Domain 1: General Linguistics

Nature, Purposes, Uses of Language

Phonology

Morphology

Syntax

Pragmatics

Semantics

"Learning a foreign language results

opening one's eyes to the outside world."

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Language (*mis*)communication?

Memo from CEO to Manager:

"Today at 11 o'clock there will be a total eclipse of the sun. This is when the sun disappears behind the moon for two minutes. As this is something that cannot be seen everyday, time will be allowed for employees to view the eclipse in the parking lot. Staff should meet in the lot at ten to eleven, when I deliver a short speech introducing the eclipse, and giving some background information. Safety goggles will be made available at a small cost."

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Memo from Manager to Department Head:

"Today at ten to eleven all staff should meet at the car park. This will be followed by a total eclipse of the sun, which will appear for two minutes. For moderate cost, this will be made safe with goggles. The CEO will deliver a short speech beforehand to give all some information. This is not something that can be seen every day."

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Memo from Department Head to Floor Manager:

"The CEO will deliver today a short speech to make the sun disappear for two minutes in the form of an eclipse. This is something that cannot be seen every day, so staff will meet in the car park at ten to eleven. This is safe, if you pay a moderate cost."

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Memo from Floor Manager to Supervisor:

"Ten or eleven, the staff must go to the car park, where the CEO will eclipse the sun for two minutes. This doesn't happen every day. It will be safe, and as usual, it will cost you."

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Memo from Supervisor to Staff:

"Some staff will go to the car park today to see the CEO disappear. It is a pity we don't see this happen everyday."

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Linguistics is the (scientific) study of (human) language (Crytsal: 1992). Someone who engages in this study is called a linguist.

- Linguistics is conducted along two axes: Theoretical vs. Applied: ***Theoretical (or General) Linguistics*** is concerned with frameworks for describing individual languages and theories about universal aspects of language; ***applied linguistics*** applies these theories to practical problems such as language teaching, speech synthesis, or speech therapy.

Linguist is someone who studies linguistics rather than someone who speaks several languages.

Language

- The systematic, conventional use of sounds, signs, or written symbols in a human society for communication and self-expression (Crystal: 1992).
- A purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols (E. Sapir: 1884-1939).
- The general patterns in a speech of a community as the speaking activity of an individuall in a particular situation (F. de Saussure: 1857-1913).
- The innate capability of native speakers to understand and form grammatical sentences and as the actual utterances produced at a given time (N. Chomsky: 1928 -).

Functions of Language

According to Roman Jakobson (1960), language must serve the following six (6) functions (Wardhaugh: 1993):

- `cognitive' or `referential' to convey messages and information;
- `conative' to persuade and influence others through commands and entreaties;
- `emotive' to express attitudes, feelings and emotions;
- `phatic' to establish communion with others;
- `metalingual' to clear up difficulties about intentions, words and meanings; and
- `poetic' to indulge in language for its own sake.

Another classification, proposed by Michael Halliday (1973), refers to the following seven (7) different categories (Wardhaugh: 1993):

- `instrumental' refers to the fact that language allows speakers to get things done and happen through the use of words alone;
- `regulatory' refers to language used in an attempt to control events once they happen;

- `representational' refers to the use of language to communicate knowledge about the world, to report events, to make statements, to give accounts, to explain relationships, to relay messages, and so on;
- `interactional' refers to language used to ensure social maintenance. (Phatic communication is part of it, those small `meaningless' exchanges which indicate that a channel of communication is open should it be needed).
- `personal' refers to language used to express the individual's personality;
- `heuristic' refers to language used in order to acquire knowledge and understanding of the world; and
- `imaginative' refers to language used to create imaginary systems, whether these are literary works, philosophical systems or utopian visions, or daydreams and idle musings.

Dell Hymes (1974) has proposed the acronym `SPEAKING" to cover all factors to describe the use of language (Wardhaugh: 1993):

- (S) `setting and scene': Setting refers to the concrete physical circumstances in which speech takes place. Scene refers to the psychological and cultural circumstances;
- (P) `participants' refer to speakers and listeners, addressors and addressees or senders and receivers;
- (E) `ends' refer to the recognized and expected outcomes of an exchange as well as the goals that participants seek to accomplish through that exchange;
- (A) `act sequences' refers to the actual language forms that are used, how these are used and the relationship of what is said to the actual topic at hand;
- (K) `key' refers to the tone, manner or spirit in which a particular message is conveyed;
- (I) `instrumentalities' refer to the choice of channel one makes. Is it oral or written, a language or a dialect, a code or a register and so on?;
- (N) `norms of interaction and interpretation' refer to the specific behaviors and properties that attach to speaking and how these are viewed by someone who does not share them; and
- (G) refers to the `genres' that we must recognize in certain kinds of exchange (novels, poems, riddles, jokes, editorials, wills, etc.).

Language Universals

According to Michael Krauss (Stephens: 1993), there are 6,000 dialects, give or take 10 percent, that are still spoken in today's world. Although one cannot be absolutely sure that all of these languages exemplify each and every one of the language universal, in general, linguists agree that languages contain many of the same organizing principles. The following list offers an idea of some universal facts about human language (Diaz-Rico & Weed: 1995):

- Where humans exist, language exists.
- There are no `primitive' languages. All languages are equally complex and capable of expressing an idea.
- Every normal child, born anywhere in the world, of any racial, geographical, social, or economic heritage, is capable of learning any language to which he or she is exposed.
- The relationships between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages or gestures and meanings of sign languages are, for the most part, arbitrary.
- All human languages use a finite set of sounds or gestures that are combined to form meaningful elements of words than combine to form an infinite set of possible sentences.
- Every spoken language uses discrete sound segments and has vowels and consonants.
- Speakers of any language are capable of producing and comprehending an infinite set of sentences.
- All grammars contain rules for the formation of words and sentences.
- Every language has a way of referring to past time; the ability to negate; the ability to form questions; issue commands; and so on.
- Semantic universals, such as `male' or `female,' are found in every language of the world.
- All languages change through time.

Structure of Language. The general study of language is divided into the following subsystems:

- ***Phonology,*** the study of speech sounds of a given language and their function within the sound system of that language.

- ***Morphology***, the study and analysis of the structure, forms and classes of words.

- ***Syntax,*** the study of the arrangement of words in sentences and of the means by which such relationships are shown.

- ***Semantics,*** the study of meaning in language.

- ***Pragmatics***, the study of how signs and symbols are used for communicating in a particular language.

A. PHONOLOGY: The Sound Patterns of Language

Phonology (Greek *phone* – sound; -*ology* – science of) describes the way sounds function within a given language. The term *phonology* is used in two ways:

- as the mental representation of linguistic knowledge, and
- as the description of this knowledge.

Thus, *phonology* refers either to the representation of the sounds and sound patterns in a speaker's mental grammar, or to the study of the sound patterns in a language or in human language in general.

- **Phonetics** is the study of linguistic speech sounds, how they are pronounced: movement of the speech organs (articulatory), how they are perceived: hearing of speech sounds (auditory), and their physical aspects: frequency and amplitude in their transmission (acoustic).

  To describe speech sounds, it is necessary to know what an individual sound is, and how each sound differs from all others. [*Night* and *knight* have three sounds even though the first sound in *knight* is represented by the two letters *kn.*]

- **Sound Segments** (Fromkin, et. al.: 2003)
  Not knowing where the break between words occurs [Key Pout! → Keep Out!]
  Examples of misinterpretation on what one hears:

I scream	→	*ice-cream*
Grade A	→	*gray day*
It's hard to recognize speech.	→	*It's hard to wreck a nice beach.*
The sun's rays meet.	→	*The sons raise meat.*

- **Phonemics** (*phonemic phonology* or *phonematics)*, a branch of phonology, is the study of the systems of phonemes of languages.

Phonemes are the sounds that make up a language. These are the smallest distinctive and meaningful units which mean different things when sounds form words. For example, in English, we can tell this from the units such as */h/* and */m/*, when substituted for the other can change in meaning (as in *hat ~ mat*).

The number of phonemes in a language ranges between 20 and 50; Hawaiian is a language with one of the fewest (18), while English has a high average count (from 34 to 45, depending on the dialect). Each language has permissible ways in which phonemes can be combined. These are called ***phonemic sequences***. In English, /spr/ as in *spring,* /nd/ as in *handle*, and /lk/ as in *talked* are phonemic sequences. Languages also have permissible places for these sequences. They may occur initially (at the beginning of a word), medially (between initial and final position), finally (at the end of a word), or in a combination of these positions. Spanish uses the sequence /sp/ medially – e*sp*añol – but never initially. This would explain why, in speaking English, native Spanish speakers may say `espeak' (Diaz-Rico & Weed: 1995).

B. MORPHOLOGY: The Words of Language

Morphology (Greek *morphe* – form; *-ology* – science of) is the study of the internal structure of words and of the rules by which words are formed. Thus, the meaning of morphology is `the science of word forms.' (Fromkin: 2003)

Morpheme. A *morpheme* is the smallest and indivisible meaningful unit of a grammatical or linguistic form.

- The English word `*distrusts'* consists of three morphemes: *dis-* + *trust* + *-s* (noun-forming prefix + root + plural or verb marker).
- Morphemes can be a single sound, as in the noun-forming suffix *-ness* in *blindness*; or two or more syllables, as in *listen* or *family*.
- Two different morphemes may have the same sound, as in the suffix *-er* in *teacher* (one who teaches) and the *-er* in *higher* (comparative form of *high*).

Allomorph. An *allomorph* is any of two or more alternative forms of a morpheme (/-s/ and /-es/ forms of the plural morpheme). The words *keys* and *buses* are broken into the root [*key* and *bus*] and the plural morphemes *-s* and *-es*, respectively.

A single word may be composed of one or more morphemes (Fromkin: 2003):

one morpheme	*boy*
two morphemes	*boy + ish*
three morphemes	*boy + ish + ness*
four morphemes	*gentle + man + li + ness*
five morphemes	*un + gentle + man + li + ness*
more than five morphemes	*anti + dis + establish + ment + ari + an + ism*

Bound and Free Morphemes (Fromkin: 2003)

a). Prefixes and Suffixes

One of the things we should know about morphemes is whether they can stand alone or whether they must be attached to a host morpheme.

- The morphemes above: *boy, desire, gentle,* and *man* may constitute words by themselves and these are ***free morphemes****.* Thus, *free morphemes* can stand alone (*teach* in teacher).
- Other morphemes like *-ish, -ness, -ly, dis-, trans-* and *un-* are never words by themselves but are always parts of words and these affixes are ***bound morphemes.*** Thus, *bound morphemes* occur only in conjunction with others (*-ing, -est*). Bound morphemes occur as affixes.
- In English, examples of prefixes are: *un-* (unbecoming), *pre-* (prejudge), and *bi-* (bisexual) which occur before other morphemes.
- Some morphemes occur only as suffixes: *-ing* (teaching), *-er* (teacher), *-ist* (journalist), and *-ly* (proudly).

- Different morphemes serve different purposes. Some create new words by either changing the meaning: *just ~ unjust*, both adjectives; *dark ~ darken*, an adjective to a verb.
- Other morphemes add information: *dance ~ danced*.

In Filipino, for the morpheme (root word) *laro* `play', we can have the prefix *ka-* (*ka*laro `playmate') and the suffix *-an* (laru*an* `toy').

In Bahasa Melayu, for the morpheme (root word) *main* 'play', we can have the prefix *ber-* (*ber*main `to play') and the suffix *-an* (main*an* `toy').

b). Infixes

- Some languages also have infixes, morphemes that are inserted into other morphemes. Filipino is such a language, as illustrated by the following:

Morpheme (Noun)		Verb	
ganda	*`beauty'*	*gumanda*	*`to become beautiful'*
lakas	*`strength'*	*lumakas*	*`to become strong'*

- In this language, the infix *-um-* is inserted after the first consonant of the noun. Thus, a speaker of Filipino who learns that *yaman* is `wealth,' would understand the meaning of *yumaman*, `to become rich,' on hearing the word for the first time, just as an English speaker who learns the verb *sing* would know that *singer* is `one who sings.' A Filipino speaker who knows that *bumigat* means `to become heavy' would know that the noun `weight' must be *bigat*.

c). Circumfixes

- These are morphemes that are attached to another morpheme both initially and finally, and are also called *discontinuous morphemes.* Examples in English are:

teach	un-teach-able
definite	in-definite-ly
form	trans-form-ation
courage	dis-courage-ment
conscious	pre-conscious-ness

- Examples of this circumfixing in Filipino are:

bigay	*`give'*	*magbigayan (mag-… -an)*	*`to give each other'*
luto	*`cook'*	*pinaglutuan (pinag-…-an)*	*`ware used for cooking'*
balik	*`return'*	*pabalikin (pa-… -in)*	*`to order someone back'*

- Examples of this circumfixing in Bahasa Melayu are:

rumah	*`house'*	*merumahkan (me-… -kan)*	*`to house someone'*
baca	*`read'*	*pembacaan (pem-… - an)*	*`the act of reading'*
bersih	*'clean'*	*kebersihan (ke-… -an)*	*`cleanliness'`*

Derivational Morphology

- Bound morphemes like *-ing* and *-able* are called ***derivational morphemes.***
- When they are added to a root morpheme, a new word with a new meaning is derived. The addition of *-ing* to *read → reading* means `the act or process of reading' and the addition of *-able → readable* – means `something that could be read.' The form that results from the addition of a derivational morpheme is called a ***derived word*.**

- Examples of this in Spanish are:

niño/niña `child':	niñear	'to act childishly'	niñear	'nanny'
	niñería	'childishness'	niñero	'fond of children'
	niñez	'childhood'		

- Examples in Filipino: anak 'child': manganak 'to give birth'
  kapanganakan 'birth'

Grammatical Morphemes

- In relation to derivational morphology, we could assert that certain morphemes such as *-ness* or *-ment* have meaning only when combined with other morphemes in a word: kind*ness* and agree*ment.*
- Likewise, there are morphemes that have 'meaning' only when used with other words in a sentence. In the sentence `The car of John is new', what is the meaning of *`of'*?
- The function word *of* has a strictly grammatical meaning or function in the sentence. It does not have any clear lexical meaning or concept associated with them. It's in the sentence because it is required by the rules of sentence formation – the *syntax* (see separate topic).
- *Of* in relation to the noun (John) has the grammatical function showing possession or ownership. Similarly, *to* in the sentence *`She likes to eat ice-cream'* functions as an infinitive marker of the verb *eat*.

Inflectional Morphemes

- Function words like *to* and *of* are free morphemes.
- Many languages including English have bound morphemes that have a strictly grammatical function. These bound morphemes, involving tense, number, case, gender and others, are called ***inflectional morphemes.***
- The syntactic category of the words or morphemes to which they are attached never change. Look at these examples:
  (1) *I play basketball in the park.*
  (2) *He plays basketball in the park.*
  (3) *Rey played basketball in the park.*
  (4) *Rey has played basketball in the park.*
  (5) *Rey is playing basketball in the park.*

- Analysis: In sentence *(2)* the *-s* at the end of the verb is an agreement marker (subject `*He'* of the verb is 3rd person singular, present tense). It doesn't add lexical meaning. The suffix *-ed (4)* indicates past tense, and is also required by the syntactic rules of the language when verbs are used with *have*, just as *–ing (5)* is required when verbs are used with forms of *be*.

English is no longer a highly inflected language. But we have other inflectional endings such as the plural suffix, which is attached to certain singular nouns, as in *boy/boys* and *cat/cats*. At the present stage of English history, there are a total of 8 bound inflectional affixes (Fromkin: 2003):

English Inflectional Morphemes		*Examples*
-s	3rd person singular present	She learn*s* fast.
-ed	past tense	She learn*ed* fast.
-ing	progressive	She is eat*ing* the banana.
-en	past participle	She has eat*en* the bananas.
-s	plural	Tess ate the banana*s*.
- 's	possessive	Carmen*'s* car is new.
-er	comparative	Vic has a new*er* car than Mark.
-est	superlative	Rey has the new*est* car.

- In the Romance languages, the verb has different inflectional endings depending on the subject of the sentence. The verb is inflected to agree in person and number with the subject, as illustrated by the Spanish verb *hablar* `to speak':

Yo hablo	*`I speak'*	*Nosotros hablamos*	*`We speak'*
Tu hablas	*`You speak'*	*Vosotros hablais*	*`You (pl) speak'*
El/Ella habla	*`He/She speaks'*	*Ellos/Ellas hablan*	*`They speak'*

Exceptions and Suppletions (Fromkin: 2003)

The regular rule that forms plurals from singular nouns does not apply to words like *child, man, foot,* and *mouse*. Similarly, verbs like *go, sing, bring, run,* and *know* are exceptions to the regular past tense rule in English.

- Irregular or ***suppletive*** forms are treated separately in the grammar. That is, one cannot use the regular rules of inflectional morphology to add affixes to words that are exceptions like *child/children,* but must replace the non-inflected form with another word.
- When a new word enters the language it is generally the regular inflectional rules that apply. The plural of *geek*, when it was a new word in English, was *geeks,* not *geeken, although we are advised that some *geeks* wanted the plural of *fax* to be *faxen, like *oxen*, when *fax* (faxes) entered the language as a clip of *facsimile*.
- The exception to this may be a loan word, a word borrowed from a foreign language. The plural of Latin *datum* has always been *data*, never *datums*, though nowadays *data*, the one-time plural, is treated by many as a singular word like *information.* The past tense of the verb *hit,* as in the sentence "Yesterday you hit the ball," and the plural of the noun *sheep*, as in "The sheep are in the meadow," show that some morphemes seem to

have no phonological shape at all. *Hit* in the above sentence is in past tense because of the time adverb *yesterday*, and that the *sheep* is the plural form because of the plural verb form *are*.

- When a verb is derived from a noun, even if it is *homophonous* (words having identical sound but with different meaning and/or spelling) with an irregular verb, the regular rules apply to it. Thus, *ring,* when used in the sense of *encircle,* is derived from the noun *ring,* and as a verb, it is regular. We say the `police ringed the bank with armed men,' not *rang the bank with armed men.
- Similarly, when a noun is used in a compound in which its meaning is lost, such as *flatfoot*, meaning `cop.' Its plural follows the regular rules, so one says *two flatfoots* to refer to a pair of cops slangily, not *two flatfeet.

Summary

- The study of word formation and the internal structure of words is called ***morphology***.
- The smallest units of linguistic meaning or grammatical function in a language are ***morphemes.***
- The word *blackboards* contains three morphemes: *black, board* and the function morpheme plural, *s*.
- Morphemes combine according to the morphological rules of the language. A word consists of one or more morphemes.
- Lexical content morphemes that cannot be analyzed into smaller parts are called ***root morphemes.***
- When a root morpheme is combined with affix morphemes it forms a ***stem or word.*** Other affixes can be added to a stem to form a more complex stem which may also be a word.
- Some morphemes are ***bound*** in that they must be joined to other morphemes, are always parts of words, and are never words by themselves.
- Most morphemes are ***free*** in that they need not be attached to other morphemes: *free, king, serf,* and *bore* are free morphemes; *-dom*, as in *freedom, kingdom, serfdom* and *boredom* is a bound morpheme.
- Affixes, that is, prefixes, suffixes, infixes, and circumfixes, are ***bound*** morphemes.
- Morphemes may be ***derivational*** *or* ***inflectional.***
- Morphological rules are rules of word formation.
- Derivational morphemes, when added to a root or stem, may change the syntactic word class and/or the meaning of the word. For example, adding *-ish* to the noun *boy* derives an adjective, and prefixing *un-* to *pleasant* changes the meaning by adding a negative element.
- Inflectional morphemes are determined by the rules of syntax. Inflectional morphemes never change the syntactic category of the word.

[Answer: Practice Exercises A. & B.]

C. SYNTAX: The Sentence Patterns of Language

- **Syntax** originates from the Greek words *syn*, meaning `together' and *taxis*, meaning `sequence/order'.
- That branch of grammar which is concerned with the study of the arrangement of words in sentences and of the means by which such relationships are shown, e.g. word order or inflection.
- In linguistics, it's the study of the rules, or "patterned relations", that govern the way the words in a sentence are arranged. It concerns how different words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.) are combined into clauses, which, in turn, are combined into sentences.

Any speaker of a human language can produce and understand an infinite number of sentences. We can show this quite easily through examples such as the following (Fromkin: 2003):

1). The cat chased the mouse.
2). The cat chased the mouse that ate the cheese.
3). The cat chased the mouse that ate the cheese that came from the cow.
4). The cat chased the mouse that ate the cheese that came from the cow that grazed in the field.

- The speaker could continue creating sentences by adding an adjective, or a noun connected by *and*, or a relative clause. Thus, this could go on forever since all languages have mechanisms such as these – modification, coordination, and clause insertion – that make the number of sentences limitless.
- Part of what is meant by structure is word order. The meaning of a sentence depends largely on the order in which words occur in a sentence. Thus, *Mary bought what John needs.*
  vs. *Mary needs what John bought.*
- Sometimes, however, a change of word order has no effect on meaning as could be gleaned from this example in Filipino:

  `Mother cooked pinakbet at home last night.'

  1). Nagluto ang nanay ng pinakbet kagabi sa bahay.
  2). Nagluto ang nanay ng pinakbet sa bahay kagabi.
  3). Nagluto ang nanay kagabi ng pinakbet sa bahay.
  4). Nagluto ang nanay sa bahay ng pinakbet kagabi.
  5). Nagluto ng pinakbet ang nanay kagabi sa bahay.
  6). Nagluto ng pinakbet kagabi sa bahay ang nanay.
  7). Nagluto ng pinakbet sa bahay ang nanay kagabi.
  (and many more….)

- Thus, *syntax* refers to the structure of sentences and the rules that govern the correctness of a sentence. English, like all languages, has generally accepted patterns for sentences.

- Sentences are composed of morphemes, but sentence meaning is more than the sum of the meaning of the morphemes. The sentence, *'The girl gave the flower to a friend'* has the same morphemes as *`A friend gave the flower to the girl.'* But not the same meaning; and the string of morphemes *`*gave the the to girl a friend flower'* has no linguistic meaning.
- There are rules in one's grammar that determine how morphemes and words must be combined to express a specific meaning. These are the syntactic rules of the languages.
- Many colloquial usages are acceptable sentence patterns in English even though their usage is not standard. From a purely descriptive standpoint, the sentence "I ain't got no pencil" is acceptable English syntax. It is not, however, standard usage (Diaz-Rico & Weed: 1995).
- Syntax refers to the rules that make sentences. Grammar, on the other hand, looks at whether or not a sentence confirms to a standard.

Grammatical or Ungrammatical?

- Although the following sequence [*Last mother pinakbet cooked night home at.*] consists of meaningful words, the entire expression is without meaning because it does not comply with the syntactic rules of the grammar.
- While every sentence is a sequence of words, not every sequence of words is a sentence. Sequences of words that conform to the rules of syntax are well-formed or grammatical, and those that violate the syntactic rules are ill-formed or ungrammatical.
    1). The boy found the ball
    2). The boy found quickly
    3). The boy found in the house
    4). The boy found the ball in the house

- To be a sentence, words must conform to specific patterns determined by the syntactic rules of the language.
- Syntactic knowledge goes beyond being able to decide which strings are grammatical and which are not. It accounts for the multiple meanings, or ambiguity, of expressions. Many sentences exhibit such ambiguities, often leading to humorous results. Consider the following classified ad:
    For sale: an antique desk suitable for a lady with thick legs and large drawers.

- Because these ambiguities are a result of different structures, they are instances of structural ambiguity. Syntactic knowledge also enables us to determine the grammatical relations in a sentence, such as *subject* and *direct object*, and how they are to be understood. Consider the following sentences:
    1). Will taught Liza .
    2). Liza taught Will.
    3). Will was taught by Liza.

Analysis:

- In (1) *Will* is the subject and is assumed to be the *`teacher' who did the teaching*. *Liza* is the direct object and is understood to be the *`student'*.
- In (2) *Liza* is the subject and *Will* is the direct object, and the meaning changes so that we understand Liza to be Will's teacher.
- In (3) the grammatical relationships are the same as in (2), but we understand it to have the same meaning as (1), despite the structural difference between (1) and (3).
- Syntactic rules reveal the grammatical relations among the words of a sentence and tell us when structural differences result in meaning differences and when they do not. Moreover, the syntactic rules permit speakers to produce and understand a limitless number of sentences never produced or heard before – the creative aspect of language use. Thus,the syntactic rules in a grammar account for at least (Fromkin:2003):
  1). The grammaticality of sentences
  2). Word order
  3). Hierarchical organization of sentences
  4). Grammatical relations such as subject and object
  5). Whether different structures have differing meanings or the same meaning
  6). The creative aspect of language

[Answer: Practice Exercises C. D. & E.]

Transformational Generative-Grammar (TGG)

- A linguistic theory based on the work of the American Noam Chomsky (1960), who criticized most schools of traditional and structural linguistics as being `taxonomic', i.e. as merely labeling and listing phonetic, grammatical and other units, and thus neglecting the underlying processes of human speech. According to Chomsky, the object of linguistic analysis must be to discover what is universal and regular in man's innate ability to understand and produce new `grammatical' sentences although he may never have heard them before (→ competence/performance).
- Grammar in this sense must account for all the sentences which may be formed in a language and judged `correct' by the linguistic intuition of native speakers. Accepting the notion of sentence as a basic unit, relationships between items in the structure of a sentence are described in terms of abstract statements called → *phrase structure* rules and → *transformation* rules.
- The phrase structure rules describe the basic structures of the language concerned, whereas more complicated structures lend themselves to description as transformations of basic structures by means of transformation rules.
- In the earliest type of transformational-generative grammar, the rules themselves are usually referred to in terms of three `components': firstly, the phrase structure component consisting of phrase structure rules;

secondly, transformation component producing strings of → formatives; and thirdly, a morphophonemic component, a series of rules converting the string of formatives into a phonetic representation.

- The emphasis in TGG is on the elaboration of a logically consistent theory which can adequately explain and formulate explicitly the → deep structure of sentences.

Transform

- A syntactic structure which is said to be derived from a basic sentence by a series of → transformations and/or deletion rules.
- Thus, the sentence *The red book is on the table* may be regarded as a transform of the two basic sentences *The book is on the table* and *The book is red*.

Transformation

- The process or result of changing one linguistic structure or structures into another according to certain rules, e.g. the declarative sentence *He goes home* into the interrogative sentence *Does he go home*? or embedding: *The man is at the corner* with *The man is my uncle* to form *The man at the corner is my uncle*. The process of transformation is used in formulating → transformation rules in TGG.

Transformational Rule

- In TGG, it's a rule which lays down procedures for converting one grammatical pattern into another. Such a rule may change one sentence type into another, delete or add elements, change the order of elements, or substitute one element for another.
- Transformation rules operate on the output, i.e. the terminal string of the → phrase structure rules, e.g the transformation rule:

NP + Pas + be + X > Pas + be + NP + X

(where NP = noun phrase; Pas = past tense; X = any construction) could change a declarative sentence to an interrogative sentence as follows:

The man (NP) + was (Pas+be) + a soldier (X).
Was (Pas+be) + the man (NP) + a soldier (X)?

Deep and Surface Structures

- In the early to mid-1960s, Noam Chomsky developed the idea that each sentence in a language has two levels of representation - a deep structure and a surface structure.
- The deep structure is the grammatical relationship inherent in the elements of a phrase or sentence but not immediately apparent from their linear sequence. Consider the following English sentences:

(1) John expected mother to bring a present.
(2) John persuaded mother to bring a present.

The → surface structure of these two sentences is identical, as they both consist of Nominal + Verb + Nominal + Marked Infinitive + Determiner + Nominal, but the deep structure of the two sentences is different as can be seen by the fact that (1) can be transformed as follows:

(3) John expected that mother would bring a present.

but not (2):

*(4) * John persuaded that mother would bring a present.*

The difference lies in the nature of the relationship of the verbs *expected* and *persuaded* with what follows them: in (1) *expected* is directly related to all of what follows; in (2) *persuaded* is directly related only to *mother*. (Hartmann: 1976)

- Thus, deep structure is the underlying meaning of the words and phrases in a sentence - the basic structures of sentences as specified by the phrase structure rules; while the surface structure has reference to the words and phrases in a sentence - the structures that result from the application of transformational rules.
- The transformational rules (giving new structure via deletion, insertion, substitution, and movement) of the *wh* movement and *do* insertion relate the deep structure sentence *John saw who* to the surface structure *Who did John see*.

Morphology and Syntax

- Some grammatical relations can be expressed either inflectionally (morphologically) or syntactically (as part of the sentence structure). We can see this in the following sentences (Fromkin: 2003):

1). England's queen is Elizabeth II.	*The Queen of England is Elizabeth II.*
2). He loves books.	*He is a lover of books.*
3). The planes which fly are red.	*The flying planes are red.*
4). He is hungrier than she is.	*He is more hungry than she is.*

- Some may form the comparative of *costly* only by adding *-er → costlier* which is often used interchangeably with *more costly*. There are speakers who say both. We know when either form of the comparative can be used, as with *costly,* or when just one can be used, as with *furious*, which is not **furiouser.*
- What one language signals with inflectional affixes, another does with word order, and still another with function words. For example, in English (as in Filipino), the sentence `Tim helps Karen' means something different from `Karen helps Tim.' The word order is critical. (Filipino: Tinutulungan ni Tim si Karen vs. Tinutulungan ni Karen si Tim).

D. SEMANTICS: The Meanings of Language

Understanding language means knowing the meaning of words and of the morphemes that compose them. It is also by knowing how the meanings of words continue into phrases and sentences. Finally, we must consider context when determining meaning. Thus, ***semantics*** (Greek *semantikos* `significant')

- is the study of meaning.
- is the branch of linguistics which studies meaning in language.
- is the use of language in meaningful references, both in word and sentence structures.
- is concerned with the meaning of words, expressions and sentences, often in relation to reference and truth.

Thus, the study of the linguistic meaning of morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences is called ***semantics.*** Subfields of semantics are *lexical semantics,* which is concerned with the meanings of words, and the meaning relationships among words; and phrasal, or *sentential semantics,* which is concerned with the meaning of syntactic units larger than the word. The study of how context affects meaning – for example, how the sentence `It's cold in here' comes to be interpreted as `close the windows' in certain situations – is called ***pragmatics***.

Semantics is the study of meanings of individual words and of larger units such as phrases and sentences. When speakers use language to make meaning out of events that occur in the world, they must fit together the meaning of language as they know it to the occurrences. Some words carry a high degree of stability and conformity in the ways they are used (*kick* as a verb, for example, must involve the foot – *'he kicked me with his hand*" is not semantically correct). Other words carry multiple meanings, ambiguous meanings, or debatable meanings (*marriage*, for example, for many people can only refer to heterosexual alliances, and to use it for non-heterosexual context is not only unacceptable but inflammatory). Recognizing the meaning of words involves various kinds of knowledge about words (Diaz-Rico & Weed: 1995).

Semantic Properties of Words

Recognizing the meaning of words involves various kinds of knowledge about words. The listing below illustrates the kind of judgments that a language user can make. For second language acquisition, the process of translating already recognized meaning from one language to the next is only part of the challenge. New semantic meanings must be continually acquired if the mind is to develop while second language learning takes place (Diaz-Rico & Weed: 1995).

Property	*Meaning*	*Example*
1. ambiguity	having more than one sense	She cannot bear children.
2. contradiction	opposite in nature	odorless pine scent
3. redundancy	using surplus words	return back
4. specificity	narrowing the meaning	fall-tumble; furniture-chair

5. connotation	implying suggested meanings	pig → sloppy, dirty, messy
6. association	frequently connected meanings	The wealthy are privileged.
7. anomaly	incongruous in context	They remodeled the dog.
8. related meaning	sharing one or more elements	dazzle, sparkle, shine, gleam
9. entailment	logically related to previous meanings	She is his mother. → He is her son.

- The lexicon (speaker's mental vocabulary/dictionary) is the sum total of the meanings stored, the association of these meanings with the correct context, the ability to pronounce the word correctly, the knowledge of how to use the word grammatically in a sentence, and the knowledge of which morphemes are appropriately connected with the word.

[Answer: Practice Exercise F.]

Lexical Semantics (Word meanings)

- Our mental storehouse of information about words and morphemes is what we call ***lexicon.***
- Learning a language includes learning the agreed-upon meanings of certain strings of sounds and learning how to combine these meaningful units into larger units that also convey meaning. We are not free to change the meanings of these words at will; if we did we would be unable to communicate with anyone.

Semantic Properties

- Words and morphemes have meanings. Suppose someone said: `The assassin killed J. F. Kennedy' (JFK).
- If the word *assassin* is in our mental dictionary, we know that it was some person who murdered some important person named JFK. Our knowledge of the meaning of *assassin* tells us that an animal did not do the killing, and that Kennedy was not a little old man who owned a tobacco shop. Knowledge of *assassin* includes knowing that the individual to whom that word refers is human, is a murderer, and is a killer of important people.
- These pieces of information, then, are some of the semantic properties of the word on which speakers of the language agree. The meaning of all nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs - the content words - and even some of the function words such as *with* and *over* can at least partially be specified by such properties.

- The same semantic property may be part of the meaning of many words. "Female" is a semantic property that helps to define

tigress	*hen*	*aunt*	*maiden*
doe	*mare*	*debutante*	*widow*
ewe	*vixen*	*girl*	*woman*

- The words in the last two columns are also distinguished by the semantic property "human," which is also found in

doctor	*dean*	*professor*	
bachelor	*parent*	*baby*	*child*

- The meanings of the last two of these words are also specified as `young': part of the meaning of the words *baby* and *child* is that they are "human" and "young."

- The same semantic property may occur in words of different categories. "Female" is part of the meaning of the noun *mother*, of the verb *breast-feed,* and of the adjective *pregnant*. "Cause" is a verbal property of *darken*, *kill*, and so on.

darken	*cause to become dark*
kill	*cause to die*
beautify	*cause to become beautiful*

- Other semantic properties of verbs are shown in the following list:

semantic property	verbs having it
motion	*bring, fall, walk, run…*
contact	*hit, kiss, touch…*
creation	*build, imagine, make….*
sense	*see, hear,feel….*

[Answer: Practice Exercises G. & H.]

-Nyms: *Homonym, Polysemous, Heteronym*

- Knowing a word means knowing both its sound (pronunciation) and its meaning. Both are crucial in determining whether words are the same or different. If words differ in pronunciation but have the same meaning, such as *father* and *dad*, they are different words.
- Only pronunciation, not spelling, is important. Thus, *can* (noun) and *can* (verb) are different words because they have different meanings although they are pronounced identically.
- Words like *sale* and *sail* are ***homonyms*** (homophones). Homonyms are different words that are pronounced the same, but may or may not be spelled the same. *Right, write,* and *rite* are homonyms despite their spelling differences.
- Homonyms can create ambiguity. A word or a sentence is ambiguous if it can be understood or interpreted in more than one way: *ground* (earth) vs. *ground* (past tense of grind).
- When a word has multiple meanings that are related conceptually or historically, it is said to be ***polysemous***. *Bear* is polysemous, with meanings: *to tolerate, to carry, to support,* among others found in the dictionary.

- A related concept is ***heteronym.*** Two words are heteronyms if they are spelled the same, but pronounced differently, and have different meanings: *bow, wind, lead,* etc.

	homonyms	heteronyms
Pronounced identically	yes	no
Spelled identically	yes/no	yes

[Answer: Practice Exercise I.]

Hyponyms, Metonyms and Retronyms

- The words *round, square,* and *triangle* are "shape" words and their lexical representations have the feature [shape] indicating a kind to which they all belong. Similarly*, banana, apple,* and *grapes* have the feature [fruits]. Such sets of words are called ***hyponyms.***
- The relationship of hyponyms is between the more general terms such as shape and the more specific instances of it such as *round.* Thus *round* is a hyponym of *shape*, and *banana* is a hyponym of *fruits*; or equivalently, *shape* has the hyponym of *round* and *fruits* as the hyponym of *banana*.
- A ***metonym*** substitutes for the object that is meant, the name of an attribute or concept associated with that object. The use of *diamond* for *baseball* or *White House* for the official residence of the U.S. President, are examples of metonyms.
- ***Retronym*** is the term reserved for expressions like: *silent movie, surface mail* that once were redundant. In the past, all movies were silent and electronic mail was not conceived yet. Strictly speaking, it does not apply to the individual words themselves, but the combination.

Word from Names: Eponyms and Folk Etymology

Eponyms are words derived from proper names and are another of the many creative ways that the vocabulary of a language expands (cf. W.R. Espy: 1978):

- Sandwich - names for the fourth Earl of Sandwich, who put his food between two slices of bread so that he could eat while he gambled.
- Robot - after the mechanical creatures in the Czech writer Karel Capek's play R.U.R, the initials standing for `Rossum's Universal Robots.'
- Gargatuan - named for Gargantua, the creature with a huge appetite created by Rabelais.
- Jumbo - after an elephant brought to the United States by P.T. Barnum.
- The word *paparazzo*, `freelance photographer who doggedly pursues celebrities,' was a little known word until the death of Diana, Princess of Wales, in 1997, who was hounded by *paparazzi* (plural) before her automobile wreck. This eponym comes from the news photographer character Signor Paparazzo in the motion picture La Dolce Vita.

Folk Etymology is the process, normally unconscious, whereby words or their origins are changed through non-scientific speculations or false analogies with other words (Fromkin: 2003). Examples:

- F.U.C.K. (for *fuck*). There is an urban legend which states that the term "fuck" originated as an acronym, standing for "For Unlawful Carnal Knowledge".

- "Fuck you/The finger." This folk etymology centers on archers who had their middle fingers removed in medieval times to keep them from properly aiming their arrows. English longbow archers caught by the enemy at Agincourt supposedly had their bow fingers amputated, since at that time the longbow was a devastating weapon and would have given a great advantage to the English. The unaffected archers could taunt the enemy by raising their index and middle fingers to show they were still intact and that the archers could still effectively "pluck yew." However, this story is untrue.

- Gringo. A recurring fake etymology for the derivation of gringo states that it originated during the Mexican-American War of 1846-48. It has been claimed that Gringo comes from "green go" or "green coat" and is used in reference to the American soldiers and the color of their uniforms. This is an example of an invented explanation, because *gringo* was used in Spanish long before the war and during the Mexican-American War, the US Army did not use green uniforms, but blue ones.

- S.H.I.T. (for *shit*). A legend claims that the origin of the term "shit" (actually a shared Germanic word) can be traced back to the farming industry. Dried manure was transported via ship. Oftentimes it would be shipped in the lowest holds of the ship, as the remote sections were ideal for concealing the smell. However, as wooden boats were prone to minor leakage, the manure would become damp and begin expelling methane. On occasion, this methane buildup exploded when deck hands went into the holds with lit lanterns. Once it was determined what caused the accidents, all manure packages going on ships were required to be labeled "Ship High In Transit", later abbreviated to S.H.I.T.

- G.O.L.F. (for *golf*). Sometimes thought to be an acronym for "Gentlemen Only; Ladies Forbidden". However, the word *golf* is over 500 years old. In the oldest Scottish writings, the word was spelled in various ways (e.g. gouff, goiff, goffe, goff, gowff, and golph).

- T.I.P. for "tip" (in the sense of a gratuity for a waiter), alleged to stand for "to insure promptness".

E. PRAGMATICS: The Influence of Context

Pragmatics. The study of language from the point of view of the users – especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interactions, and the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication (Crystal: 1992).

- Pragmatics is concerned with the interpretation of linguistic meaning in context. Two kinds of contexts are relevant. The first is ***linguistic context*** - the discourse that precedes the phrase or sentence to be interpreted.
- Taken by itself, the sentence (Fromkin: 2003): *`Amazingly, he already loves her…...'* is uninterpretable.
- Its linguistic meaning is clear: *"Something male and animate has arrived at a state of adoration of something female and animate, and the speaker finds it astonishing.*" However, there are no references for *he* and *her*, and the reason for *amazingly* is unclear. If the sentence preceding it were `*John met Mary yesterday,*' its interpretation would be clearer.

  John met Mary yesterday
  Amazingly, he already loves her

- Pragmatics suggests the second kind of context - ***situational***, or knowledge of the word. To fully interpret the sentences the listener must know the real-world references of *John and Mary*.
- Situational context includes the speaker, listener, and any third parties present, along with their beliefs and their beliefs about what the others believe. It includes the physical environment, the subject of conversation, the time of day, and so on. Almost any imaginable extralinguistic factor (certain gestures, tone of the voice, or even the culturally determined context of the speech situation) may influence the way language is interpreted.

- *Pragmatics* is also about language use. It tells that calling someone a '*son of a bitch'* is not a zoological opinion but an insult. When a judge says, in the appropriate setting, `I now pronounce you husband and wife,' an act of marrying was performed.

Scripts

- Every situation carries with it the expectations of the speakers involved and a script that carries out those expectations.
- In a restaurant, the customers pause at the front counter to see if someone will escort them to their seat. They anticipate being asked two questions: *"How many people (in the party)*?" and *"Smoking or* non-(smoking)?" To continue the script, when they are seated, they expect to be approached by a waiter, given a menu, and asked if they would like a drink before ordering. This interchange follows a predictable sequence, and pragmatic knowledge is needed to carry out the parts of the dialogue. Obviously, a fast food restaurant has a very different script.

- Another typical script is the sequence of language that takes place when callers are confronted on the telephone with an answering machine. They must wait for the machine to answer, deliver the pre-recorded message, and produce the cueing tone. Then they deliver their own message. Even if this recording is delivered in a foreign language, the "script" contains the same pragmatic elements: When someone called the Philippines, an answering machine answered the call. Even though that person did not know Filipino, his pragmatic knowledge allowed her to respond appropriately (in English) after the signaling beep.

Cultural Context

- Pragmatics implies a cultural context in which the language is embedded. Introductions in Japanese contain a mandatory bowing behavior that varies in depth in relation to the status of the participants.
- The process of making introductions in Japan, therefore, pragmatically differs from that in the United States. The speech acts performed during introductions are conjoined with the many social conventions controlling what participants expect from one another.
- To illustrate the pragmatics of a classroom situation, consider the following: A teacher calls out to a child who is sitting on her seat, *"Are you finished with your work?"* In some cultures, the child might expect praise for having completed the work; but in most classrooms in the U.S., this question implies that the student should find something else to do and not "waste time." The pragmatic context of the situation implies that the child should display the cultural values of industriousness and self-direction. Many times, teachers make judgments about students' academic potential on the basis of their ability to respond to pragmatic features of classroom discourse.
- If this is the case, explicit attention paid to these features will benefit students' classroom success (When the teacher says, *`it's time for lunch'*, he means, put your books away and take out your lunch or money for lunch"). This will help students gain an awareness of pragmatic features of language.

Linguistic Context: Discourse Analysis (DA)

Linguistic knowledge accounts for speakers' ability to combine phonemes into morphemes, morphemes into words, and words into sentences. Knowing a language also permits combining sentences to express complex thoughts and ideas. These larger linguistic units are called ***discourse***.

- The study of discourse, or ***discourse analysis***, is concerned with how speakers combine sentences into broader speech units. Discourse analysis involves questions of style, appropriateness, cohesiveness, rhetorical force, topic/subtopic structure, differences between written and spoken discourse, speech register, as well as grammatical properties.

Pronouns

- Pronouns may be used in place of noun phrases or may be used to refer to an entity presumably known to the discourse participants. When that presumption fails, miscommunication such as the one below may result.

The 911 operator, trying to get a description of the gunman, asked, "What kind of clothes does he have on?" Mr. Morris, thinking the question pertained to Mr. Davidson, [the victim, who lay dying of a gunshot wound], answered, "He has a bloody shirt with blue jeans, purple striped shirt." The 911 operator then gave police that description [the victim's] of a gunman.

- In a discourse, prior linguistic context plays a primary role in a pronoun interpretation. In the following discourse:

> *1). It seems that the man loves the woman.*
> *2). Many people think he loves her.*

The most natural interpretation of *her* is "the woman" referred to in the first sentence, whoever she happens to be. But it is also possible for *her* to refer to a different person, perhaps one indicated with a gesture. In such a case *her* would be spoken with added emphasis: *Many people think he loves* her!

Speech Acts

- We can use language to do things. We can use language to make promises, put bets, issue warnings, christen boats, place names in nomination, offer congratulations, or swear testimony.

- The theory of ***speech acts*** describes how this is done. By saying `*I warn you that there is a snake in the pail,*' you do not only say something, you warn someone. Verbs like *bet, promise, warn,* and so on are ***performative verbs***. Using them in a sentence does something extra over and above the statement. There are hundreds of performative verbs in every language. The following sentences illustrate their usage:

> *I bet you five dollars the Lakers will win.*
> *I challenge you to a debate.*
> *I dare you to cross this line.*
> *I fine you $50.00 for littering.*
> *I move that we approve the resolution.*
> *I nominate Jim for class president.*
> *I promise to study harder.*
> *I quit!*

- In all the above sentences, the speaker is the subject (that is, the sentences are in the first person) who by uttering the sentence is accomplishing some additional action, such as *daring, nominating,* or *quitting.*

- In addition, all the above sentences are affirmative, declarative, and in the present tense. They are typical performative sentences.
- Every utterance is some kind of speech act. Even when there is no explicit performative verb, as in *`It's drizzling,'* we recognize an implicit performance of stating. On the other hand, *`Is it drizzling?*' is a performance of questioning, just as *`Get out!'* is a performance of ordering.
- In all the above instances we could use, if we chose, an actual performative verb: `I state that it is drizzling;' `I ask if it is drizzling;' `I order you to get out.'

Speech Act Theory

Speech act theory finds its foundations in the philosophy of language. The philosopher John Austin was the first to point out that language can "perform" certain functions. Austin recognized that certain sentences differ from other declarative sentences, in that they do not assert truth values or have informative communicative value; they do not say things but rather do things. This class of performatives includes such sentences as the following:

1). 'I promise' *2). 'I give my word'* *3). 'I apologize'*

- Each utterance has three underlying component acts: *a locutionary, an illocutionary* and *a perlocutionary act*. The ***locutionary act*** involves the actual speech production of sounds, i.e., the act of uttering; the ***illocutionary act*** is the force or the act that is performed in the locution; and the ***perlocutionary act*** is the "consequential effects" (Austin: 1962) of the locution on the addressee.
- For example, the lines between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts are not always clear, and have been the subject of much discussion. Austin's theory is extensively developed by Searle (1969) to extend Speech Act Theory to linguistic analysis. Searle (1976) argues that illocutionary force can be divided into five subcategories or, in other words, that there are just five types of utterances with which five types of basic actions can be performed: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations.
- *Representatives* commit the speaker to a certain state of affairs; these include assertions of facts.
- *Directives* "direct" the addressee toward performing some act; examples include orders, requests and questions.
- *Commissives* are the speech act whereby speakers commit themselves to something; this category includes promises and threats.
- *Expressives* express a psychological state; prime examples are apologizing, welcoming and so on.
- *Declarations* bring about changes in states of affairs; christening and declaring war are two clear examples.

Indirect Speech Acts

- A certain group of speech acts are of special interest: *indirect speech acts,* where one appears to be saying one thing but says another. The classic example is `*Can you pass the salt?*' which is not an information-seeking question (an answer of *yes* or no *is* interpreted as a wisecrack), but rather has imperative force (*Pass me the salt*).

- The category of indirect speech acts rests on the notion that sentences have a literal force and an additional inferred force. One goal of Speech Act Theory is determining which acts are indirect speech acts, and further determining how their inferred force is to be interpreted.

- How do interlocutors identify and then interpret indirect speech acts? One possible explanation is that such indirect speech acts as `Can you pass the salt?' are formulaic. Note that the tense/mood of the verb can be altered (Could you...), *please* can be added, and yet we are essentially left with the same request, or the same illocutionary force.

- Thus one could argue that `Can you please answer (RSVP)?' is an expression for the request.

- Consider the use of what appears to be a question in public transportation: *'Are you getting off?'* On the surface, this would appear to be an information-seeking question and, if the answer is affirmative, either a verbal response ('yes') or kinesic one (as in a head nod) is appropriate. But when the answer is negative, the perlocutionary force is manifested by the addressee stepping to the side, for the illocutionary force is something along the lines of *'I am getting off at the next stop and need to make my way to the door; are you getting off too or will you step aside to make way for me?'* This is an interesting example because, judging by the response, it appears either as an interrogative, or as a request, depending upon whether the response is affirmative or negative.

- Furthermore, like `Can you pass the salt?' is a formulaic linguistic exchange. This suggests that the interpretation of speech acts is dependent upon the culture of their usage. In fact, speech acts vary from language to language, making it difficult to determine a taxonomy of all speech acts.

F. STYLISTICS: The Aesthetic Use of Language

Stylistics is the study of varieties of language whose properties position that language in context. For example, the language of advertising, politics, religion, individual authors, etc., or the language of a period in time, all belong in a particular situation. In other words, they all have 'place'.

Grammar is better approached through principles than roles. Four basic, sequential principles answer almost all issues: a functional sense of the eight parts of speech, ellipsis, and restriction.

Basic Rules of Grammar

- Subject-verb agreement
- Pronouns and their references (antecedents)
- Apostrophes and possession
- Compound sentences
- Sentence fragments
- Dangling modifiers
- Commas and introductory phrases and clauses
- "Who," "Which" and "That"

Often Misused (and/or Misspelled) Words

- Their, There
- Whether, Weather
- Where, Were
- Statute, Statue
- Often times
- Affect, Effect
- Between, Among
- Each other, One another
- Number, Amount / Few, Less
- Past, Passed
- Than, Then.

Ellipsis

- The process or result of omitting some parts of a word or sentence. The words or parts of words missing are often said to be `understood' or necessary to make the construction grammatically complete, e.g. in `*Is he coming?' Yes* may be considered as an ellipsis of `*Yes, he is coming*.'

Restriction or Reduction

- The process by which the meaning of a word or phrase becomes narrowed by restriction of the contexts in which it can occur, e.g. *goat* `animal' → `ruminant'.

LANGUAGE CLASSIFICATION

Languages of the World

- Estimates of the number of languages spoken in the world today vary depending on where the dividing line between language and dialect is drawn. Linguists disagree over whether Chinese should be considered a single language because of its speakers' shared cultural and literary tradition, or whether it should be considered several different languages because of the mutual unintelligibility of, for example, the Mandarin spoken in Beijing and the Cantonese spoken in Hong Kong.

General Classification

- Linguists classify languages using two main classification systems: typological and genetic. A typological classification system organizes languages according to the similarities and differences in their structures. Languages that share the same structure belong to the same type, while languages with different structures belong to different types. For example, Mandarin Chinese and English belong to the same type, grouped by word-order typology. Both languages have a basic word order of subject-verb-object.

Genetic Classification

- A ***language family*** is a group of genetically related languages said to have descended from a common proto-language. Most languages are known to belong to language families.
- Language families can be divided into smaller phylogenetic units, conventionally referred to as ***branches*** of the family, because the history of a language family is often represented as a tree diagram.
- However, the term *family* is not restricted to any one level of this "tree"; the Germanic family, for example, is a branch of the Indo-European family. Languages that cannot be reliably classified into any family are known as ***language isolates*****.** A language isolated in its own branch within a family, such as Greek within Indo-European, is often also called an isolate, but such cases are usually clarified.

Indo-European Language Family

- The Indo-European languages are the most widely spoken languages in Europe, and they also extend into Western and Southern Asia. The family consists of a number of subfamilies or branches (groups of languages that descended from a common ancestor, which in turn is a member of a larger group of languages that descended from a common ancestor).

Other European Language Families

- The Uralic languages constitute the other main language family of Europe. They are spoken mostly in the northeastern part of the continent, spilling over into Northwestern Asia; one language, Hungarian, is spoken in Central Europe. Most Uralic languages belong to the family's Finno-Ugric branch.

Asian and Pacific Language Families

- South Asia contains, in addition to the Indo-Aryan branch of Indo-European, two other large language families. The Dravidian family is dominant in Southern India and includes Tamil and Telugu. The Munda languages represent the Austro-Asiatic language family in India and contain many languages, each with relatively small numbers of speakers.
- The Austro-Asiatic family also spreads into Southeast Asia, where it includes the Khmer (Cambodian) and Vietnamese languages. South Asia contains at least one language isolate, Burushaski, spoken in a remote part of Northern Pakistan.

Malayo-Polynesian Languages

- The Malayo-Polynesian Languages are a subgroup of the Austronesian languages. They are widely dispersed throughout the island nations of Southeast Asia and the Pacific Ocean, with a few members spoken on continental Asia. The Malayo-Polynesian (MP) languages are divided into two major subgroups: Western Malayo-Polynesian (WMP), and Central-Eastern Malayo-Polynesian (CEMP).
- Western Malayo-Polynesian includes Indonesian Malay, Malaysian Malay, and Sundanese, Javanese, Acehnese, Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilokano, Hiligaynon, Bikol, Kapampangan, and Waray-Waray, Buginese, Malagasy, Chamorro and many others.
- Central-Eastern Malayo-Polynesian languages fall in two subgroups: Central and Eastern. Eastern MP is dominated by the Oceanic subgroup. Two well known Oceanic subgroups are Polynesian and Micronesian. Micronesian includes the languages spoken by the native peoples of Micronesia such as Gilbertese or Nauruan. Polynesian languages include Hawaiian, Maori, Samoan, Tahitian, Tongan and Tuvaluan. All of the said languages have official status in the countries and territories of the Pacific Ocean where they are spoken.

African Language Families

- The languages of Africa may belong to as few as four families: Afro-Asiatic, Nilo-Saharan, Niger-Congo, and Khoisan, although the genetic unity of Nilo-Saharan and Khoisan is still disputed.
- Afro-Asiatic languages occupy most of North Africa and also large parts of Southwestern Asia. The family consists of several branches. The Semitic branch includes Arabic, Hebrew, and many languages of Ethiopia and Eritrea, including Amharic, the dominant language of Ethiopia.
- The Chadic branch, spoken mainly in Northern Nigeria and adjacent areas, includes Hausa, one of the two most widely spoken languages of sub-Saharan Africa (the other being Swahili).
- Other subfamilies of Afro-Asiatic are Berber, Cushitic, and the single-language branch Egyptian, which contains the now-extinct language of the ancient Egyptians.

Language Families of the Americas

- Most linguists separate the indigenous languages of the Americas into a large number of families and isolates, while one linguist has proposed grouping these languages into just three superfamilies. Nearly all specialists reject this proposal. Well-established families include Inuit-Aleut (Eskimaleut).

Pidgin and Creole Languages

- A pidgin is an *auxiliary language* (a language used for communication by groups that have different native tongues) that develops when people speaking different languages are brought together and forced to develop a common means of communication without sufficient time to learn each other's native languages properly. Since a pidgin is an auxiliary language, it has no native speakers.
- A creole language, on the other hand, arises in a contact situation similar to that which produces pidgin languages and perhaps goes through a stage in which it is a pidgin, but a creole becomes the native language of its community.
- As with pidgin languages, creoles usually take most of their vocabulary from a single language. Also as with pidgins, the grammatical structure of a creole language reflects the structures of the languages that were originally spoken in the community.

How Languages Change

- Languages continually undergo changes, although speakers of a language are usually unaware of the changes as they are occurring. For instance, American English has an ongoing change whereby the pronunciation difference between the words *cot* and *caught* is being lost.

- The changes become more dramatic after longer periods of time. Modern English readers may require notes to fully understand the writings of English playwright William Shakespeare, who wrote during the late 16th and early 17th centuries. The English of 14th-century poet Geoffrey Chaucer differs so greatly from the modern language that many readers prefer a translation into modern English. Learning to read the writings of Alfred the Great, the 9th-century Saxon king, is comparable to acquiring a reading knowledge of German.

Sound Change

- Historical change can affect all components of language. Sound change is the area of language change that has received the most study. One of the major sound changes in the history of the English language is the so-called Great Vowel Shift. This shift, which occurred during the 15th and 16th centuries, affected the pronunciation of all English long vowels (vowels that have a comparatively long sound duration).

Morphological Change

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

Syntactic Change

- Change can also affect syntax. In modern English, the basic word order is subject-verb-object, as in the sentence *"I know John."* The only other possible word order is object-subject-verb, as in "John I know (but Mary I don't)."

- Old English, by contrast, allowed all possible word order permutations, including subject-object-verb, as "*If they wished to seek any field,"* or literally "*If they any field to seek wished."* The loss of word-order freedom is one of the main syntactic changes that separates the modern English language from Old English.

Semantic and Lexical Change

- The meanings of words can also change. Change in the meanings of words is known as semantic change and can be viewed as part of the more general phenomenon of *lexical change,* or change in a language's vocabulary. Words not only can change their meaning but also can become obsolete. For example, modern readers require a note to explain Shakespeare's word *hent* (take hold of), which is no longer in use. In addition, new words can be created, such as *feedback.*

Change due to Borrowing

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

G. HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS

- An approach or method used in any branch of linguistics to study short-term shifts and long-term changes in sound system, grammar and vocabulary of one or more languages.
- Historical (or *diachronic*) linguistics studies the development of a language from one stage in its history to the next, while synchronic studies are concerned with the structure of a language at one (usually the contemporary) stage only.

Three basic dimensions of linguistic variation

- Any language is a highly complex communication system. To understand the working principles of language, linguists distinguish different components or subsystems that give shape to this complexity.
- Thus, language can be described in terms of its sounds and sound patterns (phonetics and phonology), morphemes and words (morphology), grammatical word combinations (syntax), structures of meaning (semantics), and patterns of language use (pragmatics).

How does language change?

- The transformations in the linguistic system are not chaotic but subject to certain general principles and processes. Historical linguists are interested in discovering the systematicity of language change to be able to make predictions about the past or future developments of a given language.

FIGURES OF SPEECH

This is a word or group of words used to give particular emphasis to an idea or sentiment. The special emphasis is typically accomplished by the user's conscious deviation from the strict literal sense of a word, or from the more commonly used form of word order or sentence construction. From ancient times to the present, such figurative locutions have been extensively employed by orators and writers to strengthen and embellish their styles of speech and composition. A number of the more widely used figures of speech, some of which are also called *tropes,* follow.

- **Anticlimax,** sequence of ideas that abruptly diminish in dignity or importance at the end of a sentence or passage, generally for satirical effect. The following sentence contains an illustration of anticlimax: *"Among the great achievements of Benito Mussolini's regime were the revival of a strong national consciousness, the expansion of the Italian Empire, and the running of the trains on time."* (cf. climax)

- **Antithesis,** juxtaposition of two words, phrases, clauses, or sentences contrasted or opposed in meaning in such a way as to give emphasis to contrasting ideas. An example of antithesis is the following line by the English poet Alexander Pope: *"To err is human, to forgive divine."*

- **Apostrophe,** device by which an actor turns from the audience, or a writer from readers, to address a person who usually is either absent or deceased, an inanimate object, or an abstract idea. The English poet John Milton, in his poem *Il Penseroso,* invokes the spirit of melancholy in the following words: *"Hail divinest Melancholy, whose saintly visage is too bright to hit the sense of human sight."*

- **Climax,** arrangement of words, clauses, or sentences in the order of their importance, the least forcible coming first and the others rising in power until the last, as in the following sentence: *"It is an outrage to bind a Roman citizen; it is a crime to scourge him; it is almost parricide to kill him; but to crucify him—what shall I say of this?"* (cf. anticlimax)

- **Conceit,** an elaborate, often extravagant metaphor or simile, making an analogy between totally dissimilar things. The term originally meant "concept" or "idea." The use of conceits is especially characteristic of 17th-century English metaphysical poetry. An example occurs in the poem "A Valediction: Forbidding Mourning," by the English poet John Donne, in which *two lovers' souls are compared to the legs of drawing compasses*.

- **Euphemism,** substitution of a delicate or inoffensive term or phrase for one that has coarse, sordid, or otherwise unpleasant associations, as in the use of *"lavatory"* or "*rest room"* for *"toilet,*" and *"pass away"* for *"die."*

- **Exclamation,** sudden outcry or interjection expressing violent emotion, such as fright, grief, or hatred. Two illustrations of exclamation are the line in the English playwright William Shakespeare's drama *Macbeth* in which Lady Macbeth says, *"Out, out, damned spot .... !"* and the line in Shakespeare's tragedy *Hamlet* where the prince cries, *"O villain, villain, smiling damned villain!"*

- **Hyperbole,** form of inordinate exaggeration according to which a person or thing is depicted as being better or worse, or larger or smaller, than is actually the case, as in the sentence from an essay by the English writer Thomas Babington Macaulay: *"Dr. Johnson drank his tea in oceans."* (cf. litotes)

- **Irony,** humorous or slightly sarcastic mode of speech, in which words are used to convey a meaning contrary to their literal sense. An instance of irony is the suggestion, put forward with apparent seriousness by the English satirist Jonathan Swift in his "A Modest Proposal"*,* that *the poor people of Ireland should rid themselves of poverty by selling their children to the rich to eat.*

- **Litotes,** understatement employed for the purpose of enhancing the effect of the ideas expressed, as in the sentence *"The English poet Thomas Gray showed no inconsiderable powers as a prose writer,"* meaning that Gray was in fact a very good prose writer. (cf. hyperbole)

- **Metaphor,** use of a word or phrase denoting one kind of idea or object in place of another word or phrase for the purpose of suggesting a likeness between the two. Thus, in the biblical Book of Psalms, the writer speaks of God's law as *"a light to his feet and a lamp to his path."* Other instances of metaphor are contained in the sentences *"He uttered a volley of oaths"* and *"The man tore through the building."* (cf. simile)

- **Metonymy,** use of a word or phrase for another to which it bears an important relation, as the effect for the cause, the abstract for the concrete, and similar constructions. Examples of metonymy are *"He was an avid reader of Chaucer,*" when the poems of the English writer Geoffrey Chaucer are meant, and *"The hostess kept a good table,"* when good food is implied." (cf. synecdoche)

- **Onomatopoeia,** imitation of natural sounds by words. Examples in English are the italicized words in the phrases "the *humming* bee,""the *cackling* hen,""the *whizzing* arrow," and "the *buzzing* saw."

- **Oxymoron,** combination of two seemingly contradictory or incongruous words, as in the line by the English poet Sir Philip Sidney in which lovers are said to speak *"of living deaths, dear wounds, fair storms, and freezing fires."* (cf. paradox)

- **Paradox,** statement or sentiment that appears contradictory to common sense yet is true in fact. Examples of paradox are *"mobilization for peace"* and *"a well-known secret agent."* (cf. oxymoron)

- **Personification,** representation of inanimate objects or abstract ideas as living beings, as in the sentences *"Necessity is the mother of invention," "Lean famine stalked the land,"* and *"Night enfolded the town in its ebon wings."*

- **Rhetorical question,** asking of questions not to gain information but to assert more emphatically the obvious answer to what is asked. No answer, in fact, is expected by the speaker. The device is illustrated in the following series of

sentences: *"Did you help me when I needed help? Did you once offer to intercede on my behalf? Did you do anything to lessen my load?"*

- **Simile,** specific comparison by means of the words "like" or "as" between two kinds of ideas or objects. Examples of the simile are contained in the sentence *"Christianity shone like a beacon in the black night of paganism"* and in the line by the English poet William Wordsworth: *"But, like a thirsty wind, to roam about."* (cf. metaphor)

- **Synecdoche,** figurative locution whereby the part is made to stand for the whole, the whole for a part, the species for the genus, and vice versa. Thus, in the phrase *"50 heads of cattle,"*"head" is used to mean whole animals, and in the sentence *"The president's administration contained the best brains in the country,"*"brains" is used for intellectually brilliant persons. (cf. metonymy)

[Answer: Practice Exercise J.]

H. APPLIED LINGUISTICS

- ***Applied linguistics*** is the branch of linguistics concerned with using linguistic theory to address real-world problems. It has been traditionally dominated by the fields of language education and second language acquisition. There is a recurrent tension between those who regard the field as limited to the study of language learning, and those who see it as encompassing all applications of linguistic theory.

- The field of ***Second Language Acquisition*** (SLA) developed from the study of second language teaching, and includes the study of the learning setting, learner variables, the nature of the target language and the learner native language, and the reasons for language learning. Much SLA research to date focuses on one or another of these dimensions (linguistic, social psychological, or cognitive) rather than being multidimensional.

Language acquisition is the process by which language capability develops in a human.

- **First language (L1) acquisition** concerns with the development of language in children, while **second language (L2) acquisition** focuses on language development in adults as well. Historically, theories and theorists may have emphasized either nature or nurture as the most important explanatory factor for acquisition.

Learners' Errors and Error Correction in Language Teaching

- It is to S.P. Corder that Error Analysis (EA) owes its place as a scientific method in linguistics. As Rod Ellis cites, "it was not until the 1970s that EA became a recognized part of applied linguistics, a development that owed

much to the work of Corder". Before Corder, linguists observed learners' errors, divided them into categories, tried to see which ones were common and which were not, but not much attention was drawn to their role in second language acquisition. It was Corder who showed to whom information about errors would be helpful (teachers, researchers, and students) and how.

Error Analysis (EA)

- The mathematical analysis is done to show quantitatively how uncertainties in data produce uncertainty in calculated results, and to find the sizes of the uncertainty in the results.
- A type of work sample analysis in which the incorrect responses of the student are described and categorized. In this procedure, samples of the learner's language are collected and the errors are identified, described, and classified according to their hypothesized causes. The errors are then evaluated for relative seriousness.
- The analysis of the errors could serve as a basis for inferring the learning strategies the learners employ.

Below is a list of categories of errors which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning (Richards: 1970):

- ***Overgeneralization.*** This occurs when the learners apply a particular rule of the Target Language (TL) that they have previously learned. What the learners create are deviant structures on the basis of their experience of other structures in the TL. Usually, the deviant structures formed involve redundancy or redundancy reduction.
- ***Ignorance of rule restrictions.*** Closely related to the generalization of structures is the failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. Some morpho-syntactic errors revealed the learner's failure to observe the conditions operating in certain grammatical categories of the TL.
- ***Incomplete application of rules.*** This refers to the learner's failure to apply the operational components of the TL. This might cause the learner to produce deviant sentences associated with subject-verb agreement, subordinate clauses, and others.
- ***False concepts hypothesized.*** This happens when a learner falsely comprehends the distinctions of the various categories of the TL. The learner fails to comprehend subtle differences in the use of certain categories of the TL.
- ***Negative transfer.*** Some linguistic errors are attributed to the use of some grammatical categories or structures of the native or source language in the second language performance.
- ***Lexical error.*** These are errors dealing with the meaning and use of words in relation to their context or linguistic situations. Lexical errors may be attributed to the learner's having limited lexicon of the TL or that lexical items have not yet been taught or the learner might not have learned them yet.

Contrastive Analysis (CA)

- The systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities.
- The theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "*those elements which are similar to* [the learner's] *native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult*".
- CA is founded on the assumption that second/foreign language (L2) learners tend to transfer into the target language features found in their native (L1) language.
- Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture (Lado: 1957).
- The transfer may be positive or negative. Transfer is said to be positive when a familiar skill facilitates the learning of a new structure. When the patterns are similar, the acquisition of the new pattern is facilitated, but when there are differences in patterns, these differences hinder the learning of the foreign language.
- James (1980) states that contrastive studies have four main applications: predicting errors in L2, error diagnosis, testing the learners, and in course design, i.e. *what* to teach (selection) and *when* to teach it (grading). If such decisions were to be based solely on the teacher's experience, they would lose their objectivity. Linguistic analysis constitutes much more reliable ground for generalizations.

Contrastive Analysis and Second Language Acquisition

- Contrastive Analysis was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of a TL were more difficult to acquire than others.
- According to the behaviorist theories prevailing at the time, language learning was a question of habit formation, and this could be reinforced or impeded by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language (L2) depended on the difference between the learners' mother language (L1) and the language they were trying to learn.

Criticism

- In its strongest formulation, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis claimed that all the errors made in learning and L2 could be attributed to 'interference' by the L1. However, this claim could not be sustained by empirical evidence that was accumulated in the mid- and late 1970s. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by CA were inexplicably not observed in learners' language.
- Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their L1. It thus became clear that CA could not predict learning difficulties, and was only useful in the retrospective explanation of

errors. These developments, along with the decline of the behaviorist and structuralist paradigms considerably weakened the appeal of CA.

I. SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Sociolinguistics is a term including the aspects of linguistics applied toward the connections between language and society, and the way we use it in different social situations. It ranges from the study of the wide variety of dialects across a given region down to the analysis between the way men and women speak to one another.

- Sociolinguistics often shows us the humorous realities of human speech and how a dialect of a given language can often describe the age, sex, and social class of the speaker; it codes the social function of a language.
- It also studies how lects differ between groups separated by certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, etc., and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social class or socio-economic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place (dialect), language usage varies among social classes, and it is these ***sociolects*** that sociolinguistics studies.

Fundamental Concepts in Sociolinguistics

While the study of sociolinguistics is very broad, there are a few fundamental concepts on which most sociolinguistic inquiries depend. These are:

External vs. Internal Language

- Sociolinguistics is different from many of the other branches of linguistics in that it studies external as opposed to internal language. Internal language applies to the study of language on the abstract level, or in the head, put simply. External language applies to language in social contexts, or outside the head.

Differences according to gender

- Men and women, on average, tend to use slightly different language styles.

Minimal responses

- One of the ways in which the communicative competence of men and women differ is in their use of minimal responses, i.e., paralinguistic features such as ‘mhm’ and ‘yeah’, which is behaviour associated with collaborative language use (Carli: 1990).

Questions

- Men and women differ in their use of questions in conversations.

Turn-taking

- As the work of DeFrancisco (1991) shows, female linguistic behavior characteristically encompasses a desire to take turns in conversation with others, which is opposed to men's tendency towards centering on their own point or remaining silent when presented with such implicit offers of conversational turn-taking as are provided by hedges such as "y' know" and "isn't it?".

Changing the topic of conversation

- According to Dorval (1990), in his study of same-sex friend interaction, males tend to change subjects more frequently than females.

Self-disclosure

- Female tendencies toward self-disclosure, i.e., sharing their problems and experiences with others, often to offer sympathy (Dindia & Allen: 1992; Tannen: 1991), contrasts with male tendencies to non-self disclosure and professing advice when confronted with another's problems.

Verbal aggression

- Men tend to be more verbally aggressive in conversing (Labov: 1972), frequently using threats, profanities, yelling and name-calling.

Listening and attentiveness

- It appears that women attach more weight than men to the importance of listening in conversation, with its connotations of power to the listener as confidant of the speaker.

Dominance versus subjection

- This in turn suggests a dichotomy between a male desire for conversational dominance – noted by Leet-Pellegrini (1980) with reference to male experts speaking more verbosely than their female counterparts – and a female aspiration to group conversational participation.

Politeness

- Politeness in speech is described (Brown and Levinson: 1978) in terms of positive and negative face: respectively, the idea of pandering to the other's desire to be liked and admired and not to suffer imposition. Both forms, according to Brown's study of the Tzeltal language (1980), are used more frequently by women whether in mixed or single-sex pairs, suggesting for Brown a greater sensitivity in women than have men to the face needs of others.
- In short, women are to all intents and purposes largely more polite than men. However, negative face politeness can be potentially viewed as weak language because of its associated hedges and tag questions, a view propounded by O'Barr and Atkins (1980) in their work on courtroom interaction.

Complimentary language

- Compliments are closely linked to politeness in that, as Coates (1983) believes, they cater for positive face needs. Yet, because they do not account for negative face needs, they can be consternating for those not wishing to be imposed upon, especially where this is in a mixed-sex setting.

Honorifics

- An *honorific* is a word or expression that conveys esteem or respect and is used in addressing or referring to a person. "Honorific" may refer broadly to the style of language or particular words used, or to specific words used to convey honor to one perceived as a social superior. Sometimes the term is used not quite correctly to refer to a title of honor (honorary title).

Honorifics in various languages and cultures

- English honorifics are usually limited to formal situations.
- Chinese honorifics vary greatly according to social distinction.
- Japanese honorifics are similar to English titles like "Mister" and "Miss," but in Japanese, which has many honorifics, their use is mandatory in many formal and informal social situations.
- Korean honorifics vary according to social distinction. The Korean language also distinguishes social differences with special noun and verb endings.
- In Ancient Rome, Roman honorifics like Augustus turned into titles over time.
- Indian honorifics abound, covering formal and informal relationships for social, commercial, spiritual and generational links. Honorifics may be prefix, suffix or replacement types.
- Italian honorifics are usually limited to formal situations.
- Malay honorifics are the Malay language complex system of titles and honorifics which is still extensively used in Malaysia and Brunei. Singapore, whose Malay royalty was abolished by the British colonial government in 1891, has adopted civic titles for its leaders.

LINGUISTS

A **linguist** in the academic sense is a person who studies linguistics. Ambiguously, the word is sometimes also used to refer to a polyglot (one who knows a lot of languages), or a grammarian, but these two uses of the word are distinct.

Panini (India, c. 520-460 BC), Sanskrit

- **Panini** was an ancient Indian grammarian from Gandhara (traditionally 520–460 BC, but estimates range from the 7th to 4th centuries BC). He is most famous for his Sanskrit grammar, particularly for his formulation of the 3,959 rules of Sanskrit morphology in the grammar known as Astadhyayi (meaning "eight chapters") is the earliest known grammar of Sanskrit, and the earliest known work on descriptive linguistics, generative linguistics, and perhaps linguistics as a whole. Panini's comprehensive and scientific theory of grammar is conventionally taken to mark the end of the period of Vedic Sanskrit, by definition introducing Classical Sanskrit.

- Panini, and the later Indian linguist Bhartrihari, had a significant influence on many of the foundational ideas proposed by Ferdinand de Saussure, professor of Sanskrit, who is widely considered the father of modern structural linguistics. Noam Chomsky has always acknowledged his debt to Panini for his modern notion of an explicit generative grammar.

Noam Chomsky (USA, 1928-), Syntax / Generative Grammar

- **Avram Noam Chomsky** (December 7, 1928 -) is the Institute Professor Emeritus of linguistics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Chomsky is credited with the creation of the theory of generative grammar, considered to be one of the most significant contributions to the field of theoretical linguistics made in the 20th century.

- *Syntactic Structures* was a distillation of his book Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory (1955) in which he introduces transformational grammars. The theory takes utterances (sequences of words) to have a syntax which can be (largely) characterized by a formal grammar; in particular, a context-free grammar extended with transformational rules.

- **Generative-Transformational Grammar**. The Chomskyan approach towards syntax, often termed generative grammar, though quite popular, has been challenged by many, especially those working outside the United States of America. Chomskyan syntactic analyses are often highly abstract, and are based heavily on careful investigation of the border between grammatical and ungrammatical constructs in a language.

Edward Sapir (USA, 1884-1939), Structural Linguistics

- **Edward Sapir**, (January 26, 1884 – February 4, 1939) was an American anthropologist-linguist, a leader in American structural linguistics, and one of the creators of what is now called the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. He is arguably the most influential figure in American linguistics, influencing even Noam Chomsky.

- Sapir was born in Lauenburg, Germany, now Lębork in Poland, to an orthodox Jewish family. He was one of the first who explored the relations between language studies and anthropology.

- Some suggestions of Sapir about the influence of language on the ways in which people think were adopted and developed by Whorf, initially while he was substitute teaching in the classroom during Sapir's illness. It was felt that stimulating and challenging ideas would attract students to this fledgling field. During the 1940s and later this became known as the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. Some support may be found in late work of Harris.

Stephen Krashen: Theory of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

- Stephen Krashen (University of Southern California) is an expert in the field of linguistics, specializing in theories of language acquisition and development. Much of his recent research has involved the study of non-English and bilingual language acquisition. During the past 20 years, he has published well over 100 books and articles and has been invited to deliver over 300 lectures at universities throughout the United States and Canada.

- Krashen's theory of SLA consists of five main hypotheses (Diaz-Rico: 1995):
  * ***Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis***, which distinguishes acquisition (which leads to fluency) from learning (which involves knowledge of language rules);
  * ***Monitor Hypothesis***, which postulates a device attaining accuracy;
  * ***Natural Order Hypothesis***, which asserts that language rules acquired in a predictable order;
  * ***Input Hypothesis***, which claims that languages are acquired in only one way – by comprehending messages; and
  * ***Affective Filter Hypothesis***, which describes the mental and emotional blocks that can prevent language acquirers from fully comprehending input.

- The Role of Grammar in Krashen's View. According to Krashen, the study of the structure of the language can have general educational advantages and values that high schools and colleges may want to include in their language programs. It should be clear, however, that examining irregularity, formulating rules and teaching complex facts about the target language is not language teaching, but rather is "language appreciation" or linguistics.

Ferdinand de Saussure (Switzerland, 1857-1913), `Father' of 20th Century Linguistics

- **Ferdinand de Saussure** (November 26, 1857 - February 22, 1913) was a Geneva-born Swiss linguist whose ideas laid the foundation for many of the significant developments in linguistics in the 20th century. He is widely considered the 'Father' of 20th-century linguistics.

- Saussure's most influential work, *Course in General Linguistics* (*Cours de linguistique générale*), was published posthumously in 1916 by former students Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye on the basis of notes taken from Saussure's lectures at the University of Geneva. The *Course* became one of the seminal linguistics works of the 20th century, not primarily for the content, but rather for the innovative approach that Saussure applied in discussing linguistic phenomena. Its central notion is that language may be analyzed as a formal system of differential elements, apart from the messy dialectics of realtime production and comprehension.

Leonard Bloomfield USA, 1887-1949), Structural Linguistics

- **Leonard Bloomfield** (April 1, 1887 - April 18, 1949) was an American linguist, whose influence dominated the development of Structural Linguistics in America between the 1930s and the 1950s. He is especially known for his book *Language* (1933), describing the state of the art of linguistics at its time. Bloomfield was the main founder of the Linguistic Society of America.

- Bloomfield's thought was mainly characterized by its behavioristic principles for the study of meaning, its insistence on formal procedures for the analysis of language data, as well as a general concern to provide linguistics with rigorous scientific methodology. He became more interested in the description of languages, and how they pertain to science. When Leonard got into this aspect of language, it was when he wrote his masterpiece *Language*. It dealt with a standard text, and had a tremendous influence on other linguists.

Zellig Harris (USA, 1909-1992), Structural Linguistics

- **Zellig Sabbetai Harris** (October 23, 1909 - May 22, 1992) was an American linguist, mathematical syntactician, and methodologist of science. Originally a Semiticist, he is best known for his work in Structural Linguistics and Discourse Analysis and for the discovery of transformational structure in language, all achieved in the first 10 years of his career and published within the first 25. His contributions in the subsequent 35 years, including sublanguage grammar, operator grammar, and a theory of linguistic information, are perhaps even more remarkable.
- It is widely believed that Harris carried Bloomfieldian ideas of linguistic description to their extreme development: the investigation of discovery procedures for phonemes and morphemes, based on the distributional properties of these units.

William Labov (USA, 1927-), Founder of Sociolinguistics

- **William Labov** (born December 4, 1927) is a professor in the linguistics department of the University of Pennsylvania. He is widely regarded as the founder of the discipline of quantitative sociolinguistics and pursues research in sociolinguistics and dialectology.

Roman Jakobson (Russia, 1896-1982), Structural Analysis

- **Roman Osipovich Jakobson** (October 11, 1896 – July 18, 1982) was a Russian thinker who became one of the most influential linguists of the 20th century by pioneering the development of structural analysis of language, poetry, and art. The linguistics of the time was overwhelmingly neogrammarian and insisted that the only scientific study of language was to study the history and development of words across time. Jakobson, on the other hand, had come into contact with the work of Ferdinand de Saussure, and developed an approach focused on the way in which language's structure served its basic function - to communicate information between speakers.

Johannes Schmidt (Germany, 1843-1901), Wave Theory

- **Johannes Schmidt** (July 29, 1843 – July 4, 1901) was a German linguist. He developed the *Wellentheorie (wave theory)* of language development. Johannes Schmidt was born in Prenzlau (Kingdom of Prussia). He was a pupil of August Schleicher and studied philology (historical linguistics), specializing in Indo-European, especially Slavic, languages.

- In 1868 Schmidt received a call from the University of Bonn to the position of professor of German and Slavic languages. In Bonn he published the work *Die Verwandtschaftsverhältnisse der indogermanischen Sprachen (The relationships of the Indo-European languages)*, which contained his *Wellentheorie (wave theory)*. According to this theory, new features of a language spread from a certain point in continuously weakening concentric circles, similar to the waves created when a stone is thrown into a body of water. This should lead to convergence amongst dissimilar languages. The theory was directed against the doctrine of *sound laws* introduced by the Neogrammarians in 1870.

~ END OF NOTES ~

*** SEE *PRACTICE EXERCISES* BELOW ***

PRACTICE EXERCISES

Practice Exercise A: Morphology. ***Identify and label the parts of the following words as: bound or free, derivational or inflectional, and base or affix. Indicate the number of morphemes in each word.***

Words	***Base***	***Affix***	***Inflectional***	***Derivational***	***Bound***	***Free***	***Morphemes***
Ex: unlikely	*like*	*un-, -ly*		*x*	*un-, -ly*	*like*	*3*
1 dogs							
2 television							
3 carrot							
4 captivate							
5 inescapable							

Practice Exercise B***: Breakdown the following words into morphemes and classify each one:***

Words	***Morphemes***		
	No.	***Free***	***Bound***
Ex.: breakdown	*2*	*break & down*	
1 cheese			
2 another			
3 fractious			
4 unbeknown			
5 doughnut			

Practice Exercise C: Syntax. ***Rearrange the following into normal English syntax:***

1. The old lovely cottage stood by a blue still lake.
2. My arm is red still after the accident.
3. I want to happily spend my life taking care of people.
4. This is my brown little shopping bag.
5. It was a horribly miserable windy rainy grey October morning.

Practice Exercise D: Grammar. ***Pick out the grammatical items in the following statements:***

1. Giraffes have long necks.
2. It's time to go to visit grandma and grandpa.
3. The climate in England is rather unpredictable.
4. Sheep need short grass on which to graze.
5. We thought it would rain so we decided to take an umbrella.

Practice Exercise E***: Grammar.*** ***Spot any mistakes of agreement in the following examples:***

1. A little boy dressed up as a girl, and a girl dressed up as a girl is, to the eye at least, the same thing.

2. The most impressive monument of Egypt's greatness, and one of the wonders of the world, are the pyramids.

3. They produced various medicines, the power of which were widely advertised.

4. The sharing which the two ministers made of their responsibilities were not successful.

5. The practical results of recognizing this fault was as follows.

6. The services of the Church of England states this to be a truth.

7. All special rights of voting in the election was abolished.

8. He never allowed one to feel their own weaknesses.

9. Suppose each of us tries our hands at it.

10. The only political party who could take offense was that which had opposed the war.

Practice Exercise F: Semantics. ***Explain the semantic ambiguity of the following sentences by providing two or more sentences that paraphrase the multiple meanings: Example: `She can't bear children" can mean either "She can't give birth to children" or "She can't tolerate children."***

1. Maria waited by the bank.
2. Is John really that kind?
3. The long drill was boring.
4. You should see her shop.
5. He saw that gasoline can explode.

Practice Exercise G: Semantics***. Think of a single word which has both meanings.***

1. A child in school – the centre of the eye
2. A piece of furniture – an arrangement of data
3. A weapon for shooting – a tied ribbon
4. Point in time – a fruit of palm tree
5. Most important – a channel or duct

Practice Exercise H: Pragmatics. ***The following sentences may be lexically or structurally ambiguous, or both. Provide paraphrases showing you comprehend all the meanings.***

1. He was knocked over by the punch.

2. I said I would file it on Thursday.

3. Fighting dogs are dangerous.

4. We laughed at the colorful ball.

5. Will you take the chair?

6. We bought her dog biscuits.

7. They are sailing boats.

8. The police were ordered to stop drinking.

9. John saw her drawing pencils.

10. Five hunters shot two wild foxes.

Practice Exercise I: Semantics. Identify at least 10 sets of homonyms (homophones) and give the different meanings.

Word (1)	***Meaning***	***Word (2)***	***Meaning***
Ex.: board	*a flat piece of wood*	*bored*	*uninterested, weary*
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			

Practice Exercise J: Figure of Speech. ***Identify the figure of speech used in each example (shown in italics).***

1. And I tell you that on this rock I will build my church, and *the gates of Hades* will not overcome it.
   a) simile b) hyperbole c) metonymy d) personification e) litotes

2. When the Almighty scattered the kings in the land*, it was like snow fallen on Zalmon.*
   a) litotes b) metonymy c) personification d) simile e) synecdoche

3. *Surely I was sinful at birth, sinful from the time my mother conceived me.*
   a) metaphor b) simile c) apostrophe d) litotes e) hyperbole

4. *He will cover you with his feathers, and under his wings you will find refuge*; his faithfulness will be your shield and your rampart.
   a) metonymy b) metaphor c) personification d) irony e) simile

5. Let the *rivers clap their hands*, let the *mountains sing together* for joy; let them sing before the Lord, for he comes to judge the earth….
   a) metaphor b) simile c) metonymy d) personification e) ellipsis

6. At noon Elisha began to taunt them, "Shout louder!" he said. *"Surely he is a god!* Perhaps he is deep in thought, or busy, or traveling."
   a) metaphor b) irony c) metonymy d) simile e) personification

7. *Although I am less than the least of God's people, this grace was given me:* to preach to the Gentiles the unsearchable riches of Christ.
   a) synecdoche b) metonymy c) personification d) simile e) litotes

8. Let them know *that it is your hand,* that you, O Lord, have done it.
   a) synecdoche b) personification c) litotes d) simile e) metonymy

9. Why was it, *O sea, that you fled, Jordan,* that you turned back, you mountains, that you skipped like rams, the hills like lambs.
   a) irony b) personification c) metonymy d) apostrophe e) simile

10. Are all apostles? Are all prophets? Are all teachers? Do all work miracles? Do all have gifts of healing? Do all speak in tongues? Do all interpret?
    a) personification b) simile c) euphemism d) metaphor e) ellipsis

END OF SCOPE: *GENERAL LINGUISTICS*

*** To validate and check on your responses to the corresponding *Practice Exercises*, please email your answers to the Moderator/Facilitator and receive the Answer Key at ava.cset@gmail.com, including other inquiries.** ~ *Thanks!* ~