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1.INTRODUCTION TO MORPHOLOGY AS A TOOL FOR ANALYZING ENGLISH LANGUAGE

- The concept of word;
- word formation processes;
- paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations;
- morphological mechanism of lexical expansion;
- relation of tense, aspect mood with the verb.

INTRODUCTION

”There are thousands of languages in the world waiting to be studied and so many things yet to learn about who we humans are as linguistic creatures”.

This course all along with the workbook, recently published, is meant to give the students a useful range of references and to help them better understand and use the theoretical content drawn broadly from work within generative grammar. It deals with a review of key terms, questions for analysis, and sample descriptions which help the student apply the theoretical material. References for further reading are provided for those wishing to study further.

Morphology is commonly defined as the study of the internal structure of words and the rules governing the formation of words in a language. It is once again part of our grammatical knowledge of a language, and like linguistic knowledge it is generally unconscious knowledge. Students of English need to establish a sound knowledge base in understanding the structure of words and word formation processes. Developing an awareness of English morphology will enable language teachers to help their learners understand how words enter a language, what they consist of and how they are formed by combining prefixes, suffixes, and roots. Recent research suggests that learners with an awareness of word-formation processes tend to have larger vocabulary and better

reading comprehension (Kieffer and Lesaux, 2008; Kieffer and Lesaux, 2012a/2012b), and by extension better writing (Templeton, 2012). Consequently, morphology can be a valuable instructional tool for language learners to develop and use vocabulary creatively.

WORDS AND THEIR STRUCTURE

Like many others, English dictionaries contain hundreds of thousands of words, but it is fairly true to say that most speakers do not know all of these words. But what do we mean when we say we know a word? To put it another way, what does knowing a word mean? Knowledge of a word is connected with different types of information encoded in our mental dictionary. For pedagogical purposes, we will list below the types of information we can learn about a word as follows:

1.**Pronunciation and Meaning**: Every word consists of a sound-meaning unit, so every word in our lexicon is stored together with a pronunciation and a meaning, maybe several meanings. There is also an arbitrary relationship between sounds and meanings. Consequently, we may encounter words that have the same pronunciation and different meanings (for example, bare and bear) and words that have the same meaning and different sounds (for example, sofa and couch). We can conclude that we have learned a meaning or several meanings for almost every word we know.

2.**Grammatical Category:** We also store other information about a word, such as whether it is a verb, a noun, an adjective, an adverb, a conjunction, or a preposition. This kind of information identifies the grammatical class of the word. For example, in the sentences I love Michael and Michael is the love of my life, the word love is both a verb and a noun according to our knowledge of its grammatical or syntactic class. Unless we had such kind of information in our mental dictionary, we could not know how to produce grammatically correct sentences. We could not distinguish grammatical sentences from ungrammatical ones either. We intuitively know how to use words in different types of sentences thanks to this kind of information.

3.**Orthography / Spelling**: Every literate speaker of a language also stores information about how to spell the words they know. However, not every speaker knows – or has to know – the etymology of a word he or she knows. In daily life, we may sometimes talk about the origin and history of words such as coffee or yoghurt, but this kind of historical information encoded in our mental lexicon is not truly representative

of our knowledge of words. To sum up, knowledge of a word contains various kinds of information we encode in our mental lexicon. Not only do we know the meaning or several meanings of a word and its pronunciation when we say we know a word, but we also recognize its grammatical category such as noun or verb as well as its spelling or orthography as educated people. When we loop up a word, any typical English dictionary should give at least lexical entry information that contains spelling, standard pronunciation, definitions to represent one or more meanings of the word, and parts of speech. An average dictionary may also give additional information about the origin and history of the word, whether the word is nonstandard (such as ain't) or slang, vulgar, or archaic.

CONTENT WORDS AND FUNCTION WORDS

When discussing about words, we sometimes make an important distinction between two types of words: content words and function words (also referred to as open-class words and closed-class words, respectively). A summary list of both classes of words is presented in the Table below.Examples of content words include the English words *uncle, manage, huge and rapidly.* These words belong to the major parts of speech that consist of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs and represent ideas, actions, objects and attributes. They are also called "open-ended" or "open-class" words because we can frequently add new words to this class of words. That is, we can create and add an infinite number of new words to these classes.

Table: Content and Function Words in English

Content Words
Nouns (computer, board, peace, school)
Verbs (say, walk, run, belong)
Adjectives (clean, quick, rapid, enormous)
Adverbs (quickly, softly, enormously,
cheerfully)

Function Words
Articles (the, a/an)
Auxiliaries (can, must, might, will)
Demonstratives (this, these, that, those)
Quantifiers (many, few, little, some)
Prepositions (on, with, to, from)
Pronouns (he, she, they, we)
Conjunctions (and, but, or, but)

On the other hand, function words are those which do not have clear lexical meanings or obvious concepts related to them. They are lexically unproductive and are generally invariable in form. They belong to grammatical or function classes that consist of a small number of fixed items, such as articles, demonstratives, quantifiers, prepositions and conjunctions. These function words denote grammatical relations and unlike content words, words have little or no semantic content. Examples of function words in English include articles (the, a), demonstratives (this, that), quantifiers (most, few, some, little), prepositions (up, from, to, with), and conjunctions (but, or, and, yet). To illustrate, consider the articles the and a/an. The essential feature of these articles is that they function grammatically to indicate whether a noun is definite or indefinite (the teacher or a teacher). Likewise, the word and functions grammatically to connect words and phrases, as in the combination of noun phrases the girl and the boy. In brief, speakers of a language are likely to encounter many new content words such as nouns and verbs, in the coming years. However, it is very unlikely that they will see a new conjunction in the coming years or even in their entire life. Following an approach that goes back to Latin, grammars of English also give a traditional list of word classes under the name of parts of speech: verb, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, pronoun, article, and interjection. In language studies, we often need to talk about parts of speech so that we can "make general and economical statements about the way the words of the language behave (Crystal, 1996, p. 206).

To sum up, then, we can distinguish two broad classes of words: content words and function words. Content words (including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and most adverbs) are those words that carry the 'content' or the meaning of a sentence and are open-class words. In contrast, function words are those words that do not possess clear lexical meaning but instead help to express grammatical relationships with other words within a sentence, or specify the attitude or mood of the speaker. According to Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2011, p. 40), the linguistic evidence suggests that content words and function words play different roles in language. Content words take the brunt of the meaning, whereas function words connect the content words to the larger grammatical context.

WORD FORMATION PROCESSES MORPHEMES AND THEIR COMPOSITIONS

Speakers of a language can recognize that word forms may include a number of units. For example, we can make out that English word forms like runs, runner, run and playing can be split into pieces; they are made up of one unit play, and a number of other elements like -s, -er, -ed and -ing. All these elements are called morphemes, the minimal units of meaning or grammatical function that are used to form words (Lieber, 2009, p. 32). From this definition of a morpheme we can say that units of meaning include forms like play and units of grammatical function include elements used to show present tense or plural. The word visitors consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is visit, another minimal unit of meaning –or, (marking "person who does something"), and the other minimal unit of grammatical function -s (indicating plural). One or more morphemes may represent a single word, as exemplified below.

One morpheme child, rest, say
Two morphemes: child+ish, rest+less, say+ing

Three morphemes child + ish + ness, rest+less+ness
Four morphemes gentle + man + li + ness
More than four morphemes un + gentle + man + li + ness
anti + dis + establish + ment + ari + an + ism

In addition, a single sound may represent a morpheme. For example, the morpheme a, meaning "without" as in asocial and amoral, is composed of a single sound. A morpheme may also consist of a single syllable, such as boy and –ish in boy + ish, and two or more syllables, as in paper (two syllables), and crocodile (three syllables). Another point is that a morpheme has a constant meaning. For example, the morpheme –er means "someone who does" as in words like player, teacher, and singer. However, there is also the comparative morpheme –er, meaning "more" as in faster, shorter and prettier. Thus, the same sounds represent more than one morpheme, meaning that different morphemes may be 'homophonous' or pronounced identically. In summary, some morphemes may be simple words that cannot be broken down further into meaningful units. These are called free morphemes. Other morphemes are the smallest units of meaning or grammatical function that are attached to other forms to generate complex words. Such morphemes are called bound morphemes. These two types of morphemes are examined in detail in the next section. A classification of English morphemes is given in figure 1.

Free and Bound Morphemes

From the examples given above, we can categorize morphemes into two broad classes: free morphemes and bound morphemes. A free morpheme can stand alone as an independent, single word, for example open and visit. In contrast, a bound morpheme cannot normally stand alone and must be typically attached to another form. For example, the plural morpheme -s can only occur when it is attached to nouns, or the past tense -ed morpheme must be attached to verbs. Thus, we can state that all affixes in English are bound morphemes, including prefixes attached to the beginning of another morpheme (such as re- in words like reinvent, reopen and rewrite), and suffixes attached to the end of another morpheme (such as -er/-or in words like opener, inventor and writer). Some bound morphemes (e.g. cran-) are called "bound base morphemes" and they are not meaningful in isolation but have meaning when combined with other morphemes. For example, cran- must occur with berry (cranberry, huckleberry) and more recently with apple, grape, or some other fruit (cranapple, crangrape, crananidin). Finally, the morpheme to which we attach an affix is called the base or stem morpheme, and it may be free like dog (both a free morpheme and a free base) or bound (like -s or cran-).

Lexical and Functional Morphemes

We can divide all free morphemes into two categories. These are lexical and functional morphemes. Lexical morphemes in English consist of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs that all transmit the content of the messages speakers want to convey. Typical examples of such lexical morphemes are student, teacher, spend, save, short, happy, frankly, and honestly. Because we can add new lexical morphemes to both English and other languages, they are also described as content words or open class of words (Çelik, 2007, p. 94). On the other hand, functional morphemes contain mainly the functional words in English such as articles, prepositions, conjunctions, quantifiers and pronouns. Some examples are the, a/an, on, with, but, when, because, few, many, them and she. Since we cannot create new functional morphemes in the language easily, they are treated as a closed class of words. To sum up, we can understand the meaning of lexical morphemes in and of themselves, but we can comprehend the meaning of functional morphemes only when they occur with other words in a sentence.

Inflectional and Derivational Morphemes

We can make a further distinction within the set of bound morphemes in English. One type of bound morphemes consists of derivational morphemes that are used to create new words or to "make words of a different grammatical class from the stem" (Yule, 2010, p. 69). For example, the addition of the derivational morpheme -ize changes the adjective normal to the verb normalize. Similarly, we can derive the adjectives helpful and helpless by adding the derivational morphemes -ful and less to the noun help. Derivational morphemes are a powerful means of word formation in English, and we will devote a separate section to this process of word formation and include numerous prefixes and suffixes with examples later.

The second type of bound morphemes consists of inflectional morphemes that are used to show some aspects of the grammatical function of a word. We use inflectional morphemes to indicate if a word is singular or plural, whether it is past tense or not, and whether it is a comparative or possessive form. In fact, inflection exists in many languages, but compared to other languages of the world there is relatively little inflection in English. Today there are only eight inflectional morphemes in English, as given in table 2 below.

Table 2.2 Inflectional Morphemes of English

English Inflectional Morphemes Added to Examples
-s plural Nouns She has got two guitars.
-'s possessive Nouns Zeynep's hair is long.
-er comparative Adjectives Zeynep has longer hair than Derya.
-est superlative Adjectives Zeynep has the longest hair.
-s 3rd person singular present tense Verbs Zeynep plays the guitar.
-ed past tense Verbs She played the guitar at the party.
-ing progressive Verbs She is playing the guitar at the party
-en past participle* Verbs She has taken the guitar to the party.

*The regular past participle morpheme is -ed, identical to the past tense form -ed.

The irregular past participle form -en is used to distinguish the two.

The first two inflectional morphemes (-'s, -s) are added to nouns, the first marking possessive and the other indicating plural. There are two inflectional morphemes attached to adjectives/adverbs. These are -er (comparative) and -est (superlative). The (present participle), -ed (past tense) and -en (past participle). It should be noted that some variation exists in the forms of the possessive and past participle morphemes. We can see that the possessive morpheme sometimes appears as -s' (these passengers' suitcases) and the past participle as -ed (The plane has just landed). In English, the above eight inflectional morphemes consist of suffixes added to the end of words.

Differences between Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes

There are some differences between inflectional and derivational morphemes. First, inflectional morphemes never change the grammatical category (part of speech) of a word. For example, tall and taller are both adjectives. The inflectional morpheme -er (comparative marker) simply produces a different version of the adjective tall. However, derivational morphemes often change the part of speech of a word. Thus, the verb read becomes the noun reader when we add the derivational morpheme -er. It is simply that

read is a verb, but reader is a noun. However, some derivational morphemes do not change the grammatical category of a word. For example, such derivational prefixes as re- and un- in English generally do not change the category of the word to which they are attached. Thus, both happy and unhappy are adjectives, and both fill and refill are verbs, for example. The derivational suffixes -hood and -dom, as in neighbourhood and kingdom, are also the typical examples of derivational morphemes that do not change the grammatical category of a word to which they are attached.

Second, when a derivational suffix and an inflectional suffix are added to the same word, they always appear in a certain relative order within the word. That is, inflectional suffixes follow derivational suffixes. Thus, the derivational (-er) is added to read, then the inflectional (-s) is attached to produce readers. Similarly, in organize– organizes the inflectional -s comes after the derivational -ize. When an inflectional suffix is added to a verb, as with organizes, then we cannot add any further derivational suffixes. It is impossible to have a form like organizesable, with inflectional -s after derivational -able because inflectional morphemes occur outside derivational morphemes and attach to the base or stem. For these reasons, Akmajian et al. (2010, p. 46) state that derivational morphemes show the "inner" layer of words, whilst inflectional suffixes mark the "outer" layer of words.

A third point worth emphasizing is that certain derivational morphemes serve to create new base forms or new stems to which we can attach other derivational or inflectional affixes. For example, we use the derivational -atic to create adjectives from nouns, as in words like systematic and problematic. Then, we can further add -al to these two words to create systematical and problematical. Similarly, the derivational suffix -ize is often added to create verbs from adjectives, as in modernize, and we can add the inflectional suffix -s (modernizes) to such -ize verbs. To sum up, we can state that certain derivational affixes produce new members for a given class of words, but inflectional affixes are always added to available members of a given class of words. All English derivational morphemes are either prefixes attached to the beginning of words or suffixes added to the end of words, but all English inflectional morphemes are suffixes.

Inflectional morphemes never change the grammatical category of a word. For example, both tall and taller are adjectives. The inflectional morpheme -er (comparative marker) simply produces a different version of the adjective tall. However, derivational

morphemes often change the part of speech of a word. Thus, the verb read becomes the noun reader when we add the derivational morpheme -er. However, such derivational morphemes as re- and un- generally do not change the category of the word to which they are attached. Thus, happy and unhappy are adjectives, and similarly fill and refill are verbs. Morphemes can have different realizations called allomorphs depending on the environment. For example, the plural morpheme –s has three different allomorphs (-s, z and əz) whose pronunciations change according to the environments in which they occur. Which allomorph appears where is often predictable, as in plural, so teaching them explicitly will promote morphphonological awareness of learners.

Apart from word-formation through derivational affixes, English also employs other word formation processes. Coinage is the creation of entirely new, previously nonexistent words or terms in a language. Among the common coinages found in everyday English are aspirin, nylon, vaseline, zipper, granola, kleenex, teflon, quark, and xerox. Due to the rapid advances in technology and communication, languages also borrow words from one another. Borrowed words, also known as loanwords, are common in English and other languages around the world. Compounding, the joining of two or more separate words to produce a single form, is a very common word- formation process in English. Such words such as Facebook and YouTube are recent examples introduced into English through this process. Blends or blended words are similar to compounds but usually combine shortened forms of two or more morphemes or words. Brunch means a late morning meal and is a blend of breakfast and lunch. Clipping refers to the process of reducing a word of more than one syllable to a shorter form (e.g. ad from advertisement). Orthographically, there are also some clipped abbreviations such as Dr. (doctor), Mr. (mister) and GB (gigabyte) whose spellings are shortened but whose pronunciations are not essentially different.

Backformation is a very specialized type of word formation process in which an actual or assumed derivational affix is removed from the base form of a word to create a new word. A good English example of backformation is the process whereby the verb televise was created from the noun television that was already in use. When a word of one grammatical category becomes a word of another grammatical form without any changes to pronunciation or spelling, this process of word formation is generally known as conversion. In English, numerous nouns like email, chair, vacation, bottle, butter, and host have come to be used as verbs through this process. Acronyms, words derived from

the initials of several words like NATO, and eponyms, words derived from proper names like boycott from the name of Charles C. Boycott, are the other word-formation processes that add to the word stock of a language.

On the basis of the evidence currently available, it seems fair to suggest that teachers of English should enable their learners to acquire morphological awareness and help them recognize and manipulate new words. Defined as “children’s conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words and their ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure” Carlisle (1995, p. 194), morphological awareness includes learners’ knowledge of both derivations and inflections in language at the same time.

Reasonably, language learners who recognize how English words are created, by combining prefixes, suffixes, and roots, tend to acquire more words, comprehend texts better, and by extension become more proficient in writing.

Teachers of English can take morphology in the language classroom by following several instructional principles. First, they can teach derivational morphology explicitly and make it a separate component of mainstream vocabulary teaching. Further, they can turn morphological awareness into a “cognitive strategy” by asking learners to break a word down into morphemes. A third instructional endeavor could be teaching learners to understand the use of prefixes, suffixes, and roots, and how words are transformed. Finally, teaching learners cognates – words with similar spelling and meanings in English and the native language – to help their reading comprehension.

The implications for teaching and learning are significant, since the recent research conducted into morphological awareness points that students who understand how words are formed by combining prefixes, suffixes, and roots have larger lexicon and better reading comprehension than those without such knowledge and skills. Therefore, vocabulary-rich lesson contents should be accompanied by teaching morphological awareness in language teaching

RELATION OF TENSE ASPECT, MOOD, VOICE

Unlike many other widely-spoken Indo-European languages such as Spanish and French, the English verb system is largely periphrastic. Periphrasis, in contrast to inflection, is "a phrase of two or more words used to express a grammatical relationship that could otherwise be expressed by the inflection of a single word." All English verb forms except for the simple present and simple past are periphrastic.

Although some grammars identify anywhere between twelve and sixteen English tenses, the nineteen finite, or conjugated, verb forms in English express more than just tense. To be more precise, English has:

- Two tenses: present and past
- Four aspects: simple, progressive, perfect, perfect-progressive
- Three moods: indicative, subjunctive, imperative
- Two voices: active and passive

The following sections discuss the tenses, aspects, moods, and voices of the English verb system.

Tense

Tense is the expression of location in time of an action or state. Grammatical tense only roughly relates to time. English has only two verb tenses: present and past. Morphologically English has two tenses whilethere are three time references. Time is a universalconcept whereas Tense is a grammatical category. Thereis a universal concept because the units of time are extra-linguistic, that is, they exist independently of the grammar of any particular language. Time has three divisions, namely, the Past, the Present and the Future.English has a two-tense system. The two tenses marked bythe verbs in English are the Present and the Past. As the names indicate, the present tense form usually refers to present time, and past tense to past time. For further information and practice of tenses we rely on the grammar spots included in the workbook.

Aspect

Aspect is the expression of the temporal structure of an action or state. Aspect in English expresses ongoing actions or states with or without distinct end points. English has four aspects: simple, progressive, perfect, and perfect-progressive.

Although not always identified, the simple aspect is the default aspect of the simple present and simple past tenses. The simple aspect expresses single actions, habits, and

routines. For the formation of the simple present and simple past verbs, please refer to the charts in the "Tense" section.

The progressive aspect expresses incomplete or ongoing actions or states at a specific time. For example, the use of the progressive aspect in *I am floating the book* indicates that I started floating the book in the past and am still floating the book in the present and presumably the future. The formula for forming the present progressive is [simple present "to be" + present participle]. The formula for forming the past progressive is [simple past "to be" + present participle].

The perfect aspect expresses the consequences resulting from a previous action or state. For example, the use of the perfect aspect in *I have floated the book* focuses on the end result of my floating the book (my having floated the book) as opposed to the process of floating the book. The formula for forming the present perfect is [simple present "to have" + past participle]. The formula for forming the past perfect is [simple past "to have" + past participle].

The perfect-progressive aspect expresses incomplete or ongoing actions or states that began in the past and continue to a specific time. For example, the use of the perfect-progressive aspect in *I had been floating the book* indicates that I started floating the book in the past and continued to float the book until a specific point in time at which I stopped floating the book. The formula for forming the present perfect-progressive is [simple present "to have" + past participle "to be" + present participle]. The formula for forming the past perfect-progressive is [simple past "to have" + past participle "to be" + present participle].

Present participles, or *-ing* forms, are formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the base form of a verb. For example, the present participles of *eat* and *read* are *eating* and *reading*. Past participles, or *-en* forms, are formed 1.) identically to the *-ed* past tense, 2.) by adding the suffix *-en* to the base form, or 3.) with a stem change. For example, the past participles of *study*, *take*, and *begin* are *studied*, *taken*, and *begun*.

Mood

Mood is the expression of modality of an action or state. Modality is the expression of possibility, necessity, and contingency. Modality can be expressed through modal verbs

as well as through grammatical mood in English. English has three moods: indicative, subjunctive, and imperative.

The indicative mood allows speakers to express assertions, denials, and questions of actuality or strong probability. Most sentences in English are in the indicative mood because the indicative is the most commonly used mood. For example, the statement *I read the book* and the question *Did you read the book?* are both sentences in the indicative mood.

The subjunctive mood expresses commands, requests, suggestions, wishes, hypotheses, purposes, doubts, and suppositions that are contrary to fact at the time of the utterance. The form of the present subjunctive is identical to the base form of English verbs. The form of the past subjunctive is identical to the plural simple past indicative. However, the subjunctive is only distinguishable in form from the indicative in the third person singular present subjunctive and with the verb *to be* in the present subjunctive and the first and third person singular in the past subjunctive.

The imperative mood allows speakers to make direct commands, express requests, and grant or deny permission. The form of the English imperative is identical to the base form of any English verb. The negative form of the English imperative is created by inserting the *do* operator and the negative adverb *not* before the base form of the verb.

Voice

Voice is the expression of relationships between the predicate and nominal functions. English has two voices: active and passive. In the active voice, the subject performs the action of or acts upon the verb and the direct object receives the action of the verb. In the passive voice, the subject receives the action of the transitive verb. For example, the sentence *I read the book* is in the active voice because the subject *I* performs the action of reading and the direct object *the book* receives the action of reading. The sentence *The book was read* [*by me*], on the other hand, is in the passive voice because the subject *The book* receives the action of reading.

II. UNDERSTANDING SYNTAX- BASIC CONCEPTS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

- Phrase and sentence structure;
- Government and binding rules;
- Functional relationships between parts of phrases and sentences;
- Transitive and intransitive predication;
- Syntactic functions and analysis.

In linguistics, "syntax" refers to the rules that govern the ways in which words combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. The term "syntax" comes from the Greek, meaning "arrange together." The term is also used to mean the study of the syntactic properties of a language. In computer contexts, the term refers to the proper ordering of symbols and codes so that the computer can understand what instructions are telling it to do.

Syntax

- Syntax is the proper order of words in a phrase or sentence.
- Syntax is a tool used in writing proper grammatical sentences.
- Native speakers of a language learn correct syntax without realizing it.
- The complexity of a writer's or speaker's sentences creates a formal or informal level of diction that is presented to its audience.

Phrase and sentence structure;

Sentence types: One way to categorize sentences is by the clauses they contain. (A clause is a part of a sentence containing a subject and a predicate.) Here are the 4 sentence types:

- **Simple:** Contains a single, independent clause.
    - I don't like dogs.

- Our school basketball team lost their last game of the season.
- The old hotel opposite the bus station in the center of the town is probably going to be knocked down at the end of next year.

- **Compound:** Contains two independent clauses that are joined by a coordinating conjunction. (The most common coordinating conjunctions are: ***b**ut, **o**r, **a**nd, **s**o*. Remember: **boas**.)
  - I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats.
  - You can write on paper, or you can use a computer.
  - A tree fell onto the school roof in a storm, but none of the students was injured.

- **Complex:** Contains an independent clause plus one or more dependent clauses. (A dependent clause starts with a subordinating conjunction. Examples: *that, because, while, although, where, if*.)
  - I don't like dogs that bark at me when I go past.
  - She did my homework, while her father cooked dinner.
  - You can write on paper, although a computer is better if you want to correct mistakes easily.

  Note: A dependent clause standing alone without an independent clause is called a fragment sentence - see below.
- **Compound-complex:** Contains 3 or more clauses (of which at least two are independent and one is dependent).
  - I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats because they make her sneeze.
  - You can write on paper, but using a computer is better as you can easily correct your mistakes.
  - A tree fell onto the school roof in a storm, but none of the students was injured, although many of them were in classrooms at the top of the building.

Government and binding rules

Government and Binding refers to a specific approach to linguistic theory It followed from Extended Standard Theory in transformational grammar . There are important differences with previous approach: it actually consists of a set of theories that interact (Government and Binding being two of them) in the sense that it focuses on principles rather than rules. Noam Chomsky presents several GB theories: X Theory , ¯ θ Theory, Case Theory, Binding Theory Bounding Theory, Control Theory, Government Theory.

Each theory studies principles of rules and representations that are a subsystem of UG They may affect different levels of language (d-structure, s-structure or LF) All have in common that they operate on syntactic structures This leads to interactions between the theories that can get quite complex, even if principles are kept simple Hope: if interactions between simple principles may lead to complex properties, this may explain why language is complex but easily learned

X Theory forms the basis of syntactic structure in the ¯ transformational tradition Government plays a central role in the theory, because it provides the conditions for principles of other theories to apply (e.g. case and θ-assignment, binding) They are the only two theories in GB that do not (directly) relate to specific phenomen

X-bar theory was developed in the seventies to design phrase structures in a more theoretically sound way It ended up addressing several issues: 1 stronger generalization than previously used PSG 2 introducing a structural difference between complements and modifiers 3 removing a redundancy between lexical contribution and the contribution of PS-rules .

Functional relationships between parts of phrases and sentences;

Understanding the multiple uses of words, phrases and clauses

Phrases, Clauses and Sentences are the most important structural units of language. They provide structure and meaning to almost all the languages. The phrases and clauses provide a sense to a sentence. Here we will discuss this and learn about the constituents of a sentence structure with the help of interesting example sentence for each.

A complete understanding of the structural parameters is crucial to the understanding of the meaning of sentences. Here we will study all of the three components of a sentence structure, one by one. Let us begin with phrases. ny group of meaningful words that don't make complete sense is a phrase. If taken alone i.e. without other words, it will not be meaningful at all.preposition and a However, a phrase occurs inside a sentence as its structural part.

Some of the examples of phrases are: in ten steps, the great man, a pink flower, the thick canopy, expansion term, etc. Phrases are of several types as follows:

- **Prepositional Phrase:** This group of words begin with a preposition. The preposition precedes a noun or a pronoun or something which acts as a noun or a pronoun. Let us see some examples. Eid is **a wonderful occasion.** She was lost **at sea.** I am writing this essay **for the entire class.** The entire prepositional phrase acts as an adverb or an adjective most of the times.

- **Noun Phrase:** This is a phrase that acts as a noun in a sentence. A noun or a pronoun and its modifiers make up a noun phrase. For example, The man takes **a bus every day to work.** Arif has **a very beautiful bag with him.**

- **Verb Phrase:** This phrase will contain a main verb and one or more helping verb. These two will have a link that connects them together. This phrase will define the various times of the action in a sentence. For example, The car **is moving** in a circle. Will he **be eating** the entire buffet? How **are you doing?** These are some of the common examples and the structure is auxiliary/modal verb + auxiliary verb + auxiliary verb + main verb (as in the sentence above).

Clause

A clause is also a group of words but this group must contain the subject and a predicate. Hence, a clause can make complete sense even when present outside the sentence. A clause

is that part of a sentence that contains the subject and the predicate. For example, **I have a dog**. The **snow is falling** since yesterday. Clauses are of following types:

- **Main or Independent Clause:** The main clause is that part of a sentence that not only contains the subject and the predicate but also makes perfect sense if we take it out of the sentence. in other words we can say that this clause does not need a context to make sense. For example, **China is growing at a very fast rate** and **this has surprised many economists**. The clauses in bold are independent clauses.
- **Subordinate or Dependent Clause:** A subordinate or a dependent clause must also contain the subject and the predicate. The only condition is that these kinds of clauses won't make proper sense without another clause. The dependent clause depends on the main clause for deriving a proper meaning. Let us see some examples: The country is going **from bad to worse.** Asif has a dog **who can stand on two legs.** That is the umbrella **which I bought online.** Iran has a very beautiful culture **which is also one of the oldest cultures in the world.** The words in bold are the subordinate clauses.

Sentence and Sentence Structure

We define a sentence as a collection of words that make a certain intended sense. The definition is also sometimes put as a collection or group of words that make sense to a reader. Grammatically, we say that a sentence must have a predefined structure. A sentence may contain a subject, a predicate, verbs and auxiliary verbs etc.

A sentence could be a command, a statement, an exclamation, a question. It has a main clause and sometimes many clauses with at least one main clause. The sentence has to end with a full stop and must have a finite verb in it. For example: Wait here. Put it on. I am a very strong person but I also need to know more. The sentence structure has the following basic parts:

- Subject: About which something is being said.
- Predicate: Tells us something about the subject.
- Direct object: A person or thing that is affected by the verb.

- Indirect object: Usually followed by direct objects.
- The object of the preposition: Functions as a noun or pronoun and comes right after the preposition.
- Verbs: Indicates action, the occurrence of something or state of being.
- Phrases: Makes sense but not complete sense, thus can't stand alone.
- Complements: It provides complete meaning to a subject, an object or a verb.

Transitive and intransitive predication;

Verbs in English follow one or both of the [VERB + OBJECT] or [VERB + ZERO OBJECT] patterns. These patterns describe the function of "transitive" and "intransitive" verbs.

A transitive verb follows the pattern [VERB + OBJECT], and an intransitive verb follows the pattern [VERB + ZERO OBJECT]

Usage

The terms "transitive" and "intransitive" refer to how verbs operate in a sentence. If someone said "I like very much," most speakers of English would feel that the sentence was missing something. They might think, "Huh?—like WHAT very much??" Unconsciously, English speakers know the verb "like" operates *transitively* and requires some kind of object to follow it. In the dictionary, all verb senses are marked as either "transitive" or "intransitive." Some verbs have only transitive meanings and some have only intransitive meanings. Many verbs have both types. When we call a verb's particular meaning "**transitive**," we mean it is ***always*** **followed by a specifically stated direct object**.

With a transitive verb, one can always ask a question like "What are you eating?" or "What did you eat?" and get an answer—even if the answer is just "nothing." Even in the

question, there is a stated object–the word "what"–that takes the grammatical place of the specific thing that is eaten.

On the other hand, in the sentence "Don't talk to him while he's eating," the verb "eat" is used *intransitively*. Nothing following the verb tells us what this person is eating. Of course, he has to be eating *something* if he's actually eating, but the verb "eat" can be used intransitively without any statement of what is being consumed. The fact that "eat" can be used either transitively (with a stated object) or intransitively (without a stated object) is an important quality of this particular verb.

Intransitive Verbs with No Objects

Verbs used intransitively often have no object in real life. You can see this in the following examples that use intransitive verbs. (Note that other *words* can follow an intransitive verb, but *no objects*–nothing that would answer the question "what" or "whom.")

Example: *She hesitated for a minute. / The tree fell/ Population grew/ The water is running.*

Notice, though, that with a change in meaning some of these same verbs can be used *transitively*:

Example: We grew tomatoes last year/ he is running the business.

The transitive sentence focuses on both the action of eating and on the toast being eaten. The intransitive sentence focuses only on the action and ignores what's being consumed.

The intransitive sentence answers questions like "What are you doing?" or "Are you busy?" The transitive sentence more likely answers questions such as "What are you eating?" or "Why do I hear crunching?"

Noting whether a verb follows a transitive pattern [VERB + OBJECT] or an intransitive pattern [VERB + ZERO OBJECT] is important for learners to avoid using a transitive verb without any kind of object ("I like very much") or using an object directly after an intransitive verb ("I apologized him"). Moreover, intransitive senses of a verb often differ in meaning from transitive senses. Even if the meaning of the verb itself is essentially the same ("eat"), the focus using an intransitive verb differs when the same verb is transitive.

When we show in the dictionary that an essentially transitive verb can be used intransitively (or vice versa), we explicitly show that this change in focus is possible. If there are no intransitive senses included in the dictionary entry for a verb, the verb is not used in that way. Similarly, if there are no transitive senses, it means that the verb is not used transitively.

Syntactic functions and analysis.

Syntactic analysis may be defined as: 1- determining the relevant components of a sentence 2- describing these parts grammatically. •The component parts of a sentence are called constituents.

'SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS' involves two related tasks: (a) breaking down the sentence into its constituents (b) labeling each constituent, stating what type (form)of constituent constituent it is, and what grammatical function it has.

Every sentence can be analyzed at four distinct levels: 1. the sentence– level, 2. the clause–level, 3. the phrase–level and 4. the word–level. • This is called the rank scale. •

SENTENCE ↔ CLAUSE ↔ PHRASE ↔ WORD ↔ MORPHEME •

We can represent the categorical constituent structure of the sentence in terms of labeled brackets /tree diagram. • Analyzing the following sentence: "The snake killed the

rat and swallowed it" (1a) First level: Sentence level [The snake killed the rat and swallowed it] (1b) Second level: Clause level [[The snake killed the rat] and [swallowed it]]

When we analyze a sentence, we take it apart to determine what function each unit in the sentence has. This process is known as **parsing** a sentence. You can probably do some basic parsing already, even if you have never heard of the term. For example, if you can identify the subject of a sentence, you have analyzed the sentence and identified the role of one important item in it.Each sentence consists of **constituents**. A constituent is any word or group of words that functions together as an entity. Most rules of syntax do not, in fact, apply to individual words but to larger constituents. There is no limit, in principle, to the size of a constituent. It may be one or two words, or it may be hundreds of words long.

At its heart, grammatical analysis involves deciding what the constituents are in a sentence. Syntax consists of the rules by which different constituents relate to one another, so constituency is the central issue in grammatical analysis, and in interpreting sentences in general. The most important constituents we'll be working with are phrases, clauses, and sentences.The constituent that we will see most is the **phrase**. A phrase consists of a single main word, called the **head** of the phrase, and other words that modify or give grammatical information about the head. These other words in the phrase are called the phrase's **attributes**. Informally, we might say that the head word is the main idea of the phrase.

Example: Romania's proposal at the conference

The phrase in the example is talking about a kind of proposal.*Romania* and *at the conference* tell us what specific proposal we're talking about. *Proposal*, therefore is the head word.[1]

The lexical category of the phrase's head gives its name to phrase. Thus a noun is the head of a noun phrase (abbreviated NP), a verb the head of a verb phrase (VP), and so forth. Since *proposal* is a noun, (2) is a noun phrase.

Labels like NP, VP, etc, tell us the structural **form** of a constituent. Form alone, however, does not tell us everything about how a constituent works in the sentence. We must also consider its **function**.

Example: Her dog chases rabbits.

For example, *her dog* and *rabbits* in this example are both noun phrases, but they have different functions in the sentence. Although we haven't yet specified these functional roles, we can already see that each noun phrase has a different role in the sentence. The dog is doing the chasing, and the rabbits are being chased. The role of *her dog* is probably already familiar to you: it serves as the subject of this sentence. *Rabbits* plays a role known as the direct object, which we will study in the next chapter.

Notice that in discussing these roles, we are invoking the meaning of the sentence. They are, in other words, **semantic roles**, and they are not the same thing as **grammatical roles** like subject and direct object. Grammatical roles are defined by structural relationships within the sentence, semantic roles by relationships of meaning.

The form of a constituent, its grammatical function, and its semantic function, do not exist in one-to-one relationships. We will see many instances as we proceed where there are prototypical relationships. For example, subjects prototypically are NPs and actors. But as soon as you start to generalize and assume, for example, that subjects are always actors, you will get into trouble. You will save yourself a great deal of confusion if you distinguish form, grammatical function and semantic function carefully..

Clauses

A **clause** is a constituent consisting of two parts: a **subject** and a **predicate**. The concepts of subject and predicate are probably already familiar to you from your earlier schooling. In terms of meaning, we can say that the subject is the part of the clause about which something is asserted, and the predicate makes that assertion. These definitions are vague, and eventually we will need to be more precise..

Sentences

Traditional grammar books, especially in their early chapters, often give the definition for the clause that we used in the previous section as the definition for a sentence. That simplification works for simple sentences, which often consist of only a single clause, but will not hold up under scrutiny:

(1) George seems quite relieved.
(2) It's obvious George seems quite relieved.
(3) George seems quite relieved, but his brother remains uneasy.

In each example, *George seems quite relieved* is a clause. But only in (1) is the clause equivalent to the sentence. In (2), the clause is embedded into a larger sentence. It is known as a *subordinate clause*. In example (3), the clause is linked by coordination to another clause, but neither one is contained inside the other. In the next few chapters, we will be dealing with simple, one-clause sentences like (1), but it's important to keep in mind that real sentences frequently contain more than one clause. We will return to multi-clause sentences after developing an understanding of basic clauses.

III. SPECIALIZED LANGUAGES IN BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT- A MULTI PERSPECTIVE APPROACH

The concept of "specialized language" Specialized language is the language used in a specific field or relevant to and characteristic of an industry. Specialized language is also intended to mean one that differs from the general language by specialized expressions and specific terminology. Specialized languages, together with the spoken language, dialects and regional variants, constitute the countrywide language of a nation. Specialized languages are based on and constantly interact with the general language. The specialized language contains characteristic words and expressions, as well as foreign words (loanwords) / internationalisms primarily from the specific terminology. This language is almost unusable outside its intended field, or individual words from it may have a completely different meaning in the colloquial language. The grammar and even

intonation may also differ! Specialized languages belong to the standardized language variants. They also perform the function of group languages and spoken languages among specialists from the respective industry, however the aforementioned standardization distinguish them from other non-standardized languages of population groups in different regions and from the colloquial language. Each term used in a certain specialized language is called Terminus technicus. The totality of all terms constitutes its terminology. Many terms undergo changes as a result of the rapid development of science. The professional language used in various scientific fields is changing also because of the increasingly growing number of foreign words seeping into it, mostly from the English language. Specialized terms can be found in dictionaries compiled specifically for a particular field (economic, medical, legal, etc.). The different types of dictionaries contain either a straightforward translation, or include explanations and interpretations of the terms.

The first precondition for studying a specialized foreign language is the students' good understanding of the theory in their mother tongue. The in-depth knowledge of the specific problems and vocabulary/terminology of a certain field in the mother tongue would be a solid ground for those undertaking to master these in a foreign language.

The specialized language, as is well known, contains a large volume of terms and mastering it is a very demanding task. Great effort and diligence are required, and the personal motivation is the main driving force. That is why it is so important for the teacher to consider very carefully his/her teaching strategies and select the appropriate methods to be used. In principle, it is advisable to include conversation-oriented exercises and tasks in the specialized language training. This involves teaching methods which stimulate the students and train them to cope by themselves with some assignments. Central among these methods are the ordinary repetitions, variations and finally students' own language production in improvised role plays. Dialog exercises are particularly appropriate for achieving this objective. Listening, understanding and adequate language reactions in a given situation should become routine. Their automation can be facilitated by including strategies employing pantomime or game elements. Developing conversational skills and creating own language production (oral and written) are two of the main objectives that should play a main role in teaching. It is also necessary to develop exercises for team work such as production of educational posters, organizing discussions

(possibly beyond the scope of the relevant field), suggestions for project work and essay writing requiring selection of necessary materials from the Internet or other sources. Relevance to the practice At the beginning of each subject/chapter of the textbook it is appropriate to suggest a practical situation through which the learning process aimed at achieving active conversational activity would be greatly facilitated. With the help of this situation the students would imperceptibly delve into the new target subject. Only their belief that the subject studied will be useful and is based on the actual practice would allow them to achieve the desired end result. Gradual introduction to the specifics Language teachers in universities of economics need to constantly follow the latest and newest ideas, theories and trends in the theory and practice of corporate management, marketing, tourism, banking, accounting, etc., and then gradually in- Articles 73 troduce them to the students. A guiding principle is to start from the lighter language material and from there gradually expand and deepen the knowledge. The application of European law influenced by the processes of expansion and unification should also be taken into account. This applies mainly to corporate management and the choice of legal form of the enterprise. In the specialized foreign language classes teachers should further take into account the influence of the internal European market on the national economy of the individual Member States and the current trends in this area. For example, they may discuss how the economic activity is influenced by policies related to environmental protection, and by social problems. Due attention should be given also to intercultural aspects and specifics. Here the starting point could be the relationships existing on the European and American market. Information regarding the typical German economic reality could be given by the teacher primarily through real practical examples taken from the German economy, or statements made by leading German managers, and through topical texts, specially prepared and if necessary adapted for the purpose of language learning. The leading principle in their selection should be the gradual introduction to the specifics and the practicing of specialized terminology through examples taken directly from the economic reality, but appropriate for the level of the language learners. This approach gives good results and is suitable for use in the language teaching process. Methods of teaching and practicing the specialized international vocabulary The task of teaching specialized terminology is always oriented to taking decisions and concrete steps and is invariably associated with a particular scientific field. To achieve these ambitious goals the teacher needs to develop specific strategies reflected in specially

designed exercises. The technical terms should always be defined and, if necessary, interpreted in detail.

- Impact of globalisation on intercultural communication within specialised communities of practice;

The status of LSP (Languages for Specialised Purposes) in the global expansion of social activities with the aim of operating internationally has been one ongoing central issue of scholarly debate for the past decade. It has raised concern on multiple theoretical and practical aspects related to LSP, namely, modes of communication practice in different professional and institutional domains, acquisition and mastery of communicative competence in foreign languages, development of both linguistic and cultural awareness, and responsiveness to international and cross-cultural communication. Specialised languages in the global village. A multiperspective approach is a collection of essays that assesses how the phenomenon of globalisation has problematised and will certainly keep on problematising intercultural communication within specialised communities of practice. Unquestionably, modern languages play a prominent role in this scenario, with English being, to date, the established lingua franca for international communication worldwide. The multi-perspective approach to the top.

In my workbook that is complementary to the course, drawing on myr extensive experience as a materials writer, I offered an account of the process of planning, developing, piloting, and eventually validating tailor-made materials for the learning of English in domain-specific fields.

A wealth of data attests to the fact that English has become a dominant lingua franca in the world of business playing a key role not just in the internal corporate communication of transnational corporations but in external communication with customers and shareholders. Crystal (2003), for example, claims that over 90% of European companies use English as a working language, while Erling and Walton (2007, 39) in a survey of 7 Berlin-based subsidiaries of multinational corporations found that English was widely used alongside German in a variety of functions and had become ‘a necessary basic qualification’ not just for top management as previously but also for lower levels of the corporate hierarchy.

Among the multinational companies (MNCs) known or reported to have adopted English as a corporate language are such well-known names as Olivetti, Siemens, Daimler-Chrysler, Avensis,2 EADS, Kone, Deutsche Bank, Stora Enso, and Nissan-Renault. It is important, however, to qualify this picture of a seemingly ubiquitous English if only because the complexity of the business world makes it necessary to distinguish between local, national and international companies, between company internal and external communication with their different addressees, and between formal written and the more informal spoken genres of business communication, all of which variables influence the degree to which English is used with whom.

Given this dominance, the economic importance of the business sector, and the number of individuals involved, it is hardly surprising that business English has emerged as one of the most important branches of English for Specific Purposes, well served by a flourishing market of textbooks, materials and innumerable courses. Writing in 1996, St. John argues that business English teaching is primarily materials rather than research-driven. But the picture has changed somewhat since then. Research has gathered pace and there is now a substantial empirical literature on business communication in English, very largely based, it has to be said, on discourse and genre approaches but also informed, though perhaps to a lesser degree, by pragmatic and intercultural frameworks.

The written genres most commonly investigated are company emails, business letters and promotional genres such as advertisements . As for speaking, where there has been a noticeable heightening of interest over recent years, the genres particularly well-investigated include business meetings and business negotiations. Meanwhile, there has also been a growth of interest in intercultural aspects of business communication though culture in this literature is sometimes rather narrowly and simplistically conceived in terms of reified national cultures that are then held to influence communication strategies and patterns. Alongside this body of research on business communication, there is also increased reference to English as a lingua franca in business contexts (we will practice all of these in the workbook)

IV. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL CONTEXTS

Understanding and producing language involves complex patterns of uncertain inference, from processing noisy and partial speech input to lexical identification, syntactic and semantic analysis, to language interpretation in context. Acquiring language involves uncertain inference from linguistic and other data, to infer language structure. These uncertain inferences are naturally framed using probability theory: the calculus of uncertainty. Historically, probabilistic approaches to language are associated with simple models of language structure (e.g., local dependencies between words); but, across the cognitive sciences technical advances have reduced this type of limitation. Probabilistic methods are also often associated with empiricist views of language acquisition — but the framework is equally compatible with nativism — that there are prior constraints on the class of language models. Indeed, as we have seen, probabilistic analysis may provide one line of attack (alongside the empirical investigation of child language) for assessing the relative contribution of innate constraints and corpus input, in language acquisition. Overall, probabilistic methods provide a rich framework for theorising about language structure, processing, and acquisition, which may prove valuable in developing, and contrasting between, a wide range of theoretical perspectives..

What is Discourse? What is Text?

The two famous linguists, Crystal (1992) and Cook(1989) offer one definition each on the terms:

> **1."Discourse:** A continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon argument joke or narrative" (Crystal 1992:25)
> **2. "Discourse:** stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified and purposive" (Cook 1989:156)
>
> 1. "**text:** A piece of naturally occurring spoken, written, or signed discourse identified for purposes of analysis. It is often a language unit with a definable communicative function, such as a conversation, a poster." (Crystal 1992:72)

2. "**text:** a stretch of language interpreted formally, without context" (Cook 1989:158)

According to other linguists (G. Nunan, for instance), a piece of discourse consists of more than one sentence and the sentences necessarily have to combine to form a meaningful whole to be called a piece of discourse (1993:6). He also claims the existence of so-called **text-forming devices,** (highlighted and underlined in the text excerpt below) to be responsible for connecting sentences together to form a meaningful whole and to distinguish them from random sentences.

Discourse analysis, in particular, describes investigating the structural mechanisms a writer has to deal with when articulating his message. A speaker, in contrast, once getting the turn[3] has to organise what he intends to say, consider what the other participants of the conversation know and do not know, as well as sequence everything in a coherent way (Yule 1996:83). But when writing a message down instead of talking to other people, the speaker (who is now the writer) has to consider the absence of the listeners' immediate interactive feedback, which makes his message more complex to organise.

In other words, l*anguage has an interpersonal function,* (e. g. taking part in social interaction), it has a *textual function,* (e. g. creating well-formed and appropriate text) and an *ideational function,* (e. g. representing thought and experience in a coherent way).

The analysis of discourse shares its quest with a number of disciplines in which language occupies a prominent position being the principal means of human communication

This overlap is, as Schiffrin (1994) points out, obviously due to the arduousness of describing language in isolation:

It is difficult to separate language from the rest of the world. It is this ultimate inability to separate language from how it is used in the world in which we live that provides the most basic reason for the interdisciplinary basis of discourse analysis. To understand the language of discourse, then, we need to understand the world in which it resides; and to understand the world in which language resides, we need to go outside of linguistics. (Schiffrin as cited in Widdowson, 1996, p. 110)

The construction of discourse itself involves several processes that operate simultaneously. Probing into this construction requires analytical tools that derive from linguistics, sociology, psychology, anthropology, and even philosophy, according to the nature of these processes. Being informed by approaches in such fields gives DA an interdisciplinary nature and makes it a wide-ranging and a heterogeneous branch of linguistics with a medley of theoretical perspectives and analytical methods depending on the aspect of anguage being emphasised.

Another aspecct that should be taken into account and analysed along with the contextual discourse is paralinguistics which are the aspects of spoken communication that do not involve words. These may add emphasis or shades of meaning to what people say. Some definitions limit this to verbal communication that is not words such as body language, gestures, facial expressions, tone and pitch of voice are all examples of paralinguistic features.

In the classroom paralinguistic features of language are extremely important as they can change message completely. Tone and pitch of voice is commonly dealt with at all language levels, but a fuller consideration of paralinguistics is often left to very advanced courses. Paralinguistic features in verbal communication are the vocal signals beyond the basic verbal message. Paralinguistic elements in a person's speech convey meaning beyond the words and grammar used. Examples of paralinguistic features include pitch, rate, quality of voice and amplitude.

Forms of paralanguage can also include laughter or imitative speech. Prosody, which is the rhythm, pattern, stress and intonation of a person's speech, is also a form of paralanguage.

People express meaning not just in what they say but in the way they say it. The paralinguistic features employed by a speaker provide nuanced meaning, communicate attitudes and convey emotion.

Paralinguistic features alert the listener as to how to interpret the message. Many of these paralinguistic features are culturally coded and inherent in verbal communication, often at a subconscious level. For example, a normal volume of speaking

in the United States is perceived as aggressive in many other societies. Often, though, people consciously utilize paralanguage. For example, when someone is saying something sarcastically, he or she may adjust the intonations used. Some linguists and people who study communications expand the scope of paralinguistic features to include non-vocal components as well, such as facial expressions, body positioning and movements, and hand gestures.

Discourse markers

Discourse markers are words and phrases used in speaking and writing to 'signpost' discourse. Discourse markers do this by showing turns, joining ideas together, showing attitude, and generally controlling communication. Some people regard discourse markers as a feature of spoken language only.

For example, words like 'actually', 'so', 'OK', 'right?' and 'anyway' all function as discourse markers as they help the speaker to manage the conversation and mark when it changes.
Discourse markers are an important feature of both formal and informal native speaker language. The skilful use of discourse markers often indicates a higher level of fluency and an ability to produce and understand authentic language. We will find many exercisies the practice the use of discourse markers.

Functions of Discourse Markers

"Although somewhat dated, [this list of functions based on Laurel J. Brinton (1990:47f)] is still relevant to current studies of **discourse markers**. According to this list, **discourse markers** are used:

- to initiate discourse,
- to mark a boundary in discourse (shift/partial shift in topic),
- to preface a response or a reaction,
- to serve as a filler or delaying tactic,

- to aid the speaker in holding the floor,
- to effect an interaction or sharing between speaker and hearer,
- to bracket the discourse either cataphorically or anaphorically,- to mark either foregrounded or backgrounded information."(Simone Müller, *Discourse Markers in Native and Non-Native English Discourse*. John Benjamins, 2005)

For units 5,6,7and 8-refer to the volume Business Communication- Strategies and Practice.

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