Survey of AL areas

1. Textlinguistics/Discourse Analysis
2. Sociolinguistics
3. Psycholinguistics
4. Second-Language Acquisition (SLA) / ELT
5. Corpus-Linguistics
6. Lexicography
7. Translation Studies
8. Language & Culture/Politeness/Intercultural Communication (ICC)

AL as a "hyphenated" discipline:

- not included here: independent disciplines like
c  clinical linguistics
c  computational linguistics
c  forensic linguistics (authorship: background of asylum seekers, plagiarism, etc.)
c  "to see more than meets the eye"

Applied Linguistics (AL) - A Survey

Resources

a) Dictionaries: e.g. Oxford
b) Handbooks:
   Handbook of Pragmatics = http://www.benjamins.com/online/hop/
   c) https://wiki.tu-chemnitz.de/English/AppliedLinguistics
   Quizzes: https://moodle2.uni-leipzig.de/login/index.php
   c) https://academic.oup.com/applij

Why Applied Linguistics? = brainstorming

- general
  - to understand human behaviour (better)
  - to become aware of boundaries among people constructed by language
  - to understand "what is really said/mean"?
  - to produce and understand texts for different societies/cultures efficiently ...

- job-related:
  - to use computers to analyze language
  - to understand language-related computer software
  - to improve speech therapies
  - to discover better teaching and learning strategies
  - to optimize dictionary use and production
  - to improve training of translators and interpreters ...

   distinguish between - narrow/traditional AL in educational settings
   - broad/modern AL in the work-place, in daily life in general.

Applied linguistics: definition
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Applied_linguistics (10/10/06)

Applied linguistics is the branch of linguistics concerned with using linguistic theory to address real-world problems. It has been traditionally dominated by the fields of language education and second language acquisition. There is a recurrent tension between those who regard the field as limited to the study of language learning, and those who see it as encompassing all applications of linguistic theory. Both definitions are widely used.

The field of applied linguistics first concerned itself with second language acquisition, in particular errors and contrastive analysis, in the 1950s and 1960s. In the 1970s, with the failure of contrastive analysis as a theory to predict errors, applied linguists began to adopt Noam Chomsky’s theory of universal grammar to explain second language learning phenomena. In the 1980s, more and more researchers began to employ research methods from cognitive psychology. Today, the field is a cross-disciplinary mix of departments primarily from linguistics, anthropology, psychology, and education.

Sociolinguistics and discourse analysis have played an increasingly important roles within the field, and sociocultural theory has emerged as a competitor to traditional cognitive psychological models of language acquisition. Further controversy over the connection between society, language & mind orients to whether applied linguistics should concern itself with the political ramifications of linguistics. One outcome of this debate has resulted in the formation of Critical Applied Linguistics, which is considered either a separate discipline or an offshoot of applied linguistics proper.

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics. Major branches of applied linguistics include bilingualism and multilingualism, conversation analysis —

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1. Textlinguistics: definitions

Text linguistics, also known as written discourse analysis, seeks to analyze texts beyond the level of the sentence, typically but not necessarily in their situational context. Text linguistics tends to focus on the patterns of how information flows within and among sentences by looking at aspects of texts like coherence, cohesion, the distribution of topics and comments, and other discourse structures. Much like syntax is concerned with the structure of sentences, text linguistics is concerned with the structure of texts.

http://www.criticism.com/da/what-is-text-linguistics.php (17/10/12)

Reasons for Textlinguistics

Much attention has been given to the sentence as a self-contained unit, and not enough has been given to studying how sentences may be used in connected stretches of language. It is essentially the presentation of language as sets of sentences.

Text is extremely significant in communication because people communicate not by means of individual words or fragments of sentences in languages, but by means of texts. It is also the basis of various disciplines such as law, religion, medicine, science, politics, etc. cetera. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Text_linguistics (17/10/12)

Beaugrande/Dressler (1981) define a text

as a “communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality” -

- Cohesion = the ways in which the components of the surface text are connected within a sequence
- Coherence = the ways in which concepts and relations, which underlie the surface text, are linked, relevant and used, to achieve efficient communication
- Intentionality = the text producer’s attitude and intentions as the text producer uses cohesion and coherence to attain a goal specified in a plan
- Acceptability = the text receiver’s attitude that the text should constitute useful or relevant details or information such that it is worth accepting
- Informativity = the extent to which the contents of a text are already known or expected as compared to unknown or unexpected
- Situationality = the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence
- Intertextuality = the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered text, without any of which the text will not be communicative.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Text_linguistics (16/10/15)

1.1 Text:

1.1.1 Definitions

A text is an extended structure of syntactic units (i.e. text as super-sentence) such as words, groups, and clauses and textual units that is marked by both coherence among the elements and completion.

[Whereas] A non-text consists of sequences of linguistic units such as sentences, paragraphs, or sections in any temporal and/or spatial extension. (Worlich, 1967: 23)

A naturally occurring manifestation of language, i.e. as a communicative language event in a context. The SURFACE TEXT is the set of expressions actually used; these expressions make some knowledge EXPLICIT, while other knowledge remains IMPLICIT, though still applied during processing. (Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 63)

[A term] used in linguistics to refer to any passage—spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole [...]. A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; and it is not defined by its size [...]. A text is best regarded as a SEMANTIC unit; a unit not of form but of meaning. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 1-2)  

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Text_linguistics (17/10/12)

1.2 Traditional approaches to style

1.2.1 Stylistics

1.2.1.1 A linguistic subdiscipline?

“Many linguists do not like the term ‘stylistics’, The word ‘style’, itself, has several connotations that make it difficult for the term to be defined accurately. However, in Linguistic Criticism, Roger Fowler makes the point that, in non-theoretical usage, the word stylistics makes sense and is useful in referring to an enormous range of literary contexts, such as John Milton’s ‘grand style’, the ‘prose style’ of Henry James, the ‘epic’ and ‘ballad style’ of classical Greek literature, etc. (Fowler 1996: 185).

In addition, stylistics is a distinctive term that may be used to determine the connections between the form and effects within a particular variety of language.”

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stylistics_%28linguistics%29 (18/10/15)

Stylistics analyses

a) variation in literary language
authors choice, personal style → forensic linguistics
b) variation of text in context (cf. text linguistics, sociolinguistics) or in conventional, discourse community-specific ways of (inter)acting (1.1.4; cf. Fairclough 2003: 26)
c) language on a scale of formality - informalinity: register (spoken - written)

In modern today’s linguistics (e.g. Halliday’s “social semiotic” SFG) or English for Academic Purposes (e.g. Swales’ EAP/ESP), genre is used not in the literary sense (e.g. drama, novels), but in a discourse-community context as conventionalised, “expected” forms of (argumentation) structure, etc. (e.g. a conference abstract, a BA thesis, a project proposal); unfortunately the related Wikipedia entries are not good enough.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Genre_studies (16/10/18)
1.2.1.2 Major strands of old and new stylistics

• concerned with the recognizably formal and linguistic properties of a text existing as an isolated item in the world
• referring to the points of contact between a text, other texts, and their readers/listeners
• positioning the text and the consideration of its formal and psychological elements within a sociocultural context
  ➔ studies how readers ‘place’ texts in their sociolinguistic context (e.g. genres)
• old view: text = static, monologic;
  exists in its own world as a self-sufficient entity
• new focus: text = dynamic, cognitive, intertextual, interpersonal

1.2.1.2.2 New Rhetoric

The new rhetoric is defined as a theory of argumentation that has as its object the study of discursive techniques that aim to provoke or to increase the adherence of men’s minds to the theses that are presented for their assent. It also examines the conditions that allow argumentation to begin and to be developed, as well as the effects produced by this development.

This definition indicates in what way the new rhetoric continues classical rhetoric and in what way it differs from it. The new rhetoric continues the rhetoric of Aristotle insomuch as it is aimed at all types of hearers. It embraces what the ancient terms dialectics (the technique of discussion and debate by means of questions and answers, dealing especially with matters of opinion), which Aristotle analyzed in his Topics; it includes the reasoning that Aristotle qualified as dialectical, which he distinguished from the analytical reasoning of formal logic. This theory of argumentation is termed new rhetoric because Aristotle, although he recognized the relationship between rhetoric and dialectics, developed only the former in terms of the hearer.

It should be noted, moreover, that the new rhetoric is opposed to the tradition of modern, purely literary rhetoric, better called stylistic, which reduces rhetoric to a study of figures of style, because it is not concerned with the forms of discourse for their ornamental or aesthetic value but solely insofar as they are means of persuasion and, more especially, means of creating “presence” (i.e., bringing to the mind of the hearer things that are not immediately present) through the techniques of presentation.

Chaim Perelman in http://www.britannica.com s.v. new rhetoric

1.3 Discourse Analysis

1.3.1 Discourse =

< Latin discursus “running to and from”, as in debate or argument

The term is used in semantics and discourse analysis. In semantics, the largest linguistic unit composed of several sentences in other words, conversations, arguments or speeches.

• focuses on language as a social practice in its own right and is concerned with how individuals use language in specific social contexts,
  • enables researchers to gain an understanding of how individuals use language to construct themselves and the world around them,
  • enables researchers to understand why individuals use language to construct themselves and the world around them,
  • enables researchers to understand the ideological effects of individual constructions.

Does discourse reflect or construct meaning?
1.3.2 History of the term discourse analysis

The term was first used in a paper by Zellig Harris in 1952
- In the late 1960s and 1970s, a new cross-discipline in most of the humanities and social sciences,
- At the same time as other new (inter- or sub-) disciplines, such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics

Contrast to text linguistics?
- Traditional text linguistics often focused on the abstract structures of (written) texts,
- Contemporary approaches (in the social sciences) favour a more dynamic study of (spoken, oral) talk-in-interaction

1.3.4 Conversation Analysis (CA)

- The study of talk in interaction
  - CA generally attempts to describe the orderliness, structure and sequential patterns of interaction, whether this is institutional (in the school, doctor's surgery, courts or elsewhere) or casual conversation,
  - CA developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s (inspired by ethnomethodology) principally by the sociolinguists Harvey Sacks and Emanuel Schegloff.

Key concepts:
- Turn-taking organisation, incl. turn construction and allocation,
- Repair organisation describes how parties in conversation deal with problems in speaking, hearing, understanding or intercultural communication.


2. Sociolinguistics

2.1 Language in multilingual speech communities

2.1.1 Language choice

Code: code-switching and -mixing (transfer and integration of loanwords)
- Allophonic: clear functional separation of domains of related (Ferguson) or unrelated (Fishman) domains: family, religion, education, law, administration, media, etc.

2.1.2 Language maintenance and shift (Gaelic, Welsh)

2.1.3 Linguistic varieties and multilingual nations

- Vernacular and standard languages
- Lingua franca: e.g. Latin, Kiswahili, English for Academic Purposes (= EAP)
- Pidgins and creoles in West Africa (Krio, NP), the Caribbean (Jamaican Creole), the Pacific (Kriol in Australia, Tok Pisin on PNG)
- Some countries distinguish national (e.g. in Malawi: Chichewa) and official (e.g. English) languages

2.1.4 Language planning

(A. e.g. Kiswahili in Africa, but also as a medium or subject in teaching)
- Selection + codification + elaboration + securing variety acceptance

2.2 Language variation according to users

2.2.1 Regional and social dialects

2.2.1.1 National varieties / standards / dialects

British and American preferences, but also Canada, Australia/New Zealand (wellies - gummies [gumboots] NZ),
- E.g. in lexicon: baggage - bag, lift - elevator,
- In grammar: have you got/eaten; do you have/did you eat?

2.2.1.2 Intranational varieties (dialects)

E.g. Geordie speech used in television programmes (stereotyped notions in creative literature to create character and setting)
- Famous isoglosses (dialect lines) in pronunciation:
  - N. England, but, grass; W. England: postvocalic r-/r-retreating (NE US expanding; s. Labov)
  - Cockney: systematic vowel shift (team = tame = time), rhyming slang (trouble and strife = wife)
- Non-standard grammar less regional, more social

2.2.1.3 Cross-continental dialect chains show the arbitrariness of the terms 'language' vs. 'dialect'

E.g. Scottish: 'I'll not do it (StE: I won't do it)

2.2.2 Social variation

Standard English = a dialect with an army and a navy (G.B. Shaw)/ with a dictionary and a grammar

A short history of standard English from OE Winchester to the Queen?

Vocabulary: U (upper-class) and Non-U (lavatory - toilet)

RP a social accent (through public schools, BBC)

Non-standard pronunciation:
- <r> postvocalic (=prestige in AmE, prestige in BrE),
- <h> aitch-dropping / pronouncing (lower - middle class)

Grammar:
- 0 present tense 3rd person sing (she say), 0 past tense (he argue),
- Double negation (I ain't seen nothing)

Variation as an indicator of language change in progress (see 2.7.)

Famous studies: Labov in NY, Trudgill in Norwich, Milroy in Belfast
2.3 Traditional dialectology

2.3.1 Traditional dialects in Britain

- very different from StE both in pronunciation & in grammar
- rural dialects abandoned in favour of a type of English more like the urban speech of the local town or city
- urban varieties are much closer to StE
  → fewer differences between ways of speaking in different parts of the country
  = dialect levelling
- English Dialect Dictionary & Grammar (EDD; Joseph Wright, 1898-1905)
- The Survey of English Dialects (SED; Harold Orton & Eugen Dieth, 1962-1971)

2.3.2  Modern dialects in GB

Pronunciation:

- which – witch
- pre-GVS pronunciations (e.g. hus)
- voicing of initial fricatives (SW)
  → zee = see
- rhoticity (receding)

Grammar:

- Present tense -s in whole verb paradigm:
  I likes, you likes, she likes, we likes, they likes in South and Southwest of England
- Multiple negation:
  We don't want none
- Use of ain't for negative auxiliaries:
  isn't, aren't, hasn't, haven't
- Past tenses of irregular verbs:
  I done, I come, I seen
- Use of never as past tense negative marker:
  I never went there yesterday
- them as demonstrative adjective:
  Look at them big spiders
- Absence of plural marking on measures of distance and quantity:
  two pound, ten mile
- Absence of adverb marking:
  he came really quick

2.3.3 Traditional & modern dialects in GB

- was/weren’t levelling: was is used in positive contexts (all persons), weren’t in negative contexts [reinterpretation!]
- glottal stops:
  - before a consonant: [ʔ] me
  - before a vowel: [ʔ] over
  - before a pause: [ʔ]er
  → spreading from first environment (‘normal’ today) to intervocalic context
  → interesting because glottal stops emerged at about the same time in London and Glasgow – connection unclear...
- replacement of the two ‘th’ sounds by ‘f’ or ‘v’, so that thin is the same as fin, and brother rhymes with lover
  used to be a Cockney feature (→ London, East End); spreading rapidly = ‘city-hopping’:
  1. London area
  2. Southeast: Reading, Milton Keynes
  3. Central England (Midlands, East Anglia, South Yorkshire): Birmingham, Derby, Norwich and Sheffield
  5. Northeast of England and Lowlands of Scotland: Newcastle, Glasgow

2.3.4 Modern dialects in GB – change in progress

- “same coin, different currency”? (Kretzschmar 1995)
- complicated relationship in part associated with theoretical paradigm shift in the US (→ Chomsky)
- re-orientation from historical (→ comparative philology, reconstruction) to “modern” (→ future rather than past of language[s])
- US sociolinguistics largely synonymous with Labovian (“variationist”) sociolinguistics → strong quantitative orientation, emphasis on authenticity etc.

2.3.5 From Dialectology to Sociolinguistics

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2.3.6 Sociolinguistics as Language Variation & Change

- sociolinguistics sees language as a social fact
- includes view of language change as natural
- language history can only in part account for change (→ language-internal motivations)
- many causes (why) and processes (how) of change lie outside language (→ change cannot be explained in terms of linguistic structure alone)

2.3.7 From Language Variation to eWAVE (http://ewave-atlas.org/)
2.4 Gender

NOT grammatical (=noun classes), referential (husband) or collocational (giggle, handsome guy vs. pretty girl)

2.4.1 Sex-exclusive speech differences (in non-Western communities)

e.g. Japanese watashi (neutral), atashi (=female I), boku (=male I), ore (=male friends?)

African? languages:
mARRY (=male) = "get married" (=female)

2.4.2 Sex-preferential speech differences (in Western Communities)

e.g. GLOTTALIZED [P], [T], [K]

2.4.3 women tend to use more standard forms than men

explanations: (social) status-conscious
- women's role as guardian of society's values
- subordinate groups must be polite (face-protecting)
- vernacular forms express machismo
- others: different responses to interviewers collecting data (women are more cooperative conversationalists, working-class men react against middle-class academic speech)


2.4.4 Classical, 'gendered' features

- high rise intonation (also: high rise terminal = HRT)
- rising intonation contour in statements
- interpretation: uncertainty, asking for feedback, positive politeness; or: 'I intend to keep talking'
- assumed to have originated in Australia/New Zealand in 1960s; now typical of young women
- women leading change
  - e.g. Labov (1966, 1994), Chambers (1986) on sound changes
  - women use more standard language
    - e.g. Trudgill (1974), -ing vs. -in'; glottalisation etc. 
    - view challenged today; rather: both men & women use language to identify with their solidarity group / signal gender affiliation
    - distinguishing markers will change in case 'the other group' catches up

2.4.5 Deborah Tannen (1991): You Just Don't Understand: Men and Women in Conversation. (popular book translated into 29 languages)

Tannen claims that there are gender differences in ways of speaking, and we need to identify and understand them in order to avoid needlessly blaming 'others or ourselves -- or the relationship -- for the otherwise mystifying and damaging effects of our contrasting conversational styles' (p. 17). Tannen takes a sociolinguistic approach to these gender differences since she feels that 'because boys and girls grow up in what are essentially different cultures...talk between women and men is cross-cultural communication' (p. 18).

For her study, Tannen traced patterns of speech in past studies and on videotapes of cross-gender communication (pairs of speakers asked to talk on tape). Tannen states that the most important point to consider in studying and learning about gender specific speech styles is that gender distinctions are built into language. Each person's life is a series of conversations, and simply by understanding and using the words of our language, we all absorb and pass on different, asymmetrical assumptions about men and women (p. 243).

http://www9.georgetown.edu/faculty/bassr/githens/tannen.htm (16/10/17)

Explanations for differences:

a) Deficit Model (Robin Lakoff)
b) Dominance Model (Candace West)
c) Cultural Difference Model (John J. Gumperz, Deborah Tannen)

2.4.6 Sexist terms and their alternatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;To be avoided&quot;</th>
<th>&quot;To be preferred&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mankind</td>
<td>humanity, human beings, human race, people, humankind, humans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man-made</td>
<td>artificial, synthetic, manufactured, constructed, of human origin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manpower</td>
<td>workers, workforce, staff, lab(o)r, staffing, human resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>people, humankind, men and women, individuals, human beings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chairman</td>
<td>chairperson, chair convener</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>headmaster</td>
<td>headteacher, head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>policeman</td>
<td>police officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fireman</td>
<td>fire fighter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

http://www.putlearningfirst.com/language/23sexism/sexist.html (18/10/15)

2.5 Age

(distinguish between language change and age-specific language)

2.5.1 Research Approaches

real-time and apparent-time (=age-grading) studies

2.5.2 Society's Expectations:

- younger and older use more vernacular forms,
- middle years normal patterns of standard/prestige forms
- solidarity markers

e.g. Bergen Corpus of London Teenage Language (COLT):
http://clu.uni.no/icame/colt/ (16/10/17, last updated 2003)

- 500 000 words of 50 hours of recorded conversations from 31 boys and girls aged 13 to 17 from 5 socio-economic groups
- data-base for linguistic analyses of swear-words (f*)

http://www9.georgetown.edu/faculty/bassr/githens/tannen.htm (16/10/17)
2.6 Ethnicity

- Linguistic ideal: "all languages are equal"
- Sociolinguistic reality: "all languages have resources to be developed/reflect social status of speakers"

Other markers: food, dress, religion

2.6.1 Black American (the Creole connection)
-> AAVE = African American Vernacular English
E.g. absence of copula be, multiple negation

2.6.2 Black British
An anti-language = opposition to mainstream values

Networks (cf. 2.8.4 below):
- Density (number of contacts) -plexity
  (multi-dimensional interactions: multi-/monoplex)

2.6.3 Black American (the Creole connection)

2.7 Language change

2.7.1 Speaker innovation and variation
Spontaneous vs. network-specific
By imitation, innovations spread by adoption, diffusion in community networks (weak ties of link person as innovation bridge)
E.g. which -> witch, whether -> weather
Northern Ireland: man [ma:n] -> mop [ma:p], no/er
(Cf. letters-to-the-editor)

2.7.2 Social marking postvocalic [r]

2.7.3 Spread (wave metaphor)
Style to style (casual > formal, incl. spoken > written)
Word to word (lexical diffusion): e.g. today/advanced RP:
Really=rarely, fear=fair

2.7.4 Reasons
Status: particularly upper working class (less consciously) from neighbouring communities with greater social status
Sex: men as innovators tend to introduce vernacular forms, women prestige forms in (face-to-face) interactions

2.7.5 Realtime processes of change at work on modern English
(late 20th C.)

1. Blurring of the class structure
2. Education for all (university expansion in 1990s)
3. Introduction of public broadcasting (provides a model for oral E = RP)
   (BBC “the wireless” 1922, TV 1953 after E2 Coronation)
4. Proliferation of film and video
   (Multimedia: 1927 film + sound, etc. -> “Americanisation”)
5. Popular Youth Culture
   (“decline in formality”, “decline in standards”)
6. Decline of rural dialect and the rise in urbanisation
   (Industrialisation, mobility, communication)
7. Global communication (new forms - new technical developments)
   (The Internet: WWW, web 2.0: blogs, wikis, P2P/forum, etc.)

http://www.putlearningfirst.com/language/04change/process.html (18/10/15)

2.8 Classical case studies

- Basil Bernstein, Language and Social Class (US) (1966)
- Peter Trudgill, Norwich (1974)
- Jenny Cheshire, Reading (1982)
- James & Lesley Milroy, Belfast (1992)
- Paul Kerswill, Milton Keynes (1996)
- Deborah Tannen, Men and Women in Conversation (US) (1998)

http://raysweb.net/poems/articles/tannen.html (18/10/15)

2.8.1 Bernstein (1966): restricted code?

"Basil Bernstein made a significant contribution to the study of communication with his sociolinguistic theory of language codes."
"The restricted code is suitable for insiders who share assumptions and understanding on the topic, whereas the elaborated code does not assume that the listener shares these assumptions or understandings, and thus elaborated code is more explicit, more thorough, and does not require the listener to read between the lines."
Bernstein suggests a correlation between social class and the use of either elaborated or restricted code. He argues that in the working class you are likely to find the use of the restricted code, whereas in the middle class you find the use of both the restricted and elaborated codes. His research suggests that the working class individuals have access only to restricted codes, the ones they learned in the socialization process."

"Though Bernstein's sociolinguistic work on 'restricted code' and 'elaborated code' is widely known it represents only his very earliest work. This early work was the subject of considerable misunderstanding and controversy."

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Basil_Bernstein (24/10/11)

2.8.2 Labov
2.8.2.1 Labov (1966): NYC Department Store Study

- Probably the most famous study in (micro-)sociolinguistics
- Often considered the first "true" sociolinguistic study (before there was sociolinguistics as a subdiscipline)
- Important for:
  - methods
  - investigated variable(s)
  - combination of factors
  - mutual influence of factors
NYC Dept. Store Study: social background

- Saks Fifth Avenue
  - at 50th Street and 5th Avenue
  - near the center of the high fashion shopping district
- Macy's
  - at Herald Square (34th Street and Sixth Avenue)
  - near the garment district
- S. Klein
  - used to be at Union Square (14th Street and Broadway)
  - not far from the Lower East Side

Stores were classified by:
- location
- number of pages of advertising (NYT & NY Daily News)
- prices of comparable items (e.g. women's coats - $90 in Saks, $79.95 in Macy's, and $23 in Kleins)
- size and layout of the store

NYC Dept. Store Study: linguistic research methodology

- type of study: rapid anonymous survey
- interviewer (WL) posed as customer
- asked sales clerks for an item which he knew to be located on the 4th floor
  - Excuse me, where is/are ... ?
  - Response: Fourth floor.
- elicitation of careful style → interviewer leaned forward and said
  - Excuse me?
- response: repetition of Fourth floor.

- 4 tokens of /r/ from every speaker in
  - 2 different environments (pre-consonantal; word-final)
  - 2 different styles (casual; careful/emphatic)

- combined with social stratification of stores, a clear picture emerged;
  - distribution depends on
    - store
    - position
    - style

NYC Dept. Store Study: r frequency by dept. store

NYC Dept. Store Study: r frequency by input

NYC: results

http://www.putlearningfirst.com/language/research/labovny.html (18/10/15)

Labov's research in the Lower East Side of New York City showed that individual speech patterns were part of a highly systematic structure of social and stylistic stratification. He studied how often the final or preconsonantal (r) was sounded in words like guard, bare and beer. Use of this variable has considerable prestige in New York City. It can be measured very precisely, and its high frequency in speech makes it possible to collect data quickly.

One self-contained part of the research has become particularly well known. The speech of sales assistants in three Manhattan stores, drawn from the top (Saks), middle (Macy's) and bottom (Klein's) of the price and fashion scale. Each unwitting informant was approached with a factual enquiry designed to elicit the answer - "Fourth floor" - which may or may not contain the variable final or preconsonantal (r). A pretence not to have heard it obtained a repeat performance in careful, emphatic style.

The findings were that the sales assistants from Saks used it most, those from Klein's used it least and those from Macy's showed the greatest upward shift when they were asked to repeat.

The results from the department store study highlight the main themes of the research. Frequency of use of the prestige variable final or preconsonantal (r) varied with level of formality and social class.

2.8.2.2 Labov: New York Lower Eastside

Figure 3. Style and class stratification of (r) for adult native New York City speakers.
In his study, Labov focused on realisations of the diphthongs [aw] and [ay] (as in mouse and mice). He interviewed a number of speakers drawn from different ages and ethnic groups on the island, and noted that among the younger (31-45 years) speakers a movement seemed to be taking place away from the pronunciations associated with the standard New England norms, and towards a pronunciation associated with conservative and characteristically Vineyard speakers, notably the Chilmark fishermen. The heaviest users of this type of pronunciation were young men who actively sought to identify themselves as Vineyarders, rejected the values of the mainland, and resented the encroachment of wealthy summer visitors on the traditional island way of life. Thus, these speakers seem to be exploiting the resources of the non-standard dialect. The pattern emerged despite extensive exposure of speakers to the educational system; some college educated boys from Martha's Vineyard were extremely heavy users of the vernacular vowels.

To summarise: On Martha's Vineyard a small group of fishermen began to exaggerate a tendency already existing in their speech. They did this seemingly subconsciously, in order to establish themselves as an independent social group with superior status to the despised summer visitors. A number of other islanders regarded this group as one which epitomised old virtues and desirable values, and subconsciously imitated the way its members talked. For these people, the new pronunciation was an innovation. As more and more people came to speak in the same way, the innovation gradually became the norm for those living on the island.

2.8.3 Trudgill (1974): The Social Differentiation of English in Norwich (PhD thesis and case study)

transfers Labov's approach from US to England:
• the realisation of [ŋ] is variable in almost all varieties of English
• "dropping one's g's" tends to be associated with lower class and less careful style
• T. investigated -ing in 4 styles and 5 (sub)classes of society in Norwich (East Anglia)
• T. created index scores for each class and style

2.8.4 Milroy & Milroy (1992): Social Networks

• study of different neighbourhoods in Belfast (mid-1970s)
• 3 lower status urban working-class communities
• 8 phonological variables
• 46 speakers
• Network Strength Scale explained more differences than "simple" sociological factors
• social networks are sometimes considered predecessors of communities of practice (cf. in particular work by P. Eckert)

Social Networks: low density, uniplex network structure

2.9 World Englishes: ENL -> ESL -> EIL - ELF/lingua franca

growth of English world-wide: E as native > second > international language
- English now main foreign language in almost all countries
- used for business, education, access to information by substantial proportion of world’s population
- dominant language of the internet; often used in e-mails
- used in problem of writing systems in other than Roman alphabets
- TESOL/TEFL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages as a Foreign Language)
- TESL: International English Language Testing System
- IELTS: International English Language Testing System
- IELTS is the test that sets the standard
- IELTS is recognised by more than 6000 institutions in over 135 countries

lingua franca (or working language, bridge language, vehicular language)
- a language systematically used to make communication possible between people not sharing a mother tongue, in particular when it is a third language, distinct from both mother tongues
English as a lingua franca (ELF): features

The way English is used as a lingua franca is heavily dependent on the specific situation of use. Generally speaking, ELF interactions concentrate on function rather than form. In other words, communicative efficiency (i.e. getting the message across) is more important than correctness. As a consequence, ELF interactions are very often hybrid. Speakers accommodate to each other’s cultural backgrounds and may also use code-switching into other languages that they know. Based on the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) and additional research, the following features of ELF lexicogrammar have been identified:

- shift in the use of articles (including some preference for zero articles) as in our countries have signed agreements about this
- invariant question tags as in you’re very busy today, aren’t you? (and use of other similar universal forms)
- treating ‘who’ and ‘which’ as interchangeable relative pronouns, as in the picture which of a person who
- shift of patterns of preposition use, for example we have to study about preference for bare and/or full infinitive over the use of gerunds, as in I’m looking forward to see you tomorrow
- extension to the collocational field of words with high semantic generality, for example perform an operation
- increased explicitness, for example how much time instead of how long
- exploited redundancy, such as ellipsis of objects/complements of transitive verbs as in I wanted to go with... or ‘You can borrow...

However, these features are by no means invariant or ‘obligatory’. Rather, these forms do not seem to compromise effective communication within an ELF setting when they do occur.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_as_a_lingua_franca (14/10/15)

2.9.3 Postcolonial English: Schneider’s Dynamic Model II

Kachru’s model of concentric circles (cf. Crystal 1995: 107)

2.9.4 Postcolonial English: Schneider’s Dynamic Model III

2.9.5 Postcolonial English: Schneider’s Dynamic Model IV

2.9.6 Postcolonial English: Schneider’s Dynamic Model V

3. Psycholinguistics

Definitions of Psycholinguistics on the WWW:

- The study of how language is understood and interpreted and how and why the individual responds to discrete aspects of language.
- Naming.com/resources.html
- The interdisciplinary field of psychology and linguistics in which language behavior is examined.
- Note: Psycholinguistics includes such areas of inquiry as language acquisition, conversational analysis, and the sequencing of themes and topics in discourse.
- www.nde.state.ne.us/READ/FRAWD/WORK/glossary/general_p-t.html
- The branch of cognitive psychology that studies the psychological basis of linguistic competence and performance.
- Wordsnet.princeton.edu/perl/wbwebn
- Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, and understand language. … en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psycholinguistics (18/10/15)
3.1 Approaches in psycholinguistics

Concerned with psychological processes that make acquisition and use of language possible.

Approaches:
1. Language comprehension (spoken and written)
2. Speech production
3. Language acquisition
   - Language = a cognitive system internalized within the human mind/brain
   - Neurological foundations of language: particular areas of the neocortex are responsible for human language faculty (results from aphasia research)

aphasia: impairment or loss of language ability due to brain damage

3.2 Neurological foundations of language

Broca: located lesions in left hemisphere; related handedness to speech capability
Wernicke: separated auditory nerve in the left hemisphere

3.3 Language-related areas of the brain

3.3.1 Aphasia

Is a loss of the ability to produce and/or comprehend language, due to injury to brain areas specialized for these functions.

http://www2.organizedwisdom.com/medical/tag_search/Aphasia (14/10/15)

Depending on the area and extent of the damage, someone suffering from aphasia may be able to speak but not write, or vice versa, or display any of a wide variety of other deficiencies in language comprehension and production, such as being able to sing but not speak.

Spatial: lateral distribution - detectable in lesions; PET, fMRI scans
Temporal: brain plasticity; learnability constraints

Broca aphasics:
- Nonfluent
- Agrammatical
- Morphemeless
- Unimpaired comprehension

Wernicke aphasics:
- Fluent (logorrhoeic)
- Impaired meanings
- Neologisms
- Severely impaired comprehension

3.3.2 Language processing

Refers to the way humans process speech or writing and understand it as language. Most recent theories back the idea that this process is made completely by and inside the brain. Acoustic stimuli are:
- Received by the auditory organ (ear) and
- Transformed through the brain to the primary auditory cortex, on both hemispheres
- The left side recognizes distinctive parts such as phonemes, the right side takes over prosodic characteristics and melodic information.
- The signal is then transported to Broca's area, in charge of interpreting and transmitting information to the closely located motor-related areas of the brain for speech production.

You can see language processing in eye-tracking experiments!

Natural language processing (NLP), a subfield of artificial intelligence and computational linguistics

3.4 The paradox of psycholinguistics

L1 acquisition enables children to produce virtually infinite amounts of linguistic data

Input (is not intake!) includes:
- Distorted input (also: "deviant input"; says Chomsky) can be:
  - Mispronunciations, slips of the tongue
  - Omitted rules
  - Inference of rules out of defective material
  - Negative evidence = pointing at errors
- Typical errors in L1: "go-ed (overgeneralisation)"
- Atypical errors: "I no like syntax"

3.5 First Language Acquisition theories and issues:

3.5.1 Nativist theories

Children are born with an innate propensity for language acquisition, this makes the task of learning a first language easier.

It allows children to quickly figure out what is and isn't possible in the grammar of their native language, and allows them to master that grammar by the age of three.

Language as a fundamental part of the human genome, as the trait that makes humans human, and its acquisition as a natural part of maturation, no different from dolphins learning to swim or songbirds learning to sing.

- Based on Chomsky
- Originally: children are born with a hard-wired language acquisition device (LAD) in their brains.
- Later expanded into Universal Grammar, a set of innate principles and adjustable parameters that are common to all human languages.

The presence of Universal Grammar in the brains of children allow them to deduce the structure of their native languages from 'mere exposure'.

Much of the evidence supporting the nativist position is based on the early age at which children show competency in their native grammars, as well as the ways in which they do (and do not) make errors.
Universal Grammar: the study of the common grammatical properties shared by all natural languages and of the parameters of variation between the languages.

Evidence: If a linguistic property of an individual speaker is a property in all known languages and if the property is not acquired as imitation of input data → evidence that the property comes from specific feature of UG.

The theory of Universal Grammar proposes that if human beings are brought up under normal conditions (not conditions of extreme sensory deprivation), then they will always develop language with a certain property X (e.g., distinguishing nouns from verbs, or distinguishing function words from lexical words). As a result, property X is considered to be a property of universal grammar in the most general sense.

Universal linguistic properties:
- Semantics: thematic roles: e.g. AGENT, INSTRUMENT, found in nearly all languages
- Syntax: word order patterns of functional categories: S, V, O found in nearly all languages

3.5.3 Critical period hypothesis

Eric Lenneberg stated in 1964 that the crucial period of language acquisition ends around the age of 12 years. He claimed that if no language is learned before then, it could never be learned in a normal and fully functional sense (cf. Kaspar Hauser).

Lenneberg proposed brain lateralisation at puberty as the mechanism that closes down the brain's ability to acquire language, though this has since been widely disputed.

In second language acquisition, the strongest evidence for the critical period hypothesis is in the study of accent, where most older learners do not reach a native-like level. However, under certain conditions, native-like accent has been observed, suggesting that accent is affected by multiple factors, such as identity and motivation, rather than a critical period biological constraint.


3.6 First Language Acquisition stages

3.6.1 Phonological development

Separate non-speech from speech: at birth response to humans
6 months: articulatory skills emerge
babbling: experimenting to gain control
babbling partly independent of particular languages, universal
12 months: babbling increases until children produce real words
babbling/real words overlap for weeks
babbling stops, children have about 50 words

Universal trends
1) vowels before consonants
2) stops before other consonants
3) phonemic contrasts manifest in word-initial position
   pat - bat before mop - mob
24 months consonants: stops [p b, t d, k g] fricatives [f s]

3.6.2 Morphological development: grammatical morphemes

Grammatical: plural -s productivity:
  wagz: test - children who have successfully acquired the allomorph /z/ of the plural morpheme will allocate this plural to a nonsensical word, e.g. one wag 2 wagz /wʌɡz/
Lexical/derivational:
  - agentive -er
  - compounds
  - adjectival -y
  - adverbial -ly
  - instrumental -er

- morphemes with restricted application like -ly ("fast-ly") are acquired much later → supports that lack of exceptions is supportive
- child acquires that plural -s cannot be inside compounds: rat-eater vs. mice-eater
- multiword compounds: order errors like *breaker battle

3.6.3 Syntactic development

Child must detect from input what the prevailing word order is
1) Generative linguistics: “setting of parameters”;
   input = trigger, happens early & remains stable
2) Acquisition = process of pattern inducing (= data-driven learning)

Evidence for 1): rapidity of language acquisition,
full sentences → basic word order

Evidence for 2): pattern inducing is understood with some V but not with other V
theory: first stages: verb-specific acquisition
later stages: acquisition of transitivity → children learn appropriate relations verb by verb
3.6.4 Conceptual/semantic development

Innatism (Chomsky) vs. constructivism (Piaget)
- common root: pool of general-purpose cognitive abilities
- existence of conceptual primitives (space, time)
- Words are used to refer (principle of reference): core = symbol + object: “stands for” relation
- memory limitations enforce categorization (principle of extendibility)
- objects in contrast to actions/events and objects in contrast to parts of objects (principle of object scope)
- consistent with social environment (conventionality)

Concept emergence from morphemes:
- countability: plural-morpheme
- durativity: progressive –
- gender: derivational morphemes (-ess)

3.7 Literacy

3.7.1 Definitions
- the ability to read and write
- the ability to use language proficiently
- ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate, compute and use printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, to develop their knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in their community and wider society.” (UNESCO)

Effects of literacy
- literacy is proven to have certain cognitive consequences
- reading deepens and alters people’s knowledge about language
- reading raises metalinguistic awareness

3.7.2 Types of reading
- Reading is a complex cognitive process of decoding symbols for the intention of constructing or deriving meaning (reading comprehension). It is a means of language acquisition, of communication, and of sharing information and ideas. Like all language, it is a complex interaction between the text and the reader which is shaped by the reader's prior knowledge, experiences, attitude, and language community which is culturally and socially situated.

The reading process requires continuous practices, development, and refinement.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reading_(process)

3.8 The native speaker in AL/language teaching/learning

The native-speaker (NS) concept is rich in ambiguity
- ‘native speaker identity’ → almost myth-like
- Chomsky: distinction between NS & NNS is pointless
- child may be(come) NS of 1st language as long as acquisition is finished before puberty (→ Critical Period Hypothesis)
- NS/NNS differences are not innate but learned

3.8.1 Characteristics of a native speaker
- exhibits normal control especially in fluent connected speech (though in writing only after long schooling)
- has command of expected characteristic strategies of performance and of communication
- is expected to “know” another native speaker (intuition & characteristic systematic set of indicators: linguistic, pragmatic, paralinguistic; assumption of shared cultural knowledge)

In an article titled “The Native Speaker: An Achievable Model?” published by the Asian EFL Journal a study was compiled which states that there are six general principles which relate to the definition of “native speaker”. These principles, according to the study, are typically accepted by language experts across the scientific field. A native speaker is defined according to the guidelines that:
1. The individual acquired the language in early childhood
2. The individual has intuitive knowledge of the language
3. The individual has a unique capacity to produce fluent spontaneous discourse, which exhibits pauses mainly at clause boundaries (the "one clause at a time" facility) and which is facilitated by a huge memory stock of complete lexical items (Pawley & Syder, 1983). In both production and comprehension the native speaker exhibits a wide range of communicative competence.
4. The native speaker has a unique capacity to write creatively (and this includes, of course, literature at all levels from jokes to epics, metaphor to novels).
5. The native speaker has a unique capacity to interpret and translate into the L1 of which she/he is a native speaker. Disagreements about the deployment of an individual’s capacity are likely to stem from a dispute about the standard or (standard) language.
6. The native speaker has unique ability to interpret and translate into the L1 of which she/he is a native speaker. Disagreements about the deployment of an individual’s capacity are likely to stem from a dispute about the standard or (standard) language.
4. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

4.1 Definitions

- the process by which people learn languages in addition to their native language(s)
- The term second language is used to describe any language whose acquisition starts after early childhood (including what may be the third or subsequent language learnt). The language to be learned is often referred to as the “target language” or “L2”, compared to the first language or “L1”.

Natural second language acquisition may be seen in contrast to first language acquisition and language learning, which is guided, based on instruction.

Empirical studies include:
- descriptive: error analysis, interlanguage (s. below)
- developmental: order of acquisition, sequence of patterns, variability
- learner-external (e.g. teaching techniques) vs. learner-internal factors (e.g. motivation)

4.2 The Contrastive Linguistic Approach

4.2.1 Transfer & interference

“The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned; carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.” (Fries 1945: 9)

“Since the learner tends to transfer the habits of his native language, we have here the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the structure of a foreign language. Those structures that are similar will be easy to learn because they will be transferred and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language. Those structures that are different will be difficult because when transferred they will not function satisfactorily in the foreign language and will therefore have to be changed. We can say that the degree of control of these structures that are different is an index to how much of the language a person has learned.” (Lado 1957: 59)

“I propose therefore as a working hypothesis that some at least of the strategies adopted by the learner are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired.” (Corder 1967: 166/7)

4.3 The Interlanguage Hypothesis (Selinker 1972/74)

4.3.1 Definition

- an assumption of a latent psychological language structure for second language learning

- The learner creates an emerging linguistic system that has been developed by a learner of a second language (or L2) who has not become fully proficient yet but is only approximating the target language: preserving some features of their first language (or L1) in speaking or writing the target language and creating innovations.

- An interlanguage is idiosyncratically based on the learners’ L1 and their experiences with the L2.

- It can ossify (or fossilize) in any of its developmental stages.

4.3.2 Issue1: Interlanguage incorporates different learner strategies

- language transfer
  - L1 structure → L2 structure → correct language production
  - positive transfer
  - L1 structure → L2 structure → incorrect language production
  - negative transfer → interference
- transfer of training
- strategies of second language learning
- strategies of second language communication
- overgeneralization of TL linguistic material (as in L1)
- simplification

4.3.3 Issue2: Fossilization in the latent psychological language structure

“Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL.” (Selinker 1972: 212)

“A crucial fact . . . which any adequate theory of second language learning will have to explain is this regular reappearance or re-emergence in IL productive performance of linguistic structures which were thought to be eradicated. This behavioral reappearance is what has led me to postulate the reality of fossilization and ILs.” (Selinker 1973/4: 36)

see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interlanguage_fossilization (18/10/15)


Problem: What is the “target” language? Like a native speaker?
4.3.4 Issue3: Correctness and Errors

"We must therefore make a distinction between those errors which are the product of such chance circumstances and those which reveal his underlying knowledge of the language to date, or, as we may call it, his transitional competence. The errors of performance will characteristically be unsystematic and the errors of competence, systematic." (Corder 1967: 166)

Two views on correctness:

- Learners want (have) to be correct, i.e. they want (have) to produce utterances that are grammatically correct.
- The status of errors: Errors are part of the external view. They show deviations of the learner’s interlanguage from the target language (which indicate that the learner is actually learning and not just imitating) but they are only weak and indirect indicators of specific interlanguage strategies.

4.4 The identity hypothesis / L1 = L2

4.4.1 Focus on the learning perspective

Theoretical framework: a mentalistic approach (from Chomsky 1964)

- creative construction:

The learner’s in-built syllabus

- the natural order hypothesis, cf. Krashen 1982
- input intake


http://homepage.ntlworld.com/vivian.c/SLA/Krashen.htm (18/10/15)

http://www.sdkrashen.com/ (18/10/15)

4.4.2 Krashen’s Monitor Model I

Acquisition-learning hypothesis

Two independent systems of L2 performance:

- acquisition is a product of subconscious processing similar to children’s L1 acquisition and requires life-like L2 interaction, which focuses on communication rather than correctness, and, learning occurs through formal instruction and comprises conscious processing, which results in knowledge about the L2, e.g. grammatical rules.

The “monitor”/“monitoring” system is, whereas ‘acquired competence’ is responsible for the frequent production of sentences, ‘learned competence’ consciously corrects them. “Learned knowledge enables learners to read and listen more, so acquisition is effective.”

Monitor hypothesis

- a learner’s learned system acts as a monitor to what they are producing while only the acquired system is able to produce spontaneous speech, the learned system is used to check what is being spoken.

The interlocutors monitor their spontaneous speech using their learned system. The Monitor Model predicts faster initial progress by adults than children, as adults use this “monitor” when producing L2 utterances before having acquired the ability for natural performance, and adults will input more into conversations earlier than children. However, in the long term, SLA started in childhood will be superior in ultimate attainment as children will already have control of some L2 acquired before puberty. Changes began inhibiting learning.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monitor_theory (18/10/15)

4.4.3 Issue4: Correctness vs. Creativity

The natural order hypothesis

Like first language learners, second language learners seem to acquire the features of the target language in predictable sequences.

Corresponding to intuition, the rules easiest to state (and thus to learn) are not necessarily the first to be acquired, e.g. the rule for adding an -s to third person singular verbs in the present tense is easy to state, but even some advanced second language speakers fail to apply it in rapid conversation.

Input hypothesis

Only comprehensible input will result in acquisition of the target language. Therefore, learners must be exposed to input that is just beyond their current level in order to make progress. If the level of input is at i+1 the learner will make progress. If it is too high, for instance i+7, the learner will be unable to acquire it.

Affective filter hypothesis

A learner’s emotional states act as adjustable filters that freely permit or hinder input necessary to acquisition.

Adolescence and puberty are not good periods for SLA, as this “affective filter” arises out of self-conscious reluctance to reveal oneself and feelings of vulnerability.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monitor_theory (18/10/15)

5.1.1 Definition

corpus = body or collection of written or spoken material upon which linguistic analysis is based

corpus2 = machine-readable “representative”, i.e. stratified “model” i.e. more than a text collection!

for computer-based language analysis: corpus-informed (language awareness/ELT) based vs. corpus-driven (research)

5.1.2 Tools corpus-analysis software:

WordSmith (with ICAME CD)
Sara (with BNC in TUC Bib)
AntConc downloadable free from http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/antconc_index.html (18/10/15)
5.1.3 CL: methodology or theory?

- pro methodology:
  - CL is not parallel to phonology, syntax, lexicology or pragmatics (core linguistics)
  - CL is not restricted to any linguistic level (can be used to address phonological, syntactic, pragmatic etc. questions, as in sociolinguistics → ?)
  - “corpus” no reference to area of linguistic investigation (vs. sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, computational linguistics, etc.)
  - methodologies adopted from social sciences inform sociolinguistics, but are not a theory in themselves (participant observation, interviews, etc.)

- pro theory:
  - CL has a particular outlook on language
  - rules of language are usage-based, not normative (as in prescriptive grammars)
  - linguistic change occurs when speakers use language for communication
  - CL introduced new methods and principles which have theoretical status ≠ theory

→ pro methodology?

5.1.4 The corpus-based vs. the intuition-based approach

- descriptions of English strongly biased (personal views)
- normative descriptions do not take variation into consideration
- authenticity of invented examples can be questionable
- introspection-based results not verifiable, e.g. “I get myself a soft drink.” (pop, soda, coke considered incorrect)
- personal opinion is reflecting idiolect, not real speech
- professor’s shoeboxes
- Jespersen kept thousands of notes of real English from literary texts
- first to use them as authentic examples in his grammar
- corpus data can address preferences / tendencies; quantitative questions in general (frequency effects etc.)
- improved reliability of corpus-based over intuition-based approach
- BUT: corpus-based approach not suitable for all research questions
  → approaches should be seen as complementary rather than exclusive

5.1.5 Reasons

for the popularity of corpus linguistics, esp. among non-native speakers

because it combines a qualitative and quantitative perspective

- citations used as a sample of language
- provides a view beyond individual experience
- rules out individual salience
- computer processable

output:
  - concordances (KWIC=key word in context)
  - collocates (milk gets sour, butter rancid, eggs addled = groceries spoil differently)
  - relative vs. absolute frequencies (“normalise” = per 1 M. words)

→ can a specific corpus norm replace native-speaker (intuitive) norms? (cf. 4.5 above)

5.2 Corpus-based vs. corpus-driven approaches

1) type of corpus data
   - representativeness (c-driven: large corpora balance themselves; c-based: belief in natural balance unwarranted)
   - corpus size (c-driven: the larger the better; BUT: generally only analyse every nth instance - unclear how this is different from c-based methodology)
2) attitudes towards existing theories and intuitions
   - corpus annotation (c-driven: strong objections)
   - c-driven: tabula rasa ideal → no preconceived idea as to results; BUT: in reality, c-driven approaches make use of traditional categories such as word classes, etc. without defining them (which is a de-facto annotation ...)
   - c-based: typically start out from a theoretical issue / problem and use corpus data to illustrate / solve it
3) research focus
   - c-driven: holistic approach to language description (since such notions as pragmatics or syntax demand a theory)
   - c-based: focus on individual levels of linguistics
4) c-based approach by no means as radical as c-driven approach
   - c-driven approach “claims to be a new paradigm within which a whole language can be described”

5.3 Developments in corpus compilation

5.3.1 50 years of corpus history

(forrunners 1950s American structuralists, e.g. Harris)
1959 Quirk: Survey of English Usage (SEU)
1,000,000 words written/spoken 1953-1987
> London-Lund corpus of spoken English
1963/64 Francis/Kucera: Brown Corpus
1M of written American English from 1961
1M written BritE (Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus) from 1961
1980 Cobuild Corpus (Birmingham, Sinclair) → Bank of English
1990 - International Corpus of English (ICE): UK, US, CA, AU/NZ, S (K/E/TZ), ZA, HK, SG, IN, PH, etc.
1990 - International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE)
1990 - 1993 British National Corpus 100M (10M spoken)
from 1990 Freiburg Corpora: FLOB and FROWN from 1991 etc. (parallel LOB/Brown)
for recent language change

since 1998 www as “corpus” (WebCorp, WebPhraseCount)
since 2011 BZ mega/reference corpora
5.3.2 Corpora on the history and variation of English

Kortmann (2005:36)

5.3.3 Reference corpora on the WWW

Academic English Corpora:
- Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP)
- Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE)
- British Academic Spoken / Written English (BASE / BAWE)
- cf. ChemCorpus of student / academic writing (theses)

5.4 Corpus compilation principles

5.4.1 Corpus types

large and stratified:
- mega- / reference corpora
  - British National Corpus (BNC)
  - 90 M written / 10 M spoken, demographic / context-governed from 1991-94
  - http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/
- American / Australian National Corpus being compiled now (problematic: ANC 20 M)
- "national corpora", e.g. ICE http://ice-corpora.net/ice/
  - e.g. ICE-East Africa, ICE-Canada (parallel corpora)
- genre / domain specific corpora
  - e.g. SPICE (Specialised / Popular Academic English), TRAINS (dialogue) corpus from 1991-93
- translation corpora
  - e.g. EU DirParl corpus
- English-German Translation Corpus

"quick and dirty" / ad-hoc corpora, e.g. for translation problems, not translating

sample = scaled-down version of a larger population

sampling frame: the list of sampling units actually used in the corpus compilation
(e.g. all books available in one particular library)
target population: group to be represented in the corpus

sampling techniques:
- simple random sampling: sampling units are numbered, elements are chosen based on a list of random numbers; problem: rare types / genres may not be selected
- stratified random sampling: divides population into groups (strata), samples each stratum at random
  - sample size:
    - use full texts or text chunks from written sources?
    - if chunks, where from (initial, middle, end chunks)?
- again, these should be balanced (no either-or)
- proportion & number of samples from each category

5.4.2 Representativeness / Balance in corpus design

Leech: representative = findings can be generalised (What)
Biber: representative findings show the same degree and extent of variability as the total population (How)
a representative corpus must contain different text types / genres / registers
- possibility of constructing a monitor corpus, depending on the view on a corpus (dynamic vs. static)
in a general corpus, balance and sampling are responsible for achieving representativeness
acceptable level of balance also depends on intended uses (e.g. specialized corpora)
N.B.: "any claim of corpus balance is largely an act of faith rather than a statement of fact as, at present, there is no reliable scientific measure of corpus balance" (McEnery, Xiao & Tono 2006: 16)

researchers often adopt earlier corpus construction procedures (primarily BNC) — National

5.4.3 Sampling

Types of mark-up:
- structural markup: descriptive information about the texts
  - "metalinguage" — structure of electronic documents
    - (e.g. structure of conversations, categorizing parts of speech, segmenting of spoken or written text, marking of overlapping speech)
- bibliographic information about written text (genre, number of words, tagger which assign part-of-speech), ethnographic information about individuals in spoken texts (e.g. age, gender, social class, region; usually very limited)
- part of speech markup: part-of-speech designation (e.g. noun, verb); produced by software program called tagger (e.g. CLAWS, 95% accuracy)
- grammatical markup: parses grammatical structures (e.g., phrases, clauses); produced by software program called parser (usually 70 - 80% accuracy)
- always manual checks necessary

5.4.4 Annotation / mark-up

5.5 Corpus search & analyses

5.5.1 Pattern types: investigating context

- collocation = the appearance of one particular word form in certain distance of another particular word form
- different meanings can have different collocates

- collocation analysis has 3 methods (Wikipedia):
  - collexeme analysis, to measure the degree of attraction / repulsion of a lemma to a slot in one particular construction
  - distinctive collexeme analysis, to measure the preference of a lemma to one particular construction over another, functionally similar construction; multiple distinctive collexeme analysis extends this approach to more than two alternative constructions;
  - covarying collexeme analysis, to measure the degree of attraction of lemmas in one slot of a construction to lemmas in another slot of the same construction.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collostructional_analysis (15/12/13)
5.5.2 Types of frequency: exploring vocabulary

absolute vs. relative frequency of a word form

(standard) deviation from mean frequency of word forms

5.5.3 Corpus research examples

- How frequent is a particular morphological form/grammatical structure?
- Which particular structures have particular meanings?
- Which particular structures have particular locations in texts?

Corpus tasks have degrees of complexity

- relevance of tagging:
  - parts-of-speech (POS), e.g. CLAWS tagging for LOB
    (http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws/trial.html)
  - semantic: semantic web/web 3.0

5.6 Towards computational linguistics

- an interdisciplinary field dealing with the statistical and/or rule-based
  modelling of natural language from a computational perspective

  - not limited to any particular field of linguistics
  - traditionally, performed by computer scientists who had specialized in the
    application of computers to the processing of a natural language

  - often grouped under artificial intelligence today, but that has older
    applications (1950s) as well:
    - language analysis: tagging, parsing, annotation (5.6.1)
    - machine translation: SYSTRAN (5.6.2)
    - text processing: spell checkers, style checkers, automatic text production
      (abstraction/summarisation), Q&A systems
    - speech recognition and synthesis (telephone/communication systems)
    - others: expert/dialogue systems, CALL, etc.

6. Lexicography

6.1 What is (in) a dictionary?

dic-tion-ar-y (dĭk′shə-nĕr′ē) n., pl. -ies.

6.1.1 Definitions

A reference book containing an alphabetical list of words, with information given for each
word, usually including meaning, pronunciation, and etymology.

A book listing the words of a language with translations into another language.

A book listing words or other linguistic items in a particular category or subject with
specialized information about them: a medical dictionary.

In Computer Science:

- A list of words stored in machine-readable form for reference, as by spelling-checking
  software.

- An electronic spelling checker:
  http://www.answers.com/topic/dictionary

[Medieval Latin dicitur/dixit, from Latin dcit, dicit., diciton., diction]
6.1.2 On-line dictionaries

monolingual:
  http://www.oup.com/elt/catalogue/teachersites/oald7/
- US: Merriam-Webster http://www.m-w.com/

bilingual English - German:
- http://beolingus.de/ = http://dict.tu-chemnitz.de/
- http://dict.leo.org/ in Munich

WordNet
- a semantic lexicon for the English language. It groups English words into sets of synonyms called synsets, provides short, general definitions, and records the various semantic relations between these synonym sets
- to produce a combination of dictionary and thesaurus that is more intuitively usable, and
- to support automatic text analysis and artificial intelligence applications.
The database and software tools can be downloaded and used freely or browsed online: http://wordnet.princeton.edu/

6.1.3 What is (in) a dictionary?

which (types of) criteria are necessary or distinguishing, e.g. Advanced Learners’ Dictionaries?

Formal Criteria:
- a list of the headwords (entries)
- information “under” each headword (s.v.)

Functional Criteria:
- a reference work
  (to provide information about difficult technical words)
- a storehouse for a language
  (to find out what once existed and what exists today)
- a code of law
  (to decide whether to accept or reject regional, historical or social variants)

Linguistic Content Criteria:
- Spelling
- Lexical meaning
- Word-class (part of speech)
- Pronunciation (API/IPA?)
- Stress
- Etymology?
- Collocations?
- Grammar?
- Examples etc.

6.1.4 Etymology in the dictionary?

To record the morphological and phonological development of words, from ancient languages (French, Latin, Greek, Old Norse, *Germanic, *Indo-European, etc.), up to their first occurrence in English

Or to tell the story of the word’s history? e.g.
Camera ... [from Latin *camera* ‘small room’. The modern sense developed in the 19th century via the 18th century term *camera obscura*, denoting a darkened upper room with a (rotating) angled mirror at the apex of the roof, which projected an image of the surrounding landscape onto a flat surface in the room]

Or both?
NOT in modern Advanced Learner Dictionaries

6.1.5 Collocations in the Dictionary

A collocation
- is a sequence of words which co-occur more often than would be expected by chance
- refers to the restrictions on how words can be used together, e.g. prepositions are with verbs, or verbs with nouns
- not be confused with idioms (=fixed syntagmatic combinations)

from http://wasps.itri.brighton.ac.uk

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alcohol (as modifier)</th>
<th>BNC freq.</th>
<th>MI score (=mutual information)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alcohol consumption</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alcohol abuse</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alcohol intake</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alcohol misuse</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alcohol content</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alcohol problem</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alcohol dependency</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alcohol dependence</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2 History of Lexicography

The first dictionaries were multilingual!

1604: Robert Cawdrey (2,500 words)
- A Table Alphabeticall ... of hard usuall English wordes, borrowed from the Hebrew, Greeke, Latin, or French, etc. ... gathered for the benefit and help of Ladies, Gentlemens, or any other unskilful persons

1616: English Expositor; John Bulstokar

1623: English Dictionaries; Henry Cockeram

1652: New World of English Words; Edward Phillips

1702: A New English Dictionary; John Kersey (28,000 words)

1721: Universal Etymological English Dictionary; Nathaniel Bailey (40,000 words)

- Historical principles
- Interaction with literary, medieval and Indo-European scholarship

(c.f. History of English Language & Culture)

„National Dictionaries“

a lexicographer = “a writer of dictionaries; a harmless drudge that busies himself in tracing the original, and detailing the signification of words” (Johnson 1755, s.v.)

Dr. Samuel Johnson (1755)
Dictionary of the English Language
Two volumes, 40,000 entries

Noah Webster (1828)
An American Dictionary of the English Language
Two volumes, 70,000 entries
6.3 The Corpus Revolution: word-watching \(\rightarrow\) corpus compilation/analysis

Today all dictionaries are based on large-scale corpora, esp. the BNC
- new lexical entries are found
- existing lexical entries are enriched by additional information extracted via corpus analysis (e.g. most common forms, collocation, etc.)
- important aspects of word meaning and grammar are highlighted, which were simply never noticed by linguists who had no data to work with
- word frequency analysis is used for annotating lexical entries
- collocational information is collected, organized, and presented (e.g. idiom identification)
- (domain-specific) knowledge is extracted
- lexical items unlikely to be found in dictionary sources are extracted (e.g. proper nouns)
- real examples showing how central and typical features of English are used are provided
- paradigmatic and syntagmatic-driven semantic clustering is performed

6.4 Development of Monolingual (British) Learner Dictionaries (today all with CD Rom)

- Pedagogical with syntax, e.g. verb patterns, count vs. uncount nouns
- Restricted defining vocabulary, more elaborate syntax
- Semantic fields in the electronic version
now published as Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner’s Dictionary:
- Corpus-based; real-language examples.
- Full-sentence definitions, showing how to use the word normally and naturally
from 2nd ed: Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (CALD)
- Corpus-based; gives syntagmatics and semantic fields
- Much pedagogical help with vocabulary building

Merrim-Webster’s Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary, first published in 2008
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Advanced_learner’s_dictionary (17/01/04)

Monolingual (British) Learner Dictionaries today

The purpose(s) of monolingual dictionaries:
- To answer all of everybody’s questions about words, without knowing in advance what the questions are going to be.
- The lexicographer must consider the needs, expectations, and limitations of the dictionary user.

Coverage (from core vocabulary toencyclopedia):
- slang and neologisms (journalists love them!)
- technical vocabulary for a technological world
- names of famous people and places

Many dictionaries also give guidance on usage.

all with CD Rom!!

6.4.1 Style in lexical entries

- A verbless phrase or a full sentence (as in Cobuild?)
- Defining the ‘essence’ of something, or characterizing what it typically is.
- How much technical detail to put in, and how to present it?
- The role of examples.
- How to express changing beliefs, skepticism (e.g. about alchemy).
- How to relate figurative extensions to the ‘literal’ meaning (e.g. alchemy — a former science, but also apparent magic; alcohol = strong drink as well as a chemical)

6.4.2 Arrangement in lexical entries

Historical principles? — oldest sense first?
- camera 1: a small room. 2: the treasury of the papal curia. 3: a device for taking photographs or representing conventional contemporary usage?
- camera 1: a device for taking photographs. 2: in camera: in a small room (used of a judge hearing evidence in private)
or
- frequency? — most frequent sense first? original before metaphorical?
Cobuild: run a stop before run down the street?

6.4.3 Semantic development

magazine: from Italian magazzino, medieval Latin commen/motricale ‘simple song’ (i.e. one without instrumental accompaniment), from Latin musitae ‘maternal, simple, primitive’, from matrix ‘womb’ magazine — via Italian from Arabic makzin ‘storehouse’ (for armaments and goods, hence, figuratively, for facts): the same word as French magasin ‘shop, department store’

Standard example

Contra-st CIDE 1995 (cf. 6.4 above)

2) mnemotechnically designed systems (in which, for instance, T stands for ‘transitive’)

6.4.4 How much grammar in the dictionary?

1) Hornby’s verb patterns consist of letters and numerals which are not user-friendly since the codes are neither transparent nor mnemonic:
2) mnemotechnically designed systems in which, for instance, T stands for ‘transitive’ developed in LDOCE1 and in the fourth edition of Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (OALD4).

3) abbreviations for grammatical terms (e.g. -to subject following the to-infinite’) took the place of opaque codes (in LDOCE2 and COBUILD1), and it became immediately apparent what sort of information was being provided.

In the history of EFL dictionaries LDOCE1 played a leading role in simplifying grammar codes, and applying them to nouns and adjectives. When it’s first edition appeared in 1978, the Longman team had extended Hornby’s syntactic approach to the English lexicon to other parts of speech: they not only developed a new coding system for verbs, but also coded noun and adjective complementation which was a huge step ahead in EFL lexicography (Steel 1989: 26-27)

Danger: the (English) public are resistant to grammar.

But grammatical differences must be stated to distinguish one sense from another.


- NODE uses [with obj.], [no obj.], [with adverbial], with obj. and adverbial, etc. (it does not go much farther?)
- NODE uses various other devices, including highlighting common phraseology in examples.
- NODE makes no explicit mention of count nouns except where contrasted with mass nouns.

CONTRAST COE 1995 (cf. 6.4 above)
6.4.5 User-friendly presentation in dictionaries

Page design: breaking the monotony of the page.
Boxed features: for usage notes, historical aides, and other subsidiary information.
Example: USAGE
The core meaning of refute is 'prove (a statement or theory) to be wrong', as in attempts to refute Einstein's theory. In the second half of the 20th century, a more general sense developed, meaning simply 'deny', as in I absolutely refute the charges made against me. Traditionalists object to the second use on the grounds that it is an unacceptable degradation of the language, but it is now widely accepted in standard English.

conclusion (2008): traditional vs. electronic?

“The electronic versions of these works are superior to their hard-copy counterparts in terms of accessibility and flexibility of information retrieval (enhanced by their graphical user interface), wider macrostructure (in some EDs), more detailed microstructure, thesaurus-like resources, complex search mechanisms, copy and print functions, extra components, multimedia resources, and the degree of customization.”

Review in http://llt.msu.edu/vol12num1/1/review1/default.html (1/8/10/15)

6.4.6 Comparing dictionaries e.g. alcohol

Johnson 1755 (3)
An Arabic term used by chymists for a high rectified dephlegmated spirit of wine, or for anything reduced into an impalpable powder. Quincy:
If the same salt shall be reduced into alcohol, as the chymists speak, or an impalpable powder, the particles and intercepted spaces will be extremely lowered. Boyle
Set volatile substances will compele the spure on account of the alccl, or rectified spirit, which it contains. Davenport.

Wordnet
Noun
1. (col) alcohol, alcoholic drink, alcoholic beverage, intoxicant, inebriant (a liquor or brew containing alcohol as the active agent) alcohol (or drink) raised here
2. (col) alcohol (any of a series of volatile-hydrated compounds that are made from hydrocarbons by distillation)

Cobuild (1987)
Drinks that can make people drunk, such as beer, wine, and whisky, can be referred to as alcohol. Do either of you smoke cigarettes or drink alcohol? No alcohol is allowed on the premises.
Alcohol in a colourless liquid that is found in drinks such as beer, wine, and whisky. It is also used in products such as perfumes and cleaning fluids. Low-alcohol beer ... Products for dry skin have little or no alcohol.

... a colourless volatile flammable liquid which is the intoxicating constituent of wine, beer, spirits, and other drinks, and is also used as an industrial solvent and as fuel.
Alternative names: ethanol, ethyl alcohol. Formula: C2H5OH.
Alcohol containing this he has not taken alcohol in 25 years.

Chemistry: any organic compound whose molecule contains one or more hydroxyl groups attached to a carbon atom.

6.4.7 Comparing CALD and OALD e.g. Christmas

Christmas noun [C or U]
the period just before and after 25 December, a Christian holy day which celebrates the birth of Christ
We had a lovely Christmas.
We had a lovely Christmas. the Christmas holidays
Christmas adjective INFORMAL
pecial of Christmas, or happy because it is Christmas. It looks very Christmassy in here with the tree and all the decorations.

(from Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, s.v.)

Christmas / kraɪsməs / noun [U, C]
1 a festival. Christmas Day 25 December, the day when Christians celebrate the birth of Christ: Christmas dinner / presents—see also Boxing Day
1 state Christmas. Day 25 December, the period that includes Christmas Day and the days close to it: the Christmas holidays / vacation Are you spending Christmas with your family? Happy Christmas! Merry Christmas and a Happy New Year!—see also white Christmas

(from Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, s.v.)

7. Translation Studies

Translation is the interpretation of the meaning of a text in one language (the 'source text') and the production, in another language, of an equivalent text (the 'target text,' or 'translation') that communicates the same message.

Translation must take into account a number of constraints, including context, the rules of grammar of the two languages, their writing conventions, and their idioms.

Traditionally translation has been a human activity; though attempts have been made to computerize or otherwise automate the translation of natural-language texts (machine translation) or to use computers as an aid to translation (computer-assisted translation or CAT)

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation

in contrast: Interpretation, or "interpretation," is the intellectual activity that consists of facilitating oral or written communication, either simultaneously or consecutively, between two or among three or more speakers who are not speaking, or signing, the same language.

Translation errors are often quoted in humorous literature or on the Internet:

7.1 Historical Approaches

7.1.1 Nida & Taber (1969: 152)
Interestingly, a genre- and discourse-specific approach:
their universals of discourse are
- the marking of the beginning and end of the discourse (e.g. "Once upon a time... they lived happily ever after.") → a story
- the marking of major internal transitions
- the marking of temporal relations between events
- the marking of spatial relations between events and objects
- the marking of logical relations between events
- the identification of participants
- highlighting, focus, emphasis, etc.
- author involvement

7.1.2 Translation equivalence

reader/listener assumes equivalence (instinctive view), translator creates equivalence (more or less conscious view), researcher investigates equivalence (contrastive view)

(1) is a preconceived requirement of translation (different from other types of FL transformations: adaptation, abridgement, summary, etc.) → translation = replacement of the SL text by the TL equivalent
(2) is never complete → the TL text is identical with the original text only from certain (formal, situational, contextual, communicative, etc.) aspects (various types and degrees of equivalence exist)
(3) is text type dependent → no identical equivalence requirements can be established for different text types (e.g. a users' manual, a movie script): the number of text types determines the number of equivalence types possible

(Reiss 1971)
7.1.3 Baker (1992): equivalence at different levels

- word level & above word level (i.e. clause, sentence)
- grammatical level (e.g. tense/aspect):
  - grammatical rules may vary across languages and this may pose some problems in terms of finding a direct correspondence in the TL. In fact, she claims that different grammatical structures in the SL and TL may cause remarkable changes in the way the information or message is carried across. These changes may induce the translator either to add or to omit information in the TT because of the lack of particular grammatical devices in the TL itself. Amongst these grammatical devices which might cause problems in translation Baker focuses on number, tense and aspects, voice, person and gender.
- textual level (theme - rheme):
  - textual 1: thematic & information structures (→ coherence)
  - textual 2: cohesion
  - “It is up to the translator to decide whether or not to maintain the cohesive ties as well as the coherence of the SL text. His or her decision will be guided by three main factors, that is, the target audience, the purpose of the translation and the text type.”
- pragmatic level (effect on reader, see speech act)
  - “Implicature is not about what is explicitly said but what is implied. Therefore, the translator needs to work out implied meanings in translation in order to get the ST message across. The role of the translator is to recreate the author’s intention in another culture in such a way that enables the TC reader to understand it clearly.”
http://www.bokorlang.com/journal/14equiv.htm (18/10/15)

7.2 Problems of Translating

- Insufficient world knowledge and/or insufficient linguistic knowledge
  - comprehension/production problems
- Creative exploitation of linguistic means of expression
  - comprehension/production problems
- Insufficient source text comprehension
  - comprehension/production problem: linguistic decision, e.g. disambiguation
- Lack of semantic/communicative autonomy
  - production problem: disruption of spontaneous linguistic retrieval
- Continuing presence of the source text
  - production problem: linguistic interference (translationese)

7.3 Translation as a profession

a core skill for any language service provider

7.3.1 Frame of reference

House rules, style guides, standards (incl. ISO)
- Increased availability of CAT tools to monitor quality post-translation:
  - Terminological consistency
  - Translation memory compliance
  - e.g. http://www.metaexis.com/ for testing, but market leader is TRADOS
  - Technical aspects: tags, software testing

7.3.2 Localisation/Localisation

- adaptation of language, content and design to reflect local cultural sensitivities in web design and software
  - adapting computer software for non-native environments, especially other nations and cultures, so that it is as familiar as possible to a specific locale, by displaying text in the local language and using local conventions (e.g. units of measurement, currencies, symbols, paper size, colours?)
  - also internationalization - the process of ensuring that an application is capable of adapting to local requirements (e.g. writing system).

7.3.3 Corpora for translation studies

to ensure adequate translation and natural language in target text

- An original text aligned with its translated text/s
  - Two corpora in different languages covering the same topic
  - A monolingual corpus consisting of only translated texts
  - Two monolingual corpora of the same language, one of translated and one of original texts

7.4 From Machine Translation to Computer Assisted Translation

Sub-field of computational linguistics that investigates the use of computer software to translate text or speech from one natural language to another.

Basic MT performs simple substitution of words in one natural language for words in another Complex MT may be attempted using corpus techniques, allowing for better handling of differences in linguistic typology, phrase recognition, and translation of idioms, as well as the isolation of anomalies.

Current machine translation software often allows for customisation by domain or profession (such as weather reports) – improving output by limiting the scope of allowable substitutions. This technique is particularly effective in domains where formal or formulaic language is used. It follows then that machine translation of government and legal documents more readily produces usable output than conversation or less standardised text.

usually improved output quality can also be achieved by human intervention
http://www.altavista.com/
computer aided translation, translation memory systems
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation_memory (18/10/15)

7.5 Resources

bilingual dictionaries:
Beolingus: http://dict.tu-chemnitz.de/
BiText

**translation dictionary**
http://www.linguee.com/ (also iPhone app!)
*a unique translation tool combining an editorial dictionary and a search engine
Lingue offers numerous benefits compared to other online dictionaries:
- It contains approximately 1,000 times more translated texts
- Single word translations are displayed in a clear, user-friendly structure
- Lingue offers a great variety of contextual translation examples
- Its interactive user guidance facilitates the translation search: just move your mouse across a translation - matching example sentences will be displayed instantly
- The frequency of a translation is displayed and the most common translations are accentuated
- The source of an example sentence is shown as a link below the respective sentence*

7.6 Examples of translations

TUChem http://www.tu-chemnitz.de/en/
*Faculty* vs. *School* in British and US university systems
8. Language & Culture

Definitions

- **Culture**: Transnational practices through which humans communicate
- **Language**: A network of habitual dispositions

- **Linguistic Relativity**: The hypothesis first suggested by the German ethnologist Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835) and reformulated in the 20th century by the US Fire officer and linguist Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1943) that people who speak different languages perceive reality and think differently, because categories and distinctions encoded in one language are not necessarily available in another.

E.g., the language of the North American Hopi Indians has no forms corresponding to English tenses and no words for concepts such as temperature, time, or distance. Therefore, Whorf argued, it would be difficult for a Hopi and an English-speaking physicist to understand each other's thinking about time.

See also linguistic determinism, Sapir—Whorf hypothesis.

Linguistic determinism

A main point of debate in the discussion of linguistic relativity is the strength of correlation between language and thought. The strongest form of correlation is linguistic determinism, which would hold that language entirely determines the range of possible cognitive processes of an individual. This view has sometimes been attributed to Benjamin Lee Whorf, and to Ludwig Wittgenstein, but it is not currently the consensus that either of these thinkers actually espoused determinist views of the relation between language and thought. Linguistic determinism is also sometimes described as "the Strong Sapir—Whorf hypothesis", while other forms of correlation are referred to as "the weak Sapir—Whorf hypothesis".

See also linguistic determinism, Sapir—Whorf hypothesis.

8.2 Sapir–Whorf hypothesis

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See also linguistic determinism, Sapir—Whorf hypothesis.

Linguistic determinism

A main point of debate in the discussion of linguistic relativity is the strength of correlation between language and thought. The strongest form of correlation is linguistic determinism, which would hold that language entirely determines the range of possible cognitive processes of an individual. This view has sometimes been attributed to Benjamin Lee Whorf, and to Ludwig Wittgenstein, but it is not currently the consensus that either of these thinkers actually espoused determinist views of the relation between language and thought. Linguistic determinism is also sometimes described as "the Strong Sapir—Whorf hypothesis", while other forms of correlation are referred to as "the weak Sapir—Whorf hypothesis".

See also linguistic determinism, Sapir—Whorf hypothesis.

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8.4 Cross-cultural communication (CCC) I

Definition Intercultural

Although Wikipedia 2009 says: "Intercultural communication principles guide the process of exchanging meaningful and unambiguous information across cultural boundaries" the term is ambiguous, because it may be the same as cross-cultural (i.e. below)

OR it may emphasize that in intercultural communication a new communication context is created that constitutes more than a compromise between the two (or more) cultures of its communication participants.

Definition Cross-cultural

- New people from different cultural backgrounds endeavour to communicate effectively.
- Misinterpretations of social meaning can result from unrecognised differences
- Awareness raising through critical incidents?

8.5 Cross-cultural communication II

Cross-cultural communication (also frequently referred to as intercultural communication, which is also used in a different sense, though) is a field of study that looks at how people from differing cultural backgrounds communicate, in similar and different ways among themselves, and how they endeavour to communicate across cultures.

Cross-cultural communication is an essential tool in today's globalised world. It is important that people research and understand the cultural differences of those with whom they work and interact.

Cross-cultural communication is often described as the process of exchanging meaningful and unambiguous information across cultural boundaries. However, this definition is somewhat ambiguous and requires further clarification. One way to improve this definition is to incorporate the concept of awareness raising through critical incidents.