a node word often occurs within a short span of co-text. In addition, corpora allow individual utterances to be interpreted against the usage of many speakers and the intertextual norms of general language use.

The observation of large publicly available data sets implies (a weak sense of) inductive methods, that is, gathering many observations and identifying patterns in them. This does not imply mechanical methods of generalizing from observations, but (as Fillmore, 1992, pp. 38, 58 puts it) a combination of corpus linguistics (getting the facts right) and armchair linguistics (thinking through the hypotheses that corpus data suggest). It does mean, however, that corpus study belongs to a philosophical tradition of empiricism. Contrary to a loss of confidence, from Saussure to Chomsky, in the ability to observe real language events, corpora show that language use is highly patterned.

Although there are limitations on corpus design (see below), and although we can never entirely escape subjective interpretations, corpora allow "a degree of objectivity" about some central questions, "where before we could only speculate" (Kilgarriff, 1997, p. 137). There are no automatic discovery procedures, but inductive generalizations can be tested against observations in independent corpora.

Corpus methods therefore differ sharply from the view, widely held since the 1960s, that native speaker introspection gives special access to linguistic competence. Although linguists' careful analyses of their own idiolects have revealed much about language and cognition, there are several problems with intuitive data and misunderstandings about the relation between observation and intuition in corpus work. Intuitive data can be circular: data and theory have the same source in the linguist who both proposes a hypothesis and invents examples to support or refute it. They can be unreliable or absent: many facts about frequency, grammar, and meaning are systematic and evident in corpora, but unrecorded in pre-corpus dictionaries. They are narrow: introspection about small sets of invented sentences cannot be the sole and privileged source of data.

There is no point in being purist about data, and it is always advisable to compare data from different sources, both independent corpora, and also introspection and experiments. Corpus study does not reject intuition, but gives it a different role. Concordances focus intuition, and this "confirms rather than produces the data" (de Beaugrande, 1999, pp. 247–8). Without this retrospective competence, native speakers could not recognize untypical collocations in literature, advertising, or jokes. We cannot know in advance what kinds of evidence might bear on a theory of linguistic competence (as even Chomsky, 2000, pp. 139–40 admits). Nevertheless, with some striking exceptions (Fillmore, 1992), cognitive approaches have neglected corpus data on recurrent semantic patterns as evidence of cognitive structures. <…>

III. Answer the following questions to the text.

1) Why is computer technology essential in corpus study? What makes linguistics analogous to the natural sciences?
2) Are printed or computer accessible concordances more efficient? Give your reasons.
3) What problems do corpora solve? Is corpus linguistics equal or similar to applied linguistics?
4) What are the reasons for corpus study to belong to a philosophical tradition of empiricism?
5) Why do you think language use is highly patterned?
6) Do concordances really ignore contexts of communication? Give your reasons.
7) What are the benefits of using language corpora?
8) Can a sample of concordance lines in the Appendix be representative?
9) What are concordance data often good at?
10) What is the vertical axis of a concordance? How is it related to the horizontal axis?

IV. Match the words to their definitions.

1	inductive	**a**	a word or phrase that someone speaks;
2	introspection	**b**	the fact that two things have similar features or qualities; a list produced by a computer that shows every example of a particular word that is used in the books, newspapers etc stored on the computer;
3	idiolect	**c**	something that you suggest is true, although you do not say it directly;
4	cognitive	**d**	the process of carefully examining your own feelings, thoughts, and ideas;
5	corpus	**e**	a piece of computer software that is designed to do a particular job;
6	application	**f**	one person's individual way of speaking or writing a language;
7	implication	**g**	something that is connected with recognizing and understanding things;
8	utterance	**h**	not based on any particular plan, or not done for any particular reason; used about actions that are considered to be unfair;
9	arbitrary	**i**	a collection of written and spoken language stored on computer and used for language research and writing dictionaries;
10	concordance	**g**	reasoning from particular facts or ideas to a general rule or law;

V. Match the parts below to complete a single syntactic unit from the text.

1	There are no automatic discovery procedures,	**a**	cannot be the sole and privileged source of data.
2	There is no point in being purist about data, and it is always advisable to compare data from different sources,	**b**	but gives it a different role.
3	A single concordance line, on the horizontal axis,	**c**	in the ability to observe real language events, corpora show that language use is highly patterned.
4	Contrary to a loss of confidence, from Saussure to Chomsky,	**d**	which are evidence of units of meaning in the language system (*langue*).
5	They are narrow: introspection about small sets of invented sentences	**e**	but different connotations and patterns of usage.
6	It is an empirical approach to studying language,	**f**	the observational methods of analysis, and the interpretation of the findings.
7	Corpus study does not reject intuition,	**g**	both independent corpora, and also introspection and experiments.
8	Concordance data are often especially good at distinguishing words with related propositional meanings,	**h**	is a fragment of language use (*parole*).
9	Valid applications of corpus studies depend on the design of corpora,	**i**	which uses observations of attested data in order to make generalizations about lexis, grammar, and semantics.
10	The vertical axis of a concordance shows repeated co-occurrences,	**J**	but inductive generalizations can be tested against observations in independent corpora.

VI. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words from the box. Underline the words inserted:

semantic hypothesis collocations formal descriptive evidence intertextual empirical concordance introspection grammatical

1) Without this retrospective competence, native speakers could not recognize untypical ……..in literature, advertising, or jokes.

2) In a real study one might have hundreds or thousands of …….lines, but I can use this sample for illustration.

3) In addition, corpora allow individual utterances to be interpreted against the usage of many speakers and the …….norms of general language use.

4) Nevertheless, with some striking exceptions, cognitive approaches have neglected corpus data on recurrent ……..patterns as evidence of cognitive structures.

5) Such recurrent co-occurrence patterns provide ……..of typical meaning and use.

6) Intuitive data can be circular: data and theory have the same source in the linguist who both proposes a ……and invents examples to support or refute it.

7) Corpus methods therefore differ sharply from the view, widely held since the 1960s, that native speaker ……gives special access to linguistic competence.

8) Observation is not restricted to any single method, but concordances are essential for studying lexical, …….., and semantic patterns.

9) However, it is an …….finding that evidence for the meaning of a node word often occurs within a short span of co-text.

10) The study might be purely…….: a grammarian might want to know which constructions are frequent in casual spoken language but rare in …….written language.

VII. Find appropriate synonyms (if any) and antonyms (if any) to the words below:

№	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1	observable (adj.)		
2	valuable (adj.)		
3	attainable (adj.)		
4	generalization (n.)		
5	approve (v.)		
6	concordance (n.)		
7	valid (adj.)		
8	implication (n.)		
9	aided (adj.)		
10	competence (n.)		

VIII. Provide all the possible derivatives to the word forms below. Make up sentences with the words derived.

induce, deduce, introspect, apply, pure, consctruct, occur, valid, aid, recognize, public

IX. Correct the possible mistakes in terms of grammar, spelling and inappropriate use of vocabulary in the sentences below:

1) The tiny sample of concordance lines at the Appendix is not representative.

2) It is sometimes been objected that concordances place words in small, arbitrary contexts, defined by width of computer screen, and ignore contexts about communication.

3) We must not know for advance what kinds of evidence might bear on a theory of linguistic competence.

4) Corpora provides observable evidence about language use, which leads to new descriptions, which on turn are embodied in dictionaries, grammars, and teaching materials.

5) Applied linguists must assess these progression from evidence to interpretation to applications, and this chapter therefore have sections on impirical linguistics (pre- and post-computers), corpus dezign and software, findings and descriptions, and implications and fapplications.

6) For example, we can obzerve how the word-form *persist* occur in distinct construction.

7) However, it is empirical finding that evidence by the meaning of node word often occur within a short span of co-text.

8) Corpus data is essential for accurately describing language use, and has shown how lexis, grammar, and semantics interact.

9) So, if corpus linguistics are not (necessarily) applied linguistics, and are not branch of linguistics, then what it is?

10) It aims for improve language description and theory, and the task for applied linguistics to assess the relevance of this work to practical applications.

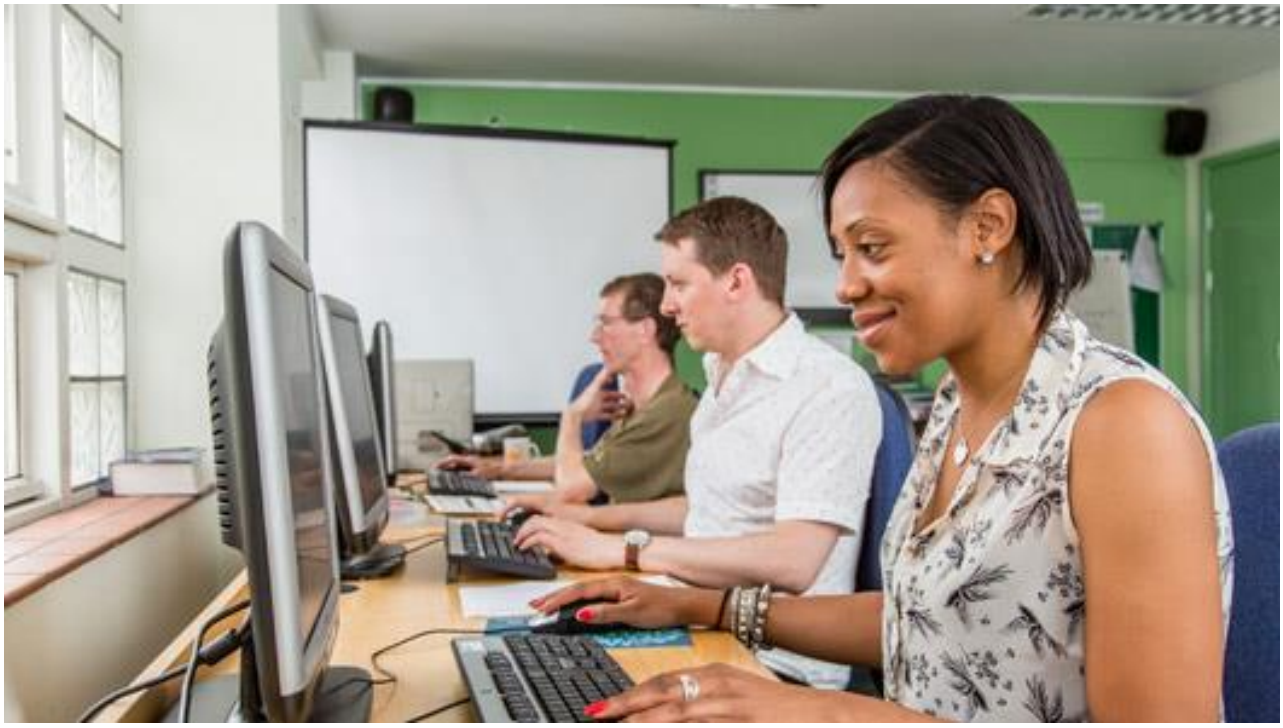
X. Fill the gaps with a necessary preposition from the box below.

with (2)	to (2)	of (9)	for	within (2)	from (2)
between	before	on	about	by (2)	in (2)

1) There was corpus study long ____ computers. ____ a historical perspective, Saussure's radical uncertainty ____ the viability ____ studying parole, followed____ Chomsky's reliance ____ introspective data, were short breaks ____ a long tradition ____ observational language study. 2) Disregard ____ quantified textual data was never accepted ____ everyone. 3) Corder emphasizes the relevance ____ frequency studies ____ language teaching, and language corpora have always been indispensable ____ studying dead languages, unwritten languages and dialects, child language acquisition, and lexicography. 4) So, ____ both philological and fieldwork traditions, corpus study goes back hundreds ____ years, ____ a broad tradition ____ rhetorical and textual analysis. 5) Early concordances were prepared ____ texts ____ cultural significance. 6) The other main reason ____ studying large text collections, which again emphasizes the central concern ____ meaning, was the attempt to produce comprehensive dictionaries. 7) Modern lexicographers use better designed corpora, but the basic approach ____ semantic analysis is not fundamentally different ____ that ____ Cruden, Ayscough, Johnson, and Murray. 8) Other impressive quantitative corpus

analyses, ____ the 1890s and the 1950s, were possible only ____ significant expense and personnel, and often had precise institutional and/or educational applications.

SPEAKING SECTION.
PICTURE DESCRIPTION WORKSHEET



DISCUSSING FACTUAL INFORMATION

Where? There is a classroom/computer lab/lecture room at the university/library/school. It looks out-of-date/modern. The people in the picture belong to different/the same ethnic group/(s)/nationalit(y)ies/origin.

When? The scene takes place during the lesson/working day/excursion/staff meeting. We can/cannot see in the picture, what is the weather like outside. The scene takes place in the early morning/at midday/in the evening/at midnight.

What else can be mentioned about the setting? What can you see in the background and the foreground?

Who and what? How many? There are _____ people in the _____. They all are dressed _____, the woman is wearing a _____ blouse, the man _____ is wearing a white _____ shirt and the other man is wearing a _____ t-shirt. They are working with _____. They are _____ and they are involved in the creating of _____.

applied linguists casually in the middle computers language corpora khaki computer lab three light sleeveless

DISCUSSING CONCEPTUAL INFORMATION

1. Who could take the picture?
2. What is the possible title of the picture under consideration? How can it be related to Computer Science area? What is the message of the picture?
3. Are the people in the picture posing for camera on purpose?
5. What do you think had happened before the picture was taken?
6. What will they do next after the picture having been taken?

PICTURE DESCRIPTION

Make up a list of 20 key-words covering factual and conceptual information of the picture considered. Describe the picture using the key-words, cover factual and conceptual information of the picture considered.

PART 2

READING SECTION

I. Answer the questions below. Give your reasons. Provide examples from your own experience, if possible.

1. Are you fammiliar with any corpora of English or Ukrainian languages?
2. Will any list of extant corpora be quickly out of date?
3. What are the basic principles of corpus design?
4. What is a row corpus?
5. What can be corpora used for?

II. Comment upon the following quotes related to the topic of the unit under consideration. Do you agree or disagree to the ideas suggested? Give your reasons.

1. "...corpora [are becoming] more and more the normal tools of linguistic enquiry." *(Elena Tognini-Bonelli)*
2. "Corpora offer an ideal instrument to observe and acquire socially established form/meaning pairings." *(Silvia Bernardini)*
3. "Corpora have been likened to the invention of telescopes in the history of astronomy." *(Susan Hunston)*
4. "...a corpus by itself can do nothing at all, being nothing more than a store of used language." *(Susan Hunston)*
5. "The essence of the corpus as against the text is that you do not observe it directly; instead you use tools of indirect observation, like query languages, concordancers, collocators, parsers, and aligners..." *(John McHardy Sinclair)*

MODERN CORPORA AND SOFTWARE

Modern computer-assisted corpus study is based on two principles.

1 *The observer must not influence what is observed.* What is selected for observation depends on convenience, interests and hypotheses, but corpus data are part of natural language use, and not produced for purposes of linguistic analysis.

2 *Repeated events are significant.* Quantitative work with large corpora reveals what is central and typical, normal and expected. It follows (Teubert, 1999) that corpus study is inherently sociolinguistic, since the data are authentic acts of communication; inherently diachronic, since the data are what has frequently occurred in the past; and inherently quantitative. This disposes of the frequent confusion that corpus study is concerned with "mere" performance, in Chomsky's (1965, p. 3) pejorative sense of being characterized by "memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors." The aim is not to study idiosyncratic details of performance which are, by chance, recorded in a corpus. On the contrary, a corpus reveals what frequently recurs, sometimes hundreds or thousands of times, and cannot possibly be due to chance.

Available corpora

Any list of extant corpora would be quickly out of date, but there are two sets of important distinctions between

• small first generation corpora from the 1960s onward and much larger corpora from the 1990s, and

• carefully designed reference corpora, small and large, and other specialized corpora, opportunistic text collections, archives and the like.

The first computer-readable corpora, compiled in the 1960s, are very small by contemporary standards, but still useful because of their careful design. The Brown corpus (from Brown University in the USA) is one million words of written American English, sampled from texts published in 1961: both informative prose, from different text-types (e.g., press and academic writing), and different topics (e.g., religion and hobbies); and imaginative prose (e.g., detective fiction and romance). Parallel corpora were designed to enable comparative research: the LOB corpus (from the universities of Lancaster, Oslo, & Bergen) contains British data from 1961; Frown and FLOB (from Freiburg University, Germany) contain American and British data from 1991; and ICE (International Corpora of English) contains regional varieties of English, such as Indian and Australian. Similar design principles underlie the Lund corpus of spoken British English (from University College London and Lund University), which contains around half a million words, divided into samples of the usage of adult, educated, professional people, including face-to-face and telephone conversations, lectures and discussions.

By the late 1990s, some corpora consisted of hundreds of millions of words. The Bank of English (at COBUILD in Birmingham, UK) and the British National

Corpus (BNC) had commercial backing from publishers, who have used the corpora to produce dictionaries and grammars. The 100-million-word BNC is also carefully designed to include demographically and stylistically defined samples of written and spoken language. The Bank of English arguably over-emphasizes mass media texts, but these are very influential, and it still has a range of text-types and advantages of size: over 400 million words by 2001. Because constructing large reference corpora is so expensive, it may be that huge new corpora cannot again be created in the near future. These corpora will remain standard reference points, which can be supplemented by small specialized corpora, designed by individual researchers, and by large opportunistic collections.

Many other corpora for English, and increasingly for other languages, are available (see Michael Barlow's website: address in the further reading section below).

Corpus design

Some basic principles of corpus design (Kennedy, 1998, pp. 13–87; Hunston, 2002, pp. 25–37) are simple enough. A corpus which claims to be a balanced sample of language use must represent variables of demography, style, and topic, and must include texts which are spoken and written, casual and formal, fiction and non-fiction, which vary in level (e.g., popular and technical), age of audience (e.g., children or adults), and sex and geographical origin of author, and which illustrate a wide range of subject fields (e.g., natural and social sciences, commerce, and leisure). However, no corpus can truly represent a whole language, since no one quite knows what should be represented. It is not even obvious what are appropriate proportions of mainstream text-types such as quality newspapers, literary classics, and everyday conversation, much less text-types such as newspaper ads, business correspondence, and church sermons. (Even carefully designed corpora have odd gaps: despite their influence as a text-type, textbooks are not represented in Brown and LOB.) A realistic aim is a corpus which samples widely, is not biased toward data which are easy to collect (e.g., mass media texts), does not under-represent data which are difficult to collect (e.g., casual conversation), and is not unbalanced by text-types which have over-specialized lexis and grammar (e.g., academic research articles).

Since large quantities of data are necessary in order to study what is typical and probable, an important criterion is size, which is usually measured in important: How large is the corpus measured as word-types (i.e., different words), or as the number of different texts or text-types it contains? A corpus might be very large, but consist entirely of American newswire texts, with a correspondingly narrow vocabulary. One can also attempt to measure linguistic influence: How large is the audience for the texts in the corpus? Casual conversation is a linguistic universal, but a typical conversation is private, whereas the language of the mass media is public, and therefore much more influential. And whereas some texts are heard once by millions of people (sports commentaries), others (literary classics)

are constantly re-read over generations. A reception index, which weights texts by their audience size, can be constructed at least in a rough way.

In summary, any corpus is a compromise between the desirable and the feasible, and although design criteria cannot be operationalized, large balanced corpora reveal major regularities in language use. In any case, there is no reason to rely on any single corpus, and it is often advisable to combine large general corpora designed according to principles of sociolinguistic variation, small corpora from specific knowledge domains (since much lexis is determined by topic), and opportunistic text collections.

Huge text collections (such as the world-wide-web) can be used to study patterns which do not occur even in large reference corpora. For example, concordance lines in the Appendix show that *undergo* is typically used of someone who is forced to undergo something unpleasant, often a medical procedure or a test of some kind, or of a situation which undergoes some profound and often unwelcome change. Typical examples are:

had to *undergo* a stringent medical examination

is about to *undergo* dramatic changes

However generalizations must be checked against potential counter-examples. First, comparison of different text-types shows that, in scientific and technical English, *undergo* usually has no unpleasant connotations. An example from the BNC (which still involves 'change') is:

the larvae *undergo* a complex cycle of 12 stages

Second, people 'unwillingly' undergo unpleasant experiences. But does the collocation *willingly UNDERGO* occur and does it provide a counter-example? Now we have a problem: the lemma UNDERGO is fairly frequent (around 25 occurrences per million words in the BNC), and even *willingly* is not infrequent (around 5 per million), but the combination *willingly UNDERGO* does not occur at all in the 100-million-word BNC. However, a search of the world-wide-web quickly provided 200 examples, which revealed another pattern: people *willingly undergo* a sacrifice for the sake of others or for the sake of religious beliefs. Characteristic examples are: one can *willingly undergo* some painful experience for one who is dearly loved sufferings and dangers the early Christians *willingly underwent* for the sake of . . .

A corpus is specifically designed for language study, but other text collections (such as newspapers on CD-ROM) can be useful for some types of study. Again, I see no point in being purist about data, as long as their source is stated in a way which allows findings to be assessed. The world-wide-web has the advantage of enormous size, but it is impossible to characterize its overall range of texts. Words and phrases in the world-wide-web can be searched for directly with search engines, or with a concordancer which uses these engines, such as one developed at the University of Liverpool (http://www.webcorp.org.uk/).

Raw, lemmatized, and annotated corpora

A corpus may consist of raw text (strings of orthographic word-forms), or it can be lemmatized, and annotated or tagged, for intonation (for spoken corpora), grammatical or semantic categories. Part-of-speech tagging allows a corpus to be searched for grammatical constructions, such as adjective-noun combinations (*persistent rain*), and make it possible to study the frequency of grammatical categories in different text-types (e.g., see Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998, pp. 59–65 on nominalizations; and Carter & McCarthy, 1999, on passives). Information on the frequencies of lexical and grammatical features can indicate to language teachers where it is worthwhile devoting pedagogical effort (Kennedy, 1998, pp. 88–203).

Nevertheless, a simple example illustrates the value of working with raw text. Many occurrences of the lemmas of the verbs PERSIST and ENDURE share the semantic and pragmatic features that something 'unpleasant' is lasting 'for a long time'. However, although the adjectives *persistent* and *enduring* also share the feature "for a long time", their typical collocates show their very different connotations:

persistent <ambiguity, bleeding, confusion, headaches>

enduring <appeal, legacies, peace, significance, values>

Traditionally, lemmas comprise words within a single part of speech. *Persistent* is an adjective, and shares the connotations of the verb PERSIST. *Enduring* might be considered an adjective, or the *-ing* form of the verb ENDURE, but has very different connotations from the verb.

In addition, the grammatical categories needed for unrestricted naturally occurring text can be very different from those required for the invented data described in abstract syntax. This draws into question centuries-old assumptions about the part-of-speech system (Sinclair, 1991, pp. 81–98; Sampson, 1995; Hallan, 2001). So, tagging may make unwarranted assumptions about appropriate grammatical categories. Again, the principle is that observer and data should be kept independent. The facts never "speak for themselves," but inductive methods aim for the minimum of preconceptions. How to lemmatize words is by no means always obvious, and there are no standardized systems for part-of-speech tagging (Atwell et al., 2000) or full parsing (Sampson, 1995).

IV. Answer the following questions to the text.

1) What are two principles of modern computer-assisted corpus study?

2) What do the following abbreviations stand for: LOB, FLOB, ICE? What kind of data do they contain?

3) Why will the late 1990s corpora remain standard reference points in the near future?

4) What must a corpus which claims to be a balanced sample of language use represent and include?

5) How can you comment upon the following statement from the text: “Any corpus is a compromise between the desirable and the feasible.”

6) What is the difference between a corpus and other text collections (such as newspapers on CD-ROM)?

7) Can huge text collections be used to study patterns which do not occur even in large reference corpora? Explain your point of view. Provide examples.

8) Why is it impossible to characterize the world-wide-web overall range of texts?

9) What does part-of-speech tagging allow a corpus?

10) How do lemmas traditionally comprise words? Provide examples.

V. Match the words to their definitions.

1	sermon	**a**	a principle or standard by which something may be judged or decided
2	gap	**b**	be the cause or basis of (something)
3	criterion	**c**	a small part or quantity intended to show what the whole is like
4	parsing	**d**	a talk on a religious or moral subject, especially one given during a church service
5	underlie	**e**	shared by most people and regarded as normal or conventional
6	occur	**f**	add an extra element or amount to
7	mainstream	**g**	resoling (a sentence) into its component parts and describing their syntactic roles
8	sample	**h**	the rise and fall of the voice in speaking
9	supplement	**i**	exist or be found to be present in a place or under a particular set of conditions
10	intonation	**g**	a difference, especially an undesirable one, between two views or situations

VI. Match the parts below to complete a single syntactic unit from the text.

1	Quantitative work with large corpora reveals	**a**	who have used the corpora to produce dictionaries and grammars.
2	The Brown corpus is one million words	**b**	that something ‘unpleasant’ is lasting ‘for a long time’.
3	The Bank of English and the British National Corpus had commercial backing from publishers,	**c**	whereas the language of the mass media is public, and therefore much more influential.
4	However, no corpus can truly represent a whole language,	**d**	*undergo* usually has no unpleasant connotations.
5	Casual conversation is a linguistic universal, but a typical conversation	**e**	what is central and typical, normal and expected.

	is private,		
6	Comparison of different text-types shows that, in scientific and technical English,	**f**	grammatical constructions, such as adjective-noun combinations.
7	The world-wide-web has the advantage of enormous size,	**g**	since no one quite knows what should be represented.
8	Part-of-speech tagging allows a corpus to be searched for	**h**	and there are no standardized systems for part-of-speech tagging or full parsing.
9	Many occurrences of the lemmas of the verbs PERSIST and ENDURE share the semantic and pragmatic features	**i**	of written American English, sampled from texts published in 1961.
10	How to lemmatize words is by no means always obvious,	**j**	but it is impossible to characterize its overall range of texts.

VII. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words from the box. Underline the words inserted:

due to chance syntax connotations raw text collocates intonation concordance lines demographically unrestricted computer-readable assessed sacrifice recurs pattern samples reference points opportunistic

1) A corpus reveals what frequently ……, sometimes hundreds or thousands of times, and cannot possibly be …….

2) The first…… corpora, compiled in the 1960s, are very small by contemporary standards, but still useful because of their careful design.

3) The 100-million-word BNC is also carefully designed to include …… and stylistically defined …… of written and spoken language.

4) These corpora will remain standard ……, which can be supplemented by small specialized corpora, designed by individual researchers, and by large …… collections.

5) For example, …… show that *undergo* is typically used of someone who is forced to undergo something unpleasant, often a medical procedure or a test of some kind, or of a situation which undergoes some profound and often unwelcome change.

6) However, a search of the world-wide-web quickly provided 200 examples, which revealed another ……: people *willingly undergo* a …… for the sake of others or for the sake of religious beliefs.

7) There is no point in being purist about data, as long as their source is stated in a way which allows findings to be …….

8) A corpus may consist of ……, or it can be lemmatized, and annotated or tagged, for ……, grammatical or semantic categories.

9) Although the adjectives *persistent* and *enduring* also share the feature "for a long time", their typical …… show their very different …….

10) The grammatical categories needed for…… naturally occurring text can be very different from those required for the invented data described in abstract …….

VIII. Find appropriate synonyms (if any) and antonyms (if any) to the words below.

№	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1	assumption (n.)		
2	pejorative (adj.)		
3	frequent (adj.)		
4	recur (v.)		
5	effort (n.)		
6	reveal (v.)		
7	authentic (adj.)		
8	represent (v.)		
9	influence (n.)		
10	biased(adj.)		

IX. Provide all the possible derivatives to the word forms below. Make up sentences with the words derived.

infrequent, comparative, produce, contain, educate, influential, generation, occur, combination, observer

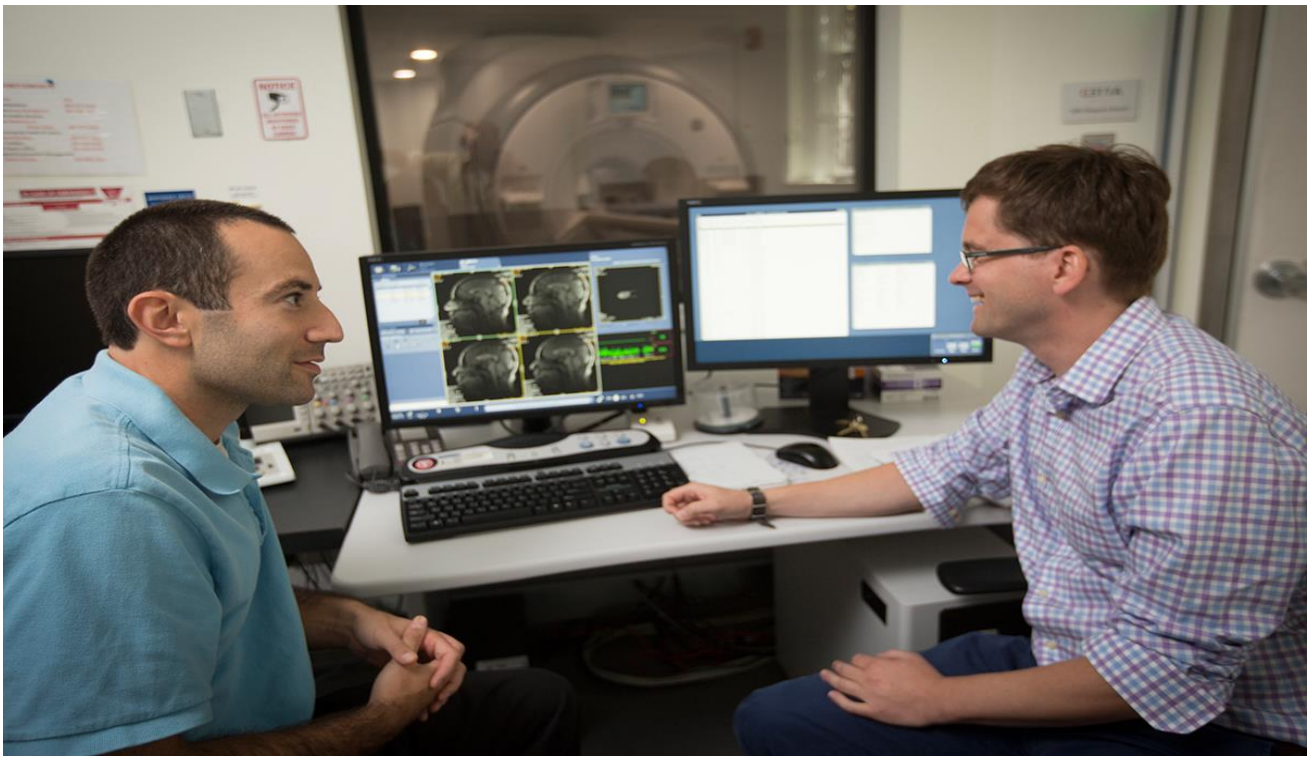
X. Open the brackets, putting the infinitive form of the verb given into the necessary tense form (active or passive).

1) The main findings which ..... (to result) from the "vastly expanded empirical base" ..... (to concern) the association patterns which inseparably ..... (to relate) item and context. 2) The implications for language teaching ..... (to be), at one level, rather evident. 3) A well-known problem for even advanced language learners ..... (to be) that they may speak grammatically, yet not sound native-like, because their language use ..... (to deviate) from native speaker collocational norms. 4) Syllabus designers ought to know which words ..... (to use) frequently in conventionalized combinations, and which ..... (to use) rarely and in special contexts.

5) The importance of collocations for language learners ..... (to emphasize) in the 1930s and 1940s by H. E. Palmer and A. S. Hornby. 6) More

recently corpora ..... (to use) to study how learners and native speakers ..... (to differ) in their use of conventionalized expressions, and a major topic ..... (to be) how to represent such information in learners' dictionaries. 7) Proposals also ..... (to make) about the form of a "lexical syllabus." 8) This concept ..... (to discuss) in detail by Corder, and ..... (to revive) in corpus work by Willis and Lewis, although corresponding teaching materials ..... (to adopt) only to a limited extent. 9) The shorthand label for this area ..... (to be) phraseology: the identification of typical multi-word units of language use and meaning.

SPEAKING SECTION. PICTURE DESCRIPTION WORKSHEET



DISCUSSING FACTUAL INFORMATION

Where? There is a classroom/conference hall/lecture room/laboratory at the university/library/school/enterprise. It looks out-of-date/modern and well/poorly equipped. The people in the picture belong to different/the same ethnic group/(s)/nationalit(y)ies/origin, they represent the same/different age and gender groups.

When? The scene takes place during the lesson/match/discussion session/job-interview/procedure of carrying out an experiment/excursion/staff meeting. We can/cannot see in the picture, what is the weather like outside. The scene takes place in the early morning/at midday/in the evening/at midnight.

What else can be mentioned about the setting? What can you see in the background and the foreground?

Who and what? How many? There are ___ men in the _____ office. One of them is wearing_____, the other one is _____neither glasses nor _____. The men are obviously in their _____thirties. Both men are _____. The people in the picture are discussing_____ issues. There are two personal _____on the table. The men in the picture are _____. One of them is wearing a blue _____, the other one is wearing a checked_____. The discussion seems rather _____.

mid	two	glasses	sitting	wearing	a watch	computers	T-shirt
laboratory	neurolinguistics	smiling	shirt	positive			

DISCUSSING CONCEPTUAL INFORMATION

1. Who could take the picture?
2. What is the possible title of the picture under consideration? How can it be related to Computer Science area? What is the message of the picture?
3. Are the people in the picture posing for camera on purpose?
5. What do you think had happened before the picture was taken?
6. What will they do next after the picture having been taken?

PICTURE DESCRIPTION

Make up a list of 20 key-words covering factual and conceptual information of the picture considered. Describe the picture using the key-words, cover factual and conceptual information of the picture considered.

PART 3

READING SECTION

I. Answer the questions below. Give your reasons. Provide examples from your own experience, if possible.

1. Do you agree that a word may be considered as the main unit of language? Give your reasons.
2. Why do particular words appear to be more frequent than other? How can word frequency be measured?
3. Why are short words more frequently used than longer ones? How is that related to the issue of economy of effort for the speaker?
4. Should genres be taken into consideration when forming and analyzing word frequency lists? Give your reasons.
5. Why and to what extent can word frequency lists be limited? Give your reasons.

II. Comment upon the following quotes related to the topic of the unit under consideration. Do you agree or disagree to the ideas suggested? Give your reasons.

1. “Collocations are actual words in habitual company. A word in a usual collocation stares you in the face just as it is. Colligations cannot be of words as such. Colligations of grammatical categories related in a grammatical structure do not necessarily follow word divisions or even sub-divisions of words.” *(John Rupert Firth)*

2. So difficult it is to show the various meanings and imperfections of words when we have nothing else but words to do it with. *(John Locke)*

3. A word is not a crystal, transparent and unchanged, it is the skin of a living thought and may vary greatly in color and content according to the circumstances and the time in which it is used. *(Oliver Wendell Holmes)*

4. “It's strange how a word, a phrase, a sentence, can feel like a blow to the head.”
(Veronica Roth)

5. “Prose consists less and less of words chosen for the sake of their meaning, and more and more of phrases tacked together like the sections of a prefabricated hen-house.” *(George Orwell)*

WORDS AND PHRASES.
RECURRENT PHRASES, COLLOCATIONS AND PHRASAL SCHEMAS

<…> Many corpus studies reject individual words as units of meaning, and propose a theory of abstract phrasal units. Nevertheless, words are a good place to start, since, “a central fact about a word is how frequent it is” (Kilgarriff, 1997, p. 135), and other things being equal, the more frequent a word is, the more important it is to know it, and to teach it early to learners: hence the interest, since the 1890s, in reliable word-frequency lists for many applications.

Frequency shows that system and use are inseparable (Halliday, 1991). More frequent words tend to be shorter, irregular in morphology and spelling, and more ambiguous out of context: a glance at a dictionary shows that short frequent words require many column inches. A few, mainly grammatical, words are very frequent, but most words are very rare, and in an individual text or smallish corpus, around half the words typically occur only once each. In addition, a word with different senses usually has one meaning which is much more frequent. These relations imply a balance between economy of effort for the speaker and clarity for the hearer, and in the 1930s and 1940s Zipf (1945) tried to formulate statistical relations between word frequency, word length, and number of senses. (These regularities apply to many other aspects of human behavior. In a library, a few books are frequently borrowed, but most books collect dust.)

The simplest frequency lists contain unlemmatized word-forms from a general corpus, in alphabetical or frequency order, but there are considerable differences between even the top ten words from an unlemmatized written corpus

(in 1), a spoken corpus (in 2), and a lemmatized mixed written and spoken corpus (in 3):

(1) the, of, and, a, in, to [infinitive marker], is, to [preposition], was, it

(2) I, you, it, the, 's, and, n't, a, that, yeah

(3) the, BE, of, and, a, in, to [infinitive marker], HAVE, it

These examples are from frequency lists for the 100-million-word BNC, made available by Kilgarriff (ftp://ftp.itri.bton.ac.uk/bnc/).

Unlemmatized lists show that different forms of a lemma differ greatly in frequency, and may have very different collocational behavior: see above on *endure* and *enduring*. However, raw frequency lists cannot distinguish words in different grammatical classes (e.g., *firm* as adjective or noun) and the different meanings of a word (e.g., *cold* as 'low temperature' versus 'lacking in feeling'). This requires a grammatically tagged corpus and a method of automatic sense disambiguation, and makes an apparently trivial counting task into a considerable theoretical problem.

Frequency lists require careful interpretation to provide what is really wanted, which is a measure of the relative importance of words, and more important than raw frequency may be even distribution across many text-types. Conversely, we want to know not only what is frequent in general, but what distinguishes a text-type. For example, words may be frequent in academic texts but unlikely in fiction, or vice-versa: *constants, measured, thermal, theoretically sofa, kissed, damned, impatiently.*

These examples are from Johansson (1981; discussed also by Kennedy, 1998, p. 106). For important reference data on word frequency and distribution, see W. Francis and Kucera (1982), Johannson and Hofland (1988–9), and Leech, Rayson, and Wilson (2001; and http://www.comp.lancs.ac.uk/ucrel/bncfreq/flists.html).

We come back to the distinction between evidence and interpretation. Frequency and distribution (which are all we have) are indirect objective measures of the subjective concept of salience (which is what we really want). The objective measures have limitations, but allow analysis to be based on public and replicable data. The only alternative is intuition, which may be absent, speculative, or wrong. A very useful applied frequency study is reported by Coxhead (2000), who used a corpus of 3.5 million words to set up the Academic Word List (AWL).

This contains words which have both high frequency and wide distribution in academic texts, irrespective of subject area (but excluding approximately the 2,000 most frequent words in English, from West, 1953). AWL comprises 570 word families: not just word-forms, but head-words plus their inflected and derived forms, and therefore around 3,100 word-forms altogether, e.g.: *concept: conception, concepts, conceptual, conceptualization, conceptualize, conceptualized, conceptualizes, conceptualizing, conceptually.*

Coxhead's corpus comprised texts from academic journals and university textbooks from arts, commerce, law, and natural science. To be included in AWL, a word had to occur at least 100 times altogether in the whole academic corpus, at

least ten times in each of the four sub-corpora, and in at least half of 28 more finely defined subject areas, such as biology, economics, history, and linguistics.

AWL gives very good coverage of academic texts, irrespective of subject area. Here it must be remembered that words are *very* uneven in their frequency. In a typical academic text, the single word *the* covers around 6 or 7 per cent of running text, the top ten words cover over 20 per cent, and the 2,000 most frequent words cover around 75 per cent. The words in AWL typically cover a further 10 per cent. The remaining 15 per cent will be specialized words which are specific to a given topic, plus proper names, etc. AWL is further divided into ten sub-groups, from most to least frequent. Group 1 covers 3.6 per cent of the corpus, which means that a student reading academic prose could expect to come across *each word* in group 1, on average, once every four pages or so.

A list is, of course, just a list, not teaching materials, and requires interpretation by materials designers and teachers. However, even as a bare list, AWL can provide a check, for teachers or students themselves, on what words students should know. Word frequency lists are limited, especially for very common words, since these are common, not in their own right, but because they occur in common phrases. For example, *back* is usually in the top 100 in lemmatized frequency lists, and (including compounds such as *backward* and *backwater*) gets nearly five full pages in the COBUILD (1995a) dictionary. This is not because speakers frequently use *back* to mean a part of the body, but because it occurs in many phrases with only residual relations to this denotation. It has many meanings, but vanishingly few uses with the part-of-body meaning. The following examples are from Cobuild (1995a), and Sinclair (1991, p. 116) gives a detailed analysis of its nominal, prepositional and idiomatic uses. *lying on his back; the back of the chair; on the back of a postcard; at the back of the house; round the back; do something behind her back; get off my back; you scratch my back . . . ; see the back of someone; turn your back on*

In summary: Frequent words are frequent because they occur in frequent phrases. In these phrases, frequent words are often delexicalized, because meaning is dispersed across the whole phrase. Since frequent content words are rarely used with their full lexical meaning, the boundary between content and function words is fuzzy. It is for these reasons that the co-occurrence of words and grammatical constructions has been studied so intensively: the central principle is that it is not words, but phrase-like units, which are the basic units of meaning.

The simplest definition of a phrase is a string of two or more uninterrupted word-forms which occur more than once in a text or corpus: see Altenberg (1998) on “recurrent word-combinations” and Biber et al. (1999) on “lexical bundles.” I used a program to identify strings in this sense, in a written corpus of four million words. (Since 2002, when I did this work with a locally written program, excellent n-gram software has been made available by William Fletcher at http://kwicfinder.com/kfNgram/.) The most frequent five-word string, over twice as frequent as any other, was *at the end of the*. And almost 30 out of the top 100 five-word strings had the pattern *PREP + the + NOUN +of + the*.

Examples included: *at the end of the; in the middle of the; at the beginning of the; at the bottomof the*

The program operationalizes, in a very simple way, the concept of repeated units. It cannot automatically identify linguistic units, but presents data in a way which helps the analyst to see patterns. These findings are not an artifact of my small corpus. I looked at the same strings in the 100-million-word BNC, and found that, normalized to estimated occurrences per million words, the frequencies in the two corpora were remarkably similar. These examples represent only one pattern, of course. Other frequent five-word strings have discourse functions:
as a matter of fact; it seems to me that; it may well be that; but on the other hand

Altenberg (1998) identifies other recurrent multi-word strings, and some of their typical pragmatic functions. These multi-word strings are already evidence that recurrent lexicogrammatical units are not fixed phrases, but abstract semantic units. For example, the program above counts separately the strings *on the top of the, on the very top of the,* or *on top of the,* although, to the human analyst, they are semantically related.

A few dozen concordance lines can be manually inspected for patterns, but if we have thousands of lines, then we require a method of summarizing concordances and showing patterns. We can write a program which finds the most frequent collocates of a node, one, two, and three words to the left and right, and lists them in descending frequency.

The positional frequency table for *undergo* shows that it often occurs in a passive construction (*was forced to, is required to*), is often followed by an adjective signaling the seriousness of the event (*extensive, major*), and is often used of medical events (*surgery, operation*).

Raw frequency of co-occurrence is important, but we need to check the frequency of collocation relative to the frequency of the individual words. If two words are themselves very frequent, they may co-occur frequently just by chance. Conversely, a word might be infrequent, but when it does occur, it usually occurs with a small set of words. For example, the word *vegetative* is not frequent, but when it occurs, especially in journalism, it often co-occurs with *persistent,* in the phrase *persistent vegetative state,* with reference to patients in a coma.

The variability of phrasal units makes it doubtful whether there could be a useful "phrase frequency list," but corpus studies show that all words occur in habitual patterns which are often much stronger than is evident to intuition. For example, in a 200-million-word corpus, the word-form *persistent* occurred over 2,300 times, with clear semantic preferences, shown by the top 20 collocates, ordered by frequency: *persistent <offenders, reports, most, rumours, state, vegetative, despite, young, juvenile, problem, injury, problems, rain, allegations, critic, offender, rumors, speculation, amid, cough>*

The most frequent single collocate (in 5 percent of cases) was *offenders;* and the most frequent set of collocates were words for *reports*, *rumors*, and *speculations*.

Table 4.1 Positional frequency table for NODE *undergo* in a span of 3 words to left and right (only collocates occurring five or more times are shown, in descending frequency, independently for each position).

N-3	N-2	N-1	NODE	N+1	N+2	N+3
was	Forced	to	*	a	medical	And
is	Required	will	*	an	surgery	Tests
be	Have	and	*	further	testing	examination
are	Had	would	*	extensive	tests	Of
and	Is	must	*	the	treatment	surgery
that	They	he'll	*	major	Change	operation
been	About	should	*	surgery	changes	transformation
were	And	who	*	treatment	For	Before
where	Patients	women	*	medical	Heart	Test
children	That	often	*	heart	And	medical
He	He		*	his	Major	For
In	Will		*	testing	operation	In
The	Women		*		examination	On
women	Due		*		extensive	training
Will	Ordered		*		transformation	To
For			*		Radical	testing
Last			*		Test	The
Not			*		training	A
Of			*		The	As
						By
						changes

Persistent is used of bad situations (collocates include *problem* and *problems*), which include medical conditions (*cough*, *injury*, *vegetative*) and criminal activities (*juvenile*, *offenders*). Some collocates frequently occur in longer phrases (*persistent juvenile offenders*, *persistent vegetative state*), and most examples involving "crime" and "allegations" are from journalism. With comparable data on a broad sample of words, we can then ask whether *persistent* exerts a stronger `than average collocational attraction on its surrounding collocates. The brief answer is that *persistent* is typical of many words in this respect.

The top collocates of a word provide evidence of its characteristic semantic preferences and syntactic frames. Figures for a broad sample of words show how pervasive collocational attraction is, and allow generalizations about its strength and variability. The example of *persistent* is taken from a data-base (COBUILD, 1995b), which provides a suitable sample of node-words and their collocates for quantitative statements about phraseology. For the 10,000 most frequent content words (word-forms) in the 200-million-word corpus, the database gives the 20 most frequent collocates in a span of four words to left and right. For each node-collocate pair, it gives 20 randomly selected concordance lines, each with a rough

description of its source (e.g., British fiction, American journalism). For individual words, this provides figures on the strength of attraction between node and top collocate: *undergoing <surgery 11%>, undergo <surgery 9%>, endured <years 6%>, persistent <offenders 5%>* (That is, in 11 percent of occurrences, *undergoing* co-occurs with *surgery*, etc.)

The data-base shows that around 75 percent of content words in the central vocabulary of English have a strength of attraction of between 2 and 9 percent. And over 20 percent co-occur with one specific collocate in over 10 percent of occurrences. Conversely, few words have less than one chance in 50 of co-occurring with one specific collocate.

These are figures for the attraction between two single unlemmatized wordforms. Collocational attraction is much stronger if it is calculated between a node and a set of approximate synonyms. For example:

achieving <goal(s) 7%, success, aim, results, objectives> 15%
ambitious <plan(s) 7%, project, program(me), scheme> 16%

The strength of attraction between all common content words is surprisingly high, yet not taken into account in most language description. Corpus study shows kinds of linguistic organization which are not predictable by rule, but are recurrent and observable.

IV. Answer the following questions to the text.

1) What is the central fact about a word?
2) What proves system and use to be inseparable?
3) What kind of evidence do the top collocates of the word provide?
4) Can a useful "phrase frequency list" be elaborated? Give your reasons.
5) When can concordance lines be inspected for patterns manually? When is a method of summarizing concordances required?
6) What does an abbreviation of AWL stand for? What does AWL provide?
7) Why are word frequency lists limited?
8) Provide examples of linguistic functioning in their nominal, prepositional and idiomatic uses.
9) What does word frequency mean? When do we observe words to be delexicalized?
10) Can the program discussed in the text under consideration identify linguistic units automatically? In what way is the linguistic data presented?

V. Match the words to their definitions.

1	variability	**a**	usually or often done by someone;
2	pervasive	**b**	something observed in a scientific investigation or experiment that is not naturally present but occurs as a result of the experiment itself;
3	manually	**c**	the fact that something changes often or is not

			always the same;
4	analyst	**d**	written or spoken language, especially when it is studied in order to understand how people use language;
5	statement	**e**	relating to the meaning of words;
6	artifact	**f**	something that you say or write that states a fact or gives information in a formal way; a written or spoken announcement on an important subject that someone makes in public;
7	habitual	**g**	words that are often used together;
8	semantic	**h**	operated by a person instead of automatically or using a computer;
9	discourse	**i**	spreading through the whole of something and becoming a very obvious feature of it;
10	collocate	**g**	someone whose job is to carefully examine a situation, event etc in order to provide other people with information about it;

VI. Match the parts below to complete a single syntactic unit from the text.

1	The top collocates of a word provide evidence of its	**a**	but we need to check the frequency of collocation relative to the frequency of the individual words.
2	Raw frequency of co-occurrence is important,	**b**	we can then ask whether *persistent* exerts a stronger `than average collocational attraction on its surrounding collocates.
3	For each node-collocate pair, it gives 20 randomly selected concordance lines,	**c**	but are recurrent and observable.
4	With comparable data on a broad sample of words,	**d**	and allow generalizations about its strength and variability.
5	Corpus study shows kinds of linguistic organization which are not predictable by rule,	**e**	characteristic semantic preferences and syntactic frames.
6	Figures for a broad sample of words show how pervasive collocational attraction is,	**f**	each with a rough description of its source (e.g., British fiction, American journalism).
7	It cannot automatically identify linguistic units,	**g**	since these are common, not in their own right, but because they occur in common phrases.
8	These multi-word strings are already evidence that	**h**	but if we have thousands of lines, then we require a method of summarizing concordances and showing patterns.

9	Word frequency lists are limited, especially for very common words,	**i**	recurrent lexicogrammatical units are not fixed phrases, but abstract semantic units.
10	A few dozen concordance lines can be manually inspected for patterns,	**j**	but presents data in a way which helps the analyst to see patterns.

VII. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words from the box. Underline the words inserted:

disambiguation construction meanings morphology collocates distribution pervasive lexical dictionary denotation

1) Since frequent content words are rarely used with their full ……meaning, the boundary between content and function words is fuzzy.

2) Figures for a broad sample of words show how ……collocational attraction is, and allow generalizations about its strength and variability.

3) Some ……frequently occur in longer phrases (*persistent juvenile offenders, persistent vegetative state*), and most examples involving "crime" and "allegations" are from journalism.

4) This requires a grammatically tagged corpus and a method of automatic sense…….., and makes an apparently trivial counting task into a considerable theoretical problem.

5) More frequent words tend to be shorter, irregular in ……and spelling, and more ambiguous out of context: a glance at a dictionary shows that short frequent words require many column inches.

6) The positional frequency table for *undergo* shows that it often occurs in a passive ……(*was forced to, is required to*), is often followed by an adjective signaling the seriousness of the event (*extensive, major*), and is often used of medical events (*surgery, operation*).

7) This is not because speakers frequently use *back* to mean a part of the body, but because it occurs in many phrases with only residual relations to this…….. It has many…….., but vanishingly few uses with the part-of-body meaning.

8) More frequent words tend to be shorter, irregular in morphology and spelling, and more ambiguous out of context: a glance at a ……..shows that short frequent words require many column inches.

9) A few, mainly grammatical, words are very frequent, but most words are very rare, and in an individual text or smallish……., around half the words typically occur only once each.

10) Frequency and ……(which are all we have) are indirect objective measures of the subjective concept of salience (which is what we really want).

VIII. Find appropriate synonyms (if any) and antonyms (if any) to the words below:

№	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1	rough (adj.)		
2	abstract (adj.)		
3	salience (n.)		
4	objective (adj.)		
5	summarize (v.)		
6	comparable (adj.)		
7	respective (adj.)		
8	bare (adj.)		
9	lexicalize (v.)		
10	disperse (v.)		

IX. Provide all the possible derivatives to the word forms below. Make up sentences with the words derived.

mean, regular, ambiguous, subject, object, vanish, part, allow, very, attract

X. Correct the possible mistakes in terms of grammar, spelling and inappropriate use of vocabulary in the sentences below.

1) The strengths of attraction between all common content words is surprising highly, yet not taken into account in most languauge description.

2) If two words themselves very frequently, they may co-occur frequently just by chance.

3) Coxhead's corpus comprise texts from academic journals and university textbooks in arts, commerce, law, and natural science.

4) I looked to the same strings in the 100-million-word BNC, and found that, normalized to estimated occurrences per million words, the frequencies in the two corpuses were remarkably similarly.

5) This is not because speakers frequently uses *back* to mean part of the body, but because it occur in many phrases with only residual relations to this denotation.

6) Conversely, few words have lesser than one chance in 50 of co-occurring with one specifical collocate.

7) The brief answer is that *persistent* is typical for many words in this disrespect.

8) It is for this reasons that the co-occurrence of words and grammatical constructions has being studied so intensively: the central principle is that it is not words, but phrase-like units, which are the basic units of meaning.

9) We can write program which finds the most frequently collocates of a node, one, two, and three words on the left and right, and lists them in descending frequency.

10) More frequently words are tending to be shorter, irregular in morphology and spelling, and more ambiguously out of context: a glance at a dictionary shows that short frequent words require many column inches.

XI. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate prepositions from the box. Underline the words inserted.

to (5) about of (8) in (3) with (2) between (2) from (2) on (2) for by

A central aim is to make more explicit the semantic and pragmatic features ..... multi-word units. ..... example, *enduring*, *persistent*, and *haunting* are all rough synonyms, but they co-occur ..... nouns ..... different semantic fields. Characteristic combinations ..... modifier plus noun include: enduring peace; haunting music; persistent headaches. We can also generalize ..... semantic preferences. ..... adjective-noun constructions, *persistent* is often used ..... medical conditions, and *haunting* is usually used ..... music, words, and images. Louw (1993) was the first important article ..... how such attitudes are conveyed.

A model ..... extended lexical units proposed ..... Sinclair (1998) combines these increasingly abstract relations: collocation, colligation, semantic, and discourse prosody. We can also specify: strength ..... attraction ..... node and collocates; position ..... node and collocate, variable or fixed; and distribution, wide occurrence ..... general English or ..... broad varieties, or restricted ..... specialized text-types.

In summary, work ..... extended lexical units has redrawn the lexis–grammar boundary. Only a few units are fixed phrases; most are recurrent combinations ..... grammatical constructions ..... words ..... restricted lexical fields, but ..... considerable lexical variation. Relations correspond ..... the classic distinctions ..... syntax (how language units relate ..... one another), semantics (how linguistic signs relate ..... the external world), and pragmatics (how linguistic signs relate ..... their users).

SPEAKING SECTION. PICTURE DESCRIPTION WORKSHEET

DISCUSSING FACTUAL INFORMATION

Where? There is a classroom/hall/lecture room at the university/library/school. It looks out-of-date/modern. The people in the picture belong to different/the same ethnic group/(s)/nationalit(y)ies/origin.

When? The scene takes place during the lesson/match/excursion/staff meeting. We can/cannot see in the picture, what is the weather like outside. The scene takes place in the early morning/at midday/in the evening/at midnight.

What else can be mentioned about the setting? What can you see in the background and the foreground?

Who and what? How many? There are ___ people in the _____, a _____ and his_____. The teacher has a ___ style and is wearing a suit jacket, a ___ and light ___. He is wearing ___ as well. The students are ____and have a ___ style. They are ___notes and ___ to the teacher. The people in the picture are discussing_____ linguistics issues. ___analysis is a tough issue for clear_____.

Fashion-conscious classroom thirteen applied casual classic taking teacher comprehension trousers students tie glasses listening discourse

DISCUSSING CONCEPTUAL INFORMATION

1. Who could take the picture?
2. What is the possible title of the picture under consideration? How can it be related to Computer Science area? What is the message of the picture?
3. Are the people in the picture posing for camera on purpose?
5. What do you think had happened before the picture was taken?
6. What will they do next after the picture having been taken?

PICTURE DESCRIPTION: Make up a list of 20 key-words covering factual and conceptual information of the picture considered. Describe the

picture using the key-words, cover factual and conceptual information of the picture considered.

LISTENING (AUDIOVISUAL COMPREHENSION) SECTION

CORPORA AND SPOKEN LANGUAGE

I. Watch the talk by Prof. McCarthy and answer the following questions. Justify your answer relying upon the facts form the video material.(https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UKQcVE9d67s&t=371s)

1. Why were spoken corpora smaller and difficult to build in the early 1990s?
2. What is one of the standard techniques that corpus linguists use to count frequency?
3. What is the evidence that the most common vocabulary of writing and speaking is different one compared with the other?
4. Why does Prof. McCarthy confront the tendency to consider the expression *you know* as an inappropriate to be taught?
5. Why are the words like *well* and *right* incredibly frequent in the spoken corpus and may be absent in the frequency list of the written corpus?

II. Indicate whether the statements are true or false, correct the false ones.

1. Small sized recording equipment and modern software made spoken corpora easier to collect. _____
2. English Profile is a very big project aimed to build language corpora for the Common European Framework of Reference. _____
3. Prof. McCarthy and Dr. Paula Buttery compared two hundred most frequent words in the British national corpus spoken segments with a similar top two hundred words in the British national corpus written segment. _____
4. The aim of Prof. McCarthy and Ronald Hart's research was to compare the 50 most frequent words in the CANCODE corpus and in a same sized corpus of general written English. _____
5. According to the results of the top 50 comparison there is a number of words which appear only in the spoken top 50. _____
6. *Right* is used to start the conversation or to show that you are not interested in the topic. _____
7. *Well* can express the signal that the person is going to change the direction of the projected discourse. _____
8. The word *just* can make the statement friendlier, softer and less direct. _____
9. These little words that we get from spoken corpora show that there is a thick skill which can be called the skill of interaction. _____

10. Words like *right*, *well*, *know* and *think* prove that we need to pronounce things correctly and talk about our experiences. _____

III. Fill in the gaps with appropriate words and phrases according to Prof. McCarthy's talk.

My particular area of interest is conversation and _____, and there are a couple of reasons for this. Firstly, conversation is the most _____ way that we use language in every day of our lives. We talk to our friends, our colleagues, our neighbors, family and _____ an awful lot of language every day, much more than we write. Secondly, a good reason for collecting _____ is that it is actually quite difficult to be _____ about how we speak; it's much easier to be objective about how we write. When we write we can _____, we can change things, we can cut and paste, we can do all sorts of things, we can _____ on what we're doing. When we speak we have no such opportunities for reflection, we don't have time to sit back and _____ how we speak. Therefore, it's not surprising that a lot of the ways in which we _____ language are based on _____ that come from the written language.

UNIT 2
DICTIONARIES

PART 1

READING SECTION

I. Answer the questions below. Give your reasons. Provide examples from your own experience, if possible.

1. For what purposes are dictionaries typically used?
2. What types of dictionaries do you know?
3. What is the origin of the word "dictionary"? Why do we call word collections a "dictionary"?
4. What is the purpose of using encyclopedias?
5. What free online encyclopedias have you ever heard about?

II. Comment upon the following quotes related to the topic of the unit under consideration. Do you agree or disagree to the ideas suggested? Give your reasons.

1. Dictionaries should be designed with a special set of users in mind and for their specific needs. *(William Householder*)
2. "A lexicographical definition, we shall argue, does not in most cases identify a meaning independently existing in actual usage and discovered there by the lexicographer: it is deliberately constructed and allocated by the lexicographer on the basis of materials selected for study, and its allocation will depend on the viewpoint the lexicographer has chosen to adopt." *(Roy Harris)*
3. "The notion of a definition adequate to all occasions and all demands is a semantic *ignis fatuus*." *(Roy Harris).*
4. "Dictionaries are like watches; the worst is better than none, and the best cannot be expected to be quite true." *(Samuel Johnson)*
5. "Spellings are made by people. Dictionaries – eventually – reflect popular choices." *(David Crystal)*

WHAT IS A DICTIONARY? DICTIONARIES AND ENCYCLOPEDIAS. TYPES OF DICTIONARY

What is a dictionary? Dictionaries and encyclopedias.

As already mentioned, the dictionary is widely regarded as the prototypical work of lexical reference. It classifies and stores information in print or, increasingly, electronic form and has an access system or systems designed to

allow users to retrieve the information in full or in part as readily as possible. The information is essentially linguistic and may include material on the form, meaning, use, origin, and history of words, phrases, and other lexical items. In a dictionary phonetic and grammatical information is word-related and thus essentially lexical. Put very simply, a dictionary is a book or bank about words.

In theory linguistic or lexical information may be distinguished from extralinguistic or encyclopedic information. Certainly, there are classes of words which lend themselves to either linguistic or encyclopedic treatment. The former include function words such as prepositions, determiners, or conjunctions and discourse-marking chunks such as *you know*, *I mean*, and many others. They derive their meaning from their function within a linguistic text rather than from any reference to extralinguistic reality and are properly treated in a dictionary.

The latter may include proper names of people and places, biographical data, and descriptions of historical events, political, social, and cultural institutions, geographical and geopolitical entities, works of art, literature and music, myths and mythological figures, beliefs and religions, academic disciplines, and the like. A reference work that stores and classifies such factual information on all or some branches of knowledge or a single subject area is generally known as an encyclopedia. Put simply, an encyclopedia is a book or bank about facts. It is notable in this connection that multilingual and especially bilingual dictionaries have long been and continue to be very common, but this is not true of encyclopedias.

Conversely, the latter can be and have been translated, but this does not seem to be the case with dictionaries, except perhaps for the fast-developing genre of bilingualized, semi-bilingual, or bridge dictionaries in the area of pedagogical lexicography. In practice, however, a hard and fast distinction between lexical and encyclopedic information is not possible. Humans use language to communicate about facts, things, and people; words and the world are inextricably linked. A linguistic description of nouns as names for plants, animals, or insects and of adjectives as names for colors, for instance, necessarily involves encyclopedic information.

Such items are entered in both dictionaries and encyclopedias. Their semantic explanation will differ in degree rather than kind, namely in the amount of factual information required or provided to identify and characterize the object referred to according to the intended purpose of the particular reference work. Lexicographers must be concerned with words in their own right as linguistic items and with what words refer to in the world of extralinguistic reality or with their referents as such. Dictionaries and encyclopedias are best seen as two types of reference work, among others, which stand at opposite ends of a continuum, one concerned with words as linguistic or lexical items, the other with facts as such. There are many mixed or blended forms in between (McArthur, 1986, pp. 102–4).

In the titles and/or subtitles of subject-area and biographical reference works, which are most commonly published in one volume, *dictionary* can be used alternatively and synonymously with *encyclopedia*. In this same sense *companion*

and *handbook* are also found. In the titles of dictionaries-cumencyclopedias, which combine lexical and encyclopedic information, the attribute *encyclopedic* sometimes explicitly qualifies the head noun *dictionary*, sometimes not. A successful example of a fully integrated encyclopedic dictionary is the *Reader's Digest Great Illustrated Dictionary*, 1984, which features small color photographs and drawings at the appropriate alphabetical place in the outside columns of virtually every page, color maps, and part- and fullpage panels and tables, most also in color. Clearly, the genre of encyclopedic dictionary is established as a blend between the dictionary as a word book/bank on the one hand and the encyclopedia as a fact book/bank on the other.

This is certainly true of the American and French traditions, less so in the British and German ones. Equally clearly, the genre is regarded in English as a type of dictionary, and thus belongs to the province of lexicography. The question whether encyclopedias as such also belong has been variously answered. My own view is that it is justifiable to regard encyclopedias as falling within the scope of lexicography in the wider sense discussed above, and it would definitely enhance and advance metalexicography if encyclopedias were given fuller attention. If the present chapter nonetheless restricts itself largely to dictionaries as word books, it is for practical reasons of space, especially as there are so many different types of dictionary.

Types of dictionary

Given that dictionaries belong to the oldest, most widespread, and best-selling books in literate societies, it is hardly surprising that their number is legion. Different societies have different lexicographical traditions, and ideas on what might constitute the prototypical dictionary vary accordingly. The range of languages, varieties, and vocabularies, of sizes, formats, and prices, or intended purposes, uses, and users seems inexhaustible. Most dictionaries codify natural languages, but there are also dictionaries of international auxiliary languages, sign languages, shorthands, and braille. The time interval between new impressions and even new editions of popular trade dictionaries grows ever shorter, and their covers and dust jackets resemble ever more strongly billboards advertising the virtues and unique features of their product in a highly competitive market. This is perhaps particularly true of English dictionaries, not least for second/foreign language learners as a reflection of the current worldwide dominance of English as an additional language.

What impact electronic publishing will have on this situation is not yet clear. Currently, prospective dictionary users and buyers are faced with a bewildering *embarras de richesses.* Language teachers and librarians are faced with the problem of continuously updating their resources. Dictionary scholars are faced with a rich, diverse, and ever-changing field of study. It is small wonder that dictionary typology has become an integral component of metalexicography, that different criteria, including size, scope of linguistic and subject-area coverage, number of languages, period covered, target groups and intended uses among others, have been advanced as the basis of different typologies, and that no agreed

taxonomy has emerged to classify the variety of dictionary types. In the practical typology that underlies the organization of much of their international encyclopedia of lexicography, Hausmann et al. Distinguish first between monolingual and multilingual dictionaries. Of the latter, the vast majority are bilingual and cover two national standard languages.

Bilingual dictionaries continue to be the most-used reference book in second/foreign language learning at all levels. There are specialized bilingual dictionaries, such as dictionaries of deceptive cognates or false friends, subject-specific technical dictionaries, and pictorial dictionaries that feature line drawings largely of thematically grouped concrete objects with their designations in two languages. The prototypical bilingual dictionary, however, is the general translation dictionary. Headwords or lemmas in one (source) language, usually presumed to be the user's first language, are supplied at least with translation equivalents in the other (target) language. Full equivalents may need mere listing, while partial and surrogate equivalents require further explanation or exemplification to ensure sense identification and discrimination.

Passive or receptive dictionaries help in decoding or translating from the target/foreign to the source/native language, active or productive dictionaries help in encoding or translating from the source to the target language. For each language pair there are in theory four directions to consider, for example, German-French for French users and French-German for German users (passive), German-French for German users and French-German for French users (active). In practice most bilingual dictionaries are bidirectional: French-German and German-French. Monolingual dictionaries are divided into general and specialized works. The former are found in two major types, the encyclopedic dictionary and above all the semasiological defining dictionary. Aimed at adult native speakers and usually published in a single volume – although the volume may range from compact and portable to very bulky and unwieldy – this latter is the prototypical dictionary of dictionaries in most European lexicographies. Alphabetically ordered lemmas, representing in the main unmarked contemporary standard vocabulary, are supplied with semantic explanations or descriptions of various kinds. Often there is much other information as well.

The more than 70 types of specialized dictionaries derive mainly from different types of marked lemmas in the macro-structure or from different types of lexicographic information other than the definitions in the micro-structure. Marked lemmas include archaisms, neologisms, regionalisms, and internationalisms. There are dictionaries devoted to all these and many other lemma types. Syntagmatic information underlies dictionaries of syntactic patterns or valency, collocations, fixed phrases and idioms, proverbs and quotations. Paradigmatic information underlies onomasiological dictionaries, which move from concepts or word meanings to word forms as the expression of these concepts.

They include dictionaries which classify and list synonyms with or without sense discrimination and meaning description – the former are discriminating, the latter cumulative synonymies – reverse and word-family dictionaries, and the

thesaurus. From other categories of lexicographic information derive dictionaries of spelling, pronunciation, inflections, frequency and etymology, and chronological dictionaries.

There are dictionaries dealing *inter alia* with specific text types, texts by individual authors, and concordances. This essentially phenomenological typology is complemented by a functional one based on the intended use and target group. Included here are children's and learners' dictionaries, both for native and non-native speakers, as well as dictionaries of core vocabulary, all of which are pedagogic in orientation.

This typology is neither exhaustive nor uncontested. It does not seek explicitly to account for all of the many mixed or hybrid types of lexicographic reference works. Nor can it reflect the fact that different traditions can favor different dictionary types. It also needs to be said that the typology classifies printed dictionaries and that it remains to be seen what impact the electronic presentation of lexicographic information with its different possibilities will have on dictionary typology. The many types of reference works classified in this typology are all dictionaries or word books. The overwhelming majority contain the term *dictionary* (*dictionnaire*, *Wцrterbuch*) in the title, and it is this term that is firmly entrenched as the coverall designation of works of lexical or word-centered reference. Few others have survived.

Glossary is used of an alphabetical list of selected items with definitions and/or translation equivalents as found commonly at the back of subject-area textbooks or language course books. *Vocabulary* can be used similarly, but most commonly refers to the lexical items of a given language, also of a language variety, speaker, or text, taken collectively and studied in lexicology but not necessarily codified and described in lexicography. Part synonyms are *lexis* and *lexicon*, both of which are also used as antonyms of *grammar*. *Lexicon* is used further, often in the collocation or compound *mental lexicon*, for words and vocabulary stored and processed in the speaker's mind**.** As a label for a lexicographic reference work it is now generally applied in English to specialized or technical works or to dictionaries of classical languages such as Greek or Arabic. It is thus more restricted than its one-time synonym *dictionary*. McArthur's *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English*, 1981, however, is a type of thesaurus. In modern lexicographic use (Hellen, 1999), *thesaurus* refers to a word book that classifies and groups lexical items of a language, variety, or subject area according to sense relations, especially synonymy, in semantic sets and arranges and presents them alphabetically and/or thematically or conceptually. All thematic and some alphabetical thesauruses now have alphabetical indexes to ensure easy access, especially when the items are grouped according to a philosophical world view such as those which determined the organization of older thematic encyclopedias. At one level *thesaurus* is used as a hyponym and at another level as an antonym of *dictionary*: the thesaurus is both a type of dictionary and it also contrasts with the dictionary proper, as reflected in the titles of combined dictionaries-cum-thesauruses such as *Collins (Concise, Compact) Dictionary and Thesaurus*. The

dictionary proper here is the alphabetical semasiological defining dictionary, and this type represents the stock answer to the question, what is a dictionary?

IV. Answer the following questions to the text.

1) How can you comment upon the following statement from the text: "Dictionary is a book or bank about words."?
2) Is a hard and fast distinction between lexical and encyclopedic information possible? Explain your point of view.
3) Provide the definitions to the following notions: *glossary, vocabulary, dictionary, thesaurus, lexicon, encyclopedia*. How can they be properly differentiated?
4) What is a chronological dictionary? What are the particular ways it can be used in Applied Linguistics?
5) How many types of specialized dictionaries derive from different types of marked lemmas in the macrostructure?
6) Why do all thematic thesauruses now have alphabetical indexes?
7) What is the meaning of *inter alia* word combination used in the text?
8) What is the function of passive/receptive dictionaries?
9) What type of dictionary can be regarded as prototypical of dictionaries in most European lexicographies?
10) What types of bilingual dictionaries do they single out in Applied Linguistics? What can be viewed as a prototypical bilingual dictionary?

V. Match the words to their definitions.

1	idiom	**a**	a book that contains lists of words that have similar meanings
2	archaism	**b**	an expression whose meaning is different from the meaning of the individual words
3	internationalism	**c**	the words used for talking about a particular subject;
4	quotation	**d**	a list of the difficult words used in a piece of writing or subject, with explanations of their meaning
5	dictionary	**e**	a reference resource which provides information about many different subjects or about one particular subject; may be published as a single book, a series of books, or as a digital product such as a website or an app.
6	glossary	**f**	words from a book, play, film etc that you mention when you are speaking or writing
7	encyclopedia	**g**	a reference resource which provides information about words and their meanings, uses, and

			pronunciations; may be published as a printed book, or as a digital product such as a website or app, and it may be monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual.
8	vocabulary	**h**	a new word or expression, or an existing word used with a new meaning
9	thesaurus	**i**	a loanword that occurs in several languages (that is, translingually) with the same or at least similar meaning and etymology.
10	neologism	**g**	an old word or phrase that is no longer used

VI. Match the parts below to complete a single syntactic unit from the text.

1	*Lexicon* is used further, often in the collocation or compound *mental lexicon*,	**a**	reference book in second/foreign language learning at all levels.
2	Alphabetically ordered lemmas, representing in the main unmarked contemporary standard vocabulary,	**b**	further explanation or exemplification to ensure sense identification and discrimination.
3	Included here are children's and learners' dictionaries, both for native and non-native speakers,	**c**	for words and vocabulary stored and processed in the speaker's mind.
4	As a label for a lexicographic reference work it is now generally applied in English to specialized or technical works	**d**	different traditions can favor different dictionary types.
5	Bilingual dictionaries continue to be the most-used	**e**	and with what words refer to in the world of extralinguistic reality or with their referents as such.
6	Full equivalents may need mere listing, while partial and surrogate equivalents require	**f**	active or productive dictionaries help in encoding or translating from the source to the target language.
7	Passive or receptive dictionaries help in decoding or translating from the target/foreign to the source/native language,	**g**	are supplied with semantic explanations or descriptions of various kinds.
8	Lexicographers must be concerned with words in their own right as linguistic items	**h**	as well as dictionaries of core vocabulary, all of which are pedagogic in orientation.
9	Paradigmatic information underlies onomasiological dictionaries,	**i**	or to dictionaries of classical languages such as Greek or Arabic.
10	Nor can it reflect the fact that	**j**	which move from concepts or word meanings to word forms as the

			expression of these concepts.

VII. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words from the box. Underline the words inserted.

proverbs inter alia lexicographic standard surrogate inextricably constitute frequency philosophical equivalents typology alphabetical exemplification

1) Syntagmatic information underlies dictionaries of syntactic patterns or valency, collocations, fixed phrases and idioms, …….and quotations.

2) All thematic and some ……..thesauruses now have alphabetical indexes to ensure easy access, especially when the items are grouped according to a …….world view such as those which determined the organization of older thematic encyclopedias.

3) It also needs to be said that the ……..classifies printed dictionaries and that it remains to be seen what impact the electronic presentation of ……..information with its different possibilities will have on dictionary typology.

4) From other categories of lexicographic information derive dictionaries of spelling, pronunciation, inflections, …….and etymology, and chronological dictionaries.

5) Alphabetically ordered lemmas, representing in the main unmarked contemporary …….vocabulary, are supplied with semantic explanations or descriptions of various kinds.

6) Headwords or lemmas in one (source) language, usually presumed to be the user's first language, are supplied at least with translation ……in the other (target) language.

7) Different societies have different lexicographical traditions, and ideas on what might …….the prototypical dictionary vary accordingly.

8) There are dictionaries dealing ……..with specific text types, texts by individual authors, and concordances.

9) Full equivalents may need mere listing, while partial and …….equivalents require further explanation or ……..to ensure sense identification and discrimination.

10) Humans use language to communicate about facts, things, and people; words and the world are ……..linked.

VIII. Find appropriate synonyms (if any) and antonyms (if any) to the words below.

№	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1	reverse (adj.)		
2	native (adj.)		

3	exhaustive (adj.)		
4	explicitly (adv.)		
5	commonly (adv.)		
6	passive (adj.)		
7	simplification (n.)		
8	productive (adj.)		
9	bulky (adj.)		
10	justifiable (adj.)		

IX. Provide all the possible derivatives to the word forms below. Make up sentences with the words derived.

differ, include, contrast, refer, codify, reflect, combine, favor, compete, continue

X. Fill the gaps with a necessary preposition from the box below.

of (3) to (4) by with out in from

(a) 1) The components additional ..... the central word list or the dictionary entries from A to Z consist ..... front, middle, and back matter, often including the inside covers and, increasingly, the outside covers and dust jacket. 2) The front matter contains most importantly a user's guide or key ..... the dictionary. 3) The key is now considered essential, but often seems to be ignored ..... users and reviewers alike. 4) It explains style, structure and content ..... the dictionary: the metalanguage, symbols and codes used, the punctuation and the complex typography, and the layout of the entries. 5) It often takes the form of reproductions of sample entries ..... each component of the macro- and microstructure highlighted and commented on in turn. 6) It sometimes stands alone and sometimes accompanies a longer introduction ..... the dictionary outlining the editorial principles underlying the work.

(b) 7) The middle matter might consist of small, half- or full-page panels devoted ..... grammar and/or usage notes, frequency charts, word-formation items and patterns, lexical sets or pragmatic conventions; or it might feature inserted study pages, illustrations to make the inserts stand ..... 8) In many cases the material ..... such inserts is reserved for appendices in the back matter. 9) These might contain both linguistic and encyclopedic information of all kinds ranging ..... style guides, prefixes and suffixes, and different alphabets to weights and measures, chemical elements, and countries of the world. 10) Some dictionaries have no back matter, others have as many as 100 pages ..... appendices.

SPEAKING SECTION.
PICTURE DESCRIPTION WORKSHEET

DISCUSSING FACTUAL INFORMATION

Where? There is a classroom/hall/lecture room at the university/library/school. It looks out-of-date/modern/poorly/well-equipped. The people in the picture belong to different/the same ethnic group/(s)/nationalit(y)ies/origin. The people represent the same/different age groups and gender.

When? The scene takes place during the /lecture/seminar/match/excursion/staff meeting. We can/cannot see in the picture, what is the weather like outside. The scene takes place in the early morning/at midday/in the evening/at midnight.

What else can be mentioned about the setting? What can you see at the background and at the foreground?

Consider the statements below *true, false* or *not stated*. Justify your choice:

1) There are 17 students in the classroom._____
2) There are 5 women and 11 men in the picture._____
3) None of the students in the classroom is wearing glasses._____
4) The teacher is in her early thirties._____
5) The teacher is wearing a dark-blue blouse._____
6) The students seem to be rather passive and uninvolved._____
7) The teacher is not speaking at the moment, being silent and waiting for students to speak out.
8) The teacher is rather dynamic, moving actively around the classroom.___

DISCUSSING CONCEPTUAL INFORMATION

1. Who could take the picture?
2. What is the possible title of the picture under consideration? How can it be related to Computer Science area? What is the message of the picture?
3. Are the people in the picture posing for camera on purpose?
5. What do you think had happened before the picture was taken?
6. What will they do next after the picture having been taken?

PICTURE DESCRIPTION: Make up a list of 20 key-words covering factual and conceptual information of the picture considered. Describe the picture using the key-words, cover factual and conceptual information of the picture considered.

PART 2

READING SECTION

I. Answer the questions below. Give your reasons. Provide examples from your own experience, if possible.

1. Are dictionaries and glossaries of technical terms mostly thematic or alphabetical in organization and presentation?
2. What does a dictionary entry consist of?
3. What types of dictionaries are more convenient traditional or computer ones?
4. How do computer dictionaries differ from their paper versions?

II. Comment upon the following quotes related to the topic of the unit under consideration. Do you agree or disagree to the ideas suggested? Give your reasons.

1. "I was reading the dictionary. I thought it was a poem about everything." *(Steven Wright)*`
2. "The dictionary is like a time capsule of all of human thinking ever since words began to be written down. And exploring where words have come from can increase your understanding of the words themselves and expand your understanding of how to use the words, and all of this change happens in your thinking when you read the words." *(Andrew Clements)*
3. "The dictionary is based on the hypothesis -- obviously an unproven one -- that languages are made up of equivalent synonyms." *(Jorge Luis Borges)*
4. "If I were allowed to take just one book to the proverbial desert island, it might be a dictionary." *(Steven Pinker)*

5. “Dictionary: a malevolent literary device for cramping the growth of a language and making it hard and inelastic.” *(Ambrose Bierce)*

DICTIONARIES

Wherever languages are used and wherever languages are taught and learned, especially in educational settings, dictionaries play a central role. As already discussed, lexicography is thus not only a field of professional, commercial, and academic activity in its own right, but also very much an integral part of applied linguistics and its constituent subject areas. The most obvious area is first and second/foreign language teaching and learning at all ages and levels of education, an area that some virtually equate with applied linguistics and that is by common consent certainly one of the core activities of applied linguistics. A few examples of other areas of professional applied linguistics must suffice here.

One such area is translation. Professional translators need and use dictionaries of different types according to the nature of the translation, general or specialized, literary or scientific. The dictionaries range from general-purpose dictionaries of the second language and thesauruses and synonym dictionaries of the first language to mono- and bilingual subject-specific technical dictionaries and glossaries. Not for nothing is the general bilingual dictionary known as a translation dictionary, although in this context translation must be seen as a traditional exercise in second/foreign language teaching and learning as well as a professional activity. The work of lexicographers and translators has much in common, and the latter can be expert informants for practicing lexicographers, more so perhaps than linguists. Technical translators must have the combination of linguistic and encyclopedic or content knowledge and an ability at written expression needed by specialist lexicographers. Literary translators must have an ability to extract meaning from text in one language and to arrive at an equivalent formulation in another that could only benefit bilingual lexicographers. They also have a highly developed feeling for sense discrimination and explanation that would make them ideal consultants on or compilers of thesauruses.

Other areas of applied linguistics are communication in the professions and languages for special purposes, both of which have at their disposal a vast range of specialized, subject-specific reference works, be it in law, medicine and engineering, or in the sciences and technologies (Bergenholtz& Tarp, 1995). Both areas draw *inter alia* on terminological lexicography or terminography and use as editors and/or consultants experts in the relevant subject area or areas being treated. Linguistic knowledge as such may or may not play a role. Dictionaries and glossaries of technical terms may be mono- and, increasingly frequently, multilingual, with international standards organizations seeking to establish equivalence of standardized terms and concepts across languages. They tend to be thematic rather than alphabetical in organization and presentation in accordance with their concentration on word meanings rather than word forms and on concepts within a given taxonomy. To handle the problem of the sheer number of terms in

some areas they make full use of the possibilities now offered by electronic storage and presentation.

A further area is language planning, both corpus planning and status planning, in which the role of lexicography has been and is as central as it is complex. In the modern period of western European lexicography, mainstream dictionaries have been absolutely instrumental in the establishment of standard varieties of the different vernaculars, especially in written use, and in their gradual emancipation from Latin. Regardless of whether they have been avowedly descriptive or explicitly prescriptive and normative in intention and approach, they have codified and helped standardize spelling, pronunciation, meaning, and usage and they have acquired the status of linguistic authorities in the eyes of many, if not most users. The authoritarian tradition is firmly established, and publishers still often appeal to it in their advertising. Indeed, the history of mainstream dictionaries can be seen *inter alia* as a history of the longstanding and ongoing conflict between the descriptive and the prescriptive, one notable chapter of which was the controversy over *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* in the 1960s (Sledd & Ebbit, 1962; Morton, 1994). The dictionary editors favored a strongly descriptive policy aiming to record and describe authoritatively contemporary English usage as documented in extensive citation files. Where appropriate, they included clear pragmatic information on debated usage, but did not set out to be an authoritarian *arbiter usus*, being concerned to avoid prescribing or proscribing usage. A case in point is the entry on *ain't* reproduced slightly enlarged in Figure 2.1.

ain't \'ānt\ *also* **an't** \" *also* **'ant** *or like* AREN'T\ [prob. contr. of *are not, is not, am not,* & *have not*] **1 a :** are not ⟨you ~ going⟩ ⟨they ~ here⟩ ⟨things ~ what they used to be⟩ **b :** is not ⟨it ~ raining⟩ ⟨he's here, ~ he⟩ **c :** am not ⟨I ~ ready⟩ — though disapproved by many and more common in less educated speech, used orally in most parts of the U. S. by many cultivated speakers esp. in the phrase *ain't I* **2** *substand* **a :** have not ⟨I ~ seen him⟩ ⟨you ~ told us⟩ **b :** has not ⟨he ~ got the time⟩ ⟨~ the doctor come yet⟩

Figure 2.1 Definition of *ain't* from Webster's Third New International Dictionary By permission. From *Webster's Third New International® Dictionary, Unabridged,* © 1993 by Merriam-Webster, Incorporated.

In some quarters this policy was viewed as a permissive abdication of the alleged responsibility of lexicographers not only to describe what is used and how but also to prescribe what should or should not be used. While attempts to buy out the publishers and remove the dictionary from circulation failed, the controversy produced avowedly rival works such as *The American Heritage Dictionary*, 1969, which featured usage notes informed by a panel of more than 100 representatives of the literary establishment. Its echoes can still be clearly heard in later dictionaries, where a separate usage note on *ain't*, for instance, is often longer than the actual lexicographic description itself. One example is *The Reader's Digest Great Illustrated Dictionary*, 1984 (see Figure 2.2).

ain't (aynt). *Nonstandard.* Contraction of *am not.* Also extended in use to mean *are not, is not, has not,* and *have not.*

Usage: Although widely used in colloquial speech, *ain't* is considered nonstandard by educated speakers. It should always be avoided in writing or formal speech, unless you are deliberately trying to create a humorous effect, or using a fixed phrase like *Things ain't what they used to be. Aren't I* (as in *aren't I coming too?*) has sometimes also been attacked on the grounds that it misleadingly suggests a corresponding form *I are.* But the full form, *am I not,* is so formal that in many contexts it may be considered ridiculously stilted, and *aren't I* is therefore a quite acceptable usage in educated British English. The form *amn't I* has some currency in regional English, especially in Scotland and Ireland, but is considered nonstandard.

Figure 2.2 Definition of *ain't* from *The Reader's Digest Great Illustrated Dictionary By permission of The Readers's Digest Association Limited, Reader's Digest Great Illustrated Dictionary* (1984).

The same European dictionaries played as much a role in status planning as in corpus planning, certainly in terms of nation building. The multi-volume scholarly and historical dictionaries inaugurated in nineteenth-century Europe, for example, were seen as national dictionaries, and the lexicography of Noah Webster was consciously and patriotically American. Nation building is not just a historical issue, but is equally important in contemporary lexicography. It underlies and supports, for instance, efforts to establish a standardized variety of "lesser-used" European languages such as Luxembourgish or Rhaeto-Romance. It is an important motivation in the lexicographical recording and describing of endangered and indigenous languages by anthropological linguists and also in the planning of comprehensive monolingual dictionaries for languages such as Samoan and Tongan which have previously relied on bilingual dictionaries with English. It is also an integral component of the codification of the different standard varieties of both contiguous and dispersed pluricentric languages. An example of the former is German, where *Österreichisches Wörterbuch*, 1951, 39th edn. 2001, a government sponsored endonormative dictionary used officially in schools, codifies Austrian Standard German as a standard variety distinct from German Standard German and Swiss Standard German. An example of the latter is English, where different native speaker standard varieties are now covered in national dictionaries, for example, *The Australian National Dictionary. A Dictionary of Australianisms on Historical Principles*, 1988; and *The Macquarie Dictionary*, 1981, 3rd edn. 1997, which advertises itself as "the arbiter of Australian English" and as "Australia's National Dictionary."

III. Answer the following questions to the text.

1) How must translation be seen in the context of the general bilingual dictionary?

2) What knowledge must technical translators have?

3) Why are literary translators ideal consultants on or compilers of thesauruses? What specific abilities do they have?

4) Who are used as editors and/or consultants in communication in the professions and languages for special purposes areas of applied linguistics?

5) How do dictionaries and glossaries of technical terms handle the problem of the sheer number of terms in some areas?

6) Why have mainstream dictionaries in western European lexicography acquired the status of linguistic authorities in the eyes of many users?

7) How can the history of mainstream dictionaries bee seen? What was its most notable chapter?

8) Why is nation building equally important in contemporary lexicography?

IV. Match the words to their definitions.

1	discrimination	**a**	systematic organization of methods, rules, etc
2	tend	**b**	failure to fulfil a responsibility or duty
3	corpus	**c**	a language with several interacting codified standard versions, often corresponding to different countries
4	indigenous	**d**	regularly or frequently behave in a particular way or have a certain characteristic
5	contiguous	**e**	recognition and understanding of the difference between one thing and another
6	constituent	**f**	vary or extend between specified limits
7	abdication	**g**	originating or occurring naturally in a particular place
8	range	**h**	next or together in sequence
9	codification	**i**	serving to compose or make up a thing
10	pluricentric language	**j**	a collection of written or spoken material in machine-readable form, assembled for the purpose of linguistic research

V. Match the parts below to complete a single syntactic unit from the text.

1	Lexicography is thus not only a field of professional, commercial, and academic activity in its own right,	**a**	“lesser-used” European languages such as Luxembourgish or Rhaeto-Romance.
2	Professional translators need and use dictionaries of different types	**b**	that would make them ideal consultants on or compilers of thesauruses.
3	The work of lexicographers and translators has much in common,	**c**	possibilities now offered by electronic storage and presentation.

4	Literary translators also have a highly developed feeling for sense discrimination and explanation	**d**	but did not set out to be an authoritarian *arbiter usus*, being concerned to avoid prescribing or proscribing usage.
5	Both areas draw *inter alia* on terminological lexicography or terminography and	**e**	they have codified and helped standardize spelling, pronunciation, meaning, and usage and they have acquired the status of linguistic authorities in the eyes of many users.
6	Dictionaries and glossaries of technical terms tend to be thematic rather than alphabetical in organization and presentation in accordance	**f**	and the latter can be expert informants for practicing lexicographers, more so perhaps than linguists.
7	To handle the problem of the sheer number of terms in some areas they make full use of the	**g**	use as editors and/or consultants experts in the relevant subject area or areas being treated.
8	Regardless of whether they have been avowedly descriptive or explicitly prescriptive and normative in intention and approach,	**h**	according to the nature of the translation, general or specialized, literary or scientific.
9	Where appropriate, they included clear pragmatic information on debated usage,	**i**	with their concentration on word meanings rather than word forms and on concepts within a given taxonomy.
10	Contemporary lexicography underlies and supports efforts to establish a standardized variety of	**j**	but also very much an integral part of applied linguistics and its constituent subject areas.

VI. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words from the box. Underline the words inserted.

glossaries *inter alia* endonormative in terms of indigenous comprehensive distinct editors avowedly rival mainstream prescriptive contemporary controversy translators core ability equate vernaculars equivalence

1) First and second language teaching and learning is an area that some virtually …….. with applied linguistics and that is by common consent certainly one of the …….. activities of applied linguistics.

2) Technical …….. must have the combination of linguistic and encyclopedic or content knowledge and an …….. at written expression needed by specialist lexicographers.

3) Dictionaries and …….. of technical terms may be mono- and, increasingly frequently, multilingual, with international standards organizations seeking to establish …….. of standardized terms and concepts across languages.

4) Western European lexicography …….. dictionaries have been absolutely instrumental in the establishment of standard varieties of the different …….., especially in written use, and in their gradual emancipation from Latin.

5) The history of mainstream dictionaries can be seen …….. as a history of the longstanding and ongoing conflict between the descriptive and the ……..

6) The dictionary …….. favored a strongly descriptive policy aiming to record and describe authoritatively …….. English usage as documented in extensive citation files.

7) The …….. over *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* produced …….. works such as *The American Heritage Dictionary*, which featured usage notes informed by a panel of more than 100 representatives of the literary establishment.

8) European dictionaries played as much a role in status planning as in corpus planning, certainly …….. nation building.

9) Nation building is an important motivation in the lexicographical recording and describing of endangered and …….. languages by anthropological linguists and also in the planning of …….. monolingual dictionaries.

10) *Österreichisches Wörterbuch*, a government sponsored …….. dictionary used officially in schools, codifies Austrian Standard German as a standard variety …….. from German Standard German and Swiss Standard German.

VII. Find appropriate synonyms (if any) and antonyms (if any) to the words below.

№	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1	core (adj.)		
2	constituent (adj.)		
3	abdication (n.)		
4	range (n.)		
5	normative (adj.)		
6	variety (n.)		
7	prescribe (v.)		
8	codify (v.)		
9	effort (n.)		

10	remove (v.)		

VIII. Provide all the possible derivatives to the word forms below. Make up sentences with the words derived.

establishment	controversy	tend	benefit	suffice	equate	frequently
permissive	dispersed	expression				

IX. Correct the possible mistakes in terms of grammar, spelling and inappropriate use of vocabulary in the sentences below.

1) The dictionaris range from general-purpose dictionaries of the second language and thesaurus and sinonim dictionaris of the first language to mono- and twolingual subject-specific tehnical dictionaris and glossaris.

2) Literary translators must to have an ability to extracting meaning from text in one language and to arrive at an equivalent formulation in other that could only benefit billingual lexicographers.

3) Other areas of applied linguistics is communication in the profeccions and languages for special purposes, both of whom have at their disposal a wast range of specialized, subject-specific referense works.

4) The authoritarian tradition is firmly established, and publishers still often appealing to it in their adverticing.

5) In some quarters this policy was been viewed as a permissive abdication of the alleged responsibility of lexicografers not only to describe that is used and how but also to prescribe that should or should not be used.

6) The multi-volumes scholarly and historical dictionaris inaugurated in nineteenth-century Europe were saw as national dictionaris.

7) In this context translation must to be seen as a traditional exercise in first/foreign language teaching and learning as well as a profeccional activity.

8) A further area be language planning, both corpus planning and status planning, in whose the role of lexicografy have been and is as central as it is complex.

9) Nation building were the integral component of the codification of the different standard varieties of both contiguous and dispersed pluricentric languages.

10) A example of the latter is English, were different native speaker standard varieties are now covered in national dictionaris.

X. Open the brackets, putting the infinitive form of the verb given into the necessary tense form (if needed).

1) Macro-structure refers to the list and organization of the lexical items ..... (to enter) in the dictionary, the lemmas or headwords. 2) Lemma ..... (to prefer) here as it is neutral on the morphological status of the items. 3) In practical terms the lemma list ..... (to depend) on the projected size and scope of the

dictionary. 4) It ..... (to range) from reasonably comprehensive, as in large unabridged works, to highly selective, as in small pocket dictionaries.

5) Depending on size and intention, current one-volume defining dictionaries tend to emphasize the central core vocabulary of present-day standard usage and ..... (to focus) as well on new words and senses and on terms from science and technology. 6) Different dictionaries have different policies on the information they ..... (to regard)as lexically relevant and on the order in which they present it. 7) Decisions must ..... (to make) on giving each item main lemma status or distinguishing between main lemmas and sub-lemmas.

8) In the latter case, lexicographers must determine on what grounds main lemmas ..... (to distinguish) from sub-lemmas, how these are grouped or organized in nests or niches, and whether all or some of the sub-lemmas are supplied with a full or partial range of lexicographic information or whether they are simply listed as run-ons. 9) Decisions must also ..... (to make) on the ordering of homographic lemmas and on the typography of the different types of lemma. 10) Here, as elsewhere, the chief macro-structural criterion must be userfriendliness: the user must be able to find the item ..... (to look for) as quickly and easily as possible.

SPEAKING SECTION.
PICTURE DESCRIPTION WORKSHEET.

DISCUSSING FACTUAL INFORMATION

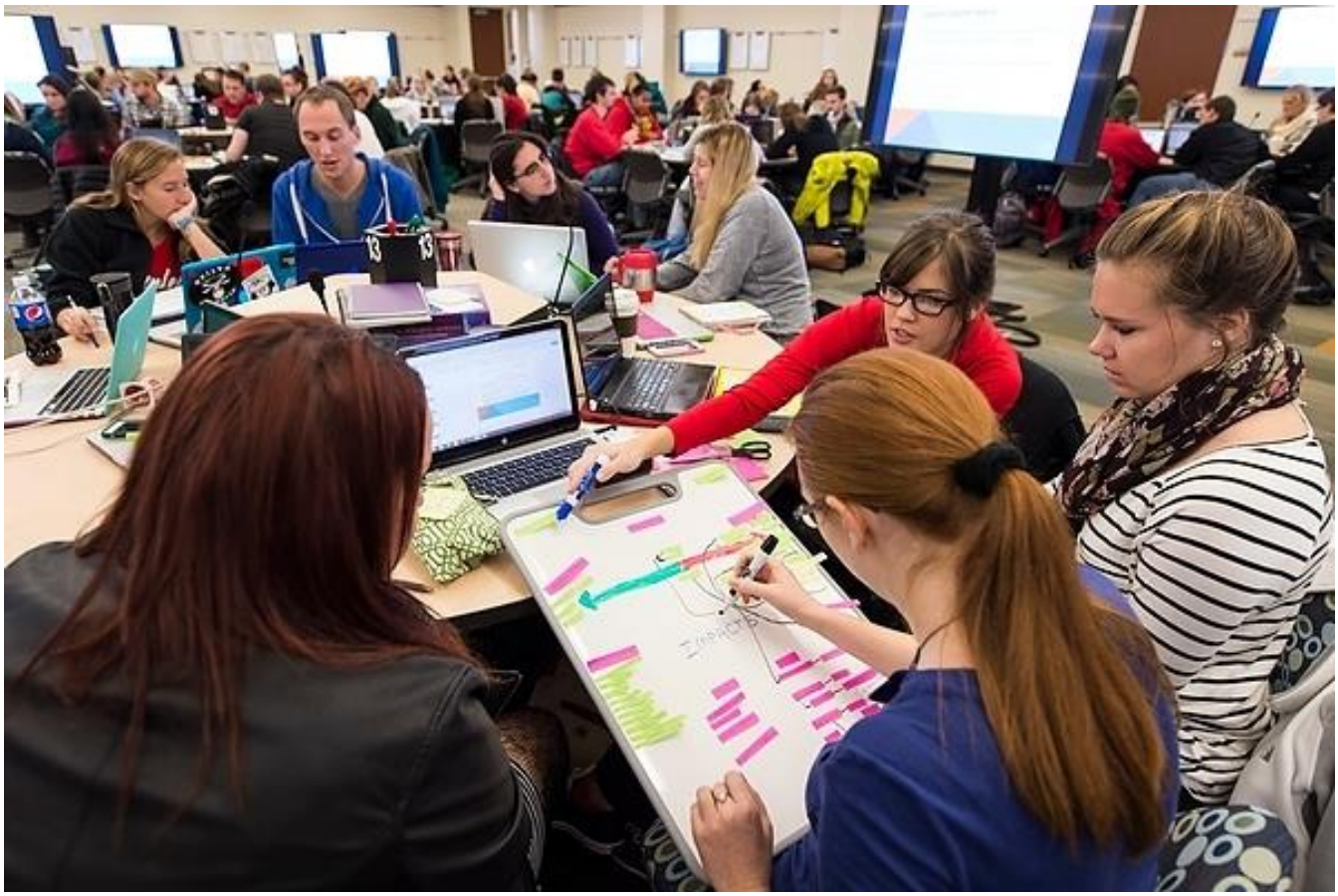
Where? There is a classroom/hall/lecture room at the university/library/school. It looks out-of-date/modern. The people in the picture belong to different/the same ethnic group/(s)/nationalit(y)ies/origin.

When? The scene takes place during the lesson/conference/lecture/staff meeting. We can/cannot see in the picture, what is the weather like outside. The scene takes place in the early morning/at midday/in the evening/at midnight.

What else can be mentioned about the setting? What can you see in the background and the foreground?

Who and what? How many? There are _____ people in the _____. They are working _____. Every group is working around _____. There are _____ on the tables. They are working on _____ about the role of _____ in _____ linguistics. The group on the front consists of _____ people. They all are wearing _____ clothes. Four girls are making _____ to present their _____. The boy and _____ other girls are preparing the _____ to _____ the poster.

poster eight projects casual presentation in groups hall foundlings dictionaries applied support three laptops the table about seventy



DISCUSSING CONCEPTUAL INFORMATION

1. Who could take the picture?
2. What is the possible title of the picture under consideration? How can it be related to Computer Science area? What is the message of the picture?
3. Are the people in the picture posing for camera on purpose?
4. What do you think had happened before the picture was taken?
5. What will they do next after the picture having been taken?

PICTURE DESCRIPTION :

Make up a list of 20 key-words covering factual and conceptual information of the picture considered. Describe the picture using the key-words, cover factual and conceptual information of the picture considered.

LISTENING (AUDIOVISUAL COMPREHENSION) SECTION

LANGUAGE DESIGN (INTERVIEW WITH NOAM CHOMSKY)

I. Watch a video recording with a famous linguist Noam Chomsky being interviewed on the language design issues. Answer the following questions. Justify your answer relying upon the facts from the video material. (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MLk47AMBdTA)

1) Can any creative activities be realized without language mechanisms?
2) Why is the issue of language design strongly related to the issue of human evolution?
3) Why does the interviewee compare a language phenomenon to a snowflake?
4) Do languages look very different from one another or very similar to one another on the surface? Why?
5) In which terms does language, being an optimal communication system, follow the laws of nature?

II. Indicate whether the statements below are true/ false/not stated, justify your choice relying on the video materials.

1) From Noam Chomsky's perspective, there are three systems analogous to human language. ____
2) Humanity had its language emerged apparently ten thousand years ago. _____
3) We know a lot about the human visual system because of direct experimentation with cats and monkeys. _____
4) Language by its nature cannot be regarded as a computational system._____
5) There has been detectable evolution of human's cognitive and creative capacities in roughly the past 50.000._____
6) There is obviously no progress in carrying out invasive experiments with human beings in relation to language capacity. _____
7) Language capacity is viewed as a core of human sensibility, and a creative and cognitive capacity._____
8) All humans are pretty much identical with regard of the cognitive capacity, linguistic capacity and so, which means, that there's been essentially no detectable evolution. _____

9) Generally, human’s language capacity is analogous to animal’s communication capacity. _____

10) A snowflake in terms of its physical structure cannot be in anyway compared to language as a complex computational system._____

III. Fill in the gaps with appropriate words according to what is being delivered in the video-piece.

<…> There are animal …… systems, but they're completely different in design and use in just about every ……... So, something strange happened, roughly, maybe, a hundred thousand years ago, not very long, and …… emerged in humans, and the question then is, well, what kind of a system is it? On the ……. languages look very different from one another. So, if somebody walks into the room and starts speaking ……, I'm not going to understand a word. Though I will …… that it's a language. I won't understand it, but I know it's not noise. No. As soon, as you look more deeply, you find that …… languages are basically mould into a pretty similar ……., may be an identical design, the large parts of the …… of what we hear, is just the sounds. But that's a very superficial part of language. The core of language is principles that …… actually an infinite array of possible expressions, …….. expressions, which have definite meanings. Now, all of that is well, beyond, what we can just ……., but I say looking at the texts, and when a child is learning a language, the ……. doesn't learn those things, there's no evidence for them. Almost, no …… for them, nobody can teach them. <…>.

UNIT 3

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

PART 1

 ***READING SECTION***

I. Answer the questions below. Give your reasons. Provide examples from your own experience, if possible.

1. Why is the therm "discourse" polysemantic?
2. How can you define the discourse?
3. What causes the interdisciplinary nature of discourse analysis?
4. What is the role of non-verbal components in oral and written communication?

II. Comment upon the following quotes related to the topic of the unit under consideration. Do you agree or disagree to the ideas suggested? Give your reasons.

1. "Every discourse, even a poetic or oracular sentence, carries with it a system of rules for producing analogous things and thus an outline of methodology." *(Jacques Derrida)*
2. "There is nothing in discourse that is not to be found in a sentence." *(Roland Barthes)*
3. "We are all full of discourses that we only half understand and half mean." *(Rae Armantrout)*
4. "Where wise actions are the fruit of life, wise discourse is the pollination." *(Bryant McGill)*

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS
Who does Discourse Analysis, and Why?

Discourse analysts do what people in their everyday experience of language do instinctively and largely unconsciously: notice patternings of language in use and the circumstances (participants, situations, purposes, outcomes) with which these are typically associated. The discourse analyst's particular contribution to this otherwise mundane activity is to do the noticing consciously, deliberately, systematically, and, as far as possible, objectively, and to produce accounts (descriptions, interpretations, explanations) of what their investigations have revealed.

Since the study of language *in use*, as a goal of education, a means of education, and an instrument of social control and social change, is the principal concern of applied linguistics, indeed its *raison d'κtre*, it is easy to see why discourse analysis has such a vital part to play in the work that applied linguistics does, and why so much of the work that has been done over the last few decades on developing the theory and practice of discourse analysis been done by applied linguists (Widdowson, Candlin, Swales, for example) or by linguists (notably Halliday and his followers) for whom the integration of theory and practice is a defining feature of the kind of linguistics that they do.

Much of the work, but not by any means all. A great deal of discourse analysis is done by linguists who would not call themselves applied and much by scholars in other disciplines – sociology, psychology, psychotherapy, for example – who would not call themselves linguists. Discourse analysis is part of applied linguistics but does not belong exclusively to it; it is a *multi*-disciplinary field, and hugely diverse in the range of its interests.

For many the interest in discourse is *beyond* language in use (Jaworski & Coupland, 1999, p. 3) to "language use relative to social, political and cultural formations . . . , language reflecting social order but also language shaping social order, and shaping individuals' interaction with society."

That this is no overstatement may quickly be demonstrated by indicating something of the range of discourse-related books published in recent years: discourse and politics (Schдffner & Kelly-Holmes, 1996; Howarth et al.,2000); ideologies (Schäffner, 1997), and national identity (Wodak et al., 1999); environmental discourse (Hajer, 1997; Harre, Brockmeier, & Muhlhausler, 1999); discourse and gender (Walsh, 2001; Wodak, 1997; Romaine, 1998); discourse of disability (Corker & French, 1999) and the construction of old age (Green, 1993); applied discursive psychology (Willig, 1999); professional discourse (Gunnarson, Linell, & Nordberg, 1997) and professional communication across cultural boundaries (Scollon, Scollon, & Yuling, 2001); the discourse of interrogation and confession (Shuy, 1998); academic discourse (Swales, 1998); discourse in cross-cultural communication (Hatim, 2000) and translation (Schäffner, 2002); discourse in everyday life (Locke, 1998; Cameron, 2000; Delin, 2000) and, at some remove from the everyday, divine discourse (Wolterstorff, 1995).

Jaworski and Coupland (1999, pp. 3–6) explain why so many areas of academic study have become so gripped by enthusiasm for discourse analysis in terms, firstly, of a shift in epistemology, "a falling off of intellectual security in what we know and what it means to know . . . The question of *how* we build knowledge has come to the fore, and this is where issues to do with language and linguistic representation come into focus." They point, secondly, to a broadening of perspective in linguistics, with a growth of linguistic interest in analysis of conversation, stories, and written text, in "the subtleties of implied meaning" and in the interaction of spoken language with nonlinguistic communication. And, thirdly, they note how, in the changed political, social and technological environment in which we now live – the postmodern world of service industry,

advertising, and communications media – discourse "ceases to be 'merely' a function of work; it becomes work [and the] analysis of discourse becomes correspondingly more important."

Defining Discourse

Discourse analysis may, broadly speaking, be defined as the study of language viewed communicatively and/or of communication viewed linguistically. Any more detailed spelling out of such a definition typically involves reference to concepts of language *in use*, language *above or beyond the sentence*, language as meaning *in interaction*, and language in *situational and cultural context*. Depending on their particular convictions and affiliations – functionalism, structuralism, social interactionism, etc. – linguists will tend to emphasize one, or some, rather than others in this list. (On the origins and implications of the language in use vs. language above the sentence distinction see for example Schiffrin, 1994, pp. 20–39; Pennycook, 1994a, p. 116; Widdowson, 1995, p. 160; Cameron, 2001, pp. 10–13.)

To illustrate this point, let us imagine four linguists preparing to work with the following small sample:

A: You THREW it so you GET it

B: MOI↓ra + I'll call my MUM

Linguist 1 sees a *text* – the verbal record of a speech event, something visible, palpable and portable, consisting of various bits of linguistic meaning (words, clauses, prosodic features, etc.). This linguist is mainly interested in the way the parts of the text relate to each other to constitute a unit of meaning.

Linguist 2 sees beyond the text to the *event* of which it is the verbal record. Linguist 2 is most likely the person who collected the data; and who made the following note describing some features of the situation in which the exchange took place:

[sunny Sunday afternoon, Edinburgh Botanic Garden, two girls, both aged 7 or 8, on a path; one of them has kicked the ball they are playing with into the bushes]

This linguist is mainly interested in the relationships between the various factors in the event: the participants, their cultural backgrounds, their relationship to each other, the setting, what is going on, the various linguistic choices made, etc.

Linguist 3 sees the text and the event but then beyond both to the *performance* being enacted, the *drama* being played out between the two girls: what has happened, who is responsible, how the girls evaluate these facts (relate them to some existing framework of beliefs and attitudes about how the world – their world – works), how they respond to them, what each is trying to achieve, their strategies for attempting to achieve these objectives, etc. This linguist is mainly interested in the dynamics of the process that makes the event happen.

Linguist 4 sees the text, the event, and the drama; but beyond these, and focally, the *framework of knowledge and power* which, if properly understood, will

explain how it is possible for the two children, individually and jointly, to enact and interpret their drama in the way they do.

We may, not unreasonably, imagine that our four linguists are colleagues in the same university department. Each recognizes the validity of the perspective of each of the others, and the fact that, far from there being any necessary conflict or "incommensurability" between them (but cf. Pennycook, 1994a), the perspectives are complementary: all are needed for a full understanding of what discourse is and how it works.

As implied by the above, I do not think there is much to be gained from attempts to achieve a single definition of discourse that is both comprehensive and succinct. (For a list and discussion of such definitions, see for example Jaworski & Coupland 1999: 1–7.) Here instead is a set of definitions in the style of a dictionary entry for "discourse":

discourse

1 the linguistic, cognitive and social processes whereby meanings are expressed and intentions interpreted in human interaction (linguist 3);

2 the historically and culturally embedded sets of conventions which constitute and regulate such processes (linguist 4);

3 a particular event in which such processes are instantiated (linguist 2);

4 the product of such an event, especially in the form of visible text, whether originally spoken and subsequently transcribed or originally written (linguist 1).

III. Answer the following questions to the text.

1) What is the discourse analyst's particular contribution to the everyday experience of language?

2) Why have applied linguists done much work on developing the theory and practice of discourse analysis?

3) Who except applied linguists has done a great deal of discourse analysis?

4) Why is the interest in discourse beyond language in use?

5) What discourse-related books were published in recent years?

6) How may discourse analysis be defined?

7) What concepts of language are involved in the more detailed definition of discourse analysis?

8) What kind of person is Linguist2?

9) What is Linguist 3 mainly interested in?

10) How does Linguist 4 see the text, the even, and the drama?

IV. Match the words to their definitions.

1	deliberately	**a**	combining in such a way as to enhance or emphasize the qualities of each other or another
2	multi-disciplinary	**b**	not able to be judged by the same standards; having no common standard of measurement
3	divine	**c**	the aggregate of people living together in a more

			or less ordered community
4	complementary	**d**	devoted to God
5	incommensurable	**e**	a physical or mental condition that limits a person's movements, senses, or activities
6	framework	**f**	in a careful and unhurried way
7	society	**g**	state or describe exactly the nature, scope, or meaning of
8	disability	**h**	firmly hold the attention or interest of
9	define	**i**	combining or involving several academic disciplines or professional specializations in an approach to a topic or problem
10	grip	**j**	a basic structure underlying a system, concept, or text

V. Match the parts below to complete a single syntactic unit from the text.

1	Discourse analysts do what people in their everyday experience of language do instinctively and largely unconsciously:	**a**	discourse "ceases to be 'merely' a function of work; it becomes work [and the] analysis of discourse becomes correspondingly more important."
2	A great deal of discourse analysis is done by linguists	**b**	whether originally spoken and subsequently transcribed or originally written.
3	They note how, in the changed political, social and technological environment in which we now live	**c**	notice patternings of language in use and the circumstances with which these are typically associated.
4	Discourse analysis may be defined as the study of language viewed communicatively	**d**	to the *performance* being enacted, the *drama* being played out between the two girls.
5	This linguist is mainly interested in the dynamics	**e**	who would not call themselves applied and much by scholars in other disciplines.
6	Discourse is the product of such an event, especially in the form of visible text,	**f**	to enact and interpret their drama in the way they do.
7	Linguist 2 sees beyond the text to the *event*	**g**	of discourse that is both comprehensive and succinct.
8	Linguist 3 sees the text and the event but then beyond both	**h**	and/or of communication viewed linguistically.
9	The *framework of knowledge and power* will explain how it is possible for the two children,	**i**	of the process that makes the event happen.

	individually and jointly,		
10	There is much to be gained from attempts to achieve a single definition	**j**	of which it is the verbal record.

VI. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words from the box. Underline the words inserted.

gripped various Mundane divine defining feature epistemology investigations subtleties features prosodic features instantiated perspective speech event overstatement boundaries palpable embedded exchange cultural discourse analysis

1) The discourse analyst's particular contribution to this otherwise …….. activity is to do the noticing consciously, deliberately, systematically, and, as far as possible, objectively, and to produce accounts of what their …….. have revealed.

2) Much of the work that has been done over the last few decades on developing the theory and practice of …….. been done by applied linguists or by linguists for whom the integration of theory and practice is a …….. of the kind of linguistics that they do.

3) That this is no …….. may quickly be demonstrated by indicating something of the range of discourse-related books published in recent years: discourse and gender (Walsh, 2001; Wodak, 1997; Romaine, 1998); professional discourse (Gunnarson, Linell, & Nordberg, 1997) and professional communication across cultural …….. (Scollon, Scollon, & Yuling, 2001); …….. discourse (Wolterstorff, 1995).

4) Many areas of academic study have become so …….. by enthusiasm for discourse analysis in terms, firstly, of a shift in ……...

5) Discourse is a particular event in which social processes are ……...

6) They point to a broadening of …….. in linguistics, with a growth of linguistic interest in analysis of conversation, stories, and written text, in "the …….. of implied meaning".

7) Linguist 2 is most likely the person who made the following note describing some …….. of the situation in which the …….. took place.

8) Linguist 1 sees a *text* – the verbal record of a ……..., something visible, …….. and portable, consisting of various bits of linguistic meaning (words, clauses, ……..., etc.).

9) This linguist is mainly interested in the relationships between the various factors in the event: the participants, their …….. backgrounds, their relationship to each other, the setting, what is going on, the …….. linguistic choices made, etc.

10) Discourse is the historically and culturally …….. sets of conventions which constitute and regulate social processes.

VII. Find appropriate synonyms (if any) and antonyms (if any) to the words below.

№	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1	vital (adj.)		
2	mundane (adj.)		
3	goal (n.)		
4	respond (n.)		
5	various (adj.)		
6	boundary (n.)		
7	relate (v.)		
8	evaluate (v.)		
9	framework (n.)		
10	reveal (v.)		

VIII. Provide all the possible derivatives to the word forms below. Make up sentences with the words derived.

investigation embedded unconsciously disability diverse interpret understand construction environmental systematically

IX. Fill the gaps with a necessary article *(a/an, the, # zero article).*

<…> In the context of the spoken language skills, ……. importance of strategic competence in …… learner's negotiation of meaning is readily apparent: their strategies for coping with ……potential or actual breakdown need to be developed, and this can be facilitated, though not without difficulty (Hedge, 2000), through appropriate design and management of …… communication tasks. In teaching *written language skills*, recognition of the interactional and socially situated nature of ..... task focuses attention on contextualization: in the case of the reading skill, contextualization of the reader, their purpose in reading ….. particular text, and what they bring to it in terms of background knowledge and expectations; in …… case of the writing skill, contextualization of ……. writer, their purpose in writing, and the way in which they construct their reader in terms of social role (e.g., membership of …… particular discourse community), reading purpose, background knowledge, and expectations. Both reading and writing in …… second language are complex skills, capable of causing great difficulties to learners: writing especially, because the output is ….. product (text) that, in addition to being satisfactory in terms of …….content, needs to meet reader expectations in terms of register and generic features (overall organization,

metadiscourse features, use of …..cohesion, etc.), and also attain ……. adequate standard of linguistic accuracy. <…>

SPEAKING SECTION.
PICTURE DESCRIPTION WORKSHEET.

DISCUSSING FACTUAL INFORMATION

Where? There is a classroom/conference room/lecture room at the university/library/school. It looks out-of-date/modern. The people in the picture belong to different/the same ethnic group/(s)/nationalit(y)ies/origin.

When? The scene takes place during the lesson/conference/excursion/staff meeting. We can/cannot see in the picture, what is the weather like outside. The scene takes place in the early morning/at midday/in the evening/at midnight.

What else can be mentioned about the setting? What can you see in the background and the foreground?

Who and what? How many? There are _____ people in the _____, a _____, a presenter and _____ of the conference. The head of the section committee is wearing a _____. She is wearing _____ as well. She is _____ the topic of the next presentation. The presenter is wearing a _____ dress. She has a _____ to provide her presentation with _____. The participants have a _____ style. They are _____ to the head of the section committee. Some of the participants are _____ notes. The conference is _____ to the modern studies in _____. The people in the picture will be listening to the _____ on the topical issues of _____.

listening	presentation	laptop	light dress	glasses
dark	head of the section	committee	applied linguistics	
figures	conference room	taking	announcing	participants
discourse analysis	devoted	about forty	casual	

DISCUSSING CONCEPTUAL INFORMATION

1. Who could take the picture?
2. What is the possible title of the picture under consideration? What is the message of the picture?
3. Are the people in the picture posing for camera on purpose?
4. What do you think had happened before the picture was taken?
5. What will they do next after the picture having been taken?

PICTURE DESCRIPTION: Make up a list of 20 key-words covering factual and conceptual information of the picture considered. Describe the picture using the key-words, cover factual and conceptual information of the picture considered.

PART 2

READING SECTION

I. Answer the questions below. Give your reasons. Provide examples from your own experience, if possible.

1. Discuss some of the social norms that guide conversational interaction.
2. Identify some of the ways in which language varies based on the cultural context.
3. Explain the role that accommodation and code-switching play in communication.
4. Discuss cultural bias in relation to specific cultural identities.
5. What can you do now to be more aware of how verbal communication can reinforce cultural biases?

II. Comment upon the following quotes related to the topic of the unit under consideration. Do you agree or disagree to the ideas suggested? Give your reasons.

1. "Pragmatics studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of our choice on others." *(David Crystal)*

2. "Because language and society are so closely linked, it is possible, in some cases, to encourage social change by directing attention towards linguistic reflections of aspects of society that one would like to see altered." *(Peter Trudgill)*

3. "Language is a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation." *(Noam Chomsky)*

RULES AND PRINCIPLES, CONTEXTS AND CULTURES OF LANGUAGE IN USE. INTERACTION.

<…> Under this heading are grouped approaches which seek to understand the means by which language users – presumably universally, though this is always open to empirical contradiction – make sense, in the light of various contextual factors, of others' utterances and contrive to have their own understood more or less as they intend. Included here is work in pragmatics (Levinson, 1983; Mey, 1993; Thomas, 1995; Yule, 1996; Grundy, 2000) on:

• speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969);

• context; deixis and reference; shared knowledge (presuppositions) and frameworks of interpretation (schemata);

• cooperativeness in interaction: the "cooperative principle" and its "maxims" (Grice, 1975) and procedures for determining relevance (Sperber & Wilson, 1995);

• indirectness, indeterminacy and implicature and how these derive from particular ways of performing speech acts and manipulating the "maxims";

• politeness or tact (Leech, 1983; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Kasper, 1997).

Politeness theory deals with the concept of face, with acts which are potentially damaging to face, and with the linguistic stratagems used for limiting such damage, when it is unavoidable. It is informed not only by linguistic pragmatics but also by social psychology and linguistic anthropology.

Table 1. Ways and means of discourse analysis:

Rules and principles	• pragmatics (including speech act theory and politeness theory); • conversation analysis;
Contexts and cultures	• ethnography of communication; • interactional sociolinguistics;
Functions and structures	• systemic-functional linguistics (SFL); • Birmingham school discourse analysis; • text-linguistics;
Power and politics	• pragmatic and sociolinguistic approaches to power in language; • critical discourse analysis;

Work in conversation analysis (CA) (see Chapter 10, this volume), notably on rules of turn-taking and topic-management, and the sequencing rules governing relations between acts, is also included here. Note that the "rules" that CA is interested in are understood as members' (not analysts') rules: norms of behaviour,

discoverable in the recurring patterns of the action itself, to which members orient in order to manage and make sense of what is going on. In this respect CA differs from pragmatics. It also differs in its insistent empirical concern with the minutiae of the textual data.

Here are grouped approaches which focus on the sensitivity of ways of speaking (and writing) to situational and cultural differences. Ethnography of communication (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Duranti, 1997, Saville-Troike, 2003):

• offers a framework for the study of speech events, seeking to describe the ways of speaking associated with particular speech communities and to understand the role of language in the making of societies and cultures;

• involves both insider-like ("emic") understanding of culturally specific ways of communicating (both verbal and non-verbal) and of the various beliefs and attitudes which connect with these ways; and outsider objectivity, encapsulated in Hymes' well-known "SPEAKING" acronym – an "etic" framework of speech event components: setting and scene, participants, ends (purposes, outcomes), act sequences, key (attitudinal aspects), instrumentalities (norms and styles of speech), norms of interaction and interpretation, and genre (the discourse type).

The knowledge that members of communities have of ways of speaking includes knowing when, where and how to speak, what to speak about, with whom, and so forth. The idea that we need, in addition to a theory of grammatical competence, a theory of *communicative* competence (Hymes, 1972) arises from this fact. Speakers need knowledge not only of what is grammatically possible but also of what is appropriate and typically done.

Interactional sociolinguistics (Schiffrin, 1994; Gumperz, 2001) aims at "replicable analysis that accounts for our ability to interpret what participants intend to convey in everyday communicative practice" (Gumperz, 2001). It pays particular attention to culturally specific contextual presuppositions, to the signals – "contextualisation cues" such as code- and style-switching, and prosodic and exical choices – which signal these, and to the potential for misunderstanding which exists in culturally complex situations. It shares with CA a keen attention to detail and a focus on members' procedures, but differs from it in its interest in processes of inferencing and in the consequences of contextual variation and cultural diversity (for example, Tannen, 1984a).

Grouped here are text-friendly models of language and grammar-friendly approaches to text. Systemic-functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Hasan, 1985; Martin, 1992):

• sees language not as an autonomous system but as part of the wider socio-cultural context, as "social semiotic"; the aim is "to look into language from the outside and specifically, to interpret linguistic processes from the standpoint of the social order" (Halliday, 1978, p. 3);

• sees grammar as meaning potential – a "potential" that is functionally determined by the need of speakers and writers to simultaneously represent experience (the ideational function), manage their relationship with their co-participants (the interpersonal function) and produce dialogue or monologue, whether spoken or

written, which is cohesive and coherent (the textual function); the realization of these meta-functions can be discerned both at the micro-level of clause structure (e.g., systems of transitivity) and at the macro-level of context (register features of "field," "tenor," and "mode");
• provides a comprehensive theory of text analysis and genre (Martin, 2002).

Sharing much of the theoretical basis of SFL, Birmingham school discourse analysis originated in the analysis of classroom discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). This revealed a hierarchical model of discourse structure (lesson, transaction, exchange, move, act), whose most widely exploited insight has been the regular sequence of moves within a teaching exchange: *Initiating move* (from the teacher), *Responding move* (from the pupil), *Feedback move* (from the teacher). This "IRF" pattern can be detected in other domains, including not only other unequal-power institutional domains such as doctor–patient consultations but also casual conversation (Stubbs, 1983; Tsui, 1994; Eggins & Slade, 1997, pp. 45–7). In the latter case, the third move (renamed follow-up) is likely to involve some kind of interpersonally motivated evaluation, for example a positive gloss on a respondent's declining the initiator's invitation.

Text-linguistics (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981; Levinson, 1983, p. 288 for the distinction between this and "speech act (or interactional)" approaches;) is not so much a single approach to discourse as a somewhat indeterminate set of interests or predispositions. These include:
• focus on *text*, generally defined as language "above," "beyond" or "longer than" the sentence, and especially on the structure of texts and on their formal (syntactic and lexical), or surface, features;
• achievement – and the role of various kinds of lexis in signalling these (Hoey, 1991); on cohesion generally (e.g., Halliday & Hasan, 1976); on rhetorical patterns of textual meaning such as general-particular and problem-solution (Hoey, 1983, 2001); and on text structure seen in terms of hierarchies of textual relationships (Mann & Thompson, 1987);
• a particular concern with the analysis of *written* texts (see, for example, Connor & Johns, 1990; Mann & Thompson, 1992).

It is with the concept of interaction that discourse (for the analyst) comes to life. Entrances are made, intentions are formed, topics are introduced, turns are taken, actions are performed, reactions are prompted and in turn reacted to; understandings are checked, contributions are acknowledged, breakdowns occur, repairs are contrived; exits are negotiated. *People* are at work, doing things with meanings (producing them, interpreting them, negotiating them), co-creating an event whose trajectory may be clear to none of them until it is complete, and perhaps not even then.

This is discourse seen not as product (a text on a page) but as process, joint action in the making (Clark, 1996), and in consequence most difficult to capture and analyze without losing sight of its essence. The very smallest details – the falling-from-high pitch tone on which B says "Moira" for example – may be the

most telling in revealing what is happening and with what intended, or unintended, effect.

The concept of discourse as interaction is present in all current ways and means of doing discourse analysis. In pragmatics, meaning is seen as "a dynamic process, involving the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance (physical, social, and linguistic) and the meaning potential of an utterance" (Thomas, 1995, p. 22). The interactional workings of intention and effect are central to speech act theory; Grice's maxims "are essentially ground rules for the interactive management of intentions" (Widdowson, 1998, p. 13); and the mutual establishment and maintenance of rapport (the avoidance of threats to face) underpins theories of politeness and tact.

Conversation analysis and interactional sociolinguistics provide somewhat contrasting approaches to the description of the accomplishment of interaction, the former more focused on the internal (to the text) mechanisms of turn-taking and sequencing, the latter highlighting the links between the micro-processes of the text, for example intonational and other "contextualization cues," and the macro-world of social structures and cultural presuppositions. IRF analysis provides a somewhat static post hoc view of the *accomplished* interaction as a hierarchical patterning of acts, moves, exchanges, and transactions.

The interactionality of discourse is not restricted to the spoken language. "Text is a form of exchange; and the fundamental form of a text is that of dialogue, of interaction between speakers . . . In the last resort, every kind of text in every language is meaningful because it can be related to interaction among speakers, and ultimately to ordinary everyday spontaneous conversation" (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 11). It can be argued that written no less than spoken interaction involves dynamic processes of interaction between readers and writers. Hoey, for example (2001, p. 11) defines text as "the visible evidence of a reasonably self-contained purposeful interaction between one or more writers and one or more readers, in which the writer(s) control the interaction and most of (characteristically all) the language." <…>

III. Answer the following questions to the text.

1) Give the definition to the notion of *discourse analysis.*
2) What ways and means of discourse analysis do you know?
3) What do the abbreviations of CA, SFL, IRF stand for?
4) What concept does discourse come to life with for the analyst?
5) How is meaning seen in pragmatics?
6) What underpins theories of politeness and tact?
7) What does interactional sociolinguistics provide discourse analysts with?
8) Can the interactionality of discourse be restricted to the spoken language?
9) What is the fundamental form of a text?
10) What is the puspose of IRF analysis? How do you understand the notion of the *accomplished interaction*?

IV. Match the words to their definitions.

1	genre	**a**	a way of considering or doing something;
2	interpretation	**b**	the situation when the parts of something fit together in a natural or reasonable way;
3	cohesion	**c**	the style of language, grammar, and words used for particular situations;
4	syntax	**d**	someone who responds to a question or offer;
5	interaction	**e**	an explanation or opinion of what something means; a particular way of performing a piece of music, a part in a play, etc.;
6	register	**f**	the state of being likely to behave in a particular way or to suffer from a particular disease
7	approach	**g**	an occasion when two or more people or things communicate with or react to each other;
8	predisposition	**h**	the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence;
9	respondent	**i**	the state of sticking together, or (of people) being in close agreement and working well together;
10	coherence	**g**	a style, especially in the arts, that involves a particular set of characteristics;

V. Match the parts below to complete a single syntactic unit from the text.

1	Politeness theory deals with the concept of face, with acts which are potentially damaging to face,	**a**	where and how to speak, what to speak about, with whom, and so forth.
2	This “IRF” pattern can be detected in other domains,	**b**	and prosodic and lexical choices – which signal these, and to the potential for misunderstanding which exists in culturally complex situations.
3	In the latter case, the third move (renamed follow-up) is likely to involve some kind	**c**	but differs from it in its interest in processes of inferencing and in the consequences of contextual variation and cultural diversity.
4	Interactional sociolinguistics aims at “replicable analysis that accounts for	**d**	has been the regular sequence of moves within a teaching exchange: *Initiating move* (from the teacher), *Responding move* (from the pupil), *Feedback move* (from the teacher).
5	The knowledge that members of	**e**	as a somewhat indeterminate set of

	communities have of ways of speaking includes knowing when,		interests or predispositions.
6	Text-linguistics is not so much a single approach to discourse	**f**	and with the linguistic stratagems used for limiting such damage, when it is unavoidable.
7	It shares with CA a keen attention to detail and a focus on members' procedures,	**g**	including not only other unequal-power institutional domains such as doctor–patient consultations but also casual conversation
8	This revealed a hierarchical model of discourse structure (lesson, transaction, exchange, move, act), whose most widely exploited insight	**h**	but also of what is appropriate and typically done.
9	Speakers need knowledge not only of what is grammatically possible	**i**	our ability to interpret what participants intend to convey in everyday communicative practice".
10	It pays particular attention to culturally specific contextual presuppositions, to the signals – "contextualisation cues" such as code- and style-switching,	**j**	of interpersonally motivated evaluation, for example a positive gloss on a respondent's declining the initiator's invitation.

VI. Fill in the gaps using the appropriate words from the box. Underline the words inserted.

context	separately	meaning	complimenting	dictionary
grammar	assumptions	conversation	interpret	analysis

1) Discourse ……..is sometimes defined as the analysis of language 'beyond the sentence'.

2) Some discourse analysts consider the larger discourse ……..in order to understand how it affects the meaning of the sentence.

3) Charles Fillmore points out that two sentences taken together as a single discourse can have meanings different from each one taken……..

4) This contrasts with types of analysis more typical of modern linguistics, which are chiefly concerned with the study of……..: the study of smaller bits of language, such as sounds (phonetics and phonology), parts of words (morphology), meaning (semantics), and the order of words in sentences (syntax).

5) 'Reframing' is a way to talk about going back and re-interpreting the …….of the first sentence.

6) When you read a newspaper, you need to know whether you are reading a news story, an editorial, or an advertisement in order to properly ……the text you are reading.

7) Discourse analysts who study ……..note that speakers have systems for determining when one person's turn is over and the next person's turn begins.

8) When speakers have different ……..about how turn exchanges are signaled, they may inadvertently interrupt or feel interrupted.

9) Realizing that these words can function as discourse markers is important to prevent the frustration that can be experienced if you expect every word to have its …….meaning every time it's used.

10) Studying speech acts such as ……..allows discourse analysts to ask what counts as a compliment, who gives compliments to whom, and what other function they can serve.

VII. Find appropriate synonyms (if any) and antonyms (if any) to the words below.

№	Word	Synonym	Antonym
1	rhetorical (adj.)		
2	coherence (n.)		
3	cohesion (n.)		
4	achievement (n.)		
5	predisposition (n.)		
6	natural (adj.)		
7	reasonable (adj.)		
8	agreement (n.)		
9	simultaneous (adj.)		
10	transitivity (n.)		

SPEAKING SECTION.
PICTURE DESCRIPTION WORKSHEET

DISCUSSING FACTUAL INFORMATION

Where? There is a classroom/conference hall/office/canteen/lounge-bar at the university/school/library/enterprise/firm. It looks out-of-date/modern and well/poorly equipped. The people in the picture belong to different/the same ethnic group/(s)/nationalit(y)ies/origin. They represent the same/different age and gender groups.

When? The scene takes place during the negotiation procedure/match/excursion/staff meeting. We can/cannot see in the picture, what is the weather like outside. The scene takes place in the early morning/at midday/in the evening/at midnight.

What else can be mentioned about the setting? What can you see in the background and the foreground?

Consider the statements below *true, false* or *not stated*. Justify your choice:

1) The people in the picture are in their late forties.____
2) The woman in the picture is single and the man is obviously married.____
3) It is spring outside._____
4) The man is holding his right hand in his trousers pocket.____
5) The woman is wearing a long straight skirt.____
6) The people in the picture are both wearing expensive watches._____
7) The people in the picture are using actively body language._____
8) It is obvious that the man and the woman in the picture are strogly arguing about something._____

DISCUSSING CONCEPTUAL INFORMATION

1. Who could take the picture?
2. What is the possible title of the picture under consideration? How can it be related to Computer Science area? What is the message of the picture?
3. Are the people in the picture posing for camera on purpose?
5. What do you think had happened before the picture was taken?
6. What will they do next after the picture having been taken?

PICTURE DESCRIPTION

Make up a list of 20 key-words covering factual and conceptual information of the picture considered. Describe the picture using the key-words, cover factual and conceptual information of the picture considered.

LISTENING (AUDIOVISUAL COMPREHENSION) SECTION

LANGUAGE AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

I. Watch a video recording about the general view of language and discourse analysis issue. Answer the following questions. Justify your answer relying upon the facts form the video material.(https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JZ8bkus3vis)

1) What is linguistics about from David Crystal's perspective?

2) What is the difference between phonetics and phonology? How may discourse analysis be related to these branches of linguistics?

3) Why does the speaker in the video recording consider Leo Spitzer's definition of the *discourse analysis* concept to be fairly not brilliant? Do you think the concept under consideration covers only the idea of the examination of any significant semiotic event?

4) How are the concepts of *signifier* and *signified* viewed from Ferdinand de Saussure's perspective? Provide your own examples relying on the scholar's scheme.

5) What is semiosis? Why is this linguistic phenomenon important for the process of discourse analysis?

II. Indicate whether the statements below are true/ false/not stated, justify your choice relying on the video materials.

1) Psycholinguistics is looking at how social conventions, norms, values, the rules, governing our behavior, are getting inscribed into the language that we speak. _____

2) David Spitzer is known to be the founder of discourse analysis. _____

3) Phonology is the study that lets us differentiate between sounds._____

4) Discourse analysis originates from literature._____

5) David Crystal, a prominent linguist, has been mentioned twice in the video recording. _____

6) Syntax is the examination of how meaningful structures are put together out of different words. _____

7) From Ferdinand de Saussure's perspective, discourse analysis is the examination of any significant semiotic event._____

8) If we had a phrase like *the cat sat on the mat* which is syntactically correct and functional, then a phrase *the cat purred on the map* would surely differ from the first one and be unequally functional. _____

III. Fill in the gaps with appropriate words according to what is being delivered in the video-piece.

<…> Then there are…… and phonetic areas of linguistics these to do with the study of sounds and how sound is used to make meaning, so phonetics is the study of how we can ……. between sounds, what's the minimum difference that can be used for meaning and then phonology is the set of …….., used by a particular language so the human voice can …….. many different phonetic ……., but in any one language we only have a limited set of phonological ones. Syntax is the examination of how……. structures are put together out of different words so if we had phrases like the famous syntactic one is *the cat sat on the mat*, that's …… correct you know works it's functional and then we could have also had *the cat purred on the map* that would ……. be functional. You could even have something like *the cat juggled on the mat*, which was it might not make sense it's still …… legit, you know, works because *juggled* is the past …… of the verb. So, the fact that *the camp juggled on the map* wouldn't or would perhaps be seen as nonsense that's a kind of …… thing, so what we're looking at there is how whole …… has meaning or stance in defiance of …… on me and so, that's that looks at what the meaning of a whole group of words might be so, a sentence or phrase, or ……..…... Pragmatics looks at the meanings that aren't present, but are somehow indicated by a syntactic …..…... <…>.

VIDEO TRANSCRIPTS

LANGUAGE DESIGN (INTERVIEW WITH NOAM CHOMSKY).
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MLk47AMBdTA)

To look into the question of language design, it's useful to think of how human beings evolved. We don't know a great deal about it, but we know some things. So, for example, it's fairly clear from the archaeological record, that modern humans, modern *Homo sapiens,* cognitively modern Homo sapiens developed quite recently in evolutionary time, and maybe within the last roughly hundred thousand years, which is a flick of an eye, that's when you get the enormous increase, explosion of indications of the creative activity, complex family structures, symbolism and so on, all of this develops roughly in that period, and interestingly, there has been no detectable evolution of these capacities in roughly the past 50.000 years.

That's the period since our ancestors left Africa, a small number of them, and pretty quickly spread over the world. So, all humans are pretty much identical with regard of the cognitive capacity, linguistic capacity and so, which means, that there's been essentially no detectable evolution. So, there's small window there, where something happened, and it's generally assumed by paleoanthropologist people who study these topics. That must have been the emergence of language, because it's hard to imagine any of these basically creative activities without language, and that language does provide the mechanisms for them.

So, it seems as though the core of human sensibility, and a creative and cognitive capacity, is the development of this completely unique capacity. There's nothing analogous to it anywhere in the animal world. There are animal signaling systems, but they're completely different in design and use in just about every dimension. So, something strange happened, roughly, maybe, a hundred thousand years ago, not very long, and language emerged in humans, and the question then is, well, what kind of a system is it?

On the surface languages look very different from one another. So, if somebody walks into the room and starts speaking Swahili, I'm not going to understand a word. Though I will recognize that it's a language. I won't understand it, but I know it's not noise. No. As soon, as you look more deeply, you find that these languages are basically mould into a pretty similar design, may be an identical design, the large parts of the length of what we hear, is just the sounds. But that's a very superficial part of language. The core of language is principles that determine actually an infinite array of possible expressions, structured expressions, which have definite meanings. Now, all of that is well, beyond, what we can just observe, but I say looking at the texts, and when a child is learning a language, the child doesn't learn those things, there's no evidence for them. Almost, no evidence for them, nobody can teach them.

We don't know, what they are. These are just part of our nature, the core principle, so-called syntactic principles that form expressions, and that provide

specific interpretations for them, that's apparently just all part of our nature. And then there are various ways of externalizing it in sound, or in sign which is about the same, but it. But that's a kind of a superficial manifestation of an internal uniformity, and the really exciting, and it almost has to be this way. If you think about the way, the system developed, apparently all of a sudden, in evolutionary terms which meant that there were very limited selectional pressures, so, it probably was designed as a computational….it is a computational system, so many explanation for this array of capacities computational systems have certain optimal characteristics. That some are more efficient than others, and there's every reason to believe that. This developed pretty suddenly as an optimal communication system essentially following laws of nature very much.

The way a snowflake assumes a very complex form, and not because of experience or training, but just, because that's the way the laws of physics work, and there's every reason to believe that language is something like this. Now, to try to show it, is a trivial matter. You have to try to show that the superficial variety of languages, actually reduces to principles of a common character which approach notions of optimal design. And there has been, I think, no notable progress in that process, is a long way to go to try to demonstrate it for, but then, of course, then one wants to go beyond the tried, maybe ultimately to discover the neural basis for whatever this unique capacity is; and it's a very hard problem the study for humans.

So, we know a lot about the human visual system, because of direct experimentation with cats and monkeys. We allow ourselves to do direct experimentation, you know, sticking electrodes into the brain and so on. Controlled experiments, but we don't do it with humans, and humans have about the same visual system as cats and monkeys, so we know about the human visual system, you can't do that for language, there are no analogous systems.

So, you can stand, watch, study other animals, we're unique in this respect, and invasive experiments with human beings are, of course, barred. So, it's a very complex and intricate matter to try to find clever ways of getting around the barriers to learn something about these topics. And some progress is being made. I think, we can look forward to a period, when there will be convergence of various modes of inquiry into design of language neuro basis acquisition of our possible varieties of language, and so on. That's crucial task for the future which in fact is directed to the core of human nature. The core of cognitive of human nature.

The most intriguing question, I think, is the one that I have basically just mentioned, there's reason to believe that the core of human intellectual nature, cognitive nature, is a computational system which probably has something like the properties of a snowflake. It simply had to develop this way, given biological and physical law and special circumstances. And the most intriguing question is, to try to see, if that's true, but if it is, to show that it's true.

CORPORA AND SPOKEN LANGUAGE
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UKQcVE9d67s&t=371s

Then, in the early 1990s, I moved to the University of Nottingham and began work on spoken corpora with my colleague Ronald Carter. And we built the CANCODE spoken corpus, C-A-N-C-O-D-E, Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English. By that time written copra were taping indeed, tens of millions of words. But spoken corpora have always opened necessity been somewhat smaller because of the immense costs involved in recording, transcribing etc been spoken data. And it's also quite difficult to obtain the appropriate ethical permissions and so on. Tang code nonetheless is 5 million words of everyday data which is extremely useful. Also now spoken corpora are much easier to collect. We have miniaturized audio recording equipment; the software is much better, more capable of handling different kinds of data. So in a way, there has been a revolution and the spoken corpus has indeed come of age.

My particular area of interest is conversation and conversational corpora, and there are a couple of reasons for this. Firstly, of course, conversation is for most of us the most typical way that we use language in every day of our lives. We talk to our friends, our colleagues, our neighbors, family etc and expend an awful lot of language every day much more than we write. But secondly, a good reason for collecting spoken corpora is that, that it is actually quite difficult to be objective about how we speak, it's much easier to be objective about how we write. When we write we can revise, we can change things, we can cut and paste, we can do all sorts of things, we can reflect on what we're doing. When we speak we have no such opportunities for reflection, it's in real time conversational speech at least. There are other kinds of more formal speaking where we do have time to think but everyday conversation is real-time, online, face-to-face so we don't have time to sit back and reflect, and observe how we speak. Therefore it's not surprising that a lot of the ways in which we describe language and as a result the ways in which we teach it and what we teach are based on notions that come from the written language.

So the question is “What do we learn by using spoken corpora?” “What's the difference?” “What are the different insights?” and “If there are different insights?” “What is their relevance for language teaching, for TESOL?”

As you probably know, one of the standard techniques that corpus linguists use to count frequency. We can create frequency lists which tell us what are the most frequent items words or phrases or grammatical patterns in the language and equally what are the rare or hardly ever used words and phrases and patterns. So, frequency lists are quite useful.

A couple of years ago my English Profile colleague Dr. Paula Buttery, and the English Profile incidentally is a very big project looking into learner English within the framework of the Common European Framework of Reference (and I would invite you to visit the website of the English Profile). My colleague Dr. Paula Buttery and I did an investigation where we took the top two thousand, top

couple of thousand most frequent words in the British National Corpus spoken segments and compared them with a similar top two thousand words in the British National Corpus written segment. Now we found, of course, that there was a great deal of overlap, there's no surprise, there. There's hardly anything that you can write which you cannot say and vice versa. But the overlap came to about two thirds, about sixty-five percent and that meant that there was a good third, about thirty-five percent, of the words which were unique to either the spoken list or the written list which was fascinating in itself. So there is evidence that the most common vocabulary of writing and speaking is different one compared with the other.

Certainly, my colleague Ronald Hart and I did a comparison of the top 50 words, the 50 most frequent words in our CANCODE corpus and in a same sized Corpus of General Written English consisting of newspapers and books, and magazines, and so on typical everyday written texts. And we found that there were a number of words in the spoken list, the spoken top 50, which didn't appear in the written top 50 at all. These included words like *righ*t and *well,* and the verbs *know* and *think.* K-N- 0-W, *know,* is obviously very very frequent because people are all the time saying *you know*. Now there's a tendency sometimes and I've had to confront this tendency in lectures and conferences and things that I've written. There is a tendency to think of expressions like *you know* as being rather lazy uses of language, sloppy, not the sorts of things we would want to teach as language teachers. But believe me, everybody uses them all the time. Educated speakers, because of all ages, genders, geographical backgrounds, everything, we do it all the time. Why? Because we are constantly reaching out to our interlocutors, the people we are talking to. We are constantly monitoring their conversation, we want to give out this signal that "Well, you and I where we share the same world, we share the same life experiences, we're on the same wavelength, *you know*". And this is important, this reaching out this, this creation of interaction, not just what we are talking about. Of course, we may be talking about our jobs, our holidays, our friends, anything, but what is really much more important is how we do it and how we try to create this relationship with the other speakers, to create this interaction between us. That's one of the things that leaps out of the frequency lists if you compare spoken and written language.

And if we think of words like *right* and *well,* then, obviously, these are very useful words for organizing our conversations. We use *right,* perhaps, if we want to end the conversation *"Right,* see you tomorrow". "*All right,* let's talk about something else" a way of organizing our topics in the conversation. So, again not as what we're talking about but how we talk about it.

Well is an interesting word. People often say to me "Do you live in Cambridge?" and I usually answer "*Well,* near Cambridge". Because I happen to live in a village about eight miles outside of Cambridge. Why do I say *well*? because I've been asked a yes/no question "Do you live in Cambridge?" but I can't answer it as a yes-no question so I have to give out a signal that says "I'm going to

take the discourse in a different direction, I can't take it in the direction that you have projected".

So, these words like *well* and *right* they're very important organizational words, they are strategic ways of organizing and managing our conversations. So, it's not surprising that they are incredibly frequent in the spoken corpus and may be absent until quite considerably way down in the frequency list of the written corpus.

If you like, their small words with very big meanings are the small words, for example, the word *just* which is in the top 50 spoken but not written. I could say to you "Can I ask you a question?" But I can make it much softer, much less in your face, much friendlier by saying "Can I *just* ask you a question?" So, it's these little, what I call the interactive words, this repertoire of vocabulary in the most frequent spoken lists that we get from spoken corpora which create interaction, and then they suggest to us that there is indeed a thick skill which we can call the skill of interaction. Over and above being able to pronounce things correctly, over and above being able to talk about our experiences, we need to have the appropriate way of doing it, the appropriate way of engaging with the other person or persons who are there in real time in front of us, and I think this is one of the very big things that I've got from studying spoken corpora.

LINGUISTICS AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JZ8bkus3vis

Before looking at discourse analysis, I'm going to just quickly review the discipline that it fits into. So, discourse analysis comes to us from linguistics. David Crystal tells us that linguistics is the science of language and linguists are the people who try to understand, why human language is the way it is. So, linguists study the history and acquisition of language, and its structure and use. So, I'm just going to pick up on that structure use distinction a little bit, so, on the sort of the structural side we have these different areas of linguistics, so, structural linguistics is interested in the formal properties of language, so, includes things like word structure, which we find studied in morphology and so, that's like how you make a participle from a root word you know, so, *run - running* so, that kind of add an *ING* word structure.

Then there are phonological and phonetic areas of linguistics. These are to do with the study of sounds and how sound is used to make meaning, so, phonetics is the study of how we can differentiate between sounds, what's the minimum difference that can be used for meaning. And then phonology is the set of sounds, used by a particular language, so, the human voice can produce many different phonetic distinctions, but in any one language we only have a limited set of phonological ones. Syntax is the examination of how meaningful structures are put together out of different words, so, if we had phrases like the famous syntactic one is *the cat sat on the mat*, that's syntactically correct, you know, works it's

functional and then we could have also had *the cat purred on the map* that would equally be functional. You could even have something like *the cat juggled on the mat*, which was it might not make sense, it's still syntactically legit, you know, works, because *juggled* is the past tense of the verb.

So, the fact that *the camp juggled on the map* wouldn't or would perhaps be seen as nonsense, that's a kind of semantics thing, so, what we're looking at there, is how whole phrase has meaning or stance in defiance of conventions on me, and so, that's that looks at what the meaning of a whole group of words might be so, a sentence, or phrase, or clause. Pragmatics looks at the meanings that aren't present, but are somehow indicated by a syntactic arrangement. So, if you said to somebody *are you putting the cattle on* and really meant *will you make me a cup of tea,* that's kind of pragmatic usage. On the other side, here we've got this kind of used things, so, there's psycholinguistics, how we develop an acquired language, historical linguistics, how languages change and develop over time, varieties of language…. so *slang, creoles and pigeons*.

These are …errr.. fascinating areas of study but one does not terribly relevant to what we are doing, but this side of the thing is. So, sociolinguistics is looking at how social conventions, norms, values, the rules governing our behavior getting inscribed into the language that we speak. So, we live in a culture where gender distinction is very important and we can see that inscribed in our language in terms of we have different verbal forms and different pronoun forms for males and females.

Then there's these two things here, which, these are more relevant to us against discourse analysis, the thing we're actually interested in today's conversation analysis. I will register that as a special case discourse analysis, and people be upset by that, but I've got to shorten this discourse analysis, look really at how sociolinguistic value gets inscribed in the language as it is being used, and it pretty much uses things like semantics and pragmatics. I borrow some bits of this syntactics as well in order to do that in a wiry. So, we're going to look at the overlap between these different things. This is Leo Spitzer, and many people think of him as the founder, the granddad of discourse analysis, that's given the people like to have a starting place for anything Leo Spitzer could have started anywhere, but really you know we've been looking at discourse and working out, how it means, what it means, way back, you know, go back to the Greeks, beyond that I think any time, people who've used language, they've wanted to know how it works.

So, from Leo's perspective discourse analysis is the examination of any significant semiotic event which is not a brilliant definition to be fair, because it was dividing the thing that we didn't know discourse analysis in reference to something we've probably never even heard of significant semiotic event, so what is this, what semiotic? Well, way back in the day semiotics was the study of how signs function in the construction of meaning and it, you know, if we talk to three four hundred years ago, people would have talked about the semiotic subnets and

or agriculture meaning so, how you interpret material traces of illness, so the doctor sees the spots on the skin and interprets it in terms of measles.

So, if we think about that in a more formal way by the time I get to the nineteenth century, we're looking at these two gentlemen here, this is Charles Sanders Percy, who was an American, I may not be saying his name entirely correctly, and there's something unusual other ways of his name, but I don't quite know what it is. He's a pragmatist American philosopher, he was a person who inspired some of the great names of American philosophical tradition, particularly, Jewry and also to some extent the James brothers. William does anyway, there is a way he was an important philosopher from America, and he says that a sign is something that stands in for something else it's some respect or capacity. And once he sort of made that claim the thing, that's most interesting leaders are the respects and capacities of the site.

So, how kind of thing standing for something else, so, he says signs can be iconic, so they can be similar in some way to the thing they stand in for. So, these are signs for about, so if somebody says *ding-dong* or if somebody drew that picture or present it to you on a screen and it made you think of *Bell,* these are then iconically representing the bell, and that's iconic, because they are similar to the object is standing for in some way, and so this is supposed to sound a bit like the noise a bell makes. This is supposed to look a bit like about all, right, he also says you were indexical signs.

So, here we can get the Bell in the same way, so the things being stood always is about, but this time it's the noise made by these guys he rattles this thing. If you hear a ringing sound – *clang clang clang* noise – then you have a tendency to think there must be a Bell nearby so, the sound indicates it is an index of the presence of a bat. And it could be a logical relationship as well, so, if somebody says they are a brother that indicates that they have a sibling in their immediate family, and a brother or sister themselves. So, it can be hard to see how somebody could be an only one and brother. And then Pierce also says that there are symbolic signs where the standing in four is achieved just by convention. So, we use the sound [b] earlier than the word *«bell»,* but we could equally as well use the word *«chime»* or any other word at all, you know, we could use the word *«sandwich».*

There's no reason why *bell* has anything to do with *bells* any more than any other sound we could think. Right, so this is the other dimension of its either side of a coin, if you like, and this comes from Ferdinand de Saussure. He was a famous Swiss linguist, famously could speak wide variety of languages with considerable fluency and thought and wrote on the nature of the sign, but in a different dimension, so, he's not some interest in different types as there's the internal mechanics. So, he would basically agree with persuade and he says that, you know, yet one thing stands in for another, but he says with these two parts of the sign there. So, there's the thing that does the standing in for which he calls a signifier, that would be landmarks or sounds, or gestures, that we read here or observe.

And then there are the signified, that's the things that are being stood in for, so, here we got a bunch of sounds *lion, leo, Simba,* all of which can be used to

stand in for this. So, those are the two halves of the sign, but the other thing that he says it's important to secure, observes that this relationship is arbitrary and it doesn't just mean that, you know, it's not just that we could say *sandwich* and mean that, it's not just that we could say we all have *lion*, or we could say *Leo,* or we could say *Simba* and mean the same thing. It's also far between that we group particular objects into the same class.

So, we have a specific class of objects that we call *lion* and it excludes *leopards*, but it could include them that's an arbitrary distinction we drew there. And the people get upset about this appetizer. They say, well, look, there is it, there's a natural difference between a lion and a leopard. And yes, maybe, there is, but also there are natural distinctions within the group that we call lions. So, you get lions from certain types, you know, so, the places which are quite different to others, they may be able to reproduce, but you can also get different big cats to reproduce as one of the dart lions and produce hybrids. So, the idea here is that there isn't this kind of uniform, homogeneous, naturally, occurring object, it's an arbitrary class that we've put together.

So, personally, you're both taking different approaches to signs, but what their work brings out is that there is something arbitrary and conventional in the way the signs work. And this is going to be important for discourse analysis, because in discourse analysis we aim at finding this arbitrary and conventional dimension of making meaning, *semiosis.*

So, why are we doing that? Well we're so familiar with semiotic processes that they go on around us we often don't see the arbitrary in the conventional and so, we can be in a way hijacked by it. And just as the fish is always in the water, and therefore, loses sight of the water, we very often lose sight of the fact that we're constantly engaged in semiosis, the interpretation of meaning making. So, we behave as though some of the meanings that we work with aren't arbitrary and conventional, that the world is not necessarily the way we think it is, but it could be chopped up in other way, so, we could use different sounds to mean the same objects, or we could actually divide the object that we're referring to up in different ways. So, this arbitrary must tend to disappear, if rooms, just as quickly as we start to interpret science. But we can sometimes recover these assumptions about this arbitrariness by listening carefully to the language, and that's what discourse analysis does. So, wherever we hear somebody catching something up as natural or common sense, that is usually the case of people did send them natural religion or traditional illusion, sorry, the religion nature and common sense are sometimes the alibis for the arbitrary and the conventional. And we do this because arbitrary conventions in language, that we have forgotten and turned into natural or common sensual distinctions, are often used to disguise the arbitrary and conventional distribution of power. For example, 200 years ago my ancestors went to North Africa and stole people from there, and forced them to work on plantations in appalling circumstances, so that my ancestors could enjoy and sugar, and cotton, and coffee, and stuff like that.

And then, whenever people have engaged in slavery, other people have always criticized it, and whenever those criticisms arose, the answer would very often be dressed up in terms of nature. And common sense, and also religion back in the day, so that it was argued, that said that the religious discourse might say something like, well, they were, they were mired in sin, that they hadn't heard the good news of Jesus and being mired in sin and caught up in, that they were going to go to Hell…. So, we went there, and we took them good news, and where they refused to listen we forced them to accept it, because that was our responsibility to bring them to God. And …..you, as soon as you start to say it's okay to force people to believe what you believe, it's a very short step to forcing them to work on your plantation, it seems.

Then we also had people arguing from nature and they would say, well, black people are just naturally not as able to look after themselves as white people, so the white person has to do the looking after, and left what the black person owns the white person, a debt of responsibility and so, they then have to do. I take on responsibility for their good management, so, they owe me their labor kind of thinking. And then, there were common-sense arguments people would say, well, the fact, that we can turn them into slaves, means that just common sense we will turn them into slaves. And there's something horrible being said about human nature that people will explode one another, being dressed up as common sense.

So, the three discourses and the written one hasn't been maintained as much not nature and common sense, but those three discourses have been used to disguise the arbitrary assumption of power. Just a quick and wander off into thinking about language then. So, this is Martin Heidegger and not as popular characters certainly used to be, and certainly give him some of his motive to a fairly questionable news, political activities in the mid 20-th centuries dubious, but he argues that language is like a hammer. And so, when we're using it to do stuff we don't think about it, too much, if you think about the hammer, you'll hit yourself with it, but when it breaks down, when it goes wrong, you really notice how it works. It's only when it starts to fail you that you really begin to think about what it does, when it's useful. And then there's this guy, he's a bit later than Heidegger, this is Rowland Bart, he's a French major journalist, cultural commentator, and academic, and he suggests that the photographs, and by this he means any sign, but he was particular interested in how photographs function in science. So, he says a photograph is always invisible. We never see the photograph, what does make any sense. Because it's a perfect illustration, I already said, this is Roland Barthes, and it's not wrong advice, a photograph falls apart, but it's very hard for us to see the photograph, as a photograph we look through it, and believe we see the person, of course, we don't see the person that is not Roland Barthes at all, and just as it is a photograph, it's a photograph of a particular place and pertinent, so, if we really-really thought about it, it's just a bunch of colored lights and shades, isn't it, but this is Bart's point. The sign disappears as soon as we see it, because what we do is interpreted, as it's how we forget that the discourse analysis tries to focus on and that'll do for now I think.

SELF-ASSESSMENT FINAL TEST

The following self-assessment test will help you prepare for the exam and estimate your current knowledge of the subject. To calculate the amount of points you deserve, compare your answers with the key given below; every correct answer gives you 2 points. Here is the suggested rating scale:

0 –28 – poor "F"
30 –48 –poor "FX"
50 – 58 – satisfactory "E"
60 – 68 – satisfactory "D"
70 – 78 – good "C"
80 – 88 – good "B"
90 – 100 – excellent "A"

1) In a dictionary phonetic and grammatical information is word-related and thus essentially……..

a) lexical
b) grammatical
c) extralinguistic
d) syntactic

2) In theory linguistic or lexical information may be distinguished from ……information.

a) intralinguistic
b) extralinguistic
c) factual
d) conceptual

3) Prepositions, determiners, or conjunctions and discourse-marking chunks such as you know, I mean, etc. are regarded as ……..words.

a) function
b) notional
c) supraphrasal
d) lemmatized

4) A reference work that stores and classifies such factual information as proper names of people and places, biographical data, and descriptions of historical events, political, social, and cultural institutions, etc. on all or some branches of knowledge or a single subject area is generally known as ……..

a) bilingualized dictionary
b) semi-bilingual dictionary
c) encyclopedia
d) bridge dictionary

5) In the titles and/or subtitles of subject-area and biographical reference works, which are most commonly published in one volume, dictionary can be used alternatively and synonymously with …….

a) handbook
b) glossary
c) vocabulary
d) encyclopedia

6) A set of words for communication and knowledge acquisition is viewed as…….

a) vocabulary
b) glossary
c) dictionary
d) encyclopedia

7) A structured set of texts for storage and processing (a monolingual corpus, a multilingual corpus, a translation corpus (texts and their translations), etc.) is viewed as…..

a) discourse corpus
b) text corpus
c) language corpora
d) storage of lexical units

8) A style level in a language within a specific communicative situation is viewed as……

a) discourse marker
b) register
c) language level
d) speech level

9) The set of forms belonging to a particular word-class or member of a word-class is viewed as……..

a) parameter
b) paradigm
c) syntagm

d) level

10) A controlled vocabulary organizing semantic metadata for information storage and retrieval is viewed as…….

a) encyclopedia
b) glossary
c) dictionary
d) thesaurus

11) Meaning is seen as "a dynamic process, involving the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance (physical, social, and linguistic) and the meaning potential of an utterance" in the following field of linguistic knowledge:

a) pragmatics
b) semantics
c) semiotics
d) proxemics

12) What language unit does Hoey define as "the visible evidence of a reasonably self-contained purposeful interaction between one or more writers and one or more readers, in which the writer (s) control the interaction and most of (characteristically all) the language."?

a) sentence
b) utterance
c) text
d) dialogue

13) Within the discourse theory the fundamental form of a text is ….

a) monologue
b) utterance
c) dialogue
d) polylogue

14) In different discourse analysis issues discourse is viewed as….

a) interaction
b) non-verbal communication
c) text
d) utterance

15) Birmingham school of discourse analysis is famous for introducing…

a) a hierarchical model of discourse structure
b) a linear model of discourse structure
c) a chaotic model of discourse structure
d) an anarchical model of discourse structure

16) What field of linguistics aims at "replicable analysis that accounts for our ability to interpret what participants intend to convey in everyday communicative practice"?

a) communicative linguistics
b) discourse linguistics
c) interactional sociolinguistics
d) interactional psycholinguistics

17) Language is seen not as an autonomous system but as part of the wider socio-cultural context, as "social semiotic" in the plane of the following field of knowledge:

a) linguopragmatics
b) systemic-functional linguistics
c) theory of intercultural communication
d) semantics

18) The knowledge that members of communities have of ways of speaking includes knowing when, where and how to speak, what to speak about, with whom, and so forth, deals with….

a) theories of grammatical competence and communicative competence
b) theory of grammatical competence only
c) theory of communicative competence only
d) theory of intercultural communication

19) A framework for the study of speech events, seeking to describe the ways of speaking associated with particular speech communities and to understand the role of language in the making of societies and cultures is offered by:

a) theory of intercultural communication
b) ethnography of communication
c) ethnopragmatics
d) ethnolinguocultural studies

20) What theory deals with the concept of face, with acts which are potentially damaging to face, and with the linguistic stratagems used for limiting such damage, when it is unavoidable?

a) politeness theory
b) impoliteness theory
c) face-to-face theory
d) deixis and reference theory.

21) The investigation of the structure and patterning of discourse (human speech) which contrasts explicitly with analyses of written language or of contrived examples in linguistic works is viewed as……

a) lemmatization
b) text analysis
c) discourse analysis
d) decoding

22) A process of adding items to a lexicon, for example words, set phrases and word patterns is viewed as……..

a) lexicalization
b) lemmatization
c) decoding
d) encoding

23) The techniques for examining and structuring conversations or any type of social interaction which involves spoken language are viewed as……..

a) discourse analysis
b) conversation analysis
c) convergence
d) divergence

24) A term referring to the environment in which an element (sound, word, phrase) occurs is viewed as……..

a) context
b) semantics
c) content
d) displacement

25) The process of studying digital media (texts, pictures, audio, video) and communication patterns is a systematic manner is viewed as……

a) content analysis
b) discourse analysis
c) contextualization
d) verbalization

26) To produce by assembling information collected from other sources means …

a) to conduct
b) to compile
c) to lemmatize
d) to translate

27) A word of more specific meaning than a general or superordinate term applicable to it is a …..

a) hyponym
b) homonym
c) lemma
d) synonym

28) A concentration on or interest in one particular area or subject is …

a) constraint
b) utility
c) bias
d) exaggeration

29) Modern thesauruses are either arranged alphabetically or ……

a) topically
b) thematically
c) have a quick search
d) have an alphabetical index

30) Some scholars distinguish theory, also known as …… or dictionary research, from practice as lexicography proper.

a) hyperlexicography
b) metalexicography
c) dictionary making
d) dictionary compiling

31) A word or phrase defined in a dictionary or entered in a word list is a ……..
a) idiom

b) noun
c) hyponym
d) lemma

32) The state of being checked, restricted, or compelled to avoid or perform some action is …..

a) bias
b) compilation
c) constraint
d) edition

33) Corpora solve the problem of observing ……...

a) patterns of language use
b) parts of speech
c) grammar structures
d) lexical units development

34) Valid applications of corpus studies depend on the design of corpora, the observational methods of analysis, and …….

a) the amount of words in the corpus
b) the comparison with other corpora
c) the language of the corpus
d) the interpretation of the findings

35) …… data are often especially good at distinguishing words with related propositional meanings, but different connotations and patterns of usage.

a) Spoken
b) Concordance
c) Written
d) Modern

36) A sociolinguist might use a corpus of audio-recorded conversations to study ...

a) relations between social class and accent
b) slips of the tongue
c) the frequency of different phrases
d) relations between spoken and written languages

37) Corpus data are essential for accurately describing language use, and have shown how lexis, grammar, and ……. interact.

a) syntax
b) semantics
c) pragmatics
d) phonetics

38) What does the LOB corpus stand for?

a) the universities of London, Oslo, & Bergen
b) the universities of Lancaster, Oslo, & Bergen
c) the universities of Lancaster, Oslo, & Bristol
d) the universities of Lancaster, Ottawa, & Bergen

39) The rise and fall of the voice in speaking is ….

a) emphasizing
b) connotation
c) stress
d) intonation

40) What must a corpus which claims to be a balanced sample of language use represent?

a) variables of tone, vocabulary, and topic
b) a huge amount of nouns and verbs
c) variables of demography, style, and topic
d) a huge amount of sentences patterns

41) What must a corpus which claims to be a balanced sample of language use include?

a) only written texts
b) only spoken texts
c) texts which have different length
d) texts which illustrate a wide range of subject fields

42) What data does the FLOB corpus contain?

a) American data from 1980
b) American and British data from 1991
c) American and British data from 2000
d) British data from 1980

43) What does the abbreviation ICE stand for?

a) International Corpora of English
b) Indian Corpora of English
c) International Complex of English
d) Interactional Corpora of English

44) What does part-of-speech tagging allow a corpus?

a) to be searched for lexical constructions
b) to be searched for grammatical constructions
c) to be searched alphabetically
d) to be searched quickly

45) What data does the ICE contain?

a) regional varieties of American English
b) regional varieties of English, such as Indian and African
c) regional varieties of English, such as Irish and Welsh
d) regional varieties of English, such as Indian and Australian

46) A collection of linguistic data, either written text or transcriptions of recorded speech is …….

a) an online dictionary
b) a linguistic corpus
c) a thesaurus
d) compilation

47) A noticeable arrangement or conjoining of linguistic elements (such as words) is ……

a) a collocation
b) a sentence
c) a text
d) a lexical unit

48) A string of two or more uninterrupted word-forms which occur more than once in a text or corpus is …

a) a collocation
b) a sentence
c) a text
d) a phrase

49) A field that uses computer programs to process large amounts of data pertaining to natural language is …..

a) computer language processing
b) natural language processing
c) corpus linguistics
d) computer linguistics

50) A study of language as expressed in bodies (corpora) of written text; originated in the 1970s to advance discourse analysis is …….

a) applied linguistics
b) lexicography
c) sociolinguistics
d) corpus linguistics

THE KEY TO THE SELF-ASSESSMENT FINAL TEST

1) a	11) a	21) c	31) d	41) d
2) b	12) c	22) a	32) c	42) b
3) a	13) c	23) b	33) a	43) a
4) c	14) a	24) a	34) d	44) b
5) d	15) a	25) a	35) b	45) d
6) a	16) c	26) b	36) a	46) b
7) b	17) b	27) a	37) b	47) a
8) b	18) a	28) c	38) b	48) d
9) b	19) b	29) d	39) d	49) a
10) d	20) a	30) b	40) c	50) d

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