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Selection and Organization of Grammatical Material

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Abstract

Grammar is the area of the language where the level of proficiency in the above-mentioned skills is most clearly manifested. Grammar is also the structure of language and turns it into speech. The study of the grammatical aspect is inevitable when mastering a foreign language. But, in turn, mastering the grammar of any language causes many difficulties, which are aggravated by grammatical terms, rules and an infinite number of exceptions. All this usually does not cause delight among most students of educational institutions.

Key Words: *grammar, grammatical minimum, material, methodological value, methodological literature.*

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For practical purposes of teaching a foreign language in secondary school, the task of teaching grammar is to form students' grammatical skills in productive and receptive types of speech activity within the grammatical minimum defined by the programs.

The communicative purpose of grammar teaching in secondary school allows us to formulate the main requirement for the volume of grammatical material to be assimilated in secondary school: it must be sufficient for using the language as a means of communication within the limits set by the program and real for mastering it in these conditions.

The need to limit linguistic, including grammatical, material is due to the following objective factors.

In the conditions of secondary school, there is no real opportunity for students to master the entire grammatical structure of this particular foreign language due to its vastness and the difficulty of forming grammatical skills.

Recently, the point of view has become widespread, according to which special importance is attached to involuntary memorization of grammatical phenomena in speech, which allegedly makes purposeful and special work on grammatical phenomena unnecessary.

In this case, there is an unlawful identification of two processes: memorization and mastery of grammatical phenomena. Memorization is one of the stages of mastering; the latter is possible only as a result of special, purposeful training.

If we keep in mind that the creation of grammatical skills involves spending a significant amount of time to perform exercises, then it is unlikely to master all the phenomena of a foreign language to the extent of automated use of them in the conditions of school teaching a foreign language. Certain, very significant restrictions are necessary in the selection of grammatical material and, above all, those grammatical phenomena that students should actively master — in productive and receptive types of speech activity.

Overestimation of the volume of actively assimilated grammatical material, as practice shows, has a negative effect on the quality of its possession: students are not sufficiently proficient in the most elementary phenomena of morphology and syntax.

The restriction of grammatical material and its selection for certain communicative purposes is facilitated by the fact that the language has a widely developed system of synonymy at all its levels, which generates redundancy, “entropy”, while, as noted in the scientific literature, with all the richness of the language, only an insignificant, most commonly used part of it is the most necessary and sufficient. Therefore, it is possible and advisable to limit the amount of material, in particular grammatical, taking into account the specific conditions of teaching a foreign language [1].

The methodological literature has developed the basic principles of the selection of the grammatical minimum.

The active grammatical minimum includes those phenomena that are absolutely necessary for productive types of speech activity.

The main generally accepted principles of selection in the active grammatical minimum are:

- 1) the principle of prevalence in oral speech,
- 2) the principle of excellence,
- 3) the principle of exclusion of synonymous phenomena.

The main principles of the selection of grammatical phenomena in the passive minimum include:

- 1) the principle of prevalence in the book-written style of speech;
- 2) the principle of ambiguity.

Grammatical material should be organized functionally, i.e. so that grammatical phenomena are organically combined with lexical ones in communicative units with a volume of at least a sentence [2].

Some methodologists distinguish between a language model and its speech embodiment — speech models. The latter are nothing more than a communicative and situational implementation of a language model in a specific situation of speech communication. Since speech is always either situational or contextual, unlike the language model, it is always logically and intonationally defined. A speech model or a speech pattern differs from a language model, firstly, by a specific situational or contextual lexical content, secondly, by logical stress and rhythmic-intonation pattern due to the type of sentence (narrative, motivational), thirdly, by a specific morphological design of sentence members in accordance with the norms of this language.

The special methodological value of the speech sample is that it organically combines various aspects of the language—grammatical, lexical, phonetic (in oral speech) or graphic (in writing) — into a ready-to-use speech whole, namely a sentence in accordance with the norms of the language being studied and relieves students from the need to construct it according to the rules and based on a translation from the native language, which often does not provide an error-free construction due to the discrepancy in the linguistic design of the same thought in the native and foreign languages. But it is impossible not to point out the negative consequences of the purely structural organization of language material when teaching monologue and dialogic speech. Such a structural-functional approach to the organization of grammatical material can be defined more precisely as a formal-structural approach, which ignores such qualities of speech as means of communication, as its logical-semantic (thematic, plot, etc.) coherence. With this approach, vocabulary plays a service role in mastering syntactic structures or speech patterns, it is a substitute material for filling these structures that are not related to each other communicatively, i.e. in logical and semantic terms [3].

There is another extreme approach in the methodology — a lexical (or thematic, situational) approach to the organization of language material, which manifests itself in the fact that at the very beginning they teach meaningful, communicative, full-fledged (natural) speech. At the same time, the grammatical aspect of speech

"dissolves" into the lexical one, and therefore the grammatical correctness of speech is determined by random factors, for example, the nature of involuntary memorization, which is different for different students.

One of the main problems of the organization and sequence of the study of grammatical material is the methodically expedient combination of two sides of speech — substantive (primarily lexical) and grammatical (formal).

In the methodological literature, there is an attempt to solve the problem of teaching formal and substantive aspects of speech by a step—by-step sequence of mastering the material in a complex organization: at the first — structural-thematic - stage, students master new grammatical material on previously studied, thematically related vocabulary. At the second — thematically-structural stage, the main attention is paid to the new vocabulary on the topic based on previously learned structures. It is quite possible to introduce a certain amount of new grammatical material. At the third — intertemic — stage, conditions are created for the creative and correct recombination of previously learned and studied lexical and grammatical material in oral and written speech in intertemic communication situations.

Methodically unjustified are three extreme tendencies in solving the problem of the relationship between grammatical and lexical

aspects in the complex when organizing the material:

1) underestimating the importance of the complex organization of language material (vocabulary and grammar are studied separately from each other);

2) ignoring the features of grammatical and lexical aspects of the language in their complex study;

3) orientation to any one (grammatical or lexical) aspect of the language with formal observance of the complex [4].

A unilateral solution to this problem makes it difficult for students to learn foreign languages as a full-fledged means of communication.

As already noted, the organization of grammatical material is important for the formation of grammatical skills included in the skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Thus, at the structural and thematic-structural stages, favorable conditions are created for the formation of syntactic skills both at the level of individual structures and at the level of coherent, elementary dialogical and monological speech due to the fact that it allows you to purposefully train sentence structures not only individually, but also in thematic connection with each other. The intertemic stage has a positive effect on the formation and improvement of speech (monological and dialogical) skills, as well as reading skills and untranslated understanding of coherent texts.

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ICT: Concept and Types

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Abstract

This article is about consideration of the didactic possibilities of modern information technologies, as well as the design of an electronic training course aimed at studying English grammar.
Key Words: *ICT, virtual reality, hardware, devices, software tools.*

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Information technologies of training are all technologies using special technical means (computers, audio, cinema, and video). When computers became widely used in the educational process, the term "new information technology of learning" appeared. But some researchers emphasize that it is possible to talk about a new information technology of teaching only if it satisfies the basic principles of pedagogical technology (preliminary design, reproducibility, integrity, etc.), solves problems that have not been theoretically or practically solved before, and if the means of transmitting information to the student is computer and information technology.

Information and communication technologies (ICT) are "a wide range of digital technologies used to create, transmit and distribute information and provide services".

ICTs include: Computers, personal computers; sets of terminal equipment for computers of all classes, local computer networks, information input/output devices, means of entering and manipulating text and graphic information, means of archival storage of large amounts of information and other peripheral equipment of modern computers; devices for converting data from graphic or audio forms of data representation into digital and vice versa; means and devices for manipulating audiovisual information (based on multimedia technology and "Virtual Reality" systems); modern means of communication; artificial intelligence systems; machine graphics systems, software complexes (programming languages, translators, compilers, operating systems,

application software packages, etc.), etc.

The acceleration of scientific and technological progress, based on the introduction of flexible automated systems, microprocessor tools and software control devices, robots and processing centers into production, has set an important task for modern pedagogical science – to educate and prepare the younger generation capable of actively engaging in a qualitatively new stage of development of modern society associated with informatization. The solution of the above-mentioned task – the fulfillment of the social order of society - fundamentally depends both on the technical equipment of educational institutions with electronic computing equipment with appropriate peripheral equipment, educational, demonstration equipment operating on the basis of ICT, and on the readiness of students to perceive the ever-increasing flow of information, including educational [1].

The widespread use of information resources, which are the product of intellectual activity of the most qualified part of the able-bodied population of society, determines the need to prepare a creatively active reserve in the younger generation. For this reason, it becomes urgent to develop certain methodological approaches to the use of ICT to implement the ideas of developmental learning, the development of the student's personality. In particular, for the development of the individual's creative potential, the formation of the learner's ability to predict the results of their activities, to develop a

strategy for finding ways and methods of solving problems - both educational and practical [2].

Equally important is the task of providing psychological, pedagogical and methodological developments aimed at identifying optimal conditions for the use of ICT in order to intensify the educational process, improve its efficiency and quality.

The relevance of the above is determined not only by the social order, but also by the individual's needs for self-determination and self-expression in the conditions of a modern society of informatization.

Modern ICT tools can be used as:

Means of teaching, improving the teaching process, increasing its effectiveness and quality. At the same time, it provides:

- the implementation of the capabilities of software and methodological support of modern PCs, etc. for the purpose of communicating knowledge, modeling educational situations. implementation of training, monitoring of learning outcomes;
- the use of object-oriented software or systems (for example, text preparation systems, spreadsheets, databases) in order to form a culture of educational activity;
- realization of the capabilities of artificial intelligence systems in the process of using intelligent learning systems [3].

A tool for cognition of the surrounding reality and self-knowledge. Means of developing the personality of the student. The object of study (for example, as part of the development of a computer science course). Means of information and methodological support and

management of the educational process. educational institutions, the system of educational institutions. Means of communication (for example, on the basis of asynchronous telecommunications) in order to disseminate advanced pedagogical technologies.

Automation of control processes, correction of learning outcomes, computer pedagogical testing and psychodiagnostics.

Automation tools for processing experimental results (laboratory, demonstration) and control of educational equipment. Means of organizing intellectual leisure, educational games.

All ICT tools used in the education system can be divided into two types: hardware and software.

Hardware:

A computer is a universal information processing device. The printer allows you to record on paper information found and created by students or a teacher for students. For many school applications, a color printer is desirable.

The projector increases the level of visibility in the teacher's work, as well as the ability to present the results of their work to the whole class to students.

The telecommunications unit gives access to Russian and world information resources, allows for distance learning and correspondence with other schools.

Devices for entering text information and manipulating screen objects: keyboard and mouse, the corresponding devices play a special role for students with motor problems, for example, with cerebral palsy.

Devices for recording (entering) visual and audio information (scanner, camera, video camera, audio and video recorder) make it possible to directly include information images of the surrounding world in the educational process.

Data recording devices (sensors with interfaces) significantly expand the class of physical, chemical, biological, and environmental processes included in education while reducing the study time spent on routine data processing.

Computer-controlled devices enable students of various levels of ability to master the principles and technologies of automatic control.

Intra-classroom and intra-school networks allow for more efficient use of available information, technical and temporary (human) resources, provide shared access to the global information network

Audio-video tools provide an effective communicative environment for educational work and mass events.

Software tools:

General purpose and related hardware (drivers, etc.) make it possible to work with all kinds of information.

Information sources are organized information arrays - encyclopedias on CD-ROMs, information sites and Internet search engines, including specialized ones for educational applications.

Virtual constructors allow you to create visual and symbolic models of mathematical and physical reality and conduct experiments with these models.

Simulators allow you to practice automatic skills of working with information objects: entering text,

operating with graphic objects on the screen, etc. [4].

Test environments allow you to design and apply automated tests in which a student receives a task in whole or in part via a computer, and the result of completing the task is also fully or partially evaluated by a computer.

Complex training packages (electronic textbooks) are combinations of the above types of software tools that automate the learning process to the greatest extent in its traditional forms, are the most time-consuming to create, and most restrict the independence of the teacher and student [5].

Information management systems ensure the passage of information flows between all participants in the educational process: students, teachers, administration, parents, the public.

An expert system that uses the knowledge of a specialist expert to effectively solve problems in any subject area [6].

The breakthrough in the field of ICT, which is currently taking place, forces us to reconsider the issues of organizing information support for research activities. There are several ways to use information technology:

to search for literature

a) in the electronic catalog of the library of the educational institution;

b) on the Internet using browsers such as Internet Explorer, Mozilla Firefox, etc., various search engines (Yandex.ru , Rambler.ru , Mail.ru , Aport.ru , Google.ru , Metabot.ru , Search.com , Yahoo.com , Lycos.com etc.);

for working with literature during abstracting, taking notes, annotating, quoting, etc.;

for automatic translation texts using translation programs (PROMT XT), using electronic dictionaries (Abby Lingvo 7.0.);

for storing and accumulating information (CDs, DVDs, external magnetic disk drives, Flash drives);

for planning the research process (Microsoft Outlook management system);

for communicating with leading specialists (Internet, e-mail);

for processing and reproducing graphics and sound (Microsoft Media Player, WinAmp, Apollo, WinDVD,

zplayer, image viewer programs ACD See, PhotoShop, CorelDRAW, programs for creating diagrams, drawings and Visio graphs), etc.;

to promote and implement the results of the research (speeches in video forums, teleconferences, publications in the media, the Internet).

Information technologies can also assist in the creation of educational and educational films, cartoons, programs, social advertising commercials for television, educational computer programs, games, interactive travel, encyclopedias, etc. based on the results of research.

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The Use of Electronic Resources in Teaching English

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Abstract

This article deals with the use of electronic resources in teaching English. In addition, author provides several apps and resources which are effective in teaching English language.

Key Words: *Electronic educational resources, messengers, Blog, Skype, Zoom, TED, Podcasts.*

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One of the most important factors in improving and optimizing the educational process, enriching the methodology and techniques in teaching English is the use of the latest electronic educational resources. This aspect allows you to diversify the forms of lessons and make them more interesting and memorable for students.

To train active, conscious, responsible and constructive specialists in their field, it is necessary to introduce a modern educational process. Providing modern computers, electronic materials, textbooks and encyclopedias allows you to bring the educational process to a new level.

Electronic educational resources are classified into sources and tools of information. In the course of teaching English, it is necessary to use not only simple sources of information, such as sound, image, text, video materials, models, but also resources with a complex composition, including information sources that are interconnected using hyperlinks, such as, for example, multimedia encyclopedias. With the help of EER, students are given the opportunity to receive information from a variety of sources with various formats. These can be scanned texts and PDF, HTML files, as well as images, videos, maps, as well as e-books and encyclopedias, complete courses.

Today, modern youth lives in the world of social networks and large online entertainment platforms. The most successful online platforms, such as YouTube, Skype, Twitter, blogs and podcasting, have contributed to the development of the

latest methods and methods of teaching foreign languages.

In recent years, the process of teaching foreign languages, in particular English has undergone a radical reform. We believe that teaching a foreign language is based on five main activities:

1. Formation of teams that will interact using the Internet;
2. Focus on the interests and needs of the teacher and students in the course of learning a foreign language;
3. The use of reflection technology (reflection) in English lessons, designed to work in a particular profession;
4. Formation of a personal portfolio of a teacher;
5. Compilation of electronic materials for the educational process.

When completing tasks, students turn to the Internet for the necessary information, thus developing self-education and self-improvement skills. There are ample opportunities on the World Wide Web to search for any information necessary for participants in the educational process. In professional activity, Internet resources can be used as additional material and integrated into the training program. Electronic resources can contribute to the formation of students' ability to search for information during project work, both independently and in a team; development of skills of autodidacticism in a foreign language. With the help of EER, it is possible to fill in the undeveloped aspects of any subject or course. They are easy to exchange on the Internet.

It is necessary to highlight the Internet training (distance or online

training), which contributes to the formation of an interactive environment. The Internet is replete with websites specializing in teaching foreign languages, where there is content with video tutorials aimed at stimulating the development of core competencies: listening comprehension, speaking, writing and reading.

Teachers have at their disposal countless online tools designed to intensify the teaching of English, including:

1) E-mail and various messengers with which students can develop communication skills with native speakers of the language being studied (gmail, yahoo, hotmail, etc.), keep in touch with the teacher, exchange files with completed assignments. The teacher can evaluate the work and send students their feedback and recommendations, point out mistakes, discuss points they do not understand with students, etc.;

2) A blog is a public web page created for personal or professional purposes, to which all Internet users can have access. The authors of the blog post various resources on this page with a certain frequency in the form of text materials, drawings or multimedia files. Blog visitors are

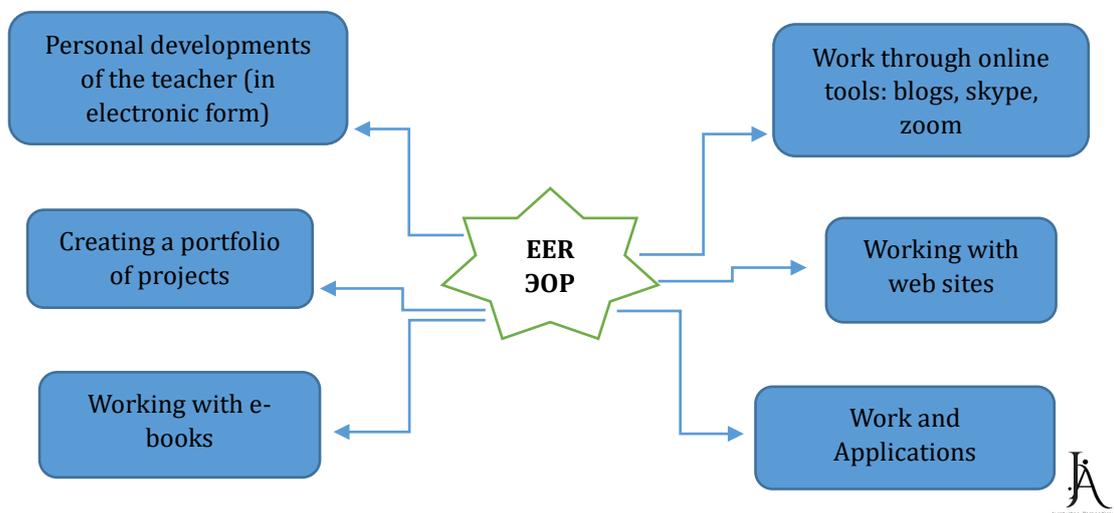
given the opportunity to discuss the available materials with the author of the blog;

3) Vlog (video blog) is a blog with content in video format;

4) Skype, Zoom platforms. It is known that modern software supports audio and video functions. These platforms allow you to conduct classes during distance learning, provide an opportunity for teachers and students to communicate through video. Thus, students can improve their communication skills and receive the necessary instructions and recommendations from the teacher.;

5) Smartphones and Ipods. Currently, it is impossible to imagine life without these gadgets that allow students to use a variety of mobile applications, consult websites aimed at improving pronunciation in English (<http://www.learnenglish.de>), for the development of translation skills (www.translate.ru/dictionary/en-ru/bingo), improving spelling (<http://www.lingualeo.com>), as well as improving colloquial speech.

Educational means of electronic educational resources include electronic textbooks, teaching aids and materials, visual aids, training programs with an interactive interface.



I would also like to pay due attention to listening as a component of language competence. According to experienced teachers, listening involves the greatest difficulties for foreign language learners, since during listening the student needs to understand the language material, content aspects, pay attention to information sources, take into account the specifics of the speaker's pronunciation (speech tempo, intonation, accent) [1]. The student's listening experience should also be taken into account. Despite these factors, mastering the listening skill contributes to improving students' knowledge of a foreign language, as listening allows students to better master the lexical and grammatical aspects of the language, improve the perception of the language by ear, gain knowledge about phonemic composition, rhythmic pattern, stress, intonation.

Without mastering the skill of recognizing foreign speech by ear, communication with native speakers of other languages is not possible. Unfortunately, in the course of classes, the teacher does not always manage to pay enough attention to listening. This often happens either due to an insufficient number of academic hours in the curriculum, or disinterest in this aspect, both on the part of the teacher and students.

The active distribution of Internet resources today contributes to the implementation of independent work by students. Next, we will consider in detail the latest developments of resources:

1. TED (Technology, Entertainment, Design) is a universal online platform with content in the

form of various conferences, where you can hear about 1,500 of the most popular lectures by highly qualified specialists in various fields, such as art, design, science, business, culture, politics, technology, entertainment. Users of the official website TED.com they can get acquainted with the recordings of outstanding speakers. This platform operates according to the following principle. At first, according to the "sound-text-sound" scheme, students watch the video without subtitles, and try to understand its content. Then, students, with the help of a teacher, analyze the video with subtitles in detail, and perform a number of tasks aimed at improving lexical and grammatical aspects. Subsequently, students re-watch the video, and with the simultaneous appearance of sound and image in their minds, the generalization of visual and auditory perception is carried out. Thus, students improve the competence of listening and conversational speech at the same time through the discussion of video material.

2. Ororo.tv [<https://ororo.tv/ru>]. This site contains a large number of foreign TV series and movies with subtitles, which can be activated and removed at the discretion of the viewer. In the process of watching films in the language being studied, students can significantly improve their knowledge, since such activities are based on the method of visibility, which is considered the main one when teaching foreign languages. Watching the film, the viewer unconsciously uses all kinds of speech communication. Each person perceives and remembers information using one of the types of

memory – visual, auditory and kinesthetic. According to scientists, simultaneous visual and auditory perception contributes to better memorization, and its effectiveness is five times higher than purely visual or purely auditory perception [2].

3. BBC Podcasts [3]. The BBC radio station, broadcasting its broadcasts in different languages and in many countries of the world, concentrates a large-scale flow of information. Listening to such materials brings great benefits for students. In the course of familiarization with the audio material, the listener is completely immersed in the atmosphere of the language being studied and is "included" in the information flow. Thus, the listener unwittingly uses his knowledge and skills in vocabulary and grammar, which are in his passive memory and are not used every day,

and also perceives the melody of the language by ear, remembers the features of authentic pronunciation, which will undoubtedly be useful to him in the process of communication.

It is also important that the podcasts of BBC Learning English – 6-minute English radio programs are recorded by native speakers, and thus students can get acquainted with the live English language used in English-speaking countries.

The use of electronic educational resources promotes the implementation of the concepts of a differentiated and personal teaching method. Thus, conditions are created for the self-development of students in the course of their educational activities. In addition, EER is aimed at improving the skills of scientific research that contribute to improving the level of knowledge in foreign languages.

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The Subject-Predicative Basis of a Sentence Predisposed to Segmentation

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Abstract

This article deals with the subject – predicative basis of a sentence predisposed to segmentation as well as author tried to propose several notion of the prominent linguists who contributed in the sphere of segmentation.

Key Words: *description model, syntax, syntactic unit, predicativity, structural and semantic typology, syntagmatic, dissected expressive structures.*

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Understanding the sentence and its implication centers requires solving the question of how the sentences and the categories involved in its construction are used by communicants to interpret the truth characteristics of the referent as part of the designation. It is known that acts of speech can be very complex, and in more complex acts of speech, particular questions can be distinguished within the general topic, and each individual question can be stated in a number of separate sentences, each of which will act as a special act of speech.

The first concept to be considered when constructing not only a system, but also a simply ordered syntactic description, is the concept of the multiplicity of the basic units of the syntactic system of the language, forming within this system a number of subsystems, each of which requires its own description model.

The modern model of sentence description is based on the synthesis of the following concepts:

- 1) offer models;
- 2) complications or regular implementations of the transformation series supply model;
- 3) supply paradigms;
- 4) syntactic processes and syntactic derivation.

What is new in such a system of describing the syntax of a sentence is the synthesis of all the concepts mentioned above, their distribution by ranks and the creation of a sequence of operations that provides a unified in its design and systematic from the point of view of the object description of a simple sentence

(including the segmentally labeled variety [1].

Syntax (as a section of grammar) systematically focuses on the study of the structure of a sentence, its grammatical organization as an expression of a certain semantic content.

In a number of syntactic studies, a sentence is studied as a syntactic unit, which, according to E. Benveniste's definition [2], has both a meaning and a referent: a meaning because it carries semantic information, and a referent because it correlates with the corresponding situation.

Especially widespread at present is the nominative (denotative) concept of sentence semantics, which is most consistently developed in the works of N.D. Arutyunova, V.G. Gak, E.V. Gulyga, O.I. Moskalskaya, etc.

In accordance with the nominative concept of a sentence, when identifying its formal semantic structure, not only grammatical properties are taken into account, but also the way of presenting information about the event reflected in the sentence.

The relation of the sentence to objective reality is very difficult, since the sentence reflects not only objective reality, but the process of cognition of it, and at the same time relies on historically fixed language categories with their forms and content. The thought contained in the sentence expresses the connections and relationships between objects and phenomena of real reality, the emotional modal attitude of a person to the observed event. The qualitative originality of the "meaningful" side of

the sentence is also created by intra-linguistic factors: the lexical and grammatical composition of the sentence, intonation, expressive and emotional moments.

A relevant constituent feature of a sentence is predicativity as the correlation of a sentence with reality. Taking into account the fact that for the emergence of predicative relations in a sentence, and, consequently, for the emergence of the sentence itself, not the subject and predicate are needed, but predicativity, we can talk about the mandatory presence of the subject and predicate of the sentence. The subject-predicate connection is something integral, a single "given semantic component that forms the basis of any utterance, the reproduction of a single referent of the utterance" [1], predisposed to segmentation.

Of the numerous definitions of predicativity, the definition of O.I. Moskalskaya, in our opinion, most adequately reflects the linguistic reality, the difference between the definition and the predicate, because the definition and the application mean the signs already given in the defined before the action occurs; the attribute in the predicate is a sign that arises together with the action or through it.

The sentence arises as a result of the conjugation of the subject and the predicate, the predicated and the predicating components. In this case, the predicate is understood as a "propositional function or an utterance function", as special semantic entities of the language, which are typed in the form of "structural schemes of the sentence".

The attribution of a sentence to reality occurs through the medium of a subject – a substitute for a real object. The predicate is devoid of reference, since it denotes the signs of objects. The subject belongs to the world, and the predicate belongs to thinking about the world, the reported (predicate) refers specifically to the subject (the corresponding event), and not to the word calling it.

The basis for the structural and semantic typology of sentences may be the nature of the predicate (its semantics and valence properties), however, it is also necessary to take into account the relationship of the predicate with all names. It is no coincidence that syntaxists focus on predicate types, since it is on the typology of predicates that the typology of basic sentence models is based. Based on the organizing role of the predicate in the sentence structure, taking into account its semantics, valence properties, belonging to a certain part of speech, a number of researchers are building a classification of simple sentences [3].

At the same time, attention is drawn to the fact that the typology of sentences reflects the typology of extralinguistic situations, since the sentence, naming the situation, represents it in the form of some event and its participants, i.e. in the form of a predicate and names of objects.

The predicate determines the number and nature of the members (actants) in the sentence structure.

According to another theory, the predicate determines the inner essence of the sentence – predicativity, since the latter turns

out to be equal to the grammatical categories of tense and mood expressed by the predicate forms. However, it is believed that predicativity as a unity of syntactic tense and objective modality is expressed not only by verb–predicate forms, but also by other means, in particular by the structural scheme of the sentence itself.

In the form of a predicate, the relation of the predicate connection with the subject – person is expressed. The predicate expresses the projection of the connection of the predicative attribute with its carrier. This also implies a formal typical projection on some structural element that is outside the predicate.

Hence it is obvious that the classification of predicates should be connected with the construction of such a typology of the “states of affairs” described by them, which would be based on linguistically significant features, first of all earlier studies, when it was considered the prerogative of the oral form of speech.

However, a distinctive feature of modern works on syntax is not an appeal to written or oral forms of speech and an analysis of their differences, but the perception of expressive syntax in connection with new phenomena in the field of grammar, in particular, the adoption of the syntagmatic chain as the basis on which expressive syntax develops.

So, N.Y. Shvedova [4] refers to the expressive ones precisely dissected constructions or constructions with weakened indicators of syntagmatic connectedness. The expressiveness of such constructions, according to researchers, is provided by a stylistic

effect, the presence of which indicates expressiveness in the first place. Linguists distinguish the following types of expressive syntactic constructions: parcel segmentation, lexical repetition with syntactic distribution, question-and-answer constructions in monological speech, chains of nominative sentences, special cases of word arrangement and some others.

As the researchers rightly point out, these structures do not exhaust the list of dissected expressive formations. It seems to us that even the types of constructions already identified should be subjected to a deeper analysis, both in terms of their structural design and in semantic and functional terms.

The peculiarity of our approach to the study of dissected expressive structures is due to the involvement in their analysis of certain provisions of the theory of speech acts, which allows us to penetrate more deeply into the communicative sphere and develop appropriate models for the functioning of these structures, for example, in such a form of speech interaction as dialogue.

One of the most obvious types of dissected expressive structures is question–and–answer constructions. It should be noted that this category of dissected expressive formations (dissected speech act) is not homogeneous either in formal-structural or semantic-functional qualities.

The first of the examples analyzed by us is taken from the dialogue of the conversation of the heroes of the novel by A. Christie (“A Holiday for Murder”, p.69):

'And if so', said Harry Lee, 'Then someone here in the house killed him...

But who the devil should have done it? Can't suspect the servants. Tressilian has been here since the year one. The halfwitted footman? Not on your life. Horbury, now, he's a cool customer, but Tressilian tells me he was out at the pictures. So what do you come to? Passing over Stephen Farr (and why the devil should Stephen Farr come all the way from South Africa and murder a total stranger?) there's only the family. And for the life of me I can't see one of use doing it. Alfred? He adored Father. George? He hasn't got the guts. David? David's always been a moon dreamer. He'd faint if he saw his own finger bleed. The wives? Women don't go and slit a man's throat in cold blood. So who did? Blessed if I know. But it's damned disturbing.'

The type of dissected expressive structure we are considering – a dissected speech act – is characteristic of such a context with an appropriate communicative purpose, since the process of clarifying something is naturally associated with question–and–answer constructions. This case is special because both the questions and the answers belong to the same person trying to get to the truth by the method of exclusion. For this reason, repeated question–answer constructions can be considered a single, but dissected speech act, in which the question part is a directive – requestive (prompting to answer), and the response part is a representative – constative (fully responsible for the truth of what has been said) or a representative – deductive (assumption).

The use of such constructions in a literary text aims, firstly, to imitate an oral dialogue with its colloquial forms of speech; secondly, to create an atmosphere of search, uncertainty, and also to reflect the process of thought generation by verbal means.

Thus, such constructions as expressive syntactic means are a combination of lexical repetition with syntactic distribution (proper name – pronoun) and question–answer constructions.

Another kind of dissected expressive constructions are affirmative –question–answer formations, which are based on cause–and–effect relationships: '...He doesn't mention his loss to either of his two sons. Why? In my opinion because he was quite sure neither of them had anything to do with it' [5].

The communicative purpose of using these constructions is similar to the one that was established by us in the first case. However, they differ, firstly, by a greater degree of alienation of the components of the speech act, and, secondly, by the number of these components. In this example, the question part is segmented.

The type of speech act can be defined as representative – constative – directive – requestive – representative – evidential.

A communicative approach to the study of language units, i.e. considering them in the aspect of performing a communicative function, should be carried out, from our point of view, taking into account the dominant role of this function for the entire language system.

This approach to the study of such a level of language as grammar has led scientists to develop

functional and semantic categories. The substantiation and study of these categories allows linguists to reveal deep interrelations of units of

different levels of the language system.

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Labeling of Information in Communicative Discourse According to Culture

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Abstract

This article deals with the culturological labeling of information in communicative discourse as well as given several notions about discourse and culture. In addition, author provides issues about interrelation of discourse and culture, cultural space, cognitive space cited by prominent scholars.

Key Words: *morphosyntactic phenomena, discourse, linguoculturology, intercultural, cognitive, cultural space, cognitive space, cognitive base, culture-bearing, logoepisteme.*

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Discursive phenomena are studied in linguistics in two main aspects. Firstly, discourse can be studied as such, including as a structural object. Secondly, linguists are interested in discourse not by itself, but as a central factor influencing morphosyntactic phenomena (for example, the order of words in a sentence can be explained on the basis of discursive factors that lie outside of this sentence). It is generally believed that the concept of discourse was introduced by the founder of transformational and distributional analysis by Z. Harris in 1952. Today, the category of discourse, one of the main ones in communicative linguistics and modern social sciences, like any widely used concept, allows for various scientific interpretations and therefore requires clarification, especially in relation to the related terms text, speech and dialogue

Communication from a linguistic point of view is understood as the exchange of thoughts, ideas, and information through language [1]. Communication involves the interaction of people, and therefore has a two-way character. The two-way nature of communication, which determines the equal importance of both products and perception mediating the process of speech perception [2], makes it natural to conclude that the use of language as a single code implies that communicants have a common fund of knowledge that provides understanding. Understanding of the fact that representatives of one linguistic and cultural community are connected by a single communicative space [3], their consciousness is

characterized by the presence of a "basic stereotypical core of knowledge, repeated in the process of socialization of an individual in a given society and rather stereotypical (at the level of ethnic culture, not personality), [4], or a nationally determined system of symbols, associations, and information [5] has long been reflected in studies on linguoculturology and intercultural communication (see also [6]). At the same time, the specific form of existence and organization of this "invariant part in the structure of the linguistic personality" is of interest at the moment [6]. For this purpose, the terms "cultural space", "cognitive space" and "cognitive base" are introduced into research on intercultural communication [7]. Cultural space is proposed to be understood as "the form of the existence of culture in human consciousness" [8]. In this space, the center and the periphery stand out. The center of the national cultural space is formed by phenomena that are the property of almost all members of the national cultural community [8]. "The cultural space includes all existing and potentially possible ideas about cultural phenomena among members of a certain national-cultural community. At the same time, each person has a special, structured set of knowledge and ideas in a certain way. We call such a set an individual cognitive space. At the same time, there is a certain set of knowledge and ideas that all representatives of a particular society (professional, confessional, generational, etc.) possess, which we define as a collective, cognitive space. In a certain way, the structured set of

knowledge and ideas possessed by all representatives of a particular linguistic and cultural community is defined by us as a cognitive base" [8]. In contrast to the cultural space, the cognitive base, in the view of D.B. Gudkov, is formed with the help of invariants of ideas about certain phenomena. And these invariants are stored in the cognitive base in a minimized, reduced form [8]. From the point of view of D.B. Gudkov, "it is the possession of knowledge and ideas that are part of the cognitive base and have a transpersonal invariant character that allows an individual to navigate in the space of the corresponding culture and act according to its laws" [7]. Sharing the essence of these views on the definition and differentiation of these phenomena, I would like to make some terminological changes. We are talking about the term "cognitive", the use of which, it seems, involuntarily brings associations with cognitive activity and the cognitive level of language. The use of the term "cognitive base" in such a broad sense is certainly possible. However, in this case, the line between cognitive activity as such, activity aimed at cognition of the surrounding reality and the specifics of the cognitive level of the organization of representations, formed in the form of the cognitive level of a linguistic personality, is lost and eventually disappears. The term "cognitive", in our view, primarily covers phenomena related to categorization, conceptualization, classification of objects, that is, processes mediating cognitive activity and constituting the essence of the cognitive level of a linguistic personality. Due to the fact that the term "cognitive" belongs to a

completely different field of linguistic knowledge, we consider it inappropriate to use it to describe linguistic phenomena related to cognition in a broad sense. It seems rational to assign a cognitive base in the understanding of D.B. Gudkova name "unified information base". At the same time, the statement of A.A. Leontiev becomes a reference, who interprets the communicative community as "a similar information level of interlocutors, similar communication experience in the past, reliance on well-known information" [3]. The unified information base is characterized as a transpersonal, informational structure that allows an individual to function in accordance with the laws of a given linguistic and cultural community. Synonymously with a single information base, it is proposed to use the term "knowledge fund".

The next step should be to determine the structure of a single information base. In this regard, it is rational to use the structure of the general knowledge base of native speakers generally recognized in cognitive linguistics. The latter includes: "1) language knowledge; a) knowledge of the language; b) knowledge of the principles of speech communication; 2) non-linguistic knowledge: a) about the context and situation, knowledge about the addressee (including knowledge of the goals and plans presented by the addressees, his ideas about the speaker and the environment, etc.); general phonetic knowledge (that is, knowledge about the world)" [9]. The linguoculturological perspective of this study requires to single out from the general knowledge base those that are marked by a culturological

component and are related to the level of culture. In this sense, it seems that a single information base, or a common knowledge fund, includes: (1) knowledge of the language in a pragmatic aspect; knowledge of the principles of speech communication; (2) knowledge of the surrounding world, including knowledge of the totality of situations of speech communication.

The task of competent and successful communication, as well as the need to localize the cultural component, requires more detailed coverage of both groups that make up the common knowledge fund, or a single information base.

The first group, assuming knowledge of the language and knowledge of the principles of speech communication, by virtue of operating with the term "language", it seems possible to call linguistic. The second group, the group of knowledge of the "cultural fund" in the terminology of Y.E. Prokhorov [4], which assumes the need for knowledge about the surrounding world, that is, what is beyond the boundaries of the language itself, can be assigned the name of extralinguistic knowledge.

The linguistic knowledge necessary to construct a message and carry out communication, in addition to specific language forms, includes "(1) verbal reactions in specific cultural spheres and conditions; (2) general tendencies (constants) of linguistic behavior that manifest themselves independently of the cultural sphere and reflect both general patterns of utterance construction in a given language and the rules of speech production peculiar to a given society" [10]. The

verbal aspect of linguistic knowledge is manifested in the practical level of proficiency in the norms of oral and written language, the skills of their situational variation, the skillful use of expressive means of language. Practical mastery of normative speech, which is one of the aspects of the culture of speech [11], involves meeting the requirements for the pronunciation, lexico-grammatical and structural components of the utterance. The pronunciation, lexico-grammatical and structural components of the utterance represent the verbal aspect of linguistic knowledge. The verbal aspect of linguistic knowledge correlates and is conditioned by the nonverbal aspect. In this case, we are talking about the constants of linguistic behavior and the principles of speech production. Both the first and the second form a single whole and leave the system of discourse, that is, the system of communication adopted in this linguistic and cultural community. A discourse system is a general concept, a kind of discourse construct, which is implemented in practice in the form of discourse models. Thus, the discourse model is interpreted as a concrete manifestation of a certain system, adjusted for the method of construction. The method of construction determines the form of discourse and depends on the concepts of personality and interpersonal relations accepted in society. In addition, the model of discourse is colored by additional specifics as a result of the choice of the type of discourse, that is, the kind of discourse depending on the socio-cultural parameters of the communicants. And finally, the model

of discourse is influenced by the modus factor caused by the official or unofficial style of communication.

The main conclusion of this section of the work can be presented in the form of confirmation of the hypothesis put forward by us about the linguistic and cultural analysis of models of communicative discourse (stereotypes, etiquette formulas, etc.). Discourse as a "culture-bearing" fact is based on the interaction of language as a translator of cultural information and the person who creates this culture using language. A native speaker or a linguistic personality, has information about the goals of communication in this situation, communicative etiquette, owns a certain set of cliched phrases and models of discursive behavior in a situation of cultural contact. The culturological marking of the nationally determined discourse and its constituent aspects and components is determined by the cultural requirements imposed on communication in a particular language. These requirements are manifested in the system of discourse through the choice of forms and prioritization of a particular model of discourse. The system of discourse presupposes the existence of a certain

construct of discourse, implemented in practice in the form of a particular model. The form of discourse actualizes the way it is constructed. The system of discourse creates the basis for the linguistic and cultural unity of communicants. The basis for this unity is a communicative community, represented as a similar information level of interlocutors (in this paper it is considered as the presence of a single information base), similar communication experience in the past, reliance on well-known information. The nature of this communicative community has the character of precedent. Precedent is understood as the presence of a quantum of culturally marked background knowledge in the linguistic experience of members of the linguistic and cultural community due to their reproducibility. In this capacity, the logoevisteme acts in the discourse. It is used for the linguistic designation of precedent phenomena that occupy a very specific place in the cultural life of society. Precedent phenomena cover precedent texts, precedent pseudo-texts, precedent statements, precedent names, precedent facts, precedent "buzzwords", precedent situations, precedent genres.

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The Concept of Case Categories

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Abstract

This article deals with the concept of case categories as well as author made an attempt to define the concept of “grammatical category”, “category of case” and to consider the main approaches to the problem of case: the theory of positional cases, the theory of prepositional cases, the theory of limited case, the theory of possessive postpositive and the theory of “deep cases” by Charles Fillmore.

Key Words: case, permanent, grammatical categories, nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, deep cases.

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The concept of case is one of the main inflectional categories of nominal parts of speech - noun, adjective, and pronoun, numeral. Since antiquity, in the traditional sense, case has been a morphological category, since we can only talk about different cases if a word has formal differences in different cases.

The case can be defined as “a grammatical category of a name expressing its syntactic relations to other words of the utterance or to the utterance as a whole, as well as a separate grammeme of this category” [1].

Ivanova I.P. defines it this way: “Case is a morphological category that conveys the relation of a name in a sentence” [2]. Therefore, the relations of nouns transmitted by case in a sentence should be transmitted by changing the form of the noun itself. All other means that are not enclosed in the form of the noun itself (prepositions, word order) are not morphological, therefore, cannot be considered as case forms. Therefore, there cannot be less than two cases in a language.

Bulygina T.V. gives the following definition of the concept of case category: “Case in languages of inflectional or agglutinating structure is a category of a word (usually a name), showing its syntactic role in a sentence and linking individual words of a sentence. Cases are called both the functions of words in a sentence and the forms of words correlated with them” [3].

In general, the definition of case most often does not cause disagreement among adherents of the morphological interpretation of the problem. The case in most grammars

is considered as a “permanent (immanent) morphological category of a noun, expressed in declension forms and expressing the relationship of the referent noun to other objects and phenomena”. Thus, the case form of a noun, or - abbreviated - its case is defined as the “morphological form of declension”. [4].

The case form (case form) serves as a real form of expression of this category. Also, the case form is a morpheme consisting of a certain scale, which, together with the root morpheme, gives certain content to the word. Declension is formed by a set of case forms that make up a certain system of changes.

It should be noted that in Russian the category of case is strikingly different from the category of case in English. In modern Russian there are six cases of nouns, each of which has a specific function. The English case category is completely different due to the morphological features of the language itself. The category of case in English is studied using different approaches (theories), which will be discussed later in this course work.

Category of case in the Old English and Middle English periods

Before investigating the problem of the category of case in modern English, it is necessary to make an excursion into the history of the development of the English language and find out which grammatical categories were then present. The noun system itself in the Old English language was complex and not entirely consistent, it combined various elements that were inherited from earlier states of the

language and appeared due to new trends in its development.

Ilyish B.A. distinguishes the following grammatical categories in the system of nouns of the Old English language:

- gender;
- numbers;
- case. [5].

Compared to modern English, Old English is morphologically richer and resembles modern Icelandic. There were several cases in it:

- nominative: stan - stone;
- accusative: stan - stone;
- genitive: stanes - stone;
- dative: stane - stone.

In the Middle English period, there is a simplification of the Old English case system. In the first half of the Middle English period, a system close to modern English consisting of four cases is formed, which gradually turns into a system of two cases with a difference in parts of speech [6].

As a result of transformations in the noun system, the common and possessive cases are distinguished. At the same time, the old nominative, accusative and dative cases are combined into one common case (the Common Case). As a result, these forms began to be perceived as phonetic variants unrelated to grammatical differences [7]. At the same time, the genitive case is isolated, its meaning becomes narrower, syntactic functions are limited. This separation of the case is not accidental.

Already in the Old English period, the form of the genitive case mainly had a nominal application and acted as a definition. The attributive (determinative) function of this form in the Middle English language was expanding more and more, the

genitive case became a specially determinative nominal case denoting belonging. There was a modification of the meaning and form of the genitive case. It became possessive, denoting the definition of belonging, ceased to be used in verbs and in prepositional constructions. In this regard, the very name of this case has changed: possessive (The Possessive Case) and instead of genitive (The Genitive Case). [8].

With the course of history, the language develops, evolves, merges and mixes cases, due to the fact that the old case forms disappear.

The main approaches to the problem of case in English

According to M.Y. Bloch in English, there are four approaches to the problem of the category of case in English:

The first approach is called the theory of positional cases (the theory of positional cases). This approach is directly related to traditional grammar and is used in school textbooks nowadays.

This theory follows the image of classical Latin grammar, highlighting nominative (nominative), genitive (genitive), dative (dative), accusative (accusative) and vocative (vocative) cases in English. It is proposed to distinguish cases in accordance with the positional function performed by the noun in the sentence, for example:

1) the nominative case correlates with the function of the subject:

Her mother is a teacher - Her mom (who?) the teacher.

2) accusative case - with direct complement function:

He reads a list - He reads (what?) list

3) dative case - with indirect complement:

He gave this book to Mary - He gave the book (to whom?) Mary

4) vocative case - with the address: Mr.Smith... - Dear Mr. Smith.

As we can see, in the "theory of positional cases" there is a clear confusion of the morphological characteristics of the noun with its functional and syntactic features. Comparative analysis of nouns in English and Latin within the framework of this approach proves only that the meanings conveyed by case forms in inflectional languages (in languages with a noun declension system) can be conveyed in English by other means, in particular, through syntactic positions, or word order" [9].

M.Y. Bloch believes that this approach is erroneous, because it replaces the morphological property of a word class with the functional characteristics of a sentence member.

The second approach, the theory of prepositional cases, focuses on the role of prepositions in the formation of the case of nouns. This approach, as well as the first one, is focused on classical Latin grammar. Proponents of this principle interpret combinations of nouns with prepositions as special analytical case forms, for example:

- dative case (the dative case) - noun with prepositions to, for - for the girl - girl;

- genitive case (the genitive case) - nouns with the preposition of - of the girl - girl;

- instrumental (creative) case (the instrumental case) - nouns with the preposition with - with a key is a key.

This approach also reveals a number of controversial points. For example, following this theory, it is

possible that all prepositions in English can be considered as expressions of some case meaning, and not just to, for, with, of. In this case, the total number of "cases" can increase many times, reducing to zero all the achievements of theory and practice.

The third approach, which can be defined as the theory of the limited case (the limited case theory). To date, it is the most widely used case theory in the English language. This theory was formulated in the works of foreign scientists, such as G. Sweet, O. Espersen, and was further developed by Russian linguists A.I. Smirnitsky, L.S. Barkhudarov and others.

This theory is expressed on the opposition of grammatical forms: the first form is the form of the genitive case (the possessive case), is a strong member of the opposition, since it is marked with the help of the postpositive formant `s after the apostrophe in the singular and just an apostrophe in the plural (the girl's books - girl's books; the girls' books - books girls). The second, unmarked form, represents a weak member of the opposition and is usually called the common case form. [7].

This approach will be discussed in more detail below.

The fourth approach, which can be defined as the theory of the possessive postposition (the theory of the possessive postposition) or the theory of the absence of the category of case (the theory of no case). It states that the category of case, which really existed in the noun in the Old English period, was completely lost by it in the course of historical development. Supporters of this theory (G.N. Vorontsova, A.M.

Mukhin) it is argued that what is traditionally regarded as the inflectional form of the genitive case is nothing more than a combination of a noun with the postpositive -s, meaning belonging (the mother's cup). The main arguments in support of this point of view are as follows:

☐ the formant - 's can attach not only to words, but also to units larger than a word, for example, to phrases and even sentences - e.g. his daughter Mary's arrival - the arrival of his daughter Mary; the man I saw yesterday's face - the face of the person I saw yesterday.

☐ this formant can be attached not only to nouns, but also to words of other parts of speech, for example, to pronouns - e.g. somebody else's car;

☐ the same meaning of belonging is transmitted in English by phrases with the preposition of - e.g. this man's daughter- the daughter of this man is this man's daughter.

Among other arguments proving the absence of a case in the English language, the following can be mentioned: the forms of the genitive case of nouns in the plural are practically indistinguishable by ear from the form of the general case, and are homonymous to the forms of the genitive case of nouns in the singular (boy's, boys, boys').

According to M.Y. Bloch, the solution to the problem of noun case in English should be sought based on the positive statements of the last two theories as the most scientifically sound: the theory of limited case and

the theory of the absence of a category of case.

In addition to the above approaches to the problem of case, there is also the theory of "deep cases" by Charles Fillmore. Fillmore proposed a slightly different way to determine the category of case in English. This method is based not on the morphological change of the word, but on the basis of its semantic or deep role. A separate section will be devoted to the coverage of this issue below.

The analysis of theoretical literature shows that the problem of the case of nouns in modern English is still controversial and unclear. This question is rightfully considered one of the most confusing in English grammar. There are disagreements about the number and nomenclature of noun case forms in English, and about the semantics of these forms; moreover, the very existence of the category of noun case in English is questioned.

In the Old English period, according to researchers of this period, at least four cases were defined: nominative, genitive, accusative and dative, which were clearly traced in the sentence. In the future, the language changed, and its grammar changed. Currently, several theories have been proposed for determining the category of case in English, and each theory has its own followers and critics, has its pros and cons.

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Contextual Metaphor's Problem

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Abstract

According to the article, metaphors are one kind of language aberration that causes foregrounding and defamiliarization. But when the results of Conceptual Metaphor Theory are taken into account, the presumption that these breaches are purposefully employed to highlight their position as violations becomes problematic.

Key Words: *metaphor, conceptual, concept, structure, phenomenon, linguistic expressions.*

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Introduction

Metaphor occurs at the level of culture, social interactions, and personal here-and-now experience, claim Lakoff and Johnson [4, 44]. According to Lakoff, metaphor originates from the way we conceptualize one mental area in terms of another, not from language per se. It is now widely acknowledged that metaphors serve a structurally important purpose in structuring our conceptual frameworks, as opposed to being employed for aberrant rhetorical effects. However, it is worthwhile to briefly review the conventional metaphorical suppositions as follows:

- Every word used in daily speech is literal; none is figurative. Without the need for metaphor, any ideas requiring complete comprehension may be realized literally. It can only be true in literal terms.

The conceptual metaphor's discovery is the basis for the difference in significance between this old view and modern tenets. Our conceptual framework uses the same system of metaphor heavily in day-to-day living, mostly for abstract notions. There are many examples in all languages that are required and organic in daily living, but not for rhetorical effect.

The function of metaphor in language and broader cognitive processes has undergone a dramatic reevaluation in recent years. Metaphor was formerly thought to be a minor and occasionally abnormal or abnormal phenomena, but it is now understood to be essential to the structuring and formation of mental framework. According to this

viewpoint, language is essentially metaphorical, and metaphor plays a crucial part in the formation of conceptual structure. The concept that the conceptual metaphors systematically frame the understanding of various domains has now been applied to explain a variety of phenomena, including the meaning of idioms [2, 137-138] and the nature of emotion concepts [3, 77]. A conceptual metaphor is a generalization to an inferred system of thinking that may be drawn from various surface forms of language [1, 107].

Conceptual metaphors usually use a more real or physical idea as their source and a more abstract concept as their objective. For instance, metaphors such as 'the days - the more abstract or target concept-ahead' or 'giving my time' rely on more concrete concepts, thus expressing time as a -more concrete-path into physical space or as a substance -that can be handled and offered as a gift. Different conceptual metaphors tend to be invoked when the speaker is trying to make a case for a certain point of view or course of action. For instance, we associate 'the days ahead' more with leadership, and 'giving my time' more with bargaining - if time is a substance, clearly, it should be treated for things of substance, and this metaphor makes that more obvious than the path metaphor. Selection of such metaphors tends to be directed by a subconscious or implicit purpose, in the mind of him or her who chooses them.

A conceptual domain is any coherent organization of experience. To see these target domains by

making use of such source domains as war, journey, food, it is worth considering some classic examples of each from Lakoff and Johnson. The small capitals for the statement of conceptual metaphors and italics for metaphorical linguistic expressions [4, 102-103]:

AN ARGUMENT IS WAR.

Your claims are indefensible.

He attacked every weak point in my argument.

His criticisms were right on target.

I demolished his argument.

If you use that strategy, he'll wipe you out.

He shot down all of my arguments.

LOVE IS A JOURNEY.

Look how far we've come.

We're at a crossroads.

We'll just have to go our separate ways.

We can't turn back now.

I don't think this relationship is going anywhere.

Where are we?

This relationship is a dead-end street.

We're just spinning our wheels.

Our marriage is on the rocks.

We've gotten off the track.

THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS.

Is that the foundation for your theory?

The theory needs more support.

We need to construct a strong argument for that.

We need to buttress the theory with solid arguments.

So far we have put together only the framework of the theory.

IDEAS ARE FOOD.

All this paper has in it are raw facts, half-baked ideas, and warmed-over theories.

There are too many facts here for me to digest them all.

I just can't swallow that claim.

That's food for thought.

She devoured the book.

Let's let that idea simmer on the back burner for a while.

Let me stew over that for a while.

Conclusions

Summing up of all what has just been said we can conclude that conceptual structure is not merely a matter of the intellect - it involves all the natural dimensions of our experience, including aspects of our sense experiences: colour, shape, texture, sound, etc.

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