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PHILOSOPHIC APPROACHES TO LINGUISTICS

Guide Book for Undergraduate and Master Degree Students

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Contents

Lecture 1. Linguistics and The Scope of Linguistics

1.1. Defining Linguistics

Linguistics is the study of language – the language is built of various combined building blocks of different types and sizes that make up a language. Sounds are brought together in words; words are arranged in a certain order, and sometimes the affixes of the words are changed to adjust the meaning; the meaning in its turn can be affected by the arrangement of words and by the man's perspective on the listened context. **Linguists** do work on specific aspects of languages, but their primary goal is to understand the nature of Language in general. So, Linguistics is primarily concerned with the nature of language and communication. There are in general three aspects to the study of language: language **form**, language **meaning**, and language **use** in discursive and communicative contexts. The most common interdisciplinary branches of Linguistics are:

- Historical Linguistics,
- Sociolinguistics,
- Psycholinguistics,
- Ethnolinguistics or Anthropological Linguistics,
- Computational Linguistics,
- Neurolinguistics.

Historical Linguistics is the study of how languages have changed over time. Some changes happen because of slow (maybe incremental) changes within the language, such as in pronunciation or in the meaning of a word. Other changes happen because of contact with speakers of other languages. The most well known example of this is "borrowing," but language contact can cause other types of

change as well. It can be interesting to compare phonology, syntax and word lists of similar or geographically close languages to see how similar they are. Some linguists then use this information to figure out the past of the languages, such as when two languages split from each other. Combined with other known facts about the speakers of the language, it can lead to important discoveries about their history.

Sociolinguistics is the study of society and language. Sociolinguists may use surveys to examine in which contexts a language is used (e.g. market, home, school, workplace) and the attitudes to each language (particularly in multilingual contexts). They may look at ways that variation in a particular language correlates with social factors such as speaker age, ethnic identity, location, etc.

There are several issues related to:

- language learning,
- language teaching,
- literacy,
- language contact (language & culture),
- language policy and planning,
- language assessment,
- language use,
- language and technology,
- translation and interpretation,
- language pathology.

A major component of the 19th century's understanding of an *explanation* was a precise account of the *historical* origin of whatever it is we are studying: people, a

word, a language, a nation. Another issue studied by linguistics is cognates. Cognates are:

- words that have common etymological origin.
- often inherited from a shared parent language, but they may also involve borrowings from some other language. E.g.
the English words *dish* and *desk* and the German word *Tisch*("table") are cognates because they all come from Latin *discus*, which relates to their flat surfaces.

Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the **study** of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, and understand language. **Psycholinguistics** is part of the field of cognitive science, and is the study of how individuals comprehend, produce and acquire language. **Psycholinguists** are also interested in the social rules involved in language use, and the brain mechanisms associated with language.

Ethnolinguistics (sometimes called cultural linguistics) **is** a field of linguistics that studies the relationship between language and culture and how different ethnic groups perceive the world.

Computational linguistics is the scientific and engineering discipline concerned with understanding written and spoken language from a **computational** perspective, and building artifacts that usefully process and produce language, either in bulk or in a dialogue setting.

Neurolinguistics, the study of the neurological mechanisms underlying the storage and processing of language.

1.2. Branches of Linguistics

Branches of Linguistics

Pragmatics

Semantics

Phonology

LINGUISTICS

Syntax

Phonetics

Morphology
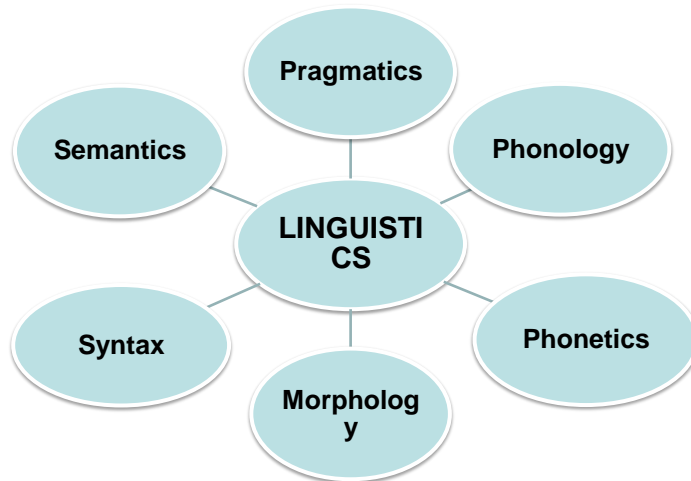
Fig. 1.1 The Branches of Linguistics (source: https://slideplayer.com/slide/7406865/)

Phonetics is the study of the sounds of speech. It includes understanding how sounds are made using the mouth, nose, teeth and tongue, and also understanding how the ear hears those sounds and can tell them apart. A study of phonetics involves practicing producing (sometimes exotic) sounds, and figuring out which sound the person heard. The wave form of each sound can be analyzed with the help of computer programs. In sign language, phonetics refers to the possible shapes, movements and use of physical space.

Phonology makes use of the phonetics in order to see how sounds or signs are arranged in a system for each language. In phonology, it matters whether sounds are contrastive or not, that is, whether substituting one sound for another gives a different, or "contrastive," meaning. For example in English, [r] and [l] are two different sounds - and the words "road" and "load" differ according to which of

these sounds is used. But in some languages, [r] and [l] are variations of the same sound. They could never make a meaning difference in words that differ by only that sound. Phonologists describe the contrastive consonants and vowels in a language, and how pronunciation is affected by the position of the sound in the word and the sounds that are nearby. They are also interested in syllables, phrases, rhythm, tone and intonation.

Morphology looks at how individual words are formed from smaller chunks of meaningful units called morphemes. For example, the English word 'untied' is really made up of three parts, one referring to the process of reversing an action (un-), one indicating the action of twisting stringlike things together so they stay (tie), and the last indicating that the action happened in the past (-d). Many languages have a much more complex way of putting words together. Morphology interacts in important ways with both phonology (bringing sounds together can cause them to change) and syntax, which needs to pay attention to the form of a word when it combines it with other words.

Syntax is the study of how phrases, clauses and sentences are constructed and combined in particular languages. Writing grammar requires defining the rules that govern the structure of the sentences of the language. Such rules involve both the order of words, and the form of words in their various possible positions. There are common patterns among even unrelated languages, and many linguists believe this is the result of general principles which apply to most, if not all, languages. For example, languages where the direct object generally follows the verb have a lot of things in common, in contrast to the things in common held by languages in which the direct object generally precedes the verb.

Discourse analysis looks at bigger chunks of language - texts, conversations, stories, speeches, etc. Different types of these use language differently, and there can even be differences in how a language is used based on the genre. For

example, "Once upon a time" is an appropriate start to a fairy tale, but not to a news story on the evening news. Discourse features can also show important principles of organization such as which players in a story have key roles and which just have bit parts.

Semantics is the study of meaning. It focuses on the relation between words, phrases and other bits of language and on how these words and phrases connect to the world. **Pragmatics** is similar, but it involves the study of how speakers of a language use the language to communicate and accomplish what they want. Pragmatics looks more at the relationship between speaker and listener which allows assumptions to be made about the intended message, considering, for example, the way context contributes to meaning. A classic example is where someone is asked "Do you want some coffee?" Does the reply "Coffee will keep me awake" mean yes or no? It depends whether the person wants to stay awake - and the questioner will only understand the intended meaning if they know whether the person wants to stay awake.

Lecture 2. Phonetics and Phonology

2.1. Defining Phonetics

Phonetics ia a theory about speech sounds, describing the sounds that we use in speaking. Phonology   explains how phonemes function in language, the relationships among different phonemes. Phonology studies how sounds are organized in particular languages; tries to discover the psychological patterns and underlying organization of sounds shared by native speakers of a certain language; abstracts from the physical data provided by phonetics.

It is sometimes difficult for native speakers of a language to tell the difference between sounds which may be completely distinct for speakers of another language.

a. English: pit [pit] vs. spit [spIt] ; English speakers consider [p] and the [ph] to be the same sound, despite some irrelevant articulatory details. In English, [p] and [ph] are called variants (allophones) of the same phoneme /p/. Allophone – different realisations of one and the same unit.

b. We therefore say that /p/ and /b/ are different phonemes, whereas [p] and [ph] are two different forms, called allophones (allo = other), of the phoneme /p/. Notice that allophones are placed inside brackets, but phonemes are placed between slashes. However there is a /p/ in both pit and spit, but it is pronounced [ph] in pit and [p] in spit. So, phonetics studies how sounds really sound, while phonology studies how they sound to speakers of some language.

Some important rules to keep in mind:

Phoneme - the most minimal distinctive unit, a unit within a set of units as the basis of our speech. If we put one of these units in the place of one of the others, we can change the meaning of the word. A minimal pair is made up of two forms (such as words, phrases, sentences) that contain the same number of sound segments, display only one phonetic difference that occurs at the same place in the form, and differ in meaning. If more than two forms are being compared, then we speak of sets instead of pairs.

Minimal Pairs /_æt/

bat /bæt/   mat /mæt/   tat /tæt/
fat /fæt/   Nat /næt/   that /ðæt/

hat /hæt/   pat /pæt   vat /væt/

cat /kæt/   rat /ræt/   dat /dæt/

sat /sæt/   gat /gæt/

2.2. Building Syllables. The English Vowel and Consonant Sounds

A **syllable** is a unit of sound composed of a central peak of sonority (usually a vowel), and. the consonants that cluster around this central peak. A **syllable** is a unit of organization for a sequence of speech sounds. It is typically made up of a **syllable** nucleus (most often a vowel) with optional initial and final margins (typically, consonants). **Syllables** are often considered the phonological "building blocks" of words. A word that consists of a single syllable (*dog*) is called a **monosyllable** (and is said to be *monosyllabic*). Similar terms include **disyllable** (and *disyllabic*; also *bisyllable* and *bisyllabic*) for a word of two syllables; **trisyllable** (and *trisyllabic*) for a word of three syllables; and **polysyllable** (and *polysyllabic*), which may refer either to a word of more than three syllables or to any word of more than one syllable.There are six types of syllables:

1. A **closed syllable** ends in a consonant. The vowel has a short vowel sound, as in the word *bat*.

2. An **open syllable** ends in a vowel. The vowel has a long vowel sound, as in the first syllable of *apron.*

3. A **vowel-consonant-e syllable** is typically found at the end of a word. The final e is silent and makes the next vowel before it long, as in the word *name*.

4. A **vowel team syllable** has two vowels next to each other that together say a new sound, as in the word *south*.

5. A **consonant+l-e** syllable is found in words like *handle*, *puzzle*, and *middle*.

6. An **r-controlled syllable** contains a vowel followed by the letter r̲. The r̲ controls the vowel and changes the way it is pronounced, as in the word *car*.

The general structure of a syllable (σ) consists of three segments. These segments are grouped into two components:

Onset (ω)- a consonant or consonant cluster, obligatory in some languages, optional or even restricted in others

Rime (ρ)- right branch, contrasts with onset, splits into nucleus and coda

Nucleus (v)- a vowel or syllabic consonant, obligatory in most languages

Coda (κ)- consonant, optional in some languages, highly restricted or prohibited in others.
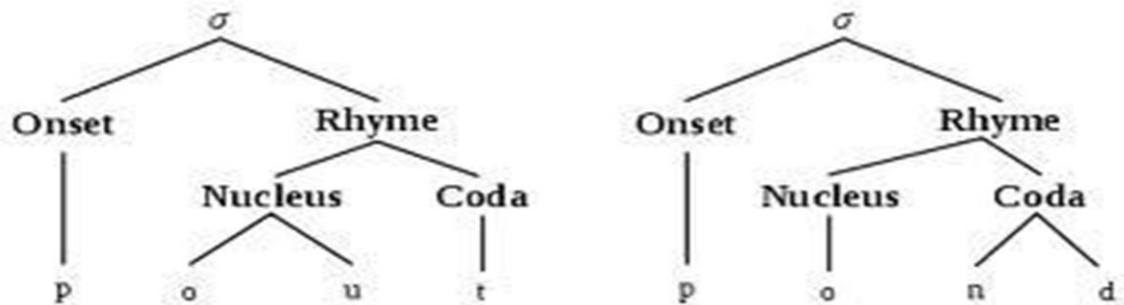
Fig. 2.1. Building The Syllable Tree (source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syllable#Typical_model)

Speech organs, or articulators, produce the sounds of language. Organs used for speech include the lips, teeth, alveolar ridge, hard palate, velum (soft palate),

uvula, glottis and various parts of the **tongue**. They can be divided into two types: passive articulators and active articulators. Normally **speech** is created with pulmonary pressure provided by the lungs that generates **sound** by phonation through the glottis in the larynx that then is modified by the vocal tract into different vowels and consonants.
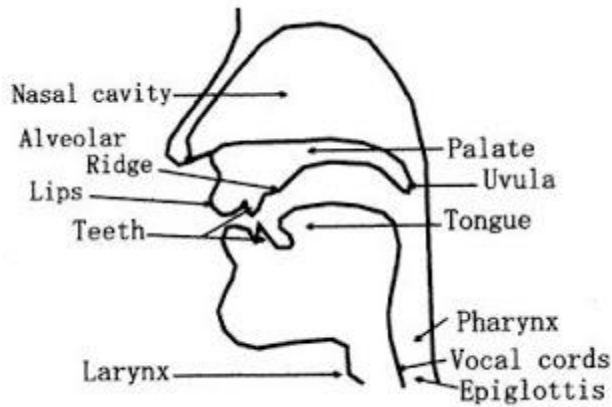
Fig. 2.2. The Organs of Speech that Participate in the Production of Speech Sounds (source: http://www.literary-articles.com/2012/03/mechanism-of-speech-process-and.html)

A **vowel** is defined as a **sound** which is **produced** or made without any kind of obstruction (closure or impediment) to the flow of air in the mouth as it passes from the larynx to the lips. So the difference between **vowels** and consonants is a difference in the way by which they are **produced.** The letter **vowels** are: a, e, i, o, and u. The English vowel sounds are the following:
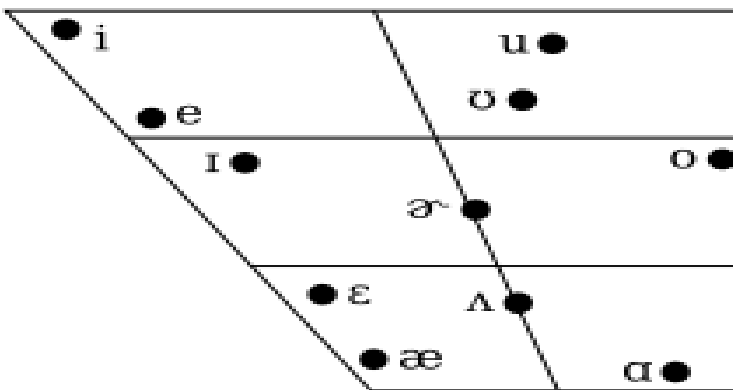
Fig. 2.3. The Production of English Vowel Sounds (source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vowel_diagram)

In English, there are two **types of vowel sounds**: monophthongs and diphthongs. A monophthong is a **vowel** with a single **sound**, such as the long E **sound** in "meet" and the UH **sound** (short U) in "rust." Monophthongs make one single **vowel sound** in a syllable. In English there are:

12 monophthongs: 7 short: ɪ, e, æ, ʌ , ɒ, ʊ, ə

and 5 long: i: , ɑ: , ɔ: , ɜ: , u:

7 diphthongs: 5 closing: eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ, aʊ, əʊ

and 2 (3) centring: eə, ɪə, (ʊə)

Intonation is a variation in spoken pitch.

Rhythm is an ordered recurrent alternation of strong and weak elements in the flow of sound .

Despite there being just 26 letters in the **English** language there are approximately 44 unique **sounds**, also known as **phonemes**. The 44 **sounds** help distinguish one word or meaning from another. B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S, T, V, W, X, (sometimes Y), and Z are consonant sounds. "Y" is often used as a **consonant**, but it is sometimes used as a vowel. For example, in the word yellow, y is a **consonant**. But in the word happy, y is a vowel.

the international phonetic alphabet (2005)

consonants (pulmonic)	LABIAL		CORONAL				DORSAL				RADICAL		LARYNGEAL
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex	Alveolo-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Epi-glottal	Glottal
Nasal	m	ɱ	n			ɳ		ɲ	ŋ	N			
Plosive	p b		t d			ʈ ɖ		c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʡ	ʔ
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ɕ ʑ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	ʜ ʢ	h ɦ
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ		j	ɰ				
Tap, flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ							
Trill	ʙ			r						ʀ		я	
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ		ꞎ		ʎ̥	ʟ̝				
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ		ʎ	ʟ				
Lateral flap				ɺ		ᶅ							

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a modally voiced consonant, except for murmured ɦ.

Shaded areas denote articulations judged to be impossible. Light grey letters are unofficial extensions of the IPA.

Fig. 2.4. The Classification of English Consonant Sounds (source: http://blog.liveenglishclass.com/improve-english-pronunciation-key-quest-perfecting-english/)

The phonological system of a language includes:

- an inventory of sounds and their features,
- rules which specify how sounds interact with each other.

2.3. Defining Phonology

Phonology is just one of several aspects of language. It is related to other aspects such as phonetics, morphology, syntax, and pragmatics.

Here is an illustration that shows the place of phonology in an interacting hierarchy of levels in linguistics:
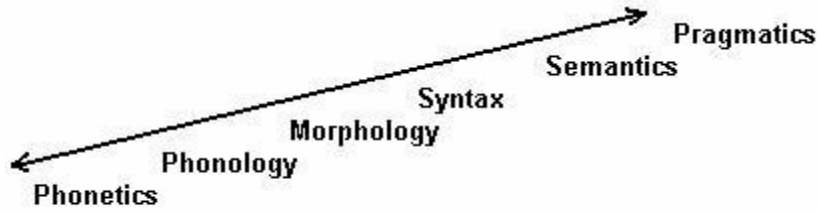
Fig. 2.5. The Place of Phonology in hierarchy of levels in linguistics (source: https://glossary.sil.org/term/phonology)

Table 2.1. Comparison of Phonology and Phonetics(source:

https://glossary.sil.org/term/phonology)

Phonetics …	Phonology …
Is the basis for phonological analysis.	Is the basis for further work in morphology, syntax, discourse, and orthography design.
Analyzes the production of all human speech sounds, regardless of language.	Analyzes the sound patterns of a particular language by - determining which phonetic sounds are significant, and - explaining how these sounds are interpreted by the native speaker.

Lecture 3. The Theory of Meaning

3.1. Defining Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning in language and how meaning of sentences (compositional semantics) is derived from words. Semantics is the study of the meaning of linguistic expressions, such as morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Often semantics is more narrowly defined as the meaning of expressions divorced from the context in which these utterances are produced, and from various characteristics of the sender or receiver of the message. When it is approached the meaning of the words we take into account the **Principle of Compositionality**. The principle stating that the meaning of a sentence is determined by the meaning of its words and by the syntactic structure in which they are combined. There are two general types of semantics. Lexical semantics deals with the meaning of words and structural semantics deals with the meaning of utterances larger than words. We can imagine that in each person's brain, there is a lexicon or dictionary containing the definitions of all the words that a person knows. When a person hears an utterance, that person quickly scans the mental lexicon for the meaning of those words, and then interprets them. The referential meaning describes the referent. The referential meaning of a word is its definition. E.G.

LEXICAL

man: 2-legged mammal, (relatively) hairless, male sex.

dog: 4-legged mammal, hairy, canine, definitely loyal.

STRUCTURAL

Dog bites man (*happens all the time; not too interesting*).

Man bites dog (*newsworthy)*. Idioms are utterances in which there is a contradiction between the meaning of the parts of the utterance and the entire utterance.

Language is a multifaceted phenomenon. Language meaning communicates information about the world around us thus language is viewed as a system of symbols. *Symbols are things that stand for or refer to other things. Three postulates about the meaning:*

➢ Meaning is processed in the mind of the speaker/hearer *(that is, cognitive & psychological).*

➢ Meaning is a social phenomenon *(contexts important).*

➢ Meaning of words/sentences have various relationships among themselves (antonyms, synonyms, etc.) *(can be studied independently)*

3.2. Theories of Meaning

Four theories to the meaning of words are emphasized:

■ **Dictionary meanings**

■ **Mental image**

■ **Referents**

■ **Componential**

Dictionary Meanings

➢ *demand* (N)- *the need or <u>desire</u> that people have for particular goods or services*

➢ *desire (N)- a strong hope or <u>wish</u>*

- ➤ *wish (N)- the act of <u>wishing</u> for something*

- ➤ *wish (V)- to <u>hope</u> that something will happen*

But there are certain problems with dictionary meaning: Understanding meaning of word involves understanding all the words in definition. This is a matter of circularity. Circularity in semantics is an issue that occurs when trying to define a word. In order to understand a definition of a word or term, a person must understand all of the words in the definition and one must understand all of the words in their definitions.

Let's look at an example of circularity by looking at the definition for the word "dog." We'll just take the first definition we find for simplicity sake.

dog: a domesticated carnivorous mammal that typically has a long snout, an acute sense of smell, non-retractable claws, and a barking, howling, or whining voice.

In order to understand this definition, we need to look at each word's definition. We can start with the word "a:"

a: used when referring to someone or something for the first time in a text or conversation.

Next we would have to look up the word for "used" and so on.

More problems with dictionary meanings:

- ➤ They are NOT theoretical claims about the nature of meaning, but a practical aid to people who already speak a language. They are usually paraphrases.

- ➤ They may be a way of learning the meaning of some words, but there is much more to word meaning than the dictionary definition.

Mental image. Prototype Theory.

Is a graphic representation in one's mind of a referent (when I say *table*, you "draw" a table in your mind). There is much more to meaning than a simple mental image.

- People may have very different mental images for same word; (*lecture* – from perspective of student vs. teacher)
- Some words, even though having meaning, have no real definite image; (*honesty*, or *the*)
- Mental images are usually a prototype or standard of the referent; (*bird*: what bird? -- image may exclude atypical examples).

Advantages of prototype theory are:
- Provides some insight into the way we conceive of certain ideas/objects**,**
- Evidence from experimental psychology**,** may help children learn the meanings of new words.

Disadvantages of prototype theory
- ➢ Culturally and socially dependent.
- ➢ Many words have no clear mental images.
  - *forget, things, without, concept, ...*

Theory of REFERENTS: Have to do with the fact that words usually stand for or refer to, actual objects or relations in the world. E.g."house", "Florida", "notebook."

But there is much more to meaning than a referent.

- It would exclude from language fantasies, speculations, and fiction. **(Santa Claus refers to what?).**

- The fact that two words (or expressions) refer to the same thing does not indicate that they mean the same thing.

  (Queen Elizabeth = Queen of England in 2005?).

- **What referents do these words have:** *forget, the, some…?*

COMPONENTIAL THEORY

The meaning of a word is specified by smaller semantic components. Semantic components are primitive elements of meaning expressed as **binary** features (+ or -).

COMPONENTIAL THEORY captures similarities among semantically related words and groups meanings into natural classes (like phonology).

But COMPONENTIAL THEORY cannot analyze abstract like *blue?* [+ color]? [+ blueness]?

One of the ways in which the meaning of a word can be analyzed is by determining its semantic properties.E.G.:

woman:

    [+ human]

    [+ female]

    [+ adult]

- *man*:

      [+ human]

      [- female]

      [+ adult]

- *girl*:

      [+ human]

      [+ female]

      [- adult]

◆ *boy*:

[+ human]

[- female]

[- adult]

So, the semantic properties are maleness and humanness.

Meaning relationships Within Lexical Semantics

There are many ways for words to be related:

- Morphologically (lift ~ lifted (same stem))
- Syntactically (call ~ take (both transitive verbs))
- Phonologically (knight ~ night (both [naIt])
- Semantically- Semantic relationships indicate a similarity in meaning between two words. "crayon" and "pencil."

There are many words that are similar or relate to each other in meaning or in sound. They are hyponyms, synonyms, homonyms, and antony

Lecture 4. Morphology

4.1. Defining Morphology. Types of Morphemes.

Morphology looks at how individual words are formed from smaller chunks of meaningful units called morphemes. The word "unforgiveable" is a word composed of more than one morpheme -- one constituent may be considered as the basic one, the core of the form, with the others treated as being added on. The basic or core morpheme in such cases is referred to as the **stem, root,** or **base**, while the add-ons are **affixes.** Affixes that precede the stem are of course **prefixes**, while those that follow the stem are **suffixes**. Thus in *"rearranged"*, *re-* is a

prefix, *arrange* is a stem, and *-d* is a suffix. Morphemes can also be **infixes**, which are inserted within another form. English doesn't really have any infixes, except perhaps for certain expletives in expressions like *un-effing-believable* or *Kalama-effing-zoo*.

Prefixes and suffixes are almost always bound. Types of *morphemes: a)*Bound Morphemes: cannot occur on their own, e.g. *de-* in *detoxify*, *-tion* in *creation*, *-s* in *dogs*, *cran-* in *cranberry*; b)Free Morphemes: can occur as separate words, e.g. *car, yes.*

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

The idea behind this distinction is that some morphemes express some general sort of referential or informational **content**, in a way that is as independent as possible of the grammatical system of a particular language -- while other morphemes are heavily tied to a grammatical **function**, expressing syntactic relationships between units in a sentence, or obligatorily-marked categories such as number or tense.

Thus (the stems of) nouns, verbs, adjectives are typically **content** morphemes: "throw," "green," "Kim," and "sand" are all English content morphemes. **Content** morphemes are also often called **open-class** morphemes, because they belong to categories that are open to the invention of arbitrary new items.

By contrast, prepositions ("to", "by"), articles ("the", "a"), pronouns ("she", "his"), and conjunctions are typically **function** morphemes, since they either serve to tie elements together grammatically ("hit *by* a truck," "Kim *and* Leslie," "Lee saw *his* dog"), or express obligatory (in a given language!) *morphological features* like

24

definiteness ("she found a table" or "she found the table" but not "*she found table"). **Function** morphemes are also called "**closed-class**" morphemes, because they belong to categories that are essentially closed to invention or borrowing -- it is very difficult to add a new **preposition**, **article** or **pronoun**.

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

The concept of the morpheme does not directly map onto the units of sound that represent morphemes in speech. To do this, linguists developed the concept of the **allomorph**. Here is the definition given in a well-known linguistic workbook:

Allomorphs: Non-distinctive realizations of a particular morpheme that have the same function and are phonetically similar. For example, the English plural morpheme can appear as [s] as in *cats*, [z] as in *dogs*, or ['z] as in *churches*. Each of these three pronunciations is said to be an allomorph of the same morpheme.

4.2. Inflectional vs. Derivational Morphology

Another common distinction is the one between **derivational** and **inflectional** affixes. **Derivational morphemes** make new words from old ones. Thus *addiction* is formed from *addict* by adding a morpheme that makes nouns out of (some) verbs.
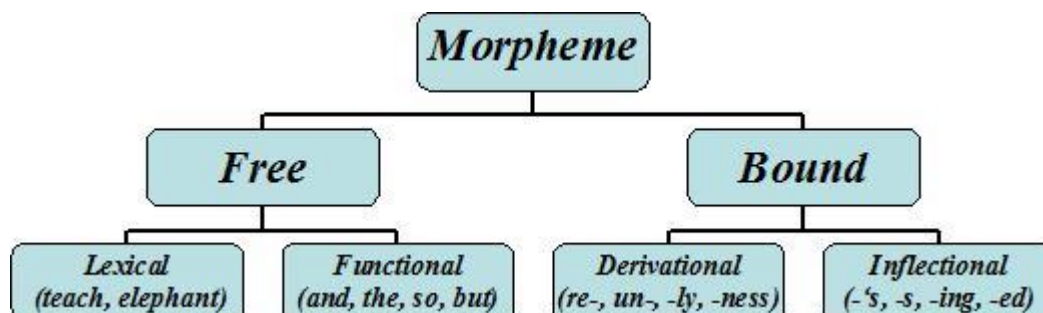
Fig. 4.1. Types of morphemes (source:
https://www.languageavenue.com/linguistics/general-linguistics/grammar-syntax/item/morphemes-in-english)

Free morphemes - can stand by themselves as single words. These are technically separate English word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. When combined with bound morphemes the free morphemes are called stems. In some words identified stems cannot stand alone and are called bound stems (receive, deceive, perceive).

Lexical morphemes - set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs that carry the 'content' of the message we convey. This is an 'open' class of morphemes because we can add new words to the language easily (girl, tiger, sincere, play, e-mail, blog).

Functional morphemes - consist of functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and pronouns. This is a 'closed' class of morphemes because we almost never add new functional words to the language (and, he, the, above).

Derivational morphemes generally:

1. change the part of speech or the basic meaning of a word. Thus *–ment* added to a verb forms a noun (*judg-ment*); *re-activate* means "activate again";

2. are not required by syntactic relations outside the word. Thus *un-kind* combines *un-* and *kind* into a single new word, but has no particular syntactic connections outside the word -- we can say *he is unkind* or *he is kind* or *they are unkind* or *they are kind*, depending on what we mean;

3. are often not productive or regular in form or meaning -- derivational morphemes can be selective about what they'll combine with, and may also have erratic effects on meaning. Thus the suffix *-hood* occurs with just a few nouns such as *brother, neighbor,* and *knight*, but not with most others. e.g., **friendhood, *daughterhood,* or **candlehood.* Furthermore "brotherhood" can mean "the state or relationship of being brothers," but

26

"neighborhood" cannot mean "the state or relationship of being neighbors." Note however that some derivational affixes are quite regular in form and meaning, e.g. –*ism*;

4. typically occur "inside" any inflectional affixes. Thus in *government*s, *-ment*, a derivational suffix, precedes -s, an inflectional suffix;
5. in English, may appear either as prefixes or suffixes: *pre-arrange, arrange-ment*.

Inflectional morphemes vary (or "inflect") the form of words in order to express the grammatical features that a given language chooses, such as singular/plural or past/present tense. Thus *Boy* and *boys,* for example, are two different forms of the "same" word. In English, we must choose the singular form or the plural form; if we choose the basic form with no affix, we have chosen the singular.

Inflectional Morphemes generally:

1. do not change basic syntactic category: thus *big, bigg-er, bigg-est* are all adjectives.
2. express grammatically-required features or indicate relations between different words in the sentence. Thus in *Lee love-s Kim, -s* marks the 3rd person singular present form of the verb, and also relates it to the 3rd singular subject *Lee*.
3. occur outside any derivational morphemes. Thus in *ration-al-iz-ation-s* the final *-s* is inflectional, and appears at the very end of the word, outside the derivational morphemes *-al*, *-iz, -ation*.
4. In English, are suffixes only.

Table 4.1. Derivational and Inflectional morphemes (source:
):

derivational	inflectional
-ation	-s Plural
-ize	-ed Past
-ic	-ing Progressive
-y	-er Comparative
-ous	-est Superlative

4.3. Tree Structure Diagramming

Let's consider the analysis of this words:

Hospital

Hospitalize

Hospitals

Hospitalizes

- *hospital* - simple word, free morpheme, root base

- *hospitals* = root + *-s* affix

- *hospitalize* - complex word, free base *hospital* (root) + *-ize* derivational suffix

- *hospitalizes* = stem [*hospital* (root) + *-ize* affix] + *-s*

And so **Tree Structure Diagrams** were invented.

They look like this:
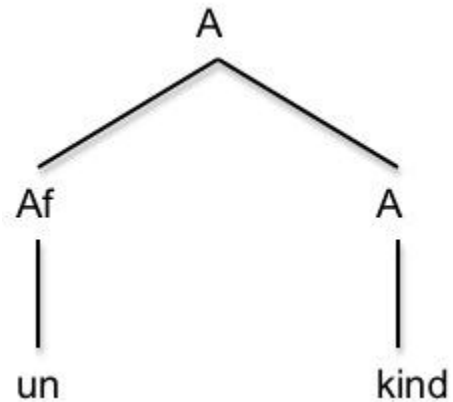
Fig. 4.2. Tree Structure Diagram of the Word "unkind" (source: http://web.mnstate.edu/houtsli/tesl551/Morphology/page5.htm)

One note about the way are drawn the trees when are investigated the morphemes:

Let's draw the tree for the word

"rehospitalizes"
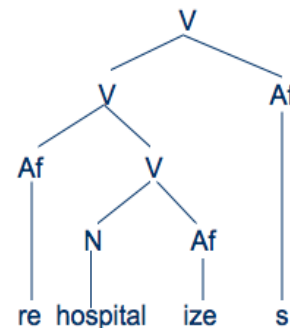
4.4. The Processes of Word Formation

There are four main kinds of word formation: prefixes, suffixes, conversion and compounds.

Prefixes are added before the base or stem of a word.

Table 4.2. Prefixes in the English Language (source: http://web.mnstate.edu/houtsli/tesl551/Morphology/teach.htm)

Category	Prefix	Meaning	Example
Numbers	semi-	half	semi-circle
	uni-, mono-	one	uniform, monoplane
	bi-	two	bicycle
	tri-	three	tricycle

	quad-, tetra-	four	quadrilateral, tetrahedron
	quint-, pent-	five	quintuplet, pentagon
	sext-, hex-	six	sextuplet, hexagon
	sept-, hept-	seven	septuplet, heptathlon
	octo-	eight	octopus
	nono-	nine	nonogon
	deca-	ten	decade
	kilo-	thousand	kilometer, kilogram
	multi-, poly-	many	multi-colored, polygon
	pan-	all	pan-American
Location	sub-, sup-	under	submarine, support
	ante-	before(front)	antechamber
	ultra-	beyond, past	ultraviolet
	con-, co-, col-, com-	with, together	connect, coworker, collect, compress
Time	post-	after	postwar
	pre-	before	prewar
	*re-	again	rewrite
Direction	*re-	back	return
	circum-	around	circumference
	trans-	across	transport
	de-	down,	decrease
	*in-, im-	reversing	include, import
	ex-, e-	in	export, emit
	inter-	out, from	international
	*pro-	between, among	progress
		forward	
Negative	un-,*in-, im-, il-, ir-	not	unhappy, incorrect, impolite, illegal, irresponsible
	non-	not	nonstop
	dis-	negative	disagree
	mis-, mal-	wrong	misunderstand
		bad, badly	maladjusted
Beliefs or Actions	*pro-	for, on the side of	pro-abortion
	anti-	against,	anti-abortion
	counter-, contra-	opposite	counterattack, contradict
	ultra-	against,	ultraconservative
	super-	opposite, in return	superman
	hyper-	excessive, beyond	hyperactive
		beyond, excessive	
		excessively	

| Size | macro- | large | macroeconomics |
| | micro- | small | Micronesia |

Suffixes are used after the base or stem of a word. The main purpose of a suffix is to show what class of word it is (e.g. noun or adjective).

Table 4.3. Suffixes of the English Language (source: http://web.mnstate.edu/houtsli/tesl551/Morphology/teach.htm)

Nouns	Meaning	Adjectives	Meaning
-er, -or, -ar	a person/thing that does something	*-y	has, is full of
-ist	person involved in	-ful	has, is full of
-ess	woman who does something	-less	doesn't have, without
-ee	person who receives	-ive	always does s.th.
*ant, -ent	person/thing that does something	*-ant, -ent	always does s.th.
*-al		*-en	made out of
*-y		-able, -ible	can
-ism		*-ly, -ish, -like	like, similar to
-dom		*-al, -ic, -ical	about, pertaining to
-ure		-ary	
-ity		-ous	
-ness			
-ment			
-ship			
-ance, -ence			
-tion, -sion, -cion			

Conversion involves the change of a word from one word class to another. For example, the verbs *to email* and *to microwave* are formed from the nouns *email* and *microwave*:

*Can you **text** her?* (verb from noun *text*, meaning *to send a text-message*)

*They are always **jetting** somewhere.* (verb from noun *jet*)

*If you're not careful, some **downloads** can damage your computer.* (noun from verb *download*)

*OK, so the meeting's on Tuesday. That's a **definite**.* (noun from adjective)

Compounding

A **Compound Word** is one whose stem contains more than one root, not just a root with an affix.

Examples:

- **view** = root (not a compound)
- **views** = root + -s affix (not a compound)
- **points** = root + -s (not a compound)
- **viewpoint** = root + root (compound)
- **viewpoints** = root + root + -s affix (compound)
- **place** = root (not a compound)
- **kicks** = root + -s affix (not a compound)
- **kicker** = root + -er affix (not a compound)
- **kickers** = root + -er affix + -s affix (not a compound)
- **placekick** = root + root (compound)
- **placekicker** = root + root + -er affix (compound)
- **placekickers** = root + root + -er affix + -s affix (compound)

The **head** of a compound word is the morpheme that determines the syntactic category of the entire word.

Examples:

waterfall = noun; water = noun, fall = verb so water is the head

greenhouse = noun; green = adjective, house = noun, so house is the head

waterski = verb; water = noun, ski = verb, so ski is the head

Reduplication

A contrast is marked by partial or whole repetition of the stem

- itsy-bitsy (partial repetition)

Abbreviation involves shortening a word. We do this in three main ways: clipping, acronyms and blends.

Table 4.4. Processes of Word Formation (source:
http://web.mnstate.edu/houtsli/tesl551/Morphology/page6.htm)

Conversion: an existing word is assigned to a new category without undergoing any change.	**Clipping:** abbreviating or shortening a word by deleting one or more syllables	**Blends:**Nonmorphemic parts of two words are combined to form a new word
• Ice: Don't slip on the ice (noun). • Ice: Ice that bruise to keep it from swelling (verb).	• Phone for telephone • Fridge for refrigerator	• Brunch from **br**eakfast and l**unch** • camcorder from **cam**era and re**corder** • smog from **sm**oke and f**og**

33

Backformation: An affix or what looks like one is removed to create a new word	Acronyms: The initial letters of each word or a phrase are taken to create a new word	Onomatopoeia: Words created from sounds that represent those sounds	Coinage: Words are created willfully from scratch
• liposuct from liposuction • *to liaise* (back-formed from the noun *liaison*)	• SCUBA (Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus)	• peep • whinny • woof • ping	• Dacron • Teflon • Kodak

Loan words are words that are borrowed from other languages. Some recent loan words for food taken from other languages include: *sushi, tapas, chapatti, pizza*.

Lecture 5. Syntax. Tree Diagramming Sentences

5.1. Defining Syntax

The word syntax is derived from the Greek elements *syn*, meaning together, and *tax*, which means arranging. Syntax is a level of grammar that specifically refers to the arrangement of words and morphemes (the lexicon) in the construction of structures such as phrases, clauses, and sentences.Syntax refers to word order and depends on lexical categories (parts of speech.) Linguistics analyzes words according to their affixes and the words that follow or precede them. The following definitions of the parts of speech give a deeper perspective in the study of language.

When a sentence consists of only one subject (topic) and one predicate, it is called a simple sentence. An example of a simple sentence is: The dog ran away. Simple sentences can be combined to form compound sentences, such as: The dog and the cat ran away.

The two simple sentences in a compound sentence are said to be independent clauses. A second type of clause used to construct sentences is the dependent clause.

A sentence that contains a simple sentence and one or more dependent clauses is called a complex sentence. The following are complex sentences: Although it is tempting, I will not be going to Las Vegas. These are the people who would be traveling with us. If I come late, start without me. Sentences that have two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause are called compound-complex sentences. For example: When the teacher assigned the reading for the exam, many students were stunned, but they agreed to study.

Sentences can also be classified on the basis of their meaning, purpose (function), or voice. The following are some of the most common sentence types classified in these ways:

Declarative—These sentences make a statement. Christine just arrived. Interrogative—These sentences ask a question. Has Andrew just arrived? Imperative—These sentences express a command or make a request. Aaron, come here.

Exclamatory—These sentences show strong or sudden feeling. Oh, if Jan were only here!

A phrase is any constituent of a clause. Phrases are commonly named for one of their main elements. So we speak of noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases. The head of a phrase is the word that determines the syntactic or phrasal category of that phrase—whether the phrase functions as a noun phrase, verb phrase, prepositional phrase, and so on. All parts of a phrase that are not the head are called the phrase's dependents. In some approaches to syntax, these dependents are further broken down into specifiers and complements.

Noun Phrases : Among other functions, a noun phrase (NP) often called a nominal phrase can function in a sentence as the subject, direct object, and indirect object. A noun phrase could be a single noun or pronoun or a variety of longer forms: e.g. Julian mailed a letter. (Julian is a noun phrase and the subject of the sentence; a letter is also a noun phrase and the direct object.)

Verb Phrases: All English sentences (sentence is abbreviated as S) contain a noun phrase (NP) and a verb phrase (VP); that is, an English sentence is minimally as follows: S ⟶ NP + VP

In addition to noun phrases and verb phrases, other important phrasal categories are adjective phrases (AdjP), adverb phrases (AdvP), and prepositional phrases (PP). Adjective phrases are headed by an adjective but might also include adjective modifiers (elements that add a property to another lexical item). Adjective phrases in turn modify nouns. Adverb phrases are headed by an adverb and might also include other adverbs and an adjective phrase or phrases. Prepositional phrases are headed by a preposition and include a noun phrase. Both adjective and adverb phrases can use prepositions.

The smallest constituents of a sentence are the morphemes that make it up. Morphemes make up words. Each word can be labeled as to its part of speech or the subtype of its part of speech (lexical category).

Table 5.1. Parts of Speech: Open Class Words (source: https://ielanguages.com/syntax.html)

Nouns	_____ + plural endings "dogs"	Det. Adj. _____ (this is called a Noun Phrase) "the black cat"
Verbs	_____ + tense endings "speaks"	Aux. _____ (this is called a Verb Phrase) "is talking" / "have eaten"
Adjectives	_____ + er / est	Det. _____ Noun

	"small"	"the young child"
Adverbs	Adj. + ly "quickly"	_____ Adj. or Verb or Adv. "quickly answered"

Table 5.2. Parts of Speech: *Closed Class Words (source:*
)

Determiners	a, an, the, this, that, these, those, pronouns, quantities	_____ Adj. Noun "this heavy book"
Auxiliary Verbs	forms of be, have, may, can, shall	NP _____ VP "the boy is singing"
Prepositions	at, in, on, under, over, of	_____ NP (this is called a Prepositional Phrase) "in the drawer"
Conjunctions	and, but, or	N or V or Adj. _____ N or V or Adj. "desks and chairs"

5.2. Sentence Diagramming

A **sentence diagram** is a pictorial representation of the grammatical structure of a sentence. The term "sentence diagram" is used more when teaching written language, where sentences are *diagrammed*. The term "parse tree" is used in linguistics (especially computational linguistics), where sentences are *parsed*. Both show structure of sentences. The model shows the relations between words and the nature of sentence structure and can be used as a tool to help recognize which potential sentence is actually a sentence.

Most methods of diagramming in pedagogy are based on the work of Alonzo Reed and Brainerd Kellogg in their book *Higher Lessons in English*, published in 1877, though the method has been updated with recent understanding of grammar. Reed and Kellogg were preceded, and their work probably informed, by W. S. Clark, who published his "balloon" method of depicting grammar in his 1847 book *A Practical Grammar: In Which Words, Phrases and Sentences are Classified According to Their Offices and Their Various Relationships to Each Another.*

Reed–Kellogg diagrams employ both the constituency relation as subject, verb, object, and/or predicate are placed equi-level on the horizontal base line of the sentence and divided by a vertical or slanted line. In a Reed–Kellogg diagram, the vertical dividing line that crosses the base line corresponds to the binary division in the constituency-based tree (S → NP + VP), and the second vertical dividing line that does not cross the baseline (between verb and object) corresponds to the binary division of VP into verb and direct object (VP → V + NP). Thus the vertical and slanting lines that cross or rest on the baseline correspond to the constituency relation.
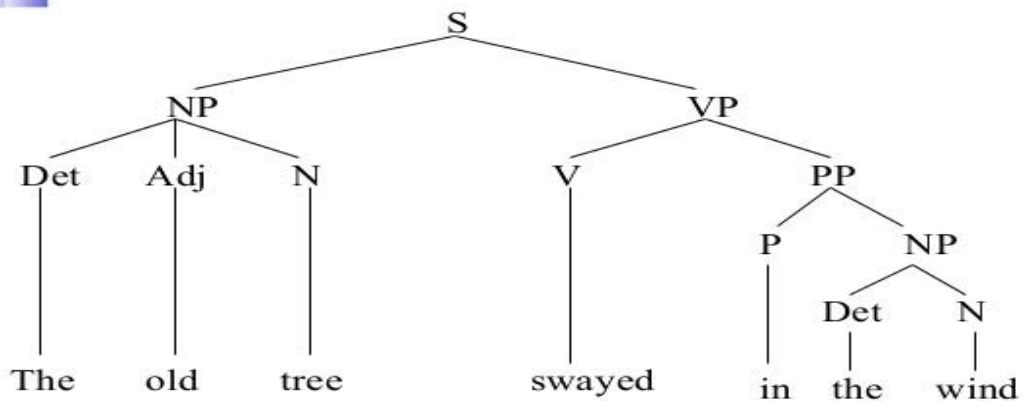
Syntax: Lexical Categories

- *Lexical Categories:*
  - every word is a member of a category;
  - a word's category type determines the kind of phrase it can form;
  - a phrase is a word or string of words that functions as a unit in a sentence, built around a head;
  - Every language has specific phrase structure rules determining how phrases can be combined to form sentences.

Fig. 5.1. Sentence Tree: Example 1 (source: https://www.slideshare.net/rubenzapatad/syntax-tree-diagrams)
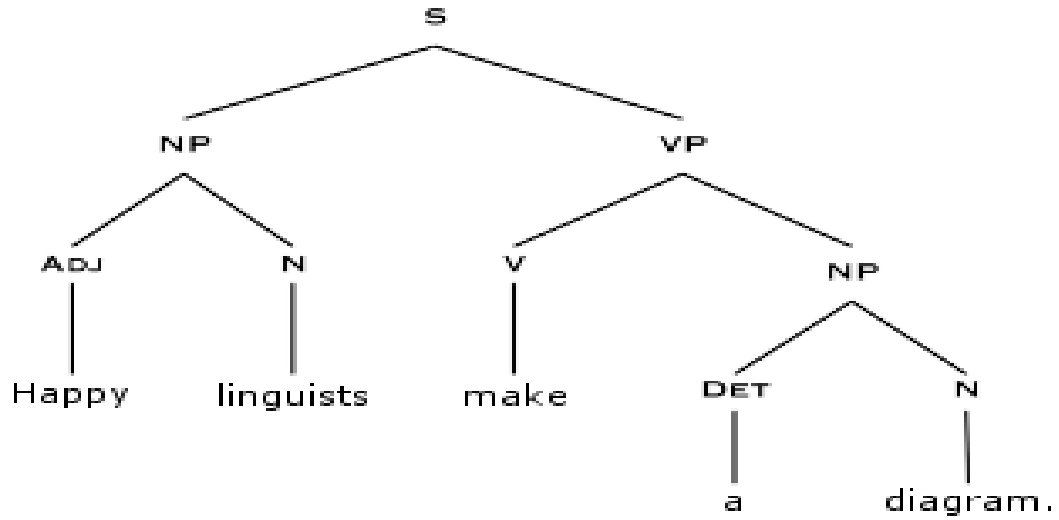
Fig. 5.2. Sentence Tree: Example 2 (source:
https://www.pinterest.de/pin/174162710559685678/)
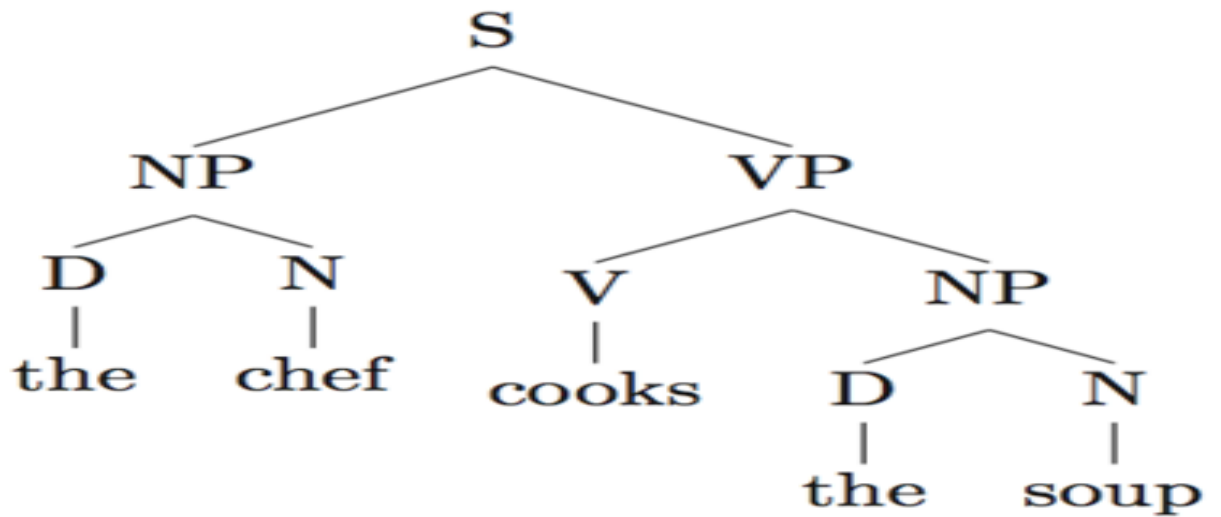
Fig. 5.3. Sentence Tree: Example 3 (source:
https://www.pinterest.cl/pin/565201821963364945/)

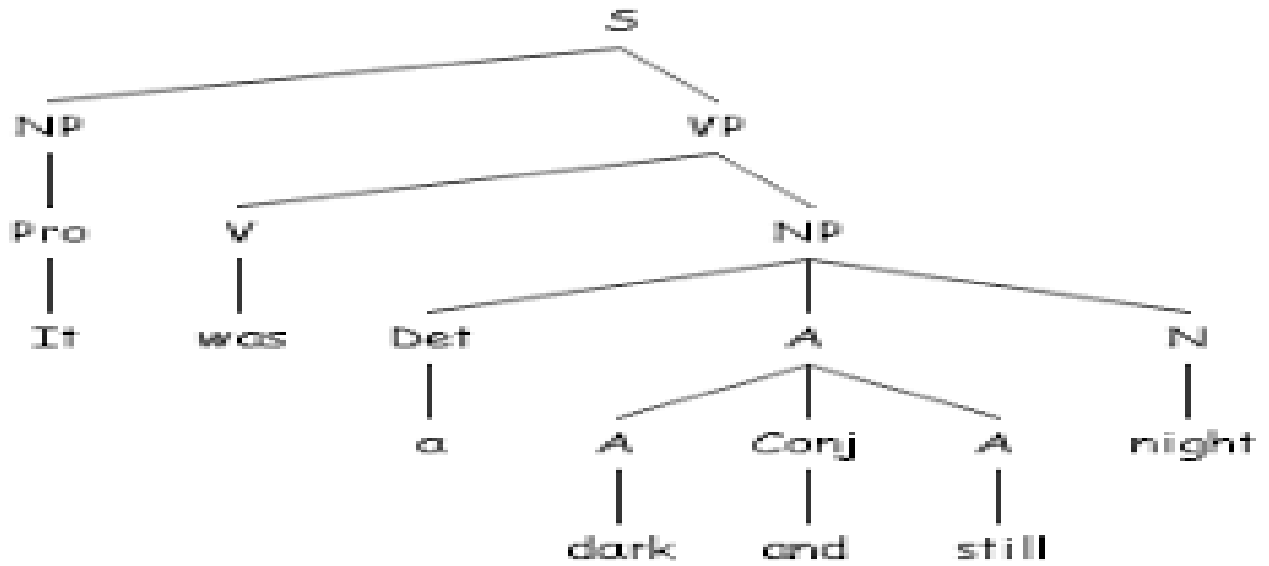Fig. 5.4. Sentence Tree: Example 4 (source: https://gawron.sdsu.edu/fundamentals/syntax/syntax_homework_remedial.htm)

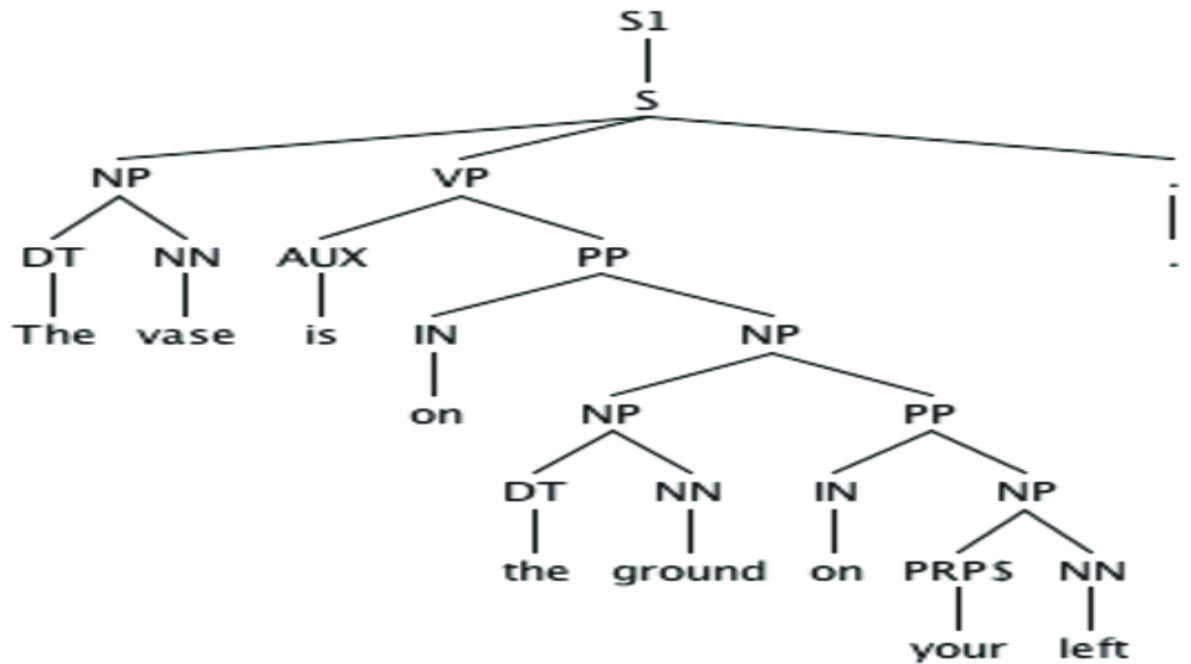
Fig. 5.5. Sentence Tree: Example 5 (source: https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Example-of-a-constituent-based-parse-tree-including-POS-tags_fig1_269519103)

Lecture 6. Morphological Typology

6.1. Defining Linguistic Typology. Isolating – Agglutinating - Inflecting Languages

Linguistic typology is a branch of linguistics that attempts to categorize languages based on similarities in structure (phonological inventories, grammatical constructions, word order, etc.). Languages have a wide variety of morphological processes available

(e.g. different types of affixation, etc.) for creating words and word forms. However, languages vary with respect to what morphological processes are available, how frequently they are used, and what types of information can be encoded in these processes.

August Wilhelm Schlegel's three classes:

- isolating – agglutinating - inflecting
1) Languages without any grammatical structure,
2) languages that use affixes,
3) languages with inflection.

Among inflecting languages, two kinds are distinguished, synthetic and analytic.

- The analytic languages have:

 - articles preceding the noun,

- personal pronouns preceding the verb,
- auxiliary verbs in verbal inflection,
- prepositions instead of cases,

- adverbs for comparative of adjective etc. The synthetic languages do not have such paraphrases

- *Analytic languages have sentences composed entirely of free morphemes, where each word consists of only one morpheme.*

- *Isolating languages are "purely analytic" and allow no affixation (inflectional or derivational) at all. Sometimes analytic languages allow some derivational morphology such as compounds (two free roots in a single word)*

6.2. Synthetic Languages

Synthetic languages allow affixation such that words may (though are not required to) include 2 or 3, more morphemes. These languages have *bound morphemes, meaning they must be attached to another word (whereas analytic languages only have free morphemes).*

- Synthetic languages include three subcategories: agglutinative, fusional, and polysynthetic.
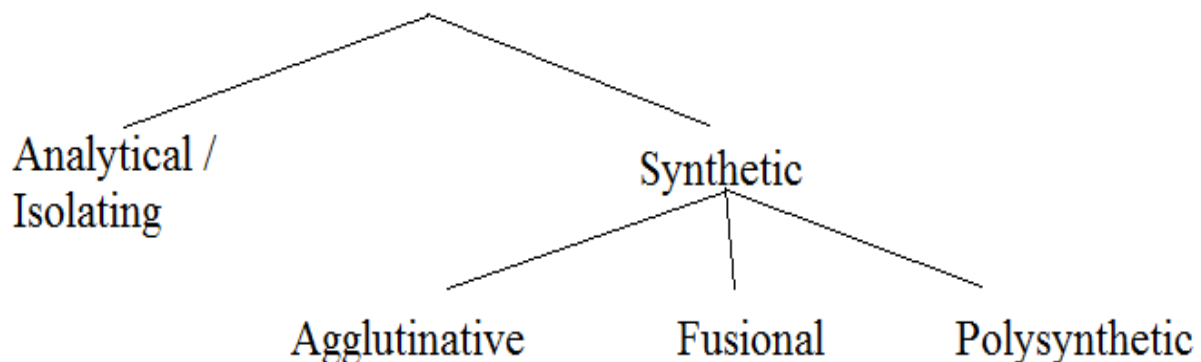
Fig. 6.1. Morphological typology of languages (source:
)

Synthetic Language Type 1: Agglutinative:

Agglutinative languages have words which may consist of more than one, and possibly many, morphemes.

•The key characteristic separating agglutinative languages from other synthetic languages is that morphemes within words are easily parsed or "loosely" arranged;

the morpheme boundaries are easy to identify. 1: many word to morpheme ratio; 1:1 morpheme to meaning

•We often use the metaphor "beads on a string" to describe agglutinative languages.

Agglutinative languages:

- Examples of canonical agglutinative languages include Turkish,
- Swahili, Hungarian
- el•-ler-imiz-in (Turkish)
- hand•-plr.-1stplr.-genitive case, 'of our hands'
- ni•-na-soma(Swahili)
- •I-present-read'I am reading'

(also u•-na-soma 'you read,' ni-li-soma 'I read,' etc.)

Synthetic Laguage type 2: Fusional

Fusional languages, like other synthetic languages, may have more than one morpheme per word

 • fusional languages may have morphemes that combine multiple pieces of grammatical information; that is, there is not a clear 1 to 1 relationship between grammatical information and morphemes

- For example, in Spanish:•
- [ˈabl-o] 'I am speaking' -[o] suffix means 1stperson sng., present tense
- [ˈabl-a] 's/he is speaking' -[a] suffix means 3rdperson sng. present tense
- [abl-ˈo] 's/he spoke'-[ˈo] suffix with stress means 3rdsingular past

  Latin fusion: [re:ksisti] 'you all ruled'

- There are four pieces of grammatical information and four morphs, however the 'perfective' meaning is shared among several morphs.

Synthetic Language Type 3: Polysynthetic

Polysynthetic languages often display a high degree of affixation (high number of morphemes per word) and fusion of morphemes, like agglutinative and fusional languages.

- Additionally, however, polysynthetic languages may have words with **multiple stems in a single word (which are not compounds). This may be achieved by incorporating the subject and object nouns into complex verb forms.**

For example:

•anin-ɲam-jɔ-te-n   (Sora)

•he-catch-fish-nonpast-do'he is fish-catching'

•This is called *noun incorporation, where the object 'fish' is incorporated in the verb 'catch.'*

Some of the most extreme examples come from Eskimo languages •such as West Greenlandic:

- tusaa•-nngit-su-usaar-tuaannar-sinnaa-nngi-vip-putit
- 'hear'-neg.-intrans.participle-'pretend'-'all the time'-'can'-neg.-'really'-2nd.sng.indicative
- 'You simply cannot pretend not to be hearing all the time'.

Lecture 7. Theories of Linguistics. Structuralism.

7.1. Defining Theories of Linguistics.

Theories of linguistics

Theories of linguistics	Developer
Traditional	Aristotle, Plato
Structural	Leonard Bloomfield Ferdinand de Saussure Prague school
Transformational	Noam Chomsky

Fig. 7.1. Theories of linguistics (source: https://www.slideserve.com/ciqala/theories-of-linguistics)

A theory is a system of hypotheses for describing and/or explaining a certain area of objects. Each theory must satisfy certain requirements, such as consistency, completeness, adequacy, simplicity. It must be falsifiable in principle.

A model is a formal representation of the structural and functional characteristics of an object of study. Models are used in order to explain a theory, to simulate a process or to illustrate the functioning of an object of study.

Noam Chomsky's linguistic theory defines language as a cognitive computational function. The human mind can take a finite number of items (sounds or words, for instance) and rearrange them into a potentially infinite number of messages according to a program (grammar). Some of the elements of that program are universal and innate, and some of the elements are learned. Hauser, Chomsky, and

Fitch call the unique characteristics of language the faculty of language. The primary feature of FLN is recursion. Recursion is the process whereby any linguistic unit can be made longer by embedding another unit in it. I can say, "I am going to the store." Or I can say, "My wife and I are going to the store." Or I could say, "My wife, children, and I are going to the store." In fact, it can be added to the first sentence endlessly. Communication occurs if the receiver then decodes the message that is sent. To decode a message means to react in a way that reflects the reason the message was encoded. If a person speaks a language that a second person does not know, the listener will not decode the first person's message. Productivity is the ability to respond to messages in various ways.

What linguists and anthropologists are discovering is called descriptive syntax or descriptive grammar. They listen to what people actually say and then attempt to discover the rules being used. What a language teacher does in a grammar class by telling you that there is a correct or incorrect way to write or speak is called prescriptive syntax or prescriptive grammar. The model of syntax called transformational or generative grammar that incorporates descriptive and mathematical concepts but primarily is based on the assumption that many elements of syntax cannot be discovered just by studying linguistic performance but are instead a reflection of how the human mind (the brain) works to form syntactic structures (sentences).

7.2. American Structuralism

Structural grammar describes everything that is found in a language instead of laying down rules. The aim is confined to the description of languages, without explaining why language operates the way it does. Structural grammar is empirical, aiming at objectivity in the sense that all definition and statements should be verifiable or refutable.—no complete grammar. Structural grammar examines all

languages, recognizing and doing justice to uniqueness of each language.there is No adequate treatment of meaning. Structural grammar describes even the smallest contrast that underlies any construction or use of a language, not only discoverable in some particular use.

American Structuralism is a branch of synchronic linguistics that emerged independently in the United States at the beginning of the twentieth century. American Structuralism started at the end of 19th century, which extended from around 1920 until the late 1950s, the pioneers were anthropologists Boas and Sapir.

Early period of American Structuralism: Boas and Sapir

Franz Boas is considered both the founder of modern **anthropology** as well as the **father** of American **Anthropology**. It was Boas who gave modern **anthropology** its rigorous scientific methodology, patterned after the natural sciences, and it was Boas who originated the notion of "culture" as learned behaviors.

BOAS is the author of Handbook of American Indian Languages (1911).

The main postulates of **American Structuralism** are:

1. There is no ideal type or form of language, as human languages were endlessly diverse.
2. Opposed to the view that language is the soul of a race. There were only differences in language structure, while there is no difference between languages in terms of being more or less reasonable or advanced.

The framework of descriptive linguistics: it consists of three parts:

1. The sound of languages.
2. The semantic categories of linguistic expression.
3. The process of grammatical combination in semantic expression.

The important task for linguists is to discover a language's particular grammatical structure and to develop descriptive categories appropriate to it. This methodology is analytical without comparing it with European languages.

Sapir is the author of Language: An introduction to the Study of Speech (1921). Sapir has concluded the following:

- • Focus on typology
- • language is the means and thought is the end product; without language, thought is impossible.
- • The universal feature of language: distinct phonetic systems, concrete combinations of sound and meaning, various means of representing all kinds of relations.

7.3. Behaviourism in Linguistics

Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949) and others championed the structural approach in linguistics. Bloomfield was one of the best-known American linguists of the first part of the twentieth century; the type of structuralism he developed was descriptive and is often referred to as Bloomfieldian linguistics. His approach started with describing and classifying sounds and then morphemes in terms of their function. From principles developed from the study of phonology and morphology, more abstract units would be studied, with syntax the ending point of the analysis. Bloomfield studied meaning (semantics), but most other Bloomfieldians thought that semantics was too abstract to be studied in any verifiable (empirical) way, and therefore ignored it. The main postulates of the **Bloomfield's theory**:

- • 1933-1950 the Bloomfieldian Era, reached its prime development.

- Language (1933): the model of scientific methodology and the greatest work in linguistics.
- Linguistics is a branch of psychology, esp. Behaviourism.
- Behaviourism holds that human beings cannot know anything that they have not experienced.

Behaviourism holds that children learn language **through a chain of** Stimulus-Response reinforcement., and adult use of language is also a process of stimulus-response. S—r-------------------s—R

It is believed that a linguistic description was reliable when based on observation of unstudied utterance by speakers. Therefore, the popular practice in linguistic study was to accept what a native speaker says in his language and to discard what he says about his language.

Post-Bloomfieldian Linguistics is characterised by a strict empiricism.

The appropriate goal for general linguistics was to devise explicit discovery procedures to enable the computer to process linguistic raw data about any language and form a complete grammar without the intervention by the human linguists.

They focus on direct observation.

They also took an interest in the discourse level in order to develop discovery procedures for structure above the sentence level.

The representatives of **Post-Bloomfieldian Linguistics** are:

- Harris, the author of **Methods in Structural Linguistics** (1951): marking the maturity of American descriptive linguistics.
- Hockett, the author of **A Course in Modern Linguistics** (1958): a well-known textbook in the American descriptive tradition. It contains and develops many of the insights gained from the work carried out within the structuralist paradigm from 1930s onwards.

- K. Pike (1912-2000) Tagmemics • Sydney M. Lamb: stratificational grammar.
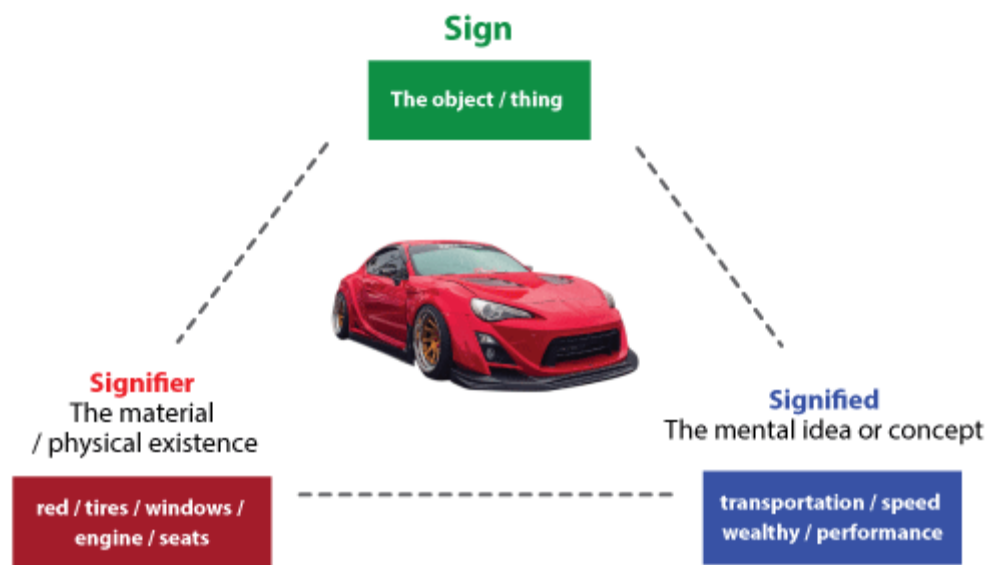

7.4. Structuralism Represented by Saussure

Ferdinand de Saussure is the Swiss linguist "father of modern linguistics" is the "master of a discipline which he made modern"

• His students are: W. D. Whitney (1827-1894) that developed the notion of arbitrariness, E. Durkheim (1858-1917) that focused on the social factor, S. Freud (1856-1939)—continuity of a collective psyche: collective unconscious

1. Saussure provided a general orientation, a sense of the task of linguistics. He influenced modern linguistics in the specific concepts. He founded the arbitrary nature of the sign, langue-parole. Structuralism developed the relationships: synchrony-diachrony; syntagmatic-paradigmatic relations.

2. Saussure believes language is a system of signs.

   Sound (signifier)+ideas(signified)=sign (a system of convention)

   The **triangle** of reference (also known as the **triangle of meaning** and the semiotic **triangle**) **is** a model of how linguistic symbols **are** related to the objects they represent. This process of deducing the meaning of a word is called the **Semantic Triangle** of Meaning. The **Semantic Triangle** of Meaning has **three parts**. Symbol, Reference (Thought), and Referent.

Sign
The object / thing

Signifier
The material
/ physical existence

red / tires / windows /
engine / seats

Signified
The mental idea or concept

transportation / speed
wealthy / performance

Source: https://eduardoguillenmk.com/brand-design/

- ✓ Dichotomy: langue-parole; syntagmatic-paratagmatic; synchronic-diachronic
- ✓ langue: the structure of a system that gives the potential for the words or utterances to exist
- ✓ Parole: what people actually say or what appears on the page

The Prague school, Mathesius (1882-1946)

A special style of synchronic linguistics sees language in terms of function. Elements are held to be in functional contrast or opposition. Language was looked on as functional as it is a tool performing a number of essential functions or tasks for the community using it.

The contribution of the Prague school:

phonology and the distinction between phonetics and phonology

• Trubetzkoy: Principle of Phonology (1939)

• There are emphasized three criteria:

1. Their relation to the whole contrastive system

2. Relations between the opposing elements

3. Their power of discrimination

Trubetzkoy's contribution

1. Distinctive functions of speech sounds and gave an accurate definition for the phoneme

2. By making distinctions between phonetics and phonology and between stylistic phonology and phonology, he defined the sphere of phonological studies

3. By studying the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations between phonemes, he revealed the interdependent relations between phonemes

4. He put forward a set of methodologies for phonological studies, such as extracting phonemes and the method of studying combinations

Lecture 8. Learning Theories: Universal Grammar (UG)

8.1. Defining Universal Grammar

All particular grammars are properties of Universal Grammar. UG is located in the language faculty. In Chomsky's view, language learning is motivated by an internal capacity to acquire language. This capacity evolved, as hominins evolved, into a universal innate human ability to learn and analyze linguistic information. Universal grammar (UG) is a general blueprint that permits the child to proceed from the general rules of all languages to the rules specific to his or her own language. Chomsky believes that language learning is guided by an innate language acquisition device that is a result of human evolution. Bloomfieldian

linguistics emphasized linguistic performance, what the speaker actually says, and what some linguists called the surface structure. At first, Chomsky emphasized linguistic competence, what the speaker subconsciously knows about his or her language, and what might be called the deep structure. In 1995, Chomsky further modified his concepts with the formulation of what is called minimalism (or the minimalist program). In minimalism, Chomsky maintains the concept that there is one single grammatical system for all languages, but eliminates the concepts of deep and surface structure as well as other features of earlier conceptualizations of syntax.

Why postulate a Universal Grammar?

- Because We all learn the same concepts
- In the process of language learning we identify Similarity between languages
- We identify Logical Problem of language acquisition

   Steinberg (1993): "… UG seems to simply serve as a   filing cabinet for problems which are filed away for later consideration and then forgotten."

Universal Grammar is *Grammar* as a form of internal linguistic knowledge that operates in the appropriate production and comprehension of natural languages.

Goals of a theory of grammar:

- Universality: a theory of grammar should provide us with the tools needed to describe the grammar of *any* natural language adequately.
- Descriptive adequacy: a grammar of a given language has descriptive adequacy if it explains observed language data and the intuitions of native speakers about the grammaticality of sentences of a language
- Explanatory adequacy: a theory of grammar has explanatory adequacy if it explains how native speakers of a language can arrive at the knowledge of that language.

- Learnability: an adequate linguistic theory must provide adequate grammars which are learnable by young children in a relatively short period of time. *i.e.,* it must account for the uniformity and rapidity of language acquisition, given the poverty of stimulus.

8.2. Generative and Transformational Grammar

Generative Grammar

- A type of grammar which describes a language in terms of a set of logical rules formulated so as to be capable of generating the infinite number of possible sentences of that language and providing them with the correct structural description.
- Immediate constituent analysis, a system of grammatical analysis that divides sentences into successive layers, or constituents, until, in the final layer, each constituent consists of only a word or meaningful part of a word. *My || parents | bought ||| two tickets || at ||| Christmas.*

Generative grammar is a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assigns structural descriptions to sentences.

Transformational Grammar by Noam Chomsky, the author of "Syntactic Structure" (1957). *Syntactic Structure* marked the beginning of the Chomskyan Revolution. **Transformational Grammar:**

➢ has attracted worldwide attention with his ground-breaking research into the nature of human language and communication.
➢ has become the center of a debate that transcends formal linguistics to embrace psychology, philosophy, and even genetics.

- his "formulation of 'transformational grammar' has been acclaimed as one of the major achievements of the century.
- his work has been compared to the unraveling of the genetic code of the DNA molecule."
- his discoveries have had an impact "on everything from the way children are taught foreign languages to what it means when we say that we are human."
- is also an impassioned critic of American foreign policy, especially as it affects ordinary citizens of Third World nations.
- The main purpose of this theory is to construct or arrange of grammar of any language.
- Transformational grammar, also called Transformational-generative Grammar, a system of language analysis that recognizes the relationship among the various elements of a sentence and among the possible sentences of a language and uses processes or rules (some of which are called transformations) to express these relationships.
- Competence is the knowledge of the language user.
- Performance is the user of the language in the real condition.
- And performance is to be the main object for this transformational grammar theory.
- Transformational generative grammar is a set of grammar rules that are used when basic clauses are combined to form more complex sentences. An example of transformational generative is the idea that sentences have surface structure and deep structure levels.
- Generative Grammar is a broad approach to Syntax that *generate* all of the sentences in a language..
- Transformational Grammar was the first proposed method within that movement, involved not just phrase structure rules (like "subject followed

by verb"), but also *transformations* of those structures (such as "move the WH-question word to the beginning of the sentence in a question like *What did you eat [____]*

Transformational rules (T-rules) relate the spoken form of sentences to their underlying meaning. More technically, transformational rules relate the surface structure of sentences to their deep structure.

The Classical Theory

1. Emphasis on generative ability of language.

2. Introduction of transformational rules.

3. Grammatical descriptions regardless of meaning.

The Standard Theory (Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965).

Problems with the Classical Theory:

1. The transformational rules are too powerful. --John has a book. --A book was had by John.

2. Rules may generate ill-formed sentences as well as well-formed sentences. --John hit the tree. --The tree hit John.

3. Transformational rules for the passive voice cannot be used at will.

Base component Re-writing rule lexicon Deep structure T-rules Surface structure Semantic component phonological rules Semantic representation phonological representation

The Extended Standard Theory

- o Base component transformation
- o Deep structure transformation
- o Surface structure
- o Phonological rule
- o Semantic interpretative rule

- o Phonological representation
- o Logical form representation

The Innateness Hypothesis

 • Children are born with Language Acquisition Device (LAD), which is a unique kind of knowledge that fits them for language learning.

• Children are born with knowledge of the basic grammatical relations and categories, and this knowledge is universal.

• The study of language can throw some light on the nature of the human mind.

• A reaction against behaviorism in psychology and empiricism in philosophy.

What children learn seems to be a set of rules rather than individual sentences, although children are not born knowing a language, they are born with a predisposition to develop a language in much the same way as they are born with the predisposition to learn to walk.

Functional sentence perspective (FSP)

- A theory of linguistic analysis which refers to an analysis of utterances in terms of the information they contain. The principle is that the roles of each utterance part is evaluated for its semantic contribution to the whole.

- Czech linguists: a sentence contains a point of departure and a goal of discourse.

- The point of departure is equally present to the speaker and to the hearer—it is the ground on which they meet (THEME).

- The goal of discourse presents the very information that is to be imparted to the hearer (RHEME)

- deals with the effect of the distribution of known information and new information in discourse.

   J. Fibras: Communicative dynamism

- Linguistic communication is not a static phenomenon, but a dynamic one. CD is meant to measure the amount of information an element carries in a sentence. The degree of CD is the effect contributed by a linguistic element, for it pushes the communication forward. • He was mad. --He was hurrying to the railway station. --I have read a nice book.

Lecture 9. Learning Theories: The London School

9.1. Mallinowski's Theory

The main proponents of London school are: B. Malinowski (1884-1942), J. R. Firth (1890-1960), M. A. K. Halliday.

Malinowski originated the school of social anthropology known as functionalism. Malinowski is a highly influential anthropologist whose work is well-studied today. He is particularly known for his fieldwork. After living in the Canary Islands and southern France, Malinowski returned in 1924 to the University of London as reader in anthropology. He became professor in 1927. As one of the most intellectually vigorous social scientists of his day, Malinowski had a stimulating and wide influence.In contrast to Radcliffe-Brown's structural functionalism, Malinowski argued that culture functioned to meet the needs of individuals rather than society as a whole. He thinks - "the culture is the integral whole consisting of implements and consumers' goods,of constitutional characters for various social groupings,of human ideas and crafts,beliefs and customs"(Malinowski,1944 : 36). Structural-functionalism emphasized the formal

ordering of parts and their functional interrelations as contributing to the maintenance needs of a structured social system.

Malinowski' theory: the main features

➢ Concerned with the functioning of language

➢ Language is to be regarded as a mode of action, rather than as a counterpart of thought

➢ The meaning of an utterance does not come from the ideas of the words comprising it but from its relation to the situational context in which the utterance occurs

➢ Utterances and situations are bound up inextricably with each other and the context of situation is indispensable for the understanding of the words

➢ Data for study, complete utterances in actual situation

➢ One sound in two situations—context

9.2. Firth's Theory

John Rupert Firth commonly known as J. R. Firth (June 17, 1890 – December 14, 1960) was an English linguist, the first professor of general linguistics in Great Britain. He was the originator of the London School of Linguistics and played important role in the foundation of linguistics as an autonomous discipline. He is famous for his ideas on phonology and the study of meaning. Firth worked on prosody, the study of rhythm, intonation, and related attributes in speech. The theory of the "context of the situation" became central to his approach to linguistics. He held that language was not to be studied as an isolated mental system, but as a response to the context of particular situations.

Firth's theory: the main features

- Basic understanding of language: Regard language as a social process, as a means of social life.
- In order to live, human beings have to learn, and learning language is a means of participation in social activities.
- language is a means of doing things and of making others to do things. It is a means of acting and living.
- language as sth both inborn and acquired
- The object of study: language in actual use
- Goal of linguistic study: to analyze meaningful elements of language in order to establish corresponding relations between linguistic and non-linguistic elements.
- Prosodic analysis and Prosodic unit

9.3. Halliday's Theory

Halliday, laying emphasis on both systems and functions, believes that the explanation of language development is found in the study of conversational interaction. For Halliday, all languages involve three simultaneously generated metafunctions: one constructs experience of our outer and inner worlds (ideational); another enacts social relations (interpersonal relations); and a third weaves together these two functions to create text (textual--the wording).

Halliday and Systemic-Functional Grammar: the main features

- Sociologically oriented functional linguistic approach
- Effect on language teaching, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, stylistics, and machine translation.

Systemic Grammar and Functional Grammar

➢ Systemic grammar aims to explain the internal relations in language as a system network, or meaning potential. This system consists of subsystems from which language users make choices. Functional grammar aims to reveal that language is a means of social interaction, based on the position that language system and the forms that make it up are inescapably determined by uses of functions which they serve.

➢ Concerned with the nature and import of the various choices which one makes in deciding to utter one particular sentence out of the infinitely numerous sentences that one's language makes available.

➢ The central component of a systemic grammar is a chart of the full set of choices available in constructing a sentence.

Functional Grammar

➢ language is what it is because it has to serve certain functions

➢ language development in children is the mastery of linguistic functions and learning a language is learning how to mean.

➢ Adult's language becomes more complex, and is reduced to a set of highly coded and abstract functions, which are meta-functions: the ideational, the interpersonal, and the textual functions.

Ideational Function

The ideational function is to convey new information, to communicate a content that is unknown to the hearer. It is a meaning potential, for whatever specific use one is making of language he has to refer to categories of his experience of the world. The **ideational function** allows language users to present their world experience through the lexico-grammatical choices they make, which are part of

the **transitivity** system. The **transitivity** system proposed by Halliday is composed of three main types of processes: material, mental, and relational.

Transitivity: material processes, mental processes, relational processes, verbal processes, behavioral processes, existential processes.

The Interpersonal Function

The interpersonal function embodies all uses of language to express social and personal relations. This includes various ways the speaker enters a speech situation and perform a speech act.

The textual function

It refers to the fact that language has mechanisms to make any stretch of spoken or written discourse into a coherent and unified text and make a living passage different from a random list of sentences. Biding devices which help make a discourse into a coherent and unified text is called collectively as the Cohesion of a text.

Lecture 10. Pragmatics

10.1. Defining Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics and semiotics that studies the ways in which context contributes to meaning. Sometimes the meaning of a word is totally dependent upon the context in which it is used. Pragmatics is the study of the effect of context on meaning. Pragmatics encompasses speech act theory, conversational implicature, talk in interaction and other approaches to language behavior in philosophy, sociology, linguistics and anthropology. Pragmatics is the branch of linguistics dealing with language in use and the contexts in which it is used,

including such matters as deixis, the taking of turns in conversation, text organization, presupposition, and implicature. People often consciously and deliberately consider the social meaning of their speech when they change from one manner of speaking to another, according to their circumstances, in order to give an appropriate impression. This is called code switching.

Jenny Thomas says that pragmatics considers:

- the negotiation of meaning between speaker and listener.
- the context of the utterance.
- the meaning potential of an utterance.

  'Can you pass the salt?'

  Literal Meaning: Are you physically able to do this task?

  Literal Response: 'Yes'

  (Pragmatic Meaning: Will you pass me the salt?

  Pragmtic Response: pass the salt to the speaker.)

  'What time do you call this?'

  Literal Meaning: What time is it?

  Literal Response: A time (e.g. 'twenty to one.')

  (Pragmatic Meaning: a different question entirely, e.g. Why are you so late?

  Pragmatic Response: Explain the reason for being so late.)

Utterance meaning is related to both grammar and context: it is the **meaning** behind the action of uttering something, and may involve intentions of speakers/hearers, and other aspects of context. **Pragmatics** deals with **utterance meaning**. Discourse analysis is the process of discovering the rules that govern a series of connected utterances (a discourse), such as a conversation, story, lecture, or any other communication event.

There are four aspects of pragmatics in this lecture: *speech acts*; *rhetorical structure*; *conversational implicature*; and the *management of reference* in discourse.

Speech acts

People use language to accomplish certain kinds of acts, broadly known as **speech acts**, and distinct from **physical acts** like drinking a glass of water, or **mental acts** like thinking about drinking a glass of water. Speech acts include *asking* for a glass of water, *promising* to drink a glass of water, *threatening* to drink a glass of water, *ordering* someone to drink a glass of water, and so on.

Most of these ought really to be called "communicative acts", since speech and even language are not strictly required. Thus someone can ask for a glass of water by pointing to a pitcher and miming the act of drinking.

10.2. Types of Speech Acts

A **speech act** is an utterance defined in terms of a speaker's intention and the effect it has on a listener. **Speech acts** might be requests, warnings, promises, apologies, greetings, or any number of declarations. **Types of Speech Acts**

- Representatives: assertions, statements, claims, hypotheses, descriptions, suggestions.
- Commissives: promises, oaths, pledges, threats, vows.
- Directives: commands, requests, challenges, invitations, orders, summons, entreaties, dares.
- Declarations: blessings, firings, baptisms, arrests, marrying, juridial speech acts such as sentencings, declaring a mistrial, declaring s.o.out of order, etc.
- Expressives: Speech acts that make assessments of psychological states or attitudes: greetings, apologies, congratulations, condolences, thanksgivings...

- Verdictives: rankings, assessments, appraising, condoning (combinations such as representational declarations: You're out!)

Locutions and Illocutions

- *Locutions:* the utterance act. Sentences have a grammatical structure and a literal linguistic meaning; the bald, literal force of the act: what did the person *say?* (Not, what did the person mean?)
- *Illocution:* the speaker's **intention** of what is to be accomplished by the speech act.

There are three basic types of **direct speech acts**, and they correspond to three special syntactic types that seem to occur in most of the world's languages. Examples are given in English, French and Buang (a Malayo-Polynesian language of Papua New Guinea.

Table 10.1. Speech Acts (source:
https://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/Fall_2019/ling001/pragmatics.html)

Speech Act	*Sentence Type*	*Function*	*Examples*
Assertion	Declarative.	conveys information; is true or false	"Jenny got an A on the test" "Les filles ont pris des photos."('The girls took photos') "Biak eko nos." ('Biak took the food')
Question	Interrogative	elicits information	" Did Jenny get an A on the

			test?"
			"Les filles ont-elles pris des photos?"('Did the girls take photos') "Biak eko nos me? "('Did Biak take the food')
Orders and Requests	Imperative	causes others to behave in certain ways	"Get an A on the test!" "Prenez des photos!"('Take some photos!') "Goko nos! "('Take the food!')

Performatives: performative sentences not only convey information, but in the correct context, they also perform the act of pronouncing, sentencing, betting, warning, quitting, and promising.One subtype of direct speech acts exists in English and in many other languages, and allows us to expand the kinds of direct speech acts we can make beyond the three basic types that have their own special syntax. These are the direct speech acts that use *performative verbs* to accomplish their ends. Performative verbs can also be used with the three basic speech act types as exemplified in (f) - (h), associated with making statements, requests and commands respectively:

(f) *I assert that Jenny got an A on the test.*

(g) *I ask you who took the photos.*

(h) *I order you to close the window.*

Conversational implicature has four sub-parts or **maxims** that cooperative conversationalists ought in principle to respect:

(1) **The maxim of quality.** Speakers' contributions ought to be true.

(2) **The maxim of quantity.** Speakers' contributions should be as informative as required; not saying either too little or too much.

(3) **The maxim of relevance.** Contributions should relate to the purposes of the exchange.

(4) **The maxim of manner.** Contributions should be perspicuous -- in particular, they should be orderly and brief, avoiding obscurity and ambiguity.

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