
كلية الآداب
تخصص اللغة الإنجليزية
مستوى رابع
https://telegram.me/EnglishKFU

Course: Introduction to Linguistics

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جامعة الملك فيصل

عمادة التعلم الإلكتروني والتعليم عن بعد

كلية الآداب

Introductory class

Lecture elements

- **Course description**
- **Course objectives**
- **Course content**
- **Reference**
- **Grading**
- **Mobile office hours**

Course description

- This course defines language and how it works, leads students to examine their own beliefs and attitudes about language.
- Topics covered include the following: origins of language, language structure, language acquisition, and language society.

Course objectives

By the end of the course, students will be able to:

1. Understand the mechanism of language (e.g., how English system is structured, how it is acquired, how it is used in the production and comprehension of messages, how it changes over time)
2. Identify different grammatical structures and expression between languages.

Course objectives

By the end of the course, students will be able to answer the following questions:

- What components and properties do all human languages have in common?
- How do languages differ, and to what extent are the differences systematic?
- How do children acquire such complete knowledge of a language in such a short time?
- What are the ways in which languages can change over time, and are there limitations to how languages change?
- What is the nature of the cognitive processes that come into play when we produce and understand language?

Course content

- The origins of language (spoken language)
- Animal and human language
- The sounds of language (phonetics)
- The sound patterns of language (phonology)
- Word formation
- Morphology

Course content

- Grammar
- Syntax
- Semantic
- Pragmatics
- Language and the brain
- First/second language acquisition
- Written language

Course content

- Language history and change
- Language and culture

Reference

- Yule, G. (2016). The Study of Language (5th Edition). Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Available at: local libraries such as Jarir and Obeikan bookshop.

Grading

- The total mark (out of 100) will be distributed according to the following:

10% participation on discussion forms on Blackboard

10% Attendance of recorded and live lectures

10% Home assignment

70% Final examination

Mobile office hours

- **Sunday (18:00 – 19: 00)**
- **Monday (18:00 – 19: 00)**
- **Wednesday (18:00 – 19: 00)**

- Mobile will be switched on only during these office hours mentioned above.

Lecture1

The Origins of language

Introduction to **linguistics**

- **Linguistics** includes the systematic and scientific study of language.
- **Linguistics** is concerned with understanding the structure and nature of language which is divided into: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics.
- **Linguistics** deals with other perspectives on language which are represented in specialized or interdisciplinary branches such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics and second language acquisition.

Before we start: we should be aware that:

- We do not know how language was originated. Yet, we know that spoken language developed thousand years before written language.
- It is estimated that some spoken languages have developed between 100,000 and 50,000 years ago.
- Written languages have developed nearly 5000 years ago.

Before we start: we should be aware that:

- There is ability of producing sounds and vocal patterning which is shared among different creatures such as fish and birds; but that is not human language.
- No physical evidence relating to the speech of our distant ancestors that might tell us how language was existed in the early stages.

Speculations about the sources of the origins of language

1. The divine source
2. The natural sound source (bow-wow/pooh-pooh theories)
3. The social interaction source
4. The physical adaptation source (teeth and lips/mouth and tongue and larynx and pharynx)
5. The tool-making source (the human brain)
6. The genetic source (innateness hypothesis)

1. The divine source

- Divine is related to God or Creator ‘الهي’.
- In most religions, it is believed that language appears to be a divine source that provides human with language.
- Some experiments confirm that if human infant get deprived of hearing language around them, they would spontaneously begin using God or Creator-given language in the Psamtik story.

1. The divine source

- Yet, other experiments - of children who lived in isolation without contact with humans - did not confirm the results of divine-source experiments as in the Cases of Victor and Aveyron who were discovered in the 18th century; as they did not show a spontaneous language, as in the previous experiment.

2. The natural sound source

- This view is based on the concept that natural sounds which are attained through the auditory system that develops before birth which later develop to identify sounds in the environment.
- This will help humans to connect between a sound and the thing (or organ) producing that sound.
- Imitation of natural sounds lead to the development of primitive words (which were heard by early men and women around them).
- Jespersen (1922) called this idea of acquiring natural sounds ‘Bow-wow’ and ‘Pooh-pooh’ theories.

Bow-wow theory

- It focuses on imitation of sounds then using it to refer to objects (even when they are not present), e.g. Coo-Coo.
- In every language, there are words which seem to be naturally occurring sounds such as splash and boom; which may refer to sounds similar to the noises they describe.
- Yet, it is hard to see how soundless things (low branch) or abstract concepts (truth) have been referred to in a language that echoed natural sounds. Therefore, the view that language is only a set of words to describe names for things not always necessary.

Pooh-pooh theory

- While this theory is based on that speech developed from the instinctive sounds people make in emotional circumstances.
- So, the original sound of language came from natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger or joy.
- Words such as Ah!, Wow!, Ooh! are all used with sudden intakes of breath; unlike when we want to talk which is the opposite.

3. The social interaction source

- This view is based on the idea that the source of our language is the physical effort of several people and interaction which is to be coordinated.
- It happens when a group of early humans develop a set of hums, groans … etc. that were used when they were carrying things.
- It claims that the development of human language takes place in a social context through groups.
- Groups are important particularly in the past to main communication; which had different uses within their social interaction.

4. The physical adaptation source

- This source is based on physical features human processes that are distinct from other creatures (particularly non-humans) which may have enabled speech production.
- Our (human) ancestors showed adaptation to up-right posture and revised role for the front limbs.
- Adaptation (or changed) happened to fossilized skeletal structures which later began to be similar to modern humans.

4. The physical adaptation source

- This (partial) adaptation appeared to be more relevant to speech.
- Such features would not enable speech in some primates; yet they are clues that a creature with similar features might have the capacity for speech production.

Teeth and lips

- Human teeth are different from other creatures. They are suitable to produce sounds such as ***F*** or ***V***.
- Human teeth are upright and suitable for chewing.
- Human lips have intricate muscle interlacing more than other primates.
- Human lips are appropriate to produce sounds such as ***P*** or ***B*** and ***M***.

Mouth and tongue

- Human mouth are small compared to other creatures; as a part of an extended vocal tract with an L-shape not straight path from front to back.
- Human tongue are shorter, thicker and more muscular than other creatures; to produce a variety od sounds inside the oral cavity.
- The intricate muscles in mouth and tongue and lips and teeth help to articulate a wider range of shapes and a more powerful delivery of sounds produced through these shapes.

Larynx and pharynx

- Human larynx is ‘voice box’ which comprises of vocal folds and vocal cords; which different other creatures larynx.
- Larynx helps human to choke on pieces of food.
- Human pharynx has a longer cavity than many other creatures; which works as a resonator for increased range and clarity of the sounds produced through the larynx and vocal tract.

Larynx and pharynx

- Therefore, there are advantages of getting this extra vocal power to outweigh the potential disadvantages from an increased risk of chocking which might lead to death.

5. The tool-making source

- It is speculated that human hands and manual gestures may have been a precursor of language.
- Two million years ago, human managed to develop preferential right-handedness and had become able to make stone tools; tool-making is evidence of a brain at work.

The human brain (1)

- The human brain is lateralized; where it has different functions for each hemisphere.
- Left hemisphere of the brain is responsible for complex vocalization and speaking
- Interestingly, motor cortex that controls the muscles of the arms and hands is next to articulatory muscles of face and jaw. It is believed that there is a connection between the language-using and tool-using abilities of humans.

The human brain (2)

- Many speculative proposals argue that the origins of speech is based on human producing single noises to indicate objects in their environment. Yet, it lacks structural organization. All languages require the organizing and combining of sounds and signs in specific arrangement.

The human brain (3)

- In terms of tool-making, it is not enough for human to grasp one rock (to make one sound) but need to bring two rocks to create proper contact with the first and to develop a tool
- In terms of language structure, the human may have developed the naming ability first for producing consistent noise; then to bring another specific noise to build a complex message.

6. The genetic source (innateness hypothesis)

- The human baby are born with larynx that is higher in the throat that is to breathe and drink at the same time.
- After a few months, the larynx descends, the brain develops and start walking and talking.
- In fact, young child's language is complex and seen as more than physical adaption of species. It seems that language is an innate feature; what is known as 'innateness hypothesis'

6. The genetic source (innateness hypothesis)

- The ‘innateness hypothesis’ refers to something in human genetics as the source, possibly a crucial mutation.
- As we consider this hypothesis, there is a movement from fossil evidence or the physical source of adaptation towards analogies with how computer work (being pre-programmed or hard-wired)

6. The genetic source (innateness hypothesis)

- Yet, we are not sure when this rapidly genetic change might take place or how it might relate to the physical adaptation.

Lecture 2

Animals and Human Language

Two key questions to think about:

- Is it possible that a creature could learn to communicate with humans using language?
- Does human language have properties that make it so unique to be learned by other creatures?

Communication

During our communication, we need to distinguish between:

Communicative signals:

It happens when someone **intentionally** use language to tell this person something.

e.g., I am one the applicants for the vacant position of senior brain surgeon at the hospital. This is considered as to be intentionally communicating something.

Communication

Informative signals:

It happens when someone may become informed about you through signals that you have **not intentionally** sent. For example, someone might note that you have a cold because you sneezed.

Communication

Both of animal communication and human language are considered to be means of intentional communication.

Properties of human language

Humans are able to reflect on language and its uses. Without this abilities humans would not be able to reflect on properties of human language.

1. Displacement
2. Arbitrariness
3. Productivity
4. Cultural transmission
5. Duality

1. Displacement

- It allows language users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment.
- Indeed, displacement allows us to talk about things and places whose existence we cannot even be sure of.

2. Arbitrariness

- There is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. This connection is arbitrary.
- Some words in English seem to be less arbitrary such as crash and slurp.

3. Productivity

- It is also called creativity and open-endedness.
- It means that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite; unlike the communication system of other creatures.
- Animal communication lacks productivity which can be described ‘fixed reference’.

4. Cultural transmission

- Language is acquired through a culture with other speakers not from parental genes.
- Humans are born with some predisposition to acquire language in a general sense; but not born with the ability to produce utterances in specific language such as English but rather to acquire the first language as children in a culture.
- Non-humans are born with a set of specific signals that are produced instinctively.

Talking to animals

- Some spoken languages are directed by humans to animals, as we see in circus animals.

Chimpanzees and language

- In an experiment regarding teaching a chimpanzee to use a human language, Luella and Winthrop Kellog reported that the chimpanzee (Gua) had the ability to understand nearly 100 words but did not manage to any of them.

Chimpanzees and language

- Another experiment was done by Catherine and Hayes to teach a chimpanzee (Viki) a human language. Catherine and Hayes spent five years attempting to get Viki to say some English Words. Viki managed to produce some basic words such as mama, papa and cup.

Chimpanzees and language

- From these experiments and others, it was concluded that non-human primates do not actually have the physical and structural ability (vocal tract) to articulate the sounds used in speech.
- Chimpanzees, apes and gorilla can all communicate with a wide range of vocal calls, but they just cannot make speech sounds like humans.

Chimpanzees and language

- From different experiments, it was concluded that the Chimpanzees' behavior is viewed as a type of conditioned response to cues provided by human trainers.
- Herbert's also concluded that Chimpanzees are clever creatures who produce certain type of behaviors to get rewards which can make sophisticated tricks.

Using language

- Some Chimpanzees were found capable of taking part in interaction with humans – using a symbol system by humans.
- Chimpanzees did not perform linguistically on a level comparable to a human child.

Using language

- The behavior of a two-year human child interacting with a caregiver is an example of uisng language.
- We observe very similar behavior from Chimpanzees when they interact with humans
- Accordingly, we can say that in both cases we observe participants ‘using language’.
- Yet, there is a still difference in term of ‘using language’ between humans and non-humans.
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Yet, there is a difference in term of ‘using language’ between humans and non-humans. Such meaning of ‘using of language’ (by humans) is the capacity to develop a complex system of sounds and structures which allow users to use extended discourse containing infinite number of novel utterances. It is in this more comprehensive and productive sense that we say that language is **uniquely human**.

Lecture 3

The sounds of language (phonetics)

علم الصوتيات

In this lecture we will be looking at the following questions:

1. How the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) can be used to represent both consonant and vowel sounds of English words?

(IPA is an internationally recognized set of phonetic symbols developed in the 19th century to restrict one-to-one correspondence between sounds and symbols)

2. What physical aspects of human vocal tract are involved in the production of those sounds?

Phonetics:

- It refers to the general study of the features of speech sounds.
- Phonetics is classified into:

- Articulatory phonetics which refers to how speech sounds are made or articulated.
- Acoustic phonetics which refers to the physical properties of sounds such as sound waves in the air.
- Auditory phonetics which refers the perception of speech sounds.

Voiced and voiceless sounds

- When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in the way are described as **voiceless**.
- Such voiceless sounds are: S or F (by placing your fingertip on the top of your Adam's apple, you can not feel any vibration).

Voiced and voiceless sounds

- On the other hand, when the vocal cords are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through, creating a vibration effect. This is described as **voiced**.
- Such voiced sounds are: Z or V (by placing your fingertip on the top of your Adam's apple, you can feel some vibration).

The two classes of sounds:

1. Consonants (الحروف الساكنة) nearly 24 sounds

- A consonant is a speech sound that is articulated with complete or partial closure of the vocal tract.
- Most consonant sounds are produced through tongue to shape the oral cavity through which the air is passing.
- Places of articulation of sounds describes the location inside the mouth at which the constriction takes place.

The two classes of sounds:

1. Consonant sounds (الحروف الساكنة)

- Places of articulation are:

bilabials,
labiodentals,
dentals,
alveolars,
palatals,
velars and
glottals

Places of articulation of consonant sounds:

1. Bilabials = both lip

e.g.

([p],[b],[m])

Places of articulation of consonant sounds:

2. Labiodentals = the upper teeth with the lower lip

e.g.

([f], [v])

Places of articulation of consonant sounds:

3. Dentals = the tongue tip behind the upper teeth or between the teeth

e.g.,

([ɵ][ð])

Places of articulation of consonant sounds:

4. Alveolars = the front part of the tongue on the alveolar ridge (the rough area behind and above the upper teeth)

e.g.,

([t],[d],[n],[s],[z])

Places of articulation of consonant sounds:

5. Palatals = the tongue and hard palate (on the roof of the mouth)

e.g.,

([j])

Places of articulation of consonant sounds:

6. Velars = the back of the tongue on the velum (soft palate)

e.g.,

([k],[g],[ŋ])

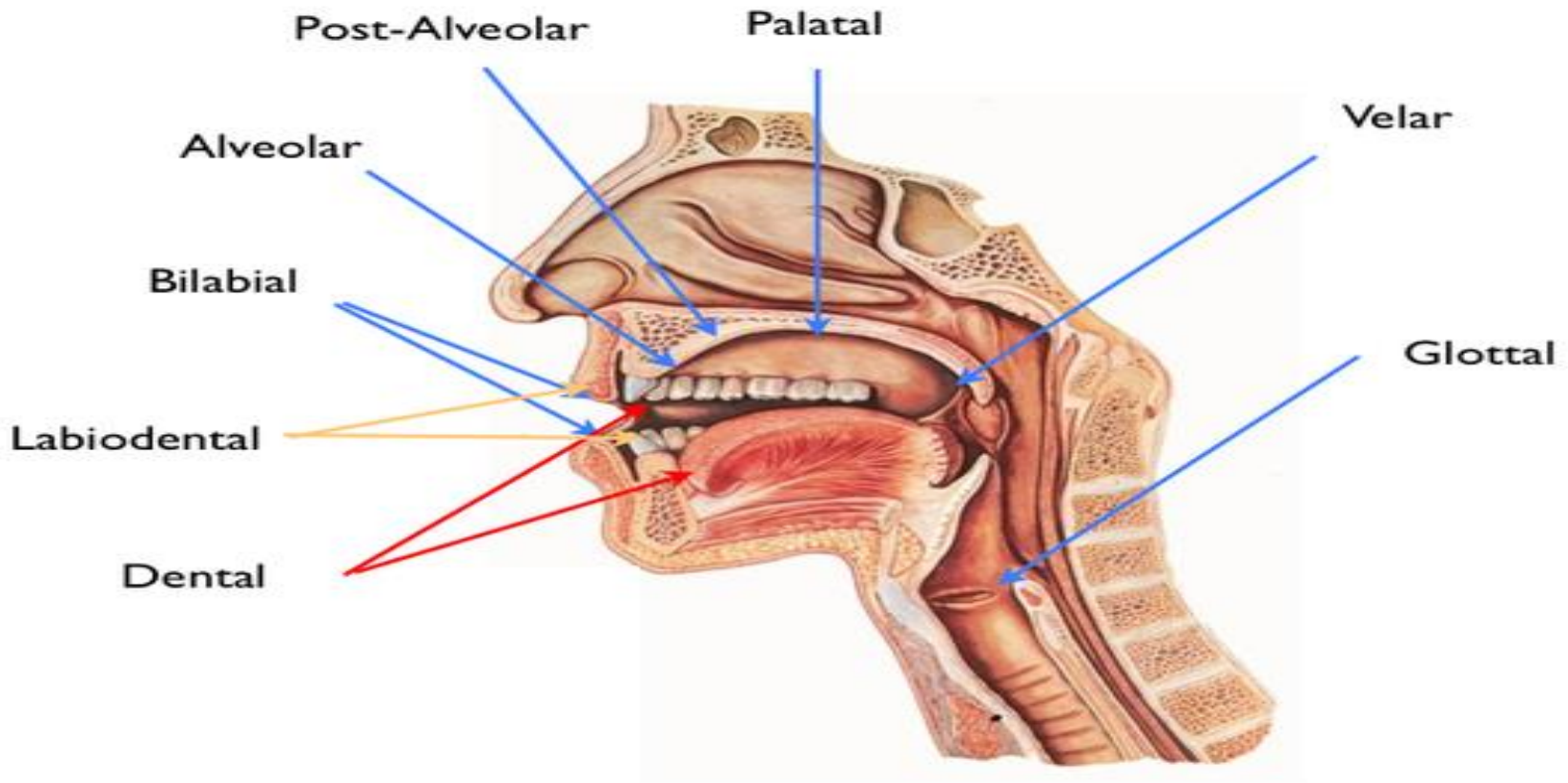
Places of articulation of consonant sounds:

7. Glottals = using the glottis, the open space between the vocal folds

e.g.,

([h])

Places of articulation of consonant sounds:



The two classes of sounds:

Within consonant sounds, we have:

- **Familiar symbols** which denote to most consonant sounds such as [p] in pop and [m] mom. (bilabial voiceless consonants - produced by both lips)

- **Unfamiliar symbols** which refer to less familiar sounds, as they two ways of representing them, such as [th] in words *thus* and *loathe*. (dental voiceless consonants - produced with the involvement of teeth)

Manner of articulation (what kind of constriction is there)

- It is concerned with the degree of obstruction or the type of channel imposed upon the passage of air at a given place of articulation.
- It ranges from completely closed to completely open:

1. Stops — Air flow is COMPLETELY CLOSED
2. Fricatives الاصوات الاحتكاكية
3. Affricatives
4. Nasals
5. Liquids
6. Glides

(Vowels) — COMPLETELY OPEN

Manner of articulation (what kind of constriction is there)

1. Stops or plosives = produced by completely stopping the air.
2. Fricatives = produced by forcing the air through a narrow channel made by placing two articulators together, such as */f/* and */th/*
3. Affricates = produced as stops at the beginning and released as fricatives at the end, such as */ch/* and */j/*
4. Nasals = produced by allowing the air to escape freely through nose, such as */n/* and */m/*.
5. Liquids = produced by partial closure in the mouth, such as */r/* and */i/*.
6. Glides/semi-vowels = produced with the tongue in motion or from the position of a vowel, such as */w/* and */y/* in yes and west.

The two classes of sounds:

2. Vowels (الحروف المتحركة)

- A vowel is produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are voiced.
- Vowels have four positions: front, back, high and low areas. For example, the pronunciation of *heat* and *hit* have a high front vowels because the sound is made with the front part of the tongue in a raised position. On the other, the vowel in *hat* is produced with the tongue in lower position and the sound in *hot* can be described as a low-back vowel.

The two classes of sounds:

2. Vowels (الحروف المتحركة)

- A vowel is a speech sound in which the mouth is open and the tongue is not touching the top of the mouth, the teeth. (Oxford Learner's Dictionary).
- Vowel is a speech sound produced by humans when the breath flows out through the mouth without being blocked by the teeth, tongue, or lips. (Cambridge Learner's Dictionary).

The two classes of sounds:

2. Vowels (الحروف المتحركة)

- The position of the highest point of the tongue is considered to be the point of articulation of the vowel.
- The vertical dimension of the vowel diagram is known as vowel high, which includes high, central (mid), or low vowels. The horizontal dimension of the vowel diagram includes tongue advancement and identifies how far forward the tongue is located in the oral cavity during production.

The two classes of sounds:

2. Vowels (الحروف المتحركة)

e

mid, front, unrounded, example: lake

i

high, front, unrounded, example: reep

o

mid, back, rounded, example: oar

u

High, back, rounded, example: poop

Diphthongs

- Diphthongs is a combination of two adjacent vowel sounds within the same syllable.
- There are eight diphthongs commonly used in English: /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /ɪə/, /eə/, and /ʊə/.
- For example, the phrase *no highway cowboys* /ˌnoʊ ˈhaɪweɪ ˈkaʊbɔɪz/ has five distinct diphthongs, one in every syllable.
- Words such as *Hi* or *Bye* have two vowel sounds and the movement of these diphthongs is from low towards high front.

Diphthongs

Diphthongs

double vowels

aɪ

ride, chloride, tide

ɔɪ

boy, toy, voice,

aʊ

trout, couch

Diphthongs

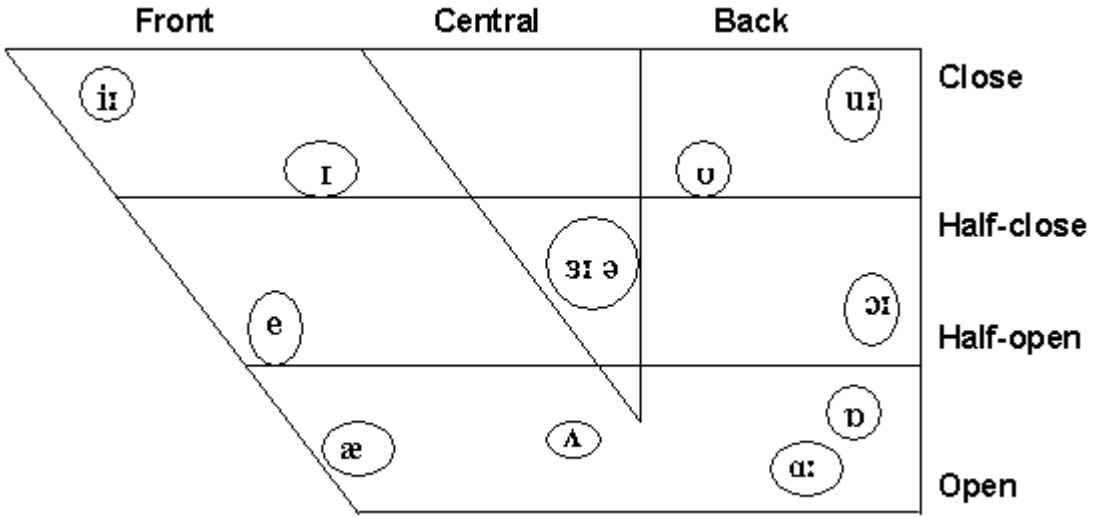
Standard English (RP = Received Pronunciation) has 44 phonemes (speech sounds):

- Consonants, 24;
- Vowels, 12;
- Diphthongs, 8.

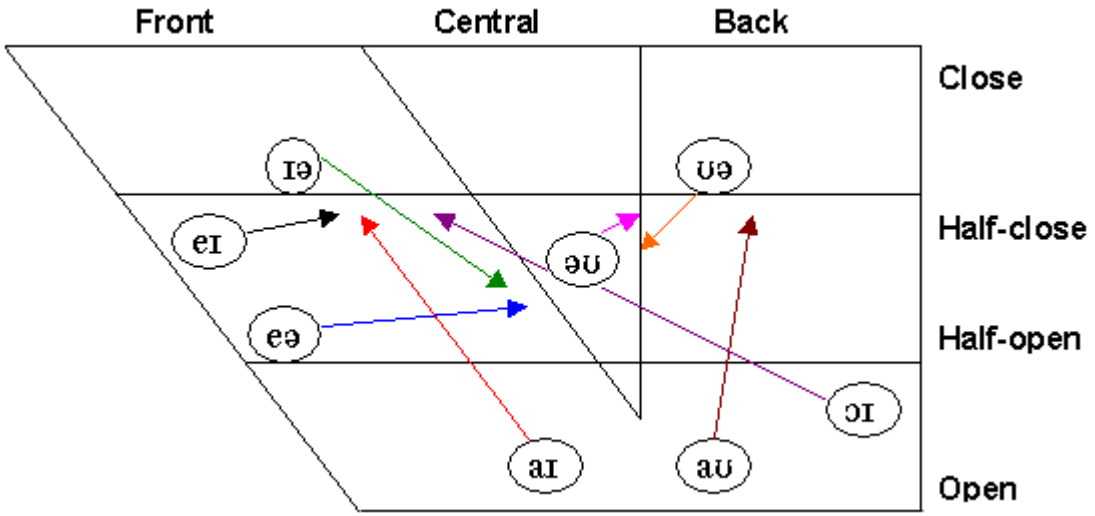
English consonant chart -24 (place + manner of articulation)

	Bilabial	Labio – Dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post – Alveolar	Palato – Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b		t d					k g	
Affricate						t ʃ d ʒ			
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z		ʃ ʒ			h
Nasal	m			n				ŋ	
Lateral				l					
Approximant or Semi- vowel	w				r		j		

English vowels chart (12 vowels)



English diphthong chart (8 diphthongs)



Vowel sounds:

- 5 long vowels:

e.g., bean, barn, born, boon, burn

- 7 short vowels:

e.g., pit, pet, pat, putt, pot, put, another

- 8 diphthongs:

e.g, bay, buy, boy, no, now, pair, poor

Lecture 4

The sounds patterns of language (phonology)

علم الأصوات الكلامية

Word formation

علم تركيب- تكوين المفردات

Differences between phonetics and phonology:

- Phonetics deals with the production of speech sounds whereas phonology is about the patterns of sounds.
- Phonetics is about the **physical aspect** of sounds, it studies the production and the perception of sounds, called *phones*. Phonetics has some subcategories, but if not specified, we usually mean "articulatory phonetics": that is, "*the study of the production of speech sounds by the articulatory and vocal tract by the speaker*". Phonetic transcriptions are done using the square brackets, [ ].
- Phonology is about the **abstract (mental) aspect** of sounds and it studies the *phonemes* (phonemic transcriptions adopt the slash / /). Phonology is about establishing what are the phonemes in a given language, i.e. those sounds that can bring a difference in meaning between two words. A phoneme is a phonic segment with a meaning value, for example in minimal pairs:

The ear hears phonetics, but the brain hears phonology. That is, your ear is capable of processing whatever linguistic sounds are given to it (assuming someone with normal hearing), but your language experience causes your brain to filter out only those sound patterns that are important to your language(s).

Phonology is:

- the blueprint of each sound type
- the constant basis of all versions in different physical articulations of that sound type in different contexts.

e.g., the differences in pronouncing the sounds /t/ and /k/ as they have meaningful consequences related to one rather than the other and they make different words ‘meaningfully distinct’.

- the representation of sounds in our minds, to recognize and interpret the meaning of words based on the physical sound we say and hear.

Phoneme

- Single written symbol
- Meaning distinguishing sounds
- Phonemes such as /f/ and /v/
- Phonemes have a contrastive property as in fat and vat (if we substitute one sound for another there will be a change in meaning and pronunciation, then the two sounds will represent different phonemes).
- Some phonemes are described as 'natural classes' when they similar sound characteristics. For example, /p/ and /k/ are both voiceless stops. So, they are considered as parts of a natural class of phonemes.

Phones and allophones

- As we have seen that a phoneme is the abstract unit or sound in the mind; while phone is the sound type produced in actual speech in the mouth.
- Phonetic units appear in square brackets.
- Allophone is a set of phones all of which are versions of one phoneme. (e.g., the phoneme /t/ is produced in different ways as phones [t] either with strong puff as in *tar* less puff in *star*); they are referred to as allophones of the phoneme /t/.
- Changing allophone only results in different pronunciation of the same word.

Minimal pairs

- 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 are described as a minimal pair in English.
- Arabic does not have this contrast between these two phonemes /p/ and /b/.
- Examples of more minimal pairs in English: fan – van, bet – bat, site – side.
- Such minimal pairs are also used for teaching English as a foreign language to develop the ability of students to understand the contrast in meaning.

Minimal sets

- When a group of words can be differentiated by only changing one phoneme; this is considered as a minimal set.
- An example of one minimal set based on the vowel phonemes of English is: *feat, fit, fat, fate, fought* and *foot*.
- An example of one minimal set based on the consonant phonemes of English is: *big, rig, fig, dig* and *wig*.

Syllables

- A syllable denotes the basic structure of larger phonological units.
- A syllable may consist of a vowel or a diphthong. The most common type of syllables is Consonant and Vowel (CV).
- The basic elements of syllables are Onset (one or more consonants) followed by Rhyme (consists of a vowel, known also as nucleus, plus a consonant/ or consonants, known as the coda).
- Syllables have two type: open syllables (which have an onset and nucleus, e.g., *me*, *to* or *no … etc.*) and closed syllables (which have an set, nucleus and coda, e.g., *up, up, hat …* etc.).

Examples for some syllables in English

- Green (CCVC)
- Eggs (VCC)
- Like (CVC)
- Them (CVC)

Consonant clusters

- A combination of two consonants (CC) such as /st/ in the word *stop,* known as onset whereas coda in the word *post*.
- English can have more than two consonants - larger consonant clusters - as the words *stress* and *strong* (CCC).

Coarticulation effects

- It is unusual to have large consonant clusters in many languages. For example, in Japanese the dominant syllable is CV.
- Large consonant clusters may be reduced if they come in the middle of a word.
- Coarticulation refers to the process of making one sound almost at the same time as the next sound. There are three coarticulation effects:

- Assimilation
- Nasalization
- Elision

Assimilation

- When two sound segments occur in sequence and some aspects of one segment is taken or copied by the other.
- For example, the word *have* is pronounced in a phrase as I have to go with replacing /v/ sound to be a similar to /f/ sound and from being voiced to become voiceless.
- Both of consonants and vowels are subject to assimilation.

Nasalization

- The anticipation of forming the final nasal consonant will make it easier to go into the nasalized articulation in advance.
- The word can *can* become /Kaen/ with an emphasis on changing the velar /g/ in the I can go. So, the influence of the following velar nasal [g] will make the preceding nasal sound come out.
- Think about the phrase *you and me.*

Elision

- The process of not producing a sound segment that might be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word in isolation.
- The word friendship, the sound /d/ is deleted.
- This is common in consonant clusters – or a coda position, as in the *aspects* or *he must be* without stress on /t/.
- Vowels also disappear as in the following words: interest, cabinet, camera, suppose and every .

Word formation

- Neologisms refers to the process of coping with new words. There is a regularity in the word-formation processes in a language.
- Etymology refers to the study of the origins and history of words. Etymon has come from Latin which means ‘original form’ and logia means ‘study of’.
- Many old words can cause outcries as they come into use today.

Sources of words formation

- Borrowing: taking over of words from other language or adopting a wide number of words from other languages such as:

- Jewel (French)
- Ski (Norwegian)
- Yogurt (Turkish)

- Other languages might borrow some words from English too, such as suupaamaaketto in Japanese (Supermarket in English) and taipurataa (typerwriter in English).

Loan translation or calque

- A type of borrowing
- It refers to a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language, e.g., the Dutch *wolkenkrabber* (cloud scratcher) or the German *Wollkenkratzer* (cloud scraper) which were calques for the English Skyscraper.

Compounding

- When there is a joining of two separate words to produce a single form, thus *Lehn* and *Wort* are combined to produce the word *Lehnwort* in German (*Loan word* in English).
- Very common in English and German and less common in French and Spanish.
- Examples are like:

- Wallpaper – noun
- Textbook – noun
- Fingerprint – noun
- Good-looking – adjective + noun

Compounding

- Part of compounding process is blending.
- Blending is the combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term.
- It differs from blending in a sense that it takes only the beginning of one word and joint it to the end of the other word.
- Smog (blending of smoke + fog)
- Bit (blending of binary + digital)
- Motel (blending of motor + hotel)

Clipping

- The element of reduction that is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process of clipping. It happens when a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form (facsimile -------- fax).
- Examples are like:

- gasoline ------- gas
- advertisement ------- ad
- influenza ---------- flu
- fan --------------- fantastic
- examination ---------- exam

Clipping

- Types of clipping can be:

1. Hypocorisms (often in Australian and British English): longer words reduced to a single syllable, then *y* or *ie* is added to the end.

Examples are like:

- telly (television)
- toastie (toasted sandwich)
- handi (handkerchief)

Clipping

- Types of clipping can be:

2. Backformation: a word of one type (e.g. noun) is reduced to form a word of another type (e.g. verb)

Examples are like:

- donation (noun), donate(verb)
- emotion (noun), emote (verb)
- enthusiasm (noun), enthuse (verb)

Conversion (category change/ functional shift)

- Simply, it is a change in the function of a word without reduction.
- Words such as *bottle, butter, chair, vacation … etc.* have become to be used as verbs instead of being only nouns.

- Someone need to chair the meeting
- They are vacationing in Florida.

- Part of the process of conversion is verbs become nouns (e.g.. guess), phrasal verbs become nouns (e.g., to print out/ a printout), and verbs become adjectives (e.g., a stand-up comedian).
-

Coinage

- It is the invention and general use totally new terms. It is not very common in English.
- Old examples for coinage are: *aspirin* and *nylon* and more recent examples are: *granola* and *xerox*. (After first use, they become everyday words in the language)
- Google is an example of coinage (using the internet to find information).
- Eponyms are new words are created based on the name of a person or place such *hoover and Spangler.*

Coinage

- One form of coinage of words is acronyms.
- Acronyms are new words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.
- Examples are like:

- CD compact disk
- UNESCO, NATO, NASA (these examples keep their capital letters)
- Laser = light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation
- Radar = radio detecting and ranging
- ATM = Automatic teller machine
- PIN = personal identification number

Derivation

- It is accomplished by means of creating a large number of words of small bits, described as affixes.
- Affixes have three types:

1. Prefixes refers to words added to the beginning of words such as un-happy , mis-understanding and dis-like.
2. Suffixes refers to words added to the end of words such as care-less, sad-ness and boy-ish
3. Infixes - not normally used in English – refers to using affixes inside another word. e.g., see (v) ------ srnee (n) -meaning to drill in Laos, a language in South East Asia

Multiple processes

- Some sources of word formation can come in operation of more than one process at work in the creation of a particular word.
- For example, when someone says ‘problems with the project have snowballed’. That means the final word can be understood as compounding of *snow* and *ball*; which has then turned into a verb through conversion.

Lecture 5

Morphology and syntax

الصرف والنحو

Morphology

- The study of forms
- In the 19th century, it has become a term describing the type of investigation that analyzes all those basic elements used in a language.

Morphemes

- **Morpheme**
- **Free and bound morphemes**
- **Lexical and functional morphemes**
- **Derivational morphemes (they change the grammatical category of a word, e.g., teach and teacher, *-er* is a derivational morpheme – a change from verb to noun)**
- **Inflectional morphemes (they never change the grammatical category of a word, e.g., old and older, *-er* here is inflectional morpheme - just a different form of adjective)**
- **III**

Morphemes

- A morpheme is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. This grammatical function includes past tense, or plural… etc.
- *-er, -ing, -ed, -er,* … etc. are all examples of basic morphemes.
- e.g.., tourists --- two units of meaning (tour + ist) & a unit of grammatical function (-s) indicating plurality

Free and bound morphemes

- Two types of morphemes:
- Free morphemes: those morphemes which can stand alone by themselves as single words such as *new* and *tour*.
- Bound morphemes: those forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form such as *re-, -ist,* and *-ed*. (they can be considered as affixes too).

Free and bound morphemes

- When words are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are called ‘stems’.
- Carelessness

care (stem)

less (suffix)

ness (suffix)

Lexical and functional morphemes

- Free morphemes fall into two types of categories:
- Lexical morphemes: set of ordinary nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs that we think of as the words that carry the content of the messages we convey. (e.g., yellow, girl, man, house, tiger)
- Functional morphemes: set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunction, prepositions, articles ... etc. (on, because, the, that, but, near)

Derivational and Inflectional morphemes

- Bound morphemes fall into two types of categories:
- Derivational morphemes: they refer to those words which can make new words or to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem (careful or careless –ful and –ness are derivational morphemes).
- Inflectional morphemes: they refer to those words which can indicate aspects of grammatical function of a word – if it is a plural or singular, comparative or possessive form. English has only eight inflectional morphemes (quieter, Jim's).

Derivational and Inflectional morphemes

- There are eight inflectional morphemes:

1. Indicating possessive and plural (‘s, s) noun-related
2. Indicating 3rd person singular, present participle, past tense, past participle (-s, -ing, -ed, -en) verb-related
3. Indicating comparative and superlative (-er, -est) adjective-related

Derivational morphemes

- The suffix *-er* is an inflectional morpheme as part of an adjective and a distinct derivational morpheme as part of noun.
- *Teachers* is divided as follows:

- Teach*er* is a derivational morpheme and teacher*s* is an inflectional morpheme.

Morphs and allomorphs

- A morph is a phonological string (of phonemes) that cannot be broken down into smaller components.
- A morph is simply the phonetic representation of a morpheme - how the morpheme is said. This distinction occurs because the morpheme can remain the same, but the pronunciation changes. The best example of this is the plural morpheme in English '-s'. '-s' is the morpheme, but the morph changes in different words: **Cats** - '-s' morpheme is pronounced /s/, **Dogs** - '-s' morpheme is pronounced /z/ and **Houses** - '-s' morpheme is pronounced /ɪz/.
- Morphs are the actual forms used to realize morphemes. e.g., the word *buses* has two morphs; realizing a lexical morpheme and inflectional morpheme.

Morphs and allomorphs

- Allomorphs of a particular morpheme is a group of different morphs, all versions of one morpheme.
- An allomorph is a unit of meaning which varies in sound without changing meaning.
- Allomorphs any of two or more actual representations of a morpheme, such as the plural endings s (as in *bats*), z (as in *bugs*), and ɪz (as in *buses*).

Morphs and allomorphs

- Accordingly, allomorphs are the varieties of a morpheme, which is closely related to the morph. The morph is just how you **pronounce the morpheme**, the allomorph is the **variation in pronunciation**.
- So, the morpheme '-s' (plural) has three allomorphs with the morph /s/, /z/, and /ɪz/.

Syntax

- Syntax literally means putting together or arrangement – Greek word.
- Refers to the description of the sequence of ordering of elements in the linear structure of the sentence.
- It deals with analyzing structure, underlying rule system that we use to produce or generate sentences.

Generative grammar

- The potential number of producing phrases – prepositional phrases – is unlimited.
- The analysis of syntactic rules is based on limited set of rules that will be capable of producing a large and potentially infinite number of well-formed structures. This small and finite set of rules is described as **generative grammar**.
- This type of grammar has two phenomena:

1. how some superficially different phrases and sentences are closely related.

2. how some superficially similar phrases and sentences are different .

Deep and surface structure

- Surface structure refers to the difference between active and passive sentences.

e.g., *Charlie broke the window and the window was broken by Charlie*.

- Deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented (that is what we will be focusing in the next slide).

Structural ambiguity

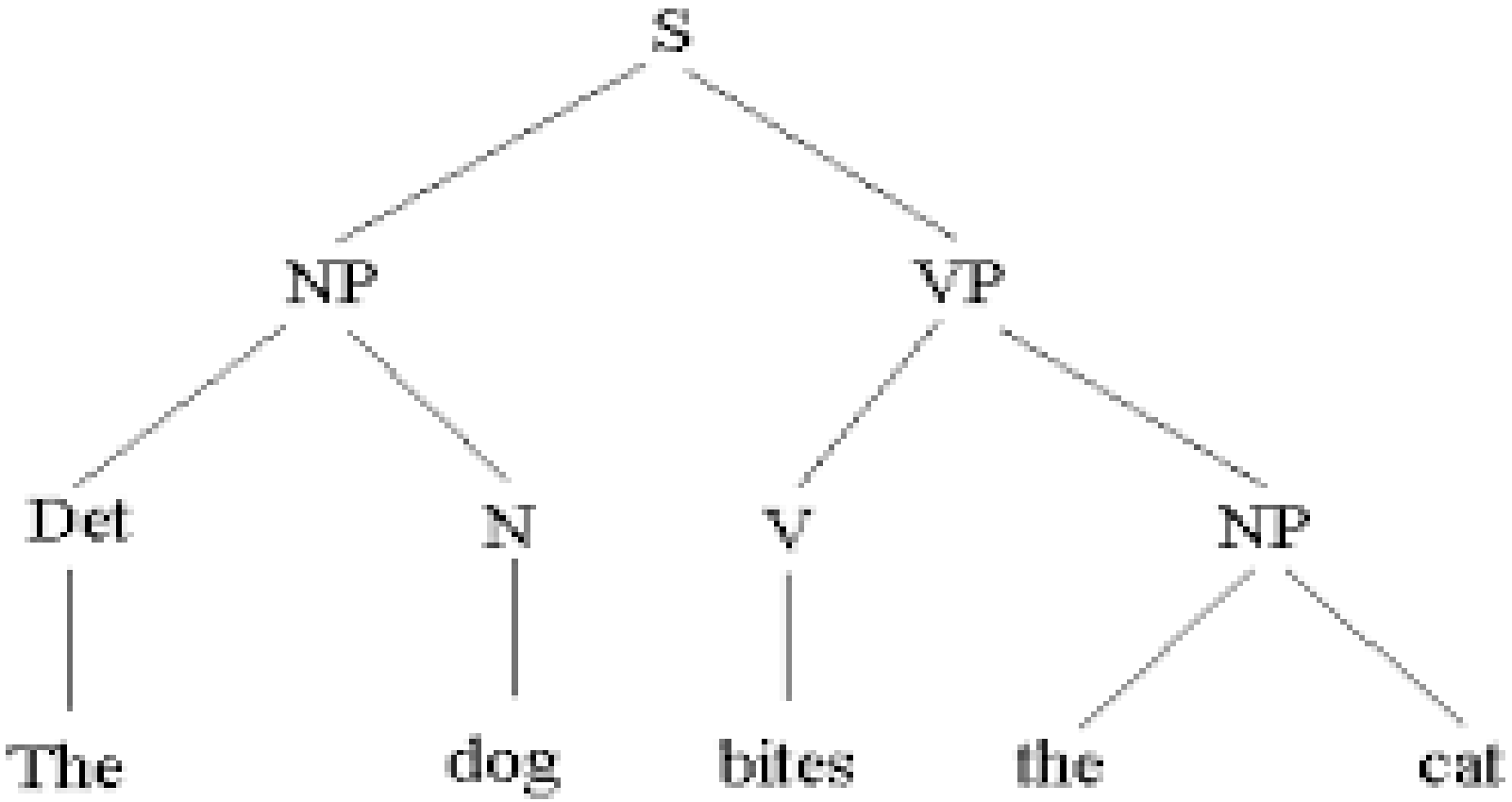
- Deep structure has two distinct ideas underlying interpretations.
- e.g., *Annie bumped into a man with an umbrella*. This example represents structural ambiguity as it has two ideas:

1. Annie had an umbrella and she bumped into a man with it.
2. Annie bumped into a man and the man happened to be carrying an umbrella.

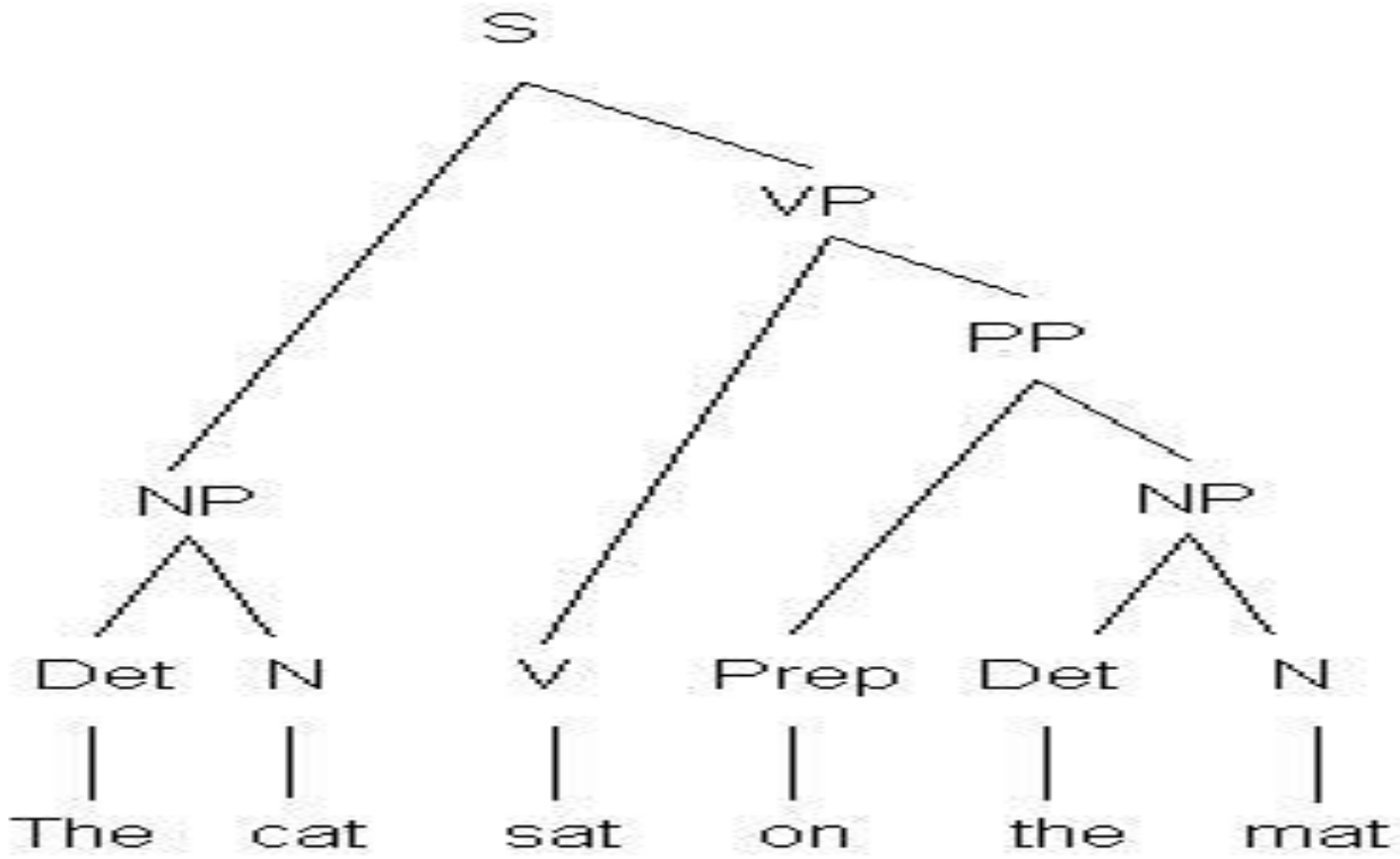
Tree diagrams

- A visual representation of underlying syntactic structure.
- Some useful symbols are like: Art= article/ N= noun/ V = verb, NP = noun phrase, PP = prepositional phrase, … etc. to label parts of the tree too represent the hierarchal structure of phrases and sentence.

Examples of tree diagrams (1)



Examples of tree diagrams (2)



Symbols used in syntactic analysis

- List of common symbols and abbreviations:

- S -> Sentence
- N -> Noun
- V -> Verb
- Art -> Article
- NP -> Noun phrase
- VP -> Verb phrase
- Adj -> Adjective
- Pro -> Pronoun

Symbols used in syntactic analysis

- Adv -> adverb
- Prep -> preposition
- PP -> prepositional phrase
- -> = Consists of/rewrites as o
- ( ) = Optional constituent o
- { } = One and only one of these constituents must be selected

e.g., NP -> { Art (Adj) N, Pro}

Phrase structure rules

- **Those rules which state that the structure of a phrase of a specific type will consist of one or more constituent or components in a particular order. We can use phrase structure rule to present the information of the tree diagram in another format.**
- **This lead to creating a more detailed set of rules.**

Lexical rules

- They specify which words can be used when we rewrite constituents such as NP.

- A proper noun rewrites as George, Mary … etc.
- An article noun rewrites as A, the. … etc.

Such lexical rules help us to construct grammatical sentences:

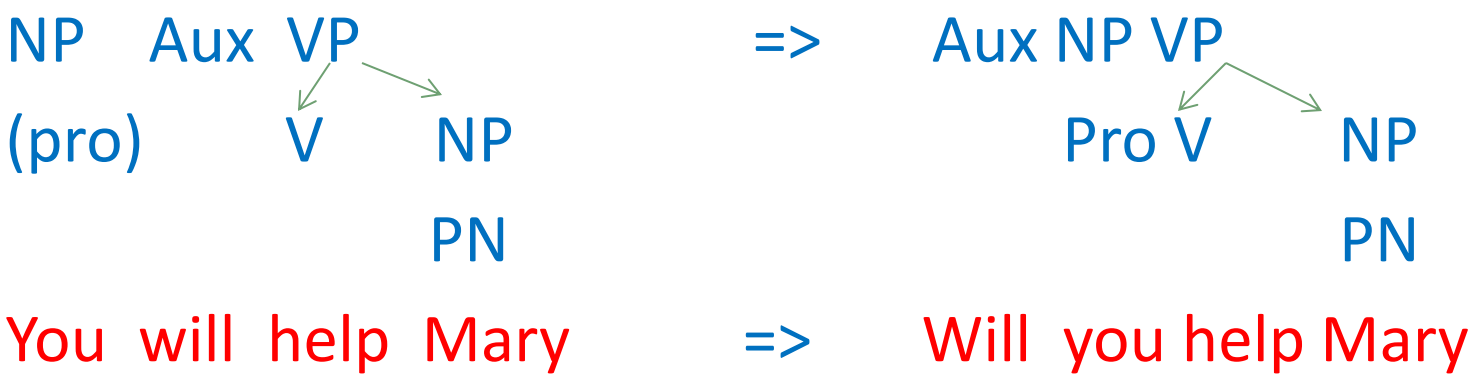
- George saw the dog (grammatically correct)
- The helped you boy (grammatically incorrect)

Movement rules

- One feature of underlying structures is that they will generate sentences with a Fixed word order. This is convenient for creating declarative forms (e.g. you can see it) but not for making interrogated forms, as used in questions (e.g., can you see it).
- In making the question, we move one part of the structure to a different position. This process is based on a movement rule In order to talk about this process, we need to expand our phase structure rules to include an auxiliary verb (Aux) as part of the sentence to be as follows:

Movement rules

Example:



You will help Mary => Will you help Mary

Lecture 6

Grammar

Grammar

- The process of describing the structure in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences.
- Each language has its own grammar.
- Each language has different ways of forming grammatical phrases and sentences.

Traditional grammar

- Studying grammar in this way has a long tradition.
- Since there was a well-established grammatical description of Latin, based on earlier analyses of Greek, it seemed appropriate to adopt existing categories from this description and apply them in the analysis of newer languages such as English.
- Part of this inheritance, a number of terms used in describing those basic components, known as ‘parts of speech’ and how they connect to each other in terms of ‘agreement’.

The parts of speech

1. Nouns
2. Articles
3. Adjectives
4. Verbs
5. Adverbs
6. Prepositions
7. Pronouns
8. Conjunction

Agreement

- More categories are including;

- number (whether is singular or plural)
- Person (whether is first/second or third person)
- tense (whether is present or past tense)
- voice (whether is passive or active voice)
- and gender (whether is male or female)

Grammatical gender

- Grammatical gender is based on the noun.
- Some languages have grammatical genders: masculine and feminine.
- Nouns are classified according to their gender class and articles and adjectives have different form to ‘agree with’ the gender of the noun.

Traditional analysis

- In some languages, unlike English, the descriptive categories characterize verb forms.
- For example, in Latin grammar:

- I love (amno)
- She loves (amas)
- You love (amatis)
- They love (amant)

The prescriptive approach

- This view argues that grammar should be dealt with as a set of rules for the proper use of a language.
- An example is like:

You must end a sentence with a preposition.

- According to this, *who did you go with?* will be corrected by teachers into *with whom did you go?*

The descriptive approach

- This view argues that grammar rules of Latin grammar did not seem to fit some languages such as English.
- Accordingly, descriptive approach was adopted which is based on collecting samples of the language people are interested in and attempting to describe the regular structures of that language as it was used, **not according to some view of how it should be used.**

Types of the descriptive approach

1. Structural analysis: it investigates the distribution of forms in a language. It involves the use of 'test-frames' which can be empty slots in them.

e.g., The ……. makes a lot of noise.

We can choose forms such as *car, child* … etc. to produce a grammatical sentence (not *someone, a car* …etc.). As a result, because these forms fit in the same test-frame - same grammatical category-, they can be described as nouns.

Types of the descriptive approach

2. Constituent analysis: it is designed to show how small constituent (components) go together to form larger constituents – how words go together to form phrases.

e.g., an old man (NP)

the weeding (NP)

to the weeding (PP)

A proper noun such as *John* and a pronoun such as *him* can be used as NPs and fill the same constituent as longer phrases such as *the woman* or *an old man*.

Labeled and bracketed sentences

Hierarchal organization

- According to this organization, the sentence (S) is higher than and contains the noun phrase (NP). The noun phrase (NP) is higher than and contains the noun (N).

Role of grammar

- The aim of this type of analysis is draw complicated-looking diagrams in order to impress our friends.
- It enables us to describe how English sentences are put together as combinations of phrases, that in turn, are combinations of words. We can then look at the descriptions of sentences in other languages such as Gaelic, Japanese or Spanish to discover what structural differences exist.

Lecture 7

Semantics

Semantics

- The study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences in language
- It focuses on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker might think they mean, or want them to mean, on a particular occasion.
- It is concerned with objective or general meaning and avoids subjective or local meaning.

Meaning (1)

- As semantics deals with studying meaning, we can make distinction between *conceptual meaning* and *associative meaning*.
- Conceptual meaning covers basic, essential components of meaning that are used by the literal use of a word.
- It is the type of meaning that dictionaries are designed to describe.
- So, a word like *needle* might have conceptual meanings as thin, sharp, steel instrument.

Meaning (2)

- Associative meaning have different associations or connotations attached to words.
- So, a word like *needle* might have associative meanings like pain, illness, blood, thread or knitting.
- A sentence such as *the hamburger ate the boy* may sound odd. This oddness does not derive from its syntactic structure but semantically odd.
- Structural meaning of the noun *hamburger* must be different the noun *boy*.
- The noun *hamburger* does not have the property of eating as *boy* does.

Semantic features

- It is an illustration of a procedure for analyzing meaning.
- Such features include: animate, human, female, to differentiate meanings of different words in a language.
- It is used to determine the feature of meaning that any noun must have to describe part of the meaning of words as having either minus (–) or plus (+) that particular feature.

Words as containers of meaning

- Semantics deals with analyzing the conceptual components of word meaning. Yet, this is not always without problems.
- Such problems involve a view of words in a language as some are not sort of 'containers' that carry meaning components such as words: *advice, threat* and *warning … etc*.
- Such words have more meaning than basic type features such as *adult, human,* and *animate*.

Sematic roles

- Such roles fulfill within the situation described by a sentence.
- The sentence: *The boy kicked the ball*. Then the verb (kick) describes an action and the noun phrase (the boy) describes the role of entities such as people and things involved in the action.
- Accordingly, the given role can identify semantic/ thematic roles for the NP.

Types of sematic roles

1. Agent and theme

- If we look at this sentence: *they boy kicked the ball*. The NP (the boy) is the entity that performs the action, which is known as **agent**.
- The NP (the ball) is the entity that is involved in or affected by the action, which is known as **theme**.
- Both of agent (which can be human or non-human) and theme (which can also be human or non-human) are the most common semantic roles.

Types of sematic roles

2. Instrument and experiencer

- If an agent uses another entity to perform an action, that other entity fills the role of instrument.
- If we look at this sentence: *the boy cut the robe with an old razor*. The NP (an old razor) is being used in the semantic role of **instrument**.
- When a NP is used to designate an entity as the person who has a feeling, perception or state, it fills the semantic role of **experiencer**.
- If we *see* or *enjoy* something, we are not really performing an action, we are in the role of **experiencer** .
- E.g., The boy feels sad. The experiencer is (the boy).

Types of sematic roles

3. Location, source and goal

- If an entity is in the description of an event. Where an entity is (e.g., on the table, in the room) fills the role of **location**. Where the entity moves from is the **source** (from Chicago) and where it moves to is the **goal** (to New Orleans).
- E.g., she borrowed a magazine from George.

  Agent theme Source
- She handed the magazine back to George.
- Agent theme Goal

Lexical relations

- Words might have relationships with each other.
- E.g. the word ‘conceal’. It has a similar meaning as ‘hide’. This explanation of meaning is in term of relationship.
- In such example, we are characterizing the meaning of each word in term of its relationship to each other, not in terms of its component features. This is known as the analysis of lexical relations.

Types of lexical relations

- Synonymy

- Two or more words with very closely related meanings.

- They can be substituted for each other in a sentence.

e.g. what was his reply? / what was his answer?

Big/large broad/wide

Freedom/liberty couch/sofa

- The idea of sameness of meaning used here is not necessarily total sameness.

Types of lexical relations

- Antonymy
- Two forms with opposite meanings, such as alive/dead, enter/exit, fast/slow, happy/sad, rich/poor, true/false … etc.
- There are two types: gradable (opposite along a scale) and non-gradable (direct opposite)
- Gradable antonyms are used in comparative construction (e.g. sadder, colder, shorter … etc.) and the negative antonym does not necessary imply the opposite (*My car is not old* does not necessarily mean *my car is new*).

Types of lexical relations

- Antonymy
- Non-gradable antonyms are not used in comparative construction (e.g., true/false, male, female, married/single … etc.) and the negative of one member of a non-gradable pair does not imply the other member.
- This type of antonyms are called reversives. Some common examples are like: enter/exit, pack/unpack, lengthen/shorten … etc.

Types of lexical relations

- Hyponymy
- When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, such as the relationship in the pairs (animal and horse, insect and ant/ flower, rose).
- It includes the concept of inclusion.
- It is based on hieratical relationship.

Types of lexical relations

- Hyponymy is classified into:

- Superordinate (higher level) as in: *horse* is a hyponym of *animal* and *ant* is a hyponym of *insect*.

On the other hand,

- When two words or more words share the same superordinate, this is called ‘co-hyponyms’ as in *dog* and *horse* and the superordinate is *animal*.

Types of lexical relations

- Prototypes
- The idea of the characteristic instance of a category. A prototype helps to explain the meaning of certain words, like bird, not in terms of component features (has feathers or wings), but in resemblance of the clearest example.
- *Duck*, *parrot*, and *robin* are all described as *co-hyponyms* of the superordinate of *bird*, they are not considered equally good examples of bid.

Types of lexical relations

- Prototypes
- A prototype involves the idea that some general pattern to the categorization process, which determines our interpretation of word meaning (e.g., the label *furniture* would involves *chair* as a better example than *stool* or *bench*).
- Some words like *tomato* and *avocado* might cause disagreement over the categorization of these words, leading to substantial variation in interpretation. So, they can be treated as co-hyponyms of both *fruit* and *vegetable* in different contexts.

Types of lexical relations

- Homophones and homonyms
- When two or more different (written) words have the same pronunciation, they are described as '*homophones*' (e.g., right/wright, to/two/too).
- On the other hand, 'homonyms', when one word (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meaning (e.g., bat: flying creature bat: used in sport).
- *Homonyms* are words that have separate histories and meaning., but have accidently come to have exactly the same form.

Types of lexical relations

- Polysemy

- When we encounter two or more words with the same form and related meaning.
- A word which has multiple meanings with single entity.
- It is one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings that are all related by extension.

e.g., *head* refers the object on top of your body/ person at the top of a company… etc.

- *Face, foot, get, head* … etc. are all examples of polysemy.

Types of lexical relations

- Word play

- Homophones, homonyms and polysemy are the basis for word play.
- E.g., Mary had a little lamb.

One interpretation: lamb might refer to a small animal.

Second interpretation: lamb might refer to a small amount of meat.

Types of lexical relations

- Metonymy

- It is a type of relationship between words, based simply on close connection in everyday experience. That close connection can be based on a container-contents relation (e.g. bottle/water), a whole-part relation (e.g. car/wheels) or a representative-sample relationship (e.g., king/crown).

Types of lexical relations

- Metonymy is used for talking about *filling up a car* or *answering the door*.
- Via metonymy, we accept things like:

- *I drank the whole bottle.*
- *The white house has announced …*

Lecture 8

Pragmatics

Pragmatics

- The study of what speakers mean or ‘speaker meaning’
- The study of invisible meaning’ or how we recognize what is meant even when it’s not actually said or written.
- Communication depends on not only recognizing the meaning of words in an utterance, but also recognizing what speakers mean by their utterances.

Pragmatics

- It is to understand speakers' meaning, speakers or writers must be able to depend on several shared assumptions and expectations when they communicate.
- One of main purposes of pragmatics is to get insights how we understand more than just the linguistic content of utterances.

Pragmatics

- It involves using the meaning of the words, the context in which they occur, and some pre-existing knowledge of what would be a likely message as we work towards a reasonable interpretation of what the procedure of the sign intended to convey.
- It is a combination of understanding what we read and hear.

Context

- Pragmatics is influenced by context.
- Two types of context:

1. Physical context

It indicates the location where we encounter words and phrases such as the word *bank* on a wall building is understood as a financial institution.

Context

2. Linguistic context known also as ‘co-text’

It indicates a set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence such as the word *bank* which is used with other words like *steep* or *overgrown*, where we don’t have a problem deciding which type of bank is meant. When someone says that *she has to get to the bank* to withdraw some cash, the co-text tells us which type of *bank* is intended.

Context

- Several sentences and words cannot be interpreted if we don't know the context (e.g. today, here, there … etc.).

- You'll have to bring it back tomorrow because she is not here today.

- Words such *tomorrow* and *here* are called *deictic* expressions.
- Deictic expression or deixis means pointing via language.

Context

- Person deixis - to indicate people: me, you, him, them, that woman … etc.
- Spatial deixis - to indicate places: here, there, beside, near that …etc.
- Temporal deixis - to indicate times: now, the, last week, yesterday …etc.

Reference

- Reference is an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something.
- Reference might be a proper noun (e.g., Chomsky), a noun phrase (e.g., my friend), or a pronoun (e.g., he).
- Each word or phrase has a range of reference. For example, when you say *he*, this pronoun can be used to refer to many entities in the world.
- Reference can be also used to refer things we are not sure what to call them (e.g., *the blue thing*) or when you say *a man who always drove his motorcycle fast and loud* was locally referred to Mr. Kawasaki, In this case, a brand name for a motorcycle is being used to refer to a person (not a thing).

Reference

1. Inference

It is a process that we can use names associated with things to refer to people, and use names of people to refer to things. It is a connection between what is said and what must be meant.

Reference

2. Anaphora

- We make a distinction between how we introduce new referent (a puppy) and how we refer back to them (the puppy, it).

e.g. 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 …

- In this referential relationship, the second (or subsequent) referring expression is an example of *anaphora*. The first mention is called the *antecedent*, e.g., *a puppy* and *small bath* are antecedents and *the puppy* and *the bath* are anaphoric expressions.

Reference

- Anaphora is a subsequent reference to an already introduced entity.
- The connection between antecedents and anaphoric expressions is based on inference, as in the following example;

- *I got on a bus and asked the driver if it went near the downtown area.* [antecedent is *a bus* and anaphoric expression is *the driver*]

We must make an inference - to describe what the listener or reader does - between a bus and the driver.

Reference

3. Presupposition

- It refers to what a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader).
- So, when we use a referring expressions like *this*, *he* or *Jennifer*, we usually assume that our listeners can recognize which referent is intended.
- E.g. *Why did you come late?* There is a presupposition that I arrived late.

Reference

- In presupposition, there is what is called ‘constancy under negation’ test for identifying a presupposition. For example, a sentence like *I used to regret marrying him, but I don’t regret marrying him now*, the presupposition (I married him) remains constant even though the verb *regret* change from affirmative to negative.

Speech acts

- Speech act describes actions such as ‘requesting’, ‘commanding’, ‘questioning’, or ‘informing’.
- Speech act is the action performed by a speaker with an utterance.
- E.g., I will be there at 6:00 O’clock. In this, you are not just speaking, but you are performing the speech act of ‘promising’.

Speech acts

- Types of speech acts:

- **Direct speech acts**: when an interrogative structure such as *did you …?, are they … ?, or can we …* ? is used with the function of a question. The interrogative structure is used when we don't know something and we ask someone to provide the information.

Speech acts

- Types of speech acts:

- **Indirect speech acts**: when we don't ask question about something, but rather use it to make a request. Such as the following sentence: *you left the door open*. This sentence is declarative which would be used to make a statement. You probably want that person to close the door.

- Sometimes, indirect speech acts (e.g., could you open that door for me?) seem to be more polite than direct speech acts (e.g., *open the door for me*).

Politeness

- Politeness can be defined as showing awareness and consideration of another persons' face.
- In pragmatics, the term '***face***' means your public self-image.
- If you say something that threats another person's self-image. That is called '**a face-threating act**', such as when you say '*give me that paper*' by a military person.
- On the other hand, when the assumption of social power is removed, if you say '*could you pass me that paper*?' This request is less threating to other person's face, this can be described as '***face-saving act***'.

Negative and positive face

- Types of face acts: a positive and a negative face
- Negative does not mean bad, it is just the opposite of positive.
- Negative face: the need to be independent and free from imposition.
- Positive face: the need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of the group.

Negative and positive face

- So, a face-saving act that emphasizes a person's negative face will show concern about the imposition, e.g., *I'm sorry to bother you … I know you're busy, but …'*
- Whereas a face-saving act that emphasizes a person's positive face will show solidarity and draw attention to a common goal, e.g., *let's do this together… you and I have the same problem, so, …'*

Conclusion

- Understanding how successful communication works is actually a process of interpreting not just what speakers say, but what they '**intend to mean**'.

Lecture 9

Discourse analysis

Discourse

- Language beyond sentence and it is concerned with the study of language in texts and conversation.
- Reading a notice like this: no shoes, no service on shop windows in summer means a conditional relationship between the two parts (if you are wearing no shoes, you will receive no service). So, we have the ability to create complex discourse interpretation of fragmentary linguistic messages.

Interpreting discourse

- Many of us can cope with texts which we did not produce ourselves. We can build interpretation.
- In many texts, they may contain set of errors yet they can be understood.

e.g., *… it takes this name from people's carrer. In my childhood, I remmber the people live. It was very simple. Most the people was farmer.*

- This example about my town illustrates some ungrammatical forms – yet we can reach a reasonable interpretation of what the writer intended to convey.
- To interpret something or to be interpreted are the key elements investigated in the study of discourse.

Cohesion

- Texts must have structure that depends on factors different from those required in the structure of a single sentence, such factors are described in terms of ***cohesion***.
- ***Cohesion*** refers to the ties and connections that exist within texts.
- Among those types of cohesive ties are the following: *he, my, I* as the in following example:

e.g. My father one bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he ….

Cohesion

- In this regards, some words maintain reference to same people and things such as *he* and *my*.
- There are also general connections that share a common element of meaning such as ‘money’ (including *saving* and *penny*) and time (including *time* and *nowadays*).
- There are also connectors such *however* to the opposite of what has already been said before.

Cohesion

- Such cohesive ties gives us insight how writer structure what they want to say.
- The conventions of cohesive ties structure differ from one language to the next.
- Cohesion would not be enough to enable us to make sense of what we read. E.g., *Lincoln, the car, that color, her, she* and *letter* (these are a number of connections but is very difficult to interpret)
- Yet, this sentence: *My father bought a Lincoln convertible. The car driven by the police was red. That color does not suit her. She consists of three letters.* Now, it becomes clear from this sentence **that 'connectedness' we experience in our interpretation of normal texts in not simply based on connections between words.**

Coherence

- Coherence is another factor that helps us distinguish connected texts that make sense from those that do not, this factor is known as coherence.
- It is concerned with everything fitting together well.
- It is something that exists in people not in words or structures.

Coherence

- Coherence is involved in creating meaningful connections that are not actually expressed by the words and sentences.
- It is not only related to understanding odd texts but rather involved in our interpretation of all discourse.
- It is present in the interpretation of causal conversation.

Coherence

- For example,

Her: that is the telephone.

Him: I'm in the bath.

Her: Ok

- There are no cohesive ties within this fragment of discourse. Yet, they do use the information contained in the sentences expressed, but there must be something else involved in the interpretation. It is suggested that exchanges of this type are best understood in terms of the conventional actions performed by the speakers in such interaction.

Speech events

- It is concerned with exploring what it is we know about taking part in conversation, or any other speech event.
- Part of discourse, we need to know what is taking part in conversation. There is enormous variation in what people say and do in different circumstances such as debates, interviews … etc.
- In speech event, we have to specify the roles of speakers and hearers and their relationships.

Speech events

- A number of factors need to be considered during speech such as whether they we friends, men, women, strangers …etc.
- Such factors have an influence on what is said and how it is said.
- Because of talking about the factors of how language is used, we need to analyze the actual structure of the conversation.

Conversation analysis

- Conversation is described as an activity in which two or more people take turns at speaking.
- Typically, one person speaks at a time and there tends to be an avoidance of silence between speaking turns.
- Speakers can mark turns as complete by asking questions or by pausing at the end of a completed syntactic structure like a phrase or sentence.
- Others can indicate that they want to take speaking turn, by making short sounds while the speaker is talking or making some facial expressions.

Turn-taking

- There are different strategies of participation in conversation which may result indifferent conventions of turn-taking.
- It is a common strategy used in discourse and conversation.
- One strategy, using connectors such as and, then, so, but … etc. in order to place your pauses at points where the message is incomplete.

The co-operative principle

- In conversation exchanges, it seems to be that the participants are co-operating with each other.
- This principle, together with four maxims, was 1st described by Paul Grice, 1975. Accordingly, the co-operative principle is presented together with what is known as 'Gricean maxims'

The co-operative principle

- In our conversational contribution, there are four maxim which can be considered as part of the co-operative principle.

- The Quantity maxim: Make your contribution as informative as is required, but not more or less than is required.
- The Quality maxim: Don’t say that which you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence.
- The Relation maxim: Be relevant.
- The Manner maxim: Be clear, brief and orderly.

Hedges

- Hedges can be defined as words or phrases used to indicate that we're not really sure that what we are saying is sufficiently correct or complete.
- For example, sort of, kind of … etc. to show accuracy of our statements as in:

His hair was kind of long.

The book cover is sort of yellow. (Quality maxim)

Implicatures

- When we try to analyze how hedges work, we usually talk about speakers implying something that is not clear.
- With the co-operative principle and the maxims as guides, we can start to work out how people actually decide that someone is ‘implying’ something in conversation.

For example,

A: Are you coming to the party tonight?

B: I’ve got an exam tomorrow.

Implicatures

- In the previous example, B's statement is not an answer to A's question. B does not say no to A. Yet, A will interpret the statement as meaning no. A will work out that 'exam tomorrow' involves 'study tonight' and 'study night' prevents 'party tonight'.
- B's answer is not simply a statement concerning tomorrow's activities but rather contains an **implicature** (an additional conveyed meaning).

Background knowledge

- To analyze the conversational implicature involved in B's statement, we have to describe some background knowledge (e.g., about exams) that must be shared by the conversational participants.

Background knowledge

- Let’s look at this sentence,

John was on his way to school last Friday.

Most readers report that they think John is schoolboy. Since this information is not directly clear, it must be an **inference** (understood from the text). Other references, for other readers, are John is walking or that he is on a bus.

Background knowledge

- In a different example,

Last week he had been unable to control the class.

Most reader decide that John must be a teacher and that he is not very happy.

- We actually create what the text is about based on our expectations of what normally happens. This phenomenon is referred to as ‘schema’ or a ‘script’.

Schema

- **Schema** is a general term for a conversational knowledge structure that exists in memory.
- In the previous example, we were using our conversational knowledge of what school classroom is like or a ‘classroom schema’.
- We have many schemas (or schemata) that are used in the interpretation of what we experience and what we hear or read about.
- Supermarket schemata refer to food displayed on shelves and shopping carts and baskets.

Script

- It is in many ways similar to a schema.
- A script is a dynamic script, that is instead of the set of typical fixed features in a schema, a script has a series of conventional actions that take place. You have a script for ‘going to the dentist’ or ‘Eating in a restaurant’... Etc.

Suzy went to the nearest place, sat down and ordered an avocado sandwich. It was quite crowded, but the service was fast.

- Based on our restaurant script, we would be able to say a number of things about the scene and event briefly described in the previous short text.

Script

- Our understanding of what we read doesn’t directly come from words and sentences on the page, but the interpretation we create ‘in our minds’ of what we read.

Lecture 10

Language and the brain (Neurolinguistics)

Neurolinguistics

- Neurolinguistics is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the brain.

Language areas in the brain

- There are images showing the two parts of the brain (left & right hemisphere).
- Such images have shaded areas which indicate the general locations of those language functions involved in speaking and listening.
- Such image helps to determine where language disabilities for normal users must be by finding areas with specific damage in the brains of people who have identifiable language disabilities.

Language areas in the brain

1. Broca's area: (Paul Broca) – a French surgeon

- It is known as anterior speech cortex.
- He reported that the damage in this part of the brain was related to extreme **difficulty producing spoken language**.
- Damage to the right hemisphere had no such effect.
- He found that language ability is located in the left hemisphere; and since then it has been treated as indication that Broca's area is involved in **the generation of spoken language**.

Language areas in the brain

2. Wernicke's area: (German physician)

- It is known as a posterior speech cortex.
- He reported that the damage in this part of the brain was found among patients who had **speech comprehension difficulties.**
- The findings confirmed that the left hemisphere location of language ability and led to the view that this area is involved in **the understanding of speech**.

Language areas in the brain

3. Motor cortex area:

- It is the area that generally controls movement of the muscles (e.g., for moving hands, feet, arms … etc.).
- Close to Broca's area
- It also controls the articulatory muscles of the face, jaws, tongue and larynx.

The localization view

- Based on these areas, we can conclude that specific aspects of language ability can be accorded and produced in specific locations in the brain, this is known as the localization view.
- This view has been used to suggest that the brain activity is involved in hearing a word, understanding it, then saying it.

Tongue tips and slips

- The tip of the tongue phenomenon
- It is a phenomenon in which we feel that some word is just eluding us, that we know the word, but just won't come to the surface.
- It sometimes happens with uncommon words and names.
- It suggests that 'word-storage' system may be organized on the basis of some phonological information and that some words in the store are more easily retrieved than others.

Tongue tips and slips

- The tip of the tongue phenomenon
- When we make mistakes in this retrieval process, there are often strong phonological similarities between the target word we are trying to say and the mistake we actually produce.
- For example, fire distinguisher (instead of *extinguisher*).
- motivation (instead of *meditation*).

Tongue tips and slips

- Slips of the tongue
- It is another type of speech error, producing expressions such as a *long shory stort* (instead of ‘make a long story short’).

Tongue tips and slips

- Slips of the brain

- It is another type of speech error, referring to word substitutions as similar, but inappropriate word is used instead of the target.
- It happens as a result of a sound being carried over from one word to the next (as in *black bloxes* for *black boxes*).
- Using the word *depression* instead of *recession*.
- Using the word *tup* instead of *cup* (a tup of tea).
- It involves an interchange of: 1) word-final sounds and 2) word- initial sound slips. The first is less common.
- Such errors are argued to be a result of trying to organize and generate linguistic messages.

Tongue tips and slips

- Slips of the ear

- It is another type of speech error. It provides some clues to how the brain tries to make sense of the auditory signal it receives.
- Using the word *gray day* to be interpreted initially as a common on the weather, but after some confusion was reinterpreted as *grade A*. Here, the speaker is the talking about eggs, not the weather.
- Using the word *great ape,* to mean *gray tape.*

Aphasia

- It refers to those people who suffer from different types of language disorders.
- It is also an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage that leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms.
- Stroke is the most common cause of aphasia.
- Someone who is aphasic often has interrelated language disorders, in that difficulties in *understanding* can lead to difficulties in *production*.

Three types of aphasia:

1. Broca's aphasia:

- It is called motor aphasia – (Comprehension is much better than production).
- It is characterized by a substantially reduced amount of speech, distorted articulation and slow, often effortful speech.
- It involves omission of functional morphemes such as articles or pronouns and consists of only lexical morphemes such as content nouns and verbs.

e.g., *I eggs and eat and drink coffee breakfast.*

Three types of aphasia:

2. Wernicke's aphasia:

- It is language disorder that results in difficulties in auditory comprehension.
- It is also called sensory aphasia.
- It involves someone suffering from this disorder can actually produce very fluent speech which is often difficult to make sense of.
- It involves finding difficulties in finding correct words.

e.g., I can't talk all of the things I do, and part of the part I can do alright, but I can't tell from the other people.

Three types of aphasia:

3. Conduction aphasia:

- It is much less common.
- Individuals suffering from this order sometimes mispronounce words, but typically do not have articulation problems. They are fluent, but may have disrupted rhythm because of pauses and hesitations.
- Comprehension of spoken words is normally good. Yet, the task of repeating a word or phrase create a major difficulty.
- Difficulties in speaking can be accompanied by difficulties in writing.
- This difficulty is always a result of injury to the left hemisphere.

Dichotic listening

- It is an experimental technique.
- It demonstrates the left hemisphere dominance for syllable and word processing.
- It establishes a fact that anything experienced on the right-hand side of the body is processed in the left-hand hemisphere, and anything on the left side is processed in the right hemisphere.

Left right and right brain

- In this process, the language signal received through the left ear is first sent to the right hemisphere and then has to be sent to the left hemisphere, for processing language.
- This non-direct route takes longer than a linguistic signal received through the right ear, which goes directly to the left hemisphere.
- On the other hand, the right hemisphere have a primary responsibility for processing incoming signals that are non-linguisitic. Non-verbal sounds such as traffic noises are recognized via the left ear, meaning they are processed faster via the right hemisphere.

Left brain and right brain

- Accordingly, the basic distinction to be between analytic processing, such as recognizing the smaller details of sounds, words, and phrase structures in rapid sequence, which are to be done in the '**left brain**'.
- While holistic processing such as identifying more general structure in language and experience, can be done in the '**right brain**'.

The critical period

- The apparent specialization of the left hemisphere for language is described as **lateralization (one-sidedness)**.
- It is thought that lateralization begins in early childhood.
- During childhood, there is a period when the human brain is most ready to receive input and learn a particular language. This is called '**sensitive period**' for language acquisition but also known as the '**critical period**'.
- It is argued that the **critical period** lasts from birth to puberty, where it is difficult for a child to acquire a first language after this period.

Lecture 11

First language acquistion

Acquisition

- The process of acquisition has some basic requirements. Children requires interaction with other language users to bring the general language capacity into contact with a specific language.
- Children who do not hear language -via acquisition- will not learn a language.

Acquisition

- **Input**

- Human infants are helped in their language acquisition by the physical behaviour of older children and adults, who provide language samples or what is known as ‘input’.

- **Caregiver speech**

- It is a type of conversational structure that seems to assign an interactive role to the young child before he/she becomes a speaking participant.

- It involves a simple sentence structure and many reporting and paraphrasing.

The acquisition schedule

- We need to know that children have the biological capacity to identify aspects of linguistic input at different stages during the early years of life.
- Since one month old, children develop a range of crying styles, with different patterns for different needs, produces big smiles in response to a speaking face, and start to create distinct vocalizations.

The acquisition schedule

1. Cooing

- The earliest use of speech-like sounds has been described as cooing.
- It takes place in the 1st few months of life.
- During this stage, the child gradually becomes capable of producing sequences of vowel-like sounds like [i] and [u].
- By 5 months old, babies become able to hear the difference between the vowels [i] and [a] and discriminate between syllables like [ba] and [ga].

The acquisition schedule

2. Babbling

- Between 6 and 8 months old, children start producing a number of different vowels and consonants as well as combinations such as ba-ba-ba or ga-ga-ga …etc.
- Between 9 and 10 months, children become to recognize intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced with variation in the combinations such as ba-ba-da-da.
- It provides children with some experience of social role of speech because adults can react to babbling, even if it is not coherent.

The acquisition schedule

3. The one-word stage

- Between 12 – to – 18 months old, children produce a variety of recognizable single unit utterances. This stage is known as one-word stage.
- It is characterized by speech in which single terms are uttered for everyday objects such as milk, cookie, cat, cup, … etc.
- During this stage, children may not be able to put the forms together in a more complex phrase.

The acquisition schedule

4. The two-word stage

- It is an occurrence of two distinct words used together, this what is known as two-word stage.
- This stage begins between 18 – to – 24 months old where the child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty words.
- At this age, children begin producing a variety of combinations as *baby chair*, *mommy eat*, … etc.
- Such phrases as baby chair might interpreted differently based on context (= put baby in chair or bay is in the chair).

The acquisition schedule

5. Telegraphic stage

- Between two and two-and-half years old, children begins producing a large number of utterances that can be called '*multiple-word*' or '*telegraphic*' speech.
- This stage is characterized by strings of words in phrases or sentences such as *this shoe all wet* or *cat drink milk.*
- Children's vocabulary is expanding rapidly and they are initiating more talk while increased physical activity includes running and jumping.
- At three years old, the vocabulary grows hundreds of words and pronunciation has become clearer.

The acquisition process

- The child's linguistic production appears to be mostly a matter of trying out constructions and testing whether they work or not.
- Children can be heard to repeat versions of what adults say on occasions and they are clearly in the process of adopting a lot of vocabulary from speech they hear.

The acquisition process

- Learning through imitation

- Children may repeat single words or phrases, but not the sentence structures.

e.g., the dogs are hungry ---------- dog hungry

e.g., the owl who eats candy runs fast --------- owl eat a candy and he run fast

The acquisition process

- Learning through correction

- Children will continue to use a personally continued form, despite the adult's repetition of what the correct form should be. For example,

- Child: My teacher **holded** the baby rabbits and we patted them.
- Mother: Did you say your teacher **held** the baby rabbits?
- Child: Yes
- Mother: What did you say she did?
- Child: She **holded** the baby rabbits and we patted them.
- Mother: Did you say she held them tightly?
- Child: No, she **holded** them loosely.

Developing morphology

- Between two and two-and-half years old, children appear to use –*ing* form in expressions such as *cat sitting* and *mommy reading book*.
- The next morphological development is the marking of regular plurals with the –*s* form as in *boys* and *cats.* The acquisition of the plural marker is often accompanied by a process of overgeneralization such as *foots* and *mans.*
- Such words confirm that imitation of parents is not the primary force in first language acquisition.

Developing morphology

- At the same age, different forms of the verb ‘to be’ such as *are* and *was* begin to use.
- Throughout this development, children may produce good form one day and odd form the next.
- The evidence suggests that children are working out how to use the linguistic system while focused on communication and interaction rather than correctness.

Developing syntax

- In the formation of questions and in the use of negatives, there are three identifiable stages:

Stage 1 (between 18 and 26 months)

Stage 2 (between 22 and 30 months)

Stage 3 (between 24 and 40 months)

Developing syntax

- In the formation of questions:

In stage 1, children add *Wh*-form to the beginning of the expression or utter the expression with rise in intonation toward the end. (e.g. Where Kitty?)

In stage 2, children form more complex expressions with more use of intonation. (e.g., What book name?)

In stage 3, children begin using auxiliary verbs in English questions –close to adult speech- (e.g., Will you help me?)

Developing syntax

- In the use of negatives:

In stage 1, children put *No* or *Not* at the beginning. (e.g., No you doing it)

In stage 2, children begin using additional negative forms such as *don't* and *can't*. (e.g., I don't want it)

In stage 3, children begin incorporating more auxiliary verbs (e.g., she won't let go)

Developing semantics

- First of all, it is not always easy to determine precisely the meanings that children attach to the words they use or produce.
- Overextension which involves the child to overextend the meaning of a word on the basis of similarities of shape, sound, size, movement and texture (*ball* is extended to all round objects).
- The sematic development in a child's use of words is usually a process of overextension, followed by a gradual process of narrowing down the application of each term as more words are learned.

Lecture 12

Second language learning

Foreign versus second language

- Foreign language learning involves learning a language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding community.
- Second language learning involves learning a language that is sometimes spoken in the surrounding community.
- The expression *second language learning* is used generally to describe both situations.

Acquisition and learning

- **Acquisition** refers to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language. It takes place without teachers.
- On the other hand, **learning** applies to a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features of language such as pronunciation, grammar, … etc. in an institutional setting, with teachers.

Acquisition barriers

- Acquisition is different from learning L1. People usually encounter second language learning (L2) during teenage or adult years.
- Some parts of language are easier to be learned such as vocabulary and grammar more than pronunciation which takes a matter of time. They can hardly master the pronunciation in similar way as native learners or L1 speakers.
- Very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using L2 (the age factor).

The age factor

- This type of observation is sometimes taken as evidence that, after the critical period for language learning acquisition has passed, around the time of puberty, it becomes very difficult for adults to acquire another language fully.
- On the other hand, some other research showed that students in their early teens are quicker and more effective L2 learners in classroom than seven years old.

The affective factor

- Teenager are typically much more self-conscious than younger children. If there is a strong element of unwillingness in producing different sounds of another language, then it may override whatever physical and cognitive abilities there are.
- Negative feelings or experiences are affective factors that can create a barrier to acquisition. If we feel uncomfortable or stress, we may unlikely learn very much.
- Children are much less constrained by affective factors unlike adults.

Focus on teaching method

- A number of recent approaches designed to promote L2 learning:

1. The grammar translation method

- Very traditional, focuses on vocabulary lists and sets of grammar rules, memorization is encouraged and written language is emphasized.

2. The audio-lingual method

- Emphasizes spoken language, it involves systematic presentation of the structures of L2, moving from simple to the more complex. Language is a set of habits.

Focus on teaching method

3. Communicative approaches

- They are reactions against the artificiality of pattern-practice and against the belief that learning grammar rules of a language will result in an ability to use the language.
- They are based on the belief that the functions of language (what is used for) should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language (correct grammatical or phonological structures).

Focus on the learner

- The most fundamental change in the area of L2 learning has shifted from the teacher, the textbook to the learners.
- There is an interest in the learners and the acquisition process.
- Error is regarded negatively and they have to be avoided.

Focus on the learner

Transfer

- Some errors may happen due to ‘transfer’; which called ‘cross-linguisitic influence’.
- Using sounds, expressions or structures from first language (L1) when performing second language (L2).

Focus on the learner

Interlanguage

- L2 learners normally produce a large number of errors that seem to have no connection to the forms of either L1 or L2 (e.g., *she name is Maria* – produced by French that is not based on either Spanish or English).

Focus on the learner

Motivation

- Motivation to learn is important.
- Many learners have instrumental motivation: that is to learn L2 achieve some other goal such as completing a school graduation recruitments.
- On the other hand, other learners have integrative motivation: that is to learn the L2 for social purposes in order to take part in the social life of a community.

Task-based learning

- Task-based learning provides overwhelming evidence of more and better L2 use by more learners.
- The goal of such tasks or activities is not that the learners will know more about the L2, but they will develop communicative competence in the L2.

Communicative competence (CC)

- CC can be defined as the general ability to use language accurately, appropriately and flexibly.

1. **Grammatical competence**: is the 1st component which involves the accurate use of words and structures.
2. **Socio-linguisitic competence**: is the 2nd component which enables the learner to know when to say *can I have some water?* versus *give me some water!* according to social context.

Communicative competence (CC)

3. **Strategic competence**: it the 3rd component which deals with organizing a message effectively and to compensate for any difficulties.

Communication strategy: is the 4th component and involves creating a way of referring to the object by using vocabulary someone already knew. That is to overcome potential communication problems in interaction.

تمت بحمد الله

Lecture 13

Written language

and

Language and culture

Written language

- **Writing is the symbolic representation of language through the use of graphic signs.**
- Writing is a system that is not simply acquired but has to be learned through sustained conscious effort.
- Some languages do not have written form.

Written language

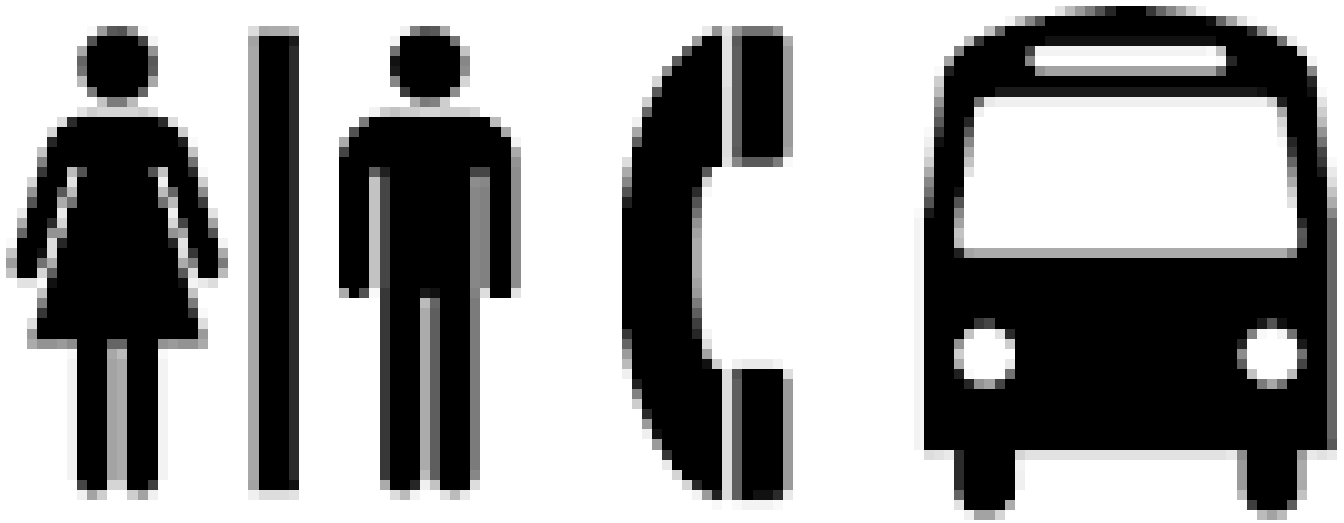
- Pictogram: is a writing phenomena.
- When pictures came to represent particular images in a consistent way, we describe this product as a form of picture-writing ‘pictograms’.
- Pictograms are figures; which are language independent and can be understood with some conventional meaning in different places where a number of different languages are spoken.

Examples of pictograms

Written language

- Ideograms: is part of a system of idea writing. It has an abstraction away from the physical world.
- Ideograms is the use of a representative symbol that everyone should use to convey a roughly similar meaning.
- The more picture-like forms are **pictograms** and the more abstract derived forms are **ideograms**.

Examples of ideograms



Written language

- Logograms: are symbols to be used to represent words in a language. They can described as word-writing.
- Logograms refer to the written form that gives no clue to what type of entity is being referred to. The relationship between the written form and the object it represents has become arbitrary and have no a clear example of word-writing.

Examples of logograms (Chinese language)

Syllabic writing

- The symbol that is used for the pronunciation of parts of a word represents a unit (*ba)* consists of a consonant sound (*b*) and a vowel sound (*a*). This unit is one type of syllable.
- Accordingly, when a writing system employs a set of symbols, each one representing the pronunciation of a syllable, it is described as syllabic writing.

Alphabetic writing

- When we have a set of symbols being used to represent syllables, e.g., a b sound or an m sound, then you are very close to a situation in which the symbols can be used to represent single sound types in a language. Therefore, this basis of alphabetic writing.
- **Alphabet is a set of written symbols, each one representing a single type of sound or phoneme.**

English orthography (spelling)

- English orthography (spelling) is subject to a lot of variation, because English language is full of words borrowed from other languages such as Greek and German.
- For example, the sound /ph/ in *alphabet* and *orthography* are used to for single sound.

Language AND culture

- **Culture** refers to all ideas and assumptions about the nature of things and people that we learn when we become members of social groups.
- Culture is also defined as 'socially acquired knowledge', without necessarily conscious awareness.
- Throughout the culture including the words we acquire, we learn to recognize the types of category distinctions that are relevant in our social world (e.g. words which are considered to be distinct types of creatures in some societies such as a *dog* and a *horse*).

Categories

- 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. Such vocabulary refer to concepts, that people in our social world have typically needed to talk about.
- There is a belief that there is a relationship between the set of words we have learned (our categories) and the way external reality is organized.

Categories

- Kinship terms:

- They refer to words used to refer to people who are members of the same family (e.g., *brother*, *mother*, *grandmother*). Yet, they do not 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*'.

Categories

- Time concepts:

- When we learn words such as *week* or *weekend*, we are inheriting a conceptual system that operates with amounts of time as common categories.

- Having words indicating units of time such as '*two days*' or '*seven days*' show that we think of time as something abstract with no physical existence.

Cognitive categories

- The classification of words in languages show different grammatical markers, which could also indicate the type of 'class' of noun involved.
- **Classifiers** are often used in connection with numbers to indicate the type of thing being counted. In English, there is a distinction between *countable* (e.g., chair) and *non-countable* (e.g., information).

Social categories

- Words such as '*uncle*' or '*grandmother*' provide examples of social categories, as they mean differently in different languages.
- Those categories of social organization that we can use to say how we are connected or related to others
- The word '*uncle*' is used for a larger number of people who are outside the class of individuals covered by the technical definition.
- The word '*brother*' can be used as an **address term** (a word or phrase for the person being talked or written to) to claim the closeness in relationship- which does not necessary mean the close brother (e.g., brother, can you spare a dollar – for asking someone on the street).

Gender

- The observation that address terms for man and woman leads us to a consideration of the differences in social categorization, based on gender.
- Gendered words:
- In some languages, there are some words which are used only by men and some others only by women.

Gender

- Gendered structures:
- Within social classes, there are differences/variation is language uses according to gender. For example, women are more likely to use the higher-prestige forms than men
- Gendered speech:
- In terms of speech, men speak in a lower pitch range (80-200Hertz) than women (120-400 Hertz) – pitch is the effect of vibration in the vocal colds.

Gender

- Same-gender talk:
- This concept is important because of our socialization which takes place in such groups.
- This same-gender socialization is reinforced through separate educational experiences.
- Boys socialize in larger groups while girls socialize in smaller groups.

Lecture 14

Revision

What is linguistics??

- **Linguistics** includes the systematic and scientific study of language.
- **Linguistics** is concerned with understanding the structure and nature of language which is divided into: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics.
- **Linguistics** deals with other perspectives on language which are represented in specialized or interdisciplinary branches such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics and second language acquisition.

Origins of language

1. The divine source
2. The natural sound source (bow-wow/pooh-pooh theories)
3. The social interaction source
4. The physical adaptation source (teeth and lips/mouth and tongue and larynx and pharynx)
5. The tool-making source (the human brain)
6. The genetic source (innateness hypothesis)

Communication has two types:

Communicative signals:

It happens when someone use language to tell this person that, I am one the applicants for the vacant position of senior brain surgeon at the hospital. This is considered as to be intentionally communicating something.

Informative signals:

It happens when someone may become informed about you through signals that you have not intentionally sent. For example, someone might note that you have a cold because you sneezed.

Properties of human language

Human language has the following features:

1. Displacement
2. Arbitrariness
3. Productivity
4. Cultural transmission
5. Duality

Voiced and voiceless sounds

- When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in the way are described as **voiceless**.
- On the other hand, when the vocal cords are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through, creating a vibration effect. This is described as **voiced**.

Consonant, vowel and diphthong sounds

- A consonant is a speech sound that is articulated with complete or partial closure of the vocal tract.
- A vowel is produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are voiced.
- Diphthongs is a combination of two adjacent vowel sounds within the same syllable.
- There are eight diphthongs commonly used in English: /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /ɪə/, /eə/, and /ʊə/.

Phones versus allophones

- As we have seen that a phoneme is the abstract unit or sound in the mind; while phone is the sound type produced in actual speech in the mouth.
- Allophone is a set of phones all of which are versions of one phoneme. (e.g., the phoneme /t/ is produced in different ways as phones [t] either with strong puff as in *tar* less puff in *star*); they are referred to as allophones of the phoneme /t/.

Morphemes

- A morpheme is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. This grammatical function include past tense, or plural.
- *-er, -ing, -ed, -er,* … etc. are all examples of basic morphemes.

Two types of morphemes:

- Derivational morphemes (they change the grammatical category of a word, e.g., teach and teacher, *-er* is a derivational morpheme – a change from verb to noun).
- Inflectional morphemes (they never change the grammatical category of a word, e.g., old and older, *-er* here is inflectional morpheme - just a different form of adjective).

Deep versus surface structure

- Surface structure refers to the difference between active and passive sentences.
- e.g., *Charlie broke the window and the window was broken by Charlie*.
- Deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented (that is what we will be focusing in the next slide).

Context

- Person deixis - to indicate people: me, you, him, them, that woman … etc.
- Spatial deixis - to indicate places: here, there, beside, near that …etc.
- Temporal deixis - to indicate times: now, the, last week, yesterday …etc.

Hedges

- Hedges can be defined as words or phrases used to indicate that we're not really sure that what we are saying is sufficiently correct or complete.
- For example, sort of, kind of … etc. to show accuracy of our statements as in:

His hair was kind of long.

The book cover is sort of yellow.

Aphasia

- It is an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage that leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms.

Aphasia

- It refers to those people who suffer from different types of language disorders.
- It is also an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage that leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms.
- Someone who is aphasic often has interrelated language disorders, in that difficulties in *understanding* can lead to difficulties in *production*.

The acquisition schedule (L1):

1. Cooing

- The earliest use of speech-like sounds has been described as cooing.
- It takes place in the 1st few months of life.
- During this stage, the child gradually become capable of producing sequences of vowel-like sounds like [i] and [u].

The acquisition schedule (L1):

2. Babbling

- Between 6 and 8 months old, children start producing a number of different vowels and consonants as well as combinations such as ba-ba-ba or ga-ga-ga …etc.
- Between 9 and 10 months, children become to recognize intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced with variation in the combinations such as ba-ba-da-da.

The acquisition schedule (L1):

3. The one-word stage

- Between 12 – to – 18 months old, children produce a variety of recognizable single unit utterances. This stage is known as one-word stage.
- It is characterized by speech in which single terms are uttered for everyday objects such as milk, cookie, cat, cup, … etc.

The acquisition schedule (L1):

4. The two-word stage

- It is an occurrence of two distinct words used together, this what is known as two-word stage.
- This stage begins between 18 – to – 24 months old where the child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty words.
- At this age, children begin producing a variety of combinations as *baby chair*, *mommy eat*, … etc.

The acquisition schedule (L1):

5. Telegraphic stage

- Between two and two-and-half years old, children begins producing a large number of utterances that can be called '*multiple-word*' or '*telegraphic*' speech.
- This stage is characterized by strings of words in phrases or sentences such as *this shoe all wet* or *cat drink milk.*
- Children's vocabulary is expanding rapidly and they are initiating more talk while increased physical activity includes running and jumping.

Acquisition versus learning

- **Acquisition** refers to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language. It takes place without teachers.
- On the other hand, **learning** applies to a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features of language such as pronunciation, grammar, … etc. in an institutional setting, with teachers.

Communicative competence (CC)

- CC can be defined as the general ability to use language accurately, appropriately and flexibly.

1. **Grammatical competence**: is the 1st component which involves the accurate use of words and structures.
2. **Socio-linguisitic competence**: is the 2nd component which enables the learner to know when to say *can I have some water?* versus *give me some water!* according to social context.
3. **Strategic competence**: it the 3rd component which deals with organizing a message effectively and to compensate for any difficulties.
4. **Communication strategy**: is the 4th component and involves creating a way of referring to the object by using vocabulary someone already knew. That is to overcome potential communication problems in interaction.

Syllabic & Alphabetic writing

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تمت بحمد الله