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Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

The major objective of this book is to cover the fundamentals of general linguistics. It is assumed in this book that students have had some prior knowledge in general linguistics. It is highly recommended that students have studied an introduction to linguistics as a prerequisite for this course.

The book covers almost all main areas of general linguistics. These areas include language change, phonology, and the sound patterns of language, morphology and morphological analysis, syntax and sentence patterns, semantics, lexical semantic properties which determine syntactic patterns and pragmatics. Below is a brief outline of each of these chapters.

Chapter one is general introduction, while chapter two introduces the major branches of general linguistics. Chapter two deals with the different areas of linguistics. Among these areas are: descriptive linguistics, comparative linguistics, formal linguistics, and sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, computational

linguistics, applied linguistics, anthropological linguistics and philosophical linguistics.

Regarding formal linguistics, three different schools of thought are discussed: the traditional school, the structural school and the generative transformational school. As for the different areas of formal linguistics, five main areas are introduced. These include phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

With respect to sociolinguistics, a number of issues are included. Among these issues are the following: language variation, language and social interaction, pragmatics, discourse analysis, ethnography of communication, language attitudes, and language planning.

In addition, this chapter discusses such areas as cognitive linguistics, corpus linguistics, etymology, and stylistics. Examples and illustrations to simplify and explain these issues are provided. The chapter ends with a number of revision questions.

Chapter three deals with the different definitions of language, while chapter four discusses the issue of language varieties. In chapter three such issues as the origin of language, language productivity and language arbitrariness are discussed. The issue of the functions of language is also discussed in chapter three. Chapter four on the other hand discusses such topics as dialectology, social varieties of language, pidgin languages and creole languages.

Chapter five deals with the issue of linguistic change. It is shown in this chapter that just like living beings, languages undergo change at all linguistic levels. Indeed, the role of change is not the same at different linguistic levels. For instance, at the lexical level we expect high rate of change since new lexical items or words are frequently added to the vocabulary of any language. By contrast, we do not expect new phonemes to emerge in languages or dramatic syntactic change, except for rare cases.

The issue of linguistic change is also relevant to the original human language and how such a language developed into different language families and different languages due to linguistic change. In this regard, it is assumed by historical linguists that the first human language is known as Proto- Human- Language. Due to linguistic change over thousands of years, this Proto-Human- Language split into different language families. For instance, while both Arabic and English belong to the So called Proto- Human-Language, Arabic belongs to the Semitic family, which in turn belongs to the Afro- Asiatic family. On the other hand, English belongs to the Germanic family, which in turn belongs to the Indo-European family.

Chapter six deals with phonology as one of the major branches of linguistics. It is shown in this chapter that although phonology and phonetics deal with the sounds of language, each branch has its own focus and perspectives. For instance, the issues of allophonic variation, phonemic contrast, assimilation, allophonic and

constructive features and stress patterns constitute the main focus of phonology.

Chapter seven deals with morphology and morphological analysis. It contains a basic introduction to morphemes, allophones, and conditions which determine allomorphic variation. Types and functions of morphemes are also included. This chapter also presents illustrations of how morphological analysis is carried out. An outline of the inflectional and derivational morphemes, as well as the main differences between the two types is also included in this chapter.

Chapter eight is assigned to syntax as one of the major branches of linguistics, while chapter nine is devoted to semantics. It contains an outline of the very basic notions of syntax. In particular, the relevance of grammatical categories, phrase structure rules, and the different syntactic patterns are discussed in this chapter. Reference to different approaches to syntactic analysis is also included in this chapter. On the other hand, Chapter nine is assigned to the component of semantics. In this

chapter the basic semantic notions are introduced. The role of semantics to linguistic analysis is also discussed in this chapter. The issue of interface between semantics and syntax is also explored.

Chapter ten deals with the issue of the lexical semantics of verbs in Arabic and English and their role in determining syntactic patterns. Specifically, in this chapter the role of the lexical properties of verbs and how they condition syntactic variation will be explored. Illustrations of how different semantic classes of verbs are associated with different syntactic patterns are included.

What is significant about the issue of lexical semantics and their role in syntactic variation is that none of the major syntactic theories can adequately capture the role of these semantic properties. For instance, if we examine such syntactic theories as Transformational Syntax (Chomsky), Relational Syntax (D. Perlmutter), and even Lexical functional Syntax (J.Bersnan), we find that none of these theories can adequately capture the fact

that certain syntactic variations are completely conditioned by the semantic properties of verbs.

Moreover, a comparison is included in this chapter between English and Arabic with respect to the phenomenon in consideration. Despite the fact English and Arabic are genetically unrelated languages since Arabic is Semitic and English is Germanic, the two languages exhibit interesting similarity in this regard. More specifically, it is shown in this chapter that both English and Arabic exhibit the same behavior regarding the fact that variation is syntactic patterns is conditioned by subtle semantic properties.

Chapter eleven is devoted to pragmatics and how this area of linguistics is different from semantics. While semantics is concerned with the objective or neutral meanings which can be found in dictionaries, pragmatics goes beyond that. It is concerned with the speakers intention and the meanings which can be inferred from given contexts. Among the notions discussed are the following: physical context vs. linguistic context, deictic

expressions, anaphora, inference, presupposition and speech acts.

Chapter twelve is intended to provide a variety of exercises on syntax, phonology and morphology. In addition, it contains some exercises on basic syntactic rules which students often have problems with. Many of the issues covered do not have direct Arabic counterparts. Hence, our students who are native speakers of Arabic often encounter some difficulties with these rules due to interference from Arabic. These rules include subject-verb agreement, pronoun- antecedent agreement, placement of modifiers, avoiding fragments, avoiding comma splices and fused sentences, pronoun case, avoiding shifts, and parallel structure.

CHAPTER 2

MAJOR BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

CHAPTER 2
AREAS OF BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

I. WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It encompasses the description of languages, the study of their origin, and the analysis of how children acquire language and how people learn languages other than their own. Linguistics is also concerned with relationships between languages and with the ways languages change over time.

Linguists may study language as a thought process and seek a theory that accounts for the universal human capacity to produce and understand language. Some linguists examine language within a cultural context. By observing talk, they try to determine what a person needs to know in order to speak appropriately in different settings, such as the workplace, among friends, or among family. Other linguists focus on what happens when speakers from different language and cultural backgrounds interact. Linguists may also concentrate on

how to help people learn another language, using what they know about the learner's first language and about the language being acquired.

Linguistics is a 'foundation' discipline in the sense that it bridges the social sciences, the natural sciences, and the humanities. Linguistics also has links with cognitive science, computer science, education (through reading, child language acquisition, and classroom interaction), geography (through linguistic geography and dialectology), history (through historical linguistics), literature (through stylistics, poetics, and critical theory), neurology (through neurolinguistics, the study of how language functions in the brain), philosophy (through the philosophy of natural language, semantics, and logic), psychology (through psycholinguistics, cognitive psychology, and clinical applications), sociology (through sociolinguistics and the sociology of language), speech therapy, and zoology (through animal communication and the evolution of language).

Several of the subfields of linguistics that will be discussed here are concerned with the major components of language: Phonetics is concerned with the sounds of languages, phonology with the way sounds are used in individual languages, morphology with the structure or formation of words, syntax with the structure of phrases and sentences, and semantics with the study of meaning.

Another major subfield of linguistics, pragmatics, studies the interaction between language and the contexts in which it is used. Synchronic linguistics studies a language's form at a fixed time in history, past or present. Diachronic, or historical, linguistics, on the other hand, investigates the way a language changes over time.

A number of linguistic fields study the relations between language and the subject matter of related academic disciplines, such as sociolinguistics (sociology and language) and psycholinguistics (psychology and language). In principle, applied linguistics is any application of linguistic methods or results to solve

problems related to language, but in practice it tends to be restricted to second-language instruction.

II. DESCRIPTIVE AND COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS

Although there are many ways of studying language, most approaches belong to one of the two main branches of linguistics: descriptive linguistics and comparative linguistics.

A. DESCRIPTIVE LINGUISTICS:

Descriptive linguistics is concerned with the study and analysis of spoken language. The techniques of descriptive linguistics were devised by German American anthropologist Franz Boas and American linguist and anthropologist Edward Sapir in the early 1900s to record and analyze Native American languages.

Descriptive linguistics begins with what a linguist hears native speakers say. By listening to native speakers, the linguist gathers a body of data and analyzes it in order to identify distinctive sounds, called phonemes.

Individual phonemes, such as /p/ and /b/, are established on the grounds that substitution of one for the other changes the meaning of a word.

After identifying the entire inventory of sounds in a language, the linguist looks at how these sounds combine to create morphemes, or units of sound that carry meaning, such as the words *push* and *bush*. Morphemes may be individual words such as *push*; root words, such as *berry* in *blueberry*; or prefixes (*pre-* in *preview*) and suffixes (*-ness* in *openness*).

The linguist's next step is to see how morphemes combine into sentences, obeying both the dictionary meaning of the morpheme and the grammatical rules of the sentence. In the sentence "He pushed the bush," the morpheme *he*, a pronoun, is the subject; *push*, a transitive verb, is the verb; *the*, a definite article, is the determiner; and *bush*, a noun, is the object. Knowing the function of the morphemes in the sentence enables the linguist to describe the grammar of the language.

The scientific procedures of *phonemics* (finding phonemes), *morphology* (discovering morphemes), and *syntax* (describing the order of morphemes and their function in the sentence) provide descriptive linguists with a way to write down grammars of languages never before written down or analyzed. In this way they can begin to study and understand these languages.

B. COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS:

Comparative linguistics is the study and analysis, by means of written records, of the origins and relatedness of different languages. In 1786 Sir William Jones, an English scholar, asserted that Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin were related to one another and had descended from a common source. He based this assertion on observations of similarities in sounds and meanings among the three languages. For example, the Sanskrit word *bhratar* for "brother" resembles the Latin word *frater,* the Greek word *phrater,* (and the English word *brother*).

Other scholars went on to compare Icelandic with Scandinavian languages, and Germanic languages with

Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin. The correspondences among languages, known as genetic relationships, came to be represented on what comparative linguists refer to as family trees. Family trees established by comparative linguists include the Indo-European, relating Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, German, English, and other Asian and European languages; the Algonquian, relating Fox, Cree, Menomini, Ojibwa, and other Native North American languages; and the Bantu, relating Swahili, Xhosa, Zulu, Kikuyu, and other African languages.

Comparative linguists also look for similarities in the way words are formed in different languages. Latin and English, for example, change the form of a word to express different meanings, as when the English verb *go* changes to *went* and *gone* to express a past action. Chinese, on the other hand, has no such inflected forms; the verb remains the same while other words indicate the time (as in "go store tomorrow"). In Swahili, prefixes, suffixes, and *infixes* (additions in the body of the word) combine with a root word to change its meaning. For

example, a single word might express when something was done, by whom, to whom, and in what manner.

Some comparative linguists reconstruct hypothetical ancestral languages known as proto-languages, which they use to demonstrate relatedness among contemporary languages. A proto-language is not intended to depict a real language, however, and does not represent the speech of ancestors of people speaking modern languages. Unfortunately, some groups have mistakenly used such reconstructions in efforts to demonstrate the ancestral homeland of a people.

Comparative linguists have suggested that certain basic words in a language do not change over time, because people are reluctant to introduce new words for such constants as *arm*, *eye*, or *mother*. These words are termed *culture free*. By comparing lists of culture-free words in languages within a family, linguists can derive the percentage of related words and use a formula to figure out when the languages separated from one another.

By the 1960s comparativists were no longer satisfied with focusing on origins, migrations, and the family tree method. They challenged as unrealistic the notion that an earlier language could remain sufficiently isolated for other languages to be derived exclusively from it over a period of time.

Today comparativists seek to understand the more complicated reality of language history, taking language contact into account. They are concerned with universal characteristics of language and with comparisons of grammars and structures.

III. SUBFIELDS OF LINGUISTICS

The field of linguistics both borrows from and lends its own theories and methods to other disciplines. The many subfields of linguistics have expanded our understanding of languages. Linguistic theories and methods are also used in other fields of study. These overlapping interests have led to the creation of several cross-disciplinary fields.

A. FORMAL LINGUISTICS:

Formal linguistics is the study of the structures and processes of language, that is, how language works and is organized. Formal linguists study the structures of different languages, and by identifying and studying the elements common among them, seek to discover the most efficient way to describe language in general. There are three main schools of thought in formal linguistics:

(1) The "traditional," or "prescriptive," approach to grammar is probably familiar to most of us. It is what we are usually taught in school. "A noun is a person, place, or thing" is a typical definition in a traditional grammar. Such grammars typically prescribe rules of correct or preferred usage.

(2) "Structural linguistics," a principally American phenomenon of the mid-20th century, is typified by the work of Leonard Bloomfield, who drew on ideas of the behaviorist school of psychology. Structuralists are primarily concerned with phonology, morphology, and syntax (described below). They focus on the

physical features of utterances with little regard for meaning or lexicon (Crystal, 1980). They divide words into form classes distinguished according to grammatical features. For example, a noun is defined in terms of its position in a sentence and its inflections, such as the "-s" for plural.

(3) The "generative/transformational" approach to the study of grammar was introduced by Noam Chomsky in 1957 in his seminal work, "Syntactic Structures." Here he traced a relationship between the "deep structure" of sentences (what is in the mind) and their "surface structure" (what is spoken or written). For example, the surface structure of the sentence, "The postman was bitten by the dog," was derived from the deep structure, "The dog bit the postman," through the application of a passive transformation. From transformational/generative grammar arose the theory of Universal Grammar. This widely accepted theory starts from the perception that all languages share certain linguistic features (universals). The goal of this theory is to explain the uniformity of language

acquisition among humans despite ostensible differences in their native languages. Since Chomsky's original proposals in 1957, numerous elaborations and alternative theories have been proposed.

Formal linguistics includes five principal areas of study as follows:

1. PHONETICS:

Phonetics is a multi-faceted branch of linguistics with a long history reaching ancient times. Nevertheless, even nowadays there are several opinions as to whether phonetics and phonology should be treated as two separate disciplines whose scope of interest overlap, or as one complex study having many different interests and methods of inquiry.

Generally, it is said that phonetics deals with physical and physiological aspects of speech production, while phonology is more abstract and focuses on psychological and functional perspective. What is more,

phonetics is also interested in how children learn the sounds of their first language, what can be done in cases of speech and hearing defects, how is speech perceived and produced. In addition to this, phonetics also deals with investigating ways of successful foreign language pronunciation teaching and designing means of speech synthesis. Therefore, with such a wide range of concerns phonetics has benefited from many seemingly unrelated scholarly disciplines, such as psychology, anthropology, engineering as well as language teaching and stenography.

As phonetics is interested in the way in which humans produce, transmit and receive speech it is, by and large, sub-divided according to the focus of investigations. Thus articulatory phonetics deals with the processes that take place in the vocal tract when humans produce speech sounds. So it takes into consideration the use of the vocal organs, muscle contractions, the airflow and pressure in the vocal tract, as well as intonation, phonation (modulations of the airstream), together with various manners of articulation - for instance, lets consider the pronunciation of the words 'debt management '. The first word consists of three sounds in English: 'd' - plosive

consonant, 'e' - short vowel, and 't' - another plosive consonant. The three sounds combined together form the word debt /det/. The second is made up of eight sounds. The properties of each sound are analyzed by articulatory phonetics.

Accoustic phonetics studies the physical features of speech sounds as they are sent from mouth to ears. Acoustic phonetics, which deals only with human speech sounds, needs to be distinguished from instrumental phonetics which deals with the transmission of all types of sounds, by means of computers, telephones, microphones and other instruments. Because of the very nature of speech sounds, and the way they disperse in the air, it is difficult to analyse their properties without the use of the instruments mentioned above, therefore many methods of inquiry have been adopted.

Auditory phonetics focuses on how speech sounds are perceived by the listeners, how they are heard and interpreted. As articulatory phonetics studies the speech sounds from the point of view of the speaker, auditory

phonetics analyses them from the point of view of the listener. This branch of linguistics is, at least partially, based on the findings of such disciplines as anatomy and biology. Since it is the brain that humans use in order to interpret the perceived sounds auditory phonetics analyses also processes occurring in it while listening to speech.

Apart from the main three branches of phonetics mentioned above there is also a relatively new sub-branch called forensic phonetics that deals with speaker identification for example. However, what is probably the most important achievement of phonetics from the point of view of an ordinary language learner is the description of speech sounds made by the native speakers. Thus, thanks to the linguists occupied with this science a thorough division of the English consonants and vowels together with the means of their production and different peculiarities have been accounted for, thus making the process of language learning much easier. As in the English language the writing system does not reflect the pronunciation of words a very useful tool for language learners is phonetic description. Phoneticians have created

the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) which shows the means and place of articulation of consonants and vowels that users of English as a mother tongue use. Many dictionaries published in the recent years have used the IPA to show how the English words ought to be pronounced. The following chart shows the complete IPA, therefore not all of the symbols shown there are used in the description of the English language.

2. PHONOLOGY:

Phonology is a branch of linguistics, closely related to phonetics, which studies the manners of organization and usage of the speech sounds in natural languages. The history of this science reaches ancient times, as the Greek and Roman grammarians also investigated the phonological systems of their languages. The foundations for modern phonological inquiries were laid in the nineteenth century by linguists such as Ferdinand de Saussure and Henry Sweet.

Phonology deals with the smallest chunks of language, yet it is in connection with other linguistic

disciplines like morphology, because adding morphemes may change the meaning of words and their pronunciation, frequently following patterns. Phonology is also related with syntax, as depending on a function of a word in a sentence it can be pronounced differently with a shifted phrasal stress and with changed intonation.

Similarly, this branch of linguistics is connected with semantics because of intonation constraints. While phonetics studies the production and perception of the speech sounds (for instance, in the expression 'London photography', phonetics would analyze all the sounds present in the words 'London' and 'photography', describing how they are produced), phonology is more interested in the abstract, that is mental aspects of these sounds. It inquiries into and describes the patterns of sounds and sound types which native speakers acquire intuitively.

However, since the term 'speech sounds' seems to be used mainly in phonetics, phonologists speak of phonemes. A phoneme is the smallest meaningful unit of

sound in the human language. Yet it is not identical with the sound itself, it is rather a theoretical representation without mentioning its position in a syllable, word, or phrase (for instance, there are eleven sounds in 'contract hire' but only nine phonemes). One important feature of phonemes is their contrastiveness which enables their identification. It is by contrasting the two phonemes, for example /k/ and /g/ that can be seen that they differ in at least one feature, like voicing. All languages have a set of such distinctive phonemes. By and large, it seems that the majority of languages have about 30 phonemes, but there are some that have as few as 11 or as many as almost 150. The English language, it is said, has about 43 phonemes, depending on the variety of English in question. Even though the number of phonemes may differ from language to language, the sets are always limited, but enable speakers to create unlimited numbers of words. In English the word step consists of four phonemes, and the word pest has the same four phonemes, yet since they are in different order the meaning is not the same.

Phonology also investigates the possible sequences of phonemes in a given language. Therefore, it indirectly studies word formation processes, as they too are constrained by the rules of phonotactics, that is allowable organization of phonemes. Thus it is very unlikely that any English word should begin with ng- or the sound /N/ while this sound is quite common in the middle, or at the end of English words. However, the fact that phonotactic constraints do not allow for some sounds in a language to occur in certain positions, which confines the word-coining and word formation processes of a language, it does not mean that such words do not appear in that language. Sometimes loan words may break the phonological rules of a given language and still be in use, as is the case with the initial position of the /N/ sound in English. By and large, words with such a sound in the initial position have started appearing in English only recently and all of them are loan words: schnapps, schnitzel, schmo.

The analysis of the possible sequences of phonemes focuses not only on phonemes themselves, but also on

syllables and clusters. A syllable must comprise a vowel, but usually there is also a consonant (C) before the vowel (V). **Syllables** are frequently described as consisting of an **onset**, which is a consonant, or a few consonants, and a **rhyme**, often subdivided into a **nucleus** (a vowel), and **coda** (any following consonants). In the English language coda does not always have to occur in a syllable, like for instance in the words: he (CV), or too (CV). Clusters, or consonant clusters are simply two or more consonants one after another. Clusters, like other phonotactic rules, are characteristic of a given language, for instance the /st/ cluster in English can be an onset: street, or a coda: highest, however it is impossible in Japanese.

Apart from analyzing the phonemes of a language, clusters and syllables, phonology also deals with the processes that occur in everyday, fluent speech. The most frequent processes that can be observed in casual speech are assimilation and elision. Assimilation is a process in which certain sounds copy the characteristics of another, adjacent sound. Elision is a process in which some sounds, or even syllables are omitted and not pronounced at all,

although in other situations they are normally uttered. Elision occurs not because of laziness of speakers, but to make the pronunciation more fluent.

3. MORPHOLOGY:

Morphology is the part of linguistics that deals with the study of words, their internal structure and partially their meanings. Morphologists study minimal units of meaning, called "morphemes," and investigate the possible combinations of these units in a language to form words. For example, the word "imperfections" is composed of four morphemes: "im" + "perfect" + "ion" + "s." The root, "perfect," is transformed from an adjective into a noun by the addition of "ion," made negative with "im," and pluralized by "s."

Scholars differentiate between derivational morphology and inflectional morphology. The former is concerned with the relationships of different words, and with the ways in which vocabulary items can be built from some elements, as in *un-speak-able*; while the latter deals with the forms of one word that it takes up

depending on its grammatical functions in a sentence. When it comes to English it appears that it rather takes advantage of derivational morphemes rather than inflectional ones.

Morphology is also interested in how the users of a given language understand complex words and invent new lexical items. As morphology is concerned with word forms it is akin to phonology (which describes how words are pronounced), it is also related to lexical studies as the patterns examined by morphology are used to create new words. Furthermore, it is also linked with semantics as it deals with the meanings of words.

4. SYNTAX:

Syntax is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the study of the structure of a **sentence** and ordering of its elements. The word syntax itself derives from Greek words meaning ‘together’ or ‘arrangement’, but also the modern syntactic tradition and investigations have their roots in the findings of ancient Greeks. One of such ‘traditional’ tasks of linguists dealing with syntax was to

describe the organization of the parts of a **sentence**, however, with the development of this branch of **linguistics**, and especially in contemporary inquiries the scope of interest has widened.

Yet, before the most recent theories are presented the very concept of a ‘sentence’ needs clarification. As a general rule, a sentence is described as a full formulation of an idea, nevertheless, there are numerous examples of thoughts expressed in a **language**, and yet in not fully developed sentences, like: ‘Go!’, or ‘Coffee?’. That is why two different approaches to defining sentences have emerged: *notional* which characterizes a sentence as an expression of a single idea, and *formal* focusing on the manners of constructing sentences, and patterns within them

As a consequence of the differences in the approaches a division of sentences on the basis of their complexity was created. And thus sentences are either major, or minor. Major sentences are those which can be modified or analyzed further into patterns of elements.

They are further subdivided into simple sentences, which consist of only one clause, or multiple sentences consisting of two or more clauses. On the other hand, minor sentences cannot be broken down into patterns of elements, because they use ‘abnormal’ patterns, in that they do not follow the rules of grammar. Some types of minor sentences include: abbreviated forms, such as ‘wish you were here’; proverbs: ‘easy come, easy go’; emotional noises: ‘ouch!’, ‘ugh!’; formulae: ‘how do you do?’.

Seeing all those difficulties an American linguist Noam Chomsky came up with an idea of **generative grammar**, which was supposed to look at the **grammar** of language from the mathematical point of view, constructing a limited number of rules describing all the possible patterns of forming correct sentences. Moreover, what Chomsky showed was the difference between the deep and surface structure of a sentence. What he called the surface structure of a sentence was its grammatical form, and the deep structure was understood as the meaning of sentence. For example the two sentences: *I*

know Mary. and *Mary knows me.* differ in their surface structure, but not in their deep structure. Still, it is the deep structure that might cause the biggest problems. Certain sentences, although easily understood, can be ambiguous because of their structure, like, for instance, *He hit a guy with a car*. This sentence can mean that he was driving a car and hit someone, or that he hit somebody who had a car.

All of the above mentioned issues are in the focus of attention of linguists dealing with syntax who, in order to analyze various types of sentences, had to introduce specific methods and symbols. Lets start with the symbols, and abbreviations:

Adj	adjective
Adv	adverb
Art	article
N	noun
NP	noun phrase
PN	proper noun
PP	prepositional phrase

Prep	preposition
Pro	pronoun
S	sentence
V	verb
VP	verb phrase

With such symbols practically all sentences can be presented as a tree diagram. Such diagrams fulfill at least two roles: they show how sentences can be broken down to illustrate their structure, but what is more, it shows a general manner of creating sentences, which led to the idea that with one diagram like that a number of sentences can be created providing similar structures are used. Thus *phrase structure rules* were formulated in order to construct unlimited sentences with a small number of rules. However, sentences made with the use of such rules would always have similar word order, therefore another set of rules, called *transformational rules*, was introduced to enable more flexibility and to explain how statements can be transformed into questions, or negations. . (A whole chapter on syntax is included in this book)

5. SEMANTICS:

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. The goal of semantic study is to explain how sequences of language are matched with their proper meanings and placed in certain environments by speakers of the language. The importance of meaning is revealed in the following well known example from Chomsky (1957): "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously." Though grammatical, this sentence is largely meaningless in ordinary usage. . (A whole chapter on semantics is included in this book)

B. SOCIOLINGUISTICS:

Sociolinguistics is the study of patterns and variations in language within a society or community. It focuses on the way people use language to express social class, group status, gender, or ethnicity, and it looks at how they make choices about the form of language they use.

Sociolinguistics also examines the way people use language to negotiate their role in society and to achieve positions of power. For example, sociolinguistic studies have found that the way a New Yorker pronounces the phoneme /r/ in an expression such as “fourth floor” can indicate the person’s social class. According to one study, people aspiring to move from the lower middle class to the upper middle class attach prestige to pronouncing the /r/. Sometimes they even overcorrect their speech, pronouncing an /r/ where those whom they wish to copy may not.

Some sociolinguists believe that analyzing such variables as the use of a particular phoneme can predict the direction of language change. Change, they say, moves toward the variable associated with power, prestige, or other quality having high social value. Other sociolinguists focus on what happens when speakers of different languages interact. This approach to language change emphasizes the way languages mix rather than the direction of change within a community. The goal of sociolinguistics is to understand communicative

competence—what people need to know to use the appropriate language for a given social setting.

The major divisions within the field of sociolinguistics are described below

LANGUAGE VARIATION:

Language variation describes the relationship between the use of linguistic forms and factors such as geography, social class, ethnic group, age, sex, occupation, function, or style. The combination of these various factors results in an individual's "idiolect," that is, their particular and idiosyncratic manner of speech.

When a variety of language is shared by a group of speakers, it is known as a "dialect," A dialect, whether standard or nonstandard, includes the full range of elements used to produce speech: pronunciation, grammar, and interactive features. In this respect, dialect should be distinguished from accent, which usually refers only to pronunciation.

All speakers of a language speak a dialect of that language. For example, the speech of an Alabaman is quite different from that of a New Englander, even though the language spoken by both is English. Further differentiation is possible by investigating factors such as social class, age, sex, and occupation.

LANGUAGE AND SOCIAL INTERACTION:

This is the province of language and its function in the real world. Three subfields of sociolinguistics investigate this relationship.

(1) PRAGMATICS:

Pragmatics looks at how context affects meaning. It is the study of meaning of words, phrases and full sentences, but unlike semantics which deals with the objective meanings of words that can be found in dictionaries, pragmatics is more concerned with the meanings that words in fact convey when they are used, or with intended speaker meaning as it is sometimes referred to. It can be said that pragmatics attempts to analyze how it happens that often more is communicated

than said. As frequently the meaning of discourse is context-dependant, pragmatics examines the devices used by language users (ex. deictic expressions, or anaphora) in order to express the desired meaning and how it is perceived.

The interpretation of what meanings the speaker wanted to convey using particular words is often influenced by factors such as the listeners' assumptions or the context. In pragmatics two types of context can be differentiated: linguistic context and physical context. **Linguistic context**, sometimes called co-text is the set of words that surround the lexical item in question in the same phrase, or sentence. **Physical context** is the location of a given word, the situation in which it is used, as well as timing, all of which aid proper understating of the words.

There are numerous frequently used words which depend on the physical context for their correct understanding, such as: *there*, *that*, *it*, or *tomorrow*. Terms like that are known as **deictic expressions**. Depending on

what such words refer to they can be classified as **person deixis**: *him*, *they*, *you*; s**patial deixis**: *there*, *here*; and **temporal deixis**: *then*, *in an hour*, *tomorrow*. However, in pragmatics it is assumed that words do not refer to anything by themselves and it is people who in order to grasp the communicated idea perform an act of identifying what the speaker meant. This act is called **reference**.

Another act involved in the analysis of discourse so as to make an association between what is said and what must be meant is **inference** and it is often used in connection with anaphora. **Anaphora** is subsequent mentioning of a formerly introduced item, as in the following sentences: '*He went to a shop', 'It was closed'.* When *shop* was mentioned for the second time the pronoun *it* was used to refer to it. Moreover, when people make use of such linguistic devices they necessarily make some assumptions about the knowledge of the speaker. Although some of the assumptions might be wrong, most of them are usually correct what makes the exchange of information smooth. What the producer of discourse

correctly assumes to be known by the text's recipient is described as a **presupposition**.

In addition, pragmatics is also concerned with the functions of utterances such as promising, requesting, informing which are referred to as **speech acts**. Certain grammatical structures are associated with corresponding functions, as in the interrogative structure '*Do you drink tea?'* the functions is questioning. Such a case can be described as a **direct speech act**. However, when the interrogative structure is used to fulfill a different purpose as in *'Can you close the window?'* where it clearly is not a question about ability, but a polite request, such a situation is described as an indirect speech **act**.

The use of both directs and indirect speech acts is strongly connected with the linguistic concept of politeness. **Politeness** in the study of language is defined as showing awareness of others people self-image by adjusting own speech style. Every person's self image in pragmatics is called **face** and utterances presenting a threat to the interlocutor are known as **face-threatening acts**, while those which lessen the threats are called **face**

saving acts. It is assumed that the use of indirect questions is characteristic of face saving acts. . (A whole chapter on pragmatics is included in this book)

(2) DISCOURSE ANALYSIS:

Discourse analysis examines the way in which sentences relate in larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. Matters of cohesion (the relationship between linguistic forms and propositions) and coherence (the relationship between speech acts) are also investigated. The links between utterances in sequence are important topics of analysis.

(3) ETHNOGRAPHY OF COMMUNICATION:

Ethnography of communication uses the tools of anthropology to study verbal interaction in its social setting. One example of ethnographic research is the study of doctor-patient communication. Such study involves microanalysis of doctor-patient interaction, noting not only what is said but also pauses between turns, interruptions, questioning and response patterns, changes

in pitch, and nonverbal aspects of interaction, such as eye contact.

LANGUAGE ATTITUDES:

This term refers to the attitudes people hold toward different language varieties and the people who speak them are important to sociolinguists. Whereas studies in language and social interaction investigate actual language interaction, language attitude studies explore how people react to language interactions and how they evaluate others based on the language behavior they observe.

LANGUAGE PLANNING:

Language planning is the process of implementing major decisions regarding which languages should be used on a societal scale. Language attitude studies are an essential component of language planning. In the United States, issues such as establishing bilingual education programs or whether to declare English the official language are major language planning decisions.

It is in multilingual nations, however, that language planning is most significant. Governments must decide which of a country's many languages to develop or maintain and which to use for such functions as education, government, television, and the press.

"Corpus" planning involves the development or simplification of writing systems, dictionaries, and grammars for indigenous languages, in addition to the coining of words to represent new concepts. In such contexts, language planning is an important factor in economic, political, and social development.

C. PSYCHOLINGUISTICS:

Psycholinguistics is a branch of linguistics which combines the disciplines of psychology and linguistics to study how people process language and how language use is related to underlying mental processes. It is concerned with the relationship between the human mind and language as it examines the processes that occur in the brain while producing and perceiving both written and spoken discourse. What is more, it is interested in the

ways of storing lexical items and syntactic rules in mind, as well as the processes of memory involved in perception and interpretation of texts. Also, the processes of speaking and listening are analyzed, along with language acquisition and language disorders

Psycholinguists work to develop models for how language is processed and understood, using evidence from studies of what happens when these processes go awry. They also study language disorders such as *aphasia* (impairment of the ability to use or comprehend words) and *dyslexia* (impairment of the ability to make out written language).

Psycholinguistics as a separate branch of study emerged in the late 1950s and 1960s as a result of Chomskyan revolution. The ideas presented by Chomsky became so important that they quickly gained a lot of publicity and had a big impact on a large number of contemporary views on language. Consequently also psycholinguists started investigating such matters as the processing of deep and surface structure of sentences. In

the early years of development of psycholinguistics special experiments were designed in order to examine if the focus of processing is the deep syntactic structure. On the basis of transformation of sentences it was initially discovered that the ease of processing was connected with syntactic complexity. However, later on it became clear that not only syntactic complexity adds to the difficulty of processing, but also semantic factors have a strong influence on it.

All the same, certain principles of sentence processing that were formulated at that time are still valid. One of them, namely the **principle of minimal attachment** means that when processing a sentence which could have multiple meanings people most often tend to choose the simplest meaning, or the meaning that in syntactic analysis would present the simplest parse tree with fewest nodes. Thus, a sentence 'Mary watched the man with the binoculars' by most language users would be interpreted that it was Mary, and not the man, who was using binoculars. One other principle worth noting is **the principle of late closure** which states that there is a

tendency to join the new information to the current phrase, or clause, which explains why in a sentence such as ‘John said he will leave this morning’ the phrase ‘this morning’ would be understood as relating to the verb ‘leave’ and not to ‘said’.

Other psycholinguistic investigations into how processing of texts occurs led to conclusions that complex sentences with multiple clauses are interpreted faster and with less mental effort when the clauses are not reduced. When it comes to speech the experiments show that the interpretation of sentences can vary depending on the placing of pauses, or disfluencies.

In addition, it is has been proven that visual contact between speakers also has a strong influence on the ease, or difficulty of processing texts. During experiments subjects were listening to some sentences and those who saw the speaker could understand what the speech was about better, while those who did not see him often had difficulties with it.

D. COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS:

Computational linguistics involves the use of computers to compile linguistic data, analyze languages, translate from one language to another, and develop and test models of language processing. Linguists use computers and large samples of actual language to analyze the relatedness and the structure of languages and to look for patterns and similarities. Computers also aid in stylistic studies, information retrieval, various forms of textual analysis, and the construction of dictionaries and concordances.

Applying computers to language studies has resulted in machine translation systems and machines that recognize and produce speech and text. Such machines facilitate communication with humans, including those who are perceptually or linguistically impaired.

E. APPLIED LINGUISTICS:

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Applied

linguistics is an umbrella term that covers a wide set of numerous areas of study connected by the focus on the language that is actually used.

Applied linguistics draws on a range of disciplines, including linguistics. In consequence, applied linguistics has applications in several areas of language study, including language learning and teaching, the psychology of language processing, discourse analysis, stylistics, corpus analysis, literacy studies and language planning and policies.

The emphasis in applied linguistics is on language users and the ways in which they use languages, contrary to theoretical linguistics which studies the language in the abstract not referring it to any particular context, or language, like Chomskyan **generative grammar** for example.

Applied linguistics is a discipline which explores the relations between theory and practice in language with particular reference to issues of language use. Applied

linguistics is a branch of linguistics which is concerned with employing linguistic theory and methods in teaching and in research on learning a second language. Applied linguists look at the errors people make as they learn another language and at their strategies for communicating in the new language at different degrees of competence. In seeking to understand what happens in the mind of the learner, applied linguists recognize that motivation, attitude, learning style, and personality affect how well a person learns another language.

F. ANTHROPOLOGICAL LINGUISTICS:

Anthropological linguistics, also known as linguistic anthropology, uses linguistic approaches to analyze culture. Anthropological linguists examine the relationship between a culture and its language, the way cultures and languages have changed over time, and how different cultures and languages are related to one another. For example, the present English use of family and given names arose in the late 13th and early 14th centuries when the laws concerning registration, tenure, and inheritance of property were changed.

As anthropologic linguistics works on the assumption that communities' cultures are reflected by language change, it investigates synchronic and diachronic language change – that is it analyses various dialects and if it is possible the historical development. Moreover, the emergence and evolution of pidgins and creoles is also within the scope of interest of anthropologic linguistics. What is more, language acquisition in children is also studied by anthropolinguists, however, not the stages of language development are examined, but how the acquisition of linguistic abilities is perceived by the community. It turns out that in certain cultures parents do not interfere with the process, while in others caretakers put a lot of effort in teaching verbal etiquette.

G. PHILOSOPHICAL LINGUISTICS:

Philosophical linguistics examines the philosophy of language. Philosophers of language search for the grammatical principles and tendencies that all human languages share. Among the concerns of linguistic

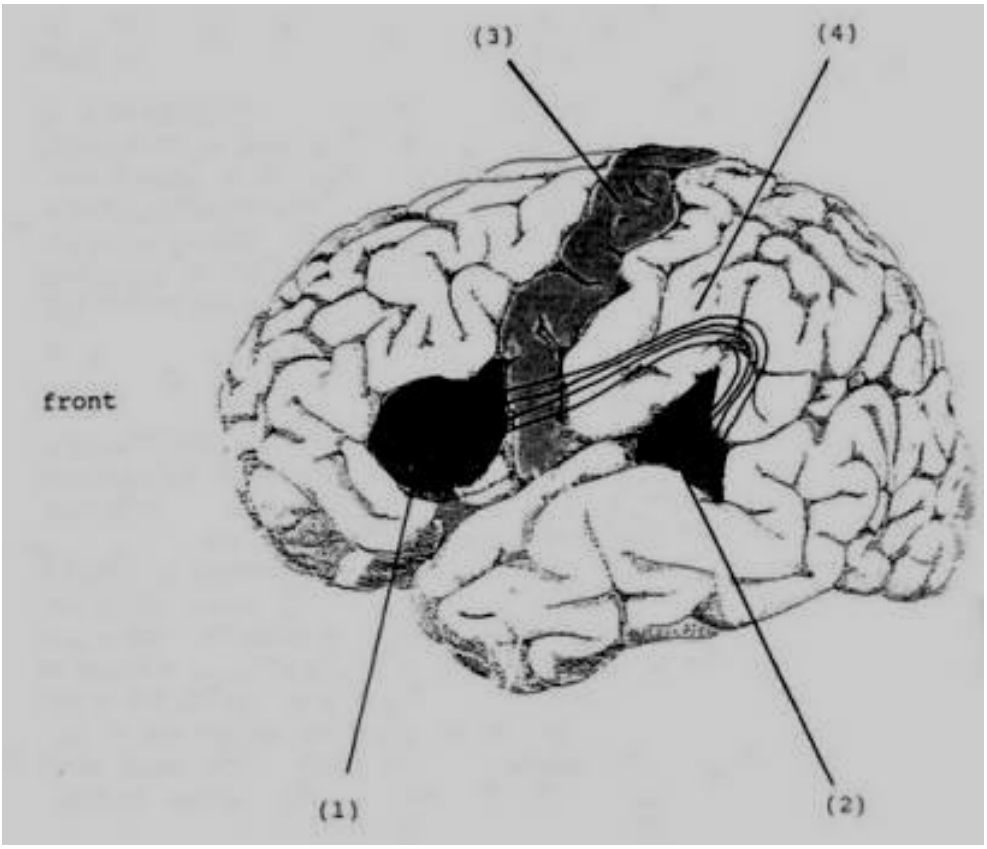
philosophers is the range of possible word order combinations throughout the world. One finding is that 95 percent of the world's languages use a subject-verb-object (SVO) order as English does ("She pushed the bush."). Only 5 percent use a subject-object-verb (SOV) order or verb-subject-object (VSO) order.

H. NEUROLINGUISTICS:

Neurolinguistics is a branch of linguistics which deals mainly with the biological basis of the relationship of the human language and the brain. Although the very name of this science was coined relatively recently, the issues investigated by it were analyzed already in the nineteenth century.

The first attempts to account for the parts of the brain responsible for the ability to produce speech were made on the basis of unfortunate accidents in which people suffered some damage to the head and brain, thus enabling scientists to exclude the damaged brain parts from linguistic investigations if the injured remained capable of language production

Since that time on the basis of posthumous analysis of brains of people with some language dysfunctions it has been determined that the left hemisphere of the brain plays a major role in language comprehension and production, and especially some of its areas that are more or less above the left ear. In the following picture of the left hemisphere of the human brain the grey areas indicate the parts of brain responsible for language recognition and production:



(Adapted from Fromkin V. & R. Rodman, 2011)

The part marked as (1) is known as **Broca's area** or 'anterior speech cortex' and as it has been discovered it is responsible for speech production. Interestingly, damage made to the same spot on the right hemisphere of the brain does not cause any language-related problems,

therefore only the part of the left hemisphere is connected with linguistic abilities.

Posterior speech cortex, or as it is usually described **Wernicke's area**, in the picture marked (2) is responsible for speech comprehension. This fact has been stated after the examination of a group of subject who had enormous difficulties with the understanding of speech.

The largest part of the brain marked in the picture is the **motor cortex** (3) and it is responsible for the muscular movements. The part of motor cortex that is close to the Broca's area is responsible for the articulatory muscles of jaw, face, as well as tongue and larynx. Part (4) in the picture shows **arcuate fasciculus** which is the bundle of nerve fibers connecting Wernicke's and Broca's areas.

When all the above mentioned parts were described it was proposed that brain activity connected with the perception and production of language would follow certain patterns. Thus, it is claimed that speech is

perceived by the Wernicke's area, then the signal is transferred through arcuate fasciculus to Broca's area. Afterwards, the signal goes to the motor cortex to articulate the word.

However, such a sophisticated system sometimes fails us in everyday conversations when it is difficult to remember a well known word. In situations like that speakers often claim that they have the word at the tip of the tongue. Studies show that in fact speakers can often tell how many syllables the word has, or what sound it begins with, and in some tests they produce similar words which led neurolinguists to believe that the word-storage may be organized on the basis of phonological information.

There are some other similar phenomena analyzed by neurolinguists, such as the slip of the tongue for example. **The slip of the tongue** is an unconsciously made error in which the (usually) initial sounds of a few words are interchanged. One other type of mistakes often made in conversations is **the slip of the ear** which can be

described as hearing a word as a different word which might not have been said. It is said that such mistakes are in fact slips of the brain which is trying to process and organize the linguistic information.

Moreover, neurolinguistics deals with various language disorders known as '**aphasia**' which is impairment of language functions because of some brain damage leading to difficulties in either producing or understanding linguistic forms. There are different aphasias depending on the language impairment and the damaged part of brain. Thus **Broca's aphasia** is characterized by a reduced amount of speech, slow pace of speaking and distorted articulation. **Wernicke's aphasia** is characterized by quite fluent, yet incomprehensible speech and difficulties in finding appropriate words. **Conduction aphasia** is connected with damage to arcuate fasciculus and it is connected with mispronouncing words, disrupted rhythm, large number of hesitations and pauses.

I. COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS:

Cognitive linguistics is still a very young discipline which had its beginnings in the 1970s, and whose quick development and extension of investigated issues dates to the mid-1980s. Since then the scope of interest of this branch of science started to include various areas such as **syntax**, **discourse**, **phonology** and **semantics**, all of which are looked upon as the representation of conceptual organization in **language**.

Probably the most developed idea that emerged from cognitive linguists' efforts is that of the cognitive **grammar**. The aim of cognitive grammar is to formulate a theory of meaning and grammar which would be cognitively probable and would fulfill the following requirements that the only structures allowed in the grammar are:

- Symbolic, semantic, or phonological structures usually occurring in linguistic expressions (Saussurean 'sign');
- Schemas for such structures (acquired by exposure to multiple examples of the pattern); and

- Categorization of relationships among the above mentioned elements.

Apart from that, cognitive linguistics is interested in issues such as processes by which and patterns in which conceptual content is arranged in language. Therefore, the structuring of concepts like scenes and events, space and time, force and causation, together with motion and location attract the cognitive **linguists**' interest. Moreover, the ideational and affective categories ascribed to cognitive agents such as expectation and affect, volition and intention, as well as attention and perspective are examined.

By and large, the cognitive linguists' intentions are to ascertain the integrated organization of conceptual structuring in language by approaching such issues as the semantic structure of lexical and morphological forms, together with syntactic patterns. Also interrelationships of conceptual structures, as in the gathering of conceptual categories into large structuring systems are investigated.

J. CORPUS LINGUISTICS:

Corpus linguistics is not another branch of science, but rather a term that denotes the methodologies and approaches to the analysis of languages. A corpus is a collection of either spoken or written texts in a given language (less often of two languages) consisting nowadays usually of more than a million words. Different types of corpora enable analyzing various kinds of discourses in order to find quantitative evidence on the existence of patterns in language or to verify some theories..

At first corpus studies focused on single words, their frequency and occurrence, yet with the development of technology and more precise search engines the possibilities increased dramatically. Now it is possible to search for a word and only a particular instances of a given word class, or entire patterns such as preposition + noun, or determiner + noun, or a word + specific word class following it. Such investigations make it easy, for example, for dictionary publishers to find collocations.

Corpus linguistics is also applied to translation studies where with the use of corpora of two languages it became apparent the meanings of words and their supposed equivalents might differ in use or collocates. Moreover, some grammar aspect strongly connected to lexis enable linguists to show differences in the use of certain grammar structures in translations, even if similar grammar structures are available in the source and target languages. In the case of English also differences between its British and American varieties can be easily analyzed thanks to the corpora.

Historical change of words' meanings and grammar is analyzed as a result of corpora development and although the number of old texts available in the electronic form is much smaller than the amount of contemporary texts the work is doable. Thus, the differences in grammar aspects concerning the passive voice were traced and it turns out that with the 19th century the passive voice in the English language started to be used more and more often.

When written and spoken corpora became available, linguists started analyzing them in order to check if there are any patterns of differences between speech and writing. It appears that apart from some quite obvious features such as false starts and hesitations which occur in speech, but not in writing, the use of large numbers of deictic expressions is also more frequent in oral discourses. It is probably because of extra linguistic signals that the spoken language is more vague. Additionally certain grammatical features apparent in speech might be considered ungrammatical in writing.

Unlike other scholars, linguists following the corpus linguistics methodology attempt to describe naturally occurring language supporting their views by large amounts of evidence found in corpora. Moreover, statistical operations are often involved in the work on corpora especially when frequencies of use of some linguistic aspects are measured. Large databases of naturally occurring language helped to make progress in the studies of phraseology, especially when it was

discovered that certain meanings of words correlate with the grammatical structures in which they are used.

Corpus linguistics found application in many fields such as critical discourse analysis, stylistics, forensic linguistics, as well as translations and language teaching. In translations it is helpful since using parallel corpora enables better choice of equivalents and grammar structures that would reflect the desired meaning. Additionally studying corpora revealed that translators do not translate words in texts, but larger units – clauses, or sentences. Corpora studies have probably had even bigger influence on language teaching. First of all, they influenced the ways dictionaries are made, secondly learners' language has been studied to improve the teachers' knowledge of it, and the learners are nowadays encouraged to make use of corpora on their own, in order to increase their language awareness. Moreover, the results of studying information gathered from corpora influenced the design and content of language workbooks.

K. ETYMOLOGY:

Etymology is the branch of linguistics that studies the origin and development of words and other linguistic forms. The examples of the areas that are studied include the earliest origins of a word, how its meanings and connotations have changed, the meanings and origins of its component parts, whether or how it has spread to other languages, and how its meaning or use has been influenced by other words. The history of a word also is called its etymology.

Words' origins have long been the subject of interest to people who readily speculate about the history of words. Particularly interesting are the pairs of words that at the first glance do not show any relationship, but historically happen to have common antecedents, which is the case with, for instance, glamour and grammar, salary and sausage (Crystal, 1995).

Knowing the etymology of a word can provoke a speaker to use the old meaning of that word, which will result in so called etymological fallacy, a view based on the idea that the etymology of a word or phrase is its

actual meaning (Crystal 1995). Commonly used example of this phenomenon is the adjective "dilapidated". Some argue that it can relate only to collapsing structures made of stone since its Latin root lapis means "stone" and a verb dilapidare means "to throw away, to scatter, as if scattering stones". Nowadays, however, the lexeme "dilapidated" has nothing to do with stones and is used to mean "broken down, fallen into decay or disrepair". Moreover, it can be related to any object, whatever it is made of.

A very important notion that ought to be taken into consideration during the examination of the etymology of a lexeme is semantic change, which deals with the development of sense. There are four main types of semantic change, namely extension, narrowing, amelioration and pejoration, all of which are discussed below:

1. **Extension** or broadening relates to the widening of a lexeme's meaning, e.g. virtue could only be applied to men, though today it may well be used with relation to women.

2. **Narrowing** relates to the reduction of a lexeme's meanings, e.g. girl once meant "a young child" and today it relates only to a young unmarried woman.
3. **Amelioration** takes place when a lexeme loses its negative sense and/or acquires a positive one, e.g. wicked used to mean "evil" but now it is used to mean "brilliant".
4. **Pejoration** occurs when a lexeme loses its positive sense and/or acquires negative one, e.g. gay with its meaning "happy" now is used in relation to homosexuals.

Another interesting phenomenon within the domain of etymology is the so called folk or popular etymology, in which a term stands for erroneous understanding of the origin of the old lexeme, which results in the creation of a new lexeme (Crystal 1995). Hence, sparrow-grass has become a popular name for asparagus despite the fact that the latter word cannot anyhow be connected with sparrows. Some other examples include crayfish from French crevis or shame-faced from shamefast meaning "bound firmly by shame".

The history of names seems to be the most popular branch of etymology. Under the umbrella of onomastics (a term used to describe the study of names), there come two branches of research area, anthroponomastics which deals with personal names and toponomastics which is devoted to the study of the names of places. People give names to different things and such procedure serves as a means of identifying entities or for marketing purposes (e.g. brand names like Nourkin) or to preserve tradition. Both disciplines are also, to a certain extent, connected with social and psychological sciences since they lay ground for the explanation of why particular names turn out to be successful while others are not, or they explain the transitory nature of some names. But most importantly, the names for places are a source of knowledge about the history of a nation, its traditions and values (Crystal 1995).

L. STYLISTICS:

Stylistics can be described as the study of style of language usage in different contexts, either linguistic, or situational. Yet, it seems that due to the complex history

and variety of investigated issues of this study it is difficult to state precisely what stylistics is, and to mark clear boundaries between it and other branches of linguistics which deal with text analysis.

As far as the definition of stylistics is concerned different scholars define the branch of study in different ways. Wales defines stylistics simply as " the study of style" (1989:437), while Widdowson provides a more informative definition as "the study of literary discourse from a linguistic orientation" and takes "a view that what distinguishes stylistics from literary criticism on the one hand and linguistics on the other is that it is essentially a means of linking the two" (1975:3). Leech holds a similar view. He defines stylistics as the "study of the use of language in literature" (1969:1) and considers stylistics a "meeting-ground of linguistics and literary study"(1969:2). From what Widdowson and Leech say, we can see that stylistics is an area of study that straddles two disciplines: literary criticism and linguistics. It takes literary discourse (text) as its object of study and uses linguistics as a means to that end.

Stylistic analysis is generally concerned with the uniqueness of a text; that is, what it is that is peculiar to the uses of language in a literary text for delivering the message. This naturally involves comparisons of the language of the text with that used in conventional types of discourse. Stylisticians may also wish to characterize the style of a literary text by Systematically comparing the language uses in that text with those in another. Halliday points out, "The text may be seen as 'this' in contrast with 'that', with another poem or another novel; stylistics studies are essentially comparative in nature…"(1971:341). On this points, Widdowson is of the same opinion as Halliday. He says : "All literary appreciation is comparative, as indeed is a recognition of styles in general" (1975:84). Thus, we may conclude that stylistic analysis is an activity that is highly comparative in nature.

Stylistics examines oral and written texts in order to determine crucial characteristic linguistic properties, structures and patterns influencing perception of the texts.

Thus, it can be said that this branch of linguistics is related to discourse analysis, in particular critical discourse analysis, and pragmatics. Owing to the fact that at the beginning of the development of this study the major part of the stylistic investigation was concerned with the analysis of literary texts it is sometimes called *literary linguistics*, or *literary stylistics*. Nowadays, however, linguists study various kinds of texts, such as manuals, recipes, as well as novels and advertisements. It is vital to add here that none of the text types is discriminated and thought to be more important than others. In addition to that, in the recent years so called 'media-discourses' such as films, news reports, song lyrics and political speeches have all been within the scope of interest of stylistics.

Each text scrutinized by stylistics can be viewed from different angles and as fulfilling at least a few functions. Thus, it is said that texts have interpersonal function, ideational function and textual function. When describing a function several issues are taken into consideration. Therefore, interpersonal function is all

about the relationship that the text is establishing with its recipients, the use of either personal or impersonal pronouns is analyzed, as well as the use of speech acts, together with the tone and mood of the statement. When describing the ideational function linguists are concerned with the means of representing the reality by the text, the way the participants are represented, as well as the arrangement of information in clauses and sentences. The textual function is the reference of sentences forwards and backwards which makes the text cohesive and coherent, but also other discursive devices such as ellipsis, repetition, anaphora are studied. In addition, the effectiveness of chosen stylistic properties of the texts are analyzed in order to determine their suitability to the perceived function, or contribution to overall interpretation.

Linguists dealing with a sub-branch of stylistics called pedagogical stylistics support the view that this field of study helps learners to develop better foreign language competence. What is more, it is thought that being acquainted with stylistics makes students more

aware of certain features of language and helps them implement the knowledge in their language production on all levels: phonological, grammatical, lexical and discursive. Also empirical findings support the view that stylistics helps students improve their reading and writing skills.

IV. HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS

Speculation about language goes back thousands of years. Ancient Greek philosophers speculated on the origins of language and the relationship between objects and their names. They also discussed the rules that govern language, or grammar, and by the 3rd century B.C. they had begun grouping words into parts of speech and devising names for different forms of verbs and nouns.

In India religion provided the motivation for the study of language nearly 2500 years ago. Hindu priests noted that the language they spoke had changed since the compilation of their ancient sacred texts, the Vedas, starting about 1000 B.C. They believed that for certain religious ceremonies based upon the Vedas to succeed,

they needed to reproduce the language of the Vedas precisely. Panini, an Indian grammarian who lived about 400 B.C., produced the earliest work describing the rules of Sanskrit, the ancient language of India.

The Romans used Greek grammars as models for their own, adding commentary on Latin style and usage. Statesman and orator Marcus Tullius Cicero wrote on rhetoric and style in the 1st century B.C. Later grammarians Aelius Donatus (4th century A.D.) and Priscian (6th century A.D.) produced detailed Latin grammars. Roman works served as textbooks and standards for the study of language for more than 1000 years.

It was not until the end of the 18th century that language was researched and studied in a scientific way. During the 17th and 18th centuries, modern languages, such as French and English, replaced Latin as the means of universal communication in the West. This occurrence, along with developments in printing, meant that many more texts became available. At about this time, the study

of phonetics, or the sounds of a language, began. Such investigations led to comparisons of sounds in different languages; in the late 18th century the observation of correspondences among Sanskrit, Latin, and Greek gave birth to the field of Indo-European linguistics.

During the 19th century, European linguists focused on philology, or the historical analysis and comparison of languages. They studied written texts and looked for changes over time or for relationships between one language and another.

A. THE 20th CENTURY:

In the early 20th century, linguistics expanded to include the study of unwritten languages. In the United States linguists and anthropologists began to study the rapidly disappearing spoken languages of Native North Americans. Because many of these languages were unwritten, researchers could not use historical analysis in their studies. In their pioneering research on these languages, anthropologists Franz Boas and Edward Sapir developed the techniques of descriptive linguistics and

theorized on the ways in which language shapes our perceptions of the world.

An important outgrowth of descriptive linguistics is a theory known as structuralism, which assumes that language is a system with a highly organized structure. Structuralism began with publication of the work of Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure in *Cours de linguistique générale* (1916; *Course in General Linguistics,* 1959). This work, compiled by Saussure's students after his death, is considered the foundation of the modern field of linguistics. Saussure made a distinction between actual speech, or spoken language, and the knowledge underlying speech that speakers share about what is grammatical. Speech, he said, represents instances of grammar, and the linguist's task is to find the underlying rules of a particular language from examples found in speech. To the structuralist, grammar is a set of relationships that account for speech, rather than a set of instances of speech, as it is to the descriptivist.

Once linguists began to study language as a set of abstract rules that somehow account for speech, other

scholars began to take an interest in the field. They drew analogies between language and other forms of human behavior, based on the belief that a shared structure underlies many aspects of a culture. Anthropologists, for example, became interested in a structuralist approach to the interpretation of kinship systems and analysis of myth and religion. American linguist Leonard Bloomfield promoted structuralism in the United States.

Saussure's ideas also influenced European linguistics, most notably in France and Czechoslovakia (now the Czech Republic). In 1926 Czech linguist Vilem Mathesius founded the Linguistic Circle of Prague, a group that expanded the focus of the field to include the context of language use. The Prague circle developed the field of phonology, or the study of sounds, and demonstrated that universal features of sounds in the languages of the world interrelate in a systematic way. Linguistic analysis, they said, should focus on the distinctiveness of sounds rather than on the ways they combine. Where descriptivists tried to locate and describe individual phonemes, such as /b/ and /p/, the Prague

linguists stressed the features of these phonemes and their interrelationships in different languages. In English, for example, the voice distinguishes between the similar sounds of /b/ and /p/, but these are not distinct phonemes in a number of other languages. An Arabic speaker might pronounce the cities Pompei and Bombay the same way.

As linguistics developed in the 20th century, the notion became prevalent that language is more than speech—specifically, that it is an abstract system of interrelationships shared by members of a speech community. Structural linguistics led linguists to look at the rules and the patterns of behavior shared by such communities. Whereas structural linguists saw the basis of language in the social structure, other linguists looked at language as a mental process.

The 1957 publication of *Syntactic Structures* by American linguist Noam Chomsky initiated what many view as a scientific revolution in linguistics. Chomsky sought a theory that would account for both linguistic structure and for the creativity of language—the fact that

we can create entirely original sentences and understand sentences never before uttered. He proposed that all people have an innate ability to acquire language. The task of the linguist, he claimed, is to describe this universal human ability, known as language competence, with a grammar from which the grammars of all languages could be derived. The linguist would develop this grammar by looking at the rules children use in hearing and speaking their first language. He termed the resulting model, or grammar, a transformational-generative grammar, referring to the transformations (or rules) that generate (or account for) language. Certain rules, Chomsky asserted, are shared by all languages and form part of a universal grammar, while others are language specific and associated with particular speech communities. Since the 1960s much of the development in the field of linguistics has been a reaction to or against Chomsky's theories.

B. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS:

At the end of the 20th century, linguists used the term *grammar* primarily to refer to a subconscious

linguistic system that enables people to produce and comprehend an unlimited number of utterances. Grammar thus accounts for our linguistic competence. Observations about the actual language we use, or language performance, are used to theorize about this invisible mechanism known as grammar.

The orientation toward the scientific study of language led by Chomsky has had an impact on non-generative linguists as well. Comparative and historically oriented linguists are looking for the various ways linguistic universals show up in individual languages. Psycholinguists, interested in language acquisition, are investigating the notion that an ideal speaker-hearer is the origin of the acquisition process. Sociolinguists are examining the rules that underlie the choice of language variants, or codes, and allow for switching from one code to another. Some linguists are studying language performance—the way people use language—to see how it reveals a cognitive ability shared by all human beings. Others seek to understand animal communication within such a framework. What mental processes enable

chimpanzees to make signs and communicate with one another and how do these processes differ from those of humans?

REVISION

I. Indicate whether the following statements are TRUE or FALSE and correct the false ones.

1. Several of the subfields of linguistics are concerned with the major components of language.
2. Synchronic linguistics studies the way a language changes over time.
3. There are clear-cut boundaries between phonetics and phonology.
4. Etymology is the study and analysis of the origins and relatedness of different languages.
5. Structuralists are primarily concerned with phonology, morphology, and syntax.
6. Auditory phonetics deals with how speech sounds are produced by use of the organs of speech.
7. Phonology studies the production, perception and physical properties of speech sounds.
8. Sociolinguistics uses linguistic approaches to analyze culture.
9. Morphology is concerned with the study of the structure of a sentence and ordering of its elements.

10. Infixation means an addition at the end of the word.
11. Pragmatics studies the way in which sentences relate in larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts.
12. Sociolinguistics studies the interaction between language and the contexts in which it is used.
13. Linguistic context differs from physical context.
14. Neurolinguistics deals with the biological basis of the relationship of the human language and the brain.
15. Anthroponomastics deals with the study of the names of places.
16. Psycholinguistics investigates how people process language and how language use is related to underlying mental processes.
17. Chomskyan generative grammar is an example of theoretical linguistics.
18. Narrowing is a process whereby a lexeme loses its negative sense and/or acquires a positive one.
19. The widening of a lexeme's meaning is known as extension.

20. Auditory phonetics analyses speech sounds from the point of view of the speaker.
21. Philosophers of language search for the grammatical principles and tendencies that all human languages share.
22. Linguistic context is sometimes called co-text.
23. Corpus linguistics can be applied to translation studies**.**
24. Physical context is the set of words that surround the lexical item in question in the same phrase, or sentence**.**
25. The study of doctor-patient communication is an example of ethnographic research**.**

II. Write short notes on:

1. Morphology vs. syntax.
2. Sociolinguistics vs. pragmatics.
3. Phonetics vs. phonology.
4. Synchronic linguistics vs. diachronic linguistics.
5. Theoretical linguistics vs. applied linguistics.
6. Articulatory phonetics vs. auditory phonetics.
7. Etymology vs. comparative linguistics.
8. Psycholinguistics vs. neurolinguistics.
9. The four types of semantic change.
10. The principle of minimal attachment and the principle of late closure (Give examples).
11. Linguistic context and physical context.
12. Amelioration and pejoration (Give an example).

III. Answer the following questions:

1. Linguistics is a 'foundation' discipline. Discuss this statement showing how linguistics links with other sciences.
2. Several of the subfields of linguistics are concerned with the major components of language. Discuss.

3. There are three schools in formal linguistics. Discuss TWO of them.

CHAPTER 3

WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

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Language can be defined as a mental capacity represented by a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used by man in a given society for purposes of everyday communication. In short, language is the principal means used by human beings to communicate with one another.

Language is primarily spoken, although it can be transferred to other media, such as writing. If the spoken means of communication is unavailable, as may be the case among the deaf, visual means such as sign language can be used.

A prominent characteristic of language is that the relation between a linguistic sign and its meaning is arbitrary: There is no reason other than convention among speakers of English that a dog should be called *dog*, and indeed other languages have different names (for example, Spanish *perro*, Russian *sobaka*, Japanese *inu*).

Language can be used to discuss a wide range of topics, a characteristic that distinguishes it from animal communication. The dances of honey bees, for example, can be used only to communicate the location of food sources (*see* Honey Bee: *Communication*). While the language-learning abilities of apes have surprised many—and there continues to be a controversy over the precise limits of these abilities—scientists and scholars generally agree that apes do not progress beyond the linguistic abilities of a two-year-old child.

COMPONENTS OF LANGUAGE:

Spoken human language is composed of sounds that do not in themselves have meaning, but that can be combined with other sounds to create entities that do have meaning. Thus *p, e,* and *n* do not in themselves have any meaning, but the combination *pen* does have a meaning.

Language is also characterized by complex syntax whereby elements, usually words, are combined into more complex constructions, called phrases, and these

constructions in turn play a major role in the structures of sentences.

A. The Sounds of Language:

Because most languages are primarily spoken, an important part of the overall understanding of language involves the study of the sounds of language. Most sounds in the world's languages—and all sounds in some languages, such as English—are produced by expelling air from the lungs and modifying the vocal tract between the larynx and the lips. For instance, the sound *p* requires complete closure of the lips, so that air coming from the lungs builds up pressure in the mouth, giving rise to the characteristic popping sound when the lip closure is released. For the sound *s,* air from the lungs passes continuously through the mouth, but the tongue is raised sufficiently close to the *alveolar ridge* (the section of the upper jaw containing the tooth sockets) to cause friction as it partially blocks the air that passes.

Sounds also can be produced by means other than expelling air from the lungs, and some languages use

these sounds in regular speech. The sound used by English speakers to express annoyance, often spelled *tsk* or *tut*, uses air trapped in the space between the front of the tongue, the back of the tongue, and the palate. Such sounds, called clicks, function as regular speech sounds in the Khoisan languages of southwestern Africa and in the Bantu languages of neighboring African peoples.

Phonetics is the field of language study concerned with the physical properties of sounds, and it has three subfields. Articulatory phonetics explores how the human vocal apparatus produces sounds. Acoustic phonetics studies the sound waves produced by the human vocal apparatus. Auditory phonetics examines how speech sounds are perceived by the human ear. Phonology, in contrast, is concerned not with the physical properties of sounds, but rather with how they function in a particular language.

The following example illustrates the difference between phonetics and phonology. In the English language, when the sound *k* (usually spelled *c*) occurs at

the beginning of a word, as in the word *cut,* it is pronounced with *aspiration* (a puff of breath). However, when this sound occurs at the end of a word, as in *tuck,* there is no aspiration. Phonetically, the aspirated *k* and unaspirated *k* are different sounds, but in English these different sounds never distinguish one word from another, and English speakers are usually unaware of the phonetic difference until it is pointed out to them. Thus English makes no phonological distinction between the aspirated and unaspirated *k.* The Hindi language, on the other hand, uses this sound difference to distinguish words such as *kal* (time), which has an unaspirated *k,* and *khal* (skin), in which *kh* represents the aspirated *k.* Therefore, in Hindi the distinction between the aspirated and unaspirated *k* is both phonetic and phonological.

B. Units of Meaning:

While many people, influenced by writing, tend to think of words as the basic units of grammatical structure, linguists recognize a smaller unit, the morpheme. The word *cats,* for instance, consists of two elements, or morphemes: *cat,* the meaning of which can be roughly

characterized as “feline animal,” and *-s*, the meaning of which can be roughly characterized as “more than one.” *Antimicrobial,* meaning “capable of destroying microorganisms,” can be divided into the morphemes *anti-* (against), *microbe* (microorganism), and *-ial*, a suffix that makes the word an adjective. The study of these smallest grammatical units, and the ways in which they combine into words, is called morphology.

C. Word Order and Sentence Structure:

Syntax is the study of how words combine to make sentences. The order of words in sentences varies from language to language. English-language syntax, for instance, generally follows a subject-verb-object order, as in the sentence "The dog (subject) bit (verb) the man (object)." The sentence "The dog the man bit" is not a correct construction in English, and the sentence "The man bit the dog" has a very different meaning. In contrast, Japanese has a basic word order of subject-object-verb, as in "watakushi-wa hon-o kau," which literally translates to "I book buy." Hixkaryana, spoken by about 400 people on a tributary of the Amazon River in Brazil, has a basic word order of object-verb-subject. The sentence "toto yahosïye kamara," which literally translates to "Man grabbed jaguar," actually means that the jaguar grabbed the man, not that the man grabbed the jaguar.

A general characteristic of language is that words are not directly combined into sentences, but rather into intermediate units, called phrases, which then are combined into sentences. The sentence "The shepherd

found the lost sheep" contains at least three phrases: "the shepherd," "found," and "the lost sheep." This hierarchical structure that groups words into phrases, and phrases into sentences, serves an important role in establishing relations within sentences. For instance, the phrases "the shepherd" and "the lost sheep" behave as units, so that when the sentence is rearranged to be in the passive voice, these units stay intact: "The lost sheep was found by the shepherd."

D. Meaning in Language:

While the fields of language study mentioned above deal primarily with the form of linguistic elements, semantics is the field of study that deals with the meaning of these elements. A prominent part of semantics deals with the meaning of individual morphemes. Semantics also involves studying the meaning of the constructions that link morphemes to form phrases and sentences. For instance, the sentences "The dog bit the man" and "The man bit the dog" contain exactly the same morphemes, but they have different meanings. This is because the morphemes enter into different constructions in each

sentence, reflected in the different word orders of the two sentences.

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION:

Language acquisition, the process by which children and adults learn a language or languages, is a major field of linguistic study.

A. First-Language Acquisition:

First-language acquisition is a complex process that linguists only partially understand. Young children have certain innate characteristics that predispose them to learn language. These characteristics include the structure of the vocal tract, which enables children to make the sounds used in language, and the ability to understand a number of general grammatical principles, such as the hierarchical nature of syntax. These characteristics, however, do not predispose children to learn only one particular language. Children acquire whatever language is spoken around them, even if their parents speak a different language.

An interesting feature of early language acquisition is that children seem to rely more on semantics than on syntax when speaking. The point at which they shift to using syntax seems to be a crucial point at which human children surpass apes in linguistic ability.

B. Second-Language Acquisition:

Although second-language acquisition literally refers to learning a language after having acquired a first language, the term is frequently used to refer to the acquisition of a second language after a person has reached puberty. Whereas children experience little difficulty in acquiring more than one language, after puberty people generally must expend greater effort to learn a second language and they often achieve lower levels of competence in that language.

People learn second languages more successfully when they become immersed in the cultures of the communities that speak those languages. People also learn second languages more successfully in cultures in which acquiring a second language is expected, as in most

African countries, than they do in cultures in which second-language proficiency is considered unusual, as in most English-speaking countries.

C. Bilingualism and Multilingualism:

Bilingualism is the ability to master the use of two languages, and multilingualism is the ability to master the use of more than two languages. Although bilingualism is relatively rare among native speakers of English, in many parts of the world it is the standard rather than the exception. For example, more than half the population of Papua New Guinea is functionally competent in both an indigenous language and Tok Pisin.

People in many parts of the country have mastered two or more indigenous languages. Bilingualism and multilingualism often involve different degrees of competence in the languages involved. A person may control one language better than another, or a person might have mastered the different languages better for different purposes, using one language for speaking, for example, and another for writing.

THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE:

Language is a communication system that has undergone a number of evolutionary changes which

continue as we speak. While the development of language has been thorouhgly examined and described, its origin still remains unknown. Obviously, it is difficult to discover how it actually came to being, but philosophers and linguists are continuously making attempts to make that discovery, coming up with numerous theories of language origin.

A. The Divine Source:

The Bible is the first example of the endeavors to uncover the origin of human language. According to it, Adam received the ability to speak from God and "whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof" (Genesis 2:19). In most major religions there seems to be the Almighty who blesses mankind with means of communication. This so-called 'divine source' theory was tested many times in the ways which presently might seem as extremely inhumane. In ancient times it was thought that if new newborn babies were brought up by mutes they would sooner or later start speaking the original language of God. In the XVI century Scottish king James IV carried out such an experiment and the children were said to have spoken in Hebrew. For this reason Hebrew was considered the language of God. None of the subsequent similar experiments revealed that children living without any contact with actual speech can acquire a language.

B. Natural Sounds:

Apart from the divine source theories, there have been a number of perhaps more scientific, yet still unlikely proposals. There are several hypotheses which attempted to explain the emergence of speech on the basis of sound imitation, or unintentional sound production. Although they seem more persuasive, they fail to answer many questions and therefore are mere speculations. Natural sound theory will never account for the origin of words such as obsolete semiconductors or treaty of Waitangi.

Bow-wow theory proposes that people imitated sounds they heard around them, thus creating the first onomatopoeic words from which the rest of the language evolved. This theory seems to be supported by the fact that the majority of modern languages have onomatopeic expressions, it does not, however, explain how words for inanimate objects such as hills and rivers came to exist.

Yo-heave-ho theory, on the other hand, proposes that human language is a result of the first human sounds made by people taking part in some physical effort. At the dawn of civilization when people worked in groups the

grunts and groans they made while performing difficult manual tasks enabled them to develop a way of communicating which with time evolved into more elaborate form of conveying meaning. This idea emphasizes a very important notion, namely social context crucial for the development and the use of language.

C. The Oral-Gesture Source:

This theory goes further back in time when people used physical gestures to communicate their ideas. It is thought that over time they started to use not only their hands, but also movement of the mouth, lips and tongue which subsequently developed into speech as we know it.

All of these theories do not explicitly explain how language originated, but linguists and anthropologists could agree on when and why that was possible. It is now clear that our ancestors, Neanderthals, were only able to produce few sounds, as it could be examined from their remains dating back to about 60,000 BC. The reconstructed Neanderthal skeleton dating about 35,000

years resembles the modern humans being, which indicates the approximate time of when the oral communication begun.

HISTORY OF LANGUAGE:

All natural languages because of their nature as social phenomena are susceptible to various factors influencing their development. Therefore, apart from regional variations, social variations and personal fluctuations there are numerous differences between the form a language takes now and its past forms. The branch of science which investigates the present form and use of languages, as well as their past is called philology.

In the nineteenth century many philologists attempted to find some common roots of contemporary languages, as they noticed many similarities in their forms. Thus, certain family connections were traced and language genealogic trees were created. Up to now about thirty detailed trees have been made describing relations between 4000 distinct languages. The family tree of Indo-European languages consists of over twenty tongues.

The analysis of the relations between languages is possible because of common words that exist in those languages and derive from a mutual ancestor. Words that have a very similar form in different languages and share, or used to share their meaning are called cognates. For instance the English words *mother* and *father* are cognates of the German words *Mutter* and *Vater*. When two languages share a large number of cognates certain procedures are applied in order to reconstruct the original forms of the common ancestors.

The principles of such procedures are fairly simple: if in a set of cognates consisting of ten words seven of them begin with [k] sound and three with [g] sound according to the majority principle it is assumed that the majority of words have kept the original sound, while the rest changed with time. The most natural development principle describes the most common sound-change patterns which enable the reconstruction of sound changes in cognates:

- Vowels in the final position frequently disappear: *vino -> vin*
- Voiceless sounds between vowels became voiced: *muta -> muda*
- Stops turn into fricatives: *ripa -> riva*
- If a consonant is at the end of a word it becomes voiceless: *rizu -> ris*

With the above mentioned set of rules it is possible not only to follow the history of language change, but also to determine the common ancestors of languages. However, there are many more sound changes which might occur in a long history of languages. For instance metathesis is a sound change which involves the change of position of two sounds within a word: *frist -> first, hros -> horse, bridd -> bird.*

One other type of sound change is called epenthesis and it is addition of a sound to the middle of a word: *thun(o)r ->thunder, spinel -> spindle, timr -> timber.*

One more type of frequently occurring sound change, however not to be found in English, is prothesis and it as addition of a sound to the beginning of a word.

Apart from the changes in the pronunciation of words there are some processes that influence the meaning of lexical items. Broadening, for example, is a process in which a words starts to be used with more general meaning than at the beginning of its use, as in the case of the English words: *holy day* meaning religious celebration, which broadened its meaning and turned into *holiday* which means a day free of work. Another process that influenced the meaning is narrowing which means that a word starts to be used in less general meaning than at the beginning, for instance: the Old English *mete* which meant any type of food and which is now spelt *meat* and denotes edible animal flesh.

Moreover, with time also the grammar of language might undergo some changes. In the case of English it is clearly visible. What seems to be one of the most significant changes in the English language is the loss of

case endings. In comparison with its older versions English has now more fixed word order, but also strict rules regarding negation which forbid using multiple negations in one sentence, which was possible in the past.

FEATURES OF LANGUAGE:

It is generally believed that human beings are the sole species capable of developing language thanks to their intelligence and appropriate structure of the vocal tract. It is clear, however, that animals are also capable of communicating in their own way, for instance, bees by tail-wagging, or whales by 'singing'. Yet, there are certain apparent differences in human and animal ways of conveying messages, which we will look at in the following section.

Numerous features common to all natural human languages have been proposed; nevertheless, linguists seem not to be unanimous on ascribing certain properties only to human beings. Moreover, in some cases it seems that animal means of communication possesses some

partially developed characteristics which are generally believed to be unique to man.

Displacement:

This feature of languages refers to the ability to speak not only about what is happening at the time and place of talking. but also about other situations, future and past, real or unreal. We can talk about electronic parts catalog while playing cards and without ever seeing one.

As far as we know, the majority of animals cannot do that, nonetheless as the research suggest the bee can direct other bees to a food source. This might mean that the bees' communication system also possesses this feature, although in some limited fashion.

Arbitrariness:

There is no natural connection between the word or sound and the thing it denotes, which means we cannot tell what is the meaning of a word simply by looking at it. Nothing in the German word 'Handyspiele' tells us that it means the same as the English word 'handball' or Polish

word 'piłka ręczna'. Although this rule applies to the most of human language there are certain exceptions. In order to understand arbitrary words one has to know a specific language, though there are a number of *iconic* symbols in every language that can be understood without having to know the entire language system. *Onomatopoeia*s - words which imitate sounds - are present in the majority of contemporary languages.

Productivity (also: 'creativity' or 'open-endedness'):

The potential number of utterances, as well as the number of words and meanings in human languages is practically infinite. Humans can come up with terms such as myspace codes or property in Cyprus and the number of these terms has no possible limits. In animal communication every signal has a *fixed reference* which means that it can only refer to one idea and its meaning cannot be broadened. In addition, it seems that animals cannot invent new signals in order to describe new ideas.

Cultural transmission:

Although we are all born with certain fixed genetic predisposition for language use (e.g. shape of vocal tract), it does not predetermine which language we are actually going to use as our mother tongue. A Chinese baby brought as a toddler in Great Britain and raised by a British family is going to speak English and not Chinese, though it will still look like a Chinese. If, for example, a Korean puppy was brought to Britain it would still bark the same way as in Korea (perhaps with a slightly different accent).

Duality:

Human languages have two levels: minimal units - the alphabet for writing and phonemes for speech - which do not have a meaning on their own, and the level where the meaning emerges as a result of combination of the units from level one. It is emphasized by the fact that with a limited set of letters in the alphabet an unlimited number of words and expressions may be produced.

The aforementioned features are generally perceived as those which differentiate the human language from the

animal languages. There are three more properties which seem not to be shared by animal forms of communication, but are not fully acknowledged by all linguists. These include:

- **Prevarication** : the ability to make sentences knowing that they are false and with the purpose of misleading the receiver of the information.
- **Reflexiveness** : using language to talk about language which involves ability to speak of abstract things. The language used to describe language is usually called metalanguage.
- **Learnability** : Apart from the fact that we naturally acquire a mother tongue we are also able to learn any of the number of other languages. It also means that unlike animals human beings are not genetically limited to use only the language of parents.

Moreover, several other features of language of both humans and animals can be enumerated:

- **reciprocity -** speakers are also receivers of information under usual circumstances;
- **specialization -** linguistic signals do not serve any other purpose than to communicate something;
- **rapid fading (also 'transitoriness') -** spoken linguistic signals vanish very quickly. This is, of course, not true for written messages, or scents produced by some animals to mark territory;
- **non-directionality -** anyone close enough to hear can pick up the message; and
- **vocal-auditory channel use -** most of communication is made via the vocal tract and is perceived by ears.

The above mentioned properties of language do not constitute a complete set that all linguists unanimously accept. There are many more proposals concerning the features of language, but owing to their minor importance and not very frequent occurrence in literature they have been omitted in this work.

LANGUAGE FUCTIONS:

Using a language as a primary means of communicating our thoughts is so natural for many people that it is often difficult to realize what in fact are language functions. Some of the roles of language are so mundane that they are hardly ever noticed, others are very elevated, or even abstract.

Due to their diversity the functions of language might be divided into two categories: micro functions which refer to specific individual uses, and macro functions which serve more overall aims.

A. MICRO FUNCTIONS:

1. Physiological function (releasing physical and nervous energy):

Although it might be striking this use of language is fairly common. It is easily recognizable when devoted fans of sports are observed while watching their favourite discipline on TV. Such fans often shout instructions, express support, or disappointment and while as a means of communicating with sportsmen they are useless, such cheers are to release repressed energy. Similarly curse

words are used to serve this purpose, as they rarely convey any meaning and are only to make the speaker feel better.

2. Phatic function (for sociability):

The use of such phrases as ‘nice day today’, or ‘how do you do’ is characterized by lack of any informative content and is intended to link people and make the coexistence peaceful and pleasant. The phatic use of language is characteristic mainly of speech; however, in certain types of writing it can also be noticed, as in letters for example, where the beginning *Dear Sir/Madam* and ending *Yours faithfully* also serve that purpose.

3. Recording function:

Recording function denotes using language to make a durable record of things that ought to be remembered. Owing to its omnipresence writing is probably the most significant function of language. There is evidence that the first writing system was developed in the Middle East as early as 4000 BC. At the beginning writing systems took forms of pictures representing the things they

referred to, gradually developing into the alphabets in their present forms.

4. Identifying function:

Language is also used to identify the objects and events in the world we live in. Without this function language would be almost useless, as it is thanks to the names of things that we know what is talked about.

Many primitive societies unable to write believe that names hold great power. Even in western culture names are thought to be immensely important: the God's name ought not to be used in vain, before giving a name to a newborn child parents consider the choice deeply. We use names to classify different types of things, whether we call a car *anautomobile, a lorry, a van* or *a truck* makes a big difference.

5. Reasoning function (instrument of thought):

Before we say something we think and to do that we necessarily use language. In most cases it is extremely difficult to think about anything without any use of words. In fact, it is also difficult not to think for a longer period of time as human brains work all the time processing

information, thus providing us with concepts formulated by means of language.

6. Communicating function:

This function would probably be pointed at by most language users without major consideration. Indeed it is in all likelihood most commonly used language function by majority of speakers. Requesting, apologizing, informing, ordering as well as promising and refusing are all reasons for communicating our ideas.

7. **Pleasure functions**:

The fact that language often gives pleasure both to the speakers and listeners is not only supported by the frequent use of assonance, alliteration and onomatopoeia in poetry. Depending on the sounds of languages some are perceived as being mild as English for example, others crude as German. People also derive pleasure from unusual use of syntactic rules, as well as novelties of meanings juxtapositions and language games, which is often used by skilful writers.

MACRO FUNCTIONS:

1. Ideational function:

The ideational function refers to the conceptualizing process involved in our mental activities. Thanks to language we are able to understand what happens around us.

Many treatments of language, particularly discussions of semantics and logic, tend to emphasize the ideational function of language: language as the symbolic representation of an external reality. It has been suggested that the expression of the relationship of things, naming and defining them, is the primary function of language, so that, in popular thought at least, language is used to talk about persons and objects, to impart information, to communicate information, etc.

2. Interpersonal function:

Interpersonal function emphasizes that language is mainly a social phenomenon, but apart from enabling communication with other people it enables to project the speaker in the desired way and to represent the speaker.

3. Poetic function:

Here, the word poetic does not refer to the ability to write poetry, but the ability to manipulate language in a creative way. With the use of jokes and metaphors we can play with words and meanings simply for joy.

4. Textual function:

Textual competence refers to our ability to create long utterances or pieces of writing which are both cohesive and coherent. Unlike animals people, by use of certain linguistic devices, are able to produce long sentences and text, and not only simple phrases.

The above mentioned functions are only one point of view on language. Most certainly there are many other functions that natural languages fulfill, yet depending on approach to this issue the number of functions and their names might vary.

LANGUAGE AND CULTURE:

Linguists are concerned with many important issues such as various aspects of speech, turn-taking, models of

analysis of discourse and how human brain makes such examinations. Moreover, scholars are interested not only in the differences between languages, but also in the influence of language on culture and culture on language in different communities throughout the world. As the first language acquisition process is unconscious similarly the acquisition of culture (which might begin even before acquiring a language) is what people are unaware of. **Culture** in linguistics is described as socially acquired knowledge of the world, as well as attitudes towards it.

With the acquisition of a mother tongue people acquire a system of categorizing the entities in the surrounding world and terms used for describing personal experiences. A **category** is a set with some common properties, and it is said that when new vocabulary is learnt it is in fact inheriting sets of category labels. Therefore, depending on the culture in which a speaker was brought up the amount of words available in language for describing certain phenomena might vary. For example in Norwegian there is a distinction between ‘male parents mother; - *farmor;* and ‘female parent’s

mother' – *mormor*, while both of those terms are expressed by one English word – *grandmother*.

The examination and classification of culture-dependant words can be made thanks to the grammatical markers called **classifiers** which show the type or class of the words. In Swahili there are different prefixes for nouns denoting humans, non-humans and artifacts. In Australian language Dyirbal men and women belong to different conceptual categories, just as countable and uncountable nouns in the English language.

The analysis of numerous similar instances of differences in many languages led to the development of the linguistic relativity theory known as the **Sapir-Whorf hypothesis** with its two versions. According to the **linguistic relativity theory** language used in a given community with its predetermined categories influences the perception of the world to some extent. There is also a strong version of this theory called **linguistic determinism** which states that people can only think in the categories provided by language.

Also language change is culturally dependant what can be clearly seen on the example of the American and British Englishes. Although in the history they derive from common origins the changes that take place in their development set them apart. In American English there has been a culturally led tendency to substitute words such as *policeman* and *fireman* with more 'acceptable' terms such as *police officer* and *firefighter,* while the former forms are still in use in British English.

LANGUAGE AND ENVIRONMENT:

Language has been studied by scholars dealing with practically all the liberal arts such as psychology, pedagogy, **linguistics** and philosophy. Some of the recent trends in language studies have focused on the correlation between the biological processes of the brain and language (**neurolinguistics**), as well as the mental processes occurring in mind and their influence on the linguistic system (**cognitive linguistics**). Lately also the relationship between the people's environment and their language arouse linguists' interest.

The first ideas concerning language and environment were expressed by Edward Sapir and are now known as the **Sapir-Whorf hypothesis** which states that the **language** a person speaks influences the way the world is perceived and interacted with. Now there are four different approaches to the relationship between languages and their environments and all of them emerge from different schools of linguistic thought. As said by **Chomsky** and cognitive linguists human language is independent of the environment, according to one other theory language is constructed by the world. Structuralists and poststructuralists claim that the world is constructed by language, while ecolinguists suggest that language is interconnected with the environment as language constructs and is constructed by it.

All of the above mentioned possibilities are considered by a recently emerging discipline of ecolinguistics; however, linguists put different emphasis on different types of relationships of language and environment. What is generally agreed is that with the

growing awareness of the influence of human activities on global environment there has been a surge in the number of words describing those issues. Most of the neologisms originate in the English language and are very technical and thus abstract, they are often multiword formations of Greek or Latin origin. It has been pointed out that many terms are introduced to mislead the public attention about problematic practices as in the following examples: substituting *wetland drainage* with '*land reclamation'*, or *wild animals hunting* with '*game management*'.

Although the analysis of **grammar** in respect of its influence on human behavior connected with environment has been conducted, such studies are still not very frequent. What has been hitherto discovered, however, is that including animals in the same gender class as humans emphasizes the solidarity of people with their environment. Moreover the amount of changes made in the environment of people speaking languages in which the cause-effect relationship is difficult to encode is smaller than in communities using other languages.

Analyses of large texts are also performed in order to check what attitudes towards the natural environment might be developed by their readers. Usually focusing on the choice of lexis linguists emphasize that the same issues might be portrayed in a quite different way by people from opposite parties. Opposing groups use different words to describe the same notions as for example in the case of environmentalists and developers talking about the same piece of land. In spite of the fact that the described entity is the same, because of different approaches in texts readers of the environmentalists' version will have a different notion of the landscape than readers of developers' text.

REVISION

(1) What is language? What are the main features of human language?

(2) Philosophers and linguists are continuously making attempts to discover how language actually came to being, coming up with numerous theories of language origin. Discuss.

(3) Discuss the micro and macro functions of language. Give examples to illustrate your answer.

(4) Write short notes on the following:

(a) Language and culture.

(b) Language and environment.

(c) First language acquisition vs. second language acquisition.

(d) Bilingualism vs. multilingualism.

(e) Micro vs. macro functions of language.

(5) Choose the correct answer:

1. A sound change which involves the change of position of two sounds within a word is known as .....

   a) epenthesis

   b) metathesis

   c) expansion

2. The branch of science which investigates the present form and use of languages, as well as their past is called .....

a) philology
b) etymology
c) historical linguistics

3. According to ....., language is interconnected with the environment as language constructs and is constructed by it.
   a) structuralists
   b) Chomsky
   c) ecolinguists

4. The ability to master the use of two languages is known as .....
   a) monolingualism
   b) bilingualism
   c) multilingualism

CHAPTER 4

LANGUAGE VARIETIES

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LANGUAGE VARIETIES

Languages constantly undergo changes, resulting in the development of different varieties of the languages. A **variety** of a language is a form that differs systematically and coherently from other forms of the language. Some writers in sociolinguistics use the term ***lect***, apparently a back-formation from specific terms such as *dialect* and *idiolect*.

Varieties such as dialects, idiolects, and sociolects can be distinguished not only by their vocabulary, but also by differences in grammar, phonology and prosody. For instance the tonal word accents of Scandinavian languages has differing realizations in many dialects. As another example, foreign words in different sociolects vary in their degree of adaptation to the basic phonology of the language.

Certain professional registers such as legalese show a variation in grammar from the standard language. For

instance, English journalists or lawyers often use grammatical moods such as *subjunctive mood* or *conditional mood*, which are no longer used frequently by other speakers. Many registers are simply a specialized set of terms (see technical terminology, jargon).

It is a matter of definition whether slang and argot are to be considered included in the concept of *variety* or of *style*. Colloquialisms and idiomatic expressions are usually understood as limited to variation of lexicon, and hence of *style.*

A. Dialects:

A dialect is a variety of a language spoken by an identifiable subgroup of people. When a group of speakers of a particular language differs noticeably in its speech from another group we say that they are speaking different dialects.

Traditionally, linguists have applied the term *dialect* to geographically distinct language varieties, but in current usage the term can include speech varieties

characteristic of other socially definable groups. Determining whether two speech varieties are dialects of the same language, or whether they have changed enough to be considered distinct languages, has often proved a difficult and controversial decision.

Linguists usually cite mutual intelligibility as the major criterion in making this decision. If two speech varieties are not mutually intelligible, then the speech varieties are different languages; if they are mutually intelligible but differ systematically from one another, then they are dialects of the same language. There are problems with this definition, however, because many levels of mutual intelligibility exist, and linguists must decide at what level speech varieties should no longer be considered mutually intelligible. This is difficult to establish in practice. Intelligibility has a large psychological component: If a speaker of one speech variety wants to understand a speaker of another speech variety, understanding is more likely than if this were not the case. In addition, chains of speech varieties exist in

which adjacent speech varieties are mutually intelligible, but speech varieties farther apart in the chain are not.

Furthermore, sociopolitical factors almost inevitably intervene in the process of distinguishing between dialects and languages. Such factors, for example, led to the traditional characterization of Chinese as a single language with a number of mutually unintelligible dialects.

Dialects develop primarily as a result of limited communication between different parts of a community that share one language. Under such circumstances, changes that take place in the language of one part of the community do not spread elsewhere. As a result, the speech varieties become more distinct from one another. If contact continues to be limited for a long enough period, sufficient changes will accumulate to make the speech varieties mutually unintelligible. When this occurs, and especially if it is accompanied by the sociopolitical separation of a group of speakers from the larger community, it usually leads to the recognition of separate

languages. The different changes that took place in spoken Latin in different parts of the Roman Empire, for example, eventually gave rise to the distinct modern Romance languages, including French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Romanian.

In ordinary usage, the term *dialect* can also signify a variety of a language that is distinct from what is considered the standard form of that language. Linguists, however, consider the standard language to be simply one dialect of a language. For example, the dialect of French spoken in Paris became the standard language of France not because of any linguistic features of this dialect but because Paris was the political and cultural center of the country.

B. Standard and Non-standard Dialects:

A **standard dialect** (also known as a **standardized dialect** or "standard language") is a dialect that is supported by institutions. Such institutional support may include government recognition or designation; presentation as being the "correct" form of a language in

schools; published grammars, dictionaries, and textbooks that set forth a "correct" spoken and written form; and an extensive formal literature that employs that dialect (prose, poetry, nonfiction, etc.). There may be multiple standard dialects associated with a language. For example, Standard American English, Standard British English, and Standard Indian English may all be said to be standard dialects of the English language.

A nonstandard dialect, like a standard dialect, has a complete vocabulary, grammar, and syntax, but is not the beneficiary of institutional support.

C. Social Varieties of Language:

In linguistics, a *sociolect* is the language spoken by a social group, social class or subculture. It is a portmanteau term combining the words "social" and "dialect", which in this regard differs from an idiolect – which is the form of a language peculiar to an individual – and a dialect, which is a form of speech peculiar to a certain area.

Sociolects are dialects determined by social factors rather than by geography. Sociolects often develop due to social divisions within a society, such as those of socioeconomic class and religion. In New York City, for example, the probability that someone will pronounce the letter *r* when it occurs at the end of a syllable, as in the word *fourth,* varies with socioeconomic class. The pronunciation of a final *r* in general is associated with members of higher socioeconomic classes. The same is true in England of the pronunciation of *h,* as in *hat.* Members of certain social groups often adopt a particular pronunciation as a way of distinguishing themselves from other social groups. The inhabitants of Martha's Vineyard,

Massachusetts, for example, have adopted particular vowel pronunciations to distinguish themselves from people vacationing on the island.

An *idiolect* is a variety of a language unique to an individual. It is manifested by patterns of word selection and grammar, or words, phrases, idioms, or pronunciations that are unique to that individual. Every individual has an idiolect; the grouping of words and phrases is unique, rather than an individual using specific words that nobody else uses. An idiolect can easily evolve into an *ecolect*—a dialect variant specific to a household.

Slang, *argot*, and *jargon* are more specialized terms for certain social language varieties usually defined by their specialized vocabularies. *Slang* refers to informal vocabulary, especially short-lived coinages, that do not belong to a language's standard vocabulary. Slang necessarily involves deviation from standard language, and tends to be very popular among adolescents. To one degree or another, however, it is used in all sectors of society. Although slang does not necessarily involve

neologisms (some slang expressions, such as *quid*, are very old), it often involves the creation of new linguistic forms or the creative adaptation of old ones. It can even involve the creation of a secret language understood only by those within a particular group (an antilanguage). As such, slang frequently forms a kind of sociolect aimed at excluding certain people from the conversation.

Argot (French for "slang") is primarily slang used by various groups, including but not limited to thieves and other criminals, to prevent outsiders from understanding their conversations.

A *jargon* comprises the specialized vocabulary of a particular trade or profession, especially when it is incomprehensible to outsiders, as with legal jargon. It develops as a kind of shorthand, to express ideas that are frequently discussed between members of a group, and can also have the effect of distinguishing those belonging to a group from those who are not.

In addition to the language varieties defined in terms of social groups, there are language varieties called *registers* that are defined by social situation. In a formal situation, for example, a person might say, "You are requested to leave," whereas in an informal situation the same person might say, "Get out!" Register differences can affect pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

D. Pidgins and Creoles:

A pidgin is an *auxiliary language* (a language used for communication by groups that have different native tongues) that develops when people speaking different languages are brought together and forced to develop a common means of communication without sufficient time to learn each other's native languages properly. Typically, a pidgin language derives most of its vocabulary from one of the languages. Its grammatical structure, however, will either be highly variable, reflecting the grammatical structures of each speaker's native language, or it may in time become stabilized in a manner very different from the grammar of the language that contributed most of its vocabulary. Historically, plantation societies in the

Caribbean and the South Pacific have originated many pidgin languages. Tok Pisin is the major pidgin language of Papua New Guinea. Both its similarities to and its differences from English can be seen in the sentence “Pik bilong dispela man i kam pinis,” meaning “This man’s pig has come,” or, more literally, “Pig belong this-fellow man he come finish.”

Since a pidgin is an auxiliary language, it has no native speakers. In contrast, a creole is a fully-functional language of its own which includes elements of its parent languages. It has a complete grammar of its own and the full expressive power that affords. A creole language arises in a contact situation similar to that which produces pidgin languages and perhaps goes through a stage in which it is a pidgin, but a creole becomes the native language of its community. As with pidgin languages, creoles usually take most of their vocabulary from a single language. Also as with pidgins, the grammatical structure of a creole language reflects the structures of the languages that were originally spoken in the community. A characteristic of creole languages is their simple

morphology. In the Jamaican Creole sentence “A fain Jan fain di kluoz,” meaning “John found the clothes,” the vocabulary is of English origin, while the grammatical structure, which doubles the verb for emphasis, reflects West African language patterns. Because the vocabularies of Tok Pisin and Jamaican Creole are largely of English origin, they are called English-based.

REVISION

I. Indicate whether the following statements are TRUE or FALSE and correct the false ones:

1. When a group of speakers of a particular language differs noticeably in its speech from another group we say that they are speaking different languages.
2. Dialects develop primarily as a result of limited communication between different parts of a community that share one language.
3. Sociolects are dialects determined by social factors rather than by geography.
4. If two speech varieties are mutually intelligible but differ systematically from one another, then the speech varieties are different languages.
5. A standard dialect is a dialect that is supported by institutions.
6. An ecolect is a variety of a language unique to an individual.
7. Slang refers to informal vocabulary, especially short-lived coinages, that do not belong to a language's standard vocabulary.

8. A *jargon* comprises the specialized vocabulary of a particular trade or profession, especially when it is incomprehensible to outsiders, as with legal jargon.
9. A pidgin is never a person's native language.
10. A creole is a fully-functional language of its own which includes elements of its parent languages.

II. Write short notes on:

1. Language and dialect.
2. Standard and non-standard dialects.
3. Pidgins and creoles.
4. Slang, argot, and jargon.
5. Sociolects, idiolects and ecolects.

CHAPTER 5

LANGUAGE CHANGE

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LANGUAGE CHANGE

Languages continually undergo changes, although speakers of a language are usually unaware of the changes as they are occurring. We've seen that language changes across space and across social group. Language also varies across time After all, they are passed down through the generations reliably enough for parents and children to communicate with each other. Yet linguists find that all languages change over time—albeit at different rates. For example, while Japanese has changed relatively little over 1,000 years, English evolved rapidly in just a few centuries. Many present-day speakers find Shakespeare's sixteenth century texts difficult and Chaucer's fourteenth century Canterbury Tales nearly impossible to read.

A. How and Why Do Languages Change?

Languages change for a variety of reasons. Large-scale shifts often occur in response to social, economic and political pressures. History records many examples of language change fueled by invasions, colonization and

migration. Even without these kinds of influences, a language can change dramatically if enough users alter the way they speak it.

Frequently, the needs of speakers drive language change. New technologies, industries, products and experiences simply require new words. Plastic, cell phones and the Internet didn't exist in Shakespeare's time, for example. By using new and emerging terms, we all drive language change. But the unique way that individuals speak also fuels language change. That's because no two individuals use a language in exactly the same way. The vocabulary and phrases people use depend on where they live, their age, education level, social status and other factors. Through our interactions, we pick up new words and sayings and integrate them into our speech. Teens and young adults for example, often use different words and phrases from their parents. Some of them spread through the population and slowly change the language.

Thus, we can argue that there are many different routes to language change. Changes can take originate in **language learning**, or through **language contact**, **social differentiation**, and **natural processes in usage**.

Language learning: Language is transformed as it is transmitted from one generation to the next. Each individual must re-create a grammar and lexicon based on input received from parents, older siblings and other members of the speech community. The experience of each individual is different, and the process of linguistic replication is imperfect, so that the result is variable across individuals. However, a bias in the learning process -- for instance, towards regularization -- will cause systematic drift, generation by generation. In addition, random differences may spread and become 'fixed', especially in small populations.

Language contact: Migration, conquest and trade bring speakers of one language into contact with speakers of another language. Some individuals will become fully bilingual as children, while others learn a second language more or less well as adults. In such contact

situations, languages often borrow words, sounds, constructions and so on.

Social differentiation. Social groups adopt distinctive norms of dress, adornment, gesture and so forth; language is part of the package. Linguistic distinctiveness can be achieved through vocabulary (slang or jargon), pronunciation (usually via exaggeration of some variants already available in the environment), morphological processes, syntactic constructions, and so on.

Natural processes in usage. Rapid or casual speech naturally produces processes such as *assimilation*, *dissimilation*, *syncope* and *apocope*. Through repetition, particular cases may become conventionalized, and therefore produced even in slower or more careful speech. Word meaning change in a similar way, through conventionalization of processes like *metaphor* and *metonymy*.

Some linguists distinguish between *internal* and *external* sources of language change, with "internal"

sources of change being those that occur within a single linguistic community, and contact phenomena being the main examples of an external source of change.

B. Sound Change:

Historical change can affect all components of language, and a great deal is known about general mechanisms and historical details of changes at all levels of linguistic analysis. However, a special and conspicuous success has been achieved in modeling changes in phonological systems, traditionally called **sound change**. Sound change is the area of language change that has received the most study. One of the major sound changes in the history of the English language is the so-called Great Vowel Shift. This shift, which occurred during the 15^{th} and 16^{th} centuries, affected the pronunciation of all English long vowels (vowels that have a comparatively long sound duration). In Middle English, spoken from 1100 to 1500, the word *house* was pronounced with the vowel sound of the modern English word *boot,* while *boot* was pronounced with the vowel sound of the modern English *boat.*

The change that affected the pronunciation of *house* also affected the vowels of *mouse, louse,* and *mouth.* This illustrates an important principle of sound change: It tends to be regular—that is, a particular sound change in a language tends to occur in the same way in all words.

The principle of the regularity of sound change has been particularly important to linguists when comparing different languages for genetic relatedness. Linguists compare root words from the different languages to see if they are similar enough to have once been the same word in a common ancestor language. By establishing that the sound differences between similar root words are the result of regular sound changes that occurred in the languages, linguists can support the conclusion that the different languages descended from the same original language. For example, by comparing the Latin word *pater* with its English translation, *father,* linguists might claim that the two languages are genetically related because of certain similarities between the two words. Linguists could then hypothesize that the Latin *p* had

changed to *f* in English, and that the two words descended from the same original word. They could search for other examples to strengthen this hypothesis, such as the Latin word *piscis* and its English translation, *fish*, and the Latin *pes* and the English translation, *foot.* The sound change that relates *f* in the Germanic languages to *p* in most other branches of Indo-European is a famous sound change called Grimm's Law, named for German grammarian Jacob Grimm.

C. Morphological Change:

The morphology of a language can also change. An ongoing morphological change in English is the loss of the distinction between the nominative, or subject, form *who* and the accusative, or object, form *whom.* English speakers use both the *who* and *whom* forms for the object of a sentence, saying both "Who did you see?" and "Whom did you see?" However, English speakers use only the form *who* for a sentence's subject, as in "Who saw you?" Old English, the historical form of English spoken from about 700 to about 1100, had a much more complex morphology than modern English.

The modern English word *stone* has only three additional forms: the genitive singular *stone's,* the plural *stones,* and the genitive plural *stones'.* All three of these additional forms have the same pronunciation. In Old English these forms were all different from one another: *stan, stanes, stanas,* and *stana,* respectively. In addition, there was a dative singular form *stane* and a dative plural form *stanum,* used, for instance, after certain prepositions, as in *under stanum* (under stones).

D. Syntactic Change:

Change can also affect syntax. In modern English, the basic word order is subject-verb-object, as in the sentence "I know John." The only other possible word order is object-subject-verb, as in "John I know (but Mary I don't)." Old English, by contrast, allowed all possible word order permutations, including subject-object-verb, as in *Gif hie nigne feld secan wolden,* meaning "If they wished to seek any field," or literally "If they any field to seek wished." The loss of word-order freedom is one of the main syntactic changes that separates the modern English language from Old English.

E. Semantic and Lexical Change:

The meanings of words can also change. In Middle English, the word *nice* usually had the meaning "foolish," and sometimes "shy," but never the modern meaning "pleasant." Change in the meanings of words is known as semantic change and can be viewed as part of the more general phenomenon of *lexical change*, or change in a language's vocabulary. Words not only can change their meaning but also can become obsolete. For example, modern readers require a note to explain Shakespeare's word *hent* (take hold of), which is no longer in use. In addition, new words can be created, such as *feedback.*

F. Change Due to Borrowing:

While much change takes place in a given language without outside interference, many changes can result from contact with other languages. Linguists use the terms *borrowing* and *loan* to refer to instances in which one language takes something from another language.

The most obvious cases of borrowing are in vocabulary. English, for example, has borrowed a large part of its vocabulary from French and Latin. Most of these borrowed words are somewhat more scholarly, as in the word *human* (Latin *humanus*), because the commonly used words of any language are less likely to be lost or replaced. However, some of the words borrowed into English are common, such as the French word *very*, which replaced the native English word *sore* in such phrases as *sore afraid*, meaning "very frightened." The borrowing of such common words reflects the close contact that existed between the English and the French in the period after the Norman Conquest of England in 1066.

Borrowing can affect not only vocabulary but also, in principle, all components of a language's grammar. The English suffix *-er*, which is added to verbs to form nouns, as in the formation of *baker* from *bake*, is ultimately a borrowing from the Latin suffix *-arius*. The suffix has been incorporated to such an extent, however, that it is used with indigenous words, such as *bake*, as well as with Latin words. Syntax also can be borrowed.

For example, Amharic, a Semitic language of Ethiopia, has abandoned the usual Semitic word-order pattern, verb-subject-object, and replaced it with the word order subject-object-verb, borrowed from neighboring non-Semitic languages.

Although in principle any component of language can be borrowed, some components are much more susceptible to borrowing than others. Cultural vocabulary is the most susceptible to borrowing, while morphology is the least susceptible.

G. Reconstructing Languages:

Linguistic reconstruction is the recovery of the stages of a language that existed prior to those found in written documents. Using a number of languages that are genetically related, linguists try to reconstruct at least certain aspects of the languages' common ancestor, called the protolanguage. Linguists theorize that those features that are the same among the protolanguage's descendant languages, or those features that differ but can be traced

to a common origin, can be considered features of the ancestor language.

Nineteenth-century linguistic science made significant progress in reconstructing the Proto-Indo-European language. While many details of this reconstruction remain controversial, in general linguists have gained a good conception of Proto-Indo-European's phonology, morphology, and vocabulary. However, due to the range of syntactic variation among Proto-Indo-European's descendant languages, linguists have found syntactic reconstruction more problematic.

CHAPTER 6

PHONOLOGY

CHAPTER 6

PHONOLOGY

Speech sounds as physical entities may infinitely vary, but when they are used as phonological units in human communication they are highly constrained, because the human communication system is a well-organized system of linguistic symbols. Individual sound segments are strung together to form meaningful sequences according to certain rules. A speaker's linguistic competence enables a speaker to extract regularities from the constantly varying physical sounds.

Linguists are interested in how sound segments may vary. and what phonetic and phonological universals are found in all languages of the world. It is known that the same relatively small set of phonetic properties characterizes all human speech sounds, that the same classes of sounds are used in almost all the languages of the world and that the same kinds of regular patterns of speech sounds exist in the languages all over the world. When one learns a language he learns which speech

sounds are used in the language, how they are patterned and how they work or function in the language system according to the regular rules of the language.

Both phonetics and phonology deal with speech sounds, but they study the same aspect of language from different angles. Phonetics provides the means for describing speech sounds, and indicating their physical or phonetic properties, but phonology studies the ways in which sounds sequences and patterns and how they work in the system of language. Phonology is therefore defined as the study of the sound system or patterns of languages, or of a particular language. How sounds pattern is not arbitrary. Rather, they pattern according to rules. These rules are one of the concerns of phonology.

Phonological knowledge permits a speaker to do such things as producing sounds that form meaningful utterances, recognizing a foreign accent, making up new words, adding the appropriate phonetic segments to form plurals and past tenses, producing aspirated and unaspirated voiceless stops in the appropriate context, and recognizing what is or is not a sound in the language.

Phonemes: The Phonological Units of Language

When one learns a word, he has to learn its form (the sounds that represent it) and meaning. This is a must since the relationship between the form and the meaning of a word is arbitrary, i.e., knowing the meaning of a word does not tell you its pronunciation, and knowing how to say it does not tell you what it means. Consider the forms and meanings of the following English words:

pan/ban, tip/dip, coal/goal, seal/zeal, thigh/thy
feed/food, cat/car, file/foil, bed/bad, moon/man

Each word differs from the others in both form and meaning. The difference between *pan* and *ban* is due to the fact that the initial sound in the first word is [p]and the initial sound in the second word is [b]. These two words are phonetically identical except for the initial consonants. [p] and [b] can therefore distinguish or contrast words. They are distinctive sounds in English. Such distinctive sounds are called *phonemes*. Similarly, we see from the contrast between *seal* and *zeal* and between *feed* and *food* that [s], [z], [i] and [u] are different phonemes. The reason

again is that substituting [s] for [z] or [i] for [u] produces a different word.

Phonetics provides the means to describe sounds, showing how they differ; phonology tells us that they function as phonemes, acting to contrast words.

Minimal Pairs

One of the rules to determine the phonemes of any language is to see whether substituting one sound for another results in a different word. If it does, the two sounds represent different phonemes. When two words have the same form except for one sound segment that occurs in the same place in the string (initially, medially, or finally), the two words are called *minimal pairs* (e.g., *seal/zeal, hat/hot, send/sand*).

Thus, one way to decide that given sound segments are different phonemes is to see if they constitute a *minimal set*. The minimal set "*beat/boot/bat*" shows that the vowels [i], [u] and [æ] are different phonemes in English. It is therefore possible to prove that all other

English sounds are different sounds or phonemes by finding minimal pairs or sets.

Distinctive Features

In order for two phonetic forms to differ and to contrast meanings, there must be some phonetic differences between the substituted sounds. The minimal pairs *seal* and *zeal* show that [s] and [z] are two contrasting phonemes. Phonetically, the only difference between these two phonemes is a voicing difference: [s] is voiceless or [-voiced] whereas [z] is voiced or [+voiced]. It is this phonetic feature -voicing- that distinguishes the two words. When a phonetic feature like voicing distinguishes one phoneme from another, it is *a distinctive feature* or *a phonemic feature*. When two words are phonetically identical except for one feature, the phonetic difference is distinctive since this difference alone accounts for the contrast or difference in meaning.

Phonetically, a single feature has two values: + and - , e.g., [± nasal], [± voiced], [± consonantal], [± continuant]. A phonetic feature is distinctive when its

+value in certain words contrast with its -value in other words.

Sounds that are not phonemes: features that do not contrast

The method of substituting one sound for another to determine whether a new word is created may also be used to show that not all sounds in a language are separate phonemes. In other words, not all phonetic features are distinctive. One of such features is the nasality of English vowels. Nasalized vowels occur before nasal consonants, e.g., *ram, dean*. Vowels that occur before nonnasal or oral consonants are oral vowels, e.g., *rat, deal*. (If a vowel is syllable final in a two-syllable word and the second syllable begins with a nasal consonant, the preceding vowel is not nasalized, e.g., *dynamics, financial*).

The substitution of a nasal vowel for an oral one does not change meaning. That is, if someone utters words like *rat* and *deal* with nasalized vowels, people would probably say he has a "nasal twang", but they would understand him to be saying *rat* and *deal*.

Similarly, the substitution of [i] for [e] in the word *economics* does not change the meaning of the word. However, two sounds may still be two phonemes even if the substitution of one of them for another in one or two words does not change the meaning. This occurs when a number of other examples show them to represent different phonemes (e.g., *seal/sell, keen/ken, deed/dead*). This is not the case with nasalized and oral vowels where no examples can be found to show that the substitution of nasalized vowels for oral ones can change the meaning.

A further more important difference between [i] and [e] on the one hand, and nasalized and oral vowels on the other is that the latter is rule governed. That is, there is a rule in phonology to predict when nasalized vowels occur. The rule states "Nasalize a vowel or a diphthong before a word-final or syllable-final consonant". There is no such rule to predict when [i] occurs instead of [e] or [u] or [a] or any of the other phonemes.

The value of (+ or -) of the feature [± nasal] is predictable for English vowels. When a feature is predictable by a general rule, it is not a distinctive or

phonemic feature. Therefore oral vowels and their nasal counterparts never contrast. In other words, there are no nasalized vowel phonemes in English. Therefore, the feature [± nasal] is not a distinctive feature for English vowels (it can be so in other languages) although it is distinctive for English consonants. (For this reason [a] and [ã] are not separate phonemes, whereas [p] and [m] are).

Phonemes and Allophones

Phonemes are then theoretical constructs, classes of sounds the members of which display obvious phonetic similarities the differences among the respective members being never contrastive or functional. As soon as, in a given linguistic context, this difference becomes functional and represents the basis on which a semantic contrast is achieved, it ceases to be *allophonic* and becomes *phonemic*, in other words the respective sounds are members of distinct classes (phonemes).

A *phoneme* may have more than one phonetic manifestation or variation, i.e., it can have more than one

pronunciation depending on the context. We must know the phonological rules of the language to know how to pronounce such phonemes in different contexts. The phonetic manifestations of a given phoneme are called *allophones*.

In English, each vowel phoneme has both an oral and a nasalized allophone. The choice of the allophone is not random or haphazard; it is *rule-governed*, as illustrated by the general rule determining the incidence of oral and nasalized vowels in English. According to this rule, oral vowels occur in a context (i.e., before oral consonants) and nasalized vowels occur in a different context (i.e., before nasal consonants). They never occur in the same context or environment. When two or more sounds never occur in the same context or environment, they are said to be in *complementary distribution*.

If variation is not associated with positioning, and is rather unpredictable, without being phonemic however, we talk about *free variation* or *random variation*. One type of random variation that we encounter is when we compare different realizations of one and the same

phoneme by various speakers or in the speech of one and the same person in different situations. It differs from the preceding type because it is context-free and it differs from phonemic variation because it is not contrastive. To give an example, if a person pronounces the word *rock* as either [**rɔk**] or [**rɔk^{h}**], then we talk about free variation. We can have a different type of free variation when we deal with realizations of different phonemes in the same context without a change of meaning. E.g.: **/i:/** and **/e/** in the respective pronunciations of *economics*: **/i:kənɔmıks/** vs. **/ekənɔmıks/**; or **/e/** and **/eı/** in the respective pronunciations of *again* **/əgen/** vs. **/əgeın/**.

Predictable or Redundant Features

Nasality is a *predictable* or *redundant* feature for English vowels. Whether a vowel is [-nasal] or [+nasal] is said to be redundant because the value of this feature depends on other segments of the word. If the vowel occurs before a nasal consonant in the same syllable, it is predictably [+nasal]. The value of this feature is therefore redundant. It is not specific to any particular word but determined by a general rule.

The nasality feature, however, is not redundant for English consonants. Whether or not a consonant is [+nasal] cannot be predicted by a general rule. There is no rule that can predict that the word *bean* will have a final /n/ rather than a /d/. Similarly, the fact that the word *meat* begins with the bilabial nasal [m] is an arbitrary, nonpredictable fact about this particular word. The fact that the vowel in the word *bean* is nasalized is not a fact about only his word but about all the words in which the vowel is followed by a nasal consonant.

Another example of redundant features in English is the aspiration of the voiceless oral stops [p], [t] and [k].

These sounds are aspirated when they occur at the beginning of words and unaspirated when they come after [s]. Since aspirated and unaspirated sounds occur in different contexts, they are in complementary distribution.

Despite the phonetic differences between the aspirated and the unaspirated voiceless oral stops, speakers of English consider each aspirated sound and its unaspirated counterpart as the "same" sound, just as they consider each oral vowel and its nasalized counterpart as the "same' sound. They do so because the feature that differentiates these sounds, i.e., aspiration, is *predictable, redundant, nondistinctive, and nonphonemic* (all equivalent terms). There are therefore tow *p* sounds but only one *p* phoneme. (The same applies to *t* and *k*). In other words, there is a /p/ phoneme which has two allophones [p^{h}] and [$p^{=}$]. Another way of stating this fact is to say that [p^{h}] and [$p^{=}$] are derived from /p/ by the rule, "Aspirate a voiceless stop when it occurs word initially".

Form and Meaning

In few cases the substitution of one sound segment for another does not result in a different word. We can

therefore find two different forms that are identical in meaning. For example, some speakers pronounce the word *economics* with an initial [e] vowel while others pronounce it with the [i] vowel. Here the substitution of [e] for [i] or vice versa does not produce another word. However these tow sound segments are different phonemes. We can find many other minimal pairs where the substitution of one of them for the other produces different words, e.g., *beat/bet, seat/set, keen/ken*).

Just as two forms may have identical meaning, two meanings may have identical form. If two words are identical in form and different in meaning, they are said to be *homonyms* or *homophones*, e.g., "sole" and "soul" (Note that they have the same pronunciation even though they are different in spelling). Other examples of homophones are *two/to, night/knight, wait/weight.*

The determining fact is whether there is both a change in form (pronunciation) and a change in meaning. When both changes occur, we know that the substituted sound segments represent different phonemes.

Vowel and Consonant Length

In English, sustaining the vowel -making it longer- does not change meaning. Vowel length is nondistinctive or nonphonemic in English. It is nonphonemic as it is rule-governed. Vowels are longer before voiced consonants than before voiceless ones, and also at the end of words e.g., *beat/bead/bee [bit][bi:d][bi:]*. However, one can prolong the pronunciation of a vowel in a word before a voiceless consonant and it would not make any difference in meaning. (Note: In English consonants may be pronounced long if they occur across word boundaries. Many English speakers produce a longer /t/ in *white tie* than in *why tie?*)

If, for example, one sustained the vowel in the utterance "I feel beeeaaat", people might think he were extremely tired but would not have difficulty knowing that the word is *beat [bit]*. Since the substitution of long vowels for short ones and vice versa does not produce different words, vowel length is nondistinctive or nonphonemic. Vowel length is nevertheless distinctive in other languages such the Korean language. In such

languages, the substitution of a long vowel for a short one or vice versa contrasts words.

Sequences of Phonemes

The phonemes of any language cannot be strung together in any random way to form words. The phonological system determines which phonemes can begin a word, end a word, and follow each other. If an English speaker heard someone say "I just bought a beautiful new *blick*", he would ask "What's a *blick*?". If, however, he heard someone say "I just bought a beautiful new *bkli*", he would say "What did you say?" The word *blick* has a permissible cluster of phonemes but it does not have meaning, and this is why the speaker would just ask about its meaning, thinking that it is an actual word which he does not know. The form *bkli,* on the other hand, is not a permissible string of phonemes in English, and this is why the speaker would ask "What did you say?

In any language, certain strings of phonemes are permissible and others are not. English speakers know that after a consonant like /b/, /p/, /g/, or /k/ another consonant is not permitted. That is why *bkli* does not

sound like an English word. If a word begins with /l/ or /r/, every speaker knows that the next segment must be a vowel. For this reason forms like *lbik* and *rkal* do not sound like English words. They violate the restrictions on the sequencing or clustering of phonemes.

Another example of such constraints/restrictions on the sequencing of phonemes is that if the initial sounds in *check* and *genre* begin a word, the next sound must be a vowel. Based on this constraint, */chalik/* and */jadil/ sound* like English words, whereas */chlik/* and */jlid/* do not. One final example of such constraints is that no more than three sequential consonants can occur at the beginning of a word, and these three are restricted to /s/ + /p, t, k/ + /l, r, w, y). There are even restrictions if this condition is met. For example, /stl/ is not a permitted sequence, so *stlick* not a possible word in English, but *strick* is.

If a word has both a permissible string or sequence of phonemes and a meaning, it is an *actual* word. If it has a permissible clustering of phonemes with no meaning, it is a *nonsense* word or a possible word. If a form violates

the accepted clustering of phonemes, it is neither an actual nor possible.

Syllable Structure

Sequential constraints apply to syllables just as they apply to words. Words like *construct* and *explicit* have permissible medial clusters: */nstr/* and */kspl/* respectively. There is no such an English word as */constluct/* because the second syllable starts with a nonpermissible sequence */stl/*. There are also sequential constraints that go across syllable boundaries. One of such restrictions pertains to clusters of syllable-final nasal consonants followed by syllable-final nonnasal (oral) stops. Only the labial /m/ occurs before the labials /p/ and /b/, and only the velar / / occurs before the velars /k/and /g/. (See the examples on page 86). This constraint states that only homorganic (produced at the same place of articulation) nasal + nonnasal consonant clusters may occur.

Natural Classes

Phonological rules that determine the conditions under which vowels are nasalized, voiceless stops are

aspirated, or which clusters may occur within a word are general rules. They apply to classes of sounds. They also apply to all the words in the vocabulary of the language, and they even apply to nonsense words that are not in the language but could enter the language. That these rules apply to classes of sounds (e.g., nasals, voiceless stops, alveolars, labials) is understandable since these rules have phonetic explanations and these classes of sounds are defined by phonetic features. For this reason such classes of sounds are called natural classes. A *natural class* is *one in which the number of features that define the class as a whole is smaller than the number of features required to distinguish any member of that class*.

The class of voiceless stops, i.e., /p, t, k/ as a whole can be specified by two features: [-continuant -voiced], whereas /t/ alone requires four features to distinguish it from all other consonants: [-continuant, -voiced, +anterior, +coronal). Another example of natural classes is the voiceless oral stops that are aspirated when they occur word initially. This class can be defined by two features: [-voiced +aspirated]. If, instead, /p/ and /t/ were

aspirated, then we would have to refer to the class of sounds that were [-continuant, -voiced, +anterior]. If only /p/ and /k/ were aspirated, the number of features that defined these two sounds as distinct from all other phonemes would be even greater.

REVISION

Write short notes on the following:

1. Phonetics and phonology.
2. Phonemes and allophones.
3. Minimal pairs and minimal sets.
4. Phonemic transcription and phonetic transcription.
5. Complementary distribution and free variation.
6. Distinctive and non-distinctive features of sounds.
7. Phonotactics and phonotactic constraints.
8. Morphophonemics.

CHAPTER 7

MORPHOLOGY

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MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is that branch of linguistics that deals with the study of words, their internal structure and partially their meanings. It is also interested in how the users of a given language understand complex words and invent new lexical items. As morphology is concerned with word forms it is akin to phonology (which describes how words are pronounced), it is also related to lexical studies as the patterns examined by morphology are used to create new words. Furthermore, it is also linked with semantics as it deals with the meanings of words.

Scholars differentiate between derivational morphology and inflectional morphology. The former is concerned with the relationships of different words, and with the ways in which vocabulary items can be built from some elements, as in *un-speak-able*; while the latter deals with the forms of one word that it takes up depending on its grammatical functions in a sentence. When it comes to English it appears that it rather takes

advantage of derivational morphemes rather than inflectional ones.

Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units words are composed of. Morphemes can be divided into two types: free and bound morphemes. Free morphemes are morphemes that can stand alone as a word, while bound morphemes cannot stand alone. Most bound morphemes are affixes, which fall into two broad groups, prefixes (attaching to the beginning of the stem) and suffixes (attaching to the end of a stem). Morphemes with an independent meaning are called content morphemes, while morphemes that only provide grammatical information are called function morphemes.

Derivational morphemes are used to build or create new lexemes from existing ones while inflectional morphemes only contribute to the inflectional paradigm of a lexeme. Lexemes are those words listed in the mental lexicon, often written in capital letters. A paradigm lists all inflectional variants (all word forms) of a lexeme.

Inflection and Derivation:

In English and many other languages as well, both inflection and derivation usually occur through affixal modification of a base. A base is the part to which affixes can be attached. A stem is the part which remains if all inflectional suffixes are cut off (used mainly in the context of inflectional morphology). A root is the irreducible core of a word with no inflectional nor derivational affixes attached to it; roots can be free (e.g. *walk, book, sweet*) or bound (such as {-duce} as in *reduce*).

Morphemes can also be divided into the two categories of content and function morphemes, a distinction that is conceptually distinct from the free-bound distinction but that partially overlaps with it in practice.

The idea behind this distinction is that some morphemes express some general sort of *content*, in a way that is as independent as possible of the grammatical system of a particular language -- while other morphemes

are heavily tied to a grammatical *function*, expressing syntactic relationships between units in a sentence, or obligatorily-marked categories such as number or tense.

Thus (the stems of) nouns, verbs, adjectives are typically content morphemes: "throw," "green," "Kim," and "sand" are all English content morphemes. Content morphemes are also often called "open-class" morphemes, because they belong to categories that are open to the invention of arbitrary new items. People are always making up or borrowing new morphemes in these categories: "smurf," "nuke," "byte," "grok."

By contrast, prepositions ("to", "by"), articles ("the", "a"), pronouns ("she", "his"), and conjunctions are typically function morphemes, since they either serve to tie elements together grammatically ("hit *by* a truck," "Kim *and* Leslie," "Lee saw *his* dog"), or express obligatory *morphological features* like definiteness ("she found a table" or "she found the table" but not "*she found table"). Function morphemes are also called "closed-class" morphemes, because they belong to

categories that are essentially closed to invention or borrowing -- it is very difficult to add a new preposition, article or pronoun.

For years, some people have tried to introduce non-gendered pronouns into English, for instance "sie" (meaning either "he" or "she", but not "it"). This is much harder to do than to get people to adopt a new noun or verb.

Try making up a new article. For instance, we could try to borrow from the Manding languages an article (written /le/) that means something like "I'm focusing on this phrase as opposed to anything else I could have mentioned." We'll just slip in this new article after the definite or indefinite "the" or "a" -- that's where it goes in Manding, though the rest of the order is completely different. Thus we would say "Kim bought an apple at the-le fruit stand," meaning "it's the fruit stand (as opposed to anyplace else) where Kim bought an apple;" or "Kim bought an-le apple at the fruit stand," meaning

"it's an apple (as opposed to any other kind of fruit) that Kim bought at the fruit stand."

This is a perfectly sensible kind of morpheme to have. However, the chances of persuading the rest of the English-speaking community to adopt it are negligible.

In some ways the open/closed terminology is clearer than content/function, since obviously function morphemes also always have some content!

The concept of the morpheme does not directly map onto the units of sound that represent morphemes in speech. To do this, linguists developed the concept of the allomorph. Allomorphs are nondistinctive realizations of a particular morpheme that have the same function and are phonetically similar. For example, the English plural morpheme can appear as [s] as in *cats*, [z] as in *dogs*, or ['z] as in *churches.* Each of these three pronunciations is said to be an allomorph of the same morpheme.

Inflectional vs. Derivational Morphology

Another important and perhaps universal distinction is the one between derivational and inflectional morphemes. Derivational morphemes produce new words from existing ones (Crystal, p. 90). Thus *creation* is formed from *create*, but they are two separate words. Derivational morphemes generally:

1) Change the part of speech or the basic meaning of a word. Thus *-ment* added to a verb forms a noun (*judg-ment*). *re-activate* means "activate again."
2) Are not required by syntactic relations outside the word. Thus *un-kind* combines *un-* and *kind* into a single new word, but has no particular syntactic connections outside the word -- we can say *he is unkind* or *he is kind* or *they are unkind* or *they are kind*, depending on what we mean.
3) Are often not productive -- derivational morphemes can be selective about what they'll combine with, and may also have erratic effects on meaning. Thus the suffix *-hood* occurs with just a few nouns such as *brother, neighbor,* and *knight*, but not with most others. e.g., **friendhood, *daughterhood,* or **candlehood.* Furthermore "brotherhood" can mean

"the state or relationship of being brothers," but "neighborhood" cannot mean "the state or relationship of being neighbors."

4) Typically occur between the stem and any inflectional affixes. Thus in *government*s,*-ment*, a derivational suffix, precedes -s, an inflectional suffix.
5) In English, may appear either as prefixes or suffixes: *pre-arrange, arrange-ment.*

Inflectional morphemes vary (or "inflect") the form of words in order to express grammatical features, such as singular/plural or past/present tense. Thus *Boy* and *boys*, for example, are two different forms of the "same" word; the choice between them, singular vs. plural, is a matter of grammar and thus the business of inflectional morphology. (Crystal, p. 90.) Inflectional Morphemes generally:

1) Do not change basic meaning or part of speech, e.g., *big, bigg-er, bigg-est* are all adjectives.
2) Express grammatically-required features or indicate relations between different words in the sentence. Thus in *Lee love-s Kim: -s* marks the 3rd person singular

present form of the verb, and also relates it to the 3rd singular subject *Lee.*

3) Are productive. Inflectional morphemes typically combine freely with all members of some large class of morphemes, with predictable effects on usage/meaning. Thus the plural morpheme can be combined with nearly any noun, usually in the same form, and usually with the same effect on meaning.
4) Occur outside any derivational morphemes. Thus in *ration-al-iz-ation-s* the final *-s* is inflectional, and appears at the very end of the word, outside the derivational morphemes *-al, -iz, -ation*.
5) In English, are suffixes only.

Some English morphemes, by category:

derivational	inflectional
-ation	-s Plural
-al	-s Possessive
-ize	-ed Past

-ic	-ing Progressive
-y	-er Comparative
-ous	-est Superlative

How to Describe an Affix:

Some Examples from Derivational Morphology:

-ation

is added to a verb or root *(finalize, anim-)* to give a noun *(finalization, animation)*

un-

is added to a verb *(tie)* to give a verb *(untie)*

un-

is added to an adjective *(happy)* to give an adjective *(unhappy)*

-al

is added to a noun *(institution)* to give an adjective *(institutional)*

-ize

is added to an adjective *(concrete)* to give a verb *(concretize)*

What is the meaning of an affix?

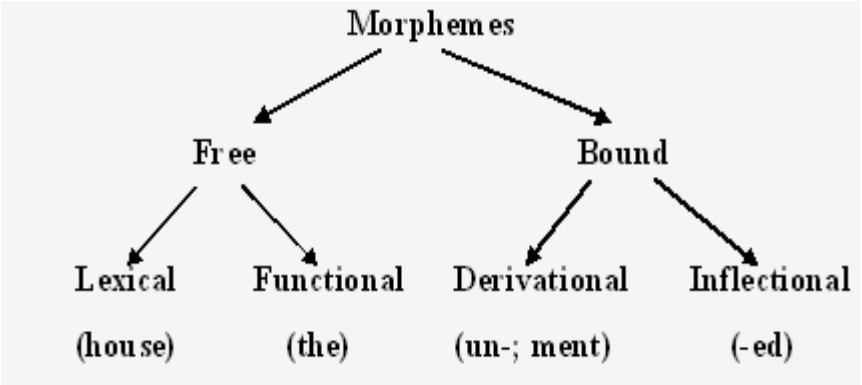
The meanings of derivational affixes are sometimes clear, but often less clear because of changes that occur over time. The following two sets of examples show that the prefix *un-* is easily interpreted as a negative, but the prefix *con-* is more opaque.

un-	*untie*
	undo
	unhappy
	untimely
	unthinkable
	unmentionable

con-	*constitution*

	confess
	connect
	contract
	contend
	conspire
	complete

Now, that all types of morphemes have been described it would be helpful to present it in a visual form:



Are derivational affixes sensitive to the historical source of the roots they attach to?

Although English is a Germanic language, and most of its basic vocabulary derives from Old English, there is

also a sizeable vocabulary that derives from Romance (Latin and French). Some English affixes, such as *re-*, attach freely to vocabulary from both sources.

ROOT	tie	consider
	free form	free form
	Germanic root	Latinate root
SOURCE	Old English *tygan*, "to tie"	Latin *considerare*, "to examine"
PREFIX	retie	reconsider
SUFFIX	reties	reconsiders
	Retying	reconsideration
	Retyings	reconsiderations

The suffix *-ize*, objected to by Edwin Newman in words like *hospitalize*, has a long and venerable history. Many of you chose to look up *-ize* words as part of your first assignment.

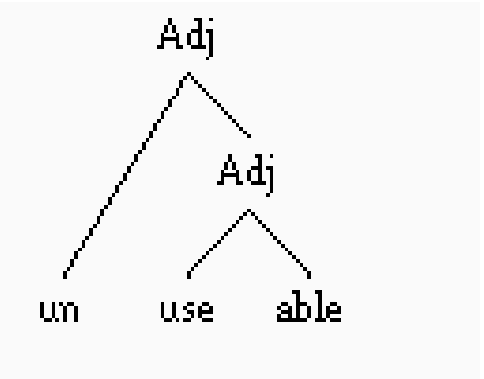
According to Hans Marchand, who wrote a book entitled *The Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word Formation*, (University of Alabama Press, 1969), the suffix -*ize* comes originally from the Greek -*izo*. Many words ending with this suffix passed from Ecclesiastical Greek into Latin, where, by the fourth century, they had become established as verbs with the ending -*izare*, such as *barbarizare, catechizare, christianizare.* In Old French we find many such verbs, belonging primarily to the ecclesiastical sphere: *baptiser* (11th c.), *canoniser* (13th c.), *exorciser* (14th c.).

The first -*ize* words to be found in English are loans with both a French and Latin pattern such as *baptize* (1297), *catechize,* and *organize* (both 15th c.) Towards the end of the 16th century, however, we come across many new formations in English, such as *bastardize, equalize, popularize,* and *womanize*. The formal and semantic patterns were the same as those from the borrowed French and Latin forms, but owing to the renewed study of Greek, the educated had become more familiar with its

vocabulary and used the patterns of Old Greek word formation freely.

Between 1580 and 1700, the disciplines of literature, medicine, natural science and theology introduced a great deal of new terminology into the language. Some of the terms still in use today include *criticize, fertilize, humanize, naturalize, satirize, sterilize,* and *symbolize*. The growth of science contributed vast numbers of *-ize* formations through the 19th century and into the 20th.

The *-ize* words collected by students in last year's course show that *-ize* is almost entirely restricted to Romance vocabulary, the only exceptions we found being *womanize* and *winterize*. Even though most contemporary English speakers are not aware of which words in their vocabulary are from which source, apparently, in coining new words, they have respected this distinction.



The Major Differences between Derivational and Inflectional Morphology:

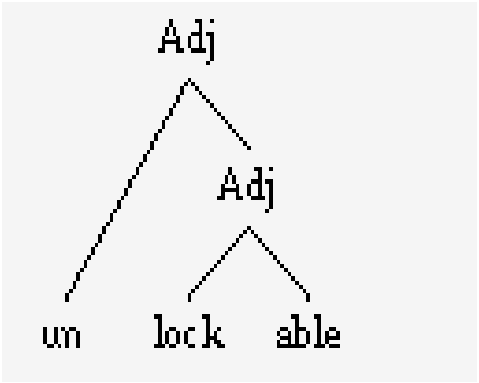
	derivational	**inflectional**
position	closer to stem	further from stem
addable on to?	yes	not in English
changes stem?	Yes	no
productive?	(often) no	(usually) yes
meaning?	(often) unpredictable	predictable

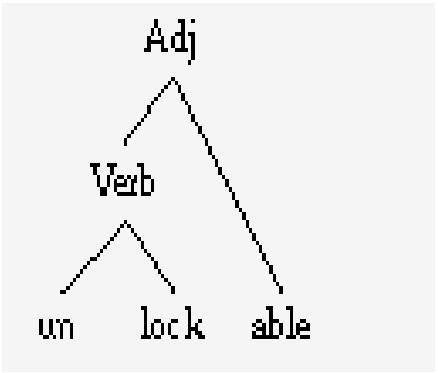
Constituent Structure of Morphemes:

The constituent morphemes of a word can be organized into a hierarchical structure. We can illustrate this structure by means of tree diagrams. To figure out how to draw the diagram, we need to see whether *un-* or *-able* can be attached directly to *use*. According to

Language Files, "The prefix *un-*, meaning 'not', attaches only to adjectives and creates new words that are also adjectives. (Compare with *unkind, unwise,* and *unhappy.*) The suffix *-able,* on the other hand, attaches to verbs and forms words that are adjectives. (Compare with *stoppable, doable,* and *washable*.) Therefore, *un-* cannot attach to *use,* since *use* is a verb and not an adjective. However, if *-able* attaches first to the stem *use,* then it creates an adjective, *usable,* and the prefix *un-* is allowed to combine with it. Thus, the formation of the word *unusable* is a two-step process whereby *use* and *-able* attach first, then *un-* attaches to the word *usable*."

Now let's consider the word *unlockable*. We can see that there are two different meanings for this word: the one corresponding to the left-hand figure, meaning "not lockable," and the one corresponding to the right-hand figure, meaning "able to be unlocked."





By making explicit the different possible hierarchies for a single word, we can better understand why its meaning might be ambiguous. And, in fact, *un-* can indeed attach to verbs: *untie*, *unbutton*, *uncover*, *uncage*, *unwrap*... Larry Horn (1988) points out that the verbs that permit prefixation with *un-* are those that effect a change in state in some object, the form with *un-* undoing (!) that change. And thus we can account for the two senses of *unlockable*: the sense derived from the suffix *-able* combining with the verb *lock* to form an adjective *lockable* and then the adjective combining with the prefix *un-* to form a new adjective *unlockable*, as in the lefthand tree above, vs. the sense derived from the prefix *un-* attaching to the verb *lock* to form a new verb *unlock* and then combining with the suffix *-able* to form an adjective *unlockable*, as in the righthand tree above.

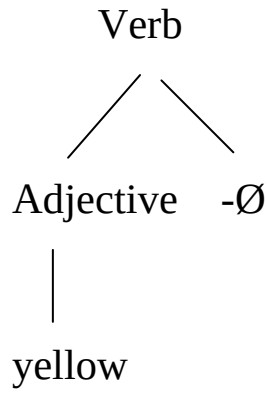
Zero Morphemes:

Some affixes consist of no sounds at all. The textbook (FRH 102-103) takes a different position on this question, denying the existence of zero morphemes. **THIS IS INCORRECT.** Zero morphemes DO exist, and we'll see why, and illustrate another concept, **allomorphy** at the same time.

Consider the following words:

Adjective	**Verb**
yellow	yellow
brown	brown
green	green
purple	purple

The relation between "yellow" (adjective) and "yellow" (verb) is exactly the same as that between "white" and "whiten", which we just considered. But the form of "yellow" doesn't change. So we say that we added a zero suffix:



Meaning: "to make (more) yellow"

Zero morphemes are obviously hard to spot because you can't hear them! In these cases you have to notice what ISN'T there. (Sherlock Holmes solves one of his cases by noticing that a dog DIDN'T bark. This was important because there was a situation where any dog would have barked. This is the kind of thinking you have to do to find zero morphemes.)

Allomorphy:

But now we have two ways to make Adjectives into Verbs meaning "to make (more) Adjective": "-en" ("black-en") and "-Ø" ("yellow-Ø") How do we know which rule to use? That is, why not "yellow-en"?

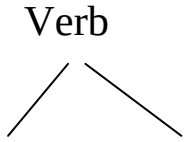
One possible (but uninteresting) answer is that we just have to memorize which affix to use for each stem. That is, we just memorize that "black" takes "-en" and "yellow" takes "-Ø". But we would like a better explanation.

As with the phonology problems, the best place to look is "near" where the affix attaches. Since "-en" is a suffix, let's look at the end of the stems. What we find is that we can divide the Adjectives into two classes based on what the last SOUND (NOT letter) of the stem is:

- Use "-en" if the last sound is:
    - [p] "deep-en"
    - [f] "stiff-en"
    - [v] "live-en"
    - [t] "white-en"
    - [d] "redd-en"
    - [s] "less-en"
    - [ʃ] "fresh-en"
    - [k] "dark-en"

- Use "-Ø" if the last sound is:
    - [e] "gray-Ø" ("His hair grayed (gray-Ø-ed) before he was twenty.")
    - [n] "brown-Ø"
    - [m] "dim-Ø"
    - [l] "purple-Ø"
    - [r] "clear-Ø"

We can use the same type of diagrams, and indicate the conditions:



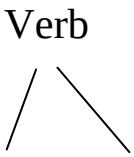
Adjective -en if Adjective ends in an obstruent (oral stop or fricative)

-Ø if Adjective ends in a sonorant (nasals, approximants, vowels)

Meaning: "to make (more) Adjective"

When we did phonology problems, we had a notion of "default" or "elsewhere". The same concept can arise in

morphology, although in this case the choice is made difficult by the clean cut between obstruents and sonorants. It is true, however, that there are exceptions to this rule with certain unusual adjectives, such as "beige" or "mauve", which (at least to me) seem to require "-Ø", as I find *"beigen" and *"mauven" to be unacceptable (indicated by the preceding asterisk). On this basis, we might choose "-Ø" to be the default:



Adjective -en if Adjective ends in an obstruent (oral stop or fricative)

-Ø Elsewhere

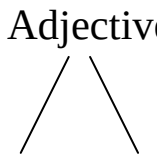
Meaning: "to make (more) Adjective"

Another example of allomorphy in English is the choice of the negative prefix "il-/ir-/im-/in-". The rules are:

- Use "il-" when the stem begins with "l": "il-logical"
- Use "ir-" when the stem begins with "r": "ir-responsible"

- Use "im-" when the stem begins with "m, b, p": "im-mobile" "im-balanced", "im-possible",
- Otherwise (elsewhere) use "in-": "in-active", etc.

In a diagram:



when Adjective begins with l:	il- Adjective
when Adjective begins with r:	ir-
when Adjective begins with a bilabial:	im-
Elsewhere:	in-

Meaning: "not Adjective"

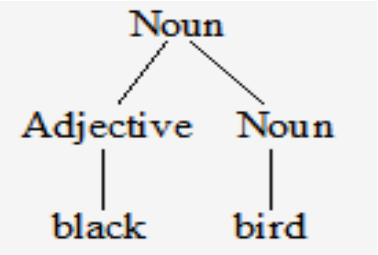
Notice here that there is a clear case that applies when the other (more specific) rules cannot. This is the DEFAULT or ELSEWHERE rule. The ELSEWHERE concept plays an important role in linguistics and we have already encountered it in phonology and we will encounter it again in this course.

Finally, some allomorphy is simply exceptional. There are morphemes which are used with only a limited number of words, such as plural "-en" as in "ox-en", "child-(r)en".

Furthermore, some words are so irregular that they have no internal analysis, for example "went" is the SUPPLETIVE form for what would otherwise be "go-ed". Children often use words like *"go-ed" ("went") or *"hold-ed" ("held"). These are called OVERGENERALIZATION errors because the children use a regular productive process on exceptional words.

Compounds:

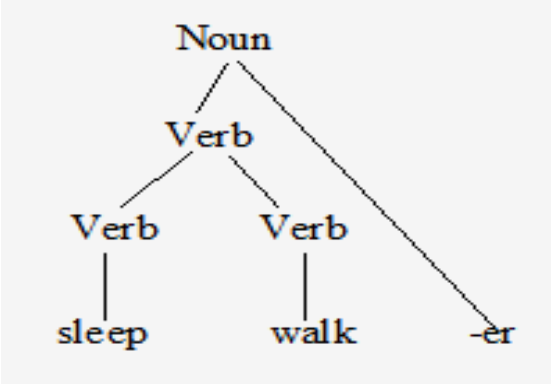
The combination of two free forms is called a COMPOUND.



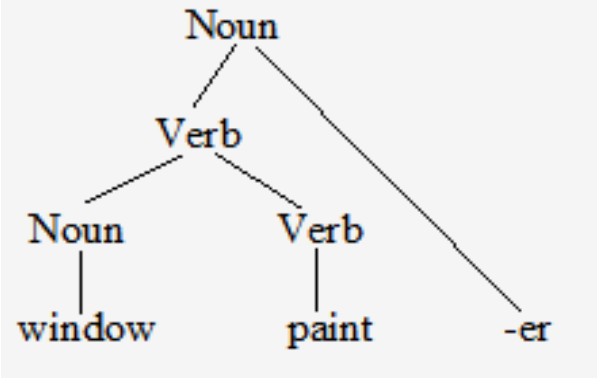
Meaning: a particular kind of bird

In English the HEAD of a compound is usually the right-hand member (bird). The head supplies the category (Noun) and basic meaning (bird-ness) for the whole compound.

Compounds can be used with affixation to produce larger words:



Meaning: Someone who walks and sleeps at the same time



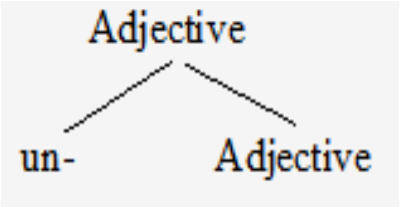
Meaning: Someone who paints windows

Bound Roots:

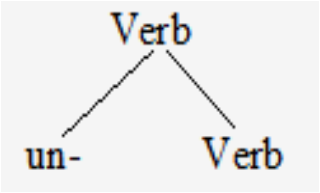
Both "blackberry" and "blueberry" are kinds of BERRIES, and "black" and "blue" exist as free forms too. So these look like fine compounds. But what about "cranberry", "huckleberry", "strawberry"? We'd like to keep the "berry" part separate, but then what are "cran", "huckle" and "straw"? We call these cases BOUND ROOTS.

Homophonous Morphemes:

Sometimes two morphemes have the same pronunciation (form) with different meanings. One example form English is the two morphemes "un-":

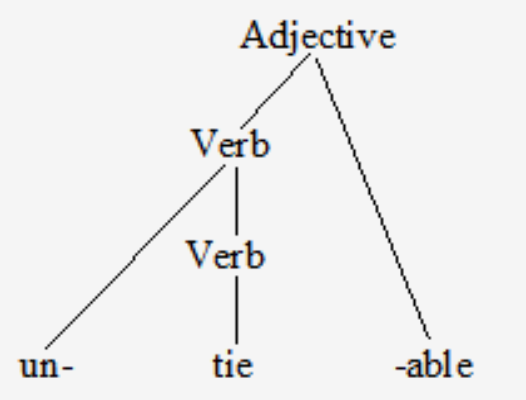


Meaning: "not Adjective", for example "unhappy"

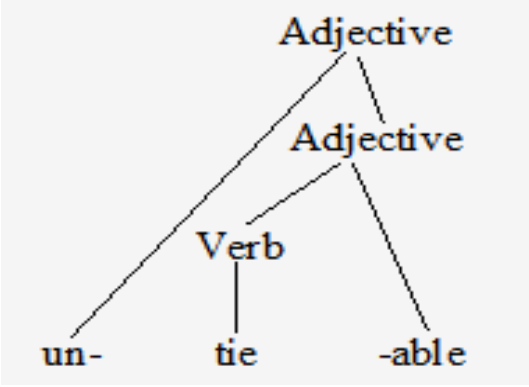


Meaning: "do the reverse of Verb", for example "undo", "untie", "unlatch"

This can lead to ambiguity in some words with "un-", such as "un-tie-able". There are two possible structures for "un-tie-able":



Meaning: able(un (tie)) = "can be untied"



Meaning: un(able (tie)) = "can't be tied"

The relative *scope* of "un-" and "-able" is different in these two cases, leading to a difference in meaning. The difference in meaning also correlates with whether "un-" is modifying a verb or an adjective. When a difference in meaning correlates with a difference in structure like this we call this STRUCTURAL AMBIGUITY. Structural ambiguity is a very important concept. We will see exactly the same thing when we analyze sentences.

Word Formation:

Nowadays, the terms ‘word formation’ does not have a clear cut, universally accepted usage. It is sometimes referred to all processes connected with changing the form of the word by, for example, affixation, which is a matter of morphology. In its wider sense word formation denotes the processes of creation of new lexical units. Although it seems that the difference between morphological change of a word and creation of a new term are quite easy to perceive there is sometimes a

dispute as to whether blending is still a morphological change or making a new word.

There are, of course, numerous word formation processes that do not arouse any controversies and are very similar in the majority of languages:

- **Derivation** is probably the most common word formation process in the English language. It is achieved by adding affixes: prefixes – are added at the beginning of a word, suffixes added to the end of a word, or infixes which are inserted inside a word, but infixes are unusual in English. English prefixes include for example re-, un-, mis-, pre-, dis-; suffixes include for instance -ful, -less, -able, -or. It seems that infixes in English are confined to curse words such as: absofuckinglutely, in fuckingcredible.

- **Compounding** is a process in which two different words are joined together to denote one thing. For example flower-pot is a compound made of two words: flower and pot, but it does not denote two things, it

refers to one object. Some English compounds include: windmill, waterfall, fingerprint, scarecrow. Compounds are pronounced as one unit, but sometimes difficulties in writing arise: some compounds are written with hyphens: full-time, good-looking; some are written separately: bank account, mini skirt; and some can be written in both ways.

- **Blending** is very similar to compounding, but it is characterized by taking only parts of words and joining them. Famous English examples include: smog which combines smoke and fog, motel made of motor and hotel, Spanglish which is combination of Spanish and English; and guesstimate, from guess and estimate.

- **Clipping** is shortening or reducing long words. It is very common in English which can be seen on the following examples: information is clipped to info, advertisement to advert or ad, influenza to flu, telephone to phone.

- **Coinage** is the creation of a totally new word. This word formation process is not frequent; however large corporations attempt to outdo one another to invent short eye-catching names for their products. Some examples of these could include: aspirin or Xerox. Sometimes the products that the companies want to sell simply take over the name of the creator or inventor. In such case the new word is called an **eponym**. Some well known eponyms include: sandwich, or hoover. They are very frequently used in science where units of measurement are named after people, like: hertz, volt, (degree) Celsius.

- **Borrowing** is taking a word from one language and incorporating it into another. The English language has been very absorbent and took over words from all over the world, some of them include: biology, boxer, ozone – from German; jackal, kiosk, yogurt – from Turkish; pistol, robot – from Czech. There is also a special type of borrowing called calque or loan translation. Here there is a direct translation of the elements that a term consists of in the source language into the target

language. For example the English word worldview is thought to be the calque of the German Weltanschauung, antibody calques German Antikörper.

- **Acronym** is a word formed from initial letters of a few words in a phrase or a name. Some acronyms are pronounced by saying each letter separately, as in CD, DVD, VCR, IBM, FBI. Some are pronounced as words, like NATO, laser, AIDS, scuba.
- **Backformation** is a process in which a word changes its form and function. Word of one type, which is usually a noun, is reduced and used as a verb. To show it on an example: the English word arms meaning weapon was backformed to arm to mean provide weapons, similarly edit was backformed from editor, or typewrite from typewriter.

- **Conversion** is a change in the function of a verb without changing its form. Nouns start to be used as verbs like: bottle – to bottle, bottling: I'm bottling the compote; butter – to butter, buttered: I've buttered the

bread. Also verbs can become nouns: must – a must: Watching this film is a must; guess – a guess: It was a lucky guess.

- **Imitation of Sounds:** Words are also created by onomatopoeia, naming things by imitating the sounds that are associated with them: *boo, bow-wow, tinkle, click.*

The above mentioned word formation processes are the most frequent or important in the English language, but it is rarely the case that only one process occurs in one word. Words can be loaned and then backformed, later on gaining an affix. There are practically no boundaries to those processes other that human ingenuity.

REVISION

I. Indicate whether the following statements are TRUE of FALSE and correct the false ones:

1. The study of the structure or formation of words is called syntax.
2. Bound morphemes always attach to other morphemes, never existing as words themselves.
3. Content morphemes are morphemes that carry a semantic content as opposed to performing a grammatical function.
4. A prefix is an affix that attaches to the end of a stem.
5. Inflectional morphemes change the meaning or syntactic function of the words to which they attach.
6. Inflectional morphemes can be prefixes.
7. Derivational morphemes create new words from existing ones.
8. Derivational morphemes serve a purely grammatical function, never creating a new word but only a different form of the same word.

II. Choose the correct answer:

1. What is morphology?
   (a) The study of the rules governing the sounds that form words
   (b) The study of the rules governing sentence formation
   (c) The study of the rules governing word formation

2. Which sentence describes inflectional morphology?
   (a) Adding a morpheme to produce a new word but the same lexeme.
   (b) Adding a morpheme to produce a new word and different lexeme.
   (c) Adding a morpheme to produce the same word but different lexeme.

3. Which sentence describes derivational morphology?
   (a) Adding a morpheme to produce a new word but the same lexeme.
   (b) Adding a morpheme to produce a new word and a different lexeme.
   (c) Adding a morpheme to produce the same word but a different lexeme.

4. In the English language inflectional morphemes can be...
   (a) Prefixes, suffixes and infixes.
   (b) Prefixes and suffixes.
   (c) Suffixes only.
   (d) Infixes only.

5. Which sentence describes clipping?
   (a) Taking a word from one language and incorporating it into another.
   (b) The creation of a totally new word.

(c) Shortening or reducing long words.

(d) Taking parts of words and joining them.

6. Which morpheme in **'is dehumidifying'** has an inflectional function?

(a) -de.

(b) -ify.

(c) -id.

(d) -ing.

7. If you divide **isolated** into its component morphemes, the root would be …….

(a) isolate

(b) isolated

(c) isolation

(d) isola-

8. -ize in '**finalize**' is derivational because it changes the word …….

(a) from verb to noun

(b) from noun to adjective

(c) from adjective to verb

(d) from adjective to noun

III. Determine whether the words in each of the following groups are related to one another by processes of inflection or derivation:

1. go, goes, going, gone
2. discover, discovery, discoverer, discoverable, discoverability
3. lovely, lovelier, loveliest
4. inventor, inventor's, inventors, inventors'
5. democracy, democrat, democratic, democratize

IV. Write at least five words …

1. … having a free root, ***un-*** as prefix and ***-ful*** as suffix.
2. … having two prefixes and two derivational suffixes.
3. … having a bound root and an allomorph of the prefix ***in-***.
4. … that, not being adverbs, have the suffix ***-ly***.
5. … that, being neither verbs nor adjectives, have the suffix ***–ing***.

V. By adding the appropriate derivational affixes, turn...

1. ... the following nouns and adjectives into verbs: nation, length, tomb, beauty, little, bold, bowels, friend, legal, custom, danger, prison, active, person.
2. ... the following verbs and adjectives into nouns: suffer, promote, opt, christen, enjoy, mature, apt, rapt, active, employ, pure, announce, kind, dance, consider.
3. ... the following verbs and nouns into adjectives: consider, man, boy, flirt, condemn, room, space, obsess, glamour, gloom, grace, danger, child, sun, play.

V. Divide these words by placing a (+) between their separate morphemes:

Example: replaces re + place + s

1. befriended
2. marginalization
3. endearment
4. unpalatable
8. airsickness
9. irresponsible
10. uninteresting
11. unpleasant

5. grandmothers
6. morphemic
7. mistreatment
12. enforcement
13. courageous
14. encouragement

VI. For each of the following words, identify the morphemes and describe them, and then draw a tree diagram for each word to represent its morphological structure:

1. unfortunate
2. pleasantries
3. misidentified
4. previewing
5. ex-husbands
6. unlikely
7. delighted
8. replacement
9. dehumidifiers
10. imprisonment
11. sideways
12. counterclockwise
13. nonrefundable
14. interrelationships

VII. The words in column 2 have been created from the corresponding words in column 1. Indicate

the word formation process responsible for the creation of each item in column 2.

Column 1	Column 2	Word formation process
humid	humidifier	
Information, entertainment	Infotainment	
Love, seat	Loveseat	
Typographical error	Typo	
Aerobics, marathon	Aerobathon	
Act	Deactivate	
Curve, ball	Curve ball	
Metahmphetamine	Meth	
Random access memory	RAM	
Federal Express	FedEx	
Influenza	Flu	
pretty	prettier	
Arm, chair	armchair	
Information	info	

Smoke, fog	Smog	
Breakfast, lunch	Brunch	
Rumor	rumors	
Photograph	Photo	

VIII. The following sentences contain both derivational and inflectional affixes. Underline all of the derivational affixes and circle the inflectional affixes:

1. The farmer’s cows escaped.
2. It was raining.
3. Those socks are inexpensive.
4. Jim needs the newer copy.
5. The strongest rower continued.
6. She quickly closed the book.
7. The alphabetization went well.
8. The pitbull has bitten the cyclist.
9. I'm interested in children's literature.
10. Men are physically stronger than women.

CHAPTER 8

Syntax

CHAPTER 8

Syntax

Let us now move on to another major structural aspect of language, syntax. The word syntax derives from the Greek word syntax is, which means arrangement. Morphology deals with word formation out of morphemes; syntax deals with phrase and sentence formation out of words.

What is a sentence?

Although everyone knows or thinks they know what a word is and what a sentence is, both terms defy exact definition. The sentence as a linguistic concept has been defined in over 200 different ways, none of them completely adequate. Here are the most important attempts at defining the sentence:

The traditional, or common sense definition states that a sentence is a group of words that expresses a

thought . The problem comes in defining what a thought is. The phrase an egg expresses a thought but is it a sentence? A sentence like I closed the door because it was cold expresses two thoughts and yet it is one sentence.

Another definition is that a sentence is a group of words expressing a topic (old information) and some comment (new information) about that topic: John left. (Notice how intonation--which is a part of phonology--interacts closely with syntax in delimiting topic from comment--another example of the grammatical interconnectedness of all the so called levels of language.) The problem with the topic-comment definition is that many sentences have no clear topic and comment structure: It's raining.

The grammatical definition of the sentence is the largest unit to which syntactic rules can apply. In terms of syntactic categories, most sentences--at least in English-- can be divided into a subject and a predicate. This applies to sentences with or without a clear topic/comment structure: John ---left. Many sentences have no clear topic and comment structure: It--

is raining. (The word it here is the so-called dummy it used to fill the subject slot for impersonal verbs in English; cf. prší, snezí.)

Another problem with grammatical, or syntactic, definitions of the sentence is that not all sentences--even in English--are divisible into subject and predicate. Some sentence types make no internal syntactic structure; there is no distinction between subject and predicate:

a) Emotive sentences such as Gee! Wow. Darn! Yes! No!

b) Imperatives: Go! Leave! Taxi! All aboard! Down with alcohol!

c) Elliptic sentences: Who took the car? John.

d) small talk phrases: Hello. Good-bye. Good morning.

In polysynthetic languages the single word serve as a complete sentence much more frequently. In such languages, morphology rather than syntax usually expresses the distinction between subject and predicate.

Types of sentences containing a subject and a predicate

Syntax usually examines sentences that have a clear inner division into subject and predicate. There are 3 types of subject/predicate structured sentences:

a) a simple sentence contains at least one subject and one predicate: John read Pushkin.

b) a compound sentence is two or more simple sentences joined into a single sentence: John read Pushkin and Mary read Updike. Each simple sentence maintains its own internal syntactic structure. They may be joined by a coordinating conjunction such as and or or, or asyndetically (without a conjunction).

c) a complex sentence is a sentence in which one of the syntactic roles is played by an embedded sentence: I made students read Chomsky. The simple sentence students read Chomsky plays the role of object of the verb made. Because the syntax of the two parts of a complex sentence is intertwined, it is often not possible to divide

them into two free-standing simple sentences. *I made. Students read Chomsky. I saw Mary run.

Complex sentences, then, are said to consist of a main clause, with a subordinate clause imbedded into its structure (the subordinate clause is often referred to as an imbedded sentence). In phrase structure notation a subordinate clause, or imbedded sentence, is notated as S', pronounced s-bar.

The word that connects a subordinate clause to a main clause, such as the word that in the previous example, is known as a subordinate conjunction; in syntactic analysis a subordinate conjunction is known as a complementizer, and is notated as Comp. In some English complex sentences the complementizer is optional, in others obligatory: I know (that) you snore. vs. I hate when you snore (if the complementizer has a temporal meaning it can't be left out.)

Parts of speech

Words and phrases can be grouped according to their sentence building functions. Syntactic classes of

words are traditionally called parts of speech. English has the following parts of speech: verb, noun, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, verbal particle (the off in turn off the light), article.

Note the following test to determine what is a preposition and what is a verbal particle in English:

a). The mouse ran up the clock--Up the clock he ran. (Prepositional phrases can be fronted).

b.) The man ran up a big bill.--*Up the big bill he ran. (Verbal particles cannot.) Also: The mouse ran up it (pronoun is object of the prep and can follow the preposition) but not *The mouse ran it up. But, The man ran it up (pronoun is object of the verb and follows the verb) not *The man ran up it.

Not all languages have the same parts of speech. Many languages have postpositions rather than prepositions, like Georgian skolashi, to school; skoladan, from school. Serbo-Croatian, Slovak and many other languages have clitics (clitics are affixes attached to phrases instead of single words). Dal som knigu

prijatel'ovi/ Knigu som dal prijatel'ovi/ Prijatel'ovi som dal knigu. I gave it to my friend. Spanish uses the object marking clitics le and lo after verbs: Dice mi lo.

A common assertion is that all languages have at least nouns and verbs. It is true that all languages have some means of conveying information as a concept or as an event, but what a noun or verb is differs from language to language. In the Salishan languages of the Puget Sound, a single word can be translated into English as village and a village exist or there is a village; in other words, morphemes denoting stationary concepts are often bound roots that require verbal affixes to stand as words. So parts of speech--even nouns and verbs-- turn out to be at best fuzzy categories across languages, not identical or even present in every language. Some people thing of parts of speech or grammatical categories as similar to protons, electrons and neutrons in how they contribute to the structure of languages, but such is not the case. The form/meaning connections differ from language to language. There are universal tendencies, but these do not seem to be absolute universal properties.

Parts of speech are based on syntactic function, not concrete, extra-linguistic meaning. Notice that words is different syntactic classes can have the same concrete meaning and differ only in their ability to combine with other words: The sky darkens, the darkening of the sky, a dark sky, the darkness of the sky.

Thus syntactic patterns as well as syntactic categories cannot be said to be limited to any concrete real-world meaning; they are linguistic structures relevant for expressing meaning and yet have no specific meaning of their own. Note Chomsky's famous semantically anomalous statement: Colorless green ideas sleep furiously. This sentence is utter nonsense but it is nonsense stated in English and conforms perfectly to a complex set rules of English syntax; thus one is tempted to devise a surrealist interpretation of it. The utterance *green sleep colorless furiously ideas is not a sentence of English at all and even the most imaginative person could not devise a meaning for it.

Syntactic atoms

The basic unit of syntax is not the word, but the syntactic atom, defined as a structure that fulfills a basic syntactic function. Syntactic atoms may be either a single word or a phrase that fulfills a single syntactic function.

Fido ate the bone.

The dog ate the bone.

The big yellow dog ate the bone.

Our dog that we raised from a puppy ate the bone.

Elements with syntactic equivalence all belong to the same type of syntactic atom (NP, VP)

A language also contains specific rules for properly connecting syntactic atoms to form sentences--these are called phrase structure rules (look at problem 5 on page 116). The sentence: The big yellow dog ate the bone. is well formed because it uses the parts of speech in a way that conforms to the rules of English syntax. The string of words: big the ate bone dog yellow the, is not a sentence because it violates syntactic rules. It is often not

even possible to assign any meaning to a syntactically ill-formed utterance.

This is why the syntactic rules of a language can be followed perfectly to produce illogical or semantically highly improbable sentences: The bone ate the big yellow dog. Since a new context could be imagined to render such a statement at least fictionally logical, it is fortunate that our language has a ready made means of expressing it. The fact that syntactic structures are not restricted in the meanings they may express is one reason why we can so easily produce novel sentences never before heard. The semantic independence of the phrase structure rules is one of the main factors that provides for the infinite creativity of human language. Animal systems don't have any structural units that are meaningful yet totally independent of meaning.

Syntactic Relations and phrase structure rules

Let's examine syntactic relations within English sentences. One approach is to divide the words of a sentence into phrases (defined as words closely associated with one another syntactically). This technique is know

as parsing. The most fundamental division is between subject and predicate. (of course, this is because we are cheating and ignoring sentence types that lack this division). Phrases containing different parts of speech can serve one and the same function.

The big yellow dog //ate /bones

He //ate the old bone.

The big yellow dog //slept.

The dog //growled at John.

Each of these sentences consists of a subject and a predicate. But in each sentence different syntactic types of words or combinations of words constitute subject and predicate. Different combinations of parts of speech fulfilling the same syntactic function are said to be syntactically equivalent. It is possible to write rules describing syntactic equivalence. These rules are called phrase structure rules. These rules use special symbols designed exclusively for syntactic descriptions. Grammatical terms or graphic notation devices devised to describe language structure are

examples of meta-language, defined roughly as language about language. The syntactic metalanguage used in writing phrase structure rules involves mainly abbreviations from English words for parts of speech.

S--> NP VP A sentence consists of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. (These correspond to subject and predicate.)

NP--> (art) (adj) N or NP --> pronoun

Phrase structure rules are said to be recursive. That is, identical elements in the structure of a phrase can repeat. These repeating elements are sometimes known as parallel items in a series:

Parallel subjects: the sentence John came--John, Bill, and Mary came. is a simple sentence with a recursive subject. (Compare John came and Bill came which is a compound sentence each part of which has a simple subject.)

Parallel verbs: Caesar came, saw, and conquered.

Parallel modifiers:

adverbs: a very good book--a very, very good book; or

adjectives: a green and red and pink and blue book.

Parallel compound sentences:I came and Bill came and Mary came and...

Multiple subordinate clauses in a complex sentence: I know an old lady who swallowed a fly which was chased by her cat who had been bored because there was nothing to do in the house that Jack built when he. . .

Remember the ability of syntactic elements to occur in multiples is known as recursion.

It is possible to write an entire book consisting of just one single recursive complex sentence. The property of recursion means that it is impossible to propose limits on the length of sentences. No one will ever be able to state with certainty what the longest possible sentence can be. There are a limited number of words in each language, but a potentially infinite number of sentences. This realization prompted 19th century German linguist Wilhelm von Humboldt to say: "Language makes infinite

use of finite means." Such a statement could not be made about animal systems of communication, in which the number of messages is strictly limited.

The syntax/morphology interface

1) The syntactic atom is the basic unit of syntax; syntactic structures are made up of other syntactic structures; although syntax is separate from meaning (we can have syntactically correct sentences which are utterly anomalous semantically, it is not possible to separate syntax from morphology compeletely: there are some instances where specific phrase structure rules are constrained semantically, for instance in VP = V + NP (Subcategorization rules for verbal complements).

Let's take a closer look at verb phrases, which are more complex than noun phrases. First of all, VP can = a single verb (V) He ate; or the verb may have an auxillary (aux): He was eating, He has eaten; or the verb clause might contain verb + dependent words. There are several types of verb-dependent words, known collectively as verbal complements: He ate yesterday (Adv); He ate meat (NP); He ate in the cafe. (PP) Object noun phrases,

prepositional phrases, and adverbs all fulfill the same syntactic function--the verb complement. (Yesterday we noted that in language typology the complement is notated as O.

The noun phrase complements of action verbs are called direct objects: He kicked the ball. Verbs that can take a direct object are called transitive verbs. Some transitive verbs are obligatorily transitive: that is, they cannot be used without a complement: *He made. Other transitive verbs may omit the object: I write vs. I write a letter.

Verbs that cannot take a direct object at all are called intransitive. For instance, the verb sleep cannot take a direct object complement: He slept (yesterday, at home), but not * He slept a fish.

The complements of linking verbs are called predicate nominals, which may be either nouns or adjectives: John arrived healthy. We became ill.

Sometimes the same verb can have two different meanings, one requiring a direct object, the other a

predicate nominal: We smelled the roses. The chef made (created) a good salad. vs. The roses smelled good. He made (became) a good chef.

The study of what grammatical form may or may not be used after a verb is called verb government. It is also known as lexical subcategorization, the point being that it is not enough to know the meaning of a word and what part of speech the word belongs to. One must also know additional requirements about how the word may or must combine with other words in a phrase.

Mention that in polysynthetic languages this is part of morphology. (There is no clear division between morphology and syntax that can be drawn across all languages.) The division between syntax and morphology varies across languages.

Phrases and heads

Since they cannot be defined as having specific meanings, syntactic atoms (single words or whole phrases) are defined by how they interact with syntactic rules.

1) They do not allow reordering of their constituents, It's the bone the dog ate. The bone, he ate it. (cleft sentences and sentences with left dislocation). You can't front only part of a syntactic atom any more than you can change the order of morphemes in a word rewrite but not *write-re: *The big, he ate the bone. (NOTE: When used as examples, grammatically ill formed sentences and words are traditionally marked by an asterisk *. This also applies to morphologically ill formed words: *ingrun, *runre.)

2) One may not anaphorize, or substitute for, only a part of a morphologically complex syntactic atom (I like the tea's flavor. I like its flavor. Here is coffee and here is a coffeepot I like its pot.)

3) Also, if a morphologically complex syntactic atom takes inflectional endings, then only the head can be so modified, not any of the subordinate constituents. (Workaholic--workaholiclike, *workedaholic, *workingaholic.)

The head of a syntactic atom can sometimes be a zero morpheme: withstand, grandstand, leaf--> maple leaf

Toronto Maple Leafs, fly--> fly out (a window), a fly ball--to fly out (in baseball) He flied out.

Notice that noun phrases often have internal rules. English noun phrases observe a strict word order: article, adverb, adjective, noun. Noun phrase structure rules differ from language to language: In French, Hawaiian, and many other language the adjectives come after the noun. In many languages the form of articles or adjectives changes to reflect the gender of the noun. When words in a phrase change grammatically to accommodate one another the process is called concord or agreement. French is a good example: le petit garcon vs. la petite fille; German: das Haus; der Apfel; die Blume. In such cases we say that the noun is the head of the phrase, since it causes other words to change and yet remains unaffected by whatever adjective or article is added to it. In English, the head of the syntactic unit called the sentence is the subject NP, since the verb agrees with it and not the other way around. Each syntactic atom has its head.

Diagramming sentences, how to deal with ambiguity

Let's now turn to instances of ambiguity in syntax. Sometimes a sentence or phrase allows for two different syntactic interpretations.

Parsing using parentheses to show syntactic relations can disambiguate such a phrase as: old men and women

Other sentences do not lend themselves to such a linear approach. Sometimes the words that belong to the same syntactic unit are separated by other words: The book that was lying under all the other books is the most interesting. Tree diagrams can be used to show such "long distance" grammatical relations.

Consider also the sentence The fish is too old to eat. Here, parsing and even tree diagramming cannot separate out the two potential meanings. In such cases of semantic ambiguity, paraphrases can be used to express two meanings hidden in a single linear form:

The fish is too old for the fish to eat. The fish is too old to be eaten.

Noam Chomsky, a prominent linguist at MIT, became interested in the phenomenon of syntactic

ambiguity. He noticed that languages contain systematic ways of paraphrasing sentences:

a.) Active sentences can regularly be turned into passives: The boy kicked the ball.--> the ball was kicked by the boy. (passive transformation)

b.) Statements can be regularly turned into questions: He is there? Is he there? (interrogative transformation)

He came to believe that such parallel syntactic means of expressing the same meaning were simply surface manifestations of deeper structural units of language. To study and describe such deep structures, he devised the theory of transformational grammar. The three main tenets of this theory are:

1) The surface forms of a language are reducible to a limited number of deep structures. The same deep structure is manifested in several different ways in actual sentences. This is similar to the use of the principle of allomorphs to describe morpheme variants.

2) These deep structures are universal--in other words, the same for all languages of the world; only the rules for

deriving the surface forms from the deep structures differ from language to language.

3) The reason these deep structures are universal is that they are inborn, part of the human genetic code; being inborn they help children discover the surface forms of language so quickly.

Transformational grammar has maintained its popularity since 1957 when Noam Chomsky published his first book, Syntactic Structures. But major problems continue to dog the theory. The main problems are:

Transformational rules only work for sentences composed of separate noun and verb phrases. We have seen that not all sentences are of this type.

Mainly English data was used to find these supposedly universal deep structures. Usually one of the paraphrases is taken as the basic one and the other derived from it: cf. active and passive. But active is not more basic in all languages; Japanese uses the passive as its more basic form.

No deep structures have been described that would apply across all languages. Structural universals tend to be proposed, then discarded as data from new languages disprove them. There seem to be universal tendencies in syntax, but no universal has yet been proven to exist that would be more specific than the general creativity in humans.

Thus, no real progress has been made in writing a universal grammar that would be applicable to all human languages, a sort of In chemistry we have the Periodic table of Elements--all substances on earth can be seen as compounds of a finite set of elements. Human language doesn't seem to work this way, and no such table of universal grammar elements has been found.

Definitions of Grammar

Since sentence formation is the most obvious and frequent manifestation of creativity in any language, the syntactic rules of a language are often referred to as the grammar of the language. But morphology and phonology are also part of the grammar in that they, too, are creative tools.

Here it might be pertinent to mention a few other definitions of the term grammar that are widely used.

a) A descriptive grammar is a description of the structure of a language in all its aspects--morphology, syntax, phonology--which attempts do portray the language as accurately as possible in terms of how it is naturally used by speakers.

b) A prescriptive grammar is a description of a language which assigns value judgments to competing ways native speakers use in forming words or sentences. Prescriptive grammars do not attempt to describe the language as it is naturally spoken, but rather to tell the speakers how they best should speak it.

c) A third type, grammars of foreign languages written for second language learners fall in between the other two types. They represent attempts to describe a language as it is spoken by natives in order to tell non-natives how to speak it.

When thinking of grammar in the general, descriptive sense, remember that there is no absolute

division between syntax, morphology, and phonology. Even in the same language these so called levels of language are not completely separate.

It is not always possible to separate phonology from syntax. For instance, certain phonological rules depend on syntax. Look at these examples from fast speech: What are you doing? where are = an auxiliary verb, becomes Whacha doin? But What are you? where are = the main verb of the predicate, can't be run together as *Whacha? Similarly, I'm going to work now. (in the sense of I am planning to work now) I'm gonna work now. But I'm going to work now in the sense of setting out for work, can't be contracted. The phonetic environment is the same; but syntactic class the words belong to affect which of them can and cannot be contracted.

Morphology and syntax also interact, as we have seen. Compound words are part of morphology, yet they are dependent on syntactic parameters, as well. Compound words or adj/noun combinations that act as single words can express different syntactic

functions. One must understand these underlying syntactic functions to understand the meaning of the words: magnifying glass, falling star vs. looking glass, laughing gas.

The difficulty of completely separating morphology, syntax, and phonology is especially evident when comparing different languages. What in one language is a part of syntax in another language will be a part of morphology, a fact particularly evident when comparing analytic languages like Chinese to polysynthetic language.

CHAPTER 9

SEMANTICS

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What is semantics?

Semantics (Greek semantikos, giving signs, significant ‹symptomatic, from sema, sign) is a branch of linguistics which is concerned with the study of meaning in language. It is a wide subject within the general study of language.

Kinds of Meanings:

Referential Meaning: the person, object, abstract notion, event or state to which a word or sentence makes reference. The ‘objective’ content of a word or sentence.

Social Meaning: information that words and sentences convey about the *social* characteristics of the speaker and of the situation in which they are spoken. Social class, ethnicity, regional origin, gender, age, level of formality and other aspects of social context and thus words that signal one of these have special social meanings.

Affective Meaning: information conveyed by a linguistic expression about the attitudes and emotions of the speaker toward the content or the context of an expression. Anger, sarcasm, happiness, excitement, etc. are all components of affective meaning.

Together *social* and *affective* meaning constitute the ***connotations*** of a word or expression, as opposed to its objective, referential content, which is referred to as its ***denotation***.

So, for example, the pronouns *you*, *y'all*, and *youse* can all be used with the same *referential meaning*: *i.e.* they can all have second person plural meaning. *Y'all* and *youse* have clear *social meaning* as well — and, incidentally, so does *you* when it is used in situations where either of the other two might be used. In referring to a particular man, the expressions *that gentleman, that guy,* and *that bastard* have obvious differences in *affective* as well as *social* meaning, though their *referential* meaning, in this context, could be identical.

Idiomatic Meaning: *referential meaning* can be contrasted also with *idiomatic meaning* when, for a given expression, the referential meanings of the parts don't add up to the meaning of the whole expression. So, the referential meaning of 'kick the bucket' is not the same as its idiomatic meaning.

An understanding of semantics is essential to the study of language acquisition (how language users acquire a sense of meaning, as speakers and writers, listeners and readers) and of language change (how meanings alter over time). It is also important for understanding language in social contexts, as these are likely to affect meaning, and for understanding varieties of English and effects of style. It is thus one of the most fundamental concepts in linguistics. The study of semantics includes the study of how meaning is constructed, interpreted, clarified, obscured, illustrated, simplified negotiated, contradicted and paraphrased.

Lexical Semantics:

Lexical semantics is a subfield of linguistics. It is the study of how and what the words of a language denote (Pustejovsky, 1995). Words may either be taken to denote things in the world, or concepts, depending on the particular approach to lexical semantics.

Lexical units are the words, so lexical semantics involves the meaning of each individual word. Lexical semantics is the one area of linguistics to which we can continually add throughout our lives, as we are always learning new words and their meanings whereas we can only learn the rules of our native language during the critical period when we are young. It covers theories of the classification and decomposition of word meaning, the differences and similarities in lexical semantic structure between different languages, and the relationship of word meaning to sentence meaning and syntax.

A question asked is if meaning is established by looking at the neighborhood in the semantic net a word is part of and by looking at the other words it occurs with in natural sentences or if the meaning is already locally

contained in a word. Another question is how words map to concepts. As tools, lexical relations like synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and hypernymy are used in this field.

Symbol and Referent:

These terms may clarify the subject. A symbol is something which we use to represent another thing – it might be a picture, a letter, a spoken or written word – anything we use conventionally for the purpose. The thing that the symbol identifies is the referent. This may sometimes be an object in the physical world (the word Rover is the symbol; a real dog is the referent). But it may be something which is not at all, or not obviously, present – like freedom, unicorns or Hamlet.

Conceptions of Meaning:

Words → Things:

Words "name" or "refer to" things. It works well for proper nouns like London, Everton FC and Ford Fiesta. It is less clear when applied to abstractions, to verbs and to adjectives – indeed wherever there is no immediately

existing referent (thing) in the physical world, to correspond to the symbol (word).

Words → Concepts → Things:

This theory was classically expressed by C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards, in *The Meaning of Meaning* (1923). It states that there is no direct connection of symbol and referent, but an indirect connection in our minds. For each word there is a related concept.

The difficulty is in explaining what this concept is, and how it can exist apart from the word. In his *Nineteen Eighty-Four* George Orwell imagines a society whose rulers remove disapproved thoughts by removing (from print and broadcasting) the corresponding words. However there are many real-world examples of concepts which came before the words which described or named them (hovercraft, Internet) or where the symbols have changed, but not the concepts they refer to (radio for wireless, Hoover for vacuum cleaner). This suggests that the concept is independent of particular language symbols.

Stimuli → Words → Responses:

Leonard Bloomfield outlines this theory in Language (1933). A stimulus (S) leads someone to a response (r), which is a speech act. To the hearer the speech act is also a stimulus (s), which leads to a response (R), which may be an action or understanding.

S → r.....s → R

Jill is hungry, sees an apple (S) and asks Jack to bring it to her (r). This new language stimulus, Jack's hearing her (s) leads to his action (R) of bringing her the apple. Bloomfield's behaviourist model leads to obvious problems - Jack doesn't bring Jill the apple because of a quarrel years before, or he brings several apples and a glass of beer.

Words and Lexemes:

As a lexical unit may contain more than one word, David Crystal has coined the term lexeme. This is usually a single word, but may be a phrase in which the meaning belongs to the whole rather than its parts, as in verb phrases tune in, turn on, drop out or noun phrase (a) cock up.

Denotation:

This is the core or central meaning of a word or lexeme, as far as it can be described in a dictionary. It is therefore sometimes known as the cognitive or referential meaning. It is possible to think of lexical items that have a more or less fixed denotation (sun, denoting the nearest star, perhaps) but this is rare. Most are subject to change over time. The denotation of silly is not today what it was in the 16th century, or even the 18th, when Coleridge referred to the silly buckets on the deck. Denotation is thus related to connotation, which leads to semantic change.

Connotation:

Theories of denotation and connotation are themselves subject to problems of definition. Connotation is connected with psychology and culture, as it means the personal or emotional associations aroused by words. When these associations are widespread and become established by common usage, a new denotation is recorded in dictionaries. A possible example of such change would be vicious. Originally derived from vice, it meant "extremely wicked". In modern British usage it is commonly used to mean "fierce", as in the brown rat is a vicious animal.

Implication:

This is meaning which a speaker or writer intends but does not communicate directly. Where a listener is able to deduce or infer the intended meaning from what has been uttered, this is known as (conversational) implicature. David Crystal gives this example:

Utterance: "A bus!" → Implicature (implicit meaning): "We must run."

Pragmatics:

Pragmatics is not a coherent field of study. It refers to the study of those factors which govern our choices of language – such as our social awareness, our culture and our sense of etiquette. How do we know how to address different people like the queen? How do we know how to express gratitude for a gift or hospitality?

Pragmatics can be illustrated by jokes or irony which rely on the contrast between expected and subsequently revealed meaning. Consider this example from a 1999 episode of Barry Levinson's TV police drama, Homicide: Life on the Streets. (The TV audience is assumed to know police procedure for arresting suspects.) An arresting officer says to a suspect (whose hands are raised, so he is not resisting arrest): “You have the right to remain silent”. Instead of continuing with the reading of rights, the officer shoots the suspect. The

audience enjoys the wordplay and the dramatic revelation of the officer's real meaning, because pragmatics tells us what You have the right to remain silent normally leads to - more words and no bullets.

Metaphor, Simile and Symbol:

Metaphors are well known as a stylistic feature of literature, but in fact are found in almost all language use, other than simple explanations of physical events in the material world. All abstract vocabulary is metaphorical, but in most cases the original language hides the metaphor from us. Depends means “hanging from” (in Latin), pornography means “writing of prostitutes” (in Greek) and even the hippopotamus has a metaphor in its name, which is Greek for “river horse”. A metaphor compares things, but does not show this with forms such as *as*, *like*, or *more* [+qualifier] *than*. These appear in similes: fat as a pig, like two peas in a pod.

Everyday speech is marked by frequent use of metaphor. Consider the humble preposition *on*. Its

primary meaning can be found in such phrases as on the roof, on the toilet, on top. But what relationship does it express in such phrases as on the fiddle, on call, on demand, on the phone, on the game, on telly, on fire, on heat, on purpose? Why not in? Launch denotes the naming of a ship and its entering service, but what does it mean to launch an attack, launch a new product, launch a new share-issue or even launch oneself at the ball in the penalty area?

A metaphor established by usage and convention becomes a symbol. Thus crown suggests the power of the state, press = the print news media and chair = the control (or controller) of a meeting.

Semantic Fields:

In studying the lexicon of English (or any language) we may group together lexemes which inter-relate, in the sense that we need them to define or describe each other. When there is a relationship between the meanings of words, the words are said to belong to the same *semantic*

field. So, for example, the word *tomato* and the word *tree* both refer to plants [as well as to living things] and so are said to belong to the same semantic field. We can see how such lexemes as *cat*, *feline*, *moggy*, *puss*, *kitten*, *tom*, *queen* and *miaow* occupy the same semantic field. We can also see that some lexemes will occupy many fields: *noise* will appear in semantic fields for acoustics, pain or discomfort and electronics (noise = "interference"). Although such fields are not clear-cut and coherent, they are akin to the kind of groupings children make for themselves in learning a language. An entertaining way to see how we organize the lexicon for ourselves is to play word-association games.

When words belong to the same semantic field, there are a number of semantic relationships they may have. These are described below.

Lexical Semantic Relations:

In this section, we consider a more global level of lexical organization. Lexical semantics relations play an

essential role in lexical semantics and intervene at many levels in natural language comprehension and production. They are also a central element in the organization of lexical semantics knowledge bases.

Congruence Relations:

Two words W1 and W2 denoting respectively sets of entities E1 and E2, are in one of the following four relations:

- Identity : E1 = E2,
- Inclusion : E2 is included into E1,
- Overlap : E1 and E2 have a non-empty intersection, but one is not included in the other,
- Disjunction : E1 and E2 have no element in common.

These relations support various types of lexical configurations such as the type/subtype relation.

Hierarchical Relations:

There are basically three major types of hierarchical relations: taxonomies, meronymies and proportional series.

Taxonomies:

The taxonomy relation is the well-known relation which associates an entity of a certain type to another entity (called the hyperonym) of a more general type. Taxonomy introduces a type/subtype relation which can be characterized by one of the following linguistic tests:

X is a subtype of Y if the following expressions are correct:
X is a kind of Y or X is a type of Y for nouns,
X-ing is a way of Y-ing for verbs.

Taxonomies usually have up to 7 levels that correspond to different levels of genericity (as in natural taxonomies). However, taxonomies of technical terms may be much deeper. It is also important to note that in

some cases, certain nodes do not have any corresponding word in a given language; whereas they have one in another language. A taxonomy may thus have holes. The main property of a taxonomy is transitivity of properties from the type to the subtype. This property can also be viewed as a well-formedness criterion for taxonomies.

Most levels of a certain degree of genericity have a large number of subtypes, each of them having different possible realizations as words. The notion of subtype is however difficult to qualify in an homogeneous way. There is indeed a problem of prototypicality which is raised: some subtypes are more prototypical than others of their hypernymy (the type above them). Let us recall the famous example of the blackbird which is more prototypical of a bird than a hen which is itself more prototypical of that same class than a penguin.

Hypernymy and Hyponymy:

The relations of *hypernymy* and *hyponymy* concern the relation of *inclusion:* X is a Y in which X is the *hyponym* [subordinate term] and Y is the *hypernym*

[superordinate term]. In a statement like A dog is a mammal. *dog* is the hyponym of *mammal* and *mammal* is the hypernym.

Hypernym	Plant	fish	furniture	country	book
Hyponym	Tomato	perch	Table	France	novel

Basic-Level Terms: In many semantic fields, within the relationships of *hypernymy* and *hyponymy* that any semantic field implies, there is one level that has the most 'psychological reality' in the sense that people will identify an object first as belonging to that level. So, for the semantic field of *furniture*, many people would look at an object and identify it as, for example, a *table*, rather than as *furniture* [the hypernym] or *coffee table* [a hyponym]. For such people, *table* is a *basic-level term*. People can — and do — differ as to what their basic-level terms are: for some, *coffee table* could be the basic level term. For city dwellers, *tree* might be a basic-level term, but for people who know forests, *birch, oak*, *cedar,* etc. might be the basic level terms. So, two different people

might have semantic relationships like the following relative to their personal basic-level terms:

Person 1		*Person 2*
hypernym	Animal	hypernym
hypernym	fish	basic level
basic level	salmon	hyponym
hyponym	coho salmon	hyponym

Meronymies:

Meronymies describe the part-whole relation. It is a fairly complex relation which attempts to take into account the degree of differentiation of the parts with respect to the whole and also the role that these parts play with respect to their whole. For example, elements such as spatial cohesion and spatial differentiation, functional differentiation and nature of the links between the parts are crucial elements for determining meronymies. In fact, depending on the quality of these elements, we may have different kinds of meronymies, with different types of properties.

Meronymies can be characterized perhaps in a slightly too restrictive way, by the following linguistic tests. A is a part of B if one of these sentences is correct:

B has A (or B has a A),

A is part of B.

The meronymy relation has itself some properties (or attributes) which must be taken into account in any realistic model:

- Optionality of a part,
- Cardinality of a part with respect to the whole, e.g. a human has 2 legs, a car has 4 wheels,
- There are 6 kinds of meronymies which differ according to the functionalities, the spatial cohesion and the degree of dissimilarity between the parts and their whole. We have the following classes :
  - component / integral object : there is a clear structural and functional relation between the whole and its parts, e.g. handle/cup, phonology/linguistics.
  - member / set or group : parts do not necessarily have a structural or functional relation with respect to the whole, parts are distinct from each

other. In this class fall for example tree/forest, student/class.

- portion / mass : There is a complete similarity between the parts and between parts and the whole. Limits between parts are arbitrary and parts do not have any specific function a priori with respect to the whole. We have in this class for example: slice/bread, centimeter/meter. This subrelation is often called a mereology.
- object / material : This type of relation describes the materials from which an object is constructed or created, or the constitutive elements of an object, e.g. alcohol/wine, steel/car.
- subactivity / activity or process : describes the different subactivities that form an activity in a structured way, for example in a temporally organized way. Into this class fall examples such as: pay/buy, give exams/teach.
- precise place / area : parts do not really contribute to the whole in a functional way. This subrelation

expresses spatiality, as in: oasis/desert, Alps/Europe.

Similarly to taxonomies, the meronymy relation cannot really be conceived between two elements, but should be conceived with respect to the set of all the parts forming the whole. This also permits to introduce a kind of point of view in a meronymic description. Meronymies do not, in general, allow transitivity at logical and linguistic levels. However, some authors tend to allow transitivity at linguistic level between elements which are linked by the same subtype of meronymic relation described above.

Non-Branching Hierarchies:

Non-branching hierarchies allow for the ordering of elements that correspond to different levels of organization or of dimensionality. The structure does not correspond to a type/subtype organization, but could have in some cases some similarity with a meronymic relation. Non-branching hierarchies are often related to a spatial, a temporal or an abstract notion of dimensionality.

We can distinguish three kinds of non-branching hierarchies:

- a continuous hierarchy where boundaries between elements are somewhat fuzzy, as in : frozen - cold - mild - hot; small - average - large, and in most topological relations,
- a non-continuous and non-gradable hierarchy, in general not based on any measurable property such as institutional hierarchies and technical hierarchies : sentence - proposition - phrase - word - morpheme.
- a non-continuous and gradable hierarchy, organized according to a given dimension, such as units of measure.

In some cases, non-branching hierarchies may reflect a more linguistic than common-world knowledge.

Non-Hierarchical Relations:

Among non-hierarchical relations we mainly distinguish polysemy, homonymy, synonymy and the

different forms of opposition. These relations, as we shall see, are either binary or ternary. The ternary character reflects the context-dependence of some of these relations.

Polysemy:

Polysemy is the capacity for a sign (e.g. a word, phrase, etc.) or signs to have multiple meanings (sememes, i.e. a large semantic field). This is a pivotal concept within social sciences, such as media studies and linguistics. Polysemy is an intimidating compound noun for a basic language feature. The name comes from Greek poly (many) and semy (to do with meaning, as in semantics). Polysemy is also called radiation or multiplication. This happens when a lexeme acquires a wider range of meanings.

For example, paper comes from Greek papyrus. Originally it referred to writing material made from the papyrus reeds of the Nile, later to other writing materials, and now to things such as government documents, scientific reports, family archives or newspapers.

Polysemy may involve **conversion** of one part of speech to another. Many verbs in English, especially monosyllabic verbs, can be nouns: *bend, drink, kill*. Many verbs can be transitive or intransitive: *walk, fly, burn, return* . So polysemy can result in new grammatical as well as lexical meaning.

In certain instances, polysemy acts as a regular, productive pattern which affects entire classes of words rather than single, isolated words. In English, words with certain functions systematically have a secondary function. For example: *the* + noun in English may mean a) a single specific example (Thanks for letting me ride the horse (this specific horse) or b) a general type (example: The zebra is a relative of the horse.). Also, any verb in English can mean either single or multiple action: *He hit the table (maybe once or more than once).* If a new verb is created it automatically inherits these two meanings: *He burbled the table (maybe once, maybe more than once).* Every language has examples of such regular, grammatical polysemy

Homonyms, homophones and homographs

Homonyms are different lexemes with the same form (written, spoken or both). For example, bank is both an elevated area of ground and a place or business where money is kept. You may think these are the same words, but this is not so, since the meaning is an essential feature of a word. In some cases, the same form (as with paper) has the same origin but this will not always be the case. The etymology of a lexeme will tell us where it comes from and how it acquired a given meaning.

Identity of form may apply to speech or writing only. David Crystal calls these forms "half" identical. They are:

- Homophones - where the pronunciation is the same (or close, allowing for such phonological variation as comes from accent) but standard spelling differs, as in flew (from fly), flu ("influenza") and flue (of a chimney).

- Homographs - where the standard spelling is the same, but the pronunciation differs, as in wind (air movement or bend) or refuse (“rubbish” or “disallow”, stress falls on first and second syllable, respectively).

Synonymy:

Two words are synonyms if they have a significant similar semantic content. Synonyms have a significant semantic overlap, but the degree of synonymy is not necessarily related to that overlap. There are very few absolute synonyms, if any, in a language, but words may be synonyms in given contexts. We then view the synonymy relation as a ternary relation : W1 and W2 are synonyms in the context C. Synonyms often do not depend on the degree of precision of the semantic descriptions, but their degree of synonymy may, however, change at different levels of granularity.

There tend to be very few absolute synonyms in a language. Example: *sofa* and *couch* are nearly complete

synonyms, yet they differ in their collocability in at least one way: one may say *couch potato*, but not **sofa potato*.

One special type of partial synonym is called a paronym. Paronyms are words with associated meanings which also have great similarities in form, e.g., *proscribe/ prescribe, industrial/industrious, except/accept, affect/eff ect.* Many errors in speech and writing are due to mixups involving paronyms.

Antonymy and Opposition:

Antonyms and opposites cover a very large variety of phenomena, more or less clearly defined. A basic definition could be that words are said to be *antonyms* or *opposites* if they have opposed meanings, if one implies the negative of the other. So, *win* and *lose* are understood to be antonyms. If someone asked "Floyd didn't win, right?", one could answer in the affimative, "Yes, Floyd lost."

As with synonyms, antonyms and opposites are highly contextual and thus introduce a kind of ternary relation. There are also various degrees of opposition: some pairs of word-senses are more prototypically opposites than others. Antonyms refer to gradable properties and opposites to non-gradable ones.

For example, with respect to the context 'to start', 'to keep on' and 'to stop' are opposites. Similarly, 'good' and 'bad' are generally admitted as antonyms, and are more prototypical than the opposition between 'father' and 'mother'.

Antonyms do not necessarily partition the conceptual space into two mutually exclusive compartments which cover the whole conceptual domain. Some overlap or space in between is possible, as in good and bad, since it is indeed possible to say that something is neither good nor bad, or, possibly, to say that something is both good and bad.

A special class of antonyms is that of complementaries which divide the whole conceptual space into two non-overlapping compartments. Several classes of complementaries can be defined, such as the class of interactives, which represent a relation of the type stimulus-response, as in: *grant* - *refuse* with respect to the current context. Another interesting class among opposites are directional or relational opposites. They represent basic, topological, or conceptual (metaphorical) directional oppositions. In this class, which is conceptually relatively simple, fall examples such as: start-finish, top-bottom, descend-ascend.

Some concepts lack logical opposites that can be described in terms of any special word; colors are a good example: the logical opposite of red is not red. Such concepts may form relational antonyms, however, through symbolic systems of thinking. For instance, in Cold War thinking, the relational opposite of *American* is *Russian*; in current US politics, the relational opposite of *Democrat* is *Republican*. These are cultural relational opposites.

The role of opposites in a lexical semantics knowledge base is somewhat difficult to define. Similarly to synonyms, opposites and antonyms may certainly play the role of integrity constraints. Their use in natural language generation, for example to avoid the use of too many negations, is somewhat hard to make explicit, because of numerous pragmatic factors that may intervene, such as the polarity of an element in a pair of opposites or antonyms. We can say, for example "*How expensive is this book?"* but probably not "*How cheap is this book?*"

Finally, the linguistic tests or the analysis methods for defining exactly if two elements are opposites or antonyms and to what degree remain to be defined precisely.

Now that we have discussed various semantic relations between words, let us try to categorize these relations in a more concise way. Psychologically, it has been shown, the meanings of words or phrases are always related in one of two possible ways.

The first way involves some relation based on **similarity**: the two referents actually physically resemble one another in some way (iconicity): *face and hands of a clock, chip* (of wood vs. potato chip).

Certain **figures of speech**, or **tropes**, that is, words used in other than their literal meaning, are based on similarity relations:

A **metaphor** is an implied comparison using a word to mean something similar to its literal meaning. A contradiction arises between the literal meaning and the referent. Metaphors can be fresh and creative or hackneyed (the *eye of night* for *moon*). Metaphors that cease to tickle listeners with their creativity are called **dead**, or **hackneyed**, **metaphors**: they simply become secondary meanings of words, polysemous homonyms. We don't even sense the original creativity that went into the first usages of such historical metaphors as: *leg*, *handle*. Most compliments or insults contain

metaphors, such as calling someone a *pig* , a *worm*, a *big ox* or a *monster;* or an *angel*.

A **simile** is a direct comparison using *like* or *as*: Examples: *quiet as a mouse, as mad as a hatter*. New similes can be created, but each language has its own particular store of accepted similes which function as collocations. English: *healthy as a horse, quiet as a mouse.* Other languages have their own stock of well established similes: Russians say *healthy as an ox*, Mongols say *quiet as a fish.*

The second type of meaning relation between polysemous words is based on **contiguity**. Here the two referents do not resemble one another; rather they occur in the real world in some spatial proximity to one another (either as parts of a whole or as one item located next to another). For instance, the mother has many *mouths* to feed, all *hands* on deck, to *boot* someone out of a place, *London* issued a statement (*London* here means *the people governing England*).

A few figures of speech are based on contiguity relations.

Metonymy means something existing in close physical proximity: "London" to mean the people who govern England. Also: *The White House said* meaning *The president said.*

Synecdoche: Using a part to describe a whole: all *hands* on deck (hands = whole people), he has many *mouths* to feed (mouths = dependents).

Semantic relationships in all languages can be described based on similarity or contiguity. This seems to stem directly from the structure of the human brain. People who suffer brain damage affecting language usually experience impairment of either their similarity relations or their contiguity relations, depending upon precisely which area of the brain is damaged.

REVISION

I. Write short notes on the following:

1. Semantics and pragmatics
2. Types of meaning
3. Lexical fields
4. Denotation and connotation
5. Implication and implicature
6. Synonymy and antonymy
7. Homonymy and homography
8. Hypernymy and hyponymy
9. Gradable and non-gradable opposites
10. Complementary and relational opposites
11. Metonymy and synecdoche
12. Metaphor and simile

II. Indicate whether the following statements are TRUE of FALSE and correct the false ones:

1. Pragmatics is the study of meaning in a language.
2. A symbol is something which we use to represent another thing.
3. When there is a relationship between the meanings of words, the words are said to belong to the same semantic field.
4. Two words are antonyms if they have a significant similar semantic content.
5. Homophones are words which have the same form and meaning, but which have different pronunciation.
6. Denotation is the central meaning of a word, as far as it can be described in a dictionary.
7. Social meaning is the person, object, abstract notion, event or state to which a word or sentence makes reference.
8. Polysemy is a semantic relation in which a word has multiple related meanings.

9. Implicature is meaning which a speaker or writer intends but does not communicate directly.
10. Synecdoche is using a word to mean something existing in close physical proximity.
11. The semantic relation in which the meaning of one word is included in the meaning of another broader term is described as hyponymy.
12. A simile is an implied comparison using a word to mean something similar to its literal meaning.

III. Define the semantic relation between the two words in each of the following pairs:

1. beautiful – pretty
2. present (n.) – present (v.)
3. know – no
4. far – near
5. lie (to be in a horizontal position) – lie (to tell something that is not true).
6. intelligent – smart
7. night – knight
8. leg (of a table) – leg (of a person)
9. safe – dangerous

10. lead (to show the way) – lead (a metal)
11. tree – plant
12. wind (to follow a course that is not straight) – wind (a current of air)
13. suit (n.) – suit (v.)
14. desert (n.) – desert (v.)
15. married – single

CHAPTER 10

Lexical semantic conditions in Arabic and English

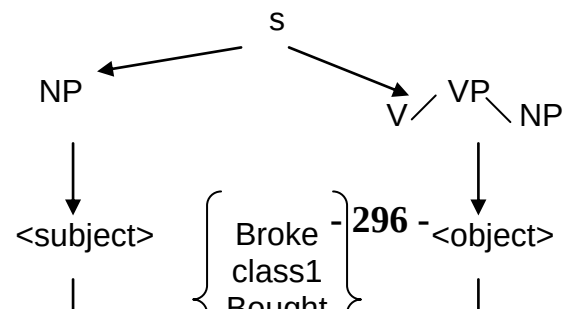
For more details on this issue you may consult the following source:

Mahmoud, Abdelgawad. T. 1991. “A contrastive study of middle and unaccusative constructions in Arabic and English.” In Comrie, B. and M. Eid (eds.), *Perspective on Arabic Linguistics*, iii, Amsterdam, Benjamins, 119-134.

CHAPTER 10

Lexical semantic conditions in Arabic and English

The main idea I want to convey here is that there are certain facts about language, which none of the grammar theories (i.e. Traditional Grammar. Descriptive Grammar, and Transformational Grammar) has adequately explained. One of these facts is that the sentence pattern is very often determined by the semantic properties of the verb. In other words, certain semantic classes of verbs are associated with certain sentence patterns. Take for instance the semantic class of “break” , “open “ , “ melt “, “change “ etc …, on one hand, and the class of “buy” , “ like “” learn “ etc, on the other hand. Both classes are transitive, and the structure associated with any of these verbs is as follows :



S = sentence

NP = noun phrase

VP = verb phrase

V = verb

N = noun

Obviously, the sentence patterns of both classes are the same yet, verbs that belong to class 1 allow for intransitive variants, while verbs that belong to class 2 don't. Hence, the sentences in (1.b) – (3.b) are acceptable, but those in (4.b) – (6.b) are unacceptable. Consider the following data :

1.a John broke the glass. ⟶

1.b The glass broke.

2.a John opened the door. ⟶

2.b The door opened.

3.a John melted the butter. ⟶

3.b The butter melted.

By contrast :

4.a John bought the glass. ⟶

* 4.b The glass bought.

5.a John learned French. ⟶

* 5. b French learned.

6.a John liked french. ⟶

* 6.b French liked.

The point here is that in class 1 the object of the transitive verb can become a subject. Therefore, (1.b) – (3.b) are grammatical. On the other hand the verbs in class 2 do not allow for the derivation of intransitive variants where the subject was an object. Hence, (4.b) – (6.b) are unacceptable.

It should be pointed out that the constructions in (1.b) – (3.b) are active -- not passive. These constructions are know as unaccusative or ergative constructions. These construction exist in most languages and they are distinct from passive (for instance, compare the Arabic/Kasar/ which is transitive active with /n-kasar/ which is unaccusative and / kusir / which is passive.

It is claimed here that the semantic properties of the verbs of each class are responsible for the syntactic difference. Specifically, the action depicted by the verbs which allow for unaccusative variants (e.g. 1-3) implies a change of state. In other words , the state of the object before the action is not the same as the state after the action.

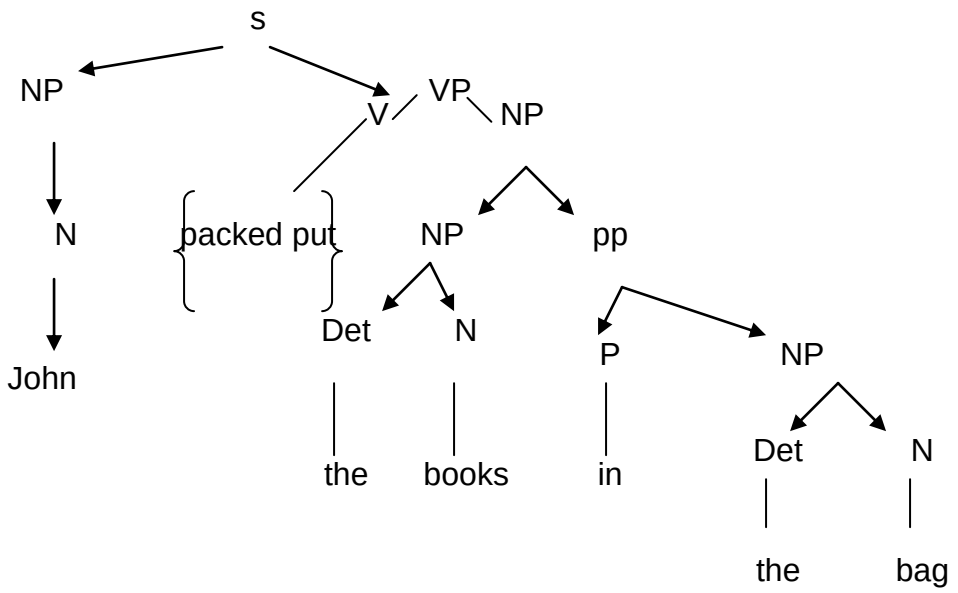
Another observation which supports the claim that the semantic properties of verbs determine their syntactic behavior has to do with the following classes. The first class includes verbs like “spray” “pack”, “ load “, and “ stuff”. The second class includes verbs like “ put “,

“ place “, and “ arrange “ . One of the usages of these verbs requires a prepositional phrase (pp) consider (7) below :

7.a John packed the books in the bag.

b. John put the books in the bag.

The structure associated with (7.a) or (7.b) is as follows :



It is obvious from the tree-diagram above the

structure of the two classes of verbs are identical. However, verbs in class one allow for derivations like the one in (8), but the verbs of class two do not . Hence, the construction in (8) is acceptable but the one in (9) is not.

8. John packed the bag with books.

9. *John put the bag with books.

It is assumed here that the semantic difference between verbs like “ pack “ and “ put “ is that “ pock “ has “ holistic “ implication. To realize what is meant by “ holistic “ implication, compare (10) with (11):

10. John packed the bag with books.

11. John packed the books in the bag.

It is assumed here that (10) is the ‘ holistic “ variant (or derivative) of (11). The semantic difference between (10) and (11) is that the former implies that the bag is completely full of books, while in the latter this is

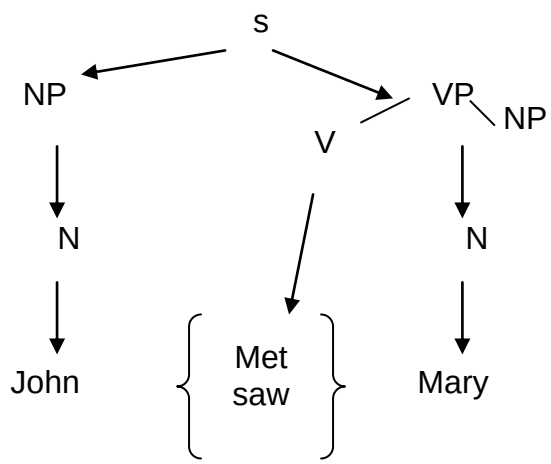
not necessarily the case thus, verbs like “ pack ” allow for “ holistic “ alternations, while those like “ put “do not.

A third observation is concerned with verbs like “ meet “ , “ marry “ , and “ quarrel “ , as opposed to other verbs (e.g. “ see “, “ like “ and “ hate “). Take for instance verb “ meet “ and verb “ see

12. John met Mary.

13. John saw Mary.

\As shown below, the structures associated with (12) and (13) are identical :



The meaning of both verbs is also very similar. However (12) allows for the derivation in (14), but (13) does not. Hence, (14) is acceptable but (15) is not:

14. John and Mary met.

15. * John and Mary saw.

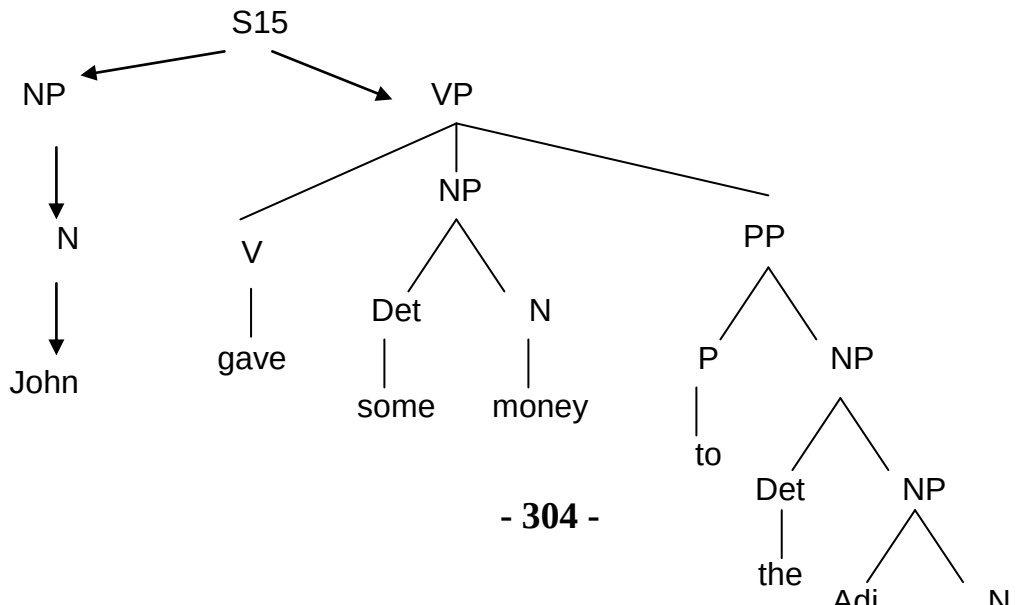
The semantic difference between verbs like “ meet “ and verbs like “ see “ is that the action depicted by the former is “ reciprocal “ in the sense that both participants (i,e. John and Mary) must have shared the action. In other words, if John met Mary then Mary must have met John, then Mary must have met John. But John may see Mary without Mary seeing him,. In other words, the semantic implications of “ meet “ and “ see “ are different .

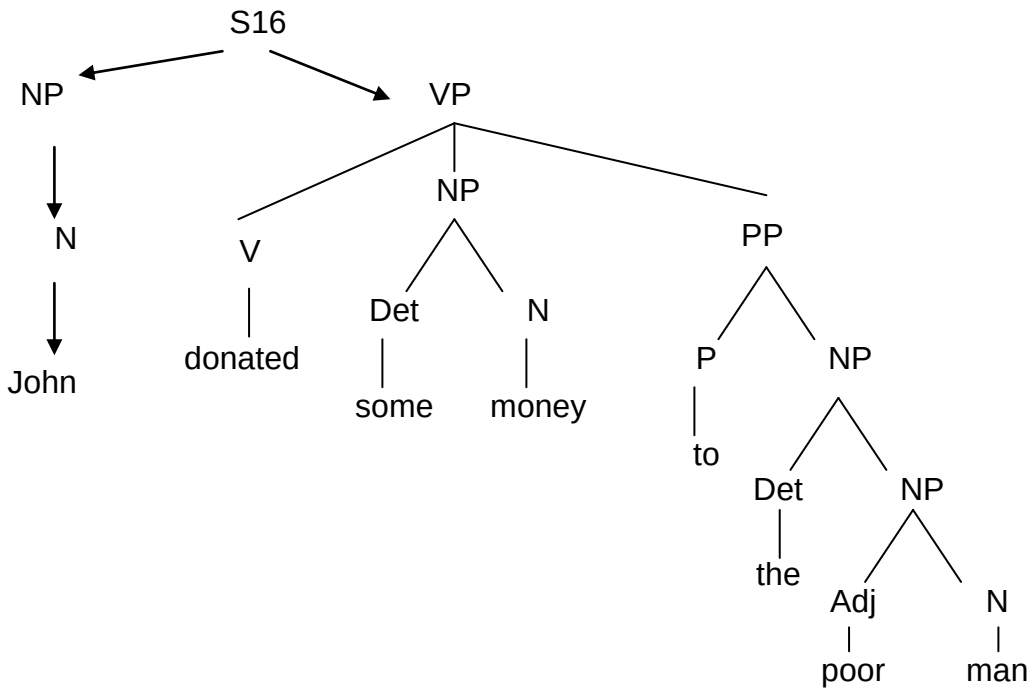
All the examples discussed so for show us how the semantic difference between different classes of verbs determine – to a great extent – the possible syntactic patterns of these verbs. Sometimes the semantic difference between verbs is

not very great, yet the syntactic patterns that are possible with these verbs are greatly different. Consider for instance, verb “ give “ and verb “ donate. The actions depicted by both verbs are basically the same. For example when we say X gave / or donate something to Y we are talking about a transfer of something from X & Y. In this sense, the basic meaning of “ give “ and “ donate “ is the same. The structure associated with these verbs is also the same. Thus , both (14) and (15) have the structure shown by the tree diagram below :

15. John gave some money to the poor man.

16. John donated some money to the poor man.





Considering the structure given in (15) and (16), one notes that each sentence contains two objects : a direct object (i.e. some money) and an indirect object (i.e. to the poor man) Hence, verbs like “ give “ and “ donate “ are diatransitive. However with verb “ donate “ the

direct object can be implicit (i.e. it may not show up in the sentence). This is not possible with verb give. Thus, the sentence in (17) is acceptable, while the one in (18) is not.

17. John donated to the poor man.

18. * John gave to the poor man.

This means that the lexical semantic properties of " donate " allow the direct object to be implicit, Hence when we use (17) we understand by implication that John donated something to the poor man By contrast, this is not possible with verb " give " , since the lexical semantic properties of this verb do not allow for implicit object. Therefore if one used a sentence like (18), the listener would respond by saying , gave what ?

Similarly, the indirect object can be implicit with verb donate but not with verb " give " Accordingly, (19) is acceptable while (20) is not :

19. John donated some money.

20. * John gave some money.

Moreover, both objects can by implicit with verb donate, while this is not possible with verb “ give “ Hence. (21) is acceptable but (22) Is not :

22. John donated yesterday.

22. * John gave yesterday.

Interestingly enough, the Arabic verbs for “ donate “ and “ give “ (i.e taSaddaqa and ?aTa) have the same lexical semantic properties as donate and “ give “ .

They also exhibit the same syntactic consequence. Thus, the Arabic verb taSaddaqa can occur In Arabic with explicit objects, while ?aTa cannot. Thus, verb taSaddaqa can occur with two objects, one object, and without objects at all this is not the case with verb ?aTa which occurs with two objects.

The argument so far has been concerned with how the lexical semantic properties of verbs may condition their syntactic behavior In tact, this phenomenon is not confined to verbs only. Rather one might think of some adjectives where the semantic properties condition the syntactic alternations of these adjectives. The discussion of this issue goes beyond the scope of these notes, therefore I would refer the interested reader to Levin's book, which I mentioned above.

Chapter 11

Pragmatics

Chapter 11

Pragmatics

So far we have examined the semantics grammatical affixes, as well as of words and set phrases (a branch of linguistics known as **lexical semantics**).

The semantic term for word is **lexeme**. Meaning can also be studied on the level of entire utterances. Sometimes these phrases have special meanings not deducible from their parts. A useful term is **lexeme**, which means any meaningful unit--morpheme, word, compound or idiomatic phrase which has a non-deducible meaning. **Proper nouns** are special types of lexemes in that each of their uses constitutes a separate lexeme.

Usually, the meaning of phrases and utterances are deducible from their constituent parts. The study of regular patterns of meaning on the level of entire phrases,

sentences and utterances is known as **discourse analysis**, or **pragmatics**.

Truth value of statements

Statements are said to be **ambiguous** if they have two possible and contradictory meanings: *I saw her duck. The drill was boring*. If the two contradictory meanings produce humor, the statement is called a **pun**, or a **play on words**.

Statements are said to be **vague** if they have a virtually unlimited range of meanings. Examples are deictic statements taken out of context: *She went there. He did it.* Vague statements usually contain deictic elements with no clear antecedent. *John and Bill were there. Did you see him?*

Statements and phrases can also be caracterized by the property of **redundancy**, saying the same thing twice: *a baby puppy, a female tigress, The professor is a professor*. Redundant statements are said to be **analytically true**, or true based solely on the lack of contradiction in the definition of the words.

Linguistic **contradiction** characterizes a statement which cannot be true based simply on knowledge of the meaning of words: *The unmarried woman is married to a bachelor*; or *the pregnant boy.* Such a statement is said to be **analytically false**, or false by simple definition. Contradictions used deliberately create **irony**. Sometimes, intonation implies irony: as when one says, *That's just great* to mean the opposite, or *bad* to mean *really good*

Phrases with words that directly contradict one another's basic meaning are called **oxymorons**: *colorless green ideas, sleep furiously; a loud silence*. Some oxymorons have acquired definite meanings nonetheless: *unemployed worker, dry ice, awfully good*.

Statements which do not include linguistic contradiction may be said to be **empirically true** or **false**. The truth value of such a statement as *President Chester A. Arthur was shot in 1881* may be unknown to people not versed in US history and must be checked based upon extralinguistic knowledge. In reality it turns out to be false, but it is not nonsense in the linguistic

sense since presidents can and do get shot. On the other hand, some sentences seem contradictory when actually they are not: *The evening star is the morning star*. (In the real world, these are two different names for the planet Venus.)

Statements which are absurd in terms of real world logic are said to be **nonsense**. Sometimes nonsense is evident simply on the basis of linguistic contradiction: *My grandfather is pregnant*. Sometimes nonsense is evident to anyone with the most minimal knowledge of the world: *We ate wholly mammoth meat for lunch.*

Some statements are simply uninterpretable: **Twas brillig and the slithy toves did gyre and gimble in the wabe.* This is a **no-sense statement**; it cannot be given a truth value at all because the individual words have no regularly accepted meaning. In a nonsense statement, by contrast, we know what the individual words mean, and therefore can see that they don't add up to any logically acceptable meaning: *It was sunny and the slimy eels flew around in the thick clouds*.

Information structure (new vs. old information)

Discourse analysis also involves the study of how sentences and utterances are interconnected in a text or conversation.

Some sentences contain an obvious **presupposition**, a piece of background knowledge implied by the statement. The sentence *My cat got lost again* presupposes what two facts other than the truth of the statement as a whole? Presupposition may also be called **implication** or **entailment.** Information structure thus involves presentation of some new information (the **comment**) about old information (the shared context, or **topic**). In the sentences below the comment (new information is underlined:

It was my cat that got lost. (= What got lost was my cat.)

What happened to my cat was that it got lost. (=Getting lost is what happened to my cat.)

More often than not, instead of special topic or comment phrases, intonation marks the comment:

My CAT got lost. (not my dog)

My cat GOT LOST. (That's what happened to the poor thing.)

Some languages, such as Russian, use word order to express the same thing (in Russian the new information normally goes at the end of the sentence, even if it is expressed by the sentence subject. Thus, a Russian would say something like:

Got lost my cat (for My CAT got lost,not my dog.)

My cat got lost (for My cat GOT LOST. That's what happened to the poor thing).

Still other languages use discourse particles to mark the topic or comment. Japanese places the topicalizing particla "wa" after the old information.

Discourse Functions

Signs used in speech have various functions relative to the speech act, called **discourse functions**. There are three main types:

1.) *Napoleon died on the island of St. Helena, in 1821.*

The function of a sign in speech is said to be **denotative (objective, referential)** if the meaningful elements of the utterance are completely definable apart from any particular speech act: *Napoleon, died, St. Helena, in 1821*. The reference of denotative signs is essentially the same regardless of who is talking. Denotative signs tend to be the easiest to learn and are the first to be acquired by children.

2) *The old codger kicked the bucket.* Sometimes words mark some particular attitude or point of view expressed by the speaker in addition to the topic of conversation. Such subjective elements of meaning are said to be **connotative (affective** or **stylistic).** Connotations are implications about the way the speaker feels about the topic being expressed: *codger, kicked the bucket*. Some words are inherently connotative: *kick the bucket*. Others may acquire a connotative meaning in some contexts: *to fleece a sheep* vs. *to fleece a person*. Many words are denotative and connotative at the same time to some degree: *codger* (odd,

excentric man + speaker's attitude of joking disrespect)*kicked the bucket* (died + the speaker's flippant attitude). Intonation or special grammatical means may also be either denotative or connotative (Give examples of question intonation vs. sarcastic intonation).

3) *They were here yesterday.*

Speech signs may show yet a third type of linguistic function. A function of a sign is said to be **deictic** (after the Greek word to point) if its referent **shifts**, or varies, depending upon the time, place or participants of each individual speech act. Pronouns, adverbs of place like *here*, *there*; or such words as *yesterday*, *my*, *our*, *the*, *this*, *that* are deictic signs because they have no definite referent outside of specific speech acts. Tenses in English are also for the most part deictic. The referents of deictic elements of languages changes from speech act to speech act. One type of deixis, called **anaphora**, involves pointing to something expressed previously in the same conversation or text. *He, she, it* are anaphoric pronouns; they require an **antecedent** in the previous context. Pronouns such as *I* or *you* are also deictic but not

anaphoric. Specialists in child language acquisition have noticed that children tend to acquire the deictic elements of language later than the denotative elements--probably because these elements involve a higher degree of abstraction than simple denotative elements.

Intonation and various types of fronting, including **cleft sentences** (It was Bill who), right or left dislocation (*John, he finished already*; or *He did it, that John*.)

contrast-- Did John come. No Bill (rather than John) did.

definiteness-- whether or not a noun phrase is identifiable. (Use of articles)

referentiality-- whether or not a noun phrase has a referent.

singular referring expressions-- The Eiffel tower, articles and deictic pronouns.

general referring expressions-- oak, elm, tree, (cf. Basque)

coreferentiality-- reflexive pronouns

Performative speech acts-- pronouncing the sentence is tantamount to an action-- Use "hereby". act performed by saying something. I pronounce, I declare, order, promise.

Concepts may be encoded grammatically or lexically

--Languages differ in terms of what meanings are expressed as separate concepts, by using separate words and which are expressed grammatically, by using bound or function morphemes elements of meaning which are expressed in various languages according to patterns.

The boy hit the ball (once vs. many times) (hard vs. lightly) (first action in a series or second) lexical vs. grammatical expression. Anything can be expressed lexically-- by putting enough explanatory words together. Certain concepts must be expressed because they are included in the words themselves

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