



# The Study of Language

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# UNIT 1

## THE ORIGINS OF LANGUAGE

We simply do not know how language originated. We do not know that spoken language developed well before written language. Yet we have no physical evidence relating to the speech of our ancestors and because of this absence of evidence speculations about the origins of human speech have been developed.

## The Divine Source

The basic idea of the theory is that : “ If infants were allowed to grow up without hearing any language, then they would spontaneously begin using the original God-given language. “

## The Natural Sound Source

“ Primitive words could have been imitations of the naturel sounds which early men and women heard around them “ Examples : cuckoo, splash, bang, boom. This view has been called “ bow-wow theory “ of language origin and these words echoing naturel sounds are called “ onomatopoeic words “

A similar suggestion : “ The original sounds of language came from naturel cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy. Examples : Ouch! , Ah!, Hey!

## Yo-heave-ho Theory

The sounds of a person involved in physical effort could be the source of our language, especially when that physical effort involved several people and had to be coordinated.

The importance of yo-heave-ho theory is that it places the development of human language in some SOCIAL CONTEXT.

## The Oral-Gesture Source

The theory comes from the idea that there is a link between physical gesture and orally produced sounds. First of all a set of physical gestures was developed as a means of communication. Then a set of oral gestures specially involving the mouth developed in which the movements of the tongue, lips and so on were recognized according to patterns of movement similar to physical gestures.

## Glossogenetics

The focus is on the biological basis of the formation. In the evolutionary development there are certain physical features, best thought of as particular adaptations that appear to be relevant for speech. By themselves, such features would not lead to speech production, but they are good clues that a creature possessing such features probably has the capacity for speech.

## Physiological Adaptations

Human teeth, lips, mouth, tongue, larynx, pharynx and brain have been created in such a way to coordinate in producing speech sounds. Their places, connections and coordinative functions make humankind different from all the living creatures.

## Interactions and Transactions

There are two major functions of language:

- Interactional Function : It is related with how human use language to interact with each other socially or emotionally, how they express their feelings or their ideas.
- Transactional Function : It is related with how human use their linguistic abilities to transfer knowledge from one generation to the next.

## UNIT 2

# ANIMALS AND HUMAN LANGUAGE

Communicative vs. Informative

### Communicative

To convey a message intentionally. e.g. All the things you say for communicating.

Informative: Unintentional messages.e.g. If you sneeze the person you are talking to can understand that you have a cold. / If you have a strange accent the person you are talking to can understand you are from some other part of the country.

## Unique Properties of A Language

These features are uniquely a part of human language.

### Displacement

Talking about things that happened in the past, happens now or will happen in the future.

There is no displacement in animal communication.

Exception: Bee communication has displacement in an extremely limited form. A bee can show the others the source of the food.

### Arbitrariness

The word and object are not related to each other. e.g. dog. Cat



## Exception

No arbitrary examples: Onomatopoeic sounds e.g. cuckoo, crash, squelch or whirr.

Majority of animal signals have a clear connection with the conveyed message. Animal communication is non-arbitrary.

## Productivity

(Creativity / open-endedness ) Language users create new words as they need them. It is an aspect of language which is linked to the fact that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite. Animals have fixed reference. Each signal refers to sth, but these signals can not be manipulated.

## Cultural Transmission

Language passes from one generation to another. In animals there is an instinctively produce process but human infants growing up in isolation produce no instinctive language. Cultural transmission is only crucial in the human acquisition process.

## Discreteness

Individual sounds can change the meaning. e.g. pack – back , bin – pin. This property is called discreteness.

## Duality

To use some sounds in different places. e.g. cat – act . Sounds are the same but the meanings are different.

There is no duality in animal communication.

## Other Properties

- a-) Vocal- auditory channel: Producing sounds by the vocal organs and perceiving them by ears.
- b-) Reciprocity: Any speaker / reader can also be a listener / receiver.
- c-) Specialization: Language is used linguistically.
- d-) Non-directionality: Unseen but heard messages can be picked up by anyone.
- e-) Rapid fade: Linguistic signals are produced and disappeared quickly.

## Talking to Animals

If these five properties (*displacement, arbitrariness, productivity, cultural transmission, and duality*) of human language make it such a unique communication system, then it would seem extremely unlikely that other creatures would be able to understand it. Riders can *Whoa* to horses and they stop, we can say *Heel* to dogs and they will follow ar heel... Should we treat these examples as evidence that non-humans can understand human language? Probably not. The standard explanation is that the animal produces a particular behaviour in response to a particular sound-stimulus or 'noise', but does not actually 'understand' what the words in the noise mean.

## UNIT 3

# THE DEVELOPMENT OF WRITING

Much of the evidence used in the reconstruction of ancient writing systems comes from inscriptions on stone or tablets found in the rubble of ruined cities.

## Pictograms and ideograms

A Picture representing a particular image in a consistent way it is called Picture-writing or Pictogram. There must be a link between the pictogram and its meaning. So, we can easily understand what it refers to when we look at the pictogram.

More abstracts forms of pictograms are called Ideograms. The relationship between the entity and the symbol is not easily understood like pictograms.

- A key property of both pictograms and ideograms is that they do not represent words or sounds in a particular language.

Ancient Sumerian	Ancient Egyptian	Chinese
 Eye	 See (verb)	 Eye
 Forest	 Water	 Water
 Mountains	 Cities	 Mountain
 Torch	 Fire	 Fire
 Person	 Men	 Person
	 Women	 Woman

## Logograms

A good example of logographic writing is the system used by the Sumerians, in the southern part of modern Iraq, around 5,000 years ago. Because of the particular shapes used in their symbols, these inscriptions are more generally described as cuneiform writing. The term cuneiform means 'wedge-shaped' and the inscriptions used by the Sumerians were produced by pressing a wedge-shaped implement into soft clay tablets,

When we consider the relationship between the written form and the object it represents, it is arbitrary.



## Rebus Writing

In this process, the symbol for one entity is taken over as the symbol for the sound of the spoken word used to refer to the entity. That symbol then comes to be used whenever that sound occurs in any words. One symbol can be used in many different ways, with a range of meanings. This brings a sizeable reduction in the number of symbols needed in a writing system.

## Syllabic Writing

In the last example, the symbol that is used for the pronunciation of parts of a word represents a combination (ba) of a consonant sound (b) and a vowel sound (a). This combination is one type of syllable. When a writing system employs a set of symbols each one representing the pronunciation of a syllable, it is described as syllabic writing.

There are no purely syllabic writing systems in use today, but modern Japanese can be written with a single symbols which represent spoken syllables and is consequently often described as having a syllabic writing or a syllabary.

## Alphabetic Writing

An alphabet is essentially a set of written symbols which each represent a single type of sound.

## Written English

- The spelling of written English took place in 15 th century, via printing, so Latin and French affected the written forms.
- Many of the early printers were Dutch, so they were not very successful in English pronunciation .
- Since the 15 th century spoken English has undergone a lot of changes.

## UNIT 4

# THE SOUNDS OF LANGUAGE

The sounds of spoken English don't match up, a lot of time, with letters of English. The solution to describe the sounds of a language like English is to produce a separate alphabet with symbols which represent sounds. Such a set of symbols is called the " PHONETIC ALPHABET " .

## Phonetics

The general study of the characteristics of speech sounds is called “phonetics”. We have got four areas of study within phonetics.

a-) Articulatory Phonetics: The study of how speech sounds are made, or articulated.

b-) Acoustic Phonetics: It deals with the physical properties of speech as sound waves in the air.

c-) Auditory Phonetics: It deals with the reception, via the ear, of speech sounds.

d-) Forensic Phonetics: It deals with the identification of the speaker and the analysis of recorded utterances.

## Voiced and Voiceless Sounds

- Voiceless: When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in this way are described as voiceless.
- Voiced: When the vocal cords are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through, creating a vibration effect.

## Place of Articulation

It is the location, inside the mouth, at which the constriction takes place. We use the symbols of the phonetic alphabet to denote specific sounds. These symbols are enclosed within square brackets [ ] .

## Bilabials

The sounds formed using both upper and lower lips.

## Labiodentals

The sounds formed with the upper teeth and the lower lip.

## Dentals

The sounds formed with the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth.

## Alveolars

The sounds formed with the front part of the tongue on the alveolar ridge.



## Alveo-palatals

The sounds produced with the tongue at the very front of the palate, near the alveolar ridge.

## Velars

The sounds produced with the back of the tongue, against the velum.

## Glottal

The sounds produced without the active use of the tongue and other parts of the mouth.

## Manner of Articulation

How the sounds articulated.

### Stops

The sounds produced by some form of complete “stopping” of the airstream and then letting it go abruptly.

### Fricatives

The sounds produced by almost blocking the airstream, and having the air push through the narrow opening. As the air pushed through, a type of friction is produced.

## Affricates

The sounds produced by combining brief stopping of the airstream with an obstructed release which causes some friction.

## Nasal

The sounds produced by lowering the velum and the airstream is allowed to flow out through the nose.

## Approximants

Articulation of these sounds are strongly influenced by the following vowel sound.

a-) Glides: The sounds produced with the tongue moving to or from the position of a nearby vowel.

b-) Liquids: The sounds formed by letting the airstream flow around the sides of the tongue as it makes contact with the alveolar ridge.

## Glottal stops

It occurs when the space between the vocal cords is closed completely, very briefly, and then realized.

## Flap

The sounds produced by the tongue tip being thrown against the alveolar ridge for an instant.

## Vowels

They are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are all typically voiced. Front versus a back and a high versus a low area.

## Diphthongs

Combined vowel sounds which contain two different sounds are called diaphanous. They begin with a vowel sound and with a glide.

## UNIT 5

# THE SOUND PATTERNS OF LANGUAGE

- Physically different individuals would inevitably have physically different vocal tracts, in terms of size and shape.
- Since every individual has a physically different vocal tract, every individual will pronounce sounds differently.
- Each individual will not pronounce the word “me” in a physically identical manner on every occasion.

## Phonology

The description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language. It is concerned with the ways in which speech sounds form systems and patterns in human language. Phonology permits a speaker.:

- To produce sounds that form meaningful utterances.
- To recognize a foreign accent.
- To make up new words.
- To form plurals or past tenses, etc.

## Phonemes

Each meaning – distinguishing sound in a language is described as a “phoneme “. It is the single sound type which came to be represented by a single symbol. Slash marks are conventionally used to indicate a phoneme, /t/ .

- Phonemes function contrastively. This contrastive property is the basic operational test for determining the phonemes which exist in a language. If we substitute one sound for another in a word and there is a change of meaning, then two sounds represent different phonemes.
- Place of articulation, manner of articulation, voiced, voiceless are the distinguishing features of the sounds. If the feature is present, we mark it with a plus ( + ) sign: if it isn't present, we use ( - ) minus sign. /p/ – Voice, + Bilabial, + Stop )



## Phones and Allophones

They are different versions of a sound type. Phones are represented in square brackets.

When we have a set of phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, we refer to them as the allophone of that phoneme. e.g. Bean, bead.

## Aspiration

When we are producing the same sound in different words, sometimes extra puff of air is produced for the same sound. This feature is just for stops ( b, p, t, d, k, g ) e.g. Pit, spit.

The basic distinction between phonemes and allophones; substituting one phoneme for another will result in a word with a different meaning, but substituting allophones only result in a different pronunciation of the same word.

## Minimal Pairs and Sets

When two words such as “ pat “ and “ bat “ are identical in form except for a contrast in one phoneme, occurring in the same position, the two words are described as a minimal pair. e.g. Feat, fit, fat, fate

## Phonotactics

There are definite patterns to the types of sound combinations permitted in a language. We can form nonsense words which are permissible forms with no meanings. They represent identical gaps in the vocabulary of English. E.g. “lig” or “vig” ( not English words but possible ).

But “sing” or “mig” are not obeying same constraints on the sequence. Such constraints are called the “ Phonotactics “ of a language.

## Syllabus and Clusters

A syllable is composed one or more phonemes and it must contain a vowel sound. Every syllable has a nucleus, usually a vowel-liquid or nasal. The basic elements of the syllable are the onset ( one or more consonants ) and the rhyme. Plus any following consonants treated as the coda.

- The syllabus which hasn't got a coda are known " OPEN SYLLABUS " , when a coda is present, they are called " CLOSED SYLLABUS" .

Cup => closed syllable no => open syllable

- Both onset and coda can consist of more than one consonant known as a CONSONANT CLUSTER. /s/ + (/p/, /t/,/k/) + ( /r/, /l/, /w/ )

## Co-articulation Effects

Our talk is fast and spontaneous and it requires our articulators to move from one sound to the next without stopping. The process of making one sound almost at the same time as the next is called co-articulation. Articulation effects are called “ assimilation” and “ Elision”

.

## Assimilation

When two phonemes occur in sequence and some aspect of one phoneme is taken or copied by the other the process is known as “ assimilation “ .This process is occasioned by “ ease of articulation in everyday talk. For example, only vowel becomes nasal whenever it immediately precedes a nasal. E.g. can => I can go.

## Elision

Omission of a sound segment which would be present in the deliberate pronunciation of a word in isolation is technically described as “elision”. In consonants clusters, especially in coda position, /t/ is a common casualty in this process, as in the typical pronunciation for *He must be - Aspects*

## UNIT 6

# WORDS and WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

### Etymology

The study of the origin and history of a word is known as its etymology, a term which, like many of our technical words, comes to us through Latin, but has its origins in Greek....

## Coinage

The least common processes of word-formation in English is “Coinage”. That is the invention of totally new terms and using it for any version of that product. Ex. Kleenex, Teflon, Xerox, nylon, aspirin, zipper...

## Borrowing

That is taking over of words from other languages. Ex. Alcohol (Arabic), Croissant (French) , Robot (Czech) , Bass (Dutch) , Piano (Italian) , Yogurt (Turkish) ...

- A special type of borrowing is described as “ loan-translation “ or “ calque “ . In this process , there is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. Ex. Un gratteciel ( French ) – It



is translated as a “scrape-sky” . - It is normally referred to as a “skyscraper” .

## Compounding

The joining of two separate words to produce a single form is called “Compounding” . It is very common in German English, but less common in French, Spanish. Ex. Bookcase, fingerprint, sunburn, wallpaper...

## Blending

Blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word.

Ex. Gasoline + Alcohol => Gasohol

Smoke + Fog => Smog

Binary + Digit => Bit

Brakfast + Lunch => Brunch

## Clipping

When a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, often in casual speech, is called clipping.

Ex. Goasoline => Gas

Advertisement => Ad

Situation comedy => Sitcom

Chemistary => Chem

Examination => Exam

Gymnastics => Gym

## Backformation

A word of one type of ( usually a noun ) is reduced to form another word of a different type ( usually a verb ) .

Ex. Television => Televis

Donation => Donate

Option => Opt

- A longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then “ -y ” or “ -ie ” is added to the end. And this is known as “ HYPOCORISMS ” .

Ex. Moving pictures => Movie

Television => Telly

Australian => Aussie

## Conversion

A change in the function of a word, as , for example, when a noun comes to be used as verb ( without any reduction ) , is generally known as Conversion. This process can also be called as “ category change “ and “ functional change “ .

Ex. Butter (n) => Have you buttered (v) the toast ?

Paper (n) => He is papering (v) the bedroom walls.

- Conversion can involve verbs becoming nouns.

Ex. Guess (v) => A guess

Spy (v) => A spy

Must (v) => A must

To print out (v) => A print out

To take over (v) => A take over

## Acronyms

Acronyms are formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.

Ex. Compact Disc : CD , Personal Identification Number : PIN , Video Cassette Recorder : VCR , Automatic Teller Machine : ATM , Radio Detecting and Ranging ( RADAR ) ...

## Derivation

It is accomplished by means of a large number of small bits of English. These small bits are called “ affixes “ and this process is called “ Derivation “ .

Ex: –un / -less / -ish / mis- / pre- / – full / -ism / -ness ...

Unhappy , boyish, misrepresent , joyful , careless, sadness, prejudice, terrorism ...

- Prefixes and Suffixes : Some affixes have to be added to the beginning of a word. These are called PREFIXES. Some affixes have to be added to the end of the word. They are called SUFFIXES .

Ex. Mislead mis => prefix

Disrespectful dis => prefix ful => suffix

- Infixes : Infix is an affix which is incorporated inside another word. They are not normally to be found in English. Examples are from Kamhmu .

Ex. See => To Drill => Srnee => A drill

Toh => To Chisel => Trnoh => A chisel

Ex: ( English ) Absogoddamlutely! Hallebloadylujah !

## UNIT 7

### MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is the study of forms. It has been used to describe that type of investigating which analyses all those basic elements which are used in a language. What we have been describing as elements in the form of a linguistic message are known as morphemes.

## Morphemes

Morpheme is the minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function.

Ex. Tourists contains 3 morphemes. Tour + ist +s

## Free and Bound Morphemes

Free Morphemes can stand by themselves as single words. Ex Tour, open , stay ...

Bound Morphemes can not normally stand alone but they are typically attached to another form. Affixes are bound morphemes. Ex. re- , -ist , -ed , -s ...

- When free morphemes are used with bound morphemes , the basic word – form involved is technically known as the " stem " . Ex. un dress ed un=> Prefix ( bound ) , dress => stem ( free ) , ed=> suffix ( bound )



## Lexical and Functional Morphemes

- Free morphemes fall into two categories :

Lexical morphemes are the ordinary nouns adjectives and verbs which we think of the words which carry the content of messages we convey. They are called open class of words, since we can add new lexical morphemes to the language easily .

Functional morphemes are the functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. They are called close class of words, since we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language.

Ex. and, but, on, near, above => functional morphemes

Sad, long, look => lexical morphemes

## Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes

Bound Morphemes can also be divided into two types.

Derivational morphemes are used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem .

Ex. good => adjective good + ness => noun

Care => noun care + less => adjective

Inflectional morphemes are not used to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word. Plural markers, possessive markers, tense markers, comparative and superlative markers are inflectional morphemes.

Ex. Tim's two sisters : Tim's 's => inflectional , sisters s => inflectional

## Derivational Versus Inflectional

- An inflectional morpheme never changes the grammatical category of a word.

Ex. old => adj. , Older => adj.

- A derivational morpheme can change the grammatical category of a word.

Ex. teach => verb , teacher => noun

Some morphemes look the same but this does not mean that they do the same kind of word.

Ex. teacher => suffix + inflectional

Younger => suffix + derivational

Whenever there is a derivational suffix and inflectional suffix attached to the same word , they always appear in that order.

Ex. teach + er + s => stem + derivational + inflectional

### Morphological Description

The girl's wildness shocked the teachers.

The ( functional ) , girl ( lexical ) , 's ( inflectional ) , wild ( lexical ) , ness ( derivational ) , shock ( lexical ) , -ed ( inflectional ) , the ( functional ) , teach ( lexical ) , -er ( derivational ) –s ( inflectional ) .

\* CATEGORIES OF MORPHEMES : FREE ( a- Lexical b- Functional ) and BOUND ( a- Derivational b- Inflectional )

## Problems in Morphological Description

1- The inflectional morpheme –s is added to “ cat “ and we get the plural “ cats “ . What is the inflectional morpheme which makes sheep the plural of sheep ?

Ex. went past tense of go.

Legal => Is it the same morpheme as in “ international “ .

Solution : A full description of English morphology will have to take account of both historical influences and the effect of borrowed elements.

Ex. Law => borrowed into old English from old Norse

Legal => borrowed from the Latin form of “ legalis “ ( of the law )

## Morphs and Allomorphs

Morphs : The actual forms used to realize morphemes.

Ex. cats => consists of two morphemes

An inflectional morpheme ( -s )

A lexical morpheme ( cat )

Allomorphs : The actual forms of the morphs which result from the single morpheme “ plural “ turn out to be different. They are all allomorphs of the one morpheme.

Ex. sheep ( s ) => sheep ( p )

Sheep ( zero morpheme )

- zero morpheme is one allomorph of plural.

Reduplication : Repetition device as a means of inflectional marking.

## UNIT 8

# PHRASES and SENTENCES : GRAMMAR

### Grammar

We need a way of describing the structure of phrases which will account for all of the grammatical sequences and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences providing such an account involves us in the study of grammar. The phrases and sentences can be described as ill-formed or well-formed.

## Types of Grammar

1- Each adult speaker of a language clearly has some type of mental grammar. This grammar is subconscious and is not the result of any teaching.

2- This can not be considered as “ linguistic etiquette “ which is the identification of the proper or best structures to be used in a language.

3- This is the study and analysis of structures found in a language, usually with the aim of establishing a description of the grammar of English.



## Traditional Grammar

Since there were well-established grammatical descriptions of these older languages, it seemed appropriate to adopt the existing categories from these descriptions and apply them in the analysis of languages like English.

## Parts of the speech

The terms for the parts of speech are nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, pronouns, and conjunctions.

## Agreement

- Agreement on number : That's whether noun is singular or plural.
- Agreement on Person : This covers the distinctions of persons ( He, she, it, we, you, they )
- Agreement on tense : For example , the verb ( likes ) is the present tense , which is distinguished from past tense ( liked ) .
- Agreement on Voice : for ex. “ The boy likes his dog. “ The sentence is in the Active Voice , with the boy doing the liking. An alternative is the Passive Voice, in which the liking is done to the boy , as in “ The boy is liked by his dog “ or just “ The boy is liked” .
- Agreement on Gender : This helps us to describe the agreement between “ boy “ and “ his “ .

## The Prescriptive Approach

The view of grammar as a set of rules for the correct or proper use of a language may be characterized as the Prescriptive Approach.

Grammarians set out rules for the correct proper use of English.

Ex. Never begin a sentence with “ AND “.

You mustn't split an infinitive. ( This rule can be broken it isn't because of the English forms are bad, it is because of the breaking supposed rule of Latin Grammar.

## The Descriptive Approach

Describing the regular structures of the language as it is used , not according to some view of how it should be used is called the Descriptive Approach. Analysis collect samples of the language they are interested and they describe the structures of the language. We have got two different categories under this approach; Structural Analysis and Immediate Constituent Analysis.

## Structural Analysis

One type of descriptive approach. The method employed involves the use of “ test-frames “ which can be sentences with empty slots in them.

Ex.The \_\_\_\_\_ makes a lot of noise.

- “ Donkey, car, radio, etc... “ fit in the same test-frame and they are the examples of the same grammatical category “ noun “. But “ a dog, the car “ don’t fit the test-frame .

## Immediate Constituent Analysis

This approach is designed to show how small constituents (components) in sentences go together to form larger constituents. (Analyzing the sentence by dividing it into different categories such as “ noun phrase “ , “ verb phrase “ , and “ prepositional phrase “ .

Ex. Her father brought a shotgun to the wedding.

Her father => noun phrase

brought a shotgun => verb phrase

to the wedding => prepositional phrase .

## UNIT 9

# SYNTAX

If we concentrate on the structure and ordering of components within a sentence, we are studying what is technically known as the syntax of a language. Syntax means “ a setting out together “ or “ arrangement”.

## Generative Grammar

If the sentences of a language can be seen as a comparable set, then there must be a set of explicit rules which yield those sentences. Such a set of explicit rules is a “ generative grammar “.

Some properties of grammar :

- 1- The grammar will generate all the well-formed syntactic structures and fail to generate any ill-formed structures.
- 2- The grammar will have a finite number of rules, but will be capable of generating an infinite number of well-formed structures.
- 3- The rules of this grammar will need the property of recursion.



## Recursion

The capacity to be applied more than once in generating a structure.

4- This grammar also shows how some superficially distinct sentences are closely related and how some superficially similar sentences are in fact distinct.

## Deep and Surface Structures

Charlie broke the window.

The window was broken by Charlie.

Their syntactic forms are different. One is an active sentence, the other is a passive one. So it can be said that they differ in “ surface structure “ , however, their deep structures are identical. They carry the same meaning . The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organisation in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented.

## Structural Ambiguity

Annie whecked a man with an umbrella.

This sentence is structurally ambiguous since it has two underlying interpretations which would be represented differently in the deep structure.

## Diffrent Approaches

There continue to be many different approaches among those who claim to analyze language in terms of generative grammar, and many more among those who are critical of the whole system.

## Tree Diagrams

It is a way of showing all the constituents in a hierarchical order. Refer to page 105.

## Phrase Structure Rules

We can simply treat tree diagram as a static representation of the structure of the sentence at the bottom of the diagram. The alternative view is to treat the diagram as a dynamic format, in the sense that it represents a way of “ generating “ not only that sentence but a very large number of sentences with only a small number of rules. These are called “ phrase structure rules “ .

## Back to Recursion

The phrase structure rules have no recursive elements. However, we have to be able to repeat some symbols on the right side of the arrow.

Mary helped George.

In the sentence above there are no recursive elements. But ;

Cathy thought Mary helped George or ,

John said Cathy thought Mary helped George .

Have recursive elements . In these sentences we need to add V and PN to our lexical rules.

## Transformational Rules

- a- George helped Mary yesterday.
- b- Yesterday George helped Mary.

Phrase structure rules will generate all sentences with fixed word order to the constituents. So sentence “ a “ will be defined by phrase structure rules easily while sentence “ b “ will not. Here we have to transform some of the elements. Refer to page 108.

# UNIT 10

## SEMANTICS

It is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences.

Linguistic semantics deals with the conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words and sentences of a language.

## Conceptual and Associative Meaning

Conceptual Meaning covers these basic, essential components of meaning which are conveyed by the literal use of a word. E.g needle : thin , sharp, steel, instrument.

Associative Meaning is the idea, connection what that specific word brings to you. E.g needle : painful



## Semantic Features

e.g. The hamburger ate the man.

This sentence is syntactically perfect :  $S \Rightarrow NP + VP ( V + NP )$

But the meaning is not acceptable. The verb and the subject do not relate each other.

We identify the meaning by analyzing some features . (page 116 : table)

## Semantic Roles

### Agent, Theme, Instrument

Mary wrote the letter with my pen.

a- Agent : The entity that performs the action ( Mary ) .

b- Theme : The entity that is involved in or affected by the action ( the letter ) .

c- Instrument : The entity that is used by the agent to perform the action ( my pen ) .

## Experiences , Location, Source, Goal

a- Experiences : When a noun phrase ( as the person ) performs an action including a feeling, a perception do not actually perform the action, it happen by itself and you feel it.

e.g Mary saw a mosquito on the wall. saw => experiences

Mary cooked the meal last night. cooked => agent

b- Location : The direction or the place of an entity.

e.g. Mary saw a mosquito on the wall. => on the wall

c- Source is where an entity moves from and Goal is where an entity moves to . e.g Sally borrowed some Money from Tom bought a birthday present and gave it to Sam.

Tom => source Sam => goal

## Lexical Relations

- **Synonymy** : 2 or more forms with very closely related meanings.

e.g broad – wide , hide – conceal

- **Antonyms** : 2 forms of with opposite meaning .

e.g quick – slow . big – small

- **Gradable Antonyms** : Antonyms that can be used in comparative constructions.

e.g bigger than – smaller than

the negative of one member of the pair does not necessarily imply the other

e.g. That dog is not old. (It does not have to mean “ that dog is young“)

.

- **Non – Gradable Antonyms ( Complementary Pairs )** : Comparative constructions are not normally used, and the negative of one member does imply the other.

e.g. deader / more dead => not possible

e.g. that person is not dead : that person is alive.

## **Reversies**

They do the opposite of the other action.

e.g. tie – untie , enter – exit

## Hyponymy

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy.

e. g . rose – flower , carrot – vegetable

rose is a hyponymy of flower - carrot is a hyponymy of vegetable

Co – Hyponymy / Super ordinate

Animal ( super ordinate ) => horse / dog / bird

Horse, dog , bird => co- hyponymys of animal

## Prototypes

A prototype is the best example of a category.

## Homophony

When two or more different written forms have the same pronunciation they are described as homophones.

e.g bear – bare , meet – meat, write - right

## Homonymy

We use the term homonymy when one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings.

e.g bank ( bank – of a river ) , (bank – financial institution )

## Polysemy

when one form ( written and spoken ) has multiple meanings which are all related by extension .

e. g . head => top of your body / top of a glass of beer / top of a company



## Metonymy

A type of relation between words based simply on a close connection in everyday experience.

e.g. bottle – coke ( a container – contents relation )

car – wheels ( a whole – part relation )

king – crown ( a representative – symbol relation )

## Collocation

the words that naturally go together.

e. g. hammer – nail

table – chair

salt – pepper

They frequently occur together.

## **UNIT 11 :**

# **PRAGMATICS**

The study of what speakers mean, or 'speaker meaning', is called Pragmatics.

## Invisible Meaning

Pragmatics is the study of invisible meaning or how we recognize what is meant even when it is not actually said. Speakers depend on a lot of shared assumptions and expectations. You use the meanings of the words, in combination, and the context in which they occur, and you try to arrive at what the writer of the sign intended his message to convey. E.g. Baby and Toddler sale – Not selling children but selling clothes for babies.

## Context

We have got two kinds of contexts.

1- one kind is best described as linguistic context, also known as co-text. The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence.

e.g. I get to the bank to cash a cheque.

Bank is homonym. By looking at other words in the sentence we know which type of bank is intended.

2- another type of context is described as physical context . Our understanding of what we read and hear is tied to the physical context, particularly the time and place.

e.g. The word bank on the wall of a building in a city.

## Dexis

There are some words in the language that can not be interpreted at all unless the physical context is known. “ here, there, this, that, now, then, yesterday, come “ , pronouns, such as “ I , you, him, her, them “ .

e.g. You will have to bring that back tomorrow, because they are not here now. – this sentence is vague. You, that, tomorrow, they, here , now => these expressions are called deictic.

Person deixis : expressions used to point to a person.

Place deixis : words used to point to a location.

Time deixis : expressions used to point to a time.

There is a distinction between what is marked as close to the speaker ( this, that, now ) . What is marked as distant ( that, there, then ) .

## Reference

Reference is an act by which a speaker uses language to enable a listener to identify something.

e.g. Can I look at your Chomsky ?

Chomsky refers to sth. The key process here is called inference. An inference is any additional information used by the listener to connect what is said to what must be meant . The listener has to infer that the name of the writer of a book can be used to identify a book by that writer.

## Anaphora

- Can I have your book ?
- Yeah, it is on the table.

The second underlined referring expression is an example of anaphora and the first mention is called antecedent. “ Book “ is antecedent, “ it “ is the anaphoric expression.

## Presupposition

Speakers design their linguistic messages on the basis of assumptions about what their hearers already know. What a speaker assumes is true or known by the hearer can be described as presupposition.

e.g. Your brother is waiting for you. – There is a presupposition that you have a brother.

“ Constancy under negation “ test is applied for presupposition.

My car is wreck. / my car is not wreck. => “ I have a car “ remains true in both.



## Speech Acts

The use of the term “ speech act “ covers actions such as requesting , commanding, questioning, informing. We use some linguistic forms with some functions.

When a speaker does not know sth and asks the hearer to provide the information, she typically produce a direct speech act.

e.g Can you ride a bike ?

Some questions are not about your ability to do sth.

You would not treat it as a question at all. Such an expression is described as an indirect speech act.

e.g. Can you pass the salt ?

## Politeness

Politeness is showing awareness of another person's face. Your face is your public self-image. **Face – threatening act** represents a threat to another person's self image. Whenever you say sth that lessens the possible treat to another's face . It is called a face – saving act.

## Negative and positive face

You have both a negative and a positive face. Your negative face is the need to be independent and to have freedom from imposition. Your positive face is your need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of the group.

## UNIT 12

### DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

How language – users interpret what other language users intent to convey is based discourse. To interpret discourse , we use correct and incorrect form and structure. But that is not enough. Because an ungrammatical sentence may convey a message , we make sense of it As language users , we have more knowledge than that.

## Cohesion

Cohesion can be described as ties and connections which exist within a text. Pronouns , references , lexical connections , terms which share a common element of meaning , connectors are cohesive links within a text which give us some insight in our judgements on whether something is well-written or not.

## Coherence

We need to create meaningful connections which are not actually expressed by the words and sentences. We need to fill in a lot of gaps which exist in the text. This factor is described as coherence. If there are no cohesive ties within a fragment of discourse, we can understand them in terms of the conventional actions performed by the speakers.

## Speech Events

We need to specify the roles of speaker and hearer and their relationship , whether they were friends , strangers , young , old , of equal or unequal status and many other factors. All of these factors will have an influence on what is said and how it is said.

## Conversational interaction (analysis)

Two or more people take turns at speaking. Participants wait until one speaker indicates that he or she has finished , usually by signaling a completion point. We have different conventions of turns – taking ; cutting in an another speaker or waiting for an opportunity to take a turn.

## Turn-taking

A turn is the time when a speaker is talking and **turn-taking** is the skill of knowing when to start and finish a turn in a conversation.



## The Co-operative Principle

In a conversational exchange , the participants are co-operating with each other. We have four maxims to be obeyed.

Quantity : As informative as required

Quality : Say that which you believe to be true.

Relation : Be relevant

Manner : Be clear , brief and orderly

Implicature is an additional conveyed meaning. To describe the conversational implicature , we have to appeal to some background knowledge that must be shared by the conversational participants.

## Background Knowledge

We actually create what the text is about based on our expectations of what normally happens.

A Schema is a term for a conventional knowledge. Structure which exists in memory. One particular schema is a script. A script is dynamic in which a series of conventional actions takes place.

## **UNIT 13**

# **LANGUAGE and THE BRAIN**

Neurolinguistics, the study of relationship between language and the brain.

## Parts of the brain

The brain has two basic parts : The left hemisphere, and the right hemisphere. We will first concentrate on the left hemisphere.

**Broca's Area** ( the anterior speech cortex )

It deals with producing speech.

**Wernicke's Area** ( the posterior speech cortex )

It deals with comprehension.

**The Motor Cortex**

It controls movement of muscles, when speaking face, jaw, tongue, and larynx.

## The Arcuate Fasciculus

It forms a crucial connection between Wernicke's area and Broca's area.

## The Localization View

The word is heard and comprehended by Wernicke's area, the signal is transferred via the arcuate fasciculus to Broca's area where preparations are made to produce it. A signal is then sent to the motor cortex to physically articulate the word. But this is an oversimplified version of what may actually take place. We have neglected to mention the intricate interconnections via the central nervous system, the complex role of the brain's supply, and the extremely interdependent nature of most brain functions. The localization view is one way to say that our linguistic abilities have identifiable locations in the brain.

## Tongue Tips and Slips

- **The Tip of the Tongue** : You feel that some word is just eluding you, that you know the word.

- **Slip of the tongue** : Tangled expressions.

e.g. long shorty stort (long story short) or word reversals: (spoonerism)

e.g. use the door to open the key

Although the slips of the tongue are mostly treated as errors of articulation, it has been suggested that they many result from “ slips of the brain “ as it tries to organize linguistic messages.

- **Slip of the ear** : A type of misunderstanding.

e.g. Have you seen the great ape ? But the speaker said “ grey tape “

## Aphasia

Aphasia is defined as impairment of language function due to localized cerebral damage which leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms.

### Broca's Aphasia ( Motor Aphasia )

It is serious language disorder characterized by a substantially reduced amount of speech, distorted articulation and slow often effortful speech. They generally use lexical morphemes but not functional morphemes. In Broca's aphasia comprehension is typically much better than production.

## Wernick's Aphasia ( Sensory Aphasia )

The type of language disorder which results in difficulties in auditory comprehension is sometimes called “ sensory aphasia “ someone suffering from this disorder can actually produce very fluent speech which is, however, often difficult to make sense of it.

## Conduction Aphasia

It is identified with damage to the arcuate fasciculus. This time people do not have articulation problems but may have disrupted rhythm because of pauses and hesitations.

Comprehension of spoken words is normally good. But repeating a word or phrase ( spoken by someone else ) will create major difficulties. What is heard and understood can not be transferred to the speech production area.



## Dichotic Listening

Anything experienced on the right-hand side of the body is processed in the left hemisphere of the brain and anything on the left side is processed in the right hemisphere. So a signal coming in the right ear will go to the left hemisphere and a signal coming in the left ear will go to the right hemisphere.

In Dichotic Listening Test, a subject sits with a set of earphones on and is given two different sound signals simultaneously. When asked to say what was heard, the subject more often correctly identifies the sound which came via the right ear. This is known as right-ear advantage. The right hemisphere appears to have primary responsibility for processing a lot of other incoming signals of non linguistic nature. So the right-hemisphere handles non-verbal sounds and the left-hemisphere handles language sounds.

## UNIT 14

# FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

There is some innate disposition in the human infant to acquire language. This can be called as the “ language-faculty” of the human with each newborn child is endowed. By itself, this faculty is not enough.

## Basic Requirements

- 1- Acquiring the first language interaction with other language users in order to bring the language faculty into operation.
- 2- The child who does not hear or isn't allowed to use language will learn no language. Hearing is necessary but not enough.
- 3- The crucial requirement appears to be the opportunity to interact with others via language. Since it is not genetically inherited, it is acquired in a particular language using environment.

## The Acquisition Schedule

Language acquisition schedule has the same basis as the biologically determined development of motor skills. This biological schedule is tied to the maturation of the infant's brain and the lateralization process. This biological program is dependent on an interplay with many social factors in the child's environment. Acquisition requires constant input from which the basis of the regularities in the particular language can be worked out.

## Caretaker Speech

The simplified speech style adopted by someone who spends a lot of time interacting with a young child is called caretaker speech. ( Motherese ) Frequent questions, exaggerated intonation, simplified words and structures and a lot of repetition characterize caretaker's speech.

## Pre-language Stages

The pre-linguistic sounds are called “cooing” and “babbling” ( from about 3 months to 10 months ). First recognizable sounds are described as Cooing with velar consonants such as [k] and [g] as well as high vowels such as [i] and . ( By 3 months )

By 6 months, the child can produce a number of different vowels and consonants such as fricatives and nasals. Babbling stage may contain syllable type sounds such as “mu” and “da”. Around 9 months, there are recognizable intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced. Around 10th and 11th months, they are capable of using their vocalization to express emotions and emphasis.

## The One Word or Holophrastic Stage

Between 12-18 months, they produce single units utterances. ( Milk, Cookie, Cat ) . It is holophrastic because the child can use a single form functioning as a phrase or sentence. ( What's that ? )

## The Two-Word Stage

Between 12 months and 24 months , the child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty distinct words. A variety of combinations appear in this stage ( mummy eat, cat bed ) . The child not only produces speech but receives feedback which usually confirms that the utterance worked. Children can understand five times as many than they produce.

## Telegraphic Speech

Between 2 and 3 years old, the child begins producing a large number of utterances which could be classified as multiple-word utterances. Word-form variations begin to appear. The child has clearly developed some sentence-building capacity by this stage and can order the forms correctly. By the age of two and a half, the child's vocabulary is expanding rapidly and the child is initiating more talk. By three, the vocabulary has grown to hundreds of words and pronunciation has become closer to the form of the adult language.



## The Acquisition Process

For the vast majority of children, no one provides any instruction on how to speak the language, the child is not being taught the language. Children actively construct, from what's said to them, possible ways of using the language and test whether they work or not. It's impossible to say that the child is acquiring the language through a process of consistently imitating adult speech in parrot-fashion. Adults simply don't produce many of the types of expressions which turn up in children's speech.

## Morphology

By the time the child is 3 years old, he starts to use some of the inflectional morphemes which indicate the grammatical function of the nouns and verbs used. First, -ing form appears in expressions such as “cat sitting”. Then plural morpheme –s comes as in “boys”. Acquisition of this form is often accompanied by a process of overgeneralization (adding –s to form plurals as in foots, mans). Then possessive inflectional –’s occurs as in “Mummy’s book”. Irregular past-tense forms appear before –ed inflection in child’s speech. Finally the regular –s marker on third person singular present tense verbs appears. –s occurs with full verbs first (comes, looks) and then with auxiliaries (does, has).

## Syntax

In the formation of questions and the use of negatives there appear to be three identifiable stages. Stage 1 occurs between 18 and 26 months, Stage 2 between 22 and 30 months and Stage 3 between 24 and 40 months. ( Different children proceed at different paces ) .

## Questions

Stage 1 : Simply add a WH- form to the beginning or utter the expression with a rising intonation.

Where kitty?

Sit chair ?

Stage 2 : More complex expressions can be formed but raising intonation strategy continues to be used.

Why you smiling ?

You want eat ?

Stage 3 : Inversion appears but the WH- forms don't always undergo the required inversion.

Can I have a piece ?

Will you help me ?

Why kitty can't stand up?

## Negatives

**Stage 1 :** “No” or “Not” should be at the beginning of any expression.

No fall

No sit there

**Stage 2 :** “Don’t” and “ can’t” appear but “no” and “not” are still used but in front of the verb.

He no bite you.

I don't know.

You can't dance.

**Stage 3 :** “Didn’t” and “ won’t” appear. Acquisition of the form “isn’t” is the latest.

I didn't caught it.

She won't let go.

He not taking it.

## Semantic

During the holophrastic stage, many children use their limited vocabulary to refer to a large number of unrelated objects ( bow-wow to refer to a dog ). Sometimes children use bow-wow to refer to cats and horses. This is called “ overextension “ which is done on the basis of similarities of shape, sound and size. The semantic development in child is use of words is usually a process of overextension initially, followed by a gradual process of narrowing down the application of each term as more words are learned. In terms of hyponymy, the child will almost always use the middle level term in a hyponymous set such as animal – dog –poodle. It also seems that antonymous relations are acquired fairly late. By the age of 5, the child has completed the greater part of basic language acquisition process. According to some, the child is then in a good position to start learning a second language.

## UNIT 15

# SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION/LEARNING

### Acquisition Barriers

- 1- Most people attempt to learn another language during their teenage or adult years.
- 2- In a few hours each week of school time.
- 3- With a lot of other occupations.
- 4- With an already known language available for most of their daily communicative requirements.
- 5- Adults' tongues get stiff from pronouncing one type of long and just can not cope with the new sounds of another language. ( There is no physical evidence to support it. )

## Acquisition and Learning

Acquisition refers to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations.

Learning refers to conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of a language.

- Even in ideal acquisition situations, very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using a second language. There are one individuals who can achieve great expertise in writing, but not in speaking. This might suggest that some features (vocabulary, grammar) of a second language are easier to acquire than others ( phonology ) .



- After the Critical Period ( around puberty ) , it becomes very difficult to acquire another language fully. Because long faculty being strongly taken over by the features of the L1 loses its flexibility or openness to receive the features of another language. For the second language, the optimum age may be during the years from ten to sixteen when the flexibility of the language acquisition faculty hasn't been completely last and the maturation of cognitive skills allows a more effective “ working out “ of the regular features of the L2 encountered.

## The Affective Filter

Affect is a type of emotional reaction. Affective filter is a kind of barrier to acquisition that results from negative feelings or experiences. If you are stressed, uncomfortable, self-conscious or unmotivated, you are unlikely to learn anything.

- Children seem to be less constrained by the effective filter.

## Focus on Method

A variety of educational approaches and methods which are aimed at fostering L2 learning has been led. In 1483, William Caxton used his newly established course material for L2 learners. It was in phrase book format.

## Grammar-Translation Method

Long lists of words and a set of grammatical rules have to be memorized and the written language rather than the spoken language is emphasized. It is inefficient because it is not focused on how the language is used.

## Audio-Lingual Method

It emphasizes the spoken language moving the simple to the more complex in the form of drills which the student had to repeat. FLL is a mechanical process of habit formation. Its critics pointed out that isolated practise in drilling language patterns bears no resemblance to the interactional nature of actual language use. It can also be boring.

## Communicative Approaches

Against the artificiality, the functions of language should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language. ( Asking for things in different social contexts rather than the forms of the past tense in different sentences. )

## Focus on Learner

An error is not something which hinders a student's progress, but is a clue to the active learning process being made by a student as he or she tries out ways of communicating in the new language.

## Creative Construction

Creative construction is used by the learner in accordance with the most general way of making forms in English. (Women's is formed by using the most general way of making plural forms which is also called overgeneralization.) Some errors may be due to the transfer of expressions or structures from the L1. If the L1 and the L2 have similar features, then the learner may be able to benefit from the Positive Transfer of L1 knowledge. Transferring a L1 feature that is really different from L2 results in Negative Transfer which isn't effective for L2 communication. (inference)

## Interlanguage

There is some in-between system used in L2 acquisition which contains aspects of L1 and L2 but which is an inherently variable system with rules of its own. This system is called an Interlanguage and it is basis of all L2 production. If a learner's L2 forms contain many features which don't match the target language, they don't progress any further and their interlanguage is fossilized.

## Motivation

Students who experience some success are among the most motivated to learn. And motivation may be as much a result of success as a cause. The learner who is willing to guess, risks making mistakes and tries to communicate in the L2 will tend, given the opportunity to be more successful.

## Input and Output

Input is the language that the learner is exposed. It has to be compressible by using simpler structure and vocabulary in a variety of speech known as foreigner talk. It provides the beginning learner with clearer examples of the basic structure of the L2 as input.

Negotiated input is the L2 material that the learner can acquire in interaction through requests for clarification and active attention being focused on what's said.

Output is the language which learners produce in meaningful interaction. The opportunity to produce it is the most crucial factor in the learner's development of L2 abilities. Task-based learning provides learners opportunities to interact with each other.



## Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is using the L2 accurately, appropriately and flexibly. It has got three components. The first component is grammatical competence which involves the accurate use of words and structures in the L2. Sociolinguistic competence provides the learner with the ability to interpret or produce language appropriately. Strategic competence is the ability to organize message effectively and to compensate for any difficulties. ( using a communicative strategy not to stop talking – defining the word you don't know )

## Applied Linguistics

It is the area which investigates the relation between language and other fields as Education, Psychology, Sociology.

# UNIT 16

## GESTURES AND SIGN LANGUAGES

### Gestures

Although both Sign and gestures involve the use of hands, they are rather different.

Sign is like speech and is used instead of speaking, whereas gestures are mostly used while speaking.

## Emblems

They are the signals such as "thumbs up" or "shush" that function like fixed phrases and do not depend on speech.

## Types of gestures

Within the set of gestures that accompany speech, we can distinguish between those that echo, in some way, the content of the spoken message and those that indicate something being referred to.

**Iconics** are gestures that seem to be a reflection of meaning of what is said, as when we trace a square in air with a finger while saying "I am looking for a small box"

## Deictics

The term 'deictic' means 'pointing' and we often use gestures to point to things or people while talking. We can use deictics in the current context, as when we use a hand to indicate a table (with a cake on it) and ask someone Would you like some cake? We can also use the same gesture and the same table (with cake no longer on it) when we later say That cake was delicious. In this case, the gesture and the speech combine to accomplish successful reference to something that only exists in joint memory rather than in the current physical space.

## Beats

Beats are short quick movements of the hand or fingers. These gestures accompany the rhythm of talk and are often used to emphasize parts of what is being said or to mark a change from describing events in a story to commenting on those events.

As with other gestures, these hand movements accompany speech, but are not typically used as a way of speaking. When hand movements are used in order to 'speak', we can describe them as part of a sign language.

## **UNIT 17**

# **LANGUAGE, HISTORY and CHANGE**

Languages are believed to be descendants on the basis of similar features existing in records.

## Family Tree

Historical study of languages is described as philology. These studies incorporated the notion that this was the original form (proto) of a language which was the source of modern languages in the Indian-sub-continent (Indo) and in Europe (European). Proto-Indo-European was established as the great-grandmother of many modern languages. (German, Italian, English). There are about 30 such language families which have produced the more than 4000 languages in the world. In terms of numbers of speakers, Chinese ( 1 billion ), English ( 350 million ), Spanish ( 300 million ), Hindi ( 200 million ) and Arabic and Russian ( 150 million ) are used in the world. But English is more widely used one of all.



## Family Relationships

Language groups in a language family are related. So Indo-European languages are related to each other. One way to see the relationships more clearly is by looking at records of an older generation from which the modern languages developed. The fact that close similarities occur (especially in the pronunciation of the forms) is good evidence for proposing a family connection.

## Cognates

Within groups of related languages, we often find close similarities in particular sets of terms. A cognate of a word in one language is a word in another language which has a similar form and is used with a similar meaning.

True Cognates : Radio, Television, Empathy

False Cognates : Apartment, Sympathetic

## Comparative Reconstruction

The aim of this procedure is to reconstruct what must have been the original or proto form in the common ancestral language. In carrying out this procedure, there are some general principles:

**The Majority Principle:** If in a cognate set, 3 forms begin with a [p] sound and one form begins with [b] sound, the majority have retained the original sound [p].

**The Most Natural Development Principle:** It's based on the fact that certain types of sound-change are very common, whereas others are extremely unlikely.

Types of sound change :

- 1- Final vowels often disappear ( cavallo-caval )
- 2- Voiceless sounds become voice between vowels ( mube-mupe )

- 3- Stops become fricatives ( under certain conditions ) ( cavallo-cheval )
- 4- Consonants become voiceless at the end of the words

## Language Change

Written forms from an older period of a language may not bear any resemblance to the written English to be found in our daily newspaper. Languages undergo some substantial changes through time. Historical development of English is usually divided into three periods :

**Old English ( 7th-11th century )** : The primary sources for English languages were the Germanic languages spoken by a group of tribes from northern Europe who invaded the British Isles in the 5th century AD. These tribes were Angles, Saxons and Jutes from the 6th to 8th century, there was a period in which these Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity and a number of terms from the language of religion, Latin, came into English at that time. From the 8th century through the 10th century, Vikings and their language, old Norse, came to settle in, parts of the coastal regions of Britain.

**Middle English ( 12th-16th century )** : This period starts with the arrival of the Norman French in English in 1066. These French-speaking invaders proceeded to take over the whole of England. They became the ruling class, so that the language of nobility, the government, the law and civilized behaviour in England for the next 2 hundred years was French. In the late 14th century, it has changed substantially from Old English but several changes were yet to take place before the language took on its modern form. Borrowed words, external changes and internal changes can be noted in the development of English.

## Sound Changes

One of the differences between the Modern English and the Middle English is in quality of vowel sounds. ( Long vowels are shortened ) .  
Some sounds disappeared from the general pronunciation of English ( /x/ in (nixt) nicht

The change known as “**Metathesis**” involves a reversal in position of two adjoining or non-adjoining sounds.

e.g. acsian-ask

bridd-bird

waeps-wasp

frist-first

Another change involves three addition of a sound to the middle of a word which is known as “**Epenthesis**”.



e.g. aemptig-empty  
spinel-spindle

Another change involves the addition of a sound to the beginning of a word and is called “**Prothesis**”.

e.g. schola-escuela  
Spiritus-espiritu

## Syntactic Changes

In Old English, we can find a number of different orders which are no longer possible. For ex. Subject can follow the verb and the object can be placed before the verb at the beginning of a sentence. Double negative construction was also possible. We can also see the loss of a large number of inflectional affixes from many parts of speech.

## Lexical Changes

Modern English differs lexically from Old English in the number of borrowed words, particularly from Latin and Greek. Some words are no longer in general use in Modern English since we no longer need those things. Broadening is kind of lexical change in which a word which carries a specific meaning is used as a general term. ( Holy day- Holiday ) Reverse process is called Narrowing. A word which is used as a general term become restricted to only some specific things. ( meat – any food meat – a specific food )

## The Process of Change

Changes are gradual and difficult to discern while they are in progress. Major social changes, wars, invasions and cultural transmission can be linked to language change. Each new language-user has to recreate for himself the language of the community. There is also occasional desire to be different.

## Diachronic and synchronic variation

Diachronically, that is, from the historical perspective of change through time. The type of variation that can be viewed synchronically, that is, in terms of differences within one language in different places and among different groups at the same time.



# UNIT 18

## LANGUAGE AND REGIONAL VARIATION

### The Standard Language

Standard English is the variety which forms the basis of printed English in newspapers and books, which is used in the mass media and which is taught in schools. It is more easily described in terms of the written language than the spoken language.

## Accent and Dialect

Accent is the description of aspects of pronunciation which identify where an individual speaker is from, regionally or socially.

Dialect describes features of grammar and vocabulary, as well as aspects of pronunciation.

## Dialectology

Despite occasional difficulties, there is a general impression of mutual intelligibility among many speakers of different dialects of English. This is one of the criteria used in the study of dialects, or dialectology, to distinguish between two different dialects of the same language (whose speakers can usually understand each other) and two different languages (whose speakers can't usually understand each other).



## Regional Dialects

Some regional dialects clearly have stereotyped pronunciations associated with them. The informants in many dialect surveys tended to be NORMS, or non-mobile, older, rural, male speakers. Such speakers were selected because it was believed that they were less likely to have influences from outside the region in their speech.

## Isoglosses and Dialect Boundaries

Isogloss is the line which represents a boundary between the areas with regard to that one particular linguistic item. ( e.g. paper bag / paper sack )

Dialect Boundary is a more solid line of a number of isoglosses.

## The Dialect Continuum

Isoglosses and dialect boundaries don't have sharp breaks from one region to the next, they exist along a continuum.

Speakers who move back and forth across this border, using different varieties with some ease, may be described as bilialectal.

## Bilingualism

People who know two distinct languages are called **bilinguals**. Bilingualism can be resulted from political, social or individual.

A rather special situation involving two distinct varieties of a language, called **diglossia**, exists in some countries. In diglossia, there is a “low” variety, acquired locally and used for everyday affairs, and a “high” or special variety, learned in school and used for important matters. A type of diglossia exists in Arabic-speaking countries where the high variety (Classical Arabic) is used in formal lectures, serious political events and especially in religious discussions.

## Language Planning

Government, legal and educational bodies in many countries have to plan which varieties of the language spoken in the country are to be used for official business. Language planning has five steps :

- 1- “ Selection “ : Choosing an official language.
- 2- “ Codification “ : Basic grammars, dictionaries and written models used to establish the standard variety.
- 3- “ Elaboration “ : The standard variety being developed for use in all aspects of social life and the appearance of a body of literary work written in the standard.
- 4- “ Implementation “ : Government encourages use of the standard.
- 5- “ Acceptance “ : When a substantial majority of the population have come to use the standard as the national language, not only social, but also national identity.

## Pidgins and Creoles

A pidgin is a variety of a language ( e.g. English ) which developed for some practical purpose ( e.g. trading ). The English Pidgins are characterized by an absence of any complex grammatical morphology and a limited vocabulary. E.g. : plural – s and possessive – ‘s are very rare in the English Pidgins.

e.g. : Functional morphemes often take the place of inflectional morphemes found in the source language.

( instead of your they use belong you )

Your book = buk bilong yu

When a Pidgin develops beyond its role as a trade language and becomes the first language of a social community, it is described as a **Creole**. A Creole develops as the first language of the children of Pidgin speakers. Creoles have large numbers of native speakers and are not restricted at all in their uses.

### The Past Creole Continuum

“ Creolization “ : Development from a Pidgin to a Creole.

“ Decreolization “ : Development from a Creole to a variety that is closer to the external standard models.

The more basic variety is called “ basilect “ .

The variety closer to the external model is “ Acrolect “ .

Between these two there’s a range of different varieties : “ Mesolects “ .

This is called the Past-Creole Continuum.

## UNIT 19

# LANGUAGE AND SOCIAL VARIATION

### Sociolinguistics

The term sociolinguistics is used generally for the study of the relationship between language and society. This is a broad area of investigation that developed through the interaction of linguistics with a number of other academic disciplines.



## Social dialects

Whereas the traditional study of regional dialects tended to concentrate on the speech of people in rural areas, the study of social dialects has been mainly concerned with speakers in towns and cities. When we look for other examples of language use that might be characteristic of a social dialect, we treat class as the social variable and the pronunciation or word as the linguistic variable

## Education and occupation

Although the unique circumstances of every life result in each of us having an individual way of speaking, a personal dialect or idiolect, we generally tend to sound like others with whom we share similar educational backgrounds and/or occupations.

## Social markers

The significance of the linguistic variable (r) can be virtually the opposite in terms of social status in two different places, yet in both places the patterns illustrate how the use of this particular speech sound functions as a social marker. That is, having this feature occur frequently in your speech (or not) marks you as a member of a particular social group, whether you realize it or not.

## Speech style and style-shifting

Speech style is a social feature of language use. The most basic distinction in speech style is between formal uses and informal uses. Formal style is when we pay more careful attention to how we're speaking and informal style is when we pay less attention. They are sometimes described as "careful style" and "casual style."

A change from one to the other by an individual is called style-shifting.

## Prestige

In discussing style-shifting, we introduced the idea of a “prestige” form as a way of explaining the direction in which certain individuals change their speech. When that Language and social variation change is in the direction of a form that is more frequent in the speech of those perceived to have higher social status, we are dealing with **overt prestige**, or status that is generally recognized as “better” or more positively valued in the larger community.

There is, however, another phenomenon called **covert prestige**. This “hidden” status of a speech style as having positive value may explain why certain groups do not exhibit style-shifting to the same extent as other groups.

## Speech accommodation

As we look more closely at variation in speech style, we can see that it is not only a function of speakers' social class and attention to speech, but it is also influenced by their perception of their listeners. This type of variation is sometimes described in terms of "audience design," but is more generally known as speech accommodation, defined as our ability to modify our speech style toward or away from the perceived style of the person(s) we're talking to. We can adopt a speech style that attempts to reduce social distance, described as **convergence**, and use forms that are similar to those used by the person we're talking to.

In contrast, when a speech style is used to emphasize social distance between speakers, the process is called **divergence**. We can make our

speech style diverge from another's by using forms that are distinctly different.

## Register and jargon

A **register** is a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific context, which may be identified as situational (e.g. in church), occupational (e.g. among lawyers) or topical (e.g. talking about language).

One of the defining features of a register is the use of **jargon**, which is special technical vocabulary (e.g. plaintiff, suffix) associated with a specific area of work or interest. In social terms, jargon helps to create and maintain connections among those who see themselves as “insiders” in some way and to exclude “outsiders.”

## Slang

Whereas jargon is specialized vocabulary used by those inside established social groups, often defined by professional status (e.g. legal jargon), slang is more typically used among those who are outside established higher-status groups. Slang, or “colloquial speech,” describes words or phrases that are used instead of more everyday terms among younger speakers and other groups with special interests.

## Vernacular language

The term “vernacular” has been used since the Middle Ages, first to describe local European languages (low prestige) in contrast to Latin (high prestige), then to characterize any non-standard spoken version of a language used by lower status groups. So, the vernacular is a general expression for a kind of social dialect, typically spoken by a lower-status group, which is treated as “non-standard” because of



marked differences from the “standard” language

## UNIT 20

# LANGUAGE and CULTURE

### Culture

We use the term culture to refer to all the ideas and assumptions about the nature of things and people that we learn when we become members of social groups. It can be defined as “socially acquired knowledge.”

## Categories

Although there is a lot of variation among all the individual “dogs” in our experience, we can use the word dog to talk about any one of them as a member of the category. A category is a group with certain features in common and we can think of the vocabulary we learn as an inherited set of category labels. These are the words for referring to concepts that people in our social world have typically needed to talk about.

## Kinship terms

Some of the clearest examples of lexicalized categories are words used to refer to people who are members of the same family, or kinship terms. All languages have kinship terms (e.g. brother, mother, grandmother), but they don't all put family members into categories in the same way. In some languages, the equivalent of the word father is used not only for "male parent," but also for "male parent's brother."

## Time concepts

To take a more abstract example, when we learn a word such as week or weekend, we are inheriting a conceptual system that operates with amounts of time as common categories. Having words for units of time such as “two days” or “seven days” shows that we can think of time (i.e. something abstract) in amounts, using noun phrases, in the same way as “two people” or “seven books” (i.e. something physical).

## Linguistic relativity

This is often discussed in terms of linguistic relativity because it seems that the structure of our language, with its predetermined categories, must have an influence on how we perceive the world. In its **weak version**, this idea simply captures the fact that we not only talk, but to a certain extent probably also think about the world of experience, using the categories provided by our language. Our first language seems to have a definite role in shaping “habitual thought,” that is, the way we think about things as we go about our daily lives, without analyzing how we’re thinking.

There is a **stronger version** of this idea, called linguistic determinism, which holds that “language determines thought.” If language does indeed determine thought, then we will only be able to think in the categories provided by our language. For example, English speakers use one word for “snow,” and generally see all that white stuff as one thing. In contrast, so the argument goes, Eskimos look out at all the white stuff and see it as many different things because they have lots of different words for “snow.” So, the category system inherent in the language determines how the speaker interprets and articulates experience.

## The Sapir–Whorf hypothesis

The general analytic perspective we are considering is part of what became known as the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis during the middle of the twentieth century. At a time when American linguistics was still mainly carried out by scholars with strong backgrounds in anthropology, Edward Sapir and Benjamin Whorf produced arguments that the languages of Native Americans, such as the Hopi, led them to view the world differently from those who spoke European languages.



