



# OPOSICIONES AL CUERPO DE MAESTROS DE ENSEÑANZA PRIMARIA

## INGLÉS

### TEMA 1

**La lengua como comunicación: lenguaje oral y lenguaje escrito. Factores que definen una situación comunicativa: emisor, receptor, funcionalidad y contexto.**





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# **TEMA 1: La lengua como comunicación: lenguaje oral y lenguaje escrito. Factores que definen una situación comunicativa: emisor, receptor, funcionalidad y contexto.**

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

The knowledge of one or different foreign languages is a necessary condition to facilitate the intercultural understanding in a wider world where the international relationships are very important to survive. Moreover, if we as teachers develop the communication abilities of our students in other languages it would be easier to them to acquire professional views to develop better future jobs.

Decree of the Valencian Government to develop the curriculum according to LOE 111/2007 July the 20<sup>th</sup>

Concept of communication as a global fact, not only in human beings

Explanation of communication in this unit as a synonym of Language

Communication is the exchange of information between individuals by means of a common system of symbols. When we try to learn a language we come up against the most fundamental questions about the nature of language. The ability to produce sentences is crucial in the learning process of a language, but it is not the only ability that learners need to develop. Someone knowing a language knows more than how to understand, to speak, to read and to write sentences; he/she also knows how sentences are used to communicate effect.

When we pronounce sentences in isolation, we manifest our knowledge of the language system of English. But we are generally required to use our knowledge of the language system in order to achieve some kind of communicative purpose.

The ability to speak English does not simply depend on the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, but on several other factors as well: who you are, who you are talking to, where you are, and what you are talking about. Words and sentences have meaning because they are part of a language system and this meaning is recorded in grammars and dictionaries.

We as teacher of a second or foreign language should firstly accept the need to use language as communication. Once we have accepted it, we cannot longer think in terms only of sentences. We must consider the nature discourse, and how best to teach it and to transfer from grammatical competence to what has been called communicative competence. Language does not occur in isolation but in connected discourse.



## 2. LANGUAGE AS COMMUNICATION

### 2.1. Definitions of language

Language is been defined many times from very different views by philosophers, psychologists, linguists, physicists, mathematics and so on. Here you are some definitions about what language is:

- ◆ Language is a human method no instinct of communication of ideas, emotions and desires through a self-produced system of symbols. (1)
- ◆ It is a very structured system of phonetic symbols used by the members of a social group to communicate between themselves. (2)
- ◆ It is an organized system of communicative resources used by a speaker's community able to understand each other. (3)
- ◆ It is a systematic sound combination with meaning for entire cultural community members. (4)
- ◆ It is an oral or written sign system that a community uses to express themselves. (5)

(1) E. Sapir, **An Introduction to the Study of Speech**, 1931, page 3.

(2) J. Bram, **Language and society**, New York, 1966, page 2.

(3) G. L. Brook, **A History of the English Language**, A. Deutch, 1972, page 13.

(4) Th. Pyles, **Origins and Development of the English Language**, New York 1974, page3.

(5) F. Lázaro Carreter, **Diccionario de Términos filosóficos**, Madrid Gredos, 1973.

If we deep into the problem of communication we could define it as an expressive system different from its specific structure into a phonological, grammatical or semantic level that the human would develop when the community necessities were required.

The definition of language must be analysed deeply in a phonological level (phonetic and phonemic), grammatical level (morphological and syntactic) and semantic level.

There must be an interdependence between the synchronic and the diachronic that is between the system and its evolution.

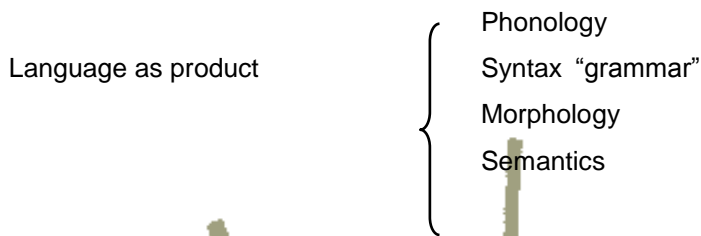
Language is a live fact and it is always suffering transformations. As **W. Von Wartburg** said, "*Future linguists should reach a level with the two points of view (synchronic and diachronic) to see it as system and movement*".

#### Aspects of language

Apart from this, three views of language down the centuries have distinguished language-as-product from language-as-tool and language-as-activity or process.

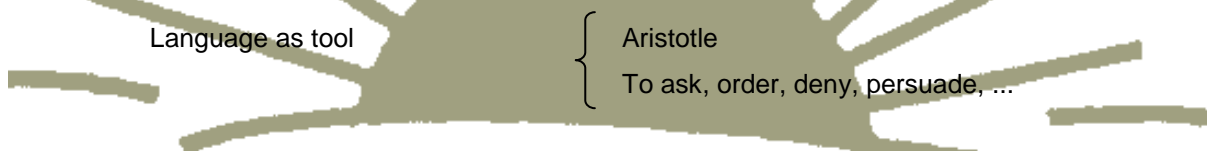


We consider **language-as-product** when we make the language an object of study. We examine the system of rules (phonological, syntactic, morphological and semantic) by which it operates. We identify parts of speech and observe the dialectical variations, neologisms, and what happens to the sound system in different contexts. Language-as-product is sometimes referred to as **langue** or as the language **code**.



**Language-as-tool**, a concept that goes back to Aristotle emphasizes the way we can use a language to operate upon the environment. Each language has great potentiality for expressing our intentions, our personal meaning. We may wish to ask, to order, to state, to deny or to persuade.

We will need to know how to do these things in a new language. As we learn a new language, we have to internalise its potentialities as an instrument.



**Language-as-activity or language-as-process** belongs to linguists, into pragmatics and social psychology. We need to learn how to initiate interaction with speakers of the language, how to respond to the initiative of others, how to avoid and how to terminate communication. We need to know how to greet, console, keep interaction, moving. We need to know what levels of language we should use in different circumstances, when to speak, when to remain silent. This is speech as a social event, and, as such, it can be learned only through experience with language in use.



### 2.3. Functions of language

Halliday has elaborated the basic functions language performs for children learning a new language. This analysis can act as a useful guide for teachers of a second or third language who wish to provide their students with an instrument that they can use for all kinds of purposes.



The basic functions Halliday proposes are:

1 **Instrumental:** the *"I want"* function. Students need to be able to express their desires and needs. Going beyond babyhood, they must learn how to express these wants in the more subtle forms languages provide.

2. **Regulatory:** the *"Do as I tell you"* function. This is the language of rules, instructions, orders and suggestions. These are learned early in most classes through simple orders and action games.

3. **Interactional:** the *"Me and you"* function. This includes the learning of many culturally acceptable patterns of greeting leave-taking, thanking, extending good wishes, excusing oneself, and generally making the people with whom one is communicating feel at ease. Many of these expressions can be learned in simple dialogues and they should be used regularly in classroom contacts.

4. **Personal:** the *"Here I come"* function. This function has received new emphasis through humanistic techniques, which encourage the students to talk about themselves, express their feelings, and share emotions and experiences.

5. **Heuristic:** the *"Tell me why"* function. Again, frequently neglected in language classes are abundant opportunities to practice asking questions.

Question forms are a constant problem to users of a new language, yet, in many classes, teachers ask all the questions and the students merely give information. This is easily rectified if students work in small groups, do interesting things in the foreign language together, and teach each other.

6. **Imaginative:** the *"Let's pretend"* function. This is the use of language for supposing, hypothesising and creating for the love of sound and image.

7. **Informative:** the *"I've got something to tell you"* function. This is the realm of the declarative affirmative and the declarative negative. Statements are not neglected in most language programs, but attention should be paid to the use of compound and complex sentences, not just simple sentences.

## 2.4. Varieties of language

Language necessarily involves variation because it is a "live" instrument we use to communicate. Due to this fact there are many varieties we must bear in mind:

### 1. Variations according to **region**

This type of variation relates primarily to the language user. People use a regional variety because they live in a region or have once lived in that region. Depending on where you live your accent is different from others. For example, it is not the same accent a person living in the north of England than a person living in the south (Manchester or London).

### 2. Variations according to **social group**



People usually live round a social group that have some characteristics. These characteristics are different from one group to another. People use a social variety because of their affiliation with a social group. For instance, the low classes use different terminology (more slang words) than the high classes. At the same time, we should be aware that many people can communicate in more than one regional or social variety and can switch varieties according to the situation. And of course, people move to other regions or change their social affiliations, and may then adopt a new regional or social variety.

The variations according to region and social group are relatively permanent for the language user.

### 3. Variations according to **field of discourse**

The field of discourse relates to the activity in which they are engaged. For example, a doctor would use some words when he/she is working and different terminology when he/she is at home or with friends. People select the varieties according to the situation and the purpose of the communicative act.

### 4. Variations according to **attitude**

The attitude of a speaker is different depending on the participants of the conversation. If the speaker does not know the person is not going to behave in a same way as if he/she knows it. When we are first introduced a person our confidence is not the same one, that is way the attitude varies.

### 5. Variations according to **medium**

The medium may be spoken or written, generally depending on the proximity of the participants in the communicative act.

The use of a written medium normally presumes the absence of person to whom the piece of language is addressed. This imposes the necessity of a far greater explicitness: the careful and precise completion of a sentence, rather than the casual expression supported by gesture and terminating when speakers are assured by word or look that their hearers have understood.

Since the written sentence can be read and reread, slowly and critically (whereas the spoken sentence is evanescent), writers tend to anticipate criticism by writing more concisely as well as more carefully and elegantly than they may choose to speak.

For instance, we do not use the same words to say the same thing written or spoken.

*It was not in fact Mark who did it* (**written**)

*Mark did not do it* (**spoken**)

The advantages are not all on one side, however; the written medium has the valuable distinctions of paragraphs, italics, quotation marks, etc., which have no clear analogue in speech.



### 3. ORAL LANGUAGE

We can distinguish the process that takes place when learning our first language (L1) from that of learning a second language (L2) by using different terminology. We say that the first language is **acquired** and the second language is **learned**. This is because we understand that the first language is acquired through experience while the second usually comes with formal teaching.

Language acquisition takes place in constantly stimulating environment: children are exposed to their first language from the very beginning and they are literally bombarded with language all time. Although we cannot reproduce these circumstances exactly, we should try to provide our students with at least some of the stimuli, which are present in language acquisition in order to facilitate language learning.

Learning a language is above all a slow process. By the time the children come into the English class their first language is usually very developed.

Perhaps the greatest single event in the history of linguistics was the invention of the tape recorder, which for the first time has captured natural conversation and made it accessible to systematic study.

#### 3.1. IMPORTANCE OF THE ORAL LANGUAGE

But, why is speech so important? Communities without a written language obviously have their literary and sacred texts in spoken form; speech comes first in the history of the race and of the individual. The reason is that the potential of the system is more richly developed, and more fully revealed in speech.

- Spoken language responds continually to the changes in its environment, both verbal and non-verbal, and in so doing, exhibits a rich pattern of semantic, and also of grammatical, variation that does not get explored in writing.
- The context of spoken language is in a constant state of flux, and the language has to be equally mobile and alert.
- The complexity of spoken language is that is not static and dense but mobile and intricate. As a consequence, the sentence structure is highly complex, reaching degrees of complexity that are rarely attained in writing.

Spoken language is

{ mobile  
Intricate





- Speech was not meant to be written down, so it often looks silly because it shows none of the intonation or rhythm or variation in tempo and loudness; but it does show the way it is organized grammatically, and so enable us to analyse it as a text. The problem is that the kind of grammatical agility that is embodied in a transcription is not well represented by standard techniques of analysis and presentation.

### **3.2. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ORAL LANGUAGE**

- ❑ When you speak you have the possibility to give yourself time to think what you want to say. Hesitating plays an important part in speaking any language. We sometimes need time to decide what to say or how to say it exactly, and it is important in English that these “thinking gaps” should not consist on silence. For example, Erm..., I mean..., It’s difficult to say..., Well..., Let me see....
- ❑ We have to speak the oral language that is why it is so important doing it correctly. We should use the correct pitch (not low, not high) and intonation depending on the circumstances. For instance, We cannot speak very high in a hospital or we do not give a lot of emphasis to our intonation in a funeral. Try to control your voice.
- ❑ Our rhythm and stress must be the right one to be perfectly understood. Sometimes it is difficult to pronounce a word in a foreign language and this can cause misunderstandings. For example it is not the same pronouncing “wall” that “war”.
- ❑ The introducing of deliberate pauses for effect, for emphasis or to give the audience time to process what you are saying is also important. In the oral language you can slow down and pause when you want to make the voice expressive.
- ❑ Non verbal communication should be employed to support the verbal message and maintain contact with individuals in the audience. The speaker can keep eye contact, pauses, to be responsive,...
- ❑ With the development of recording equipment, modern linguists have had greater opportunities than their predecessors to examine in depth the characteristics of spoken language.
- ❑ Finally, the diction must be clear, effective and correct. You should communicate effectively.

## **4. WRITTEN LANGUAGE**

Written English functioning in isolation from spoken English is an aberrant phenomenon. The spoken language through grammar achieves the written language. The complexity of writing lies in its density, the packing together of lexical content, but in rather simple grammatical frames.



The elements of the writing system include letters, numbers, punctuation marks, spaces and the rules by which they are combined into larger and larger structures. You cannot use these marks in the spoken language but other strategies are possible to use, such as intonation, stress, rhythm, etc. as we mentioned above.

We do not expect speakers with little formal education to compose in written English with the facility educated speakers acquire. For example, some fields of English (legal documents, especially) are difficult to compose except in writing and difficult to understand except by reading. Other varieties are comparably restricted to speech: a radio commentary on a football match will be phrased very differently from a newspaper report of the same game.

Written English has its own grammar. It is not exactly like that of oral English, though the resemblance is very close. The most frequently noticed are instances in which written English has its marks but could be confusing and in spoken are not. Take for example the following sentences:

*My uncle, Peter and I go to play tennis.*

*My uncle Peter and I go to play tennis*

In speech, intonation signals would indicate clearly whether this is "My uncle, Peter and I" (three people) or "My uncle Peter and I" (two people) The comma indicates us the pause in written English and the intonation in spoken English. Or:

*She had a coffee, after she felt sick.*

*She had a coffee after she felt sick.*

In the first sentence, *she had the coffee* first and then, *she felt sick* and the other sentence shows that first *she felt sick* and then, *she had a coffee*.

A more important type of grammatical difference is most easily noticed in the frequency of certain constructions. The non-restrictive relative clause, which many writers use extensively, is very rare in most spoken English, and totally unused by many speakers. This difference reflects the fact that it is not at all a normal construction in colloquial English, the rare uses being only intrusions of literary patterns into speech.

#### **4.1. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WRITTEN ENGLISH**

- The rules for making noun plurals. Spoken English uses three variants of the plural suffix / -s, -z, -iz/, where written English uses only two <-s, -es>.



- ❑ The rules for making the regular past in English: “-ed” in written English has in spoken three representations /-d, -t, id/. For example, involved /-d/, shocked /-t/, visited /-id/.
- ❑ Regional differences are slight: colour and gaol against color and jail, or the committee are (British) against the committee is (American English), or lorry against truck. Within either British or American English, regional variations are almost non-existent, though occasionally some very minor regionalisms may be seen. It is one of the very significant features of all written languages to tend to be relatively uniform over areas within which speech varies appreciably, but to change abruptly at national boundaries, though the speech may not.
- ❑ Written English shows variation parallel in general, to the keys of speech, and we can conveniently describe it in terms of literary keys. (formal, semiformal and informal). The three central, literary keys may be defined as formal, semiformal and informal. These are less sharply delimited from each other than the speech keys are. For instance, formal: excellent or want to be, informal: rap or wanna be.
- ❑ The features to distinguish them have not all been identified, but we can mention a few: contractions, such as "don't", "it's", "I'll" are common at the informal end of the scale, but avoided in the more formal keys. There are also many vocabulary differences. There are internal differences as well in sentence structure. For example, the semicolon is not frequent in informal written English.

The characteristics of written English are best seen in edited writing, that is, writing that has been done with care, and then revised in accordance with established conventions of form and style, either by the author or by another person. When we write normally we have more time to think so we can organise the words to be more accurate while in spoken we do not have so much time.

## **5. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ORAL AND WRITTEN LANGUAGE**

Oral and written forms of a particular language, share wording, grammar.

Written language tends to be more formal in many of its uses than oral language. That influences grammar and word choice. But there is formal oral language (as in speeches) and informal written language (as in notes and diaries).

Perhaps written language seems more formal to us because we don't think about phone messages, personal notes, billboards, and signs as examples of written language. Grammar in oral language is more complex than that in written language because oral intonation makes it possible to disambiguate complex clause sequences that punctuation can't handle in written language.



Oral language appears first in human societies because it serves here-and-now functions universal to human communities. But speech, at least before the electronic age, was limited to immediate uses. There are limits to how far the voice can reach. So speech is not very useful over large areas of time and space. Written language develops when oral language is insufficient for meeting the language needs of a society. For legal purposes we want things written down on paper, which can be preserved for future reference (though courts are now recognizing videotaped wills).

People have used various devices to extend aural communication over space. Some societies developed elaborate drum signals. The loud deep tones could be used to transmit a limited number of important messages. Sailors at sea use whistle tones aboard ship. Powerful foghorns warn them of danger.

Written language becomes necessary when societies and their cultures become sufficiently widespread and complex that they require communication over time and space. When the culture needs written language, it invents it. That is, the people who share the culture invent written language. Sometimes written language is invented anew. More often in history an existing writing system is adopted and adapted to fit the needs of the culture.

## **6. COMMUNICATIVE SYSTEM**

We live in a world of signs (linguistic signs) we talk, write, see the traffic signs, interpret the time, the bells, the maps of cities, and so on and so forth. A sign is a material or abstract object (auditory or visual) that represents another object and we use it to perceive, keep or transmit a relative information of the object. **Language** is a group of interrelated signs that make a **semiotic system**.

**Ferdinand de Saussure**, the Swiss linguist talked about a new science in 1916 "**Semiology**" (the study of signs in the social life). Not only the oral and written signs, all of them are part of the **Semiology**. **Linguistics** would be a branch of **Semiology**.

In 1931 **Ch. S. Peirce**, a North American linguist renamed it as "**Semiotics**" and from then both words are designed and used. These two words come from the Greek word "Semeion" (sign).

### **6.1. COMMUNICATIVE FACTORS**

To produce communication we need a **CODE** (a limited and wide range of signs) combined through some known rules to whom the message is sent by the **SENDER** or **SPEAKER** and who receive it **RECEIVER** or **LISTENER**.

For instance, if a Japanese speaks to a British, he or she would not understand anything he/she says **MESSAGE** because the British does not know the **CODE** he/she uses that is the Japanese Language.



To establish communication there are some necessary factors:

- Φ The **SENDER** or **SPEAKER** is who sends the message.
- Φ The **RECEIVER** or **LISTENER** is who receives the message. It could be one person or a group of people.
- Φ The **CHANNEL** is the road where the message goes. The messages could be divided into sonorous or visual depending on what are the channels of communication.

- **Sonorous:** Oral language, sounds, music, noises, etc.
- **Visual:** Written language, draws, graphics, traffic signs, maps, etc.

Φ The **MESSAGE** is the information or group of information to be transmitted.

- a)- We can talk about three kinds of messages, **expressive**, **cognitive** and **representatives**. These kinds of messages could appear together in the same message. For instance,

**It is still raining!!!**

**Representative**

Something happens.

**Expressive**

You manifest your anger or disapproval.

**Careful!!! Look out!!!**

When you see someone to be run over by a car.

**Representative**

The announcement of danger.

**Expressive**

Manifest the fear.

**Cognitive**

Acting through the listener to avoid the knock down.

- b)- We can also classify the messages depending on the relation of the sender and the receiver.

- **Unilateral messages:** the sender does not receive an immediate response of the receiver. We could not answer. For example, the Radio or the Television.

- **Bilateral messages:** the sender and the receiver establish a reciprocal communication. When we talk to other people.

- c)- They can also be classified depending on the form of their signs.

- **Auditory messages:** the most important is the oral language. Others such as a whistle or a specific kind of music are as well from this group.



- **Visual messages:** the ones who use the written language and draws.

ΦThe **CODE** is the group of signs and rules to be combined to make the different messages.

ΦThe **SITUATION** is the context where the message is transmitted. For example, the bell in a school means that the class is over. The bell at home means that someone wants to get in.

The message affects what listeners perceive to be the relationship between what they have heard and what has been said and also their expectations of what will follow. The comprehended message is dependent on what the listener perceives to be the intentions of the speaker.

ΦThe **SIGNS** admit a lot of classifications. **Ch. S. Peirce** divided the signs in:

- **ICONS:** If they have any resemblance with the object that represent. E.g.: portrait, maps, caricature, cinema, theatre, etc.
- **TRACES:** when the object of meaning does not look like but has any resemblance E.g.: smoke is a trace (sign) of fire.
- **SYMBOLS:** they represent objects in a conventional way without having any resemblance between them. E.g.: the red and yellow flag is the symbol of Spain or the "green cross" the symbol of the chemist. It is an agreed object.

The signs that constitute the oral and written language (phonemes and letters) have a symbolic character. The words that make them are too. For example, there is no similarity between the word "**book**" with the object named. It is a conventional relation. In other languages this object receives different names:

English	book
French	livre
Spanish	libro
German	buch

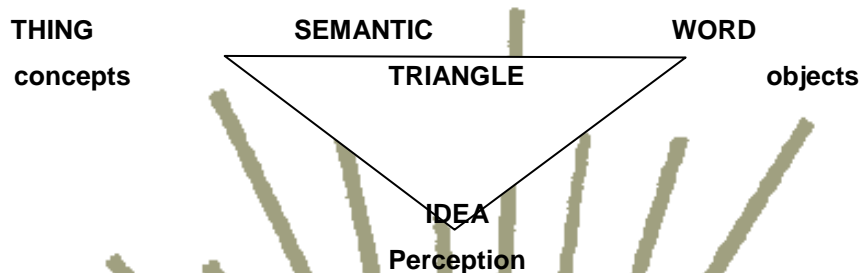
On the other hand, these words are not so different between them. This is produced because some languages come from the same mother language such as Spanish, French, Italian ... come from the Indo-European languages. Otherwise this fact does not affect the relation of the words with its name.

An information source emits a message, which is encoded for transmission as a signal. This signal passes through a channel to a receiver, which decodes the message for use at its destination.



The speaker or sender is the person who sends the message either speaking or writing or by gestures, etc. This message, that is, the information sent, travels all along the channel, which may be the space between the two participants in a conversation. The information must necessarily be encoded. That is, all the participants in a communicative act must know the code that the speaker uses to send the message. The listener or receiver, that is, the person who gets the message, must decode this information.

We can see a different graphic to represent the communicative act:



The “Thing” is the concept that the sender wants to transmit. This is encoded in a “semantic triangle” where the idea or the perception that we have of the “idea” is sent to the receiver through the message. Not everybody perceives the same. And the “word” or group of words are the objects got when the listener decodes.

The code has a source sent by the speaker through a channel and arrives to the destination that is the listener. The information is encoded by the sender and decoded by the receiver.

## 6.2. DIFFICULTIES IN COMMUNICATION

Now we know the theoretical part of the communicative act but there are elements that involve conversation to produce communication. There are many moments in a conversation that a big silence is produced and this can break up communication. These moments could come due to a lot of reasons:

- In conversations people speak to transmit a message full of feelings, emotions, intentions, information, etc and if the receiver does not understand what the sender wants to transmit the conversation is limited, so the language do not do the function of communication.
- We must bear in mind as teachers that if these phenomena happen in our mother tongue it its going to be more likely to happen in a foreign language. That is why we have to give time to our students to understand the process.
- Students who are to speak a new language need much practice in this process of generating new sentences to suit their purposes.



- Speech is a tool in everyday life so with practice it would be easier for our students to get confidence.
- The speaker must choose the style of language in which to express the message. This is sometimes called register or level of discourse.
- In our mother tongue we are familiar to everything and we talk without thinking what we are going to say, but in a foreign language we have to practice a lot to get it.
- Finally, the speaker has to articulate the whole utterance by muscle movements that will enable the listener to get the full import of the message.

## 7. CONCLUSION

Teaching a language is different from teaching other subjects in so far our aim is communication. We cannot promote communication among the children if they are all sitting quietly doing individual work all the time. There is nothing motivating about learning a language if you are just going to do exercises in a book. By varying the group dynamics in the classroom we can provide the students with different types of interaction and chance to develop the kind of social interaction that is necessary for any communication to take place on a regular basis. This, in itself, is an important motivating factor.

## 8.- SUMMARY

### 1. Introduction

**Communication** is the exchange of information between individuals, who use a common system of symbols. Words and sentences have meaning because they are part of a language system.

### 2. Definition of Language

	<u>System of</u>	<u>used by</u>
<b>Sapir</b>	self-produced symbols	human
<b>Bram</b>	phonetic symbols	social group
<b>Brook</b>	communicative resources	speaker's community
<b>Pyles</b>	systematic sound combination	cultural community
<b>Carreter</b>	oral or written signs	community

#### 2.1. Aspects of Language





There are several different ways of looking at language.

We consider **language-as-product**, when we make language an object of study. It is sometimes called *langue*

We consider **language-as-tool**, when we emphasise the way to use language to operate upon the environment.

We consider **language-as-activity**, when we move into pragmatics, in order to use language as a social event.

### 3. Communicative System

**Communicative acts:** the **speaker or sender** sends a **message** to the **listener or receiver**. This message travels along the **channel**. There must be a common **code** between the participants, who must encode and decode the message in order to get its meaning.

### 4. Functions of language

According to **Halliday**, these functions are:

**Instrumental** (the "I want" function);

**Regulatory** (the "Do as I tell you" function);

**Interactional** (the "We and you" function);

**Personal** (the "Here I come" function);

**Heuristic** (the "Tell me why" function);

**Imaginative** (the "Let's pretend" function)

**Informative** (the "I've got something to tell you" function).

### 5. Varieties of language

according to **region**

according to **social class**

**field of discourse**

**attitude**

**medium**

### 6. Oral Language

**Characteristics of spoken English:**

unconscious nature,  
constant state of flux,  
mobile and intricate,  
spontaneous.



## 7. Written Language

### 7.1.Characteristics of written English:

Static and dense, although it presents some variation.

Regional differences in written English as well (color, colour, etc.). Literary keys also express variation. They may be formal, semiformal and informal (the use of "don't"),

**8. Spoken or written language? :** Who is the best? Grammarians, at the beginning, considered the written variety as the traditional basis for grammatical study. Now, some forms of speech, which were declared "unacceptable" are current in speech even of educated persons. A good grammar must describe all the observed phenomena in a language, as it is spoken and written.

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