Introduction to Linguistics

Instructor : Ghassan Adnan

AD 2013 _ AH 1434

1ST LECTURE

Animals and human language:

- **Communication:**

We should first distinguish between **communicative signals** and **informative signals.**

- Informative Signals:

If someone is listening to you, he /she may be informed about you through a number of signals that you have not intentionally sent. For example, he /she may note that you have a cold (you sneezed), that you are not at ease (you shifted around in your seat), that your are disorganized (non-matching socks).

- Communicative Signals:

When you use language to tell this person, *I'm one of the applicants for the vacant position of senior brain surgeon at the hospital*, you are normally considered to be intentionally communicating something.

- Informative Signals:

The blackbird is not normally taken to be communicating anything by having black feathers, sitting on a branch and looking down at the ground.

- Communicative Signals:

But is considered to be sending a communicative signal with the loud squawking produced when a cat appears on the scene.

- **Properties of human language:**
- Displacement:

When your pet cat comes home and stands at your feet calling *meow*, you are likely to understand this message as relating to that time and place. If you ask your cat where it has been and what it was up to, you'll probably get the same *meow* response. Animal communication seems to be designed exclusively for this moment, here and now. It cannot be used to relate events that are far removed in time and place.
Humans can refer to past and future time. This property of human language is called **displacement**. It allows language users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment. Displacement allows us to talk about things and places (ogre, Superman) whose existence we cannot even be sure of.

- Arbitrariness:

There is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. The connection is quite arbitrary. We can't just look at the Arabic word كلب and, from its shape, for example, determine that it has a natural and obvious meaning any more than we can with its English translation form dog. The linguistic form has no natural or 'iconic' relationship with that hairy four-legged barking object out in the world. This aspect of the relationship between linguistic signs and objects in the world is described as **arbitrariness**.

- Productivity:

Humans are continually creating new expressions by manipulating their linguistic resources to describe new objects and situations. This property is described as **productivity** (or 'creativity' or 'open-endedness') and essentially means that the potential number of vocal expressions in any human language is infinite.
The communication systems of other creatures are not like that. Cicadas have four signals to choose from and vervet monkeys have thirty-six vocal calls. It is not possible for creatures to produce new signals to communicate. The honeybee, normally able to communicate the location of a nectar source to other bees, will fail to do so if the location is really 'new.' the bees cannot manipulate its communication system to create a 'new' message including vertical distance.

- Cultural transmission:

The process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next is described as cultural transmission. We inherit physical features such as brown eyes and dark hair from our parents, we do not inherit their language. We acquire a language in a culture with other speakers and not from parental genes. An infant born to Korean parents in Korea, but adopted and brought up from birth by English speakers in the United States, will have physical characteristics inherited from his or her natural parents, but will speak English.

- **Study questions**

1. What is the difference between formative and communicative signals?

Informative Signals

Someone may be informed about you through a number of signals that you have not intentionally sent.

Communicative Signals

You are normally considered to be intentionally communicating something.

2. Is it true that animals can refer to past and future time when they communicate?

No, it is not true.

3. Is it true that there is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning?

Yes, it is true.

4. Is it true that humans cannot create new expressions to describe new objects and situations?

No, it is not true.

The sounds of language

New Chef

'The sounds of spoken English do not match up, a lot of the time, with letters of written English'

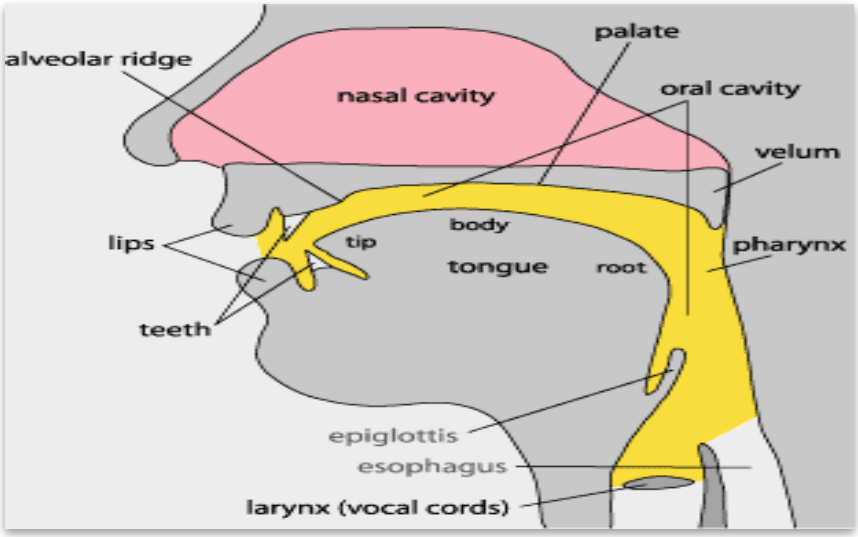
- **Phonetics**

Greek 'phone' = sound or voice

The general study of the characteristics of speech sounds.

Articulatory phonetics The study of how speech sounds are made

- **Voiced and voiceless sounds:**



1. When the vocal cords (vocal folds) are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. ZZZZZ or VVVVV (vibration)
2. When the vocal cords (vocal folds) are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through. SSSSS or FFFFF (no vibration)

- **Place of articulation:**

• Bilabials:

These are sounds formed using both upper and lower lips. The first sounds in the words *pat*, *bat*, and *mat* are all **bilabials**. They are represented by the symbols [p], which is **voiceless**, and [b] and [m], which are **voiced**.

- Labiodentals:

These are sounds formed with the upper teeth and the lower lip. The first sounds in of the words *fat* and *vat* and the final sounds in the words *safe* and save are **labiodentals**. They are represented by the symbols [f], which is **voiceless**, and [v], which is **voiced**. Cough and photo, are both pronounced as [f].

- Dentals:

These are sounds formed with the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth. The initial sound of *thin* and the final sound of *bath* are both **voiceless dentals**. The symbol used for this sound is [θ]. The voiced dental is represented by the symbol [ð] like *the*, *there*, *then* and *thus*.

- Alveolars:

These are sounds formed with the front part of the tongue on the alveolar ridge. The initial sounds in *top*, *dip*, *sit*, *zoo* and *nut* are all **alveolars**. The symbols for these sounds are easy to remember [t], [d], [s], [z], [n]. Of these, [t] and [s] are voiceless whereas [d], [z] and [n] are voiced. Other alveolars are the [l] sound as in *lap* and [r] as in *right*.

- Palatals:

These are sounds formed with the tongue and the hard palate. The initial sounds in the words *shout* and *child*, which are both voiceless. The "sh" sound is represented as [ʃ] and the "ch" sound is represented as [tʃ]. The word *shoe-brush* begins and ends with the voiceless palatal sound [ʃ] and the word *church* begins and ends with the other voiceless palatal sound [tʃ]. The sound [ʒ] such as *treasure* and *pleasure* which is voiced palatal. The other voiced palatal is [dʒ] as in *joke* and *gem*. The sound [j] is also voiced palatal as in *yet* .

- Velars:

Sounds produced with the back of the tongue against the velum are called velars. . The sound [k] as in *cook* is voiceless. The sound [g] as in *go*. The voiced sound [ŋ] as in *bang.*

- Glottals:

There is one sound that is produced without the active use of the tongue and other parts of the mouth. It is the voiceless sound [h] as in *horse* .

2nd LECTURE

The sounds of language

Manner of articulation:

- Stops:

The set [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g] are all produced by some form of "stopping" of the air stream (very briefly) then letting it go abruptly. This type of consonant sound , resulting from a blocking or stopping effect on the air stream, is called a **stop** (or a "**plosive**"). Example: *bed*.

- Fricatives:

The set of sounds [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ] involved almost blocking the air stream and having the air push through the very narrow opening. As the air is pushed through, a type of friction is produced and the resulting sounds are called **fricatives**. Example: *fish*, *those*.

- Affricates:

If you combine a brief stopping of the air stream with an obstructed release which causes some friction, you will be able to produce the sounds [ʧ] and [ʤ] these are called **affricates** . Example: *cheap* and *jeep*.

- Nasals:

When the velum is lowered and the air stream is allowed to flow out through the nose to produce [m], [n] and [n], the sounds are described as **nasals** Example: *morning* and *name*.

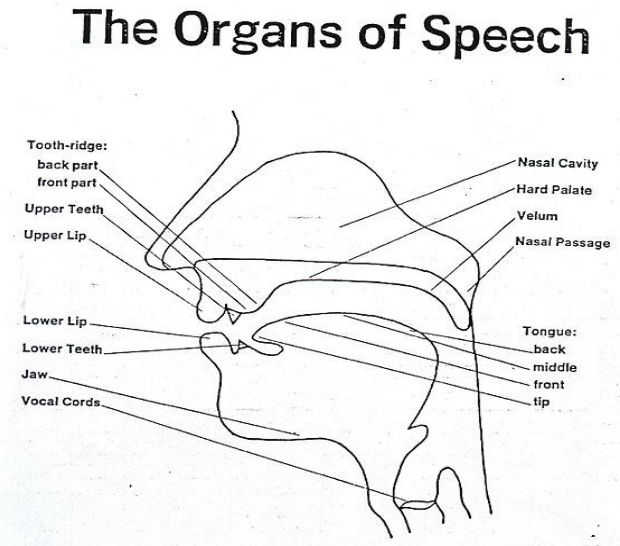
- Liquids:

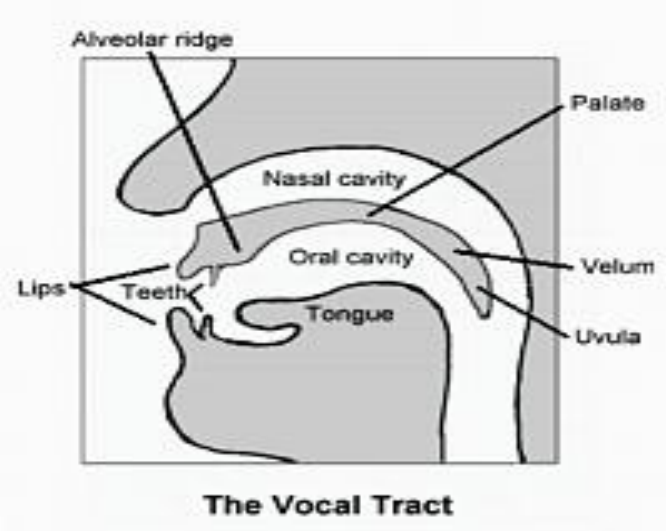
The initial sounds in *led* and *red* are described as **liquids**. They are both voiced. The [l] sound is called a lateral liquid and formed by letting the air stream flow around the sides of the tongue as the tip of the tongue makes contact with the middle of the alveolar ridge. The [r] sound at the beginning of red is formed with the tongue tip raised and curled back near the alveolar ridge.

- Glides:

The sounds [w] and [j] are described as **glides**. They are both voiced and occur at the beginning of *we*, *you* and *yes*. These sounds are typically produced with the tongue in motion (or "gliding") to or from the position of a vowel and are sometimes called semi-vowels.

Place →	Bilabial		Labiodental		Dental		Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal	
↓ Manner	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V
Stops	p	b					t	d			k	g		
fricatives			f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ			h	
Affricates									ʧ	ʤ				
Nasals		m						n						
liquids								lr						
Glides		w								j				





тмȯȯн ła чήтђч

- **Study questions**

1. Which of the following words normally end with **voiceless** (- V) sounds and which end with **voiced** sounds (+ V) sounds?

a. bang +V	d. fizz +V	g. splat -V
b. crash -V	e. rap -V	h. thud +V
c. ding +V	f. smack -V	i. wham +V

2. Try to pronounce the initial sounds of the following words and indentify the place of articulation of each one (e.g. bilabial, alveolar, etc.).

a. calf velar	e. hand glottal	i. shoulder palatal
b. chin palatal	f. knee nasal	j. stomach alveolar
c. foot labiodental	g. mouth nasal	k. thigh dental
d. groin velar	h. pelvis bilabial	l. toe alveolar

1. Identify the manner of articulation of the initial sounds in the following words (stop, fricative, etc.).

a. cheery affricate	d. funny fricative	g. merry nasal
b. crazy stop	e. jolly affricate	h. silly fricative
c. dizzy stop	f. loony liquid	i. wimpy glide

The sounds of language:

- **Vowels:**

Vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are typically voiced. To describe vowel sounds, we consider the way in which the tongue influences the shape through which the air must pass. To talk about a place of articulation, we think of the space inside the mouth as having a front versus a back and a high versus a low area. Thus, in the pronunciation of heat and *hit,* we talk about 'high, front' vowel sounds because the sound is made with the front part of the mouth in a raised position.

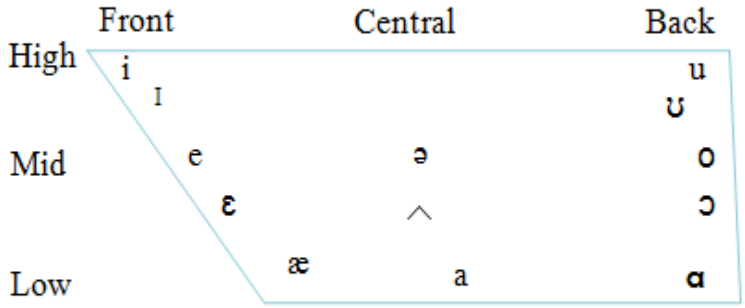
In contrast, the vowel sound in *hat* is produced with the tongue in a lower position and the sound in *hot* can be described as a 'low, back' vowel.

heat, *hit* your mouth will stay fairly closed

hat, *hot* sound your tongue will move lower and cause your mouth to open wider.

❖ Vowels:

Vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are having a



Front vowels	**Central vowels**	**Back vowels**
[i] key, me, beef, heat	[ə] above, oven, support	[u] boo, move, two, you
[ɪ] bid, myth	[ʌ] blood, tough	[ʊ] book, could, put
[ɛ] bed, dead, said		[ɔ] born, caught, fall
[æ] bad ,laugh, wrap		[ɑ] book, could, put

❖ Vowels:

- **Diphthongs**:

The combination of two sounds is known as **diphthongs**.

[aɪ] buy, eye, I, pie, sigh
[aʊ] doubt, cow, bough
[eɪ] bait, eight, great, late, say
[oʊ] boat, home, throw, toe
[ɔɪ] boy, noise

- **Study questions**

6_Using symbols introduced in this chapter, write a basic phonetic transcription of the most common pronunciation of the following words.

a) catch kætʃ
b) doubt daʊt
c) gem d͡ʒm
d) measure mɛ~ʒr
e) noise nɔɪz
f) phone foʊn
g) shy ʃaɪ
h) these θiz
i) thought θat
j) tough tʌf
k) would wʊd
l) wring riŋ

3rd LECTURE

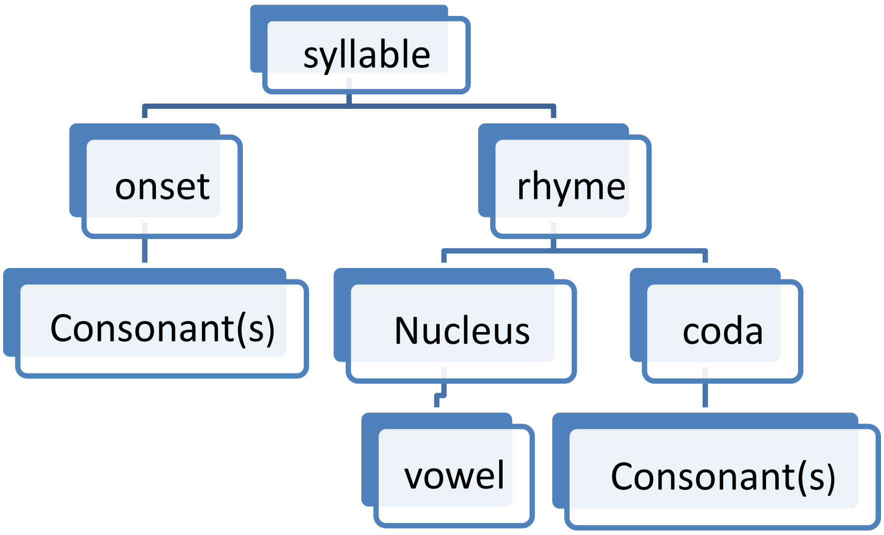
The sound patterns of language

- **Phonology:** is the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language.
- **Phonemes:** are meaningful sounds, if one sound is used instead of the other in a word its meaning will change. /f/ and /v/ *fat* and *vat*

1 phoneme = multiple letters	/k/ = 'c' in 'cat' 'k' in 'bike'
2 letters together = 1 phoneme	'th' = /θ/ as in 'thing'
2 letters together = 1 phoneme	'ch' = /k/ in 'chemistry'

- **Phones and allophones:** phones are different versions of sound-type regularly produced in actual speech. They are phonetic units and appear in square brackets. When we have a set of phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, we add the prefix "allo-" (one of a closely related set) and refer to them as allophones of that phonemes. [t] sound in the word *tar* is normally pronounced with a stronger puff of air than is present in the [t] sound in the word *star* . *(aspiration)*
- **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. site – side, bet – bat, night – right, might – fight. One minimal set based on the vowel phonemes (*heat*, *hit*, *hat*, *hot*, *hut*, *hate*), and another minimal set based on consonant phonemes (big, pig, rig, fig, dig, *wig*).
- **Syllables:**

A syllable must contain a vowel or vowel like sound, including diphthongs. The most common type of syllable in language also has a *consonant* (C) before the *vowel* (V) and is typically represented as CV. The basic elements of the syllabus are the *onset* (one or more consonants) followed by the rhyme. The rhyme (sometimes written as "rime") consists of a vowel which is treated as the nucleus, plus any following consonant(s), described as the coda.



Syllables like *me*, *to* or *no* have an onset and a nucleus, but no coda. They are known as open syllables. When a coda is present, as in the syllables *up*, *cup*, *at* or *hat*, they are called closed syllables.

The basic structure of the kind of syllable found in English words:

green (CCVC), eggs (VCC), and (VCC), I (V), do (CV), not (CVC),

like (CVC), them (CVC), Sam (CVC), am (VC)

- **Consonant clusters:**

Both the onset and the coda can consist of more than one consonant, also known as a consonant cluster. The combination /st/ is a consonant cluster (CC) used as onset in the word stop, and as coda in the word post. Examples, black, bread, trick, flat.

- **Assimilation:**

When two sound segments occur in sequence and some aspect of one segment is taken or "copied" by the other, the process is known as assimilation.

Examples,

have	*I have to go* (in everyday speech)
good girl	*goog girl*
good boy	*goob boy*

- **Elision:**

The process of not pronouncing a sound segment that night be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word in isolation is described as elision.

Examples: *you and me* (d sound is not pronounced)
friendship (d sound is not pronounced)
he must be (t sound is not pronounced)

- Study questions

❖ Do exercises 2, 3 and 6 in page 49.

2_ What is an aspirated sound and which of the following words would normally be pronounced with one: kill, pool, skill, spool, stop, top?

A aspirated sound is a puff of air and would be pronounced with pool, spool, and stop.

3_Which of the following words would be treated as minimal pairs?

ban, fat, pit, bell, tape, heat, meal, more, pat, tap, pen, chain, vote, bet, far, bun, goat, heel, sane, tale, vet

goat vote, fat far, bun ban, chain sane, heel heat, bet bell, pat fat, pit pat, vet bet.

6_Which segments in the pronunciation of the following words are most likely to be affected by elision?

(i) government (ii) postman (iii) pumpkin (iv) sandwich (v) victory

Government- /n/ - gʌvərmɛnt

Postman- /t/ as in "tuh"- poʊstmæn

Pumpkin- /p/ in second part of pumpkin -pʌmkən

Sandwich - /d/ sænwɪʧ

Victory-/t/ as in "tour" vɪktoʊri

4th LECTURE

Word formation

- **Etymology:**

Etymology is the study of the history of words, their origins, and how their form and meaning have changed over time. By an extension, the term "etymology (of a word)" means the origin of a particular word.

- Spanish: has contributed many words, particularly in the southwestern United States. Examples include *buckaroo*, *alligator*, *rodeo*, and states' names such as *Colorado* and *Florida*.
- Portuguese: *Albino*, *lingo*, *verandah*, and *coconut*.
- Italian: *diva*, *prima donna*, *pasta*, *pizza*, *paparazzi*, and *umbrella*.
- Finnish: *sauna*
- Arabic: *adobe*, *alcohol*, *algebra*, *apricot*, *assassin*, *caliber*, *cotton*, *hazard*, *jacket*, *jar*, *mosque*, *Muslim*, *orange*, *safari*, *sofa*, and *zero*.
- Japanese: *sushi*, and *tsunami*.

- **Coinage**

Coinage is the word formation process in which a new word is created either deliberately or accidentally without using the other word formation processes and often from seemingly nothing. For example, the following list of words provides some common coinages found in everyday English: aspirin, escalator, band-aid, Frisbee, Google, kerosene, Kleenex, Xerox, zipper.

- **Borrowing**

Borrowing is the word formation process in which a word from one language is borrowed directly into another language. For example, the following common English words are borrowed from foreign languages:

algebra – Arabic
chowmein – Chinese
murder – French
paprika – Hungarian
pizza – Italian
yo-yo – Tagalog

Borrowed words are also referred to as loanwords.

- **Compounding**

Compounding is the word formation process in which two or more lexemes combine into a single new word. Compound words may be written as one word or as two words joined with a hyphen. For example:

noun-noun compound: note + book → notebook
adjective-noun compound: blue + berry → blueberry
verb-noun compound: work + room → workroom
verb-preposition compound: break + up → breakup

Compounds may be compositional, meaning that the meaning of the new word is determined by combining the meanings of the parts, or non-compositional, meaning that the meaning of the new word cannot be determined by combining the meanings of the parts. For example, a *blueberry* is a berry that is blue.

- **Blending**

Blending is the word formation process in which parts of two or more words combine to create a new word whose meaning is often a combination of the original words. For example:

advertisement + entertainment →advertainment
biographical + picture → biopic
breakfast + lunch → brunch
motor + hotel → motel
smoke + fog → smog
Spanish + English → Spanglish
spoon + fork →spork

- **Clipping**

Clipping is the word formation process in which a word is reduced or shortened without changing the meaning of the word. Clipping differs from back-formation in that the new word retains the meaning of the original word. For example:

examination – exam
influenza – flu
laboratory – lab
mathematics – math
photograph – photo
telephone – phone

The four types of clipping are back clipping, fore-clipping, middle clipping, and complex clipping. Back clipping is removing the end of a word as in *gas* from *gasoline*. Fore-clipping is removing the beginning of a word as in *gator* from *alligator*. Middle clipping is retaining only the middle of a word as in *flu* from *influenza*. Complex clipping is removing multiple parts from multiple words as in *sitcom* from *situation comedy*.

- **Back-Formation**

Back-formation is the word formation process in which an actual or supposed derivational affix detaches from the base form of a word to create a new word. For example, the following list provides examples of some common back-formations in English:

Original – Back-formation

babysitter – babysit
donation – donate
gambler – gamble
moonlighter – moonlight
television – televise

- **Conversion**

Conversion is the word formation process in which a word of one grammatical form becomes a word of another grammatical form without any changes to spelling or pronunciation. For example, the nouns *bottle*, *butter*, *chair* have come to be used, through conversion, as verbs: *We bottled the home-juice last night; Have you buttered the toast?; someone has to chair the meeting; They are vacationing in Florida*.

Examples:

Adjectives	Verbs
dirty	to dirty
empty	to empty

Noun to Verb Conversion The most productive form of conversion in English is noun to verb conversion. The following list provides examples of verbs converted from nouns:

Noun – Verb

access – to access
bottle – to bottle
can – to can
closet – to closet
email – to email
fool – to fool
Google – to google
name – to name
salt – to salt
ship – to ship

- **Acronyms**

Acronyms are words formed by the word formation process in which an initialism is pronounced as a word. For example, *HIV* is an initialism for Human Immunodeficiency Virus that is spoken as the three letters H-I-V. However, *AIDS* is an acronym for Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome that is spoken as the word *AIDS*. Other examples of acronyms in English include:

ASAP – as soon as possible
PIN – personal identification number
radar - radio detection and ranging
TESOL – Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Acronyms are related to the word formation process of abbreviation.

- **Derivation**

Derivation is the word formation process in which a derivational affix attaches to the base form of a word to create a new word. Affixes, which include prefixes and suffixes, are bound morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest linguistic unit of a language with semantic meaning. Bound morphemes, unlike free morphemes, cannot stand alone but must attach to another morpheme such as a word. For example, the following two lists provide examples of some common prefixes and suffixes with definitions in English:

Prefixes
a- – without, not
co- – together
de- – opposite, negative, separation
dis- –opposite, negative
en- – cause to be
ex- – former, previous, from
in- – negative, not
non- – absence, not
re- – again, repeatedly
un- – negative, not, opposite

Suffixes
-able – sense of being
-er – agent
-ful – characterized by
-fy – make, become, cause to be
-ism – action or practice, state or condition
-less – lack of
-ly – -like
-ology – study, science
-ship – condition, character, skill
-y – characterized by, condition

- Study questions

2_ What is an aspirated sound and which of the following words would normally be pronounced with one: kill, pool, skill, spool, stop, top?

A aspirated sound is a puff of air and would be pronounced with pool, spool, and stop.

3_Which of the following words would be treated as minimal pairs?

ban, fat, pit, bell, tape, heat, meal, more, pat, tap, pen, chain, vote, bet, far, bun, goat, heel, sane, tale, vet

goat vote, fat far, bun ban, chain sane, heel heat, bet bell, pat fat, pit pat, vet bet.

6_Which segments in the pronunciation of the following words are most likely to be affected by elision?

(i) government (ii) postman (iii) pumpkin (iv) sandwich (v) victory

Government- /n/ - gʌvərmɛnt
Postman- /t/ as in "tuh"- poʊstmæn
Pumpkin- /p/ in second part of pumpkin -pʌmkən
Sandwich - /d/ sænwɪtʃ
Victory-/t/ as in "tour" vɪktoʊri

5th LECTURE

Morphology

- **Morphology** is the study of word formation. The basic unit in the study of morphology is the morpheme.
- **A morpheme or morph** is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural. For example:

The police reopened the investigation

reopened consists of three *morphemes*. One minimal unit of meaning is *open*, another minimal unit of meaning is *re-* (meaning 'again') and a minimal unit of grammatical function is *–ed* (indicating past tense).

tourists

tour = one minimal unit of meaning.
-ist = another minimal unit of meaning. (person who does something)
-s = a minimal unit of grammatical function (indicating plural).

- **Morphemes** are two types:
- **Free** and **bound morphemes.**
- **Free morphemes** are morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words.

For example: *open* and *tour*

- **Bound morphemes** are morphemes that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form.

For example: re-, -ist, -ed, -s (prefixes and suffixes)

Free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc

When free morphemes are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are technically known as stems.

For example: undressed and carelessness
(un- bound= prefix) (dress free = stem) (-ed bound= suffix)

- Free morphemes consist of two categories

- Lexical morphemes: ordinary nouns, adjectives, and verbs that we think of as the words that carry the "content" of the messages we convey.

For example: *girl*, *man*, *house*, *tiger*, *sad*, *long*, *yellow*, *open*, *look*, *follow*, *break*. (they are described as "open")

- Functional morphemes: conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns.

For example: *and*, *but*, *when*, *because*, *on*, *near*, *above*, *in*, *the*, *that*, *it*, *them*. (they are described as "closed")

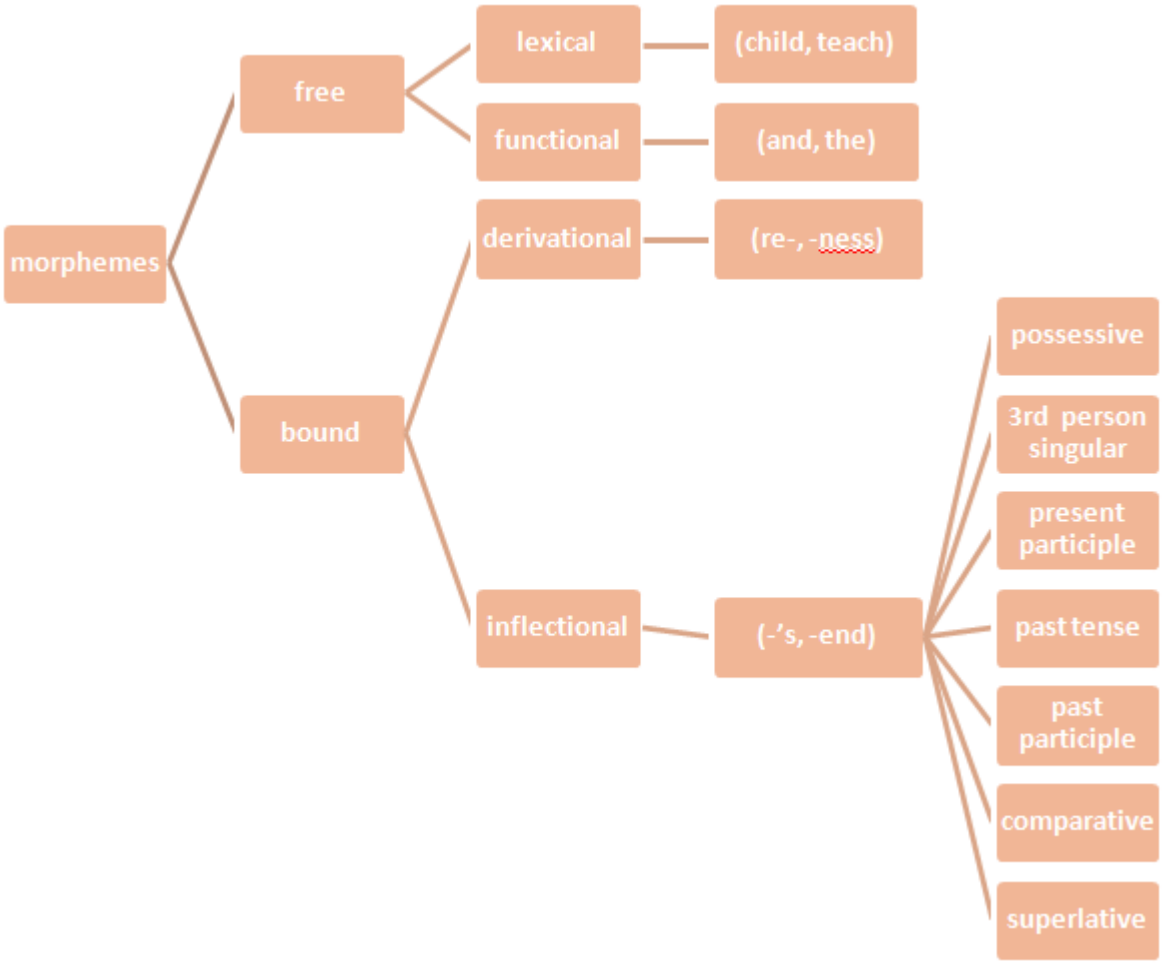
- Bound morphemes consist of two categories
  - Derivational morphemes are used to make new words.

For example: *careful + -ful or careless + -less, foolish + -ish, quick + -ly, payment + -ment. re- + reopen, mis-+ misused. (suffixes and prefixes)*

  - Inflectional morphemes are used to indicate aspects of grammatical function of a word. English has only eight inflectional morphemes.

1. *Jim's two sisters are really different. (possessive, plural)*
2. *One likes to have fun and is always laughing. (3rd person singular, present participle)*
3. *The other liked to read and has always taken things seriously. (past tense, past participle)*
4. *One is the loudest person in the house and the other is quieter that a mouse. (comparative, superlative)*

(inflectional morphemes are all suffixes)



- **Morphological description**

The child's wildness shocked the teachers

The	child	-'s	wild	-ness	shock	-ed	the	teach	-er	-s
functional	lexical	inflectional	lexical	derivational	lexical	inflectional	functional	lexical	derivational	inflectional

- Morphs and allomorphs

cats consists of two morphs cat + s (a lexical morpheme and an inflectional morpheme)

buses consist of two morphs bus + es (a lexical morpheme and an inflectional morpheme)

(-s and -es) are called allomorphs

sheep + plural

man + plural

- Study questions

1_ What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence?

When he arrived *in the* morning, *the* old man had *an* umbrella *and a* large plastic bag full *of* books.

2_ (a) List the bound morphemes in these words: fear*lessly*, *mis*lead*s*, *pre*viewer, short*ened*, *un*happi*er*

(b) Which of these words has a bound stem: con*struct*, de*ceive*, intro*duce*, re*peat*? all of them

(c) Which of these words contains an allomorph of the morpheme "past tense": are, have, must, sitting, waits?

none of them (were , had , sat , waited)

3_ What are the inflectional morphemes in these expressions?

(a) Have you eat*en* yet?

(b) Do you know how long I've be*en* wait*ing*?

(c) She's young*er* than me and always dresse*s* in the lat*est* style.

(d) We look*ed* through my grandmother*'s* old photo album*s*.

4_ What are the allomorphs of the morpheme "plural" in this set of English words:

criteri*a*, dog*s*, ox*en*, deer, judg*es*, stimul*i*?

6th LECTURE

Grammar

- **Grammar**

The process of describing the structure of phrases and sentences in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences.

- **Traditional grammar:**

When we label the grammatical categories "article," "adjective" and "noun" of the words in the phrase *the lucky boys* we use traditional grammar. The best-known terms from that tradition are those used in describing the parts of speech.

- **The parts of speech:**

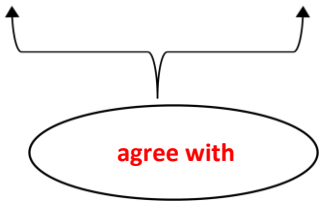
"*The lucky boys found a backpack in the park and they opened it carefully*"

The	*lucky*	*boys*	*found*	*a*
article	adjective	noun	verb	article
backpack	*in*	*the*	*park*	
noun	preposition	article	noun	
and	*they*	*opened*	*it*	
conjunction	pronoun	verb	pronoun	
carefully				
adverb				

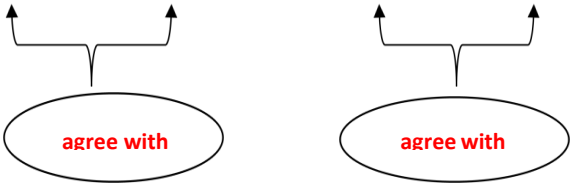
- **The parts of speech:**

- Nouns are often defined as words, which name persons, places or things. For example: *boy, river, friend, Mexico, day, school, university, idea, John, movie, vacation, eye, dream, flag, teacher, class, grammar*. *John* is a noun because it is the name of a person; *Mexico* is a noun because it is the name of a place.
- Articles are words (*a, an, the*) used with nouns to form noun phrases classifying those "things" (*you can have a banana or an apple*) or indentifying them as already known (*I'll take the apple*).
- Adjectives are words used, typically with nouns, to provide more information about the things referred to (*happy people, large objects, a strange experience).*
- Verbs are words used to refer to various kinds of actions (go, talk) and states (be, have) involving people and things in events (*Sarah is ill and has a sore throat so she can't talk or go anywhere).*
- Adverbs are words used, typically with verbs, to provide more information about actions, states and events (*slowly, yesterday*) . Some adverbs (*really, very*) are also used with adjectives to modify information about things (*Really large objects move slowly. I had a very strange experience yesterday*).
- Prepositions are words (*at, in, on, near, with, without*) used with nouns in phrases providing information about time (*at five o'clock, in the morning*) , place (*on the table, near the window*) and other connections (*with a knife, without a thought*) involving actions and things.
- Pronouns are words (she, herself, they, it, you) used in place of noun phrases, typically referring to people and things already known (*she talks to herself. They said it belonged to you*).
- Conjunctions are words (and, but, because, when) used to make connections and indicate relationship between events (*Dana's husband was so sweet and he helped her a lot because she couldn't do much when she was pregnant*)
- Agreement is the grammatical connection between two parts of a sentence (number, person, tense, voice and gender) as in the connection between a subject *Cathy* and the form of a verb *loves* ***chocolate*****. (agreement in number (singular and plural) and person)**

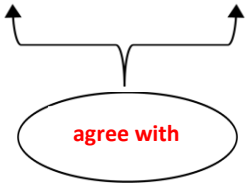
First person (singular)	*I*	*love* chocolate
Second person (singular)	*You*	*love* chocolate
Third person (singular)	*He, she, it* (or *Cathy*)	*loves* chocolate



Cathy is loved by her dog or *Cathy is loved* (**agreement in tense**)



Cathy is loved by her dog. (**agreement in gender**)



- **Traditional analysis:**

Present tense, active voice	First person singular	*I*	*write*
	Second person singular	*You*	*write*
	Third person singular	*He, she, it*	*writes*
	First person plural	*We*	*write*
	Second person plural	*You*	*write*
	Third person plural	*They*	*write*

- **The prescriptive approach:**

An approach taken by a number of grammarians, mainly in eighteen-century England, who set out rules for the "proper" use of English.

Who did you go with?	*With whom did you go?*
Marry runs faster than me.	*Marry runs faster than I.*
Me and my family.	*My family and I.*

- **Study questions**

Do exercises 1 and 3 (i and ii) in page 92.

1 . Identify all the parts of speech used in this sentence (e.g. woman = noun): The woman kept a large snake in a cage, but it escaped recently.

The (= article), *woman* (= noun), *kept* (= verb), *a* (= article), *large* (= adjective), *snake* (= noun), *in* = preposition), *a* (= article), *cage* (= noun), *but* (= conjunction), *it* (= pronoun), *escaped* (= verb), *recently* (= adverb)

3. What prescriptive rules for the "proper" use of English are not obeyed in the following sentences and how would they be "corrected"?

(i) The old theory consistently failed to fully explain all the data.

"You must not split an infinitive." (*to fully explain* → to explain fully)

(ii) I can't remember the name of the person I gave the book to.

"You must not end a sentence with a preposition" (*the person I gave the book* → *to* the person to whom I gave the book)

7th LECTURE

Syntax

- **Syntax** is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages.

• Surface structure: (superficial level)

1. Charlie broke the window (in traditional grammar it is called an active sentence focusing on what Charlie did)
2. The window was broken by Charlie. (in traditional grammar it is called a passive sentence focusing on the window and what happened to it)

1 & 2 have different syntactic forms. But very closely related

• Deep structure: (underlying level)

An abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented.

1. It was Charlie who broke the window.
2. Was the window broken by Charlie?

• Structural ambiguity:

I shot an elephant in my pajamas. (two underlying structures with the same surface structure)

1. I shot an elephant (while I was) in my pajamas
2. I shot an elephant (which was) in my pajamas

• Recursion : (repeating any number of times)

The gun was on the table. (create a prepositional phrase again and again)

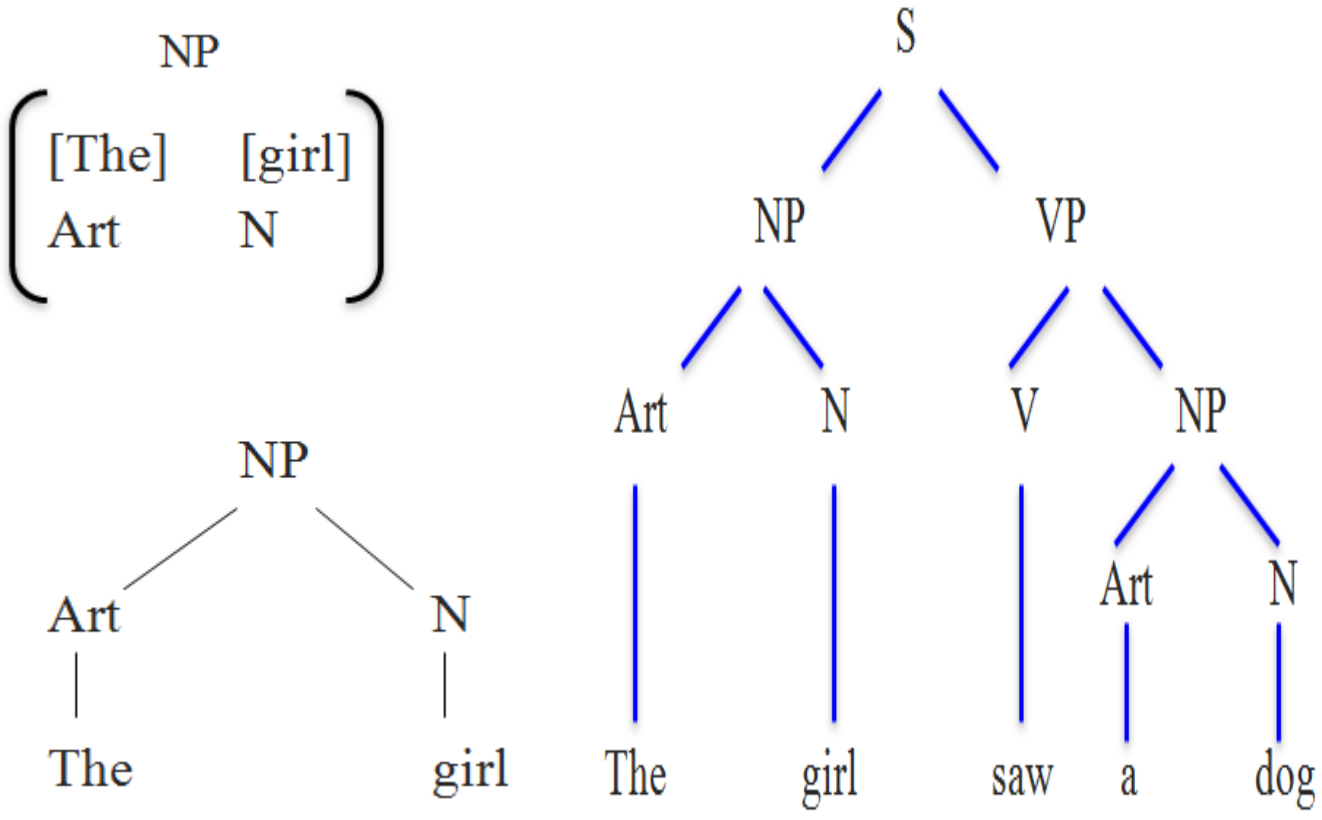
(on the table) (near the window) (in the bedroom)

The gun was on the table near the window in the bedroom.

Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George. (no end)

- **Tree diagrams:**



тмȯȯн ła чήтђч

- **Symbols used in syntactic analysis:**

NP → Art N
NP → Pro NP→ { Art N, Pro, PN }
NP → PN

NP→ (Art N, Pro, PN)

S sentence	NP noun phrase	PN proper noun
N noun	VP verb phrase	Adv adveb
V verb	Adj adjective	Prep preposition
Art article	Pro pronoun	PP prepositional phrase

- **Lexical rules:**

PN	{Mary, George}
N	{girl, boy, dog}
Art	{a, the}
Pro	{it, you}
V	{followed, helped, saw}

A dog followed the boy

- **Movement rules:**

You will help Mary
Will you help Mary

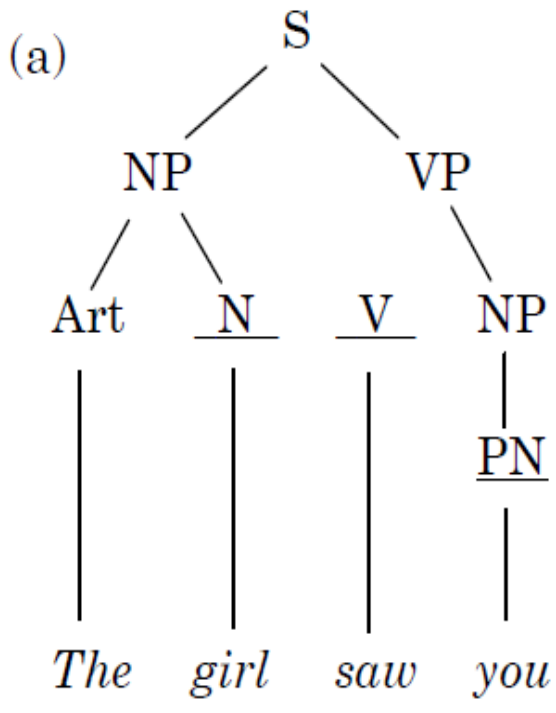
- **Study Questions**

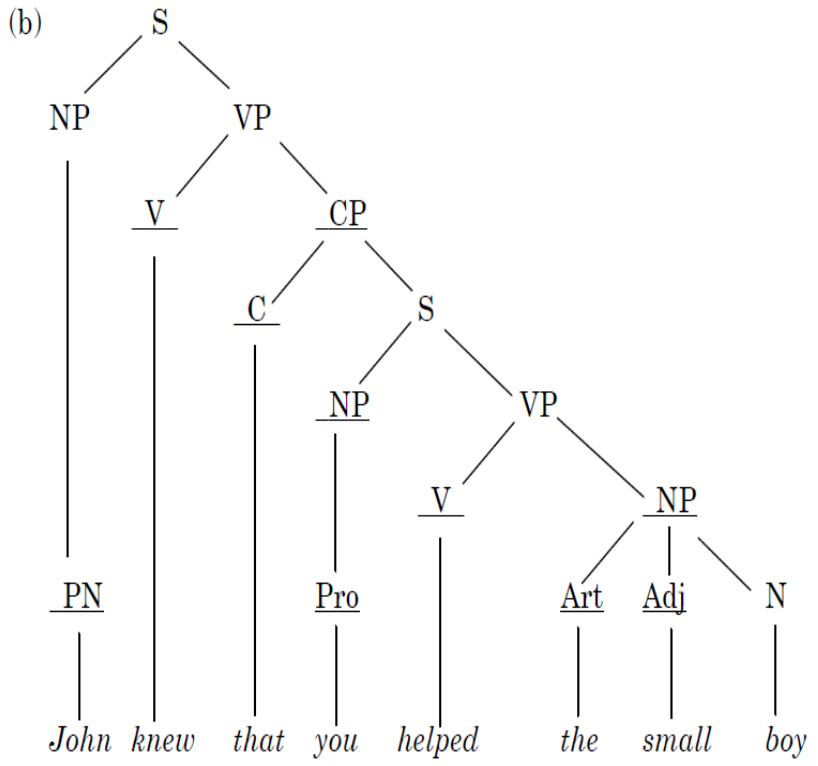
4. Which of the following expressions would be generated by this phrase structure rule: NP → {Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}?

(a) a lady (c) her (e) the widow
(b) the little girl (d) Annie (f) she's an old woman

(a), (b), (c), (d), (e), but not (f) because it's a sentence, not just a noun phrase.

6 . Using information from the phrase structure rules presented in this chapter, complete the following tree diagrams.





тмóóн Ła чήтђч

8th LECTURE

Semantics

- **Semantics:**
  Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences.
- **Semantic features**

NP	V	NP
The hamburger	*ate*	*the boy*

This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. Since the sentence The boy ate the hamburger is perfectly acceptable,

- **Agent and theme**

The boy as "the entity that performs the action," technically known as the agent.
The ball as "the entity that is involved in or affected by the action," which is called the theme.

Agents and themes are the most common semantic roles. Although agents are typically human (The boy), they can also be non-human entities that cause actions, a natural force (The wind), a machine (A car), or a creature (The dog), all of which affect the ball as theme.

The boy kicked the ball.
The wind blew the ball away.
A car ran over the ball.
The dog caught the ball.
The theme is typically non-human, but can be human (the boy), as in The dog chased the boy.

- **Lexical relations**

Not only can words be treated as "containers" of meaning, or as fulfilling "roles" in events, they can also have "relationships" with each other. In everyday talk, we often explain the meanings of words in terms of their relationships . The word conceal, for example, we might simply say, "It's the same as hide,"
This approach is used in the semantic description of language and treated as the analysis of lexical relations.
The lexical relations we have just exemplified are synonymy (conceal/hide), antonymy (shallow/deep) and hyponymy (daffodil/flower).

- **Synonymy**

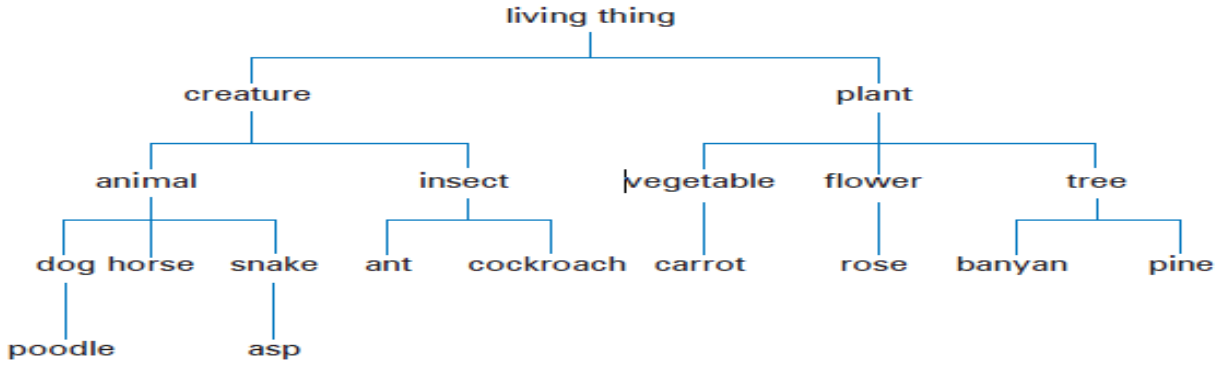
Two or more words with very closely related meanings are called synonyms.
Other common examples of synonyms are the pairs: almost/nearly, big/large, broad/wide, buy/purchase, cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa, freedom/ liberty.

- **Antonymy**

Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms. Some common examples are the pairs: alive/dead, big/small, fast/slow, happy/sad, hot/cold, long/short, male/ female, married/single, old/new, rich/poor, true/false.

- **Hyponymy**

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. Examples are the pairs: animal/dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/ carrot, flower/rose, tree/banyan.



тмȯȯн Ła чήтђч

- **Prototypes**

The idea of "the characteristic instance" of a category is known as the prototype.
Given the category label furniture, we are quick to recognize chair as a better example than bench or stool. Given clothing, people recognize shirts quicker than shoes, and given vegetable, they accept carrot before potato or tomato. It is clear that there is some general pattern to the categorization process involved in prototypes and that it determines our interpretation of word meaning.

- **Homophones and homonyms**

When two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, they are described as homophones. Common examples are bare/bear, meat/meet, flour/ flower, pail/pale, right/write, sew/so and to/too/two.

- **Polysemy**

When we encounter two or more words with the same form and related meanings ,we have what is technically known as polysemy .
Examples are the word head, used to refer to the object on top of your body, person at the top of a company or department,Other examples of polysemy are foot (of person, of bed, of mountain) or run (person does, water does, colors do).

- **Word play**

Mary had a little lamb, we think of a small animal, but in the comic version Mary had a little lamb, some rice and vegetables, we think of a small amount of meat. The polysemy of lamb allows the two interpretations.

- **Metonymy**

The relatedness of meaning found in polysemy is essentially based on similarity. The head of a company is similar to the head of a person on top of and controlling the body. There is another type of relationship between words, based simply on a close connection
in everyday experience. That close connection can be based on a container–contents relation (bottle/water, can/juice), a whole–part relation (car/wheels, house/roof) or a representative–symbol relationship (king/crown, the President/the White House). Using one of these words to refer to the other is an example of metonymy.

- **Study questions**

4 .What is the basic lexical relation between each pair of words listed here?
(a) damp/moist (c) furniture/table (e) move/run
(b) deep/shallow (d) married/single (f) peace/piece
(a) synonymy, (b) antonymy, (c) hyponymy, (d) antonymy, (e) hyponymy, (f) homophony (or homophones)

5. Which of the following opposites are gradable, non-gradable, or reversive?
(a) absent/present (c) fail/pass (e) fill it/empty it
(b) appear/disappear (d) fair/unfair (f) high/low
(a) non-gradable, (b) reversive, (c) non-gradable, (d) gradable, (e) reversive, (f) gradable

6. Are these underlined words best described as examples of polysemy or metonymy?
(a) The pen is mightier than the sword.
(b) I had to park on the shoulder of the road.
(c) Yes, I love those. I ate a whole box on Sunday!
(d) The bookstore has some new titles in linguistics.
(e) Computer chips created an important new technology.
(f) I'm going to sue your ass!
(a) metonymy, (b) polysemy, (c) metonymy, (d) metonymy, (e) polysemy (f) metonymy

9th LECTURE

pragmatics

- **Pragmatics**

pragmatics is The study of what speakers mean, or "speaker meaning,"

In many ways, pragmatics is the study of "invisible" meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written. In order for that to happen, speakers (or writers) must be able to depend on a lot of shared assumptions and expectations when they try to communicate. The investigation of those assumptions and expectations provides us with some insights into how more is always being communicated than is said. Driving by a parking garage, you may see a large sign like the one in the picture. You read the sign, knowing what each of the words means and what the sign as a whole means. However, you don't normally think that the sign is advertising a place where you can park your "heated attendant." (You take an attendant, you heat him/her up, and this is where you can park him/her.) Alternatively, the sign may indicate a place where parking will be carried out by attendants who have been heated.

The words in the sign may allow these interpretations, but we would normally understand that we can park a car in this place, that it's a heated area, and that there will be an attendant to look after the car. So, how do we decide that the sign means this when the sign doesn't even have the word car on it? We must use the meanings of the words, the context in which they occur, and some pre-existing knowledge of what would be a likely message as we work toward a reasonable interpretation of what the producer of the sign intended it to convey. Our interpretation of the "meaning" of the sign is not based solely on the words, but on what we think the writer intended to communicate.

- **Context**

In our discussion of the last two examples, we emphasized the influence of context. There are different kinds of context. One kind is 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. The surrounding co-text has a strong effect on what we think the word probably means. In the last chapter, we identified the word bank as a homonym, a single form with more than one meaning. How do we usually know which meaning is intended in a particular sentence? We normally do so on the basis of linguistic context.

If the word bank is used in a sentence together with words like steep or overgrown, we have no problem deciding which type of bank is meant. Or, if we hear someone say that she has to get to the bank to withdraw some cash, we know from this linguistic context which type of bank is intended.

More generally, we know how to interpret words on the basis of physical context. If we see the word BANK on the wall of a building in a city, the physical location will influence our interpretation. While this may seem rather obvious, we should keep in mind that it is not the actual physical situation "out there" that constitutes "the context" for interpreting words or sentences. The relevant context is our mental representation of those aspects of what is physically out there that we use in arriving at an interpretation. Our understanding of much of what we read and hear is tied to this processing of aspects of the physical context, particularly the time and place, in which we encounter linguistic expressions.

- **Deixis**

There are some very common words in our language that can't be interpreted at all if we don't know the context, especially the physical context of the speaker. These are words such as here and there, this or that, now and then, yesterday, today or tomorrow,

as well as pronouns such as you, me, she, him, it, them. Some sentences of English are virtually impossible to understand if we don't know who is speaking, about whom, where and when. For example: You'll have to bring it back tomorrow because she isn't here today.

Out of context, this sentence is really vague. It contains a large number of expressions (you, it, tomorrow, she, here, today) that rely on knowledge of the immediate physical context for their interpretation (i.e. that the delivery driver will have to return on February 15 to 660 College Drive with the long box labeled "flowers, handle with care" addressed to Lisa Landry). Expressions such as tomorrow and here are obvious examples of bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker's intended meaning. They are technically known as deictic (/daɪktɪk/) expressions, from the Greek word deixis, which means "pointing" via language. We use deixis to point to things (it, this, these boxes) and people (him, them, those idiots), sometimes called person deixis. Words and phrases used to point to a location (here, there, near that) are examples of spatial deixis, and those used to point to a time (now, then, last week) are examples of temporal deixis.

All these deictic expressions have to be interpreted in terms of which person, place or time the speaker has in mind. We make a broad distinction between what is marked as close to the speaker (this, here, now) and what is distant (that, there, then). We can also indicate whether movement is away from the speaker's location (go) or toward the speaker's location (come). If you're looking for someone and she appears, moving toward you, you can say Here she comes!. If, however, she is moving away from you in the distance, you're more likely to say There she goes!. The same deictic effect explains the different situations in which you would tell someone to Go to bed versus Come to bed.

- **Reference**

In discussing deixis, we assumed that the use of words to refer to people, places and times was a simple matter. However, words themselves don't refer to anything. People refer. We have to define reference as an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something. To perform an act of reference, we can use proper nouns (Chomsky, Jennifer, Whiskas), other nouns in phrases (a writer, my friend, the cat) or pronouns (he, she, it). We sometimes assume that these words identify someone or something uniquely, but it is more accurate to say that, for each word or phrase, there is a "range of reference." The words Jennifer or friend or she can be used to refer to many entities in the world. As we observed earlier, an expression such as the war doesn't directly identify anything by itself, because its reference depends on who is using it.

We can also refer to things when we're not sure what to call them. We can use expressions such as the blue thing and that icky stuff and we can even invent names. For instance, there was a man who always drove his motorcycle fast and loud through my neighborhood and was locally referred to as Mr. Kawasaki. In this case, a brand name for a motorcycle is being used to refer to a person.

- **Inference**

As in the "Mr. Kawasaki" example, a successful act of reference depends more on the listener's ability to recognize what we mean than on the listener's "dictionary" knowledge of a word we use. For example, in a restaurant, one waiter can ask another, Where's the spinach salad sitting? and receive the reply, He's sitting by the door. If you're studying linguistics, you might ask someone, Can I look at your Chomsky? and get the response, Sure, it's on the shelf over there. These examples make it clear that we can use names associated with things (salad) to refer to people, and use names of people (Chomsky) to refer to things. The key process here is called inference. An inference is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant. In the last example, the listener has to operate with the inference: "if X is the name of the writer of a book, then X can be used to identify a copy of a book by that writer." Similar types of inferences are necessary to understand someone who says that Picasso is in the museum or We saw Shakespeare in London or Jennifer is wearing Calvin Klein.

○ Anaphora

We usually make a distinction between introducing new referents (a puppy) and referring back to them (the puppy, it).

We saw a funny home video about a boy washing a puppy in a small bath. The puppy started struggling and shaking and the boy got really wet. When he let go, it jumped out of the bath and ran away.

In this type of referential relationship, the second (or subsequent) referring expression is an example of anaphora ("referring back"). The first mention is called the antecedent. So, in our example, a boy, a puppy and a small bath are antecedents and The puppy, the boy, he, it and the bath are anaphoric expressions.

○ Presupposition

When we use a referring expression like this, he or Shakespeare, we usually assume that our listeners can recognize which referent is intended. In a more general way, we design our linguistic messages on the basis of large-scale assumptions about what our listeners already know. Some of these assumptions may be mistaken, of course, but mostly they're appropriate. What a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as a presupposition.

If someone tells you Your brother is waiting outside, there is an obvious presupposition that you have a brother. If you are asked Why did you arrive late?, there is a presupposition that you did arrive late. And if you are asked the question When did you stop smoking?, there are at least two presuppositions involved. In asking this question, the speaker presupposes that you used to smoke and that you no longer do so.

○ Speech acts

We have been considering ways in which we interpret the meaning of an utterance in terms of what the speaker intended to convey. We have not yet considered the fact that we usually know how the speaker intends us to "take" (or "interpret the function of") what is said. In very general terms, we can usually recognize the type of "action" performed by a speaker with the utterance. We use the term speech act to describe actions such as "requesting," "commanding," "questioning" or "informing." We can define a speech act as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance. If you say, I'll be there at six, you are not just speaking, you seem to be performing the speech act of "promising."

○ Direct and indirect speech acts

We usually use certain syntactic structures with the functions listed beside them in the following table.

	Structures	Functions
Did you eat the pizza?	Interrogative	Question
Eat the pizza (please)!	Imperative	Command (Request)
You ate the pizza.	Declarative	Statement

When an interrogative structure such as Did you…?, Are they…? or Can we…? is used with the function of a question, it is described as a direct speech act. For example, when we don't know something and we ask someone to provide the information, we usually produce a direct speech act such as Can you ride a bicycle?.

Compare that utterance with Can you pass the salt?. In this second example, we are not really asking a question about someone's ability. In fact, we don't normally use this structure as a question at all. We normally use it to make a request. That is, we are using a syntactic structure associated with the function of a question, but in this case with the function of a request. This is an example of an indirect speech act. Whenever one of the structures in the set above is used to perform a function other than the one listed beside it on the same line, the result is an indirect speech act.

- **Politeness**

We can think of politeness in general terms as having to do with ideas like being tactful, modest and nice to other people. In the study of linguistic politeness, the most relevant concept is "face." Your face, in pragmatics, is your public self-image. This is the emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize. Politeness can be defined as showing awareness and consideration of another person's face. If you say something that represents a threat to another person's self-image, that is called a face-threatening act. For example, if you use a direct speech act to get someone to do something (Give me that paper!), you are behaving as if you have more social power than the other person. If you don't actually have that social power (e.g. you're not a military officer or prison warden), then you are performing a facethreatening act. An indirect speech act, in the form associated with a question (Could you pass me that paper?), removes the assumption of social power. You're only asking if it's possible. This makes your request less threatening to the other person's face. Whenever you say something that lessens the possible threat to another's face, it can be described as a face-saving act.

- **Negative and positive face**

We have both a negative face and a positive face. (Note that "negative" doesn't mean "bad" here, it's simply the opposite of "positive.") Negative face is the need to be independent and free from imposition. Positive face is the need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of the group. So, a face-saving act that emphasizes a person's negative face will show concern about imposition (I'm sorry to bother you…; I know you're busy, but…). A face-saving act that emphasizes a person's positive face will show solidarity and draw attention to a common goal (Let's do this together…; You and I have the same problem, so…).