VIRTUAL UNIVERSITY OF PAKISTAN

Introduction to Linguistics

ENG502

Course Handouts

GRADUP

Practice. Pass. Graduate.

thegradup.com

Table of Contents

Lecture No.	Title	Topic No.	Pg. No.
Lecture No. 1	**WHAT IS LANGUAGE?**		
	Introduction	001	9
	Language: A Purely Human and Non-Instinctive Communication	002	9-10
	Language: A Symbol System	003	10
	Behavioristic View of Language	004	10
	Structural View of Language	005	10-11
	Miscellaneous Definitions of Language	006	11
Lecture No. 2	**HISTORY OF LANGUAGE**		
	Animal Communication and Language	007	12-14
	Talking Apes	008	14-16
	Written Language	009	16-19
	First Families	010	19-22
	Towards a Science of Language	011	22-25
	Future Indicatives	012	26-27
Lecture No. 3	**ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE**		
	The Divine Source	013	27
	The Natural Sound Source	014	27
	The Social Interaction Source	015	28
	The Physical Adaptation Source	016	28
	The Tool-Making Source	017	28-29
	The Genetic Source	018	29
Lecture No. 4	**CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE**		
	Characteristics of Human Language	019	30
	Displacement	020	30
	Arbitrariness	021	30-31
	Productivity	022	31
	Cultural Transmission	023	31
	Duality	024	31-32
Lecture No. 5	**FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE**		
	Functions of Language (Verbal Communication)	025	33
	Language is Expressive	026	33-35
	Language is Powerful	027	35
	Language as a Means of Control	028	35-36
	Language is Performative	029	36
	Language: A Dynamic and Relational Entity	030	36-38
Lecture No. 6	**NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND LINGUISTICS**		
	Aspects of Nonverbal Communication	031	39
	Principles of Nonverbal Communication		
	Conveyance of Interpersonal and Emotional Messages		

© Virtual University of Pakistan

	More Involuntary than Verbal	034	40-41
	More Ambiguous	035	41
	More Credible	036	41
Lecture No. 7	**NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND SEMIOSIS**		
	Types of Nonverbal Communication Learning	37	42
	Kinesics	38	42
	Haptics	39	42-43
	Vocalics	40	43-44
	Proxemics	41	44-45
	Chronemics	42	45-46
Lecture No. 8	**ANIMAL VS. HUMAN COMMUNICATION**		
	Introduction: Animal vs. Human Communication	43	47-48
	Broadcast Transmission and Directional Reception	44	48-49
	Creativity/Novelty/ Prevarication	45	49-50
	Discreteness	46	50-51
	Interchangeability	47	51
	Semanticity	48	51-52
Lecture No. 9	**WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?**		
	Introduction	049	53-54
	Explicitness	050	54
	Systematicness	051	54
	Objectivity	052	55
	The Scope of Linguistics	053	55
Lecture No. 10	**INTRA-DISCIPLINARY BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS**		
	Intra-disciplinary Branches of Linguistics	054	56
	General-Linguistics	055	56-57
	Descriptive-Linguistics	056	57
	Comparative Linguistics	057	57-59
	Historical-Linguistics	058	59
Lecture No. 11	**INTER-DISCIPLINARY BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS**		
	Inter-disciplinary Branches	059	60
	Sociolinguistics	060	60-61
	Psycholinguistics	061	61-62
	Applied Linguistics	062	62
	Computational Linguistics	063	63-64
	Geographical Linguistics	064	64
Lecture No. 12	**LINGUISTICS VS. TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR**		
	Introduction	065	65-66
	Linguistics: Scientific Study of Language	066	67
	Linguistics and Descriptivism	067	67-68
	Linguistics: Non-Speculative Nature		
	Linguistics and Objectivity		
	Linguistics and Spoken Language		

Lecture No. 13	**PHONETICS AND ITS BRANCHES**		
	Definition	071	70-71
	Nature and Functions of Phonetics	072	71
	Articulatory Phonetics	073	71-72
	Acoustic Phonetics	074	72-73
	Auditory Phonetics	075	73-74
	Instrumental Phonetics	076	74-75
Lecture No. 14	**PHONOLOGY AND ITS BRANCHES**		
	Definition	077	76
	Difference Between Phonetics and Phonology	078	76-77
	Phoneme: The Basic Unit of Phonology	079	77-78
	Segmental Phonology	080	78-79
	Supra-segmental Phonology	081	79
Lecture No. 15	**SYLLABLE**		
	Syllable and Division of Words into Syllables	082	80-81
	The Structure of the Syllable	083	81
	Syllabic Consonants	084	82
	Types of the Syllable	085	82-83
	Consonant Clusters	086	83-85
	Abutting Consonants	087	85
Lecture No. 16	**STRESS**		
	Definition	088	86
	Types of Stress (Word-stress)	089	87
	Sentence Stress	090	87-90
	Syllable-timed Languages and Stress-timed Languages	091	90-91
	General Rules of Stress	092	91-92
Lecture No. 17	**MORPHOLOGY I**		
	Morphology	093	93
	Morpheme	094	94
	Free Morphemes	095	94-95
	Bound Morphemes	096	95
	Lexical Morphemes	097	95
	Functional Morphemes	098	96
Lecture No. 18	**MORPHOLOGY II**		
	Derivational Morphemes	099	97
	Inflectional Morphemes	100	97-98
	Derivational vs. Inflectional Morphemes	101	98
	Morphological Description	102	98-99
	Problems in Morphological Description	103	99
	Morphs and Allomorphs	104	99-100
Lecture No. 19	**MORPHOLOGY III**		
	Coinage		

	Borrowing	106	101-102
	Compounding / Blending	107	102-103
	Clipping	108	103
	Acronyms	109	103-104
	Derivation (Prefixes, Suffixes, Infixes)	110	104
Lecture No. 20	**GRAMMAR I**		
	Grammar	111	105
	Traditional Grammar	112	106
	The Parts of Speech	113	106
	Agreement	114	106-107
	Grammatical Gender	115	107
	Traditional Analysis	116	107
Lecture No. 21	**GRAMMAR II**		
	The Prescriptive Approach	117	108
	The Descriptive Approach	118	108
	Structural Analysis	119	109
	Constituent Analysis	120	109
	Labeled and Bracketed Sentences	121	109-110
	A Gaelic Sentence	122	110
Lecture No. 22	**SYNTAX I**		
	Introduction	123	111
	Generative Grammar	124	111
	Properties of Generative Grammar	125	112
	Well-Formed Syntactic Structures	126	112
	Finite Number of Rules	127	112
	Recursion	128	113
Lecture No. 23	**SYNTAX II**		
	Surface Structure	129	114
	Deep Structure	130	114
	Structural Ambiguity	131	114-115
	Symbols Used in Syntactic Description	132	115-116
	Labeled Tree Diagrams	133	116
Lecture No. 24	**SYNTAX III (RULES OF SYNTACTIC DESCRIPTION)**		
	Phrase Structure Rules	134	117
	Lexical Rules	135	117-118
	Back to Recursion	136	118
	Transformational Rules	137	118-119
	Particle Movement	138	119-120
	IC analysis	139	120-121
Lecture No. 25	**SEMANTICS I**		
	Definition		
	Types of Meaning		

© Virtual University of Pakistan

	Conceptual or Denotative Meaning	142	123
	Associative or Connotative Meaning	143	123
	Prepositional Meaning	144	123-124
	The Prosodic Meaning	145	124
Lecture No. 26	**SEMANTICS II (SEMANTIC FEATURES AND SEMANTIC ROLES)**		
	Semantic Features	146	125
	Semantic Roles	147	125
	Agent	148	126
	Theme	149	126
	Instrument	150	126
	Experiencer, Location, Source and Goal	151	127
Lecture No. 27	**SEMANTICS III (LEXICAL RELATIONS)**		
	Synonymy	152	128
	Antonymy	153	128-129
	Hyponymy	154	129
	Prototypes	155	129-130
	Homophony, Homonymy and Polysemy	156	130-131
	Metonymy	157	131
Lecture No. 28	**PRAGMATICS I**		
	Definition	158	132
	Invisible Meaning	159	132
	No Text Without Context	160	132
	Linguistic Context	161	133
	Physical Context	162	133
	Social/Cultural Context	163	133
Lecture No. 29	**PRAGMATICS II**		
	Deixis/Deictic Expressions	164	134
	Person Deixis	165	134-135
	Place Deixis	166	135-136
	Time Deixis	167	136
	Reference	168	136
	Inference	169	136-137
Lecture No. 30	**PRAGMATICS III**		
	Anaphora	170	138
	Presupposition	171	138
	Constancy under Negation Test	172	139
	Speech Acts	173	139
	Direct Speech Acts	174	139
	Indirect Speech Acts	175	140
Lecture No. 31	**DISCOURSE ANALYSIS I**		
	Definitions		
	The Origins of Discourse Analysis		
	Critical Discourse Analysis		

	Interpreting Discourse	179	142
	Cohesion	180	142-143
	Coherence	181	143
Lecture No. 32	**DISCOURSE ANALYSIS II**		
	Discourse Typology: Spoken and Written, Formal and Informal	182	144
	Discourse and the Sentence	183	144-145
	Discourse as Process	184	145
	Discourse as Dialogue	185	145-146
	Information Structure in Discourse	186	146
	Knowledge in Discourse: Schemata	187	146
Lecture No. 33	**DISCOURSE ANALYSIS III**		
	Conversation as Discourse Type	188	147
	Conversation Analysis	189	147
	Turn-taking	190	147-148
	Conversational Principles: Cooperative	191	148
	Flouting the Cooperative Principle	192	148-149
	Conversational Principles: Politeness	193	149
Lecture No. 34	**CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS**		
	Introduction	194	150
	A Brief History of the CDA Group	195	150
	Considering Critical in Critical Discourse Analysis	196	151
	Considering Discourse in Critical Discourse Analysis	197	151-152
	Considering Analysis in Critical Discourse Analysis	198	152
	Different Approaches to CDA	199	152-153
Lecture No. 35	**APPLIED LINGUISTICS**		
	Introduction	200	154
	Scope	201	154-155
	Major Branches	202	155
	Linguistics Applied	203	155-156
Lecture No. 36	**PSYCHOLINGUISTICS I**		
	Introduction	204	157
	Neurolinguistics	205	157
	Language Areas in Brain	206	157-158
	Broca's Area and Wernicke's Area	207	158-159
	The Motor Cortex and the Arcuate Fasciculus	208	159
	The Localization View	209	159-160
Lecture No. 37	**PSYCHOLINGUISTICS II**		
	Tongue Tips and Slips	210	161
	Slips of the Ear	211	161
	Aphasia	212	162
	Types of Aphasia		
	Dichotic Listening		

	The Critical Period	215	163
Lecture No. 38	**SOCIOLINGUISTICS**		
	Introduction	216	164
	The Standard Language and Vernacular Language	217	164-165
	Accent and Dialect (Dialectology)	218	165
	Pidgin and Creole	219	165-166
	Diglossia and Polyglossia	220	166-167
	Language and Culture	221	167
Lecture No. 39	**FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION I**		
	Acquisition and Stages of Acquisition	222	168
	Cooing and Babbling	223	168-169
	The One-Word Stage	224	169
	The Two-Word Stage	225	169-170
	Telegraphic Speech	226	170
	Summary/Discussion	227	170-171
Lecture No. 40	**FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION II**		
	The Acquisition Process	228	172
	Developing Morphology	229	172-173
	Developing Syntax	230	173
	Forming Questions	231	173-174
	Forming Negatives	232	174-175
	Developing Semantics	233	175-176
Lecture No. 41	**SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION/LEARNING**		
	Second Language Acquisition and Learning	234	177
	Acquisition Barriers	235	177-178
	Affective Factors	236	178
	Focus on Method	237	178-179
	Focus on the Learner	238	179-180
	Communicative Competence	239	180-181
Lecture No. 42	**HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS**		
	Introduction	240	182
	The Family Tree Model	241	182-183
	Grimm's Law	242	183
	The Comparative Method	243	183-184
	The Wave Model	244	184-185
	Language Change	245	185
Lecture No. 43	**COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS**		
	What is Computational Linguistics?	246	186
	Processes and Methods of CL	247	186-187
	Morphological Processing	248	187
	Syntactic Processing		187-188
	Semantic Processing		188-189
	Application of CL		

Lecture No. 44	**LEXICOGRAPHY**		
	The Dictionary: Definition and History	252	190
	Source Materials for Dictionaries	253	190-191
	Uses and Users of Dictionaries	254	191
	Corpora for Lexicography	255	191-192
	Developments in Electronic Dictionary Design	256	192
	Linguistic Corpora and the Compilation of Dictionaries	257	192-193
Lecture No. 45	**LATEST TRENDS OF RESEARCH IN LINGUISTICS**		
	What is Linguistic Research or Research in Linguistics?	258	194
	Research Trends in Applied Linguistics	259	194-195
	Current Trends in Linguistic Research Methodology	260	195-196
	Research Trends in Linguistics in China	261	196
	Research Trends in Linguistics in Japan	262	197
	Trends of Linguistics in India	263	197-198
	Recent Progress in Applied Linguistics	264	198

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Lesson-01

WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Topic- 001: Introduction

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. Language is used to express inner thoughts and emotions, make sense of complex and abstract thoughts, learn to communicate with others, fulfill our wants and needs, and to establish rules and maintain our culture. Language can be defined as verbal, physical, biologically innate, and a basic form of communication. The question 'What is language?' is equal to 'What is life?' It is difficult to define the word 'language' especially when it has many alternate words in other languages. In French, two words are found for the word 'language': 'langage' and 'langue' whereas in Italian the alternate words are 'linguaggio' and 'lingua'. Anyone who possesses 'a language' such as English, Arabic, Urdu, etc.., possesses 'language'. One cannot possess (or use) natural language without possessing (or using) some particular natural language.

The term 'natural language' is applied to a variety of other systems of communication, notation or calculation, about which there is a room for dispute, e.g., computer or mathematical language are different from human language, so, they cannot count as natural languages. These notational systems are artificial, rather than natural, irrespective of whether they are rightly called languages or not. Pre-existing natural languages are called **Esperanto**. Thousands of recognizably distinct natural languages are spoken throughout the world. The main question here is to find out whether all natural languages have something in common not shared by other systems of communication i.e., animal communication and artificial languages created by human beings.

Topic- 002: Language: A Purely Human and Non-instinctive Communication

According to Sapir (1921, p.8), 'language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols.' This definition suffers from several defects. However, broadly, when the terms 'idea', 'emotion', and 'desire' are interpreted, it seems clear that there is much that is communicated by language which is not covered by any of them, and 'idea' in particular is inherently vague and imprecise. 'Emotion' and 'desire' are understandable but 'idea' needs to be precisely defined.

There are many systems of voluntarily produced symbols, for example body language in which symbols are voluntarily produced. 'Purely human' denotes that only human beings possess language and their communication system is very different from that of animals. Animals also have communication systems, for example, bees' dance in which bees communicate each other about the place of nectar. Birds also use certain calls to attract each other's attention or to convey where food can be found, etc. The next aspect of this definition is 'non-instinctive' which means non-inherited. It means that language is not inherited by the parents to the child. If parents take their child to another country, he will learn the language of that country rather the language of parents. Another aspect of this definition is 'voluntarily produced'. Sapir excludes cries and groans from this definition because they also involuntarily produced.

This definition discussed in this lesson encompasses language as:

- A means of human communication
- A system of voluntarily produced symbols
- A non-instinctive method of communication

Topic- 003: Language: A Symbol System

A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates. Language is a system of symbols and rules that enable us to communicate. The symbols used in a language can include speech sounds as well as writing symbols while the rules include grammar (e.g., pronouns, tense, etc.), parsing, and pragmatics. There is an arbitrary relationship between a linguistic symbol and its referent. Language provides context for symbolic understanding.

Every language has its own way of encoding and expressing human experience, and an entire way of thinking is lost each time a language becomes extinct. It is important to differentiate between language and communication. Communication is a process whereby there is an exchange of information between the sender and the receiver. This information can be transmitted through scent, song, gesture, tone, writing, painting, or language. Language is a symbolic form of communication.

Topic- 004: Behavioristic View of Language

Language is 'the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral—auditory arbitrary symbols'. Hall (1968, p.158), in his 'An Essay on Language', introduced the terms institution, and habitually used oral—auditory arbitrary symbols. The most noteworthy in Hall's definition, however, is his use of the term 'habitually used' and there are historical reasons for this. Linguistics and the psychology of language were strongly influenced for about thirty years or so, especially in America, by the stimulus—response theories of the behaviourists. Within the theoretical framework of behaviourism, the term 'habit' acquired a rather special sense which laid the foundation of the term 'habitually used.'

The term 'habit' was used with reference to the bits of behaviour that could be identified as predictable responses to particular stimuli. Hall presumably means by language 'symbols', the vocal signals that are actually transmitted from the sender to receiver in the process of communication and interaction. Now it is clear that there is no sense of the term 'habit', technical or non-technical, in which the utterances of a language are either themselves habits or constructed by means of habits. If 'symbol' is being used to refer, not to language-utterances, but to the words or phrases, it would still be wrong to imply that a speaker uses such and such a word, as a matter of habit, on such and such an occasion.

Topic- 005: Structural View of Language

According to Chomsky's 'Syntactic Structure' (1957), 'a language is a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements.' All natural languages, both spoken and written, are languages in the sense of his definition. Each language has a finite number of sounds and can create indefinitely many distinct sentences. It is the linguist's job to differentiate between

sentence and non-sentence sequences. Chomsky believes that structural properties are complex, abstract, and highly specific which must be known to a child prior to his experience of any natural language. In this regard, Chomsky is a rationalist rather than empiricist. So, according to Chomsky, language is structure–dependent. The definition encompasses purely structural properties of language and suggests that these properties can be investigated mathematically.

Topic- 006: Miscellaneous Definitions of Language

Language is the expression of ideas by means of which sounds are combined into words, and words are combined into sentences (Sweet, 1895). Language is a form of communication by means of which a system of symbols is principally transmitted by vocal sounds (Hobbins, 1990). Language is a human vocal noise (or graphic representation of this noise in writing) used systematically and conventionally by a community for the purpose of communication. (Crystal, 1989) Languages are infinitely extendable and modifiable according to changing needs and conditions of the speaker (Robins, 1979). A language consists of symbols that convey meaning, plus rules for combining those symbols, that can be used to generate an infinite variety of messages (Weiten, 2007). Language is not an abstract construction of the learned, or of dictionary makers, but is something arising out of the work, needs, ties, joys, affections, and tastes of long generations of humanity, and has its bases broad and low, close to the ground (Whitman).

The above-mentioned definitions encompass the following language properties:

- Arbitrariness
- Flexibility and modifiability
- Freedom from stimulus control
- Structure-dependence

Lesson-02

HISTORY OF LANGUAGE

Topic- 007: Animal Communication and Language

Earth's earliest organisms evolved primitive mechanisms of exchange capable of informing of species, gender and intent. The medium used was chemo communication. It was a complex method of communication. Continuous need over millions of years to contact another of the same evolving species in order to procreate necessitated ever more complex methods of communication.

Out of this evolutionary process, 'language' in its broadest sense, was born. Each type of language used in nature differs. The deeper one probes, the more one discovers each species' communicative ability distinguished by ever more elaborate definitions of the concept 'language'. In its simplest definition, language signifies 'medium of information exchange'. This definition allows the concept of language to encompass facial expressions, gestures, postures, whistles, hand signs, writing, mathematical language, programming (or computer) language, and so forth.

The definition further recognizes many bioacoustic exchanges of information (the sound emissions of life forms) that occur in frequencies beyond human hearing, for example, an average 15-year-old human can hear only about ten octaves at the loudness and closeness of normal conversation – that is, between 30-18,000 hertz (cycles per second). Birds, frogs, toads, and dogs all vocalize within this range.

Bioacoustics

Bioacoustics has turned its attention to fish as well, since, particularly during laying, many fish emit a representative 'complex sound', the first part of which consists of a train of partially overlapping pulses, and the second part of which is composed of rapidly repeated pulses that overlap, producing a constant waveform similar to a 'tone'.

Infrasound

However, most other creatures appear to communicate both below and above the range humans consider normal. Infrasound comprises emissions below 30 Hertz, such as many sounds made by finback whales, blue whales, elephants, crocodilians, ocean waves, volcanoes, earthquakes, and severe weather.

Ultrasound

Ultrasound occurs above 18,000 Hertz, frequencies commonly used by insects (Earth's most prevalent inhabitants), bats, dolphins and shrews. However, there is far more to language than vocal communication alone. In its most universal meaning, language is the nexus of the animate world, its limits drawn only by humankind's crayon.

History of language is considered history of human language. Though a history of language at the beginning of the twenty-first century is still implicitly a history of human language, it carries the suggestion that it might evolve to encompass many previously unknown forms of language.

The vocal communication of many amphibians, especially frogs, has in the past few years been intensively researched; though, one still looks in vain for any reference to a frog language. Vocal communication in its most primitive form, for example, is strikingly demonstrated by the humming midshipman fish of the Western coastline of the USA. The noise – a loud, resonant drone very much like that produced by an Australian didgeridoo – originates from a pair of muscles attached to the swim bladder that contract and vibrate against the stomach wall, and will continue moving for up to an hour. Once a female arrives, the humming promptly ceases. Several orders of insects also possess sound-producing organs evidently used for communication.

Communication through Pheromones

Many of these use ultrasound, whose very existence was unknown to science until the latter half of the twentieth century. During courtship, both male and female moths, for example, communicate through pheromones (secretions exuded through specialized glands); the entire sequence of moth courtship behaviour involves ultrasound production as well. This very recent discovery has necessitated a reconsideration of moth courtship behaviour, with greater emphasis now laid on the interaction between the several modes of communicative expression.

Language of Ants

However, when one hears of animal communication or language one commonly thinks of the languages of ants, honey-bees, birds, horses, elephants, cetaceans and great apes. Each ant can transmit at least 50 different messages using body language and pheromones. Ants' mandibular glands secrete alarm odours; the hind gut terminates in a rectal gland that exudes scent for trail-marking; exudings from the sternal gland are used to call nearby workers, and so forth. These highly specific chemical messages, combined with body language, seemingly offer an economical package containing the necessary information an individual ant must exchange with its fellow ants for the colony's survival.

In the first half of the twentieth century, the Austrian Zoologist, Karl von Frisch, revealed that honey-bees use dance to communicate, thereby stunning the world by demonstrating that even insignificant insects were capable of exchanging complex information about things remote in space and time. By means of a 'waggle dance', the honey-bee forager informs followers of the type (through proffered samples), quality (quantity of 180 degree turns of dance) and location (tracing a figure-eight design for distance and direction) of food she has found beyond the nest.

Keen birdwatchers have long thrilled to the March wren's vast repertoire of songs. And since antiquity it has been appreciated that some birds in the wild learn their songs in different contexts, a fact that suggests birds attach different meanings to their vocalizations. Recent field research has apparently confirmed this. Birds display great individual differences in vocal abilities and inclinations, even among the most loquacious species. Some birds say nothing; others, it seems, never stop chattering. Larger

parrots are perhaps the animal kingdom's most phenomenal linguists, especially African Greys and Amazons (yellow napes, double yellow heads, red-loreds and blue fronts). Scarlet and blue-and-red macaws can vocalize well, too; but they are commonly hoarse and loud. Cockatoos, fine talkers, possess mellifluous voices; however, like the macaws, they are difficult to teach.

Is There Truly a Non-human Language?

Is there truly a non-human language? Or are we merely bestowing language on non-humans, perhaps reading language into what is really non-language? As the Austrian-born philosopher, Ludwig Wittgenstein wrote: 'If a lion could talk, we would not understand him.' Great ape communication in the wild differs significantly from human-ape communication in the laboratory: the former comprises a rich combination of body language and vocalizations, whereas the latter is an artificial human environment prompting apes to respond using human symbols or words. However, a wealth of controlled tests has demonstrated, perhaps beyond any critical doubt, that, though the medium is unnatural and trained, the result of these human–animal experiments is spontaneous and creative communication – that is, the vocal or signed exchange of significant information. Using pre-existent neural pathways, animals are indeed speaking to us, and with us, in a meaningful way.

Topic- 008: Talking Apes

Neural Pathway of Our Great Ape Antecedents

Our great ape antecedents evidently possessed precisely those neural pathways necessary for various modes of communicative expression to convey information adequately. However, the great apes' lips and tongue lacked coordinated control; they were also incapable of controlled exhalation. Even if these great apes had physically been able to speak, their 'speech' would probably have been nothing similar to how we understand this word today.

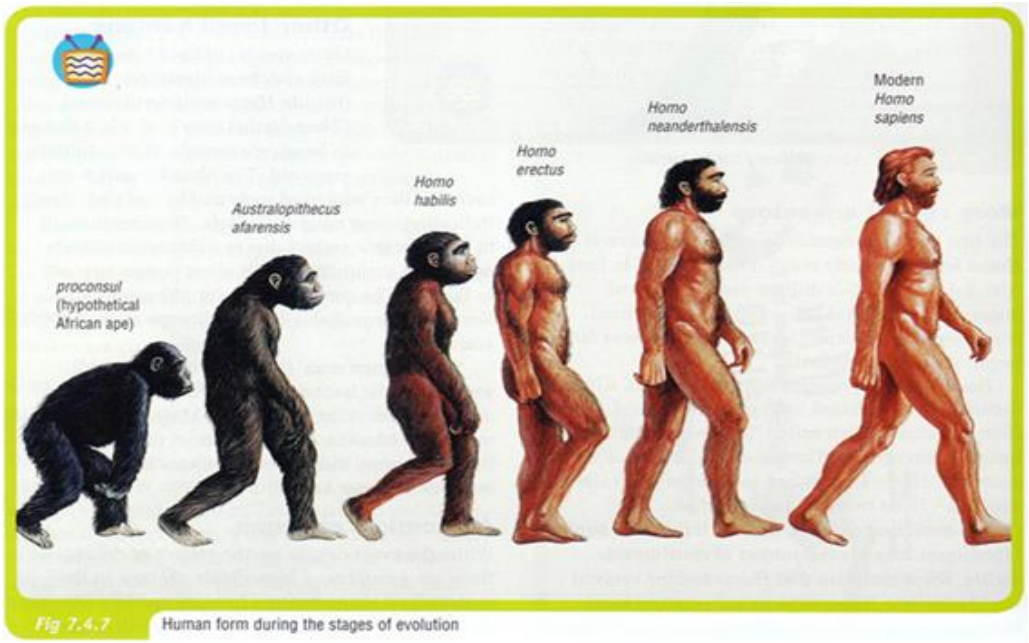
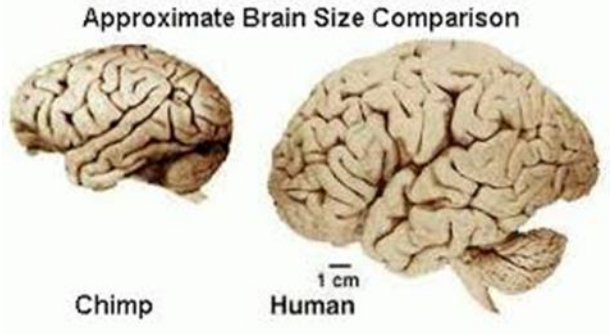


Fig 7.4.7 Human form during the stages of evolution

Modern Human Brain



The modern human brain is two to three times greater in volume than that of any living great ape; it imparts an enhanced ability to use and further elaborate spoken language and to reason with it. A history of human language is also a history of the human brain and its cognitive abilities; the two go hand in hand.

History of Human Language – Human Brain

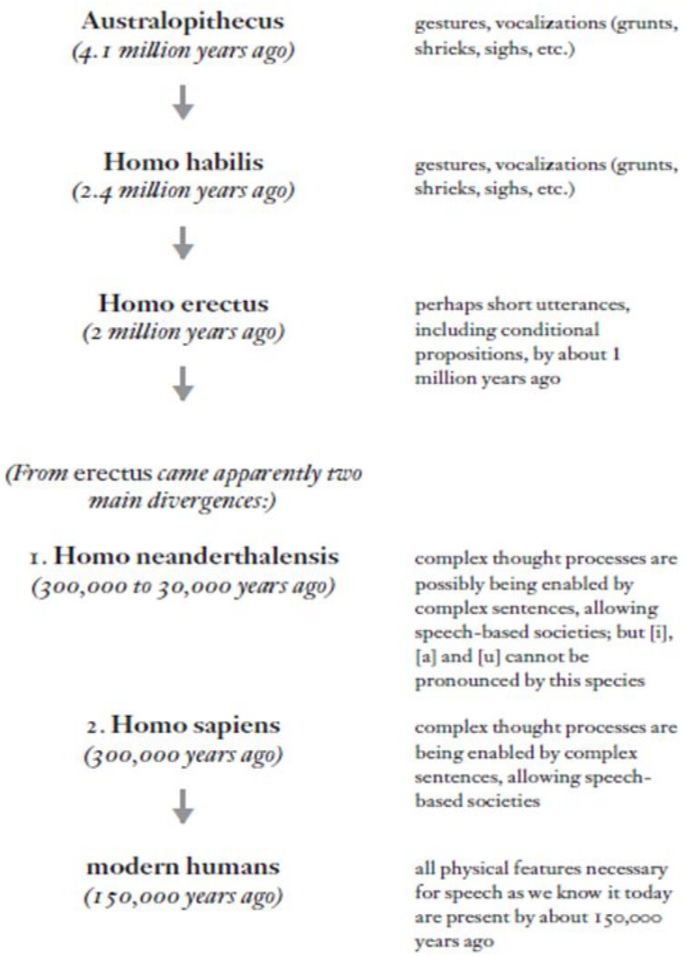
Seven to five million years ago in Africa, probably as a result of differing diets, hominids split from other primitive ape species. Two major genera of hominids have differentiated the genus Australopithecus and the genus Homo. According to some experts, because of a high-calorie diet, brain capacity increased in comparison to body weight.

However, an Australopithecus africanus of three million years ago, for example, would have demonstrated a linguistic ability in no way different from a modern gorilla's, chimpanzee's or bonobo's. They could communicate through gestures and vocalization. As they had mastered bipedalism, Australopithecines were walking great apes, but most experts agree that they were not talking great apes.

Then come Homo habilis (2.4 million years ago); they could also make gestures and had vocalization. Homo erectus (2.5 million years ago) could make short utterance and conditional prepositions (1 million years ago). From erectus came two main divergences: Homo neaderthalensis, (300,000 to 30,000 years ago) and Homo sapiens (300,000 years ago). Most experts agree that Neanderthals used a rudimentary language close to our own; nothing else can explain their complex tool manufacture and high level of society. They had complex thought as they could make complex sentences. Theirs was speech based societies, however, they were unable to pronounce [i], [a], [u].

Homo sapiens were the only hominid species that survived evolution. They emerged as the predecessor of the modern humans. They had complex thoughts due to complex sentences. They had speech based societies. They had learnt to harvest and their main crops were wheat, oats and barley.

© Virtual University of Pakistan



Topic- 009: Written Language

'A scribe whose hand matches the mouth, he is indeed a scribe', wrote an anonymous Sumerian on clay some 4,000 years ago and in so doing captured the very essence of writing. Writing did not gradually 'evolve' from mute pictures. It began immediately as the graphic expression of actual human speech and has remained so.

Even the earliest Egyptian hieroglyph (a system of writing that uses pictures instead of words, especially as used in ancient Egypt) from around 3400 BC that immortalized a jackal, would have immediately evoked in its reader's mind the Egyptian word for 'jackal'. No single person 'invented' writing. Writing first emerged, in a broad swath from Egypt to the Indus Valley, apparently as a result of improving an ancient system of tallies and labels. A tradesman or official improved a tally or label by pictorially depicting the commodity that was being counted, measured or weighed in order to lessen ambiguity.





Three General Classes of Script

The most basic model of written language acknowledges three general classes of scripts, with many transitional variants and combinations (mixed scripts):

A Logographic Script

A logographic script permits a glyph (an elemental symbol within an agreed set of symbols, intended to represent a readable character for the purposes of writing) to represent a single morpheme (the smallest meaningful linguistic unit, such as the three morphemes in English mean + ing +ful) or an entire word (‘jackal’ as in the early Egyptian hieroglyphic script).

A Syllabic Script

A syllabic script comprises glyphs that have only syllabo-phonetic value (for example, ko-no-so for ‘Knossos’ as in the scripts of the Bronze Age).

An Alphabetic Script

An alphabetic script allows glyphs called ‘letters’ to stand for individual vowels and consonants (a, b, c as in the English alphabet).

Syllabic Systems

Over time, most historical scripts reflect a shift in emphasis of class, whereby the earlier semantic or sense content is gradually superseded by the phonetic or sound content: in this way, logographic systems have tended to become syllabic systems.

Uniqueness of Alphabetic System

In contrast, the alphabetic system has remained unique: once it was developed – beginning in the Levant and completed in Greece – alphabetic writing was subsequently adopted by hundreds of languages. Today, the alphabetic writing system is the only one used to write previously scriptless languages.

Emergence of the Idea of Writing

It is possible that the idea of writing emerged only once in human history, to be imitated thereafter by many societies. Until quite recently, it was believed by most scholars that this emergence occurred solely in Southern Mesopotamia (today’s South-Eastern Iraq).

Writing as a Magical Process

In some cultures written language acquired veneration, as with the Hebrews of Canaan, ancient Germans and Easter Islanders. In such cases the graphic art of writing and not necessarily its transmitted message, was felt to be something apart from everyday existence, a transcendental communication to be practised only by special scribes or priests. Throughout history, the very act of writing has often been deemed a magical process.

Three Writing Systems

The three classes of writing – logographic, syllabic and alphabetic (and their transitional and mixed usages) – are each maximized by a particular language, society and era. Writing systems experience fine-tuning as languages themselves change over time or a neighbouring language’s writing system is borrowed and radically altered to fit a different language.

Not Quality Grades

The three classes are not quality grades, nor are they stages in a model of writing evolution; they are simply different forms of writing which are sometimes used to accommodate new and different needs as they arise. The most common goal is the best graphic reproduction of the writer’s spoken language.

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Changes in Writing Systems

Over centuries and millennia, constant small changes to a writing system will result in enormous differences in a script's written appearance and use. Even after more than 2,000 years, today's Latin alphabet, which has descended from the earliest Egyptian hieroglyphs, is still experiencing, in many different languages simultaneously, the addition of new system-external signs – or, because of new technologies, the semantic expansion of old signs – that each educated reader must learn, such as %, ¥, ™, © and, most recently, the Internet signage @ and //.

Afro-Asiatic Writing

The peoples of Afro-Asia are perhaps the only ones in history to have elaborated writing without external inspiration. Everywhere else in the world, writing served the prerogatives of priests and propagandists, implying a cultural loan to obtain prestige and power.

Asiatic Writing

Perhaps inspired by Western scripts, Chinese writing began in the second millennium BC with simple standardized depictions of objects on bones, bamboo sticks, wooden tablets and very rarely silk, whose names were to be spoken aloud. As a rule, one wrote from top to bottom in columns running from right to left. In time, depictions became more stylized. This allowed faster, more efficient writing. Also, the picture-related writing could be used over a larger area by more speakers, of the same language and of different languages, too.

Mesoamerican Writing

Only a small handful of Native American peoples ever used writing and this was solely in Mesoamerica. Its origin is unknown. Some scholars have claimed an indigenous origin, with the writing as perhaps a 'natural reflex' of the region's attainment to a high level of civilization.

Topic- 010: First Families

Complexity of Human Language

The true history of languages is far more complex than anyone has hitherto imagined. One should be looking through the small end, not the large end, of the funnel to find the world's first families of languages. Yet even then, first is merely a metaphor.

Language Families

Language families are groups of languages that are genetically related, that is, sharing a common ancestor. They display systematic correspondences in form and meaning not attributable to chance or borrowing.

There are three reasons for linguistic similarity: genealogical sharing, areal diffusion and chance typological commonality. It is genealogical sharing alone that justifies family trees. The number and quality of related features will vary according to the amount of time that has passed since divergence from the common ancestor.

The discipline of historical linguistics has provided certain techniques for 'reconstructing' languages (rather than simply inferring the history of languages). The application of these techniques has allowed the distinction of borrowed elements from inherited elements, the evidence of the age of linguistic features, and the identification of shared features from an ancient common source. This process eventually allows a 'classification' of a language or entire language family based on similarities and dissimilarities in words and grammatical elements. There are two kinds of linguistic classification: typological and genetic (or genealogical). A typological classification associates languages on the basis of distinctive features that can be categorized into defined types of linguistic phenomena.

Isolating

Isolating languages are those that tend to have, per word, only one morpheme – a language's smallest meaningful unit, like 'the' or 'book'. Some languages might be isolating, like Mandarin Chinese, which is a root language.

Fusional

However, a language might be fusional instead, where many morphemes can be found in one word but the boundaries between them are unclear. This is so in Latin, which uses various word endings: corpus, which is 'body' in Latin, can also appear as corporis, corpori, and corpore depending on the word's use in a sentence. This is called 'inflection' and fusional languages are also known as inflectional languages.

Agglutinative

A third type of language is agglutinative, in which a word may possibly contain many individual morphemes that can be either free (that is, stand on their own, like English 'drive') or bound (they can never stand alone, like the '-r' in 'driver'). Turkish is an agglutinative language in which, as in all agglutinative languages, word bases and word additions are kept distinct from one another so that all boundaries between morphemes are easily identifiable. Unfortunately, typological classifications such as these cannot provide direct historical information. With typological classification it is the relational, not the substantial similarity between languages that is significant.

Genetic Classification

A genetic classification attempts to connect languages by virtue of their origins and relationships. Related languages are compared with regard to the interrelationships of subgroups and languages within a family, like French and Italian within the Romance language family or Germanic and Romance within the higher level Indo-European family of languages. In this way, genetic classification, particularly when

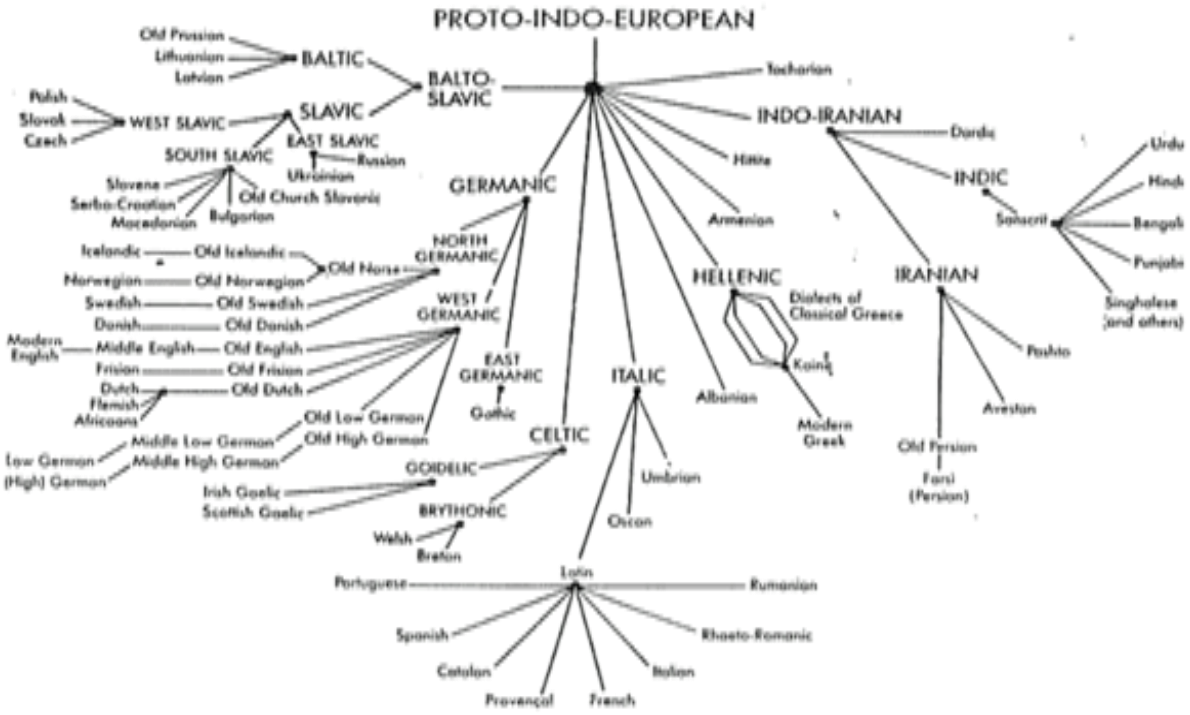
based on grammatical forms and paradigms and not vocabulary, is able to provide direct historical information. For this reason, it is the most productive approach to understanding the more recent history of human language.

No Daughter Language

Some languages, because of unique geographical or technological circumstances, never generate daughter languages, but their speakers increase in population so that a language family comprises a single language, yielding a 'family language.' Geography has allowed Egyptian language to become an example of this and its daughters are merely diachronic (temporal).

Main Language Families

- Afro-Asiatic
- Austronesian
- Indo-European
- Niger-Congo
- Sino-Tibetan
- Trans-New Guinea



Human societies have donned new languages like new cloaks. The linguistic metamorphosis always went unnoticed –until there was writing.

Topic- 011: Towards a Science of Language

'Linguistic science is a step in the self-realization of man', wrote the eminent American linguist Leonard Bloomfield at the beginning of the twentieth century. The step traverses millennia. Long before written language, ancients divined human speech as a special gift of a god, a belief still held by many unrelated cultures. Seriously organized study of language began in India and Greece in the first millennium BC and has continued, in an unbroken and mutually enriching tradition, up to the present day. Latin translations of Greek grammatical terms – noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, adjective, article, transitive, intransitive, inflection, declension, tense, case, gender, subject, object and many more – are still used to describe language in most Western cultures.

Ancient Indian Linguistics

In ancient India, Sanskrit scholars excelled in phonetic (sound) and phonological (system of significant sounds) theory and in aspects of grammatical analysis. At the time, their work was much more scientific – that is, it exhibited the methods and principles of systematized knowledge – than anything of the kind in Europe. But little is known of the origin and early development of ancient Indian linguistics.

Greek Linguistics

In contrast, there is a continuity of development from ancient Greek beginnings to the present day. Greek linguistics passed to Rome. Rome's late Latin grammarians, who studied Latin's classes of words, their inflections and their functions and relations in the sentence, inspired medieval scholars, whose work was reinterpreted by Renaissance grammarians. These then provided the initial foundation for the modern science of language that finally emerged in the nineteenth century.

Consistent Flow in European Linguistics

There is a consistent flow in European linguistics since the earliest Greek speculations on the subject; each generation has enjoyed knowledge of and has profited from, the work of insightful antecedents. For this reason, the history of European linguistics can embody a history of linguistics in general.

World's Earliest Known Linguistic Studies

The world's earliest known linguistic studies were produced in India between around 800 and 150 BC in an attempt to preserve the oral literature of India's much earlier Vedic period. As in the West, Indian scholars have maintained linguistic continuity up to the present day. Indian phonetics and various grammatical topics, including profound treatises on phonology and semantics, up to the eighteenth century surpassed anything the West had achieved. Indian linguists predicated their studies on the observed phenomenon of language change over time. Unlike ancient Greek linguistics, Indian tradition appeared already fully matured, the exquisite culmination of a protracted, but unrecorded, theoretical development.

The First Great Work of Indian Linguistics

The first great work of Indian linguistics was Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī or 'Eight Books' of Sanskrit grammar, the earliest scientific work on any subject in any Indo-European language, written or orally transmitted sometime between 600 and 300 BC. Measured against literary investigation and philosophical speculation, India's early linguists arrived at the cogent insight that language's relation to form and meaning owes more to arbitrary convention (passing along society's custom) than natural mimesis (copying nature's sounds). Their semantic study already viewed word meanings as observational creations, as well as inheritances. India's first linguists took the remarkably modern view that entire sentences could comprise autonomous linguistic units. (Western linguists, long concentrating on the 'word' as language's elementary particle, first achieved this insight in the twentieth century.)

The age-old question of language's form versus substance – that is, actual utterance as opposed to the inherent system of features, categories and rules – had already been anticipated by India's earliest Sanskrit scholars, who developed the theory of the dhvani-sphot relationship. Utterance was the dhvani; permanent linguistic substance, unuttered, was the sphot. The dhvani thus drew from the sphot 'as one draws water from a well'.

Phonetic Description

In phonetics, already by 150 BC, India's linguists had ordered phonetic description into phonological structures, with precise processes of articulation (the act or manner of giving utterance), consonant and vowel segments and segmentational synthesis. From this, it is evident that ancient Indian scholars intuited fully the principles of phonemics Western scholars were able to describe it adequately only in the twentieth century.

Best Known for their Grammatical Analysis

India's linguists are perhaps best known for their grammatical analysis of Sanskrit, especially Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī, though the work fails to fully comprehend what one today understands under 'grammar'. Word formation rules, applied in a strict set in 'aphoristic threads' or sutras, take precedence; in contrast, Sanskrit's phonetic and grammatical description is almost wholly assumed. Pāṇini's grammar not only founded Indian linguistics but also, some 2,300 years later, contributed to the creation of those European comparative and historical language studies which co-authored the modern science of linguistics.

The Romans

During the third and second centuries BC, Greece gradually yielded to Rome's supremacy. Ironically, with Rome's complete takeover of the Hellenistic world by the first century AD, the Greek language did not bow to Latin, but Latin capitulated to Greek. Greek literature comprised educated Rome's model and Greek language was the language of culture itself, just as Latin was to become for the European Middle Ages a millennium later.

As in other intellectual and artistic domains, Roman linguistics was the extension of Greek linguistics. There was no clear separation of thought between Greek and Latin language theories, but a continuation of the same dynamic parameters, a process fostered in part by the relative similarity of the two Indo-European languages.

Varro (116–27 BC)

The prolific polymath Varro (116–27 BC) is the first critical Latin author to treat linguistics whose writings have survived. He discusses lengthily the anomaly-analogy controversy in linguistics, but also provides original insights, not mere imitation of Greek mentors, into the nature and earlier stages of the Latin language. Varro's work, divided into etymology, morphology, and syntax. He distinguished between derived and inflectional formation of words, finding the latter a natural variation but the former an unnatural and more restricted one.

His morphological classification of Latin words was also highly original. Unlike the Greeks, Varro did not simply recognize case and tense as Latin's and Greek's main categories and establish the four classes – according to the way they inflect – of nouns (case inflection), verbs (tense inflection), participles (case and tense), and adverbs (neither case nor tense): he characterised the specific functions of each. Nouns named things. Verbs made statements. Participles joined elements (they shared the former two's syntax) and adverbs supported all these.

The Arab World

The Arab world developed its own unique approach to language and so, avoided Latin grammarians' wholesale adoption of Greek prototypes. The non-Arab Persian Sibawayh of Basra, writing in the eighth century AD, consolidated all Arabic language instruction in his grammatical treatise Al Kitab (The Book). Striking out from a firm foundation of preceding linguistic studies, Sıbawayh defined classical Arabic as it is known today.

China

Though the first Chinese language dictionary was compiled as early as 1100–900 BC, yet Chinese preoccupation with language analysis centred on the most faithful reproduction of the spoken word through syllabo-phonetic glyphs. The influence of Sanskrit linguists is evident in the precise ordering of the rhyme tables' initial syllables according to articulation and other characteristics.
Linguistic investigation during the Latin Middle Ages is characterized principally by its orientation: Church-based, it remained pedagogical. Because spoken and written Latin had survived Rome's collapse as the language of education in all Western countries regardless of local tongue, language study meant the study of Classical Latin grammar, particularly in the early middle Ages.

'Seven Liberal Arts'

Of the 'Seven Liberal Arts' that comprised the education, no fewer than three – grammar, dialectic (logic) and rhetoric – directly involved the study of the Latin language. All Seven Liberal Arts were of course subordinate to theology.

Up to the Nineteenth Century

Classical writers collected data and described Greek and Latin. After the Middle Ages, European scholars studied non-European languages and read the works of non-European linguists and no longer allowed Greek and Latin to dominate linguistic study. Language itself became the object of investigation.

The Nineteenth Century

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, a true science of linguistics began to emerge. The nineteenth century is the era of comparative and historical linguistics – that is, seeking languages' similarities and differences and their historical relationships to one another and developing the scientific vocabulary and tools to achieve this.

Topic- 012: Future Indicatives

What will Earth's Languages be like in Future?

One cannot reliably predict a linguistic future, since so many non-linguistic factors are constantly reshaping a society's language: economic turns, civil insurrections, mass migrations, sudden rise of prestige nations, new technologies, social fads, and many other phenomena.

Possible Linguistic Scenarios

However, reference to past linguistic changes and recognition of present linguistic trends can provide possible linguistic scenarios, at least for the near future. One might also wish to consider the activities of – mainly English-speaking – governmental and corporate strategists who are earnestly expanding their bailiwicks at present, increasing the likelihood of their (English) language prevailing over those languages of non-strategists in the coming decades.

Unprecedented Transformation

Merely drawing analogies to past linguistic changes and dynamics no longer holds unqualified validity. All traditional relations of political, cultural and economic power between Western nations and the rest of the world are in the process of unprecedented transformation. This now appears to be a permanent global feature, which will perhaps create a new world order whose nature and quality are still largely unknown. Not simply change and loss (replacement), as in the past, is currently describing linguistic history, but also expansion of the domain of language to a degree hitherto unprecedented in human society. This is currently reinventing what one means with the word 'language' itself.

Linguistic Atlas Becoming All but Meaningless

New technologies such as programming (computer) languages are elaborating innovative extensions of human speech, allowing a new medium of language to artificially communicate with itself. Language throughout history has meant geographical territory – land. Now, the linguistic atlas has become all but meaningless. Language primarily means technology and wealth, a new borderless world with the only directions up and down, separating the haves from the have-nots. Proficiency in the planet's single 'corporate language' – perhaps ultimately English – will soon define each person's place on Earth . . . and beyond.

Programming Languages

Computers expedite the manipulation of the descriptions of values, properties, and methods in order to provide solutions to particular problems. The result of a programming process is a program for text processing, operating systems, databases, and other computer activities. A programming language can also be used for linguistic research, compiler research, teaching, and other things.

It is a language, which is a 'medium of information exchange', but it is wholly different from all previous forms of language known to humankind, except perhaps written language with its many types and forms of scripts reproducing natural language.

Internet, E-mail and Newsgroups

One of the Internet's most widely used resources is language teaching and learning. This usage promotes and preserves in hitherto unprecedented fashion not only living languages but extinct tongues as well, the most popular being Classical Latin. The Internet cannot replace face-to-face linguistic interaction. However, researchers believe e-mail communication resembles oral communication that makes use of a casual linguistic style which includes colloquialisms and elliptical speech – that is, great economy of expression.

Language Disappearing

Soon all of Earth's languages but a small vestigial number will disappear, leaving one language for all humankind (with its sign language counterpart). With this loss the new global society will simultaneously attain to a degree of communication hitherto unimaginable, with related benefits for all aspects of human activity. For language – in all its myriad forms: chemo communication, 'dance', infrasound, ultrasound, gesture, oral speech, writing, computer language – is the very nexus of Nature and of Nature's communicating creations.

Lesson-03

ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE

Topic- 013: The Divine Source

Throughout the whole human history, one or the other religious sources have claimed to different origin of language. The Biblical tradition states: 'God created Adam and whatsoever Adam called every living creature that was the name thereof.'(The book of Genesis); similarly in Hindu tradition, it is stated 'language came from Sarasvati, wife of Brahma, creator of the universe.' Most religions, appears to have a divine source who provides humans with language. At different times, different religious people have made a few experiments with rather conflicting results. The basic hypothesis: if human infants were allowed to grow up without hearing any language around them, then they would spontaneously begin using the original God-given language. Egyptian pharaoh's experiment revealed that the two children sent to wilderness uttered the Phrygian word bekos, so, the Egyptian pharaoh believed that the divine language was Phrygian. King James, the Fourth of Scotland's experiment (1500) showed that the isolated children started speaking Hebrew. So, Hebrew was thought to be the divine language.

However, very young children living without access to human language in their early years grow up with no language at all. If human language did emanate from a divine source, we have no way of reconstructing that original language especially given the events in a place called Babel, 'because the Lord did there confound the language of all the Earth', as described in the book of Genesis in the Bible (11: 9).

Topic- 014: The Natural Sound Source

The natural sound source concept maintains that primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds which early men and women heard around them. CAW-CAW sound and COO-COO sound were the natural sounds adopted to refer to that kind of objects by the people.

Another theory called 'Bow-wow theory' claims that languages have some words with pronunciations that seem to echo naturally occurring sounds. The sounds of cuckoo, or other sounds such as splash, bang, boom, rattle, buzz, hiss, screech, bow-wow, etc. form the basis of this theory. This is an instance of onomatopoeia. However, this theory does not answer some very obvious questions.

What about the soundless things as well as abstract concepts? We do not believe that language is only a set of words used as 'names' for things. What about the original sounds of language from natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy? Ouch! Ah! Ooh! Wow! or Yuck. Human sounds are made on egressive pulmonic mechanism, while taking the breath out. In ingressive mechanism, expressive noises made in emotional reactions contain sounds that are otherwise not used in speech.

Topic- 015: The Social Interaction Source

'Yo-he-ho' theory claims that sounds of a person involved in physical effort could be the source of our language, especially when that physical effort involved several people and the interaction had to be coordinated. A group of early humans might develop a set of hums, grunts, groans, and curses that were used when they were lifting and carrying large bits of trees or lifeless hairy mammoths.

According to the theory, the development of human language took place in a social context. Early people lived in groups, for better protection from attacks. Groups maintained some form of communication, even if it were just grunts and curses. Human sounds must have had some principled use within the life and social interaction of early human groups. No answer to the question regarding the origins of the sounds produced is given. Apes and other primates live in social groups and use grunts and social calls, but they do not seem to have developed the capacity for speech.

Topic- 016: The Physical Adaptation Source

According to the physical adaptation source, human physical features are distinct from other creatures. Instead of looking at the types of sounds as the source of human speech, we can look at the types of physical features humans possess, especially those that are distinct from other creatures, which may have been able to support speech production. , At some early stage, our ancestors made a very significant transition to an upright posture, with bipedal locomotion, and a revised role for the front limbs. Some effects of this type of change can be seen in physical differences between the skull of a gorilla and that of a Neanderthal man from around 60,000 years ago. The reconstructed vocal tract of a Neanderthal suggests that some consonant-like sound distinctions would have been possible. We have to wait until about 35,000 years ago for features in reconstructions of fossilized skeletal structures that begin to resemble those of modern humans.

In the study of evolutionary development, there are certain physical features, best thought of as partial adaptations, which appear to be relevant for speech. They are streamlined versions of features found in other primates. By themselves, such features would not necessarily lead to speech production, but they are good clues that a creature possessing such features probably has the capacity for speech.

In the study of evolutionary development, certain physical features, best thought of as partial adaptations relevant for speech. Such features are good clues that a creature possessing such features probably has the capacity for speech. Human teeth, lips, mouth, larynx and pharynx are all supportive for producing sounds that humans make. The overall effect of these small differences capable of a wider range of shapes and a more rapid and powerful delivery of sounds produced through these different shapes. However, there is a disadvantage for humans of having a risk of choking to death.

Topic- 017: The Tool-Making Source

One function of producing speech sounds in the physical adaptation view must have been placed over on existing anatomical features (teeth, lips previously used for other purposes (chewing, sucking). It is believed that manual gestures may have been a precursor of language. Two million years ago humans

developed right-handedness and became capable of making stone tools. Wooden tools followed. Tool-making, or the outcome of manipulating objects, and changing them using both hands, is evidence of a brain at work.

The human brain is not only large as compared with human body size, it is also lateralized, that is, it has specialized functions in each of the two hemispheres. There is an evolutionary connection between the language-using and tool-using abilities of humans and both were involved in the development of the speaking brain.

All languages require the organizing and combining of sounds or signs in specific arrangements. Humans seem to have developed a part of their brain that specializes in making these arrangements. If they think in terms of the most basic process involved in primitive tool-making, it is not enough to be able to grasp one rock (make one sound); the humans must also be able to bring another rock (other sounds) into proper contact with the first in order to develop a tool. In terms of language structure, the humans may have first developed a naming ability by producing a specific and consistent noise (e.g., bEEr) for a specific object. The crucial additional step was to bring another specific noise (e.g., gOOd) into combination with the first to build a complex message (bEEr gOOd). Several thousand years of development later, humans have honed this message-building capacity to a point where, on Saturdays, watching a football game, they can drink a sustaining beverage and proclaim 'This tree is good'. As far as we know, other primates are not doing this.

Topic- 018: The Genetic Source

We know that the human baby in its first few years undergoes some of the physical changes. At birth, the baby's brain is only a quarter of its eventual weight and the larynx is much higher in the throat, allowing babies, like chimpanzees, to breathe and drink at the same time. However, in a quite short period of time, the larynx descends, the brain develops, the child assumes an upright posture and starts walking and talking. This almost automatic set of developments and the complexity of the young child's language have led some scholars to look for something more powerful than small physical adaptations of the species over time as the source of language. Even children who are born deaf become fluent sign language users, given appropriate circumstances, very early in life. This seems to indicate that human offspring are born with a special capacity for language. It is innate, no other creature seems to have it, and it isn't tied to a specific variety of language. Is it possible that this language capacity is genetically hard-wired in the newborn human? As a solution to the puzzle of the origins of language, this innateness hypothesis would seem to point to something in human genetics, possibly a crucial mutation, as the source. This would not have been a gradual change, but something that happened rather quickly. We are not sure when this proposed genetic change might have taken place or how it might relate to the physical adaptations described earlier. However, as we consider this hypothesis, we find our speculations about the origins of language moving away from fossil evidence or the physical source of basic human sounds toward analogies with how computers work (e.g., being pre-programmed or hard-wired) and concepts taken from the study of genetics. The investigation of the origins of language then turns into a search for the special 'language gene' that only humans possess. If we are indeed the only creatures with this special capacity for language, then will it be completely impossible for any other creature to produce or understand language?

Lesson-04

CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE

Topic- 019: Characteristics of Human Language

All of us have heard a lot of stories about creatures that can talk. Creatures capable of communicating, certainly with other members of their own species are quite understandable. However, is it possible that a creature could learn to communicate with humans using language? Or does human language have properties that make it so unique that it is quite unlike any other communication system and hence unlearnable by any other creature?

We should first distinguish between specifically communicative signals and those which may be unintentionally informative signals. Someone listening to you may become informed about you through a number of signals that you have not intentionally sent. He may note that you have a cold (you sneezed), that you are not at ease (you shifted around in your seat), that you are disorganized (non-matching socks) and that you are from somewhere else (you have a strange accent). However, when you use language to tell this person, 'I am one of the applicants for the vacant position of senior brain surgeon at the hospital', you are normally considered to be intentionally communicating something. Similarly, the blackbird is not normally taken to be communicating anything by having black feathers, sitting on a branch and looking down at the ground, but is considered to be sending a communicative signal with the loud squawking produced when a cat appears on the scene. So, when we talk about distinctions between human language and animal communication, we are considering both in terms of their potential as a means of intentional communication.

Properties of Human Language

Communication as the primary function of human language is not a distinguishing feature. All creatures communicate in some way. The property of reflexivity (or 'reflexiveness') has five other properties: displacement, arbitrariness, productivity, cultural transmission, and duality.

Topic- 020: Displacement

Animal message is produced according to immediate time and place. Animal communication seems to be designed exclusively for this moment, here and now not far removed in time and place. Humans can refer to past and future time. This property of human language is called displacement. It allows language users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment. Bee communication is a small exception because it seems to have some version of displacement. But it is displacement of a very limited type and lacks the range of possibilities found in human language.

Topic- 021: Arbitrariness

No 'natural' connection between a linguistic form and its meaning exists. The connection is quite arbitrary. This aspect of the relationship between linguistic signs and objects in the world is described as arbitrariness. However, there are some words in language with sounds that seem to 'echo' the sounds of

objects or activities and hence seem to have a less arbitrary connection. For the majority of animal signals, a clear connection appears between the conveyed message and the signal used to convey it. This impression of the non-arbitrariness of animal signaling may be closely connected to the fact that, for any animal, the set of signals used in communication is finite. That is, each variety of animal communication consists of a fixed and limited set of vocal or gestural forms. Many of these forms are only used in specific situations (e.g., establishing territory) and at particular times (e.g., during the mating season).

Topic- 022: Productivity

Humans are continually creating new expressions and novel utterances by using their linguistic resources to describe new objects and situations. This property is described as productivity (or 'creativity' or 'open-endedness') and essentially means that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite. The communication systems of other creatures are not like that. Cicadas have four signals to choose from and vervet monkeys shave thirty-six vocal calls. Nor does it seem possible for creatures to produce new signals to communicate novel experiences or events. The honeybee, normally able to communicate the location of a nectar source to other bees, will fail to do so if the location is really 'new.' In one experiment, a hive of bees was placed at the foot of a radio tower and a food source was placed at the top. Ten bees were taken to the top, given a taste of the delicious food, and sent off to tell the rest of the hive about their find. The message was conveyed via a bee dance and the whole gang buzzed off to get the free food. They flew around in all directions, but could not locate the food. (It is probably one way to make bees really mad.) The problem seems to be that bee communication has a fixed set of signals for communicating location and they all relate to horizontal distance. The bee cannot manipulate its communication system to create a 'new' message indicating vertical distance. According to Karl Von Frisch, 'the bees have no word for up in their language, and they cannot invent one.' This limiting feature of animal communication is described in terms of fixed reference.

Topic- 023: Cultural Transmission

We inherit physical features from our parents not their language. We learn language in a culture from other speakers and not from parental genes. However, animals do inherit communication calls for their parents. Humans are born with some kind of predisposition to acquire language in a general sense. Humans acquire their first language as children in a culture. This process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next is described as cultural transmission. The general pattern in animal communication is that creatures are born with a set of specific signals that are produced instinctively. Human infants, growing up in isolation, produce no 'instinctive' language. Cultural transmission of a specific language is crucial in the human acquisition process. Without any exposure to language, human children produce no language, and many experiments have proved this reality.

Topic- 024: Duality

The property of duality or 'double articulation' is unique to humans. At physical level, we can produce individual sounds, like n, b, i as individual sounds; none of these discrete forms has any intrinsic meaning. However, when we arrange them in a certain order we get a level at which we have meaning too like 'nib'. So, we can say that at one level, we have distinct sounds, and, at another level, we have distinct

meanings. Duality of levels is one of the most economical features of human language. However, animals have a single fixed form for each communicative signal among them. Although the dog may be able to produce woof (‘I’m happy to see you’), it does not seem to do so on the basis of a distinct level of production combining the separate elements of w + oo + f. If the dog was operating with the double level (i.e., duality), then we might expect to hear different combinations with different meanings, such as oowf (‘I’m hungry’) and foow (‘I’m really bored’).

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Lesson-05

FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE

Topic- 025: Functions of Language (Verbal Communication)

Some of our words convey meaning, some convey emotions, and some actually produce actions. What utterances make up our daily verbal communication? What do words convey? Communication can be categorized into three basic types:

- Verbal
- Written
- Nonverbal

What is verbal communication?

Verbal Communication is the sharing of information between individuals by using speech and writing. Language also provides endless opportunities for fun because of its limitless, sometimes nonsensical, and always changing nature. Verbal communication is the use of sounds and words to express, especially in contrast to using gestures or mannerisms (non-verbal communication).

Language also provides endless opportunities for fun because of its limitless, sometimes nonsensical, and always changing nature. In this section, five functions of language have been discussed, which show us that language is expressive, language is powerful, language is fun, language is dynamic, and language is relational.

Topic- 026: Language is Expressive

Verbal communication helps us meet various needs through our ability to express ourselves. In terms of instrumental needs, we use verbal communication to ask questions that provide us with specific information. We also use verbal communication to describe things, people, and ideas. Verbal communication helps us inform, persuade, and entertain others. These are the three general purposes of public speaking. It is also through our verbal expressions that our personal relationships are formed. At its essence, language is expressive.

Expressing Observations

When we express observations, we report on the sensory information we are taking or have taken in. Eyewitness testimony is a good example of communicating observations. Witnesses are not supposed to make judgments or offer conclusions; they only communicate factual knowledge as they experienced it. For example, a witness could say, ‘I saw a white Mitsubishi Eclipse leaving my neighbour’s house at 10:30 pm.’ When you are trying to make sense of an experience, expressing observations in a descriptive rather than evaluative way can lessen defensiveness, which facilitates competent communication.

Expressing Thoughts

When we express thoughts, we draw conclusions based on what we have experienced. In the perception process, this is similar to the interpretation step. We take various observations and evaluate and interpret them to assign them meaning or a conclusion. While our observations are based on sensory information (what we saw, what we read, what we heard), thoughts are connected to our beliefs (what we think is true/false), attitudes (what we like and dislike), and values (what we think is right/wrong or good/bad). Sometimes people intentionally or unintentionally express thoughts as if they were feelings. For example, when people say, 'I feel like you are too strict with your attendance policy,' they are not really expressing a feeling; they are expressing a judgment about the other person (a thought).

Expressing Feelings

When we express feelings, we communicate our emotions. Expressing feelings is a difficult part of verbal communication, because there are many social norms about how, why, when, where, and to whom we express our emotions. Norms for emotional expression also vary based on nationality and other cultural identities and characteristics such as age and gender. In terms of age, young children are typically freer to express positive and negative emotions in public. Gendered elements intersect with age as boys grow older and are socialized into a norm of emotional restraint. Although individual men vary in the degree to which they are emotionally expressive, yet a prevailing social norm expects women to be more emotionally expressive than men.

In order to express our emotions in words, it is important that we develop an emotional vocabulary. The more specific we can be when we are verbally communicating our emotions, the less ambiguous our emotions will be for the person decoding our message.

Expressing Needs

When we express needs, we are communicating in an instrumental way to help us get things done. Since we almost always know our needs more than others do, it is important for us to be able to convey those needs to others. Expressing needs can help us get a project done at work or help us navigate the changes of a long-term romantic partnership. If we do not express our needs, it can lead to feelings of abandonment, frustration, or resentment.

Type	Description	Example
Observation	Report of sensory experiences or memories	'Boss asked me to bring this file to you.'
Thought	Conclusion about or judgment of experiences and observations	'Students today have much less respect for authority.'
Feeling	Communicating emotions	'I feel at peace when we're together.'
Needs	Expressing needs	'I'm saving money for summer vacation. Is it OK if we skip our regular Weekend out this week?'

Topic- 027: Language is Powerful

The contemporary American philosopher David Abram wrote, 'Only if words are felt, bodily presences, like echoes or waterfalls, can we understand the power of spoken language to influence, alter, and transform the perceptual world.' This statement encapsulates many of the powerful features of language.

Language Expresses Our Identities

Words or phrases that express 'who we are' contribute to the impressions that others make of us. We all use verbal communication strategically to create a desired impression. The power of language to express our identities varies depending on the origin of the label (self-chosen or other imposed) and the context. People are usually comfortable with the language they use to describe their own identities but may have issues with the labels others place on them. There are many examples of people who have taken a label that was imposed on them, one that usually has negative connotations, and intentionally used it in ways that counter previous meanings. Other examples of people reclaiming identity labels is the 'black is beautiful' movement of the 1960s that repositioned black as a positive identity marker for African Americans. Even though some people embrace reclaimed words, they still carry their negative connotations and are not openly accepted by everyone.

Language Affects Our Credibility

People make assumptions about your credibility based on how you speak and what you say. Even though we have learned that meaning is in people rather than words, the rules that govern verbal communication, like rules of grammar, are arbitrary; these norms still mean something. You do not have to be a perfect grammarian to be perceived as credible. However, you still have to support your ideas and explain the conclusions you make to be seen as competent. You have to use language clearly and be accountable for what you say in order to be seen as trustworthy.

Politicians know that the way they speak affects their credibility, but they also know that using words that are too scientific or academic can lead people to perceive them as eggheads, which would hurt their credibility. Politicians and many others in leadership positions need to be able to use language to put people at ease, relate to others, and still appear confident and competent.

Topic- 028: Language as a Means of Control

The word 'control' has negative connotations, but the way it is used can be positive, neutral, or negative. Verbal communication can be used to reward and punish. We can offer verbal communication in the form of positive reinforcement to praise someone. We can withhold verbal communication or use it in a critical, aggressive, or hurtful way as a form of negative reinforcement. Directives are utterances that try to get another person to do something. They can range from a rather polite request to a more forceful command or insistence.

Context informs when and how we express directives and how people respond to them. Promises are often paired with directives in order to persuade people to comply, and those promises, whether implied or stated, should be kept in order to be an ethical communicator. Keep this in mind to avoid arousing false expectations on the part of the other person. Rather than verbal communication being directed at one person as a means of control, the way we talk creates overall climates of communication that may control many. Verbal communication characterized by empathy, understanding, respect, and honesty creates open climates that lead to more collaboration and more information exchange. Verbal communication that is controlling, deceitful, and vague creates a closed climate where people are less willing to communicate and less trusting.

Topic- 029: Language is Performative

Some language is actually more like an action than a piece of information. Saying, 'I promise,', 'I guarantee' or 'I pledge' does more than conveying meaning; it also communicates intent. Such utterances are called commissives, as they mean that a speaker is committed to a certain course of action. Of course, promises can be broken, and there can be consequences, but other verbal communication is granted official power that can guarantee action. The two simple words 'I do' can mean that a person has agreed to an oath before taking a witness stand. It can also mean that two people are now bound in a relationship recognized by the government and/or a religious community. These two words, if said in the right context and in front of the right person, such as a judge or a reverend, bring with them obligations that cannot be undone without additional steps and potential negative repercussions. In that sense, language is much more than 'mere words'.

Performative language can also be a means of control, especially in legal contexts. In some cases, the language that makes laws is intentionally vague. In courts all over the nation, the written language intersects with spoken language as lawyers advocate for particular interpretations of the written law. The utterances of judges and juries set precedents for reasonable interpretations that will then help decide future cases.

Language is Fun

Writers, poets, and comedians have built careers on their ability to have fun with language and in turn share that fun with others. The productivity and limitlessness of language lead some people to spend an inordinate amount of time discovering things about words. Using humour also draws attention to us, and the reactions that we get from others, feeds into our self-concept. We also use humour to disclose information about ourselves that we might not feel comfortable revealing in a more straightforward way. Humour can also be used to express sexual interest or to cope with bad news or bad situations.

Topic- 030: Language: A Dynamic and Relational Entity

Language is essentially limitless. We may create a one-of-a-kind sentence combining words in new ways and never know it. Aside from the endless structural possibilities, words change meaning, and new words are created daily.

Neologisms are newly coined or used words. Newly coined words are those that were just brought into linguistic existence. Newly used words make their way into languages in several ways, including borrowing and changing structure. Taking is actually a more fitting descriptor than borrowing, since we take words but do not really give them back. In any case, borrowing is the primary means through which languages expand.

Structural changes also lead to new words. Compound words are neologisms that are created by joining two already known words. Keyboard, newspaper, and gift card are all compound words that were formed when new things were created or conceived. We also create new words by adding something, subtracting something, or blending the words together. For example, we can add affixes, meaning a prefix or suffix, to a word. Affixing usually alters the original meaning but does not completely change it. Ex-husband and kitchenette are relatively recent examples of such changes. New words are also formed when clipping a word like examination, which creates a new word exam that retains the same meaning.

Slang is a great example of the dynamic nature of language. Slang refers to new or adapted words that are specific to a group, context, and/or time period, regarded as less formal, and representative of people's creative play with language. Research has shown that only about 10 percent of the slang terms that emerge over a fifteen-year period are able to survive. Many more take their place though, as new slang words are created using inversion, reduction, or old-fashioned creativity.

Inversion is a form of word play that produces slang words like sick, wicked, and bad that refer to the opposite of their typical meaning. The process of 'Reduction' creates slang words such as pic, sec, and later from picture, second, and see you later. New slang words often represent what is edgy, current, or simply relevant to the daily lives of a group of people.

Language is Relational

We use verbal communication to initiate, maintain, and terminate our interpersonal relationships. The first few exchanges with a potential romantic partner or friend help us size the other person up and figure out if we want to pursue a relationship or not. We then use verbal communication to remind others how we feel about them and to check in with them, engaging in relationship maintenance through language use. When negative feelings arrive and persist or for many other reasons we often use verbal communication to end a relationship.

Language Can Bring Us Together

Interpersonally, verbal communication is the key to bring people together and maintaining relationships. Whether intentionally or unintentionally, our use of words like I, you, we, our, and us affects our relationships. We language includes the words we, our, and us, and can be used to promote a feeling of inclusiveness. 'I language' can be useful when expressing thoughts, needs, and feelings because it leads us to 'own' our expressions and avoid the tendency to mistakenly attribute the cause of our thoughts, needs, and feelings to others. Communicating emotions using 'I language' may also facilitate emotion sharing by not making our conversational partner feel at fault or defensive.

Language Can Separate Us

Whether its criticism, teasing, or language differences, verbal communication can also lead to feelings of separation. Language differences alone do not present impossible barriers. We can learn other languages with time and effort, there are other people who can translate and serve as bridges across languages, and we can also communicate quite a lot nonverbally in the absence of linguistic compatibility. People who speak the same language can intentionally use language to separate. The words us and them can be a powerful start to separation.

Lesson-06

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND LINGUISTICS

Topic- 031: Aspects of Nonverbal Communication

Humans relied on nonverbal communication for thousands of years before the capability to communicate with words was developed. Nonverbal communication is a process of generating meaning using behavior other than words. Nonverbal communication is not opposite to verbal communication but there are important differences between them. In terms of content, nonverbal communication tends to do the work of communicating emotions more than verbal. In terms of composition, although there are rules of grammar that structure our verbal communication, no such official guides govern our use of nonverbal signals. No dictionaries and thesauruses are available for nonverbal communication. All five of our senses convey nonverbal communication. Verbal and nonverbal communications include both vocal and non-vocal elements as mentioned in the table below.

	Verbal communication	**Nonverbal Communication**
Vocal	Spoken words	Paralanguage (pitch, volume, speaking rate, etc.)
Non-vocal	Writing, sign language	Body language (gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, etc.)

Paralanguage is a vocal element of nonverbal communication, which is the vocalized but not verbal part of spoken message, such as speaking rate, volume, and pitch. Non-vocal elements of verbal communication include the use of unspoken symbols to convey meaning.

Topic- 032: Principles of Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication has a distinct history and serves separate evolutionary functions from verbal communication. Nonverbal communication is primarily biologically based while verbal communication is primarily culturally based. The fact that some nonverbal communication messages have the same meaning across cultures endorses the same, while no verbal communication systems share that same universal recognizability. Nonverbal communication also evolved earlier than verbal communication and served an early and important survival function that helped humans later develop verbal communication. While some of our nonverbal communication abilities, like our sense of smell, lost strength as our verbal capacities increased, other abilities like paralanguage and movement have grown alongside verbal complexity. The fact that nonverbal communication is processed by an older part of our brain makes it more instinctual and involuntary than verbal communication. Nonverbal communication is interpersonal, conveys emotional messages and is more involuntary than verbal. It is more ambiguous and more credible.

Topic- 033: Conveyance of Interpersonal and Emotional Messages

It is believed that more meaning is generated from nonverbal communication than from verbal. Some studies have claimed that 60-90 percent of our meaning is derived from nonverbal signals, but more recent and reliable findings claim that it is closer to 65 percent. We may rely more on nonverbal signals in situations where verbal and nonverbal messages conflict and in situations where emotional or relational communication is taking place. When someone asks a question and we are not sure about the 'angle' they are taking, we may hone in on nonverbal cues to fill in the meaning. A question like 'What are you doing tonight?' could mean any number of things, but we could rely on posture, tone of voice, and eye contact to see if the person is just curious, suspicious, or hinting that they would like company for the evening. We also put more weight on nonverbal communication when determining a person's credibility. For example, if a classmate delivers a speech in class and her verbal content seems well-researched and unbiased, but her nonverbal communication is poor (her voice is monotone, she avoids eye contact, she fidgets), she will likely not be viewed as credible.

On the contrary, in some situations, verbal communication might carry more meaning than nonverbal. In interactions where information exchange is the focus, at a briefing at work, for example, verbal communication probably accounts for much more of the meaning generated. Despite this exception, a key principle of nonverbal communication is that it often takes on more meaning in interpersonal and/or emotional exchanges.

Topic- 034: More Involuntary than Verbal

There are some instances in which we verbally communicate involuntarily. These types of exclamations are often verbal responses to a surprising stimulus. For example, we say 'owww!' when we stub our toe or scream 'stop!' when we see someone heading toward danger. Involuntary nonverbal signals are much more common, and although most nonverbal communication is not completely involuntary, it is more below our consciousness than verbal communication, and therefore, more difficult to control.

The involuntary nature of much nonverbal communication makes it more difficult to control or 'fake'. For example, although you can consciously smile a little and shake hands with someone when you first see them, it is difficult to fake that you are 'happy' to meet someone. Nonverbal communication leaks out in ways that expose our underlying thoughts or feelings. Spokespersons, lawyers, or other public representatives who are the 'face' of a politician, celebrity, corporation, or organization must learn to control their facial expressions and other nonverbal communication, so that they can effectively convey the message of their employer or client without having their personal thoughts and feelings leak through. Therapists, police officers, doctors, teachers, and actors are also in professions that often require them to have more awareness of and control over their nonverbal communication.

Have you ever tried to conceal your surprise, suppress your anger, or act joyful even when you were not? Most people whose careers do not involve conscious manipulation of nonverbal signals find it difficult to control or suppress them. While we can consciously decide to stop sending verbal messages, our nonverbal communication always has the potential of generating meaning for another person. The

teenager who decides to shut out his dad and not communicate with him still sends a message with his 'blank' stare (still a facial expression) and lack of movement (still a gesture). In this sense, nonverbal communication is 'irrepressible'.

Topic- 035: More Ambiguous

The symbolic and abstract nature of language can lead to misunderstandings, but nonverbal communication is even more ambiguous. As with verbal communication, most of our nonverbal signals can be linked to multiple meanings, but unlike words, many nonverbal signals do not have any one specific meaning. If you have ever had someone wink at you and did not know why, you have probably experienced this uncertainty. Did they wink to express their affection for you, their pleasure with something you just did, or because you share some inside knowledge or joke?

Just as we look at context clues in a sentence or paragraph to derive meaning from a particular word, we can look for context clues in various sources of information like the physical environment, other nonverbal signals, or verbal communication to make sense of a particular nonverbal cue. Unlike verbal communication, however, nonverbal communication does not have explicit rules of grammar that bring structure, order, and agreed-on patterns of usage. Instead, we implicitly learn norms of nonverbal communication, which leads to greater alteration. In general, we exhibit more idiosyncrasies in our usage of nonverbal communication than we do with verbal communication, which also increases the ambiguity of nonverbal communication.

Topic- 036: More Credible

Although we can rely on verbal communication to fill in the blanks sometimes left by nonverbal expressions, we often put more trust into what people do over what they say. This is especially true in times of stress or danger when our behaviours become more instinctual, and we rely on older systems of thinking and acting that evolved before our ability to speak and write.

This innateness creates intuitive feelings about the genuineness of nonverbal communication, and this genuineness relates back to our earlier discussion about sometimes involuntary and often subconscious nature of nonverbal communication. An example of the innateness of nonverbal signals can be found in children who have been blind since birth but still exhibit the same facial expressions as other children. In short, the involuntary or subconscious nature of nonverbal communication makes it difficult to fake; therefore, it seems more honest and credible.

Lesson-07

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND SEMIOSIS

Topic- 037: Types of Nonverbal Communication

Just as verbal language is broken up into various categories, there are also different types of nonverbal communication. While learn about each type of nonverbal signal, you should keep in mind that nonverbal gestures often work in concert with each other, combining to repeat, modify, or contradict the verbal message being sent. We use different **c**hannels simultaneously; we can also increase our nonverbal communication competence by becoming more aware of how it operates in specific channels. Although no one can truly offer you a rulebook on how to send every type of nonverbal signal effectively, yet several nonverbal materials are written from more anecdotal and less academic perspectives.

Topic- 038: Kinesics

Kinesics refers to body movements and postures and includes the following components:

Gestures are arm and hand movements and include adaptors like clicking a pen or scratching your face, emblems like a thumbs-up to say 'OK' and illustrators like bouncing your hand along with the rhythm of your speaking. Head movements and posture include the orientation of movements of our head and the orientation and positioning of our body and the various meanings they send. Head movements such as nodding can indicate agreement, disagreement, and interest, among other things. Posture can indicate assertiveness, defensiveness, interest, readiness, or intimidation, among other things.

Eye contact is studied under the category of oculesics and specifically refers to eye contact with another person's face, head, and eyes and the patterns of looking away and back at the other person during interaction. Eye contact provides turn-taking signals, signals when we are engaged in cognitive activity, and helps establish rapport and connection, among other things. Facial expressions refer to the use of the forehead, brow, and facial muscles around the nose and mouth to convey meaning. Facial expressions can convey happiness, sadness, fear, anger, and other emotions.

Topic- 039: Haptics

Haptics refers to touch behaviors that convey meaning during interactions. Touch operates at many levels, including functional, professional, social-polite, friendship-warmth, and love-intimacy. The touch has the power to comfort someone in the moment of sorrow when words alone cannot. This positive power of touch is countered by the potential of touch to be threatening because of its connection to sex and violence. We probably get more explicit advice and instruction on how to use touch than any other form of nonverbal communication.

A lack of nonverbal communication competence related to touch could have negative interpersonal consequences; for example, if we do not follow the advice we have been given about the importance of a firm handshake, a person might make negative judgments about our confidence or credibility. A lack of competence could have more horrible negative consequences including legal

punishment in case of touching someone inappropriately (intentionally or unintentionally). Touch is necessary for human social development, and it can be welcoming, threatening, or persuasive.

Of course, touch is also important at levels that are more intimate. At the friendship warmth level, touch is more important and more ambiguous than at the social polite level. At this level, touch interactions are important because they serve a relational maintenance purpose and communicate closeness, liking, care, and concern. The types of touching at this level also vary greatly from more formal and ritualized to more intimate, which means friends must sometimes negotiate their own comfort level with various types of touch and may encounter some ambiguity if their preferences do not match up with their relational partner's. In a friendship, for example, too much touch can signal sexual or romantic interest, whereas, too little touch can signal distance or unfriendliness. At the love-intimacy level, touch is more personal and is typically only exchanged between significant others, such as best friends, close family members, and romantic partners. Touching faces, holding hands, and full frontal embraces are examples of touch at this level. Touch is also used in many other contexts—for example, during play (e.g., arm-wrestling), during physical conflict (e.g., slapping), and during conversations (e.g., to get someone's attention).

Topic- 040: Vocalics

Vocalics refers to the vocalized but not verbal aspects of nonverbal communication, including our speaking rate, pitch, volume, tone of voice, and vocal quality. Paralanguage refers to the vocalized but nonverbal parts of a message. Pitch helps convey meaning, regulate conversational flow, and communicate the intensity of a message. Even babies recognize a sentence with a higher pitched ending as a question. We also learn that greetings have rising emphasis and farewells have falling emphasis. Of course, no one ever tells us these things explicitly; we learn them through observation and practice. We do not pick up on some more subtle and/or complex patterns of paralanguage involving pitch until we are older. Children, for example, have a difficult time perceiving sarcasm, which is usually conveyed through paralinguistic characteristics like pitch and tone rather than the actual words being spoken.

Verbal fillers are often used in oral communication. Some aspects of verbal fillers are as follows:

- Affect communication negatively
- Reduce credibility and clarity
- Less persuasiveness

Become a higher self-monitor to eliminate verbal fillers. Volume can help you achieve communication goals related to maintaining attention, effectively conveying information, and getting others to act in a particular way. Vocal variety increases listener and speaker engagement, understanding, information recall, and motivation.

The following is a review of the various communicative functions of vocalics:

- **Repetition:** Vocalic cues reinforce other verbal and nonverbal cues (e.g., saying 'I'm not sure' with an uncertain tone).

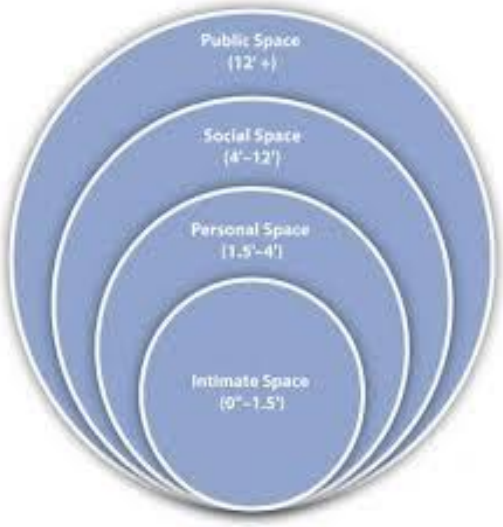
- **Complementing:** Vocalic cues elaborate on or modify verbal and nonverbal meaning (e.g., the pitch and volume used to say 'I love sweet potatoes' would add context to the meaning of the sentence, such as the degree to which the person loves sweet potatoes or the use of sarcasm).
- **Substituting:** Vocalic cues can take the place of other verbal or nonverbal cues (e.g., saying 'uh huh' instead of 'I am listening and understanding what you are saying').
- **Regulating:** Vocalic cues help regulate the flow of conversations (e.g., falling pitch and slowing rate of speaking usually indicate the end of a speaking turn).
- **Contradicting:** Vocalic cues may contradict other verbal or nonverbal signals (e.g., a person could say 'I'm fine' in a quick, short tone that indicates otherwise).

Topic- 041: Proxemics

Proxemics is the study of human use of space and the effects that population density has on behaviour, communication, and social interaction. Proxemics refers to the study of how space and distance influence communication. We only need to look at the ways in which space shows up in common metaphors to see that space, communication, and relationships are closely related. For example, when we are content with and attracted to someone, we say we are 'close' to him or her. When we lose connection with someone, we may say he or she is 'distant'. In general, space influences how people communicate and behave. Smaller spaces with a higher density of people often lead to breaches of our personal space bubbles. If this is a setting in which this type of density is expected beforehand, like at a crowded concert or on a train during rush hour, then we make various communicative adjustments to manage the space issue.

Four zones of personal space are:

- Intimate distance
- Personal distance
- Social distance
- Public distance



Proxemics also studies territoriality, or how people take up and defend personal space. People have to decide how much value they want their marker to have. Obviously, leaving a laptop on a table indicates that the table is occupied, but it could also lead to the laptop getting stolen. A pencil, on the other hand, could just be moved out of the way and the space usurped.

Topic- 042: Chronemics

Chronemics is the study of how time affects communication and includes how different time cycles affect our communication. Time can be classified into several different categories, including biological, personal, physical, and cultural time. Biological time refers to the rhythms of living things. Humans follow a circadian rhythm, meaning that we are on a daily cycle that influences when we eat, sleep, and wake. When our natural rhythms are disturbed, by all-nighters, jet lag, or other scheduling abnormalities, our physical and mental health, our communication competence and personal relationships can suffer. Keep biological time in mind as you communicate with others. Remember that early morning conversations and speeches may require more preparation to get yourself awake enough to communicate well and a more patient or energetic delivery to accommodate others who may still be getting warmed up for their day.

Additionally, the way we use time depends in some ways on our status. For example, doctors can make their patients wait for extended periods of time, and executives and celebrities may run consistently behind schedule, making others wait for them. Promptness and the amount of time that is socially acceptable for lateness and waiting vary among individuals and contexts. Chronemics also covers the amount of time we spend talking. We have already learned that conversational turns and turn taking patterns are influenced by social norms and help the progress of our conversations. We all know how annoying it can be when a person dominates a conversation or when we cannot get a person to contribute anything.

A monochronic time system means that things are done one at a time and time is segmented into precise, small units. Under this system, time is scheduled, arranged and managed. A polychronic time system is a system where several things can be done at once, and wider view of time is exhibited and time is perceived in large fluid sections.

Monochronic people	Polychronic people
Do one thing at a time	Do many things at once
Concentrate on a task set before them	Concentrate on an event happening around them
Consider time commitments (deadlines, schedules) seriously	Consider objectives (goals, results) seriously
Are low-context and need information	Are high-context and already have information
Are committed to the job and end results	Are committed to people and relationships
Dedicate themselves to plans	Change plans often and easily
Are more concerned with privacy and individual ownership	Are more concerned with community and shared connections
Emphasize prompt time recognition, regardless of relationship or circumstances	Emphasize response based on nature of relationship and circumstances
Have strong tendency to build temporary, practical relationships	Have strong tendency to build lifetime, familial relationships

Lateness or promptness can send messages about our professionalism, dependability, or other personality traits. Formal time usually applies to professional situations in which we are expected to be on time or even a few minutes early. Quality time is an important part of interpersonal relationships.

Lesson-08

ANIMAL VS. HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Topic- 043: Introduction: Animal vs. Human Communication

If someone asked you what separates humans from other animals, one of the first things that would probably come to mind is language. Language is so fundamental to human life that it is hard to imagine what life would be like without it. Barnett highlights the inseparability of language from man when he says, 'verbal communication is a condition of the existence of human society.' But at the same time, other animals also communicate: Your cat may let you know when its hungry, ants use pheromones and sound to indicate social status and distress, bees dance to tell one another where to find honey, and chimpanzees can learn sign language.

In the 1960s, linguistic anthropologist Charles F. Hockett defined a set of features that characterizes human language and sets it apart from animal communication. He called these characteristics the design features of language. Every communication system has some of the 13 design features. Only human spoken language has all 13 features.

All 13 features of human spoken language have been provided in the following table:

1	Vocal-Auditory Channel	8	Arbitrariness
2	Broadcast transmission and directional reception	9	Discreteness
3	Rapid Fading(Transmission)	10	Displacement
4	Total Feedback	11	Productivity
5	Interchangeability	12	Traditional Transmission
6	Specialization	13	Duality of Patterning
7	Semanticity		

While primate communication utilizes the first 9 features, the final 4 features (displacement, productivity, cultural transmission, and duality) are reserved for humans. Gibbons relatively close to man possess the first nine design features but are devoid of the last four.

- Displacement
- Productivity
- Traditional transmission
- Duality of patterning

Hockett later added prevarication, reflexiveness, and learnability to the list as uniquely human characteristics making the list up to 16 features. He asserted that even the most basic human languages possess these 16 features. The last seven features are set human language apart from all other forms of communication. Features of human language:

Displacement

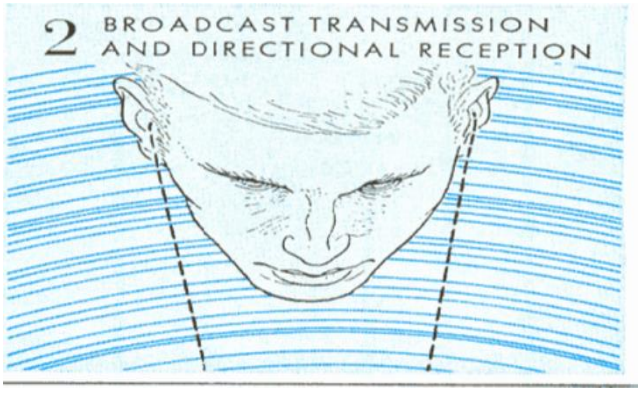
Prevarication

3. Productivity
4. Traditional transmission
5. Learnability
6. Reflexiveness
7. Learnability

So, when we think of language as a way of setting ourselves apart, what is it about our language that is different than how other animals communicate? Hockett believes that if a system lacks even one feature, it is communication not language.

Topic- 044: Broadcast Transmission and Directional Reception

Message goes out in all directions; receiver can tell what direction message comes from. (Sign language uses line-of-sight transmission instead.) When humans speak, sounds are transmitted in all directions; however, listeners perceive the direction from which the sounds are coming. Similarly, signers broadcast to potentially anyone within the line of sight, while those watching see who is signing. This is the characteristic of most forms of human and animal communication.



This refers to the fact that the human language signal is sent out in all directions, while it is perceived in a limited direction (Hyde). To understand this feature of language, visualize a person standing in the middle of a room and people standing against the wall, forming a circle around him. As the person standing in the middle of the room speaks, his voice carries in all directions around the room, and everyone can hear him, assuming he speaks loud enough. However, the people standing in front of him will have an easier time understanding what he is saying in comparison to the people standing behind him. This has to do with binaural reception, which makes it possible to determine the location of the source of sounds (Salzmann).

This means that the human language signal is sent out in all directions, while it is perceived in a limited direction. For spoken language, the sound perpetuates as a waveform that expands from the point of origin (the mouth) in all directions. This is why a person can stand in the middle of a room and be heard by everyone (assuming they are speaking loudly enough). Language signals (i.e., speech sounds) are emitted as waveforms, which are projected in all directions (broadcasted into auditory space), but are

perceived (by receiving listeners) as emanating from a particular direction, and point of origin (the vocalizing speaker).

Topic- 045: Creativity/ Novelty/ Prevarication

Creativity

Another distinctive feature is creativity. Human beings use their linguistic resources to produce new expressions and sentences. They arrange and rearrange phonemes, morphemes, words, and phrases in a way that can express an infinite number of ideas. This is also called the open-endedness of language. Animal communication is a closed system. It cannot produce new signals to communicate novel events or experiences. Novel utterances can be made and understood. New words can be invented easily. This is the ability to reform discrete units to form new signals, (such as words.) For example, we make new words out of small units, or rearrange words to make sentences.

Human language can arrange words into an infinite number of ideas, sometimes referred to as discrete infinity. It refers to the idea that language-users can create and understand novel utterances. Humans are able to produce an unlimited number of utterances. The concept of grammatical patterning is also related to productivity, which facilitates the use and comprehension of language. Language is not stagnant, but is constantly changing. New idioms are created all the time; the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation.

Language is productive in two senses. First of all, there are mathematical properties which allow it 'to make infinite use of finite means' (Chomsky, 1996, p. 8). Dual structure, structure dependence, and grammatical operations such as recursion and coordination mean that the setoff possible sentences in a language are infinite. It is always possible to insert or add on another bit.

Things are said which have never been said before. This first kind of productivity, however, does not create new units or break rules for their combination. Another kind of productivity in language, however, is the capacity to create new items and new ways of combining them, to be, in other words, creative (Carter, 2004). People often depart from the rules creatively – to be poetic or humorous, or to assert identity. This is most easily seen at the lexical level in the coinage of new words. Lewis Carroll's famous poem 'Jabberwocky', for example, used the invented words 'chortle' and 'galumph', which are now part of the language. Advertisements are full of such playfulness. An advert for the motoring organization the R.A.C., for example, uses its name as a verb: 'We'll R.A.C. to it'.

Language is an open system. We can produce potentially an infinite number of different messages by combining the elements differently. This is not a feature of animal communication, for example, the calls of gibbons have a finite number, and thus a closed system of communication.

Prevarication

Prevarication is the ability to lie or deceive. When using language, humans can make false or meaningless statements. Language is used to convey information about states of affairs and states of

mind. Yet, as we all know, these are not necessarily true. Language can just as easily be used to withhold information, or to give false information – to prevaricate – and deception is as universal as language itself. Some theorists have gone so far as to suggest that this capacity for deception is at the heart of the development of language both for the species and for individuals. Roger Brown (1973), a leading researcher in child language, pointed out that children are frequently told off for telling untruths but rarely corrected for their grammar. Nevertheless, they all grow up to speak grammatically and tell lies. Robin Dunbar (1996) has suggested that the origins of language may be less to do with its capacity to convey information, and more with its ability to form competing social networks, in which trust and deception are key factors.

Novelty

Language is not stagnant, but constantly changing. New idioms are created all the time and the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation. While the unique design features of language have their effectiveness, language also makes human communication and social relationships problematic. Another unique feature of language is prevarication; a person has the ability to say things that are completely false, a deception that is not common among other animals (Salzmann). By the time children turn three-years-old, about 70% of them are capable of lying. Then, by age four, their rate of lying will peak when they are told not to lie. Young children lie about their actions, but not about their feelings. At age ten, their lying is more sophisticated, and cheating becomes more common (lying).

People lie mainly to dodge trouble, to make themselves look good, or to avoid discomfort to others; it is a means of preserving social relations. Think about the role of 'white' lies: people compliment friends or family members on their inedible cooking, praise colleagues' weak and disorganized first drafts, and a doctor may tell a depressed patient he has a 50-50 chance of a long-term recovery when s/he is confident he will only live another eight months. While at times these lies may seem harmless, these situations are where one can see how language can change one's life. Lying is morally wrong, but perfect honesty may seem second best next to compassion, respect, and justice in certain situations. However, lying corrupts a human being's ability to make free, rational choices, and robs people of their human dignity and autonomy. Thus, lies rob people of their freedom to choose rationally.

Topic- 046: Discreteness

Symbols are made by combining smaller symbols that differ discontinuously (e.g., 'bin', 'pin'). Linguistic representations can be broken down into small discrete units, which combine with each other in rule-governed ways. They are perceived categorically, not continuously. For example, English marks number with the plural morpheme /s/, which can be added to the end of any noun. The plural morpheme is perceived categorically, not continuously: we cannot express smaller or larger quantities by varying how loudly we pronounce the /s/. The communication system is made of discrete units, which can be broken apart to form new signals. For example, our sentences are made of words; our words are formed from syllables, stems, and even the units of letters. Each can be broken apart. Discreteness is a requirement for the ninth design feature productivity, but note that just because a system has discrete units does not mean that these units can be broken up to form new units.

(Another note is that languages that might not seem to be discrete, such as Chinese, actually are. For example, Chinese symbols are usually composed of two symbols, which can be broken apart and re-arranged.)

Language uses discrete signs. They are either one thing or another. A sound is perceived as one phoneme or another; there are no intermediate cases. (Though one could create a continuum of sounds between, say, /b/ and /p/, a speaker of a language with this distinction would perceive a sound along that continuum as one or the other.) Words, composed of phonemes, inherit this absolute quality of their components: a word is either 'bat' or 'pat' or another word but there are no intermediate cases.

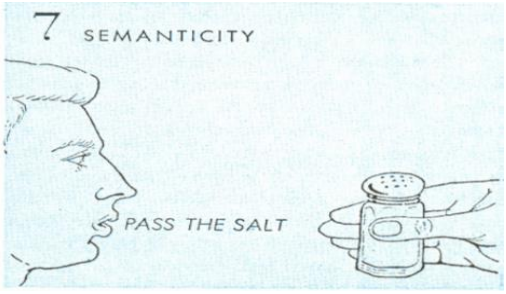
Many acts of non-verbal communication, on the other hand, are graded. If, for example, I smile at you while speaking, squeeze your hand, or laugh, I may increase or decrease the breadth of my smile, the strength of my squeeze, or the loudness of my laugh, thus signifying more or less of whatever I mean by these actions. Discreteness means the basic units of speech can be categorized as belonging to distinct categories. Language can be said to be built up from discrete units (e.g., phonemes in human language). Exchanging such discrete units causes a change in the meaning of a signal. This is an abrupt change, rather than a continuous change of meaning (e.g., 'cat' doesn't gradually change in meaning to 'bat', but changes abruptly in meaning at some point. Speech loudness and pitch can, on the other hand, be changed continuously without abrupt changes of meaning.

Topic- 047: Interchangeability

Interchangeability refers to the idea that humans can give and receive identical linguistic signals; humans are not limited in the types of messages they can say/hear. One can say 'I am a boy' even if one is a girl. This is not to be confused with lying (prevarication). The importance is that a speaker can physically create any and all messages regardless of their truth or relation to the speaker. In other words, anything that one can hear, one can also say.

Interchangeability refers to the speaker's ability to both receive and broadcast the same signal. This is different to some communication systems where, for example, males produce one set of behaviours and females another, and they are unable to interchange these messages so that males use the female signal, and vice versa. Not all species possess this feature. For example, in order to communicate their status, queen ants produce chemical scents that no other ants can produce.

Topic- 048: Semanticity



Specific sound signals are directly tied to certain meanings. The signals have meaning. Symbols used (phonemes, morphemes) have particular meanings. Specific sound signals are directly tied to certain meanings. The units created on the second level – whether they are words or combinations of words – have semanticity. That is to say, they mean things. They refer to something other than themselves: entities, ideas, states of affairs, feelings, and so on. 'Rat' means a particular kind of rodent, and can be used to refer to one when it appears, or to talk about one which is not there. There is a fixed relationship between a signal and a meaning. Semanticity refers to the idea that speech sounds can be linked to specific meanings, a fundamental aspect of all communication systems. Vervet monkey alarm calls have captured the attention (and, it seems, imagination) of numerous authors after Hockett. The calls of vervet monkeys demonstrate a kind of referential specificity, termed functional reference. The clearest case of arbitrariness and semanticity manifested by a non-human comes, not surprisingly, from the apes and from visual rather than vocal communication—the behaviour in question is the use of lexigrams by enculturated apes such as Kanzi. In short, monkey alarm calls and words are only superficially alike, while being unlike each other in most relevant respects. Finally, alarm calls are present in a number of non-primate or even non-mammalian species e.g., chickens (Evans et al. 1993).

Lesson-09

WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?

Topic- 049: Introduction

Language is a method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way; language is a method of expression or communication.

What is Scientific?

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, linguistics can be divided into several branches: descriptive linguistics and historical/comparative linguistics (if it is based on its methodology), synchronic and diachronic linguistics (if it is based on its aspect of time), and phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics (if it is based on a language as a system), and sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics (if it is related to or combined with the disciplines of sociology and psychology respectively). In order for a discipline to be scientific, it must be characterized by three features: explicitness, systematicness, and objectivity.

What is Linguistics?

The use of a language is the integral part of human language. All languages are surprisingly similar in their basic structure. Language and abstract thought are closely connected; there is a surprising increase in the number of studies about language. The fastest branch of knowledge is linguistics, the systematic study of language. Linguistics tries to answer the basic questions regarding language.

What is Language?

How does language work? What do all languages have in common? How does human language differ from animal communication? How does a child learn to speak? How does one write down and analyze an unwritten language? Why does language change? To what extent are social class differences reflected in language? Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Language means in general not a particular language.

According to Robins (1985):

Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential parts of the human life as we know it and as one of the far-reaching of human capabilities, in relation to the whole span of mankind's achievements.

Linguists vs. Polyglot

Linguistics does not emphasize practical knowledge or mastery of a particular language. Linguist studies the ways in which language is organized to fulfill human needs, as a system of communication. A linguist like a scientist does a systematic study.

In order for a discipline to be scientific, it must be characterised by three features:

- Explicitness,
- Systematicness
- Objectivity

Topic- 050: Explicitness

Explicitness dictates that you should be clear about the assumptions (proven or unproven) on which a study is based, you have to make the intermediate stages of an argument clear e.g., do not leave anything for the intuition of the reader. As a science, linguistics must fulfill some scientific prerequisites. First, it must have a subject matter. Language is said to be a subject matter of Linguistics. As a subject matter, a language must be clearly and explicitly defined. Before analyzing a language, some linguists define a language in different ways e.g., a language may be defined as a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols that permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact. Thus, the scope of analysis is based on the clearly and explicitly defined subject matter. This is to say that everything beyond the scope such as gestures/bodily movement will be ignored. So, explicitness in defining the subject matter must be conducted in order so that we know what must be studied/ analyzed and what must be left. Degrees of explicitness:

High Explicitness: Test of high level of explicitness employs a variety of structured techniques to elicit language data.

Low Explicitness: Test of low explicitness collect data of language which is produced spontaneously.

Topic- 051: Systematicness

Systematicness refers to complexity, and variability of language without which it is impossible to reach any general conclusions. Language is studied in a highly organized way. Systematicness entails the consistent use of terms or procedures; the study of language using procedures is as methodical and standardized as possible. In addition, it requires the strict or vigorous testing of our hypotheses: A hypothesis is a statement, which suggests or predicts a relationship between two or more variables e.g., a sound is nasalized whenever it is followed by a nasal sound, or a more general hypothesis like sound changes are regular. To elaborate on hypotheses: the linguist should be very specific. Also, a well-formed hypothesis should assert one relationship at a time i.e., try to study relationships between two variables only X and Y even if the phenomenon you are dealing with is multivariate. This is actually a requirement of experimental design in general. And do not miss this: you will need experimental design in all areas of linguistic research or whatever the type of linguistic phenomenon you are dealing with. Thus, systematicness is also needed by linguistics. Language analysis for the sake to develop linguistics is done systematically within the framework of some general theory of language structure. The linguist tries to verify the theory by making objective observations of actual language data and modifies the theory in the light of what he perceives to be patterns or regularities underlying the data.

Topic- 052: Objectivity

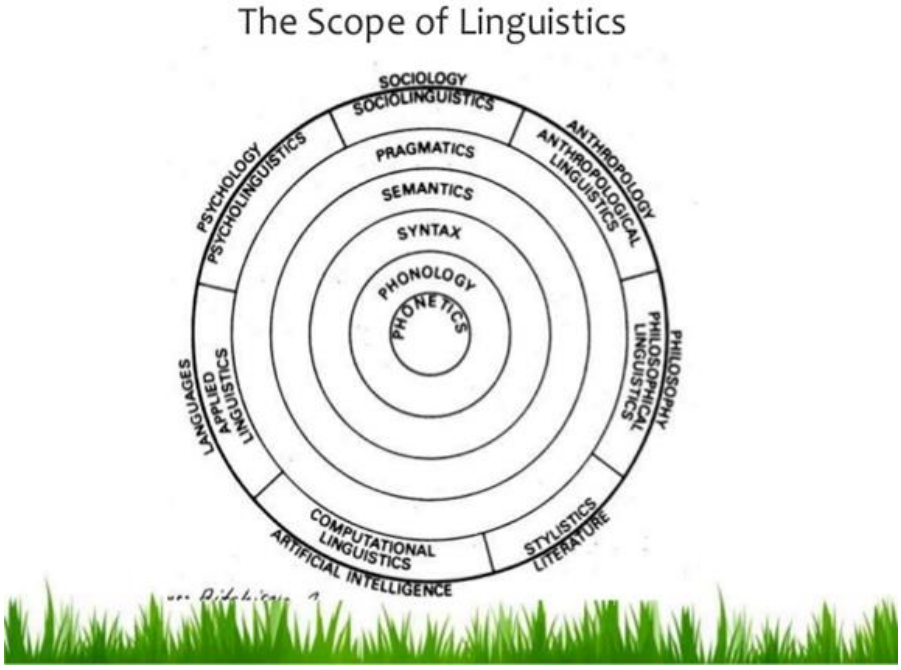
Objectivity is actually more or less synonymous with empiricality. Linguistic studies should be empirical. There are two basic meanings of this term for it to be based on physical observations.

Empirical test: Examination of phenomenon takes place under controlled, experimental conditions, the results being available to direct observation and judgment. If replicated, the same results and the same judgment would be obtained. Results should be verifiable.

Objective Observation: It must be based on an objective observation and/or investigation. The observation and/or investigation on the subject matter must be conducted objectively. The result of observation and/or investigation must be described objectively. It can be verified by any competent observer or investigator. So objectivity in conducting observation and/or investigation on the subject matter must be fulfilled in any scientific undertaking.

Topic- 053: The Scope of Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of languages and has a vast scope in understanding the development of humans in the domains of vocalization of communication, history, sociology, anthropology, psychology, and other allied fields of study as subjects including the cognitive neural sciences. Micro-linguistics includes phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Macro-linguistics includes sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, stylistics, discourse analysis, computational linguistics, cognitive linguistics, applied linguistics, etc.



Lesson-10

INTRA-DISCIPLINARY BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Topic- 054: Intra-disciplinary Branches of Linguistics

Language is a complex phenomenon and most important activity of human life. Linguistics deals with complex nature, origin, evolution, history and all other elements of it. So, it has become wide subject of serious contemplation. The rapid development of linguistics has given birth to many branches. An ordinary student of linguistics finds himself/herself into the troubled water as to how to deal with so many branches and ups and downs of the subject. There are many branches of linguistics, which have nothing to do with the subject such as:

- **Theoretical linguistics**: deals with concrete theories presented by scholars of language about various aspects concerning to linguistics.
- **Applied linguist**: highlights the various processes of evolution and gradual development of linguistics, which have been taken from year to year.
- **Historical linguistics**: is concerned with constructing theories of language or languages, or with developing linguistic theory.
- **Descriptive Linguistics**: deals with description and elaboration of the theories presented by language scholars.
- **Applied Linguistics**: Applied linguistics deals with application of some fundamental issues relating language. In this branch of linguistics, linguists after pain taking research apply some set formulas and these formulas pave the way for new researches, inquiries and discoveries in the subject. For example, traditional grammar does not quench the thirst of a linguist and he goes beyond it and gives his own method of learning as in traditional grammar one does not go beyond the sentence level whereas in linguistics the maximal unit of language is discourse beyond the sentence level.

Topic- 055: General Linguistics

General linguistics is the branch of linguistics that is devoted to the study of the theoretical bases for describing language and methods of investigating linguistic phenomena. General linguistics also studies the connection between linguistics, and other fields of learning, including dialectical materialism, logic, and psychology. In addition, it studies the connection between linguistics and historical materialism, inasmuch as the development of language is conditioned by the structure of society and social processes. General linguistics also studies the relationship between linguistics and semiotics, as well as the connection among linguistics, physiology, and acoustics.

One feature of general linguistics is a dual approach to the study of language—a structural and social approach engendered by the very nature of language. From the standpoint of structural linguistics, general linguistics studies language as an integrated structure consisting of interrelated and interacting phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactical, and other systems, with internal rules specific to each language.

The description of language as a structure may be either synchronic or taking account of the dynamics of development, diachronic. The comparative study of different languages reveals their common features or differences on a typological or genetic level. The study of the content of language helps reveal the nature and processes of thinking, and thereby relates structural linguistics to the social aspect of linguistics.

From the standpoint of sociolinguistics, general linguistics studies the social functions of language, the relationship between language and social processes, and the reflection of these social processes in the social and territorial differentiation of language and in its structural and stylistic variation. The relation between language and society is particularly apparent in the intermediation between the types of social relationships and the different forms of language at different stages of social development, for example, the formation of national languages during the historical emergence of ethnic identity.

Topic- 056: Descriptive Linguistics

Descriptive Linguistics is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given set of speakers at a given time. This time may be the present or the past at a given time. The language is described what may precede it or follow it.

Descriptive linguistics emphasizes in modern linguistics as it is the fundamental aspect of the study of language. It is contrasted with prescriptive linguistics of earlier times because it deals with the description of how language actually works rather than how it should be used. In descriptive linguistics we describe the language systematically at all levels. We analyze and describe the structure of the language.

Modern linguistics is based on a structural approach to language, as exemplified in the work of Bloomfield and others. The terms synchronic and diachronic given by Saussure are used to distinguish between the descriptions of a language at a given time. 'A synchronic description is non-historic; a diachronic description traces the historical development if a language' (Lyons 1981). If we study the changes that have taken place in English from Old English to Middle English, it is a diachronic or historical study. If we study the structure of English as it exists today and describe it without reference to how it was used in the past, it is synchronic study. Descriptivism is the belief that description is more significant or important to teach, study, and practice than prescription.

Topic- 057: Comparative Linguistics

Comparative linguistics is the study of similarities and differences between languages, in particular the comparison of related languages with a view to reconstructing forms in their lost parent languages. Comparative linguistics (originally comparative philology) is a branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness.

Genetic relatedness implies a common origin or proto-language and comparative linguistics aims to construct language families, to reconstruct proto-languages, and specify the changes that have resulted

in the documented languages. To maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts. A number of methods for carrying out language classification have been developed, ranging from simple inspection to computerized hypothesis testing. Such methods have gone through a long process of development.

Every difference between two related languages should be explicable to a high degree of plausibility and systematic changes. A proto-language, or parent language (L) is the one from which other languages have developed. The languages (L 1, L 2) are called sister languages.

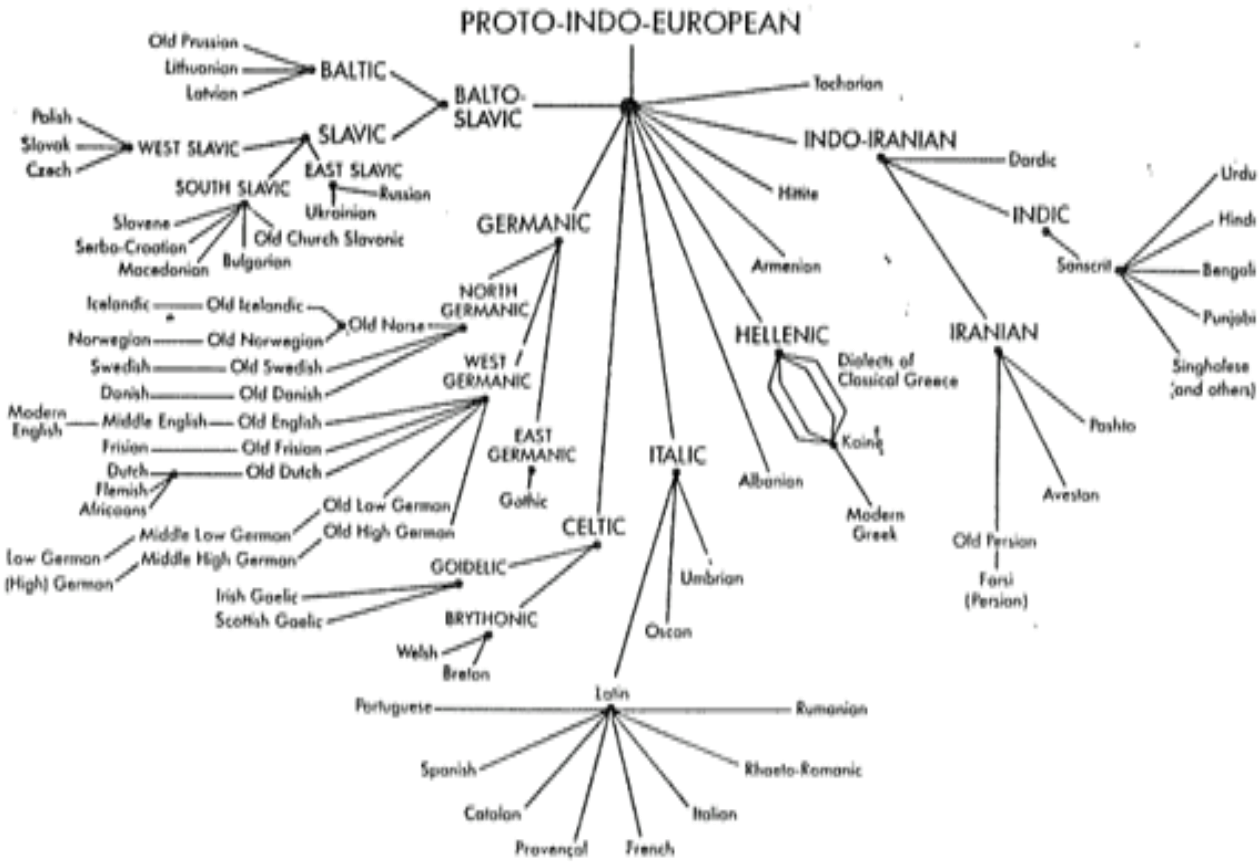
Proto-Indo-European is one out of many language families. The proto-languages were reconstructed by the comparative method which is hypothetical. A reconstruction may have predictive power. Saussure's proposal was that the Indo-European consonant system contained laryngeals, a type of consonant attested in no Indo-European language known at the time. We can find certain Cognate in sister languages of Proto-Indo-European group. Common ancestor in the Italic branch of Indo-European:

- Spanish: madre, padre, amigo
- Italian: madre, padre, amico

Common ancestor in English and German

- English: mother, father and friend
- German: mutter, vater and freund

Following is a tree showing languages of proto-Indo-European language family:



Comparative linguistics like historical linguistics studies law operating in language change and in the formation and development of languages; hence this type of study is related to descriptive linguistics.

Topic- 058: Historical Linguistics

Historical linguistics, also called diachronic linguistics, is the scientific study of language change over time. Principal concerns of historical linguistics include to:

- describe and account for observed changes in particular languages
- reconstruct the pre-history of languages and to determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families
- develop general theories about how and why language changes
- describe the history of speech communities
- study the history of words i.e., etymology
- describe and account for observed changes in particular languages
- develop general theories about how and why language changes

Modern historical linguistics dates from the late 18th century. It grew out of the earlier discipline of philology, the study of ancient texts and documents dating back to antiquity.

At first, historical linguistics was comparative linguistics. Scholars were concerned chiefly with establishing language families and reconstructing prehistoric proto-languages, using the comparative method and internal reconstruction. The focus was initially on the well-known Indo-European languages, many of which had long written histories. The scholars also studied the Uralic languages, another European language family for which less early written material exists. Since then, there has been significant comparative linguistic work expanding outside of European languages as well, such as on the Austronesian languages, and various families of Native American languages, among many others. Comparative linguistics is now, however, only a part of a more broadly conceived discipline of historical linguistics. For the Indo-European languages, comparative study is now a highly specialized field. Most research is being carried out on the subsequent development of these languages, in particular, the development of the modern standard varieties.

Initially, all modern linguistics was historical in orientation. Even the study of modern dialects involved looking at their origins. Ferdinand de Saussure's distinction between synchronic and diachronic linguistics is fundamental to the present day organization of the discipline. In the 20th century, historical linguists successfully extended the application of the theories and methods of the 19th century to the classification and historical study of non-Indo-European languages. Historical linguistics, when contrasted with synchronic linguistics, the study of a language at a particular point in time, is often called diachronic linguistics.

Lesson-11

INTER-DISCIPLINARY BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Topic- 059: Inter-disciplinary Branches

Linguistics can be divided into intra-disciplinary and interdisciplinary branches:

Intra-disciplinary concerns micro-linguistics whereas interdisciplinary concerns macro-linguistics. Interdisciplinary studies involve two or more academic disciplines which are considered distinct. The most common interdisciplinary branches of Linguistics are: Branches of macro-linguistics:

- Socio-linguistics: it studies the social aspects of language and its relation with society.
- Psycho-linguistics: it studies the language in relation to psychology.

Applied linguistics studies application to the solution of practical problem as the recovery of speech ability. Following are the branches of this discipline:

- Historical Linguistics
- Sociolinguistics
- Psycholinguistics
- Ethno-linguistics or Anthropological Linguistics
- Computational Linguistics

Topic- 060: Sociolinguistics

'Sociolinguistics' is generally used for the study of the relationship between language and society. This is a broad area of investigation that developed through the interaction of linguistics with a number of other academic disciplines. It has strong connections with anthropology through the study of language and culture, and with sociology through the investigation of the role language plays in the organization of social groups and institutions. It is also tied to social psychology, particularly with regard to how attitudes and perceptions are expressed and how in-group and out-group behaviours are identified. We use all these connections when we try to analyze language from a social perspective.

Whereas the traditional study of regional dialects tended to concentrate on the speech of people in rural areas, the study of social dialects has been mainly concerned with speakers in towns and cities. In the social study of dialect, it is social class that is mainly used to define groups of speakers as having something in common. The two main groups are generally identified as 'middle class', those who have more years of education and perform non-manual work, and 'working class', those who have fewer years of education and perform manual work of some kind. So, when we refer to 'working-class speech', we are talking about a social dialect. The terms 'upper' and 'lower' are used to further subdivide the groups, mainly on an economic basis, making 'upper-middle-class speech' another type of social dialect or sociolect. As in all dialect studies, only certain features of language use are treated as relevant in the analysis of social dialects. These features are pronunciations, words or structures that are regularly used in one form by working-class speakers and in another form by middle-class speakers.

In Edinburgh, Scotland, for example, the word home is regularly pronounced as [heɪm], as if rhyming with name, among lower-working-class speakers, and as [həʊm], as if rhyming with foam, among middle-class speakers. It is a small difference in pronunciation, but it is an indicator of social status. A more familiar example might be the verb ain't, as in I ain't finished yet, which is generally used more often in working-class speech than in middle-class speech. When we look for other examples of language use that might be characteristic of a social dialect, we treat class as the social variable and the pronunciation or word as the linguistic variable. We can then try to investigate the extent to which there is systematic variation involving the two variables by counting how often speakers in each class use each version of the linguistic variable. This is not usually an all-or-nothing situation, so studies of social dialects typically report how often speakers in a particular group use a certain form rather than find that only one group or the other uses the form.

Unique circumstances of every life result in each of us having an individual way of speaking, and a personal dialect or idiolect. Features occur frequently in one's speech (or not); they mark you as a member of a particular social group, whether one realizes it or not. Final pronunciation of -ing with [n] rather than [ŋ] at the end of words such as sitting and drinking refers to two distinct classes.

Topic- 061: Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental aspects of language and speech. It is primarily concerned with the ways in which language is represented and processed in the brain. A branch of linguistics and psychology, psycholinguistics is part of the field of cognitive science. American psychologist Jacob Robert Kantor in his book An Objective Psychology of Grammar (1936) introduced the term psycholinguistics. 'Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental mechanisms that make it possible for people to use language. It is a scientific discipline whose goal is a coherent theory of the way in which language is produced and understood.' However, there are two key questions to answer.

- What knowledge of language is needed for us to use language? In a sense, we must know a language to use it, but we are not always fully aware of this knowledge.
- What cognitive processes are involved in the ordinary use of language? By 'ordinary use of language' we mean such things as understanding a lecture, reading a book, writing a letter, and holding a conversation. By cognitive processes, we mean processes such as perception, memory, and thinking. Although we do few things as often or as easily as speaking and listening, we will find that considerable cognitive processing is going on during those activities.

Psycholinguists study how word meaning, sentence meaning, and discourse meaning are computed and represented in mind. They study how complex words and sentences are composed in speech and how they are broken down into their constituents in the acts of listening and reading. There are essentially two schools of thought as to how children acquire or learn language, and there is still much debate as to which theory is the correct one. The first theory states that all language must be learned by the child. The second view states that the abstract system of language cannot be learned, but that humans possess an innate language faculty, or an access to what has been called universal grammar. The view that language must be learned was especially popular before 1960 and is well represented by the mentalistic theories of Jean Piaget and the empiricist Rudolf Carnap. Likewise, the school of psychology known as

behaviourism (B.F. Skinner,1957) puts forth the point of view that language is a behaviour shaped by conditioned response, hence it is learned.

The innatist perspective began with Noam Chomsky's highly critical review of Skinner's book in 1959. This review helped to start what has been termed 'the cognitive revolution' in psychology. Chomsky posited humans possess a special, innate ability for language and that complex syntactic features, such as recursion, are 'hard-wired' in the brain. These abilities are thought to be beyond the grasp of the most intelligent and social non-humans. According to Chomsky, children acquiring a language have a vast search space to explore among all possible human grammars, yet at the time, there was no evidence that children receive sufficient input to learn all the rules of their language. Hence, there must be some other innate mechanism that endows language ability to humans.

Topic- 062: Applied Linguistics

Applied Linguistics is concerned with practical issues involving language in the life of the community. The most important of these is the learning of second or foreign languages. Linguistics and Applied Linguistics is a challenging and stimulating discipline, offering many opportunities for original work. Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.

A background in linguistics is essential for language teachers, translators, speech-language pathologists, audiologists, and many other language professionals.

Applied Linguistics:

- examines the structure of language and its role in communication
- explores how children acquire language
- studies how the skills of second-language speakers develop
- investigates how the social or cultural environment interacts with language
- develops a strong foundation in the structure of language and its role in communication
- gains practical knowledge through clinical observations

Major branches of applied linguistics include bilingualism and multilingualism, conversation analysis, contrastive linguistics, sign linguistics, language assessment, literacies, discourse analysis, language pedagogy, second language acquisition, language planning and policy, inter-linguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, forensic linguistics, and translation.

Applied Linguistics is concerned with practical issues involving language in the life of the community. The most important of these is the learning of second or foreign languages. Others include language policy, multilingualism, language education, the preservation and revival of endangered languages, and the assessment and treatment of language difficulties. Other areas of interest include professional communication, for example, between doctors and their patients, between lawyers and their clients and in courtrooms, as well as other areas of institutional and cross-cultural communication ranging from the boardroom to the routines on an answer phone.

Linguistics and Applied Linguistics is a challenging and stimulating discipline, offering many opportunities for original work.

Topic- 063: Computational Linguistics

Computational linguistics is the branch of linguistics in which the techniques of computer science are applied to the analysis and synthesis of language and speech. Computational linguistics is an interdisciplinary field concerned with the statistical or rule-based modeling of natural language from a computational perspective.

Traditionally, computational linguistics was performed by computer scientists who had specialized in the application of computers to the processing of a natural language. Today, computational linguists often work as members of interdisciplinary teams, which can include regular linguists, experts in the target language, and computer scientists. In general, computational linguistics draws upon the involvement of linguists, computer scientists, experts in artificial intelligence, mathematicians, logicians, philosophers, cognitive scientists, cognitive psychologists, psycholinguists, anthropologists, and neuroscientists, among others.

Computational linguistics has theoretical and applied components. Theoretical computational linguistics focuses on issues in theoretical linguistics and cognitive science, and applied computational linguistics focuses on the practical outcome of modeling human language use.

Computational linguistics is often grouped within the field of artificial intelligence, but actually was present before the development of artificial intelligence. Computational linguistics originated in the United States in the 1950s with the efforts to use computers to translate texts from foreign languages automatically, particularly Russian scientific journals, into English.

Since computers can make arithmetic calculations much faster and more accurately than humans, it was thought to be only a short matter of time before they could also begin to process language. Computational and quantitative methods are also used historically in attempted reconstruction of earlier forms of modern languages and subgrouping modern languages into language families. Earlier methods such as lexicostatistics and glottochronology have been proven to be premature and inaccurate. However, recent interdisciplinary studies, which borrow concepts from biological studies, especially gene mapping, have proved to produce more sophisticated analytical tools and more reliable results.

When machine translation failed to yield accurate translations right away, automated processing of human languages was recognized as more complex than it had originally been assumed. In order to translate one language into another, it was observed that one had to understand the grammar of both languages, including both morphology and syntax. In order to understand syntax, one had to understand the semantics and the lexicon, and even something of the pragmatics of language use. Thus, what started as an effort to translate between languages evolved into an entire discipline devoted to understanding how to represent and process natural languages using computers?

Nowadays research within the scope of computational linguistics is done at computational linguistics departments, computational linguistics laboratories, computer science departments, and linguistics departments. Some research in the field of computational linguistics aims to create working speech or text processing systems while others aim to create a system allowing human-machine interaction. Programs meant for human-machine communication are called conversational agents.

Topic- 064: Geographical Linguistics

Definition of linguistic geography: Local or regional variations of a language or dialect studied as a field of knowledge — also called dialect geography. Language geography is the branch of human geography that studies the geographic distribution of language(s) or its constituent elements. There are two principal fields of study within the geography of language: 'geography of languages', which deals with the distribution through history and space of languages, and is concerned with the analysis of the distribution patterns and spatial structures of languages in contact. Geolinguistics being the study of the political, economic and cultural processes that affect the status and distribution of languages or in other words, the study of languages and dialects in contact and in conflict with various societal, economic, ideological, political, and other contemporary trends with regard to a particular geographic location and on a planetary scale.

Linguistic geography can also refer to studies of how people talk about the landscape. For example, toponymy is the study of place names. Landscape ethno-ecology, also known as ethno-physiography, is the study of landscape ontologies and how they are expressed in language.

Many studies have researched the effect of language contact, as the languages or dialects (varieties) of peoples have interacted. This territorial expansion of language groups has usually resulted in the overlaying of languages upon existing speech areas, rather than the replacement of one language by another. An example could be sought in the Norman Conquest of England: Old French became the language of the aristocracy but Middle English remained the language of the majority of the population. Peter Trudgill says, 'linguistic geography has been geographical only in the sense that it has been concerned with the spatial distribution of linguistic phenomena.'

A common production of linguistic investigators of dialects is the shaded and dotted map (linguistic map) showing where one linguistic feature ends and another begins or overlaps. Various compilations of these maps for England have been issued over the years, including Joseph Wright's English Dialect Dictionary (1896–1905), the Survey of English Dialects (1962-8), and The Linguistic Atlas of England (1978).

Lesson-12

LINGUISTICS VS. TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

Topic- 065: Introduction

Words can only be combined in limited number of patterns. We recognize that the phrase 'the lucky boys' is a well formed phrase in English, but that the following two 'phrases' are not at all well-formed.

- *boys the lucky
- *lucky boys the (an asterisk *is used to indicate that a form is unacceptable or ungrammatical.)

So, we can see that English has strict rules for combining words into phrases. The article *the* must go before the adjective *lucky*, which must go before the noun *boys*. So, in order to be grammatical, this type of phrase must have the following sequence:

article + adjective + noun

and not

*noun + article + adjective

The process of describing the structure of phrases and sentences in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences is one way of defining grammar. It is the kind of definition assumed when we talk about the grammar of English as opposed to the grammar of Swahili, Tagalog or Turkish.

Traditional Grammar

The terms 'article,', 'adjective', and 'noun' that we use to label the grammatical categories of the words in the phrase *the lucky boys* come from traditional grammar, which has its origins in the description of languages such as Latin and Greek. Since there were well-established grammatical descriptions of these languages, it seemed appropriate to adopt the existing categories from these descriptions and apply them in the analysis of 'newer' languages such as English. After all, Latin and Greek were the languages of scholarship, religion, philosophy and 'knowledge,', so the grammar of these languages was taken to be the model for other grammars. The best-known terms from that tradition are those used in describing the parts of speech.

The Parts of Speech

Terms such as 'adjective' and 'noun' are used to label forms in the language as the parts of speech or word classes. The technical terms used to describe each part of speech are illustrated in the following sentence and simple definitions of each term are listed below.

Art	Adj	N	V	Art	N	P	Art	N	Conj	Pro	V	Pro	Adv
The	lucky	boys	found	a	backpack	in	the	park	and	they	opened	it	carefully

Basic definitions of this type are useful for identifying most forms in a language such as English, but they are not completely reliable. A different approach might focus on some other properties of the parts of speech. For example, a noun can be defined as a form that comes after an article (a, the) and can take inflections for possessive (-'s) and plural (-s). Of course, not all nouns (e.g., information, mud) have all these characteristics. Moreover, these characteristics are unlikely to be true of nouns in other languages that we might want to describe. An alternative way of looking at nouns and other parts of speech had to be found in order to carry out structural analysis.

Agreement

In addition to the terms used for the parts of speech, traditional grammatical analysis has also given us a number of other categories, including 'number,' 'person,' 'tense, 'voice' and, 'gender.' These categories can be discussed in isolation, but their role in describing language structure becomes clearer when we consider them in terms of agreement. For example, we say that the verb *loves* 'agrees with' the noun *Cathy* in the following sentence:

Cathy loves her dog.

This agreement is partially based on the category of number, that is, whether the noun is singular or plural. It is also based on the category of person, which covers the distinctions of first person (involving the speaker), second person (involving the hearer), and third person (involving any others). The different forms of English pronouns can be described in terms of person and number. We use me for first person singular, you for second person singular, and him, her, it (or Cathy) for third person singular. So, in the sentence Cathy loves her dog, we have a noun Cathy, which is third person singular, and we use the verb loves (not love) to 'agree with' the noun.

In addition, the form of the verb must be described in terms of another category called tense. In this case, the verb loves is in the present tense, which is different from the past tense (loved). The sentence is also in the active voice, describing what Cathy does (i.e., she performs the action of the verb). An alternative would be the passive voice, which can be used to describe what happens to Cathy (i.e., she does not perform the action), as in Cathy is loved by her dog or just Cathy is loved.

Our final category is gender, which helps us describe the agreement between Cathy and her in our example sentence. In English, we have to describe this relationship in terms of natural gender, mainly derived from a biological distinction between male and female. The agreement between Cathy and her is based on a distinction made in English between reference to female entities (she, her), male entities (he, his), and things or creatures, when the sex is unknown or irrelevant (it, its).

The type of biological distinction used in English is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that use grammatical gender. Whereas natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminine), and is not tied to sex. In this latter sense, nouns are classified according to their gender class, and typically, articles and adjectives have different forms to 'agree with' the gender of the noun.

Topic- 066: Linguistics: The Scientific Study of Language

Definition of Linguistics

Linguistics may be defined as the scientific study of language. This definition is hardly sufficient to give the reader any positive indication of the fundamental principles of the subject. It may be made a little more revealing by drawing in greater detail the implications contained in the qualification 'scientific'. For the moment, it will be enough to say that by the scientific study of language is meant its investigation by means of controlled and empirically verifiable observations and with reference to some general theory of language-structure. The scientific approaches of linguistics are as follows:

Objectivity	No primitive, pure, beautiful, cultural, and sophisticated languages
Empiricism	Not speculative or intuitive, observation, experiments, analyze the data and make generalization
Rationalism	Role that mind plays in the acquisition of knowledge
Exhaustiveness	Deals with all relevant data
Consistency	Allows no contradictory statements
Economy	Repetition is not allowed, economic statements, fewer concepts or symbols

Like any scientific discipline, linguistics too is not static. Viewpoints and theoretical methods in the field change even in fundamental ways from time to time.

Topic- 067: Linguistics and Descriptivism

Descriptivism is a nonjudgmental approach to language that focuses on how it is actually spoken and written. It is also called linguistic descriptivism, and is contrasted with prescriptivism. The idea behind descriptive linguistics is that a language is defined by what people do with it. In other words, you begin by studying and listening to native speakers.

In the article 'Beyond and Between the Three Circles', linguist Christian Mair has observed that the 'study of human languages in the spirit of linguistic descriptivism has been one of the great democratic enterprises of the past two centuries of scholarship in the humanities. In the twentieth century, structuralist descriptivism and sociolinguistics have . . . taught us to respect the structural complexity, communicative adequacy and creative-expressive potential of all the world's languages, including socially stigmatized working-class and ethnic speech.' Look at the different approaches of descriptivism and prescriptivism.

Do not split an infinitive.	He would like to quickly finish his homework.
Do not end a sentence with a preposition.	Who did you go with?
Never begin a sentence with and!	And he started his practice.
The pronoun must be in nominative case after comparative adjective.	Mary runs faster than me.
Nominative case of pronoun is used after verb to be.	It is me.

Except only in certain educational contexts, modern linguists utterly reject prescriptivism, and their investigations are based instead on descriptivism. In a descriptivist approach, we try to describe the facts of linguistic behaviour exactly as we find them, and we refrain from making value judgments about the speech of native speakers.

For instance, if we take inventory of the specific linguistic features of the discourse of a given speech community (e.g., gamers, sports enthusiasts, technology majors), we are within the realm of descriptivism. A speech community, as Gumperz (1968, p.381) points out, is 'any human aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and sets off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage.

Descriptivism involves observing and analyzing, without passing too much judgment, the habits and practices within speech communities, focusing on language users and uses without attempting to get them to modify their language according to standards external to the language itself. Descriptive linguistics aims to understand the ways people use language in the world, given all of the forces that influence such use. Prescriptivism lies at the other end of this continuum and is usually associated with stipulating rules and norms for language use.

Topic- 068: Linguistics is of Non-Speculative Nature

Linguistics is non-speculative. So, the main difference between scientific and non-scientific study of language is that linguistics is empirical rather than speculative or intuitive. It operates with publically verifiable data obtained by means of observation and experiment.

Speculative mood is an epistemic grammatical mood found in some languages, which indicates that the utterance is based on speculation of the speaker, and not necessarily known to be the case. For example, 'The butler could have been the killer.'

Topic- 069: Linguistics and Objectivity

Close to the property of empiricism is objectivity. Objectivity is that, 'it considers all languages to be equal'. For a linguist, there are no primitive, pure, beautiful, cultural, and sophisticated languages. Objectivity is difficult to attain because language is so familiar to us that we can hardly dissociate ourselves from it. Practical familiarity with language stands in the way of its objective examination.

All sorts of social, cultural, and nationalistic prejudices are associated with laypersons' view of particular language(s). The objective study of language is hindered by various cultural, social, and historical misconceptions about certain languages.

In linguistics, objectivity also means that the linguist and his informants are distinct. The linguist listens; his informants talk. Questions of reproducibility are different. Language is taken for granted as we are familiar with language since childhood in a practical and unreflective manner. For example, one dialect of a particular language might be thought to be purer than another. Objectivity demands that

prescriptive beliefs should be challenged and terms like pure and primitive should either be clearly defined or rejected.

Topic- 070: Linguistics and Spoken Language

A spoken language is a language produced by articulate sounds, as opposed to a written language. Many languages have no written form and so, are only spoken. Within the field of linguistics, the current consensus is that speech is an innate human capability, and written language is a cultural invention.

An oral language or vocal language is a language produced with the vocal tract, as opposed to a sign language, which is produced with the hands and face. The term 'spoken language' is sometimes used to mean only vocal languages, especially by linguists, making all three terms synonyms by excluding sign languages. Others refer to sign language as 'spoken', especially in contrast to written transcriptions of signs.

In spoken language, much of the meaning is determined by the context. That contrasts with written language in which more of the meaning is provided directly by the text. In spoken language, the truth of a proposition is determined by common-sense reference to experience. The relationship between spoken language and written language is complex. Within the field of linguistics, the current consensus is that speech is an innate human capability, and written language is a cultural invention. However, some linguists, such as those of the Prague school, argue that written language and spoken language possess distinct qualities which would argue against written language being dependent on spoken language for its existence.

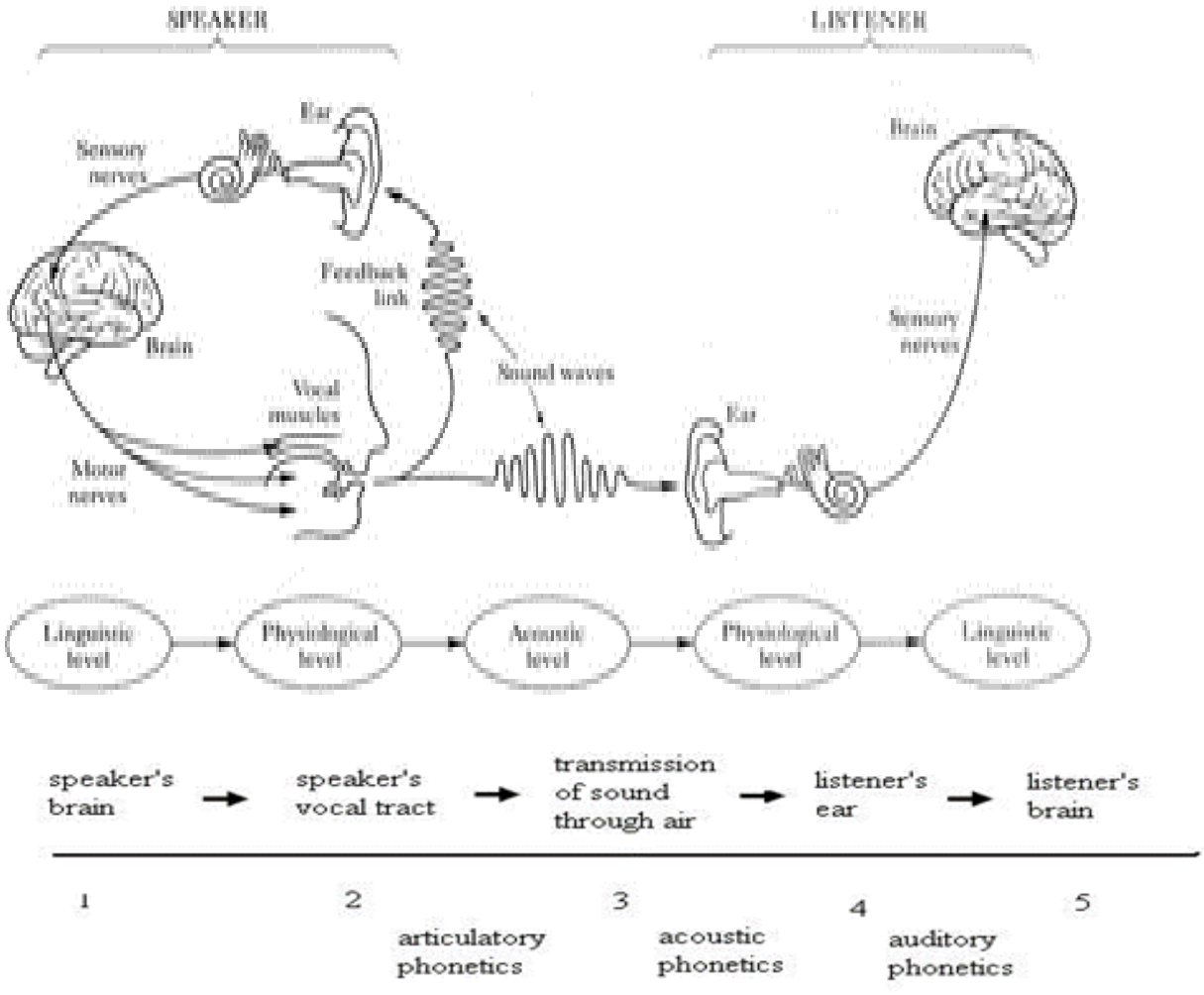
Accordingly, language is treated almost exclusively from the point of view of linguistics. Linguists study individual human languages and linguistic behaviour in order to discover the fundamental properties of this general human language. Through this enterprise, they also hope to discover some fundamental aspects of what it means to be human. The importance of language and languages goes far beyond internal structure, extending to almost all human endeavours.

Lesson-13

PHONETICS AND ITS BRANCHES

Topic- 071: Definition

Phonetics and phonology deal with pronunciation, or, more precisely, with speech sounds and the sound system. First of all, phonetics divides, or segments concrete utterances into individual speech sounds. It is therefore exclusively concerned with parole or performance. Phonetics (pronounced /fəˈnɛtɪks/, from the Greek means sound, voice) is a branch of linguistics that comprises the study of the sounds of human speech, or—in the case of sign languages—the equivalent aspects of sign. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds or signs (phones): their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neurophysiological status. Phonology, on the other hand, is concerned with the abstract, grammatical characterization of the systems of sounds or signs. The following illustration encompasses the width and breadth of phonetics:



Phonetics can then be divided into three distinct phases: (1) articulatory phonetics, (2) acoustic phonetics, and (3) auditory phonetics.

1) **Articulatory phonetics** describes in detail how the speech organs, also called vocal organs or articulators, in the vocal tract are used in order to produce, or articulate, speech sounds. It also analyses which organs and muscles are used by the speakers to produce speech.

2) **Acoustic phonetics** studies the physical properties of speech sounds i.e., the way in which the air vibrates as sounds pass from speaker to listener. A spectrograph is a machine that measures the sound waves and depicts them as images, called spectrograms or sonograms, showing the duration, frequency, intensity, and quality of the sounds.

3) **Auditory phonetics** investigates the perception of speech sounds by the listener i.e., how the sounds are transmitted from the ear to the brain, and how they are processed. It also focuses on the effect those sounds have when they reach the listener's ear and brain. Phonetics is thus a linguistic field that draws heavily on other scientific disciplines including anatomy, physiology, neurology, and physics.

Topic- 072: Nature and Functions of Phonetics

Phonetics is the scientific study of language. It does not study an individual language; rather it studies language in general. It is concerned with the nature of language and communication. Research for general properties common to all human language or group of languages is the main concern of linguistics. Like human body, language is very complex. Language system functions because of words, structures, sounds, etc.

Language works through symbols. Symbols used in language must be known to the speaker and listener. Language is not an inherent function of man. Speech is the instrument of society. Language does not remain in vacuum. Language is flexible; it changes from time to time. The study of linguistics quenches a linguist's thirst; it gives him the knowledge of the properties and mysteries of language; it helps him in improving and reforming spelling, vocabulary, pronunciation, and usage.

Topic- 073: Articulatory Phonetics

Articulatory Phonetics

Phonetics is the study of the production of speech sounds. Unlike auditory phonetics, articulatory phonetics deals with the sender rather than the receiver of the message. It discusses the physical manifestation of language in sound waves; how these sounds are articulated and perceived, characteristics of human sound, methods for description, classification and transcription. We want to know:

- what these sounds are, how they fall into patterns
- how they change in different circumstances
- what aspects of the sounds are necessary for conveying the meaning of what is being said
- the apparatus of speech

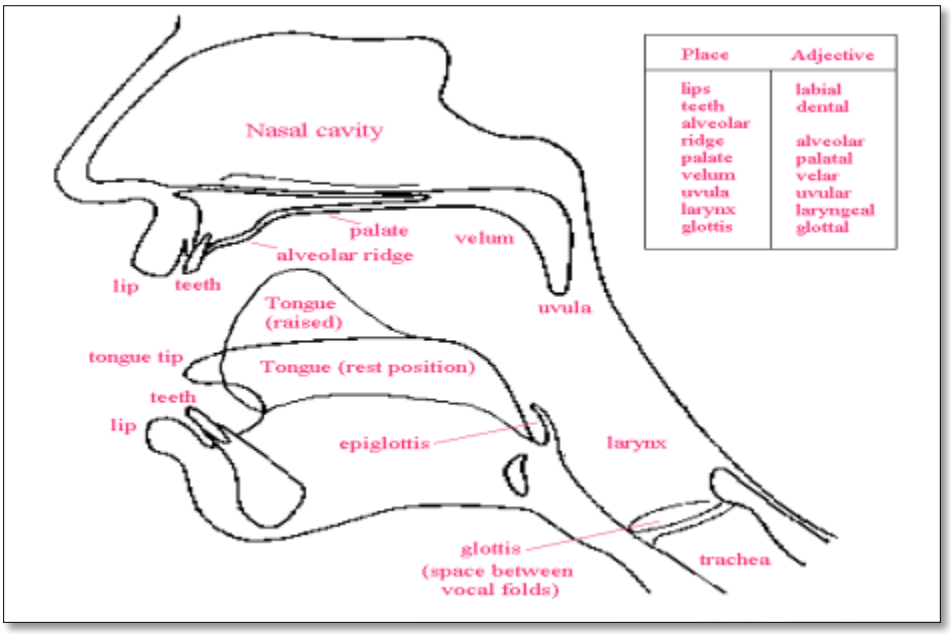
Articulatory Phonetics

Airstream: a stream of air coming from the lungs produces speech. The lungs act as a bellows, pushing air through the throat, nose, and mouth.

Ingressive Sounds: Speech sounds produced while inhaling are called ingressive sounds. English does not have any such sound but a few languages have.

Egressive Sounds: Sounds produced by expelling air are called egressive sounds. All languages produce sounds by expelling.

Organs of Speech or Articulators: The air is modified by the structures of the respiratory and digestive systems before it is released. These structures are referred to as the organs of speech or articulators.

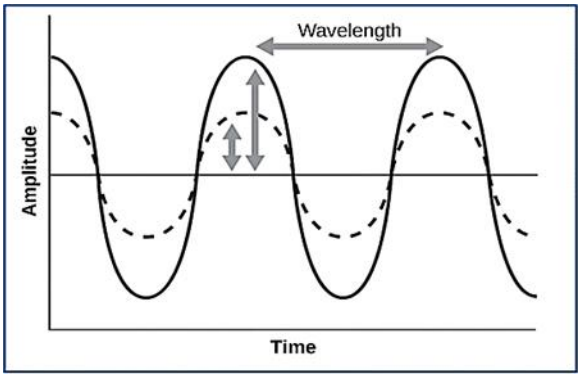


In studying articulation, phoneticians explain how humans produce speech sounds via the interaction of different physiological structures. Generally, articulatory phonetics is concerned with the transformation of aerodynamic energy into acoustic energy.

Topic- 074: Acoustic Phonetics

Acoustic phonetics is the study of sound waves made by the human vocal organs for communication. Phoneticians depict and analyze sound waves using machines and computer programs. Speech consists of variations in air pressure which result from physical disturbances of air molecules caused by the flow of air out of the lungs. This airflow makes the air molecules alternately crowd together

and move apart (oscillate), creating increases and decreases, respectively, in air pressure. The resulting sound wave transmits these changes in pressure from speaker to hearer.

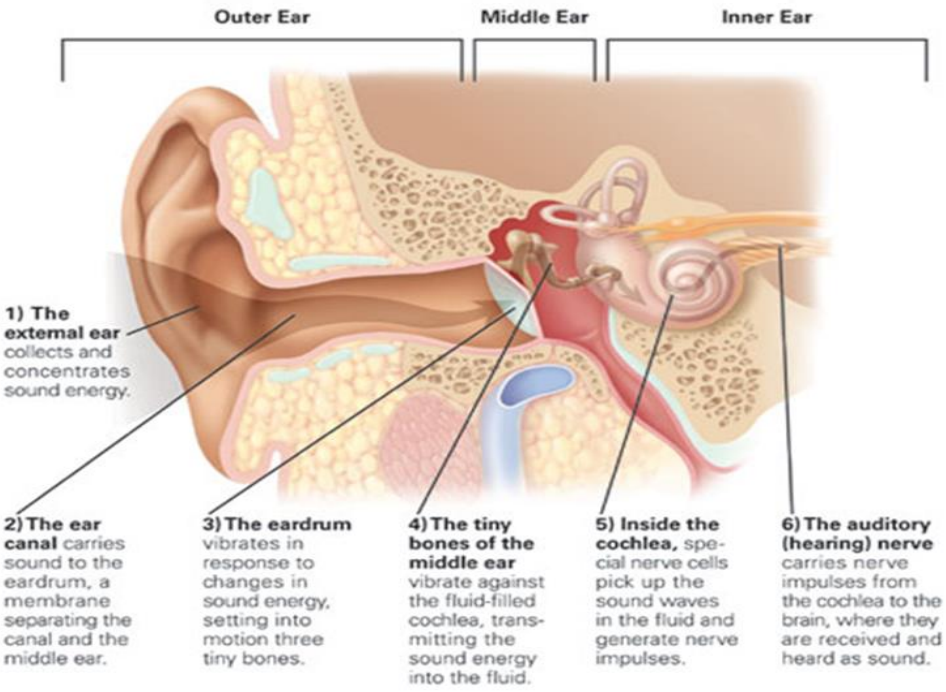


Sound waves can be described in terms of physical properties such as cycle, period, frequency, and amplitude. A cycle is a sequence of one increase and one decrease in air pressure. A period is the amount of time (expressed in seconds or milliseconds) that one cycle takes. Frequency is the number of cycles in one second, expressed in hertz (Hz). An increase in frequency usually results in an increase in perceived pitch. Amplitude refers to the magnitude of vibrations, with larger vibrations resulting in greater peaks of pressure (greater amplitude), which usually result in an increase in perceived loudness. Unlike pure tones, which rarely occur in the environment, speech sounds are complex waves with combinations of different frequencies and amplitudes.

Topic- 075: Auditory Phonetics

In auditory phonetics, we are dealing with two distinct operations that are closely interrelated and influence each other: on the one hand, we can talk about audition proper, that is, the perception of sounds by our auditory apparatus and the transforming of the information into a neural sign and sending it to the brain. On the other hand, we can talk about the analysis of this information by the brain, which eventually leads to the decoding of the message, that is, understanding of the verbal message.

As a beginner, however, it will be sufficient for you to get a basic idea of how our auditory system and the general hearing process work. Have a close look at the picture below, and read through the brief description that follows.



Keeping it very simple, we can state, that any sound coming from any source, be it a door slamming or someone speaking to you, is spreading from that source as a sound wave, causing the molecules on its way to crowd together and move apart again or in other words, to vibrate. When these vibrating air molecules reach your ear, they cause the eardrum in your middle ear to vibrate too and this vibration is then carried on from the eardrum to the three little bones: mallet, incus, and stirrup.

From the stirrup, the vibration is carried on to the inner ear, and into the cochlea, a little coil-like organ filled with liquid. Inside the cochlea, there are two membranes: the vestibular membrane and the basilar membrane. The latter membrane plays a central role in the act of audition because this is where the auditory receptor cells are located.

Depending on the frequency of the sound coming in, a different part with different receptor cells of the basilar membrane is stimulated. Thus, low-frequency (grave) sounds will make the membrane vibrate at the less stiff (upper) end, while high-frequency (acute) sounds will cause the lower and stiffer end of the membrane to vibrate. The cells on the basilar membrane convert these vibrations into neural signals that are transmitted via the auditory nerves to the central receptor and controller of the entire process, the brain, where we identify the incoming sound as actual sound with a specific pitch.

Topic- 076: Instrumental Phonetics

Instrumental phonetics is a quantitative approach. It attempts to characterize speech in terms of measurements and numbers rather than by relying on listeners' impression. It uses different instruments for the study of speech sounds. It is supposed best for acoustic analysis as it uses sound spectrograph that produces a picture of the sounds. Nowadays, this analysis is done by computer instead of an instrument. It is best used for pitch display.

For articulatory activity many instruments are used such as Radiography (x-rays), Laryngoscopy (inside larynx), Palatography (patterns of contact between tongue and palate), and Glottography (studying the vibration of vocal folds and many others).

Measurement of airflow from vocal tract and air pressure within it also gives us a valuable indirect picture of other aspects of articulation. Not all instrumental studies are experimental.

When a theory or hypothesis is being tested under controlled conditions, the research is experimental. But if one simply makes a measurement using instruments, this is not the case. Instrumental phonetics is a quantitative approach; it attempts to characterize speech in terms of measurements and numbers rather than by relying on listeners' impressions. Many different instruments have been devised for the study of speech sounds.

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Lesson-14

PHONOLOGY AND ITS BRANCHES

Topic- 077: Definition

Introduction

Phonology is the study of the sound system of languages. It is the mental representation of sounds as part of a symbolic cognitive system; it studies how abstract sound categories are manipulated in the processing of language. Phonology is concerned with the range and function of sounds in a specific language and with rules, which can be written to show the types of phonetic relationship that relates and contrasts words and other linguistic units.

Phonology deals with the speakers' knowledge of the sound system of a language. It is therefore exclusively concerned with langue or competence. Phonology can be divided into two branches:

- Segmental phonology
- Supra-segmental phonology

Segmental phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds provided by phonetics. Unlike phonetics, however, segmental phonology is not interested in the production, the physical properties, or the perception of these sounds, but in the function and possible combinations of sounds within the sound system.

Supra-segmental phonology, also called prosody, is concerned with those features of pronunciation that cannot be segmented because they extend over more than one segment, or sound. Such features include stress, rhythm, and intonation (also called pitch contour or pitch movement).

Topic- 078: Difference between Phonetics and Phonology

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized in individual languages. On the other hand, phonetics is the study of the actual process of sound making. Both are important areas of the study of linguistics. Phonetics and phonology are two subfields of linguistics dealing with speech sounds. Both of them seem to be overlapping in recent years, and therefore create some confusion regarding their meanings.

Phonetics has been derived from the Greek word phone meaning sound/voice. It is one of the important branches of linguistics, which deals with the study of speech sounds. It covers the domain of speech production and its transmission. It also covers the reception aspect of speech. The sounds made by us when we talk are studied through different branches of phonetics like acoustic phonetics, auditory phonetics, and articulatory phonetics. On the other hand, phonology focuses on the organization of sounds by studying speech patterns. The key words for describing phonology are distribution and patterning related to speech. It is aimed to determine the sound patterns of all the languages. Phonologists may look into questions like – why there is a difference in the plurals of cat and dog; the former ends with the /s/

sound, whereas the latter ends with the /z/ sound. Some differences between the two have been mentioned below:

Phonetics	Phonology
Definition • Phonetics can be considered a branch of linguistics as it deals with the study of the sounds of human speech. It also considers the function production and auditory qualities of human speeches.	Definition • Phonology is another branch of linguistics, which focuses on the organization of sounds by studying speech patterns. The key words for describing phonology are distribution and patterning related to speech.
• Described as physics of sound	• Psychology of sound
• Focuses on theories of speech production and perception	• Rules or constraints to find out about the combinations of sounds of a language.
Branches • Acoustic phonetics is related to the study of physical attributes of sound produced by the vocal tract. • Auditory phonetics deals with understanding that how the ear perceives sound and how the brain recognizes different speech units. • Articulatory phonetics deals with studying the making of single sounds by the vocal tract.	Branches • Segmental Phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds derived from phonetics. • Supra-segmental phonology deals with attributes (like rhythm, stress, etc.) of pronunciation which cannot be segmented.

We can summarize that phonetics looks into the speech sounds of a language in a generalized and idealized manner. On the other hand, phonology looks into the functional aspect of speech sounds in that language. Phonetics and Phonology are closely related to each other, and therefore it is often recommended not to divide them on the basis of strict rules or points.

Topic- 079: Phoneme: the Basic Unit of Phonology

Phoneme is the basic unit of phonology, the smallest unit of sound that may cause a change of meaning within a language. It has no meaning by itself. For example, in the words ‘bake’ and ‘bade,’ only one phoneme brings change in the meaning of the two. Phonemes correspond to the sounds of the alphabet. However, there is not always a one-to-one relationship between a letter and a phoneme. The words dog and shape have different spellings but the same three sounds.

Following is a list of phones, both vowels and consonants.

Segments of English Sounds

Consonant Sounds

b	d	f	g	h	dʒ	k	l
m	n	ŋ	p	r	s	ʃ	t
tʃ	θ	ð	v	w	j	z	ʒ

Short Vowel Sounds

ɪ	e	æ	ʌ	ɒ	ʊ	ə

Long Vowel Sounds

iː	ɑː	ɔː	uː	ɜː

Diphthong Sounds

eɪ	aɪ	ɔɪ	aʊ	əʊ	ɪə	eə	ʊə

There are 44 phonemes in BBC English accent. However, in different dialects the number of phonemes is different. Through the process of segmentation, a phoneme can have a particular pronunciation in one word and a slightly different pronunciation in another e.g., in the word laughed/lɑːfd/, the letter d has /t/ sound but in played it is /d/ sound.

Topic- 080: Segmental Phonology

Segmental phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds provided by phonetics. Segmental phonology is not interested in the production, the physical properties, or the perception of these sounds, but in the function and possible combinations of sounds within the sound system. A segment is ‘any discrete unit that can be identified, either physically or auditorily, in the stream of speech’. The term is most used in phonetics and phonology to refer to phones and phonemes.

Segments are called ‘discrete’ because they are separate and individual, such as consonants and vowels, and occur in a distinct temporal order.

A phone is any distinct speech sound or gesture, regardless of whether the exact sound is critical to the meanings of words. In contrast, a phoneme is a speech sound that, in a given language, if it were swapped with another phoneme, would change the meaning of the word, for example, Bet /bet/ and Bed /bed/. Phones are absolute, not specific to any language, but phonemes can be discussed only in reference to specific language. So, segmental phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds.

Topic- 081: Supra-segmental Phonology

Vowels and consonants can be thought of as the segments of which speech is composed. Together they form the syllables that make up utterances. Other features known as supra-segmentals are superimposed on the syllables.

These include variations in

- Stress
- Pitch
- Tone
- Juncture

Stress or accent is the relative emphasis or prominence given to a certain syllable in a word, or to a certain word in a phrase or sentence. Produced by increased activity of the respiratory muscles, variations in stress are used in English to distinguish between a noun and a verb:

- Insult (N)
- Insult (V)
- Increase (N)
- Increase (V)

The pitch of voice is determined by the frequency with which the vocal cords vibrate. Tone is the use of pitch in language to distinguish lexical or grammatical meaning, that is, to distinguish or to inflect words. Juncture, in linguistics, is the manner of moving (transition) or mode of relationship between two consecutive sounds.

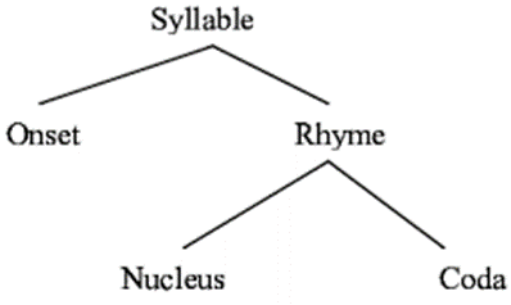
- ‘a name’ /ə.neɪm/ and ‘an aim’ /ən.eɪm/
- ‘that stuff’ /ðæt.stʌf/ and ‘that's tough’ /ðæts.tʌf/

Lesson-15

SYLLABLE

Topic- 082: Syllable and Division of Words into Syllables

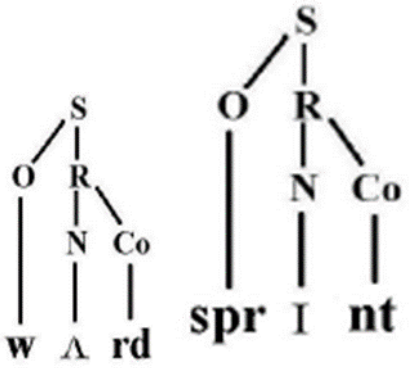
A unit of pronunciation having one vowel sound, with or without surrounding consonants, forming the whole or a part of a word; for example, there are two syllables in 'contact' and three in 'potato'. The structure of English syllable consists of onset (consonant), and rhyme that consists of a nucleus (vowel) and a coda (consonant).



A syllable can be defined both phonetically and phonologically. Phonetically it consists of a centre with no obstruction of air before and after there is greater obstruction to airflow, for example, cat /kæt/. Phonologically, it looks at the possible phoneme combination called phonotactics.
How a word begins:

- Air
- Nice
- Smoke
- Spray

Syllables are often considered the phonological 'building blocks' of words. They can influence the rhythm of a language, its prosody, its poetic metre, and its stress patterns.



A word that consists of a single syllable (like English 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. Dividing a syllable can be difficult as we can observe from the following division of the word 'extra':

Division of syllable

i. e.kstrə
ii. ek.strə
iii. eks.trə
iv. ekst.rə
v. ekstr.ə

A word may have no consonant or up to three consonants in the beginning and up to four in the end.

Topic- 083: The Structure of the Syllable

An ideal syllable consists of CVC (Consonant Vowel Consonant), for example, cat/kæt/. However, there can be variety in the structure of the syllable.

1. A minimum syllable has no onset or coda, for example:
   - Are/a:/
   - Or/ ɔ:/
   - Err/3:/

   /m/ and / ʃ/ are also considered syllables by some phoneticians.

2. Some syllables only have onset. For example,
   - Car /ka:/
   - Key / ki:/
   - More /mɔ:/

3. Some syllable may have no onset but have a coda.
   - Am / { æm/
   - Ought / ɔ:t/
   - Ease / i:z/

4. Some syllables have both onset and coda.
   - Hut /hʌt/
   - Sat /sæt/
   - Fill /fɪl/

Zero Onset: If the first syllable of a word begins with a vowel, it can be any vowel except /ʊ/ which is rare. Initial consonant of a word may be any except /ŋ/.

Topic- 084: Syllabic Consonants

Some syllables especially unstressed after the stressed syllable happen to be weak syllables. They normally consist of /l, r ,n/ in words like cattle kæt.əl/ or kæt.l. In such cases if the preceding sound is alveolar e.g. wrestle /res.l/ or /res. əl/ or plosive such as couple /kʌp.l/, the schwa sound is elided and the power of vowel is transferred to the following consonants making it a syllabic consonant.

The following words can take -ing keeping their syllabic quality intact.

- Bottling /ˈbɒt.ˌlɪŋ/
- Struggling /strʌg.ˌlɪŋ/
- Coddle+ing /ˈkɒdˌlɪŋ/
- Cod+ling /ˈkɒd.lɪŋ/

Words ending with one or more consonant letters followed by ‘al’ and ‘el’:

- Panel /ˊpænl/
- Petal /pɛt(ə)l/
- Parcel /ˈpɑːs(ə)l/
- Babel /ˈbeɪbl/

In syllabic /n/ the word ‘Listen’ /lɪsən/ becomes /lɪsn/ and /ˈgəʊldən/ becomes /ˈgəʊldn/.

Topic- 085: Types of the Syllable

Every word is made from syllables. An open syllable has only one vowel. The vowel has a long sound and is the last letter of the syllable. Open syllables have only one consonant between the open syllable and the next vowel such as *ba. by*.

A closed syllable has only one vowel. The vowel has a short sound (like the ‘i’ in mill). If the word is only 2 letters, it must end with a consonant, for example: in, on, of, at, and it. If the word is 3+ letters, a closed syllable has 1 consonant before and 1+ consonants after the vowel. For examples: cat, catch, net, nest, web, man, roll, and bark. If a word has 2 closed syllables next to each other, there will be two consonants between the vowels, for example: win-ter, sum-mer, com-mon, and tem-per.

An r-controlled syllable is a vowel, diphthong, or triphthong with an ‘r’ or a ‘re’ after it. For example: deer, whis-per, worth, care, and fire. er, ur, and ir vowels sound like the er in per, fur, her, birth, shirt, and hurt.

Some ar vowels that sound like the ar in ‘far’, for example, par, far, car, and star. Other ar vowels sound like the ar in ‘share’, pair, hare, hair, and stare or vowels sound like the ‘or’ in for or, floor, and door.

A vowel team syllable is a group of 2-4 letters, usually vowels, which make a 1 vowel sound. If a vowel team is made of 2 vowels, usually only the first vowel is pronounced,for example: rain, fail, suit, and clean.

The silent-e syllable is also called VCe, which stands for Vowel-Consonant-e. It consists of a vowel, followed by a consonant, followed by an ‘e’ that is silent. The vowel has a long sound (like the ‘i’ in line), for example, take, cake, theme, line, tone, tune, and ex-ile.

The C-le syllable is also called the Consonant-le. It consists of a consonant followed by an ‘le’ It is usually the last syllable in a root word, for example, tack-le, freck-le, tick-le, and buck-le.

Topic- 086: Consonant Clusters

Any consonants can occur before or after the vowel sound in a syllable. A syllable may begin with any consonant except /ŋ/ which are rare in English syllables.

1) Two-consonant cluster in initial position
S+t=stay, S+w=sway, S+m=smoke. In these examples /S/ is pre-initial consonant and /t,w,m/ will be initial consonants.

2) One of the set of fifteen consonants followed by /l,r,w,j / in play, tray, quick, and few. In these words, the first sound is initial, and the second will be post initial.

3) Three consonant cluster in initial position:
S + p,t,k + l,r,w

- Split
- Stream
- Square

In these words /S /is pre initial. /p,t,k/ are initial and /l,r,w/ are post initial.
Any consonant can be final other than /h,r,w,j/ consonants.

Two types of final consonants:

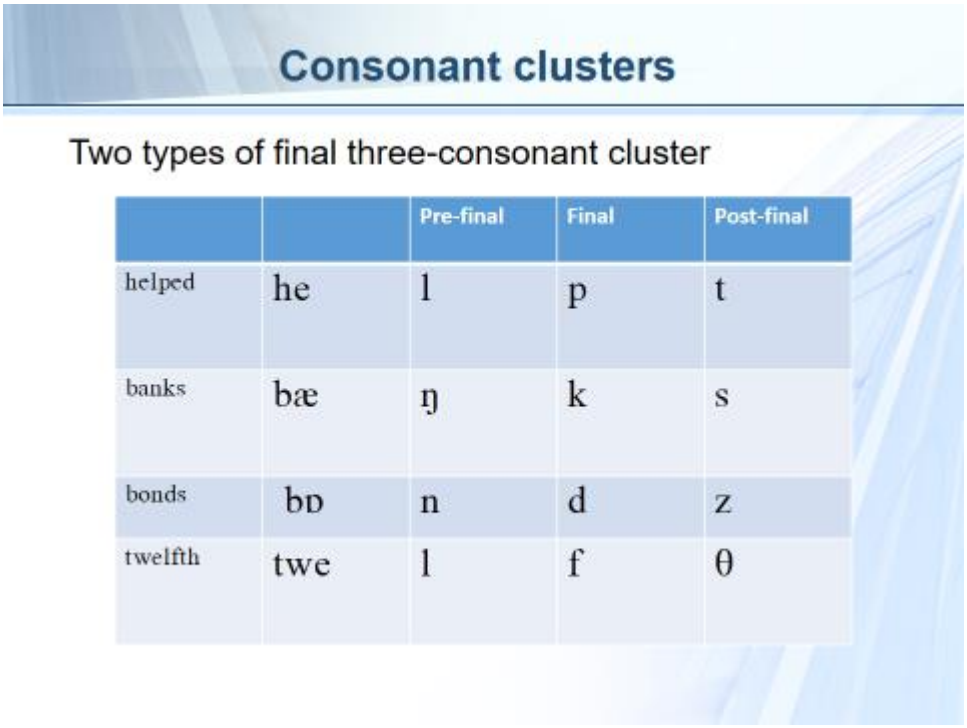
1) Pre-final +final

- /m, n, ŋ, l, s/
- bump /bʌmp/, bent /bent/, bank /bæŋk/, belt /belt/, ask /æsk/
-

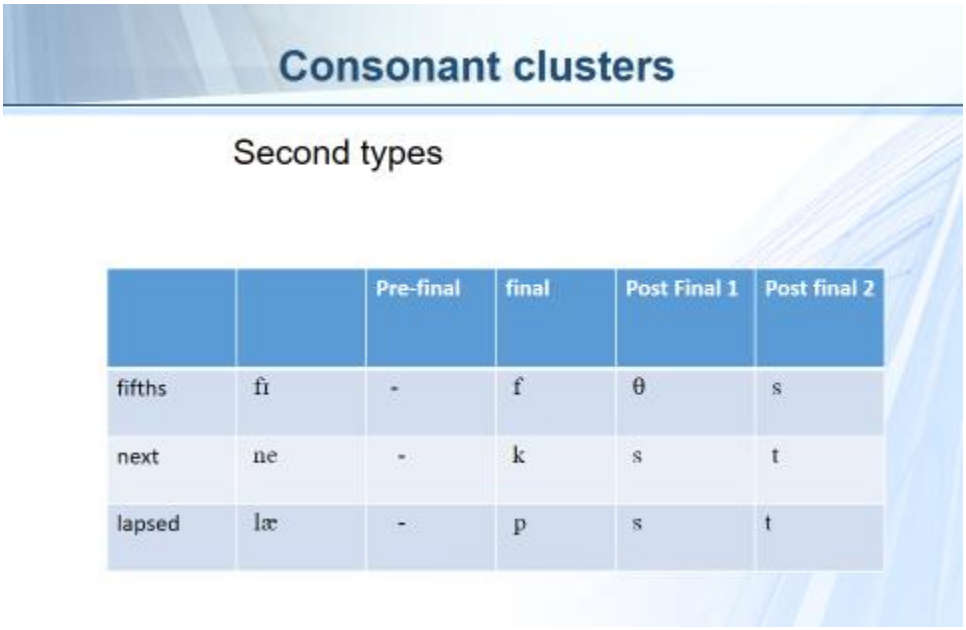
2) Final+post-final

- /s, z, t, d, θ/
- Bets, beds, backed,
- Bagged, eighth

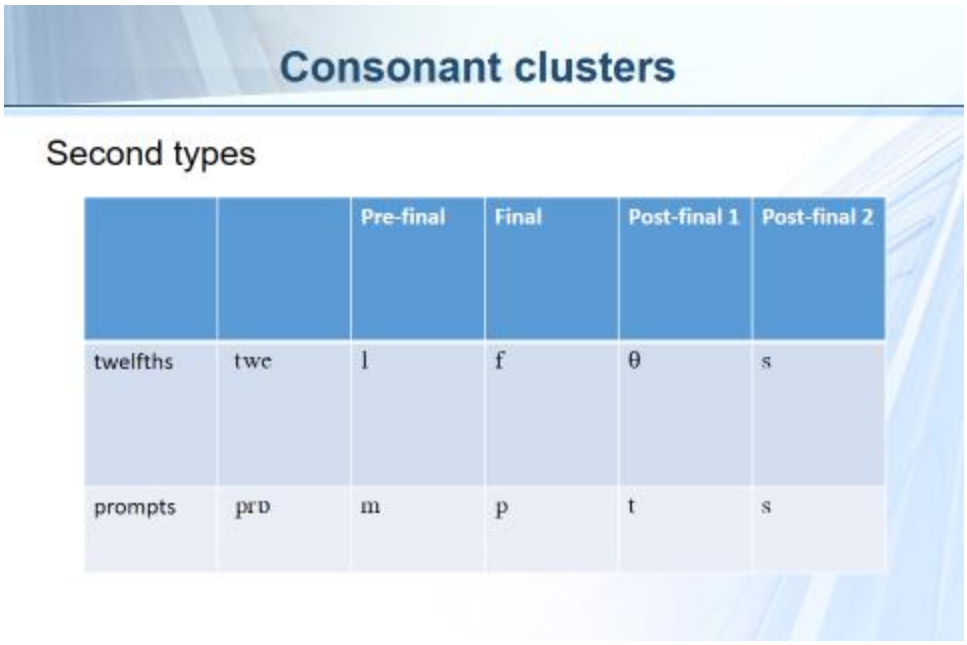
Two Types of Final Three-Consonant Cluster



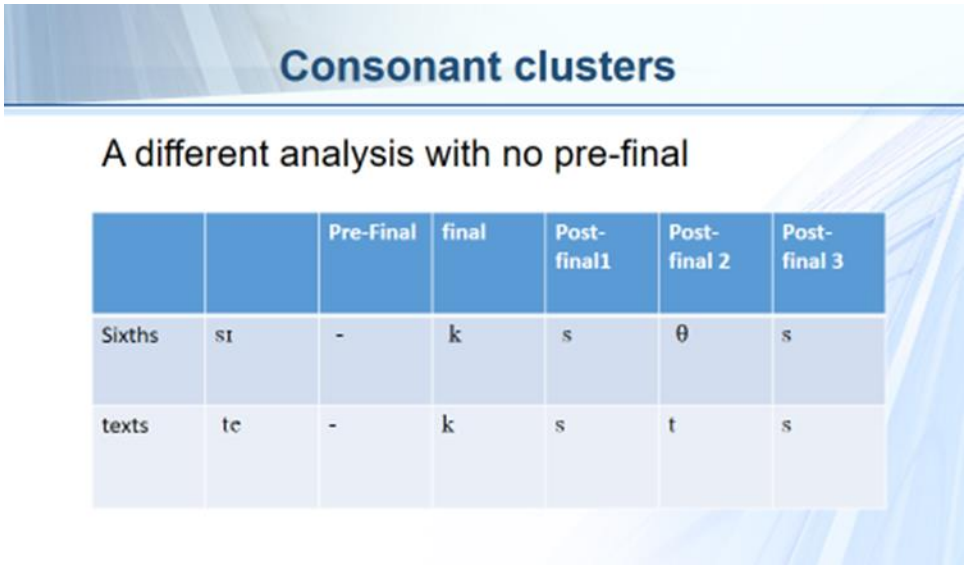
		Pre-final	Final	Post-final
helped	he	l	p	t
banks	bæ	ŋ	k	s
bonds	bɒ	n	d	z
twelfth	twe	l	f	θ



		Pre-final	final	Post Final 1	Post final 2
fifths	fɪ	-	f	θ	s
next	ne	-	k	s	t
lapsed	læ	-	p	s	t



A Different Analysis with No Pre-Final Consonant



Topic- 087: Abutting Consonants

English has three consonants in the beginning of a syllable and up to four consonants at the end. Sequences of consonants occurring in the beginning or end of a syllable are called consonant cluster. In the word send /send/, /-nd/ belongs to the same syllable whereas in number /ˈnʌmbər/, /-mb-/ belongs to two different syllables. Consonants like /-m/ and /b-/ occurring together in a word but belonging to two different syllables are called abutting consonants.

Lesson-16

STRESS

Topic- 088: Definition

In phonology, stress or accent is relative emphasis or prominence given to a certain syllable in a word, or to a certain word in a phrase or sentence. If you look at the following words, you will find that the first word is a single syllable word and the stress or accent is given in the beginning of the syllable. The second word is a disyllable word and the stress is given on the first syllable while the third word is a tri-syllable word and the stress is given to the second syllable:

phrase /ˈfreɪz/ profile /ˈprəʊ.faɪl/ potato /pəˈteɪ.təʊ/

This emphasis is typically caused by such properties as increased loudness and vowel length, full articulation of the vowel, and changes in pitch. The terms stress and accent are often used synonymously in this context, but they are sometimes distinguished. For example, when emphasis is produced through pitch alone, it is called pitch accent, and when produced through length alone, it is called quantitative accent. When caused by a combination of various intensified properties, it is called stress accent or dynamic accent; English uses variable stress accent.

What are the characteristics of stress? We can look at this question from two points: production point of view and perception point of view. From production point of view, the articulatory muscles are more active, and the speakers use more energy, and there is higher sub-glottal pressure.

From the perception point of view, the stressed syllable has the feature of prominence which has certain qualities such as loudness, vowel length, quality, and pitch, which are also used for other linguistic functions; it is difficult to define stress solely phonetically.
Four characteristics of prominence

- Louder
- Length
- Pitch
- Quality

The stress placed on syllables within words is called word stress or lexical stress. Some languages have fixed stress, meaning that the stress on virtually any multisyllabic word falls on a particular syllable, such as the first or penultimate. Other languages, like English, have variable stress, where the position of stress in a word is not predictable in that way. Sometimes more than one level of stress, such as primary stress and secondary stress, may be identified. However, some languages, such as French and Mandarin, are sometimes analyzed as lacking lexical stress entirely. Stress is placed on lexical words like verb, adjective, and noun, whereas preposition, articles, and pronouns are not stressed.

Topic- 089: Types of Stress (Word-stress)

The stress placed on words within sentences is called sentence stress or prosodic stress. This is one of the three components of prosody, along with rhythm and intonation. Spoken English is rhythmic, like music and poetry, and that rhythm is based on pauses and stress. The stress tells the listener which words are important. Most unstressed words are ignored or discarded. If English is spoken without rhythm, the native speaker is forced to listen to every word, which is boring, difficult, and tiring. Thus, rhythm is essential for good spoken English. For rhythm, they use stress.

There are two types of syllables: Stressed vs. unstressed syllables

- Primary stress: The syllable that is louder than the unstressed syllable has primary stress. It is marked in IPA by putting a raised vertical line ['] at the beginning of the syllable. In the word 'about' /əˈbaʊt/ second syllable is stressed. The second syllable is prominent and said with great force, so, this is primary stress.
- Secondary stress: The syllables having secondary stress are not completely unstressed, but are not as loud as the primary stress. Secondary stress is marked with a lowered vertical line [ˌ] at the beginning of the syllable.
- In 'photographic' /ˌfəʊ.təˈgræf.ɪk/ we find primary stress is on third syllable whereas secondary stress is on first syllable.

Besides, stress occurs on **three types of situations** or syntactic categories in English:

1. **Syllable stress:** In syllable stress, one syllable in a word is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent syllables.
2. **Word stress:** In word stress, one word is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent words in a sentence.
3. **Phrase, clause or sentence stress:** In phrase, clause or sentence stress, one phrase, clause or sentence is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent phrases, clauses or sentences in a paragraph. This type of stress occurs when the speaker seeks to draw attention to the most important sentence in a long paragraph.

Topic- 090: Sentence Stress

Sentence stress is the music of spoken English. Like word stress, sentence stress can help understand spoken English, even rapid spoken English. Sentence stress gives English its rhythm or 'beat'. Word stress is accent on one syllable within a word whereas sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence.

Most sentences have two basic types of words:

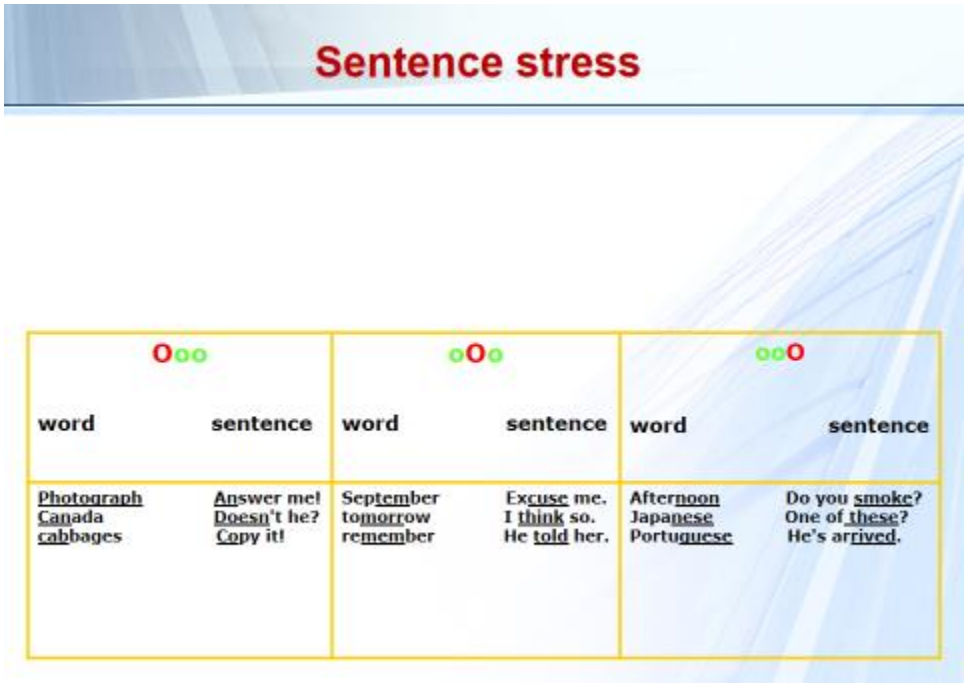
Content Words

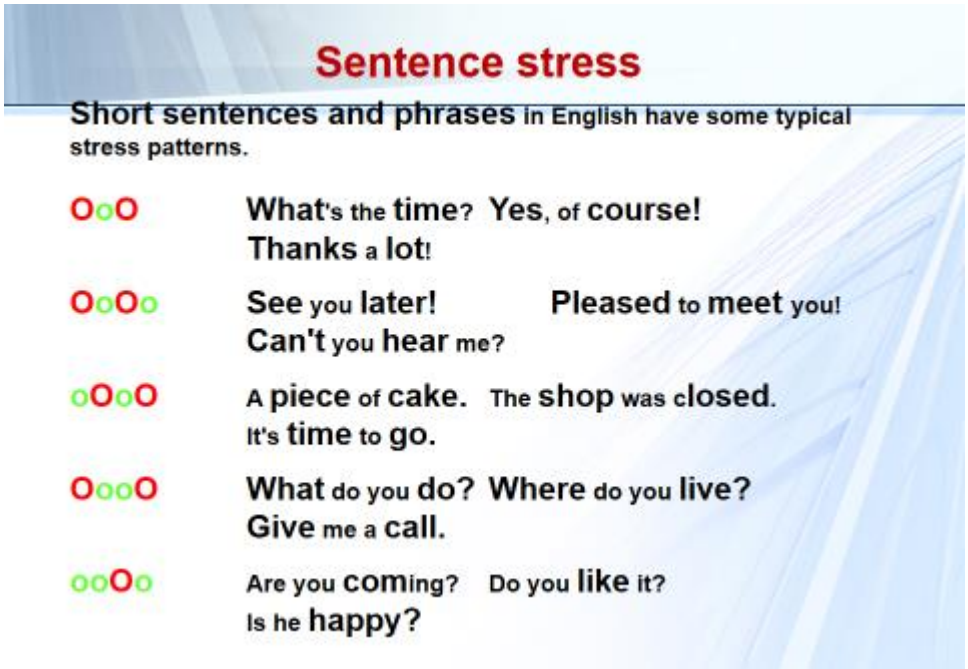
Content words are the key words of a sentence. They are the important words that carry the meaning or sense—the real content.

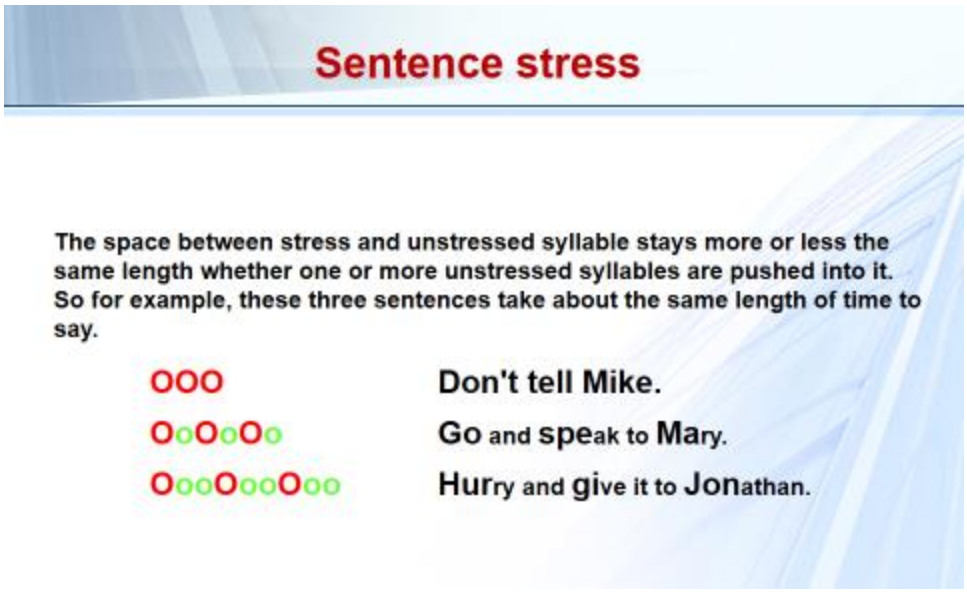
Structure Words

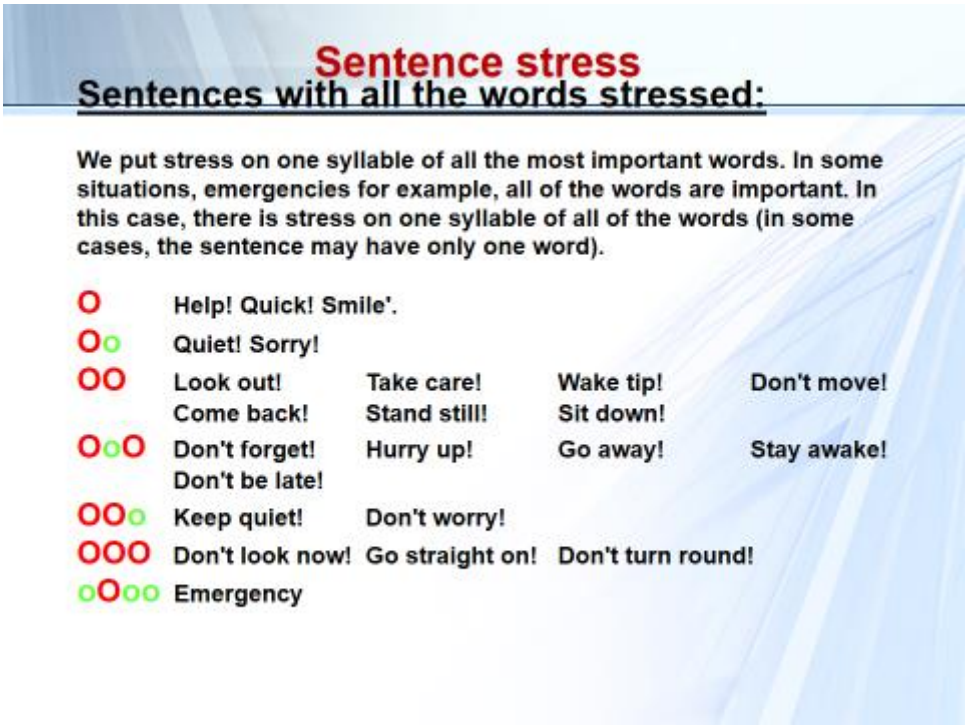
Structure words are not very important words. They are small, simple words that make the sentence grammatically correct. They give the sentence its correct form i.e., its structure. Content words cannot be removed while structural words can be removed.

Sentence Stress









In English sentence stress, the following kinds of words are usually stressed. The examples given are from the sentences.

- verbs (help)
- two-part verbs (look out)
- adjectives (quick)
- nouns (emergency)
- negative auxiliary verbs (don't)
- positive auxiliary verbs such as be in ‘Don't be late!’ are not usually stressed.

These are the kinds of words which are not normally stressed, with example words from the sentences.

- pronouns (your)
- the verb (was)
- auxiliary verbs (can)
- articles (the)
- conjunctions (and, or)
- prepositions (to)
- negative auxiliary verbs (can't, don't, hasn't, etc.) are usually stressed

Topic- 091: Syllable-timed Languages and Stress-timed Languages

Many people think, when they are studying a language, and they are new to it, that they need to pronounce each word fully and clearly in order to be well-understood. However, in English that is actually not the case. English is a stress-timed language. That means some syllables will be longer, and some will be shorter. Many languages, however, are syllable-timed, which means each syllable has the same length. Examples of syllable-timed languages include French, Spanish, and Cantonese. Therefore, when a British/American hears a sentence of English, with each syllable having the same length, it takes just a little bit longer to get the meaning. This is because stressed syllables will pop out of the line because they are longer, and they have more shape. The English ears and brains go straight to those words. Those are the content words. When all syllables are the same length, then there is no way for the ear to know which words are the most important.

In a syllable-timed language, every syllable is perceived as taking up roughly the same amount of time, though the absolute length of time depends on the prosody. Syllable-timed languages tend to give syllables approximately equal prominence, and generally lack reduced vowels.

French, Italian, Spanish, Icelandic, Cantonese, Mandarin Chinese, Georgian, Romanian, Armenian, Welsh, and Turkish are commonly quoted as examples of syllable-timed languages. This type of rhythm was originally metaphorically referred to as ‘machine-gun rhythm’ because each underlying rhythmical unit is of the same duration, similar to the transient bullet noise of a machine-gun.

Since the 1950s, speech scientists have tried to show the existence of equal syllable durations in the acoustic speech signal without success. More recent research claims that the duration of consonantal and vocalic intervals is responsible for syllable-timed perception.\

In a stress-timed language, syllables may last different amounts of time, but there is perceived to be a fairly constant amount of time (on average) between consecutive stressed syllables. Consequently, unstressed syllables between stressed syllables tend to be compressed to fit into the time interval. If two stressed syllables are separated by a single unstressed syllable, as in 'COME for TEA', the unstressed syllable will be relatively long, while if a larger number of unstressed syllables intervene, as in 'COME and have some TEA', the unstressed syllables will be shorter.

Stress timing is sometimes called Morse-code rhythm, but any resemblance between the two is only superficial. It is strongly related to vowel reduction processes. English, Thai, German, Russian, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Faroese, Dutch, Portuguese, and Persian are typical stress-timed languages. Some stress-timed languages, for example Arabic, retain unreduced vowels.

Topic- 092: General Rules of Stress

While giving stress it is important to see whether the word is morphologically simple or complex (one or more affixes) or a compound. Besides, what grammatical category it belongs to, how many syllables the word has and what the phonological structure of the syllables is. All these things matter while giving stress to a syllable in a word. Syllables can be divided into strong and weak.

Strong syllable has a rhyme composed of: long vowel/diphthong or a vowel + coda
(1 or more consonants) - /'dai/ /'hɑ:t/ /'bæt/
Weak syllable has a syllable peak which is a short vowel and Ø coda unless the peak is /ə/ or /ɪ/, e.g.,
/ rɪ'dju:s/ /'əʊ pən/

We also find unstressed strong syllables e.g., in dialect both syllables are strong but the first one is stressed. Only strong syllables can be stressed. Weak syllables are always unstressed.
Stress is on either the 1st or the 2nd syllable.
In verbs, if the 2nd syllable is strong, it is stressed.

- Apply / əˈplaɪ/
- Arrive /əˈraɪv/

If the 2nd syllable is weak, the 1st syllable is stressed.

- Enter /ˈen.tə/
- Envy /ˈen.vi/

The 1st syllable is also stressed in case the 2nd syllable contains /əʊ/.

- Follow /ˈfɒl.əʊ/
- Borrow / ˈbɒr.əʊ /

Simple adjectives are stressed according to the same rule that if one syllable is weak, the other syllable is stressed.

- even /ˈi:v(ə)n/
- correct /kəˈrekt/

Exceptions

Adjectives that end in strong syllables but are stressed on the 1st:

- honest/ˈɒn.ɪst/
- perfect /ˈpɜ:.fekt/

Different Rule for Nouns

Stress is on the 2nd syllable unless it contains a short vowel:

- Balloon /bəˈlu:n/

- Money/ˈmʌn.i/

Other two-syllable words seem to behave like verbs and adjectives.

Verbs

Strong final syllable is stressed:
´entertain /en.təˈteɪn/
If the final syllable is weak, the preceding (penultimate) syllable (if strong) will be stressed:

- ´encounter /ɪnˈkaʊn.tə/
- ´determine /dɪˈtɜː.mɪn/

If they are both weak, the stress is on the first one e.g., ´parody /ˈpær.ə.di/.

Nouns

If the final syllable is weak, or contains /əʊ/, stress falls on the preceding: ´potato /pəˈteɪ.təʊ/
If the final and penultimate syllables are weak, stress is on the initial syllable e.g., quantity /ˈkwɒn.tə.ti/ because stress tends to move to strong syllables.

Lesson-17

MORPHOLOGY I

Topic- 093: Morphology

Morphology is the study of words. How are they formed? What is their relationship to other words in the same language? It analyses the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Morphology is essentially the grammar of words and deals with the forms of words e.g., the relation between take and took, dog and dogs. Words can be related to other words by rules, for example, English speakers recognize that the words dog, dogs, and dogcatcher are closely related.

Lexemes and Word Forms

The distinction between these two senses of 'word' is arguably the most important one in morphology. The first sense of 'word,' the one in which dog and dogs are 'the same word,' is called lexeme. The second sense is called word form. We thus say that dog and dogs are different forms of the same lexeme. Dog and dog catcher, on the other hand, are different lexemes; for example, they refer to two different kinds of entities. The form of a word that is chosen conventionally to represent the canonical form of a word is called a lemma, or citation form. Informally, word formation rules form 'new words' (that is, new lexemes).

While inflection rules yield variant forms of the 'same' word (lexeme). Joining two words to make a new word is process of compounding or compound form such as dogcatcher. Derivation involves affixing bound (non-independent) forms to existing lexemes, whereby the addition of the affix derives a new lexeme. The word independent is derived from the word dependent by prefixing it with the derivational prefix in-, while dependent itself is derived from the verb depend.

In many languages, what appear to be single forms actually turn out to contain a large number of 'word-like' elements. For example, in Swahili (spoken throughout East Africa), the form *nitakupenda* conveys what, in English, would have to be represented as something like *I will love you*. Now, is the Swahili from a single word? If it is a 'word,' then it seems to consist of a number of elements which, in English, turn up as separate 'words.' A rough correspondence can be presented in the following way:

- ni- ta- ku- penda
- 'I will you love'

Perhaps a better way of looking at linguistic forms in different languages would be to use this notion of 'elements' in the message, rather than depend on identifying only 'words.' The type of exercise we have just performed is an example of investigating basic forms in language, generally known as morphology. This term, which literally means 'the study of forms,' was originally used in Biology, but since the middle of the nineteenth century, has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyses all those basic 'elements' used in a language. What we have been describing as 'elements' in the form of a linguistic message, are technically known as 'morphemes.'

Topic- 094: Morpheme

A morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in a language. In other words, it is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. A morpheme is not identical to a word, and the principal difference between the two is that a morpheme may or may not stand alone, whereas a word, by definition, is freestanding. When a morpheme stands by itself, it is considered a root because it has a meaning of its own (e.g., the morpheme dog) and when it depends on another morpheme to express an idea, it is an affix because it has a grammatical function (e.g., the –s in dogs to indicate that it is plural). Every word comprises one or more morphemes.

Talks, talker, talked, talking

The root is talk where -s, -er, -ed and –ing are affixes.

Word forms' may consist of a number of elements. All these elements are described as morphemes.

Therefore, a morpheme is 'a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, etc. In the sentence 'the police reopened the investigation' contains three morphemes that is, re-, open and -ed.

A morpheme meets three criteria: it is a word or part of word that has a meaning. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of meaningless remainder. It recurs in differing verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning.

- Unlikely un +like + ly
- Unkindly un +kind + ly

The following words are single morphemes as if divided would lose the meaning they have as in the present words.

- Carpet
- Garbage

Topic- 095: Free Morphemes

The morpheme that can stand alone as a single word by itself is called free morpheme. The free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. When they are used with bound morphemes, the basic word forms are technically known as stems.

Free Morphemes:

Reopened: open

Tourists: tour

The following are bound morphemes:

- re-
- -ed
- -ist
- -s

Unexplainable
Explain (stem)
un- (bound)
-able (bound)

The description is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English.
receive, reduce and repeat,
-ceive, -duce and -peat
These are ‘bound stems’ as they cannot stand alone as words.

A free morpheme can occur in isolation and cannot be divided into smaller meaning units. 'House' or 'dog' are ‘free stems’ such as dress and care. The stem that cannot be further split up is also called root.

Topic- 096: Bound Morphemes

Segments or forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form are called Bound Morphemes. Bound morphemes are also called affixes (prefixes and suffixes) in English.
Reopened: re- -ed
Environmentalist: -ist
Schools: -s

Words	Prefix	Base/stem	Words	Base/stem	Affix
unhappy	un-	happy	friendship	friend	-ship
immobile	im-	mobile	Boyhood	boy	-hood
enable	en-	Able	Boys	boy	-s
Illegal	il-	legal	Nicely	nice	-ly

Affixes can be both inflectional and derivational morphemes.

Topic- 097: Lexical Morphemes

Free morphemes fall into two categories.

- Lexical morphemes
- Functional morphemes

Lexical morphemes are absolutely necessary to convey an idea to someone else. They can be understood fully in and of itself—boy, for example, as well as run, green, quick, paper, large, throw, and now.

Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are typical kinds of lexical morphemes. Lexical morphemes are longer and, with the exception of ‘ox’ and American English's ‘ax’, are spelt with a minimum of three graphemes. Lexical morphemes carry stress as a word as well as in a sentence. Functional morphemes will only be stressed if prominence on them is contextually warranted e.g.,
It is HER book.

Topic- 098: Functional Morphemes

Free morphemes fall into two categories:

- Lexical morpheme
- Functional morpheme

Some examples of functional morphemes are and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, the, that, it, and them. Functional morphemes function to specify the relationship between one lexical morpheme and another. The functional morphemes in the language fall in the word classes as

- Conjunctions
- Prepositions
- Articles
- Pronouns
- Auxiliary verbs
- Modals
- Quantifiers

A functional morpheme simply modifies the meaning of the word, rather than supplying the root meaning of the word. It encodes grammatical meaning e.g., the girls entered the classroom. In this sentence, 'the' is functional morpheme, which is specifying girl and classroom.
Functional morphemes belong to the 'closed' class of words. Normally, new functional morphemes cannot be coined.

Lesson-18

MORPHOLOGY II

Topic- 099: Derivational Morphemes

The set of affixes that make up the category of bound morphemes can also be divided into two types.

- Derivational Morpheme
- Inflectional Morpheme

Derivational morphemes change the grammatical categories of words.

Word	Part of speech	Affix	New word	Changed class
bake	verb	-er	Baker	noun
quick	adjective	-ly	Quickly	adverb
Happy	Adjective	-ness	happiness	noun

Derivational morphemes can be added to free morphemes or to other derivational morphemes. For example, the concept can be explained in the word 'Transform' (v) as follows:

Form (root word)
Prefix trans-, a derivational morpheme
Suffix -ation making it 'transformation' (n)
-al to transformation will change it to 'transformational' (adj.)

Semantic Content

Content words add meaning but they are not words. In English, all prefixes are derivational. This contrasts with English suffixes, which may be either derivational or inflectional. The set of derivational affixes is open-ended; that is, there are a potentially infinite number of them.

Topic- 100: Inflectional Morphemes

An inflectional morpheme is a suffix that is added to a word to assign a particular grammatical property to that word. For example,
Play +ing = playing

They serve as grammatical markers that indicate tense, number, possession, or comparison. Inflectional morphemes do not change the essential meaning or the grammatical category of a word.

Noun plural (-s)	-s -es	Book+s/ glass+es	Books /glasses
Possessive noun	-'s	Captain+'s	Captain's
Verb present tense	-s	start+s	Starts
Verb past tense	-ed	play+ed	Played
Verb present participle	-ing	Playing	Playing

Verb past participle	-en	Eat+en	Eaten
Adjective comparative	-er	larg+er	Larger
Adjective superlative	-est	large+st	Largest

Only lexical words take inflectional affixes. The inflectional affixes are few; there number is only eight in English. Closed classes of words take no inflectional affixes in English. Inflectional affixes always follow derivational affixes. An inflectional morpheme does not have the capacity to change the meaning or the syntactic class of the words it is bound to and will have a predictable meaning for all such words.

Topic- 101: Derivational vs. Inflectional Morphemes

Inflectional morphemes never change the grammatical category e.g.,

- Tall (adj.)
- Taller (adj.)

Inflectional suffixes follow derivational suffixes.

- Workers
- Work -er (derivational suffix) -s (inflectional suffix)

Derivational morphemes often change the part of speech.

- read (verb) becomes reader (noun)

Some derivational morphemes do not change the grammatical category of a word.
prefixes as un- re-

- happy and unhappy
- fill and refill are verbs

-hood and -dom in neighbourhood and kingdom

- Derivational morphemes show the 'inner' layer of words.
- Inflectional suffixes mark the 'outer' layer of words.

Derivational morphemes are of a large number while inflectional are a few in number.

Topic- 102: Morphological Description

The difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes is as follows.
Old and older are adjectives.-er inflection (from Old English -ra) simply creates a different version of the adjective.

The verb *teach* becomes the noun *teacher* if we add the derivational morpheme -er (from Old English -ere). The suffix -er in Modern English is as an inflectional morpheme as part of an adjective, as a distinct derivational morpheme as part of a noun.
Here is the morphological description of the sentence 'The child's simplicity impressed the teacher'.

Morpheme	Free	Lexical	Child impress teach simple
	Bound	Functional	The
		Derivational	-er, city
		Inflectional	-‘s , -ed

Order of Morpheme

Derivational morpheme come first teacher+s and inflectional morpheme comes after teacher+s.

Topic- 103: Problems in Morphological Description

Apparent description of morphological analysis is simple as it can be seen in the following example:
Cat + -s = cats
But what is the plural of these words: Sheep + ? Man + ?
If institution +-al = institutional and –al is an adjective suffix, but in legal –al is not used to make leg adjective as leg alone has no meaning of the word legal in it.

Other Problematic Cases

The relationship between law and legal is also of the same problem. At best we can say that law (Old English (lagu) from a Scandinavian source) and legal (Latin form legalis (‘of the law’) have come into English from different languages and different periods. We do not find any derivational relationship between the following:

- noun adjective
- law legal
- mouth oral

Topic- 104: Morphs and Allomorphs

As phone is actual realization of the phonemes, morphs are actual forms to realize morphemes.

- Cats cat+s(plural)
- Buses bus +es(plural)

At least, there are two different morphs (-s,-es) /s/ and /ɪz/ to realize the inflectional morpheme ‘plural’.

Allomorph

A group of different morphs, version of one morpheme, is called ‘allomorphs’.

Plural morpheme	Allomorphs
{e(s)}	/ɪz/ in the case of words ending in /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/ e.g., buses /bʌsɪz/, vases /vɑː zɪz/, bushes /b ʊ ʃ ɪz/, rouges /ruː ʒɪz/, churches /tʃɜː tʃɪz/, judges /dʒʌdʒɪz/
	/s/ in the case of words ending in a voiceless consonant (other than /ʃ, s, tʃ/): cats /kæts/, caps /kæps/ /z/ in the case of words ending in voiced sounds (other than (/z, ʒ, dʒ/): boys /bɔɪz/, bags /bægz/

Similarly, the present tense morpheme {-e(s)} has three allomorphs /s/, /z/ and /ɪz/.

- Packs /pæks/
- Digs /dɪgz/
- Washes /wɒʃɪz/

The past tense morpheme of English, {-e(d)} has also three different (phonologically conditioned) allomorphs /t/, /d/ and /ɪd/.

Past morpheme	Example
{e(d)}	/t/ after morphs ending in voiceless sounds (except /t/) booked /bʊkt/, pushed /pʊʃt/ /d/ after morphs ending in voiced sounds (except /d/) loved /lʌvd/, bagged /bægd/ /ɪd/ after morphs ending in /t/ and /d/ wanted /ˈwɒntɪd/, wedded /wedɪd/

Another plural morph is ‘zero morph’
Plural form of sheep is:
Sheep +ø
Man + Plural (vowel change) irregular plural form
Other morphological processes at work in languages:
Go + past tense > went

Lesson-19

MORPHOLOGY III

Topic- 105: Coinage

Coinage is the word formation process in which a new word is created either deliberately or accidentally without using the other word formation processes, and often from seemingly nothing. As neologism or coinage, we identify the word formation process of inventing entirely new words. This is constant evolution of new words and new uses. It is a sign of vitality and creativeness in the way a language is shaped by the needs of its users. These words are invented as trade names for commercial products, and soon they become general terms.

Older examples are aspirin, nylon, vaseline and zipper; recent examples are granola, kleenex, teflon, and Xerox. They have become everyday words in the language; for example, the word Google from the word Googleplex, which later became the name of a company (Google).
Similarly, for searching something online the word 'ebay' is used.

Have you tried ebaying it?

Eponyms

New words are also made based on the name of a person or a place.

- Hoover (after the person who marketed it)
- Spangle (after the person who invented it)
- Sandwich (after an Earl who would have two pieces of bread with meat while gambling)
- Jeans (after a city of Italy Genoa)

Some eponyms are technical terms, based on the names of those who first discovered or invented things such as:

- Fahrenheit (from the German, Gabriel Fahrenheit)
- Volt (from the Italian, Alessandro Volta)
- Watt (from the Scottish inventor, James Watt

Topic- 106: Borrowing

In linguistics, borrowing (also known as lexical borrowing) is the process by which a word from one language is adapted for use in another. The word that is borrowed is called a borrowing, a borrowed word, or a loanword. A borrowed word is never given back as the word indicates. It is the most common source of new words in English. Some common borrowed words and the languages that have been borrowed are mentioned below.

- Croissant (French) Dope (Dutch)
- Lilac (Persian)
- Piano (Italian)

- Pretzel (German),
- Sofa (Arabic),
- Tattoo (Tahitian)
- Tycoon (Japanese)
- Yogurt (Turkish)
- Zebra (Bantu)

Loan Translation or Calque

Sometimes words in another language are translated. This process is called loan translation or a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. The English word skyscraper is thus translated as the following and all of these are calques for the English word skyscraper.

- French gratte-ciel, (literally translates as 'scrape-sky,')
- Dutch wolkenkrabber ('cloud scratcher')
- German Wolkenkratzer('cloud scraper'),

The English expression 'moment of truth' is a Spanish phrase el momento de la verdad. Nowadays, some Spanish speakers eat *perros calientes* (dogs hot) or hot dogs.

Topic- 107: Compounding / Blending

Joining of two separate words to produce a single form is a very common word formation process in languages.

Examples of compounding using all nouns:

bookcase, doorknob, fingerprint, sunburn, textbook, wallpaper, wastebasket and waterbed

Using adjectives:

good-looking, low-paid

Compounds of adjective:

Fast plus noun food=fast-food restaurant, a full-time job.

It is a very common process in other languages too.

Blending

The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term:

Smoke +fog = smog

Smoke + haze= smaze

Smoke + murk=smurk

- Bit()
- Brunch (breakfast + lunch)
- Motel (hotel + motor)
- Telecast ()
- Infotainment (information + entertainment)
- Simulcast ()

Mixing of languages

- Franglais (French + English)
- Spanglish (Spanish + English)

Information technology

Telex ()

Topic- 108: Clipping

The element of reduction that is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as clipping for example:

Fax from facsimile

This process occurs with a word of more than one syllable and usually the beginning is clipped. It is used in casual speech.

gas (gasoline), ad (advertisement), cab (cabriolet), condo (condominium), fan (fanatic), flu (Influenza)

English speakers also like to clip each other's names.

Ed, Liz, Mike, Ron, Sam, Sue, Tom

In educational field

chem, exam, gym, lab, math, policy, prof and typo

Hypocorisms

A particular type of reduction, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as hypocorisms. In this process a longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then -y or -ie is added to the end.

Movie ('moving pictures'), telly ('television'), Aussie ('Australian'), barbie ('barbecue'), brekky ('breakfast'), hankie ('handkerchief')

Topic- 109: Acronyms

An acronym is a word or name formed as an abbreviation from the initial components in a phrase or a word, usually individual letters, and sometimes syllables (as in Benelux). There are no universal standards of the multiple names for such abbreviations and of their orthographic styling. Words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.

CD ('compact disk'), VCR ('video cassette recorder')

The initials are pronounced as new single words.

NATO, NASA, UNESCO

There are many every day terms such as: laser ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), radar ('radio detecting and ranging'), scuba ('self-contained underwater breathing apparatus') are examples of this process.

Names for organizations are often designed to have their acronym represent an appropriate term.

Some New Acronyms

- ATM (‘automatic teller machine’), PIN (‘personal identification number’)
- I sometimes forget my PIN number when I go to the ATM machine.

Topic- 110: Derivation (Prefixes, Suffixes, Infixes)

A derivational affix is an affix by means of which one word is formed (derived) from another. The derived word is often of a different word class from the original. In contrast to an inflectional affix, a derivational affix:

- is not part of an obligatory set of affixes
- generally occurs closer to the root
- generally is more meaningful, and
- is more likely to result in a form that has a somewhat idiosyncratic meaning.

Prefixes are the kind of affixes which are added to the beginning of the word: un-, mis- . Affixes added to the end of the word -less, -ish are suffixes.

All English words formed by this derivational process have either prefixes or suffixes, or both.

- Mislead
- Disrespectful
- Foolishness

Infix

A third type of affix not normally used in English is found in some other languages of the world. However, there are few example of infixes in English such as: Absogoddamlutely!, Fandamntastic.

Lesson-20

GRAMMAR I

Topic- 111: Grammar

The word grammar is from Greek word ‘gramma’ which means ‘art of letters’. Grammar is the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term also refers to the study of such rules, and this field includes phonology, morphology, and syntax, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

Grammar refers to cognitive information underlying language use. Speakers of a language have a set of internalized rules for using that language. These rules constitute grammar, and the vast majority of the information in the grammar is—at least in the case of one's native language—acquired not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers. Much of this work is done during early childhood; learning a language later in life usually involves a greater degree of explicit instruction.

The Babylonians made some early attempts at language description, but the first systematic grammars, of Sanskrit, originated in Iron Age India. Most known of them are:

- Yaska (6th century BC)
- Pāṇini (4th century BC)
- Pingala (200 BC)
- Katyayana (300 BC)
- Patanjali (2nd century BC)

English has strict rules for combining words into phrases.

- Noun Phrase
  The good boy
  Art + adj. + noun
- Verb Phrase
  Is playing
  Aux + verb
- Adjective Phrase
  Very beautiful
  Adverb + Adjective
- Adverb Phrase
  Quite easily
  Adverb + Adverb
- Prepositional phrase
  To the park
  Preposition + Art + noun

Different languages have different ways of sequencing phrases.

Topic- 112: Traditional Grammar

The collection of prescriptive rules and concepts about the structure of language that is commonly taught in schools is known as traditional grammar. It is largely based on the principles of Latin grammar, not on current linguistic research in English. It focuses on the distinction between what some people do with language, and what they ought to do with it, according to a pre-established standard.

The chief goal is to perpetuate a historical model of what supposedly constitutes proper language. The terms 'article,' 'adjective' and 'noun' that we use to label the grammatical categories come from traditional grammar. Latin and Greek were the languages of scholarship, religion, philosophy and 'knowledge'; the grammars of these languages were taken to be the model for other grammars especially in English language. Here are some characteristics of traditional grammar:

- Mechanics: Proper Punctuation
- Style: Sentence Structure
- Usage: Diction
- Usage: Parts of Speech
- Style: Spelling

The best-known terms from that tradition are those used in describing the parts of speech.

Topic- 113: The Parts of Speech

In traditional grammar, a part of speech is a category of words which have similar grammatical properties. The Sanskrit grammarian Yāska defined four main categories (6th century BC). Dionysius Thrax (2nd century BC) gave the concept of eight parts of speech which was further modified by Latin grammarian Priscian (500 AD). Basic definitions of this type are useful for identifying most forms in a language such as English. A different approach might focus on some other properties of the parts of speech.

Topic- 114: Agreement

Traditional grammatical analysis has also given us a number of other categories, including 'number,' 'person,' 'tense,' 'voice' and 'gender.' Their role in describing language structure becomes clearer when we consider them in terms of agreement e.g., 'Cathy loves her dog.'

Agreement is partially based on the category of number. The subject is singular so the verb is also singular. It is also based on the category of 'person'. Similarly, in this sentence the verb is singular because their person takes a singular verb. The different forms of English pronouns can be described in terms of person and number.
e.g., I , we, he, she, etc.

In the sentence
'Cathy loves her dog.'
'Loves' is present tense. Also the above sentence is in active voice.
A passive voice would be

Her dog is loved by Cathy.
Gender describes the agreement between Cathy and her. A distinction in English is made between reference to female entities, male entities, and things or creatures.

Topic- 115: Grammatical Gender

The type of biological distinction used in English is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that use grammatical gender. Natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminine), and is not tied to sex. Nouns are classified according to their gender class, and typically, articles and adjectives have different forms to 'agree with' the gender of the noun in many languages.

Spanish, for example, has two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine, illustrated by the expressions el sol 'the sun' and la luna 'the moon'. German uses three genders, masculine der Mond 'the moon', feminine die Sonne 'the sun', and neuter das Feuer 'the fire'. The different forms of the articles in both the Spanish (el or la) and German (der, die or das) examples correspond to differences in the gender class of the nouns.

A young girl is biologically 'female' but the German noun das Ma¨dchen used to talk about her is grammatically neuter. The French noun in le livre ('the book') is grammatically masculine, but neither we nor the French people consider a book to be biologically male. The grammatical category of gender is very usefully applied in describing a number of languages (including Latin), but may not be appropriate for describing forms in other languages such as English.

Topic- 116: Traditional Analysis

The notion of 'appropriateness' of analytic categories for a particular language has not always been a consideration. Each of the Latin verb forms is different, according to the categories of person and number. The English verb forms are (with one exception) mostly the same. In English, it makes more sense to say the categories describe different pronouns.

Traditional Analysis

		English		Latin
	First person singular	I	love	amo
	Second person singular	You	love	amas
Present tense Active voice	Second person singular	She	loves	amat
	First person plural	We	love	amamus
	Second person plural	You	love	amatis
	Third person Plural	They	love	Amat

Lesson-21

GRAMMAR II

Topic- 117: The Prescriptive Approach

It is one thing to adopt the grammatical labels (e.g., 'noun,' 'verb') to categorize words in English sentences It is quite another thing to go on to claim that the structure of English sentences should be like the structure of sentences in Latin. This was an approach taken by a number of influential grammarians, mainly in eighteenth-century England, who set out rules for the 'proper' use of English. This view of grammar as a set of rules for the 'proper' use of a language is still to be found today and may be best characterized as the prescriptive approach.

- You must not split an infinitive.
- You need to immediately see him. Incorrect
- You need to see him immediately. Correct
- You must not end a sentence with a preposition.
- Who did you go with? Incorrect
- With whom did you go? Correct

The case of pronoun after comparative should be the nominative case for example,

- And Mary runs faster than me. Incorrect
- Mary runs faster than I. Correct
- Me and my family…. Incorrect
- My family and I…. Correct

In addition, in proper English writing, one should never begin a sentence with and! Similarly one cannot split an infinite like the following is considered incorrect.

To boldly go

This is so because it follows the Latin rules imposed on English, whereas in Latin ire ('to go') is one word, and 'audacter' ('boldly') is another. Besides, the Latin word for infinite 'ire' is single word and cannot be split. English structures are different from those of Latin.

Topic- 118: The Descriptive Approach

Using a well-established grammatical description of Latin is a useful guide for some European languages (e.g., Italian or Spanish), but is less useful for others (e.g., English). This last point became clear to those linguists who were trying to describe the structure of the native languages of North America toward the end of the nineteenth century. The categories and rules that were appropriate for Latin grammar just did not seem to fit these languages. In twentieth century, a rather different approach was adopted. The linguists took the samples of the language they were interested in and attempted to describe the regular structures of the language. This is called the descriptive approach. A descriptive grammarian would say that a sentence is 'grammatical' if a native speaker of the language would produce that

sentence in speaking. So, all prescriptive or normative rules of Latin grammar were considered to be applicable to English.

Topic- 119: Structural Analysis

One type of descriptive approach is called structural analysis and its main concern is to investigate the distribution of forms in a language. The method involves the use of 'test-frames' that can be sentences with empty slots in them. All the forms that fit in the same test-frame are the examples of the same grammatical category. We can fill in the words like boy, girl or horse but not a pronoun like he, she, it, in the following slot:
The ---------- drinks water.
---------- drinks water.

We can see that the pronouns fit in this second set of test-frames, and not in the first set (*The it makes a lot of noise). In the older analysis, under the influence of Latin, pronouns were described as 'words used in place of nouns'. We can now see that it is more accurate to say that pronouns are used in place of noun phrases (not just nouns). By developing a set of test-frames of this type and discovering which forms fit the slots in the test-frames, we can produce a description of aspects of the sentence structures of a language.

Topic- 120: Constituent Analysis

Constituent analysis is an approach to describe language. It is designed to show how small constituents (or components) in sentences go together to form larger constituents. One basic step is determining how words go together to form phrases.

At word level

An old man brought a shotgun to the wedding.

How do they go together to form constituent at phrase level?

(An old) (man brought) (brought a) (shotgun to)(to the)

The phrase-like constituents here are combinations of the following types:

- an old man
- a shotgun
- the wedding

Topic- 121: Labeled and Bracketed Sentences

An alternative type of diagram is designed to show how the constituents in sentence structure can be marked off by using labeled brackets.

Sentence are shown at the word level

[the] or [dog],

at the phrase level

[the dog] or [loved the girl],

and at the sentence level

[The dog loved the girl].

We can then label each constituent using these abbreviated grammatical terms:
Art (= article) V (= verb) N (= noun) VP (= verb phrase) NP (= noun phrase) S (= sentence)
Constituent analysis is not only useful for describing the structure of English sentences, it helps us understand each constituent at different levels.

Topic- 122: A Gaelic Sentence

Gaelic sentence is organised with the following structure:

V NP NP

It is different from English that has the following structure:

NP V NP

It may help us understand why a Spanish learner of English produces phrases like

*the book good

So, different languages have different structures.

Lesson-22

SYNTAX I

Topic- 123: Introduction

The word ‘syntax’ comes originally from Greek and literally means ‘a putting together’ or arrangement. There was an attempt to produce an accurate description of the sequence or ordering ‘arrangement’ of elements in the linear structure of the sentence. In the more recent attempts to analyze syntactic structure, there has been a greater focus on the underlying rule system that we used to produce or ‘generate’ sentences.

A prepositional phrase in English consists of a preposition followed by a noun phrase and a noun phrase consists of an article and a noun. For example, ‘near London’ is a correct prepositional phrase as London is a proper noun and does not need an article; on the other hand, ‘with dog’ is not a correct prepositional phrase as ‘dog’ should have article ‘a’ with it. So, the correct prepositional phrase is ‘a dog’.

Another Goal of Syntactic Analysis

A small and finite (i.e., limited) set of rules that will be capable of producing a large and potentially infinite (i.e., unlimited) number of well-formed structures. The small and finite set of rules is sometimes described as a ‘generative grammar’ because it can be used to ‘generate’ or produce sentence structures and not just describe them.

This type of grammar should also be capable of revealing the basis of two other phenomena:
How some superficially different sentences are closely related?
How some superficially similar sentences are in fact different?

Topic- 124: Generative Grammar

Generative grammar is a linguistic theory that regards grammar as a system of rules that generates exactly those combinations of words that form grammatical sentences in a given language. The generative school has focused on the study of syntax, but has also addressed other aspects of a language's structure, including morphology and phonology. Early versions of Chomsky's theory were called transformational grammar, which is still used as a general term that includes his subsequent theories. Generativists have argued that many of the properties of a generative grammar arise from a universal grammar that is innate to the human brain, rather than being learned from the environment. Noam Chomsky opposed the earlier theories of structuralism by rejecting the idea that each language is different from the other.

The basic concept sets forth the rules to recognize grammatical sentences in a language. These rules differentiate the correct structures from improper sequences of words or ungrammatical sentences in the same language. The sentence is represented as a tree having branches denoting the subordinate and superordinate elements rather than just a sequence of words. Generative grammar attempts to formalize the implicit rules that a person uses while speaking his native language. The rules of generative grammar may appear to be useful only in language studies.

Topic- 125: Properties of Generative Grammar

Noam Chomsky has argued that many of the properties of a generative grammar arise from an 'innate' universal grammar, which is common to all languages. The grammar must generate all the well-formed syntactic structures (i.e., sentences) of the language and fails to generate any ill-formed structures. The grammar will have a finite (i.e., limited) number of rules but will be capable of generating an infinite number of well-formed structures. The productivity of language would be captured within the grammar. Rules of this grammar also need the crucial property of recursion. The grammar will have to capture the fact that a sentence can have another sentence inside it. Grammar should also be capable of revealing the basis of two other phenomena:

1. How some superficially distinct sentences are closely related?
Charlie broke the window.
The window was broken by Charlie.
2. How some superficially similar sentences are in fact distinct?
The king is easy to please.
The king is eager to please.

Topic- 126: Well-Formed Syntactic Structures

Well-formedness is the quality of a clause, word, or other linguistic element that conforms to the grammar of the language of which it is a part. Well-formed words or phrases are grammatical, meaning they obey all relevant rules of grammar. A form that violates some grammar rule is ill-formed and does not constitute part of the language. A word may be phonologically well-formed. A word, phrase, clause, or utterance may be grammatically well-formed. A semantically well-formed utterance or sentence is one that is meaningful. Grammatical well-formedness and semantic well-formedness do not always coincide, e.g., colorless green ideas sleep furiously. This sentence is grammatically correct but semantically incorrect. Sometimes, native speakers of a language do not agree whether a particular word, phrase, or clause is well-formed. The problem of well-formedness is a problem for generative linguistics. Grammatic generator follows some universal patterns that should not vary among speakers.

Topic- 127: Finite Number of Rules

'A small set of rules operating on a large but finite set of words generates an infinite number of sentences.' The problem with this definition is that it assumes a very bound and discrete view of all elements: rules, lexical items, and sentences. Language is not organized in sentences and the difference between words and rules is likely to be an artifact of dictionary making and grammar writing. Similarly, there is no guarantee, that the actual number of possible sentences is infinite rather than just unimaginably and practically inexhaustibly large (as was argued by Pullum and Scholtz in 2010). As a matter of practical fact, the set of possible expressions in a given language may or may not be infinite; the actual set of all expressions ever uttered is going to be finite.

The set of expressions actually produced by humans (or even machines) is going to be too large to enumerate practically by current (and possibly any) technology but it is going to be finite. Therefore, it really does not matter whether language is infinite or not. The thing that matters is that any language is

going to allow a set of expressions that is sufficiently large for any purpose a human language can be put toward.

Topic- 128: Recursion

The Crucial Property of Recursion

Recursive ('repeatable any number of times') rules have the capacity to be applied more than once in generating a structure. For example,
The gun was on the table.
The above sentence has one prepositional phrase describing location i.e., 'on the table'.
We can also add 'near the window' and 'in the bedroom' in this sentence. Then it will be

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

Sentences are put inside other sentences e.g., 'Mary helped George.' can become 'Cathy knew that Mary helped George.' In addition, two sentences can be generated inside another sentence such as:
John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

Principally, there is no end to recursion. Grammar will have to capture the facts that:

- A sentence can have another sentence inside it.
- A phrase can be repeated as often as required.
- Recursion is a feature of grammar.
- It is an essential part of a theory of cosmic structure.

Lesson-23

SYNTAX II

Topic- 129: Surface Structure

In transformational and generative grammar, surface structure is the outward form of a sentence. Surface structures are derived from deep structures by a series of transformations. Deep and surface structures are often used as terms in a simple binary opposition, with the deep structure representing meaning, and the surface structure being the actual sentence we see. The final stage in the syntactic representation of a sentence provides the input to the phonological component of grammar. It corresponds to the structure of the sentence we articulate and hear.

- Charlie broke the window.
- The window was broken by Charlie.

The distinction between them is a difference in their surface structure. The grammar must be capable of showing how a single underlying abstract representation can become different surface structures.

Topic- 130: Deep Structure

- Charlie broke the window.
- The window was broken by Charlie.

The distinction between them is a difference in their surface structure. This superficial difference in form disguises the fact that the two sentences are very closely related, even identical, at some less superficial level. The 'underlying' level, where the basic components (Noun Phrase +Verb +Noun Phrase) shared by the two sentences can be represented, is called their 'deep structure'. The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented. That same deep structure can be the source of many other surface structures such as:

It was Charlie who broke the window.

The grammar must be capable of showing how a single underlying abstract representation can become different surface structures.

Topic- 131: Structural Ambiguity

Observe the following two distinct deep structures:

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

These two different versions of events can actually be expressed in the same surface structure form:
Annie bumped into a man with an umbrella. This sentence provides an example of structural ambiguity. It has two distinct underlying interpretations that have to be represented differently in deep structure.

Phrases can also be structurally ambiguous.

- ‘small boys and girls’

can be

- ‘small boys and (small) girls’
- ‘small boys and (all) girls.’

Our syntactic analysis will have to be capable of showing the structural distinction between these underlying representations.

Topic- 132: Symbols Used in Syntactic Description

While describing syntactical categories some symbols are used as abbreviations for syntactic categories.

- ‘S’ (= sentence),
- ‘NP’ (= noun phrase), ‘N’ (= noun),
- ‘Art’ (= article),
- ‘V’ (= verb) and
- ‘VP’ (= verb phrase)
- ‘PP’ (= prepositional phrase),

Three more symbols that are commonly used in syntactic description are the following:
First: an arrow → typically used in the following type of rule:
NP → Art N The dog (→) an article (Art) the and a noun (N) dog
Second: a pair of round brackets ()
‘the dog’ and ‘the small dog’ (NP)
NP → Art (Adj) N

The above shorthand notation expresses the idea that a noun phrase rewrites as (→) an article (Art) and a noun (N), with the option of including an adjective (Adj.) in a specific position between them.
Third:
Curly brackets {}

These indicate that only one of the elements enclosed within the curly brackets must be selected.
The list of common symbols and abbreviations is summarized here.

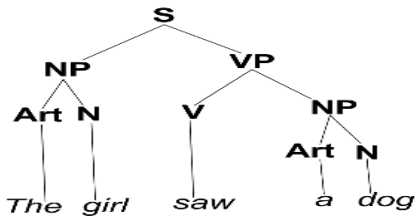
- S sentence
- NP noun phrase
- PN proper noun
- N noun
- VP verb phrase
- Adv. adverb
- V verb
- Adj. adjective
- Prep preposition
- Art article
- Pro pronoun
- PP prepositional phrase

- ungrammatical sentence
- → consists of / rewrites as
- () optional constituent
- {} one and only one of these constituents must be selected.

Topic- 133: Labelled Tree Diagrams

The most common way to create a visual representation of syntactic structures is through tree diagrams. We can use the symbols introduced (Art=article, N = noun, NP = noun phrase) to label parts of the tree as we try to capture the hierarchical organization of those parts in the underlying structure of phrases and sentences. At the top of the tree diagram, we begin with a sentence (S), and divide it into two constituents (NP and VP). In turn, the NP constituent is divided into two other constituents (Art and N) and VP into V and NP.





At the top of the tree diagram, we begin with a sentence (S) and divide it into two constituents (NP and VP). In turn, the NP constituent is divided into two other constituents (Art and N).

Lesson-24

SYNTAX III (RULES OF SYNTACTIC DESCRIPTION)

Topic- 134: Phrase Structure Rules

These are the rules that form phrases of different types e.g., noun phrase, verb phrase, and adjective phrase etc. A tree diagram can have two different ways: simply as a static representation of the structure of the sentence shown at the bottom of the tree diagram. Every single sentence can have a tree diagram. The other one is the dynamic format which is a way of generating not only that particular sentence, but a very large number of other sentences with similar structures. This second approach is very appealing because it would enable us to generate a very large number of sentences with what looks like a very small number of rules. These rules are called phrase structure rules.

These rules state that the structure of a phrase of a specific type will consist of one or more constituents in a particular order. Phrase structure rules present the information of the tree diagram in another format.

- **S → NP VP**
- **NP → {Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}**
- **VP → V NP (PP) (Adv)**
- **PP → Prep NP**

Topic- 135: Lexical Rules

Phrase structure rules generate structures. To turn those structures into recognizable English, we also need lexical rules. They specify which words can we rewrite constituents such as N. The first rule in the following set states that 'a proper noun rewrites as Mary or George'.

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

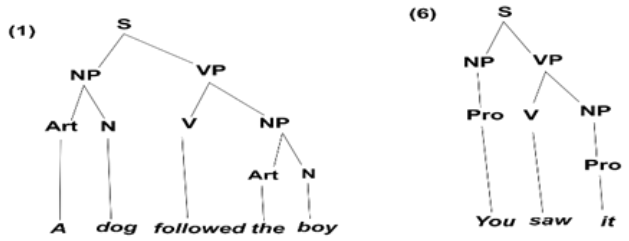
These rules generate the grammatical sentences:

1) A dog followed the boy.
2) Mary helped George.
3) George saw the dog
4) The boy helped you
5) It followed Mary.
6) You saw it.

But the ungrammatical sentences lack the rules like:
Dog followed boy.
The helped you boy.
George Mary dog.
Helped George the dog.
You it saw.
Mary George helped.

As a way of visualizing how the phrase structure rules form the basis of these sentences, we can draw the tree diagrams for sentences (1) and (6).

The same PS rules can be shown on tree diagram.



Topic- 136: Back to Recursion

The simple phrase structure rules listed earlier have no recursive elements. Each time we start to create an S, we only create a single S (sentence structure). We actually need to be able to include sentence structures within other sentence structures. In traditional grammar, these 'sentence structures' were described as 'clauses'.

- Mary helped George.
- Cathy knew that [Mary helped George].

Being tediously recursive, there are repeatable elements in these sentences:

- John believed that [Cathy knew that [Mary helped George]].

Two new proper nouns and two new verbs have been used.

- PN → {John, Cathy}
- V → {believed, knew}.

The word 'that' introduces a complement phrase as;

- Mary helped George.
- Cathy knew that Mary helped George.
- John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

Topic- 137: Transformational Rules

Transformational rules (T-Rules) relate the spoken form of the sentence (surface structure) to their underlying meaning (deep structure), for example,

- Linguists often use large words.
- Large words are often used by linguists.

These set contain s synonymous sentence. As the forms are different their phrase marker would be different. Surface structure refers to the actual utterance that can be broken down by traditional analysis. Different surface structure may have the same deep structure or vice versa.

Some Types of Transformations

Deletion: A sentence that undergoes the transformation must have the same meaning as the sentence from which it was derived.

Imperative transformation: Transformation never changes meaning. The meaning remains same, e.g.,
You come home
Come home.

Insertion transformation

He knew she was here.
He knew that she was here.
He won the race is history.
That he won the race is history.

Substitution transformation

Pronoun substitution
Pronominalization Transformation
Tony thought that Tony was the best.
Tony thought that he was the best.

Topic- 138: Particle Movement

Particle movement takes place in a construction which is made up of a verb and a particle (e.g., 'look up the number'). The relocation of the particle to the right of the noun phrase that serves as the object (e.g., 'look the number up') is an example of particle movement. .
The boy passed out the candy.
The boy passed the candy out.
Linguists often use large words.
Large words are often used by linguists.

However, movement is not always possible.
Please go over your homework tonight.
pl go your homework over tonight.

Particle movement is optional in Subject-verb-direct object
Mary put out the fire.
However, in certain structures it is obligatory movement when the direct object is a personal pronoun**.**

*Mary put out it.
Mary put it out.

Demonstrative Pronoun

Pick that out.
Throw this out.

Obligatory Movement with Reflexes as Objects

- Jane let herself out.
- The thief turned himself over to the police.
- I dried myself off.
- Mary put the fire out.
- 'Out' does not indicate lactation.
- Tom /turned off/ the ignition.
- Tom turned the ignition off.
- Tom/ turned/ off the road.

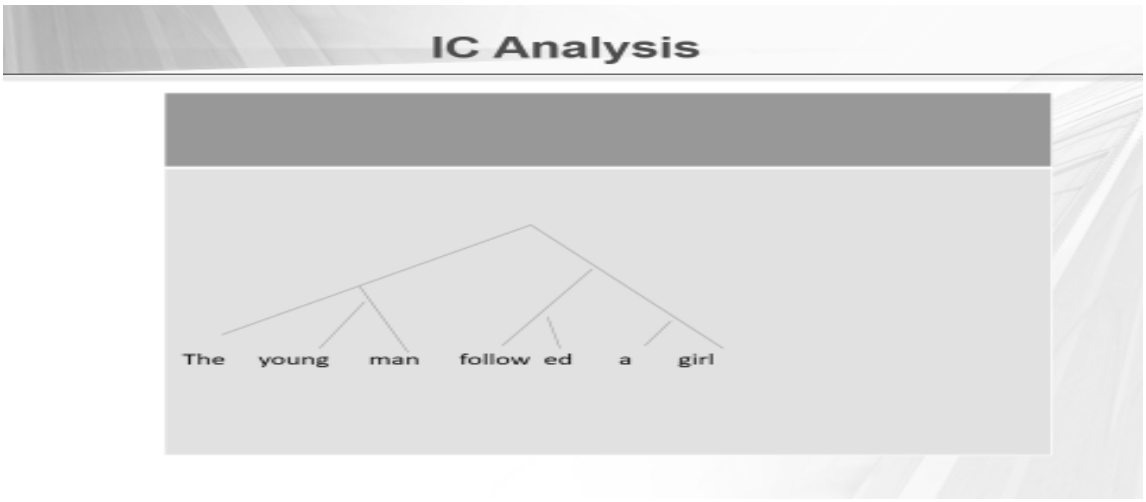
Adverb of Manner

Mother hung up the clothes quickly.
*Mother hung quickly up the clothes.
Particles in S-V-O are the particles with which particle movement may occur.

Topic- 139: IC analysis

Immediate constituent analysis or IC analysis is a method of sentence analysis that was first mentioned by Leonard Bloomfield and developed further by Rulon Wells. The principle of IC analysis is to cut a sentence into two and then to cut those parts into two and to continue with the segmentation until the smallest indivisible unit, the morphemes are reached. As a general principle the division is binary.

The young man followed a girl.
The young man +followed a girl.
Followed + a girl
a+ girl
The young man = the +young man
Young+ man
Follow+ed
The || young ||| man | follow ||| ed || a ||| girl |.
((The (((young) (man))) ((followed) ((a) (girl))).



How do we know where to make a cut? The answer is in expansion.

Expansion: Expansion is a technical term, the substitution of one sequence of elements for another. A sequence of element said to be the expansion of another.

- Children
- American children
- Three American children
- Three American children with a dog
- Those three American children with a dog

However, it is not always easy to have a binary cut as in some case it is difficult to justified

- Egyptian cotton shirt
- Egyptian + cotton shirt
- Egyptian cotton + shirt

IC analyses have certain flaws. Firstly, it does not indicate what kind of elements those constituent parts are; it does not even identify except implication. Secondly, it does not show clearly that noun phrases are built on nouns, verb phrases on verbs, etc. Thirdly, IC analysis does not tell us how to form new sentences, i.e., to produce sentences that have not already been attested in some corpus of data.

Lesson-25

SEMANTICS I

Topic- 140: Definition

The word semantics comes from Greece word sema (noun) which means 'symbol' or 'sign'. The verb is Semaino which means 'signify'. The symbol of the synonymy of sema is a linguistic sign. Saussure (1996) states that linguistic sign consists of the signifier, component, in sort of sounds and the signified, the referent outside of language. Semantics is a term which is used in linguistics, which studies the relation between linguistic sign and signified thing. In other words, semantics is a branch of linguistics, which studies about the meaning.

Halliday (1985) states that the term "semantics" does not simply refers to the meaning of words; it is the entire system of meanings of a language, expressed by grammar as well as by vocabulary. Semantics brings in symbols use in the language and outside the language, but its primary concern is human language. In semantics, one is trying to make explicit meanings, i.e., in which manner words and sentences of various grammatical constructions are used and understood by native speakers of that language.

Topic- 141: Types of Meaning

- Semantics is the study of meaning in language. There is more interest in certain aspects of meaning than in others. There are different types of meanings. We can have the following types of meaning:
- **Lexical meaning** refers to the meaning of words that belong to one of the four lexical word classes. It is the aspect of meaning usually given in a dictionary.
- **Grammatical meaning** includes the meaning of grammatical items (e.g., function words and inflectional affixes), grammatical functions (e.g., subject and object), and different sentence-types (e.g., declarative and interrogative).
- Taking into account certain non-linguistic aspects of meaning, Geoffrey Leech (1981) lists seven different types of meaning.
- **Referential meaning** (also called denotative meaning, descriptive meaning, conceptual meaning, or sense) refers to the logical, cognitive, or denotative content of an expression.
- **Connotative meaning** (associative meaning) denotes the associations and secondary meanings the expression evokes.
- **Social meaning** (stylistic meaning) is the information that the linguistic expression conveys about certain social characteristics.
- **Emotive or affective** component of the expression is referred to as its affective meaning. Social meaning and affective meaning together are sometimes called connotation.
- **Reflected meaning** refers to certain associations with another sense of the same expression, whereas collocative meaning (collocation) is conveyed by characteristic word combinations.
- **Thematic meaning** denotes the organization of a message in terms of information structure.

Topic- 142: Conceptual or Denotative Meaning

Conceptual meaning or denotative meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word. It is the type of meaning that dictionaries are designed to describe. Some of the basic components of a word like 'needle' in English might include "thin, sharp, steel instrument." These components would be part of the conceptual meaning of needle. However, different people might have different associations or connotations attached to a word like needle. They might associate it with "pain," or "illness," or "blood," or "drugs," or "thread," or "knitting," or "hard to find" (especially in a haystack), and these associations may differ from one person to the next. These types of associations are not treated as part of the word's conceptual meaning. In a similar way, some people may associate the expression low-calorie, when used to describe a product, with "healthy," but this is not part of the basic conceptual meaning of the expression (i.e., "producing a small amount of heat or energy"). Poets, song-writers, novelists, literary critics, advertisers and lovers may all be interested in how words can evoke certain aspects of associative meaning, but in linguistic semantics we're more concerned with trying to analyze the conceptual meaning.

Topic- 143: Associative or Connotative Meaning

Connotative meaning is what people think about two words and find whether it is possible or impossible for the word to have two different meanings from its denotative meaning. Based on it, the meaning depends on personal interpretation. Sometimes, people have the same or different thought. Sometimes when a word has both positive and negative sense value, the word is called a connotative meaning word. It is also pointed out that connotation meaning is subjective, in notion that there is a shift from common meaning because it has been added by sense and certain value, for example, bookworm is used for a person who always read books, with a negative sense.

Connotative meaning is the communicative value that an expression has, by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content. It can vary from age to age, from society to society, and from individual to individual.

Topic- 144: Prepositional Meaning

Propositional meaning is the type of meaning that comes from the context within which the sentence is used. Another distinction that has been made is called 'linguistic meaning' which is different from a proposition, and does not carry truth-value. E.g., Mary loves Carl' means the same as 'Mary ama Carl.'

The Spanish speaker then fully understands the linguistic meaning of 'Mary loves Carl' but without needing to know any proposition, any truth or falsehood, which the English sentence has ever expressed. The linguistic meaning of a declarative sentence is distinct from the proposition expressed by the sentence on some occasion of the sentence's use.

Propositions are statements about the world which can be true or false. They form the basis of human reasoning and determine our views, selfhood, and actions. In linguistic behaviour, propositions emerge in complete sentences (or clauses). It is the full sentence, in a context, that forms a proposition. "A jeep crashed into a barrier" establishes a topic/subject ("a jeep") and makes a conceptually verifiable statement about it. Sarah realizes that a jeep crashed into a barrier." "Sarah thinks that a jeep crashed into a barrier."

Each of these sentences contains an embedded clause, e.g., "[Sarah realizes [that a jeep crashed into a barrier]]" The embedded content is dependent on the verb in the superordinate clause. Mental state verbs can be categorized as factive (e.g., 'realize', 'regret', and 'know') or non-factive (e.g., 'believe', 'think', and 'assume'). For a factive sentence such as 'Sarah realizes that a jeep crashed into a barrier' to be true, the jeep must have crashed into a barrier and Sarah must be certain about it. For the non-factive sentence, 'Sarah thinks that a jeep crashed into the barrier' to be true, It does not actually matter whether the accident happened. Only Sarah's representation of the world is important. Propositional meaning is the type of meaning that comes from the context within which the sentence is used independent of the context.

Topic- 145: The Prosodic Meaning

Prosody is the study of the tune and rhythm of speech, and the way these features contribute to meaning. Prosody features apply to a level above that of the individual phoneme and very often to sequences of words. Speech contains various levels of information that can be described as;

- Linguistic - direct expression of meaning
- Paralinguistic - may indicate attitude or membership of a speech community
- Non-linguistic - may indicate something about a speaker's vocal physiology, state of health or emotional state.

In linguistics, prosody is concerned with properties of syllables and larger units of speech. These contribute to linguistic functions such as intonation, tone, stress, and rhythm. Prosody may reflect various features of the speaker or the utterance: The emotional state of the speaker; the form of the utterance (statement, question, or command); the presence of irony or sarcasm; emphasis, contrast, and focus or other elements of language that may not be encoded by grammar or by the choice of vocabulary.

Lesson-26

SEMANTICS II (SEMANTIC FEATURES and SEMANTIC ROLES)

Topic- 146: Semantic Features

One way in which the study of basic conceptual meaning might be helpful would be as a means of accounting for the 'oddness' we experience when we read sentences such as the following:

- The hamburger ate the boy.
- The table listens to the radio.
- The horse is reading the newspaper.

The oddness is not due to syntactic structure

The hamburger ate the boy.
NP VP NP
The boy ate the hamburger

The components of the conceptual meaning of the noun hamburger must be significantly different from those of the noun boy. The kind of noun that can be the subject of the verb ate must denote an entity that is capable of 'eating'. The noun hamburger does not have this property and the noun boy does. The crucial element or feature of meaning that any noun must have in order to be used as the subject of the verb ate. Such an element may be as general as 'animate being'.

Particular feature
Having (+) or not having (−)
The noun boy has is '+animate' (= denotes an animate being) and the feature that the noun hamburger has is '−animate' (= does not denote an animate being).

The N [+human] is reading the newspaper.

This approach would give us the ability to predict which nouns make this sentence semantically odd. Part of the problem seems to be that the approach involves a view of words in a language as some sort of 'containers' that carry meaning components. There is clearly more to the meaning of words than these basic types of features.

Topic- 147: Semantic Roles

A semantic role is the underlying relationship that a participant has with the main verb in a clause. Semantic role is the actual role a participant plays in some real or imagined situation, apart from the linguistic encoding of those situations. Semantic roles are used to indicate the role played by each entity in a sentence and are ranging from very specific to very general. If the situation is a simple event, as in 'The boy kicked the ball', then the verb describes an action (kick). The noun phrases in the sentence describe the roles of entities, such as people and things, involved in the action. We can identify a small

number of semantic roles (also called 'thematic roles') for these noun phrases. The major drawbacks of the semantic role approach are; there is no agreement about which and how many roles are needed.

Topic- 148: Agent

Agent is the semantic role of a person or thing who is the doer of an event. An agent is usually the grammatical subject of the verb in an active clause. A prototypical agent is conscious, acts with volition (on purpose), and performs an action that has a physical, visible effect.

- The boy ran down the street.
- He was chased by the dog.

Although we have changed an active clause into a passive one, and the boy is now the subject, nothing has changed in the real world. Although agents are typically human (The boy), they can also be non-human entities that cause actions, as in noun phrases denoting a natural force
(The wind), a machine (A car), or a creature (The dog), all of which affect the ball as theme.

- The boy kicked the ball.
- The wind blew the ball away.
- A car ran over the ball.
- The dog caught the ball.

Semantic roles indicate the parts played by participants in 'a state of affairs' or 'a situation'.

Topic- 149: Theme

Another role is taken by the ball as 'the entity that is involved in or affected by the action', which is called the theme (or sometimes the 'patient'). The theme can also be an entity (The ball) that is simply being described (i.e., not performing an action), as in

- The ball was red.

The theme is typically non-human, but can be human (the boy), as in the dog chased the boy.

- The boy kicked the ball.
- The wind blew the ball away.
- A car ran over the ball.

The same physical entity can appear in two different semantic roles in a sentence, as in
The boy cut himself. The boy is agent and himself is theme. The theme may also be called 'patient' or 'undergoer'.

Topic- 150: Instrument

If an agent uses another entity in order to perform an action, that other entity fills the role of instrument.

- The boy cut the rope with an old razor.
- He drew the picture with a crayon.

In these examples with an old razor and with a crayon are 'instrument' with which the agent performed the action.

Topic- 151: Experiencer, Location, Source and Goal

Experiencer

Experiencer is the semantic role of an entity (or referent) which receives, accepts, experiences, or undergoes the effect of an action.

We see something.
We know something.
We enjoy something.

No action is being performed by agents.

The boy feels sad.

The experiencer (The boy) is the only semantic role.

Did **you** hear that noise?

The experiencer is you and the theme is that noise.

Location: A number of other semantic roles designate where an entity is in the description of an event where an entity is (on the table, in the room) fills the role of location.

Source: Where the entity moves from is the source (from Chicago)

Goal: Where it moves to, is the goal (to New Lahore),

- We drove from Chicago to New Lahore.
- We transfer money from savings to checking.

The source is savings. The goal is checking.

Lesson-27

SEMANTICS III (LEXICAL RELATIONS)

Topic- 152: Synonymy

- What was his answer?
- What was his reply?

Two or more words with very closely related meanings are called synonyms. They can often, though not always, be substituted for each other in sentences. Other common examples of synonyms are the pairs:

- almost/nearly, big/large,
- broad/wide, buy/purchase,
- cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa,
- freedom/ liberty.

The idea of 'sameness' of meaning used in discussing synonymy is not necessarily 'total sameness'.

- Sandy had only one answer correct on the test.

Here the word reply would sound odd. Synonymous forms may also differ in terms of formal versus informal uses.

- My father purchased a large automobile.
- My dad bought a big car.

The second version sounds much more casual or informal than the first.

Topic- 153: Antonymy

Antonymy refers to the pair-wise relation of lexical items in context that are understood to be semantically opposite (as discussed below).

- Alive/dead
- Big/small
- Fast/slow
- Happy/sad
- Hot/cold
- Long/short
- Male/ female
- Married/single
- Old/new,
- Rich/poor

Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms.

- Two main types, 'Gradable' (opposites along a scale)
- 'Non-gradable' (direct opposites).

Gradable antonyms are like the following pair:

big/ small,

They can be used in comparative constructions like:

- I'm bigger than you.
- A pony is smaller than a horse.

The negative of one member of a gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other.
For example, the sentence 'My car is not old' does not necessarily mean 'My car is new'.

Non-gradable antonyms (also called "complementary pairs"), in these comparative constructions are not normally used.

- Someone as deader
- More dead than another.

The negative of one member of a non-gradable pair does imply the other member.

- My grandparents are not alive.
- My grandparents are dead.

Other non-gradable antonyms in the earlier list are the pairs: male/female, married/single and true/false.

We usually avoid describing one member of an antonymous pair as the negative of the other. They are reversives. Undress can be treated as the opposite of dress; it doesn't mean 'not dress'. It actually means 'the reverse of dress'. Other common examples are enter/exit, pack/unpack, lengthen/shorten, raise/lower, tie/untie etc.

Topic- 154: Hyponymy

- Animal/dog
- Dog/poodle
- Vegetable/ carrot
- flower/rose
- Tree/banyan

The meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is hyponymy.

- rose is a hyponym of flower

In hyponymous connections, we are essentially looking at the meaning of words in some type of hierarchical relationship.

Superordinate (= higher-level)

Two or more words that share the same superordinate term are co-hyponyms. Co-hyponymy captures the concept of 'is a kind of', as 'an asp is a kind of snake'.It is not only words for "things" that are hyponyms. Words such as; punch shoot and stab, describing 'actions', can all be treated as co-hyponyms of the superordinate term injure.

Topic- 155: Prototypes

- Canary, cormorant,
- Dove, duck
- Flamingo, parrot

- Pelican, robin

All birds are equally co-hyponyms of the superordinate bird. The most characteristic instance of the category 'bird' is robin. The idea of 'the characteristic instance' of a category is known as the prototype. The concept of a prototype helps explain the meaning of certain words, like bird, not in terms of component features (e.g., 'has feathers', 'has wings'), but in terms of resemblance to the clearest example. Ostrich or penguin should be hyponyms of bird (technically they are), but have no trouble deciding about sparrow or pigeon.

Category labels

Furniture: chair is a better example than bench or stool.
Clothing: people recognize shirts quicker than shoes.
Vegetable: they accept carrot before potato or tomato.

There is some general pattern to the categorization process involved in prototypes and that it determines our interpretation of word meaning. Individual experience can lead to substantial variation in interpretation:

Avocado or tomato as fruit or vegetable.

They may be co-hyponyms of both fruit and vegetable in different contexts.

Topic- 156: Homophony, Homonymy and Polysemy

Two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, are described as homophones:

- bare/bear,
- meat/meet,
- flour/ flower,
- pail/pale,
- right/write,
- sew/so
- to/too/two.

Homonyms

One form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings. They have separate histories and meanings. But they have exactly the same form.

- bank (of a river)
- bank (financial institution)
- bat (flying creature) bat (used in sports)
- mole (on skin)
- mole (small animal)
- pupil (at school)
- pupil (in the eye)
- race (contest of speed) race (ethnic group)

Polysemy: Polysemy is an interesting phenomenon that concerns cases in which a word or phrase enjoys multiple, related meanings.

- head the object on top of body,
- froth on top of a glass of beer,
- person at the top of a company or department
- foot (of person, of bed, of mountain)
- run (person does, water does, colors do)

Homonymy or Polysemy?

Polysemy is the phenomenon whereby a single word form is associated with two or several related senses: face, foot, get, head and run are some examples of polysemy
Homonymy is characterized as the phenomenon where a single word form is associated with two or several unrelated meanings, for examples, bank, mail, mole and sole, etc.

Two forms may be distinguished via homonymy and for one of the forms also to have various uses via polysemy.The words date (a thing we can eat) and dates (a point in time) are homonyms. The 'point in time' kind of date is polysemous in terms of a particular day and month (on a letter), an arranged meeting time (an appointment), a social meeting (with someone we like), and even a person (that person we like).

Topic- 157: Metonymy

Metonymy is another type of relationship between words based simply on a close connection in everyday experience.

- A container–contents relation (bottle/water, can/juice)
- A whole–part relation (car/wheels, house/roof).
- A representative–symbol relationship (king/crow.
- The President/the White House).

Using one of these words to refer to the other is metonymy.

- He had the whole can.
- We also accept the White House has announced …
- Downing Street protested...
- Filling up the car,
- Answering the door,
- Boiling a kettle,
- Giving someone a hand,
- Needing some wheels

Metonymy meanings are highly conventionalized and easy to interpret. However, making sense of such expressions often depends on context, background knowledge and inference.
The strings are too quiet (music etc.).
I prefer cable (regarding TV channels).

Lesson-28

PRAGMATICS I

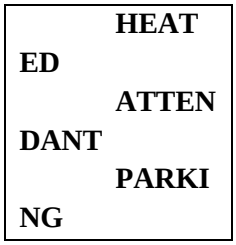
Topic- 158: Definition

Introduction

Pragmatics is the study of meaning in context. This branch of linguistics is concerned with the relationship of sentences to the environment in which they occur is categorized. The communication depends on not only recognizing the meaning of the words in an utterance, but also to interpret what speakers mean to say. The study of what speakers mean is called pragmatics.

Topic- 159: Invisible Meaning

Pragmatics is the study of "invisible" meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written. A lot of shared assumptions and expectations exist when people try to communicate.



We can park a car in this place, that it's a heated area, and that there will be an attendant to look after the car. Our interpretation of the 'meaning' of the sign is not based solely on the words, but on what we think the writer intended to communicate. We are actively involved in creating an interpretation of what we read and hear.

Topic- 160: No Text Without Context

There are some very common words in our language that cannot be interpreted at all if we do not know the context, especially the physical context of the speaker. These are words such as here and there, this or that, now and then, yesterday, today or tomorrow, as well as pronouns such as you, me, her, him, it, and them. Some sentences of English are virtually impossible to understand if we do not know who is speaking, about whom, where and when. Look at the following sentence:

You'll have to bring it back tomorrow because she isn't here today.

It contains a large number of expressions (you, it, tomorrow, she, here, today) that rely on knowledge of the immediate physical context for their interpretation (i.e., that the delivery driver will have to return on February 15 to 660 College Drive with the long box labeled 'flowers, handle with care' addressed to Ms. Ruby). Expressions such as tomorrow and here are obvious examples of bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker's intended meaning.

Topic- 161: Linguistic Context

There are different kinds of context. One kind is described as linguistic context, also known as co-text. The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence. The surrounding co-text has a strong effect on what we think the word probably means. We identified the word 'bank' as a homonym, a single form with more than one meaning; how do we usually know which meaning is intended in a particular sentence?

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

Topic- 162: Physical Context

The physical context is the location of the given word, the situation in which it is used, as well as timing, all of which aid proper understanding of the word. (E.g., furniture and how it is arranged, size of the room, colors, temperature, time of day, etc.) If we see the word 'BANK' on the wall of a building in a city, the physical contexts will influence our interpretation. We should keep in mind that it is not the actual physical situation 'out there' that constitutes the communication events rather the relevant context in our mental representation of those aspects help to arrive us at an interpretation of the given word.

Topic- 163: Social Cultural Context

Socio-cultural context refers to the idea that language is closely linked to the culture and society in which it is used. This means when language is learnt, the socio-cultural context in which it is used needs to be taken into consideration as well. Social-Cultural context still includes factors such as illiteracy rate, population geographic distribution, educational level and the populations' ethnic composition. All of these factors can influence the organization's performance, affecting its productivity level and product's quality patterns.

Social context

- Particular social background
- Social status

Cultural context

- cultural setting
- cultural backgrounds
- Style, subject matter, and attitudes

Activities that can raise awareness of socio-cultural context include using stories, analyzing newspaper headlines, and looking at slang and idiomatic language.

Lesson-29

PRAGMATICS II

Topic- 164: Deixis/Deictic Expressions

A deictic expression (or deixis) is a word or phrase (such as this, that, these, those, now, then) that points to the time, place, or situation in which a speaker is speaking. The bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker's intended meaning. They are technically known as deictic (/daɪktɪk/) expressions, from the Greek word deixis, which means "pointing" via language.

Person deixis: To point to things (it, this, these boxes) and people (him, them, those idiots).
Spatial deixis: To point to a location (here, there, near that)
Temporal deixis: To a time (now, then, last week)

All these deictic expressions have to be interpreted in terms of which person; place or time the speaker has in mind. We make a broad distinction between what is marked as close to the speaker (this, here, now) and what is distant (that, there, then). Movement is away from the speaker's location (go) or toward the speaker's location (come).

- Here she comes!
- There she goes!

People can actually use deixis to have some fun.

- Free drink tomorrow

Topic- 165: Person Deixis

Deixis is the phenomena of requiring contextual information to create the meaning of a phrase. The term of 'deixis' is used from the Greek word which means 'to show' or 'to indicate', used to denote the elements in a language which refer directly to the situation. It stipulates what a deictic reference to the participant role of a referent is such as: -

- The Speaker: The utterer of a message. Deictic center of his/her own deictic references
- The addressee: The listener of a message
- The Referents: Neither speaker nor the addressee, might present there but not addresses directly

The deictic center is a reference point in relation to which a deictic expression is to be interpreted. The deictic center is also most typically the present time, location, participant role and so forth of speaker. So, the speaker, the actual location and actual time of the utterance are respectively, the deictic center for the interpretation of 'I', 'here', 'now', e.g.,'I am here now'.

What is a participant role? This highlights the relation that people have to each other with regards to their involvement in a speech event, e.g.,What is an addressee? What is an audience? What is a speaker? What is a target? etc. Person Deixis concerns with encoding of the role of participants in the speech event in which the utterance in question is delivered.

Basic three-part divisions are:

- First person
- Second person
- Third person

A deictic reference indicates a referent not identified as the speaker or the addressee and usually implies the gender that the utterance refers to. The term "deixis" becomes more and more metaphoric, ambiguous and vague since it is used for many semantically different situations. Pragmatic meaning is determined by the context; in this case deictic reference, the crucial contextual element is the point of origin of the utterance. In an exchange of dialogue like:

A- When will you be back?

B- I should be back by eight but you know what buses are like.

These uses of language pick out a person, a place and a time which can only be determined by the context in which it took place.

Topic- 166: Place Deixis

Place deixis are also known as space deixis, concerns itself with the spatial locations relevant to an utterance. Similarly to person deixis, the locations may be either those of the speaker and addressee or those of persons or objects being referred to. Similarly to person deixis, the locations may be either those of the speaker and addressee or those of persons or objects being referred to. The most salient English examples are the adverbs 'here' and 'there', and the demonstratives 'this' and 'that' - although those are far from being the only deictic words. Some examples:

- I enjoy living in this city.
- Here we will place the statue.
- She was sitting over there.

Place deictic terms are generally understood to be relative to the location of the speaker, as in: 'The shop is across the street.' Where 'across the street' is understood to mean 'across the street from where I am right now'.

It is interesting to note that although 'here' and 'there' are often used to refer to locations near to and far from the speaker, respectively, 'there' can also refer to the location of the addressee, if they are not in the same location as the speaker.

Here is a good spot; it is too sunny over there. It exemplifies the former usage,

How is the weather there? It is an example of the latter.

Deictic Projection:

In some contexts, spatial deixis is used metaphorically rather than physically, i.e., the speaker is not speaking as the deictic centre. For example:

I am coming home now.

The above utterance would generally be considered as the speaker's expression of his/her going home, yet it appears to be perfectly normal for one to project his physical presence to his home rather than

away from home. Two-way referential distinction in their deictic system: proximal, i.e., near or closer to the speaker; and distal, i.e., far from the speaker and/or closer to the addressee.
This and that, here and there, etc. as place deixis are the expression used to show the location relative to the location of a participant in the speech event.

Topic- 167: Time Deixis

Time, or temporal, deixis concerns itself with the various times involved in and referred to in an utterance. This includes time adverbs like 'now', 'then', 'soon', and so forth, and also different tenses. The 'tomorrow' of a day last year was a different day from the 'tomorrow' of a day next week. Time adverbs can be relative to the time when an utterance is made the 'encoding time' or ET or when the utterance is heard 'decoding time', or DT.

Although these are frequently the same time, they can differ, as in the case of prerecorded broadcasts or correspondence. For example, if one were to write:

- It is raining now, but I hope when you read this it will be sunny.

Tenses are generally separated into absolute (deictic) and relative tenses.

- He went.
- He had gone.

The basic time of temporal deixis in English language is in the choice of verb tense.
English has only two basic forms, the present and the past:

- I live here now.
- I lived there then.
- This/last/next Monday/week/month/year.
- Now, then, ago, later, soon, before.
- Yesterday, today, tomorrow.

Time deixis is an expression in relation to the certain point of time when the utterance is produced by the speaker.

Topic- 168: Reference

Words are used to refer to people, places and times. Reference is an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something. To perform an act of reference, we can use proper nouns, other nouns in phrases or pronouns. We sometimes assume that these words identify someone or something uniquely, but it is more accurate to say that, for each word or phrase, there is a 'range of reference'. The words Jennifer or friend or she can be used to refer to many entities in the world. Reference depends on who is using it. We can also refer to things when we are not sure what to call them. We can use expressions such as the 'blue thing' and 'that sticky stuff' and we can even invent names. A brand name for a motorcycle may be used to refer to a person who rides it.

Topic- 169: Inference

A successful act of reference depends more on the listener's ability to recognize what we mean than on the listener's 'dictionary' knowledge of a word we use.

- Where is the spinach salad sitting?
- He is sitting by the door.
- Can I look at your Chomsky?
- Sure, it is on the shelf over there.

It is clear that names associated with things (salad) may refer to people, and names of people (Chomsky) to refer to things. The key process here is called inference. An inference is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant. The listener has to operate with the inference:

> 'If X is the name of the writer of a book, then X can be used to identify a copy of a book by that writer'.

Similar types of inferences are necessary to understand someone who says that Picasso is in the museum or we saw Shakespeare in London or Jennifer is wearing Calvin Klein.

Lesson-30

PRAGMATICS III

Topic- 170: Anaphora

The use of a word referring back to a word used earlier in a text or conversation, to avoid repetition, for example, the pronouns he, she, it, and they and the verb do.

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

Referential relationship, the second (or subsequent) referring expression is an example of anaphora ('referring back'). The first mention is called the antecedent.
A boy, a puppy and a small bath are antecedents
The puppy, the boy, he, it and the bath are 'anaphoric expressions'.

Anaphora can be defined as subsequent reference to an already introduced entity. The connection between an antecedent and an anaphoric expression is created by the use of a pronoun (it), or a phrase with 'the' plus the antecedent noun (the puppy) or another noun that is related to the antecedent in some way (The little dog ran out of the room). The connection between antecedents and anaphoric expressions is often based on inference.

- We found a house to rent, but the kitchen was very small.
- I caught a bus and asked the driver if it went near the downtown area.
- If X is a house, then X has a kitchen.

Topic- 171: Presupposition

What a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as a presupposition. A presupposition is an implicit assumption about the world or background belief relating to an utterance whose truth is taken for granted in discourse. Examples of presuppositions include:
When did you stop smoking?
Presuppositions: You used to smoke. You no longer do so.
Built-in presuppositions are very useful devices for interrogators or trial lawyers.
Okay, Mr. Buckingham, how fast were you going when you ran the red light?

- Did you eat the cheese?
- Presupposition: There was some cheese.
- Your brother is waiting outside.
- Presupposition: You have a brother.

Presupposition concerns inferences related to the use of linguistic expressions but also affected by the context in which they are used.

Topic- 172: Constancy under Negation Test

One of the tests used to check for the presuppositions underlying sentences involves negating a sentence with a particular presupposition and checking if the presupposition remains true.

- My car is a wreck. (or the negative version)
- My car is not a wreck.

The underlying presupposition (I have a car.) remains true despite the fact that the two sentences have opposite meanings. This is called the 'constancy under negation' test for identifying a presupposition.

- Your dog is lovely.
- Your dog is not lovely.
- Presupposition: You have a dog.
- John does not regret having failed the exams.
- John regrets having failed the exams.
- Presupposition: John failed the exams.
- I used to regret marrying her, but I do not regret marrying her now.

The presupposition (I married her) remains constant even though the verb regret changes from affirmative to negative.

Topic- 173: Speech Acts

A speech act is an utterance that has performative function in language and communication. "Almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention. This is the act of saying something; what one is saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience". The term speech act is used to describe actions such as 'requesting', 'commanding', 'questioning' or 'informing'. We can define a speech act as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance.

I'll be there at six.

You are not just speaking; you seem to be performing the speech act of 'promising'. Speech acts can be analyzed on three levels:

A locutionary act: The performance of an utterance: the actual utterance and its ostensible meaning, comprising phonetic, phatic and rhetic acts corresponding to the verbal, syntactic and semantic aspects of any meaningful utterance.

An illocutionary act: The pragmatic 'illocutionary force' of the utterance, thus its intended significance as a socially valid verbal action.

Perlocutionary act: Its actual effect, such as persuading, convincing, scaring, enlightening, inspiring, or otherwise getting someone to do or realize something, whether intended or not.

Topic- 174: Direct Speech Acts

A direct relationship between the structure and the communicative function of the utterance is called direct speech act.

We do not know something.

We ask someone to provide the information.

Can you ride a bicycle?

Topic- 175: Indirect Speech Acts

It means that there is an indirect relationship between the form and the function of the utterance. 'Can you pass the salt'? This structure is not really asking a question about someone's ability. It is used to make a request. An indirect speech act is a syntactic structure associated with the function of a question, but in this case with the function of a request. Whenever one of the structures in the example above is used to perform a function other than the one listed beside it on the same line, the result is an indirect speech act. The sentence 'You left the door open' is a request for closing the door. Failing to recognize another person's indirect speech act can create confusion:

Visitor: excuse me. Do you know where the ambassador hotel is?
Passer-by: oh sure, I know where it is. (and walks away)

Indirect speech acts are based on some complex social assumptions. They were actually used as requests for directions. Indirect speech acts seem to be that actions such as requests, presented in an indirect way are generally considered to be gentler or more polite in our society than direct speech acts:

Could you open that door for me?
Open that door for me!

Lesson-31

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS I

Topic- 176: Definition

The big favour and the small favour:
‘ Do me a favour’. is an instance of small favour so there is a small pause.
Can you do me a favour, hand me that pencil’. No pause at all.

Big favors are,
‘Could you do me a favour’ …
‘Yeah ? What? Well’ .

The longer it takes them to get to it, the bigger the pain it is going to be. Some of the most interesting observations are made, not in terms of the components of language, but in terms of the way language is used, even how pauses are used. We were, in effect, asking how it is that language-users successfully interpret what other language-users intend to convey. When we carry this investigation further and ask the following:

- How we make sense of what we read?
- How we can recognize well-constructed texts as opposed to those that are jumbled or incoherent?
- How we understand speakers who communicate more than they say?
- And how we successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation?

We are undertaking what is known as discourse analysis. Discourse analysts not only study language use ‘beyond the sentence boundary’ but also prefer to analyze naturally occurring language use, not invented examples.

Topic- 177: The Origins of Discourse Analysis

The term discourse analysis was first employed by Zelling Harris as the name for ‘a method for the analysis of the connected speech or writing for continuing descriptive linguistics beyond the limit of a single sentence at a time and for correlating culture and language’ (Harris, 1952). The word ‘discourse’ is usually defined as ‘language beyond the sentence’ and so the analysis of discourse is typically concerned with the study of language in texts and conversation.

As language-users, we are capable of more than simply recognizing correct versus incorrect forms and structures. We can cope with fragments in newspaper headlines such as: Trains collide; two die, and know that what happened in the first part was the cause of what happened in the second part.

We have the ability to create complex discourse interpretations of fragmentary linguistic messages. Discourse analysis is the study of how stretches of language used in communication assume meaning, purpose, and unity for their users.

Topic- 178: Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political and historical contexts. Fairclough (1993) defines CDA as discourse analysis, which aims to explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes.

Critical Discourse Analysis aims to help reveal some of the hidden and 'out of sight' values, positions, and perspectives positions, and perspectives. CDA explores the connection between the use of language and the social and political of language contexts in which it occurs. Some principles for CDA:

a. Social and political issues are constructed and reflected in discourse
b. Power relations are negotiated and performed through discourse.
c. Discourse both reflects and reproduces social relations
d. Ideologies are produced and reflected in in the use of discourse.

Topic- 179: Interpreting Discourse

Discourse Analysis—what speakers do in conversation-- is the analysis of language 'beyond the sentence'. But taking them together as a single discourse makes you go back and revise your interpretation of the first sentence after you've read the second. Even coping with texts, written in English, breaking a lot of the rules of the English language is possible to interpret. Rather than simply reject the text as ungrammatical, we try to make sense of it. Look at the example:

'My natal was in a small town, very close to Riyadh capital of Saudi Arabia. The distance between my town and Riyadh is seven miles exactly. Its name is Al masani that means in English Factories. It takes this name from the people's carrier. In my childhood I remember the people live there were very simple. Most of the people were farmer.'

The key elements investigated in the study of discourse are: the effort to interpret (or to be interpreted) and how we accomplish it. We certainly rely on what we know about linguistic form and structure. As language-users, we have more knowledge than that.

Topic- 180: Cohesion

Cohesion is the grammatical and lexical linking within a text or sentence that holds a text together and gives it meaning. It is related to the broader concept of coherence. The structure depends on factors quite different from those required in the structure of a single sentence. Some of those factors are described in terms of cohesion, or the ties and connections within the texts.

'My father once bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he sold it to help pay for my college education. Sometimes I think I would rather have the convertible.'

- Connections to maintain reference to the same people and things throughout: father – he – he – he; my – my – I; Lincoln – it
- Connections between phrases such as: a Lincoln convertible – that car – the convertible.
- More general connections created by a number of terms that share a common element of meaning,such as 'money' (bought–saving–penny–worth a fortune–sold– pay)
- 'Time' (once – nowadays – sometimes).
- A connector (However) that marks the relationship of what follows to what went before.

The verb tenses in the first four sentences are all in the past. A different time is indicated by the present tense of the final sentence. An appropriate number of cohesive ties may be a crucial factor in our judgments on whether something is well written or not. Cohesive structure differs from one language to the next. Cohesion alone is not sufficient to enable connectedness. There must be some other factors that lead us to distinguish connected texts that make sense from those that do not.

Topic- 181: Coherence

Coherence is the key to the concept 'everything fitting together well'. It is beyond the text that exists in people, not in words or structures. It is people who 'make sense' of what they read and hear. People arrive at an interpretation that is in line with their experiences, the way the world is. Coherence is the own understanding of something based on personal experiences. It is a way to incorporate all the disparate elements into a single coherent interpretation, and a process of filling the gaps that exist in the conversation or in the texts. Coherence creates meaningful connections not actually expressed by the words. The process not restricted to trying to understand "odd" texts. In conversational interactions a great deal of what is meant is not actually present in what is said.

HER: That's the telephone.
HIM: I'm in the bath.
HER: O.K.
She makes a request of him to perform action.
He states reason why he cannot comply with request.
She undertakes to perform action.

To understand the conversation one requires a reasonable analysis of what took place in the conversation, then it is clear that language-users must have a lot of knowledge of how conversation works that is not simply "linguistic" knowledge.

Lesson-32

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS II

Topic- 182: Discourse Typology: Spoken and Written, Formal and Informal

Language teaching divide discourse into two major categories:

- Spoken
- Written

They are further divided into the following:

- Speaking and Listening
- Reading and writing

Spoken discourse is less planned and orderly in a conversation. It is more open to intervention by the receivers. Some kinds of spoken discourses are lesson, lectures, interviews, court trials etc. These spoken discourses are planned to some extent by the person who initiates the conversation, and the possibility of subordinate participants can be limited.

In reading novel, one cannot influence its development. At times readers may affect the written discourse, e.g., a person is writing something and the response of the market can influence his writing. A teacher as a reader sends the essays back to the students to be rewritten. In the same way the editors ask writers to edit something from written material. The traditional division of spoken and writing is based on a difference in production. Fundamental distinction as far as discourse structure is concerned.

- Formal discourse
- Informal discourse
- Formal discourse is planned discourse. It may be spoken and written.
- Less formal
- It is unplanned discourse either spoken or written. However, it is usually spoken. Informal spoken especially by foreign language learner is informal and unpredictable.

Topic- 183: Discourse and the Sentence

There are two different kinds of languages as potential objects of the study: One abstracted to teach a language or literacy or to study how the rules of language work, the other has been used to communicate something and is felt to be coherent. The later kind of language for communication is called discourse. The search for what gives discourse coherence is discourse analysis. Look at the following stretches of language

- John considers the analyst a lunatic.
- Which of you people is a fish?
- Please don't throw me on the floor!
- Cross since 1846.

Sentence are used or invented.

The two approaches are not mutually exclusive. Discourse may be composed of well-formed sentences but it can have grammatical mistakes in it.

We thought it was right to come to a decision when I next met them last night.

Discourse treats the rules of grammar as a source, conforming to them when it needs to, but departing from them when it does not. Discourse can be anything from a grunt or a single expletive up to 'War and Peace'. The conformity to rules does not matter, but the fact that it communicates and is recognized by its receivers as coherent text values much. There is a degree of subjectivity in identifying a stretch of language as discourse.

Topic- 184: Discourse as Process

Observe the conversation of a native speaker (N) and a foreigner (F).

N: anyway …* well anyway… * I'm going* goodbye
F: but you have not finished your sentence.
N: what sentence
F: you have said 'anyway …'
N: yes
F: anyway * and what

Conversation is a discourse constructed and negotiated between the participants, following pre-established patterns, and marking the direction in particular ways; with pauses, laughters, intonations, filler words, and established formulae. These conventions enable the participant to orientate to what is happening and to make sense of the interaction. Discourse analyst is accounting for sequences of utterance. Language teacher considers powerful clues concerning the causes of sensation of floundering in conversation. Culture-specific rules and procedures of turn-taking provide ample breeding ground for misunderstanding just like entering and leaving conversation, bidding for a longer turn, refusing without being rude, changing the topic etc. Such things are all difficult for foreign learners. Language class hardly prepares students for the real life situations.

Topic- 185: Discourse as Dialogue

Developmentally, dialogue comes first, both for the human species, and for the human individual. There is no hard evidence of the origins of language in prehistoric communities to assume that speech preceded writing and dialogue preceded monologue. The earliest written texts of Western European culture, the Socratic dialogues, present as conversation that modern writers would present as monologue. Perhaps some of this preference remains in modern practices which favour face-to-face interaction: lectures, job interviews, and news interviews. Turn-taking and interaction are among the first communicative skills. Parents hold 'conversations', even with very young babies, as the following 'dialogue' between a mother and her two-month-old daughter clearly shows:

M: Whatcha gonna tell me?
B:(Gurgling noise)
M: Come on whatcha gonna tell me?

B: (Two gurgling noise. Squeak. Blows air through lips)
M: That's a nice story. What else are you gonna tell me? Come on.
B: (Gurgling and dribbling noise)
M: Let's hear some more.

Topic- 186: Information Structure in Discourse

The prerequisite of the information is to divide a sentence into two. The clause has a bi-partite structure. The choice is to which part of which information depends on differing degrees of prominence. The ordering of information is determined by the sender's hypotheses about what the receiver does and does not know.

Two Labels of Information

- Given information
- New information

Any unit of information may change its status as the discourse proceeds. Communication might be defined as the conversation of new information into given information. A communicator assesses the knowledge of his/her interlocutor. The ordering of Given and New is not always straightforward.

Topic- 187: Knowledge in Discourse: Schemata

The role of knowledge in discourse production and comprehension has been a result of findings in the field of artificial intelligence in order to program computers for producing and understanding discourse. These programs need more than the language being used; it involves pre-existent knowledge of the world. Artificial Intelligence tries to understand how this knowledge and language interact and to reproduce the process in computers. For discourse analysis, the most important idea to come out of the field of Artificial Intelligence (AI) is 'knowledge schemata'.

Mental representations of typical situation used in discourse processing to predict the content of the particular situation, which the discourse describes. Mind stimulated by key words or phrases in the text, or by the context, activates a knowledge schema and uses it to make sense of the discourse. To program a computer AI needs to reproduce the process and to give computers both the necessary language knowledge and necessary schemata. This is difficult for the existing computers. How mental schemata operate in discourse production and comprehension. When a sender judges his receiver's schema to correspond to a significant degree with his own, he only needs features which are not contained in it. Other features need to be present by default.

Lesson-33

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS III

Topic- 188: Conversation as Discourse Type

What is conversation? It is a less formal talk. Discourse analysis can be either vague or any kind of talk as per discourse analysts' definition of conversation. Talk may be defined as conversation when:

1. It is not primarily necessitated by a practical task.
2. Any unequal power of participants is partially suspended.
3. The number of participants is small.
4. Turns are quite short.
5. Talk is primarily for the participants and not for an outside audience.

Imprecise Definition: The boundary between conversation and other discourse types is fuzzy one. We cannot precisely draw a line between formal and informal talk. There are certain intermediate possibilities in between formal spoken discourse and informal conversation that is a 'seminar'. Talk at conversation end of the cline is difficult to mould to any overall structure. A part of the definition of conversation might be its unpredictability and lack of structure.

Topic- 189: Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis (CA) is a branch of study which sets out to discover what order there might be in this apparent chaos. CA associated with ethno-methodologist, people who looks for a method when people enter to discussion and make sense of it. They have tried to discover what methods people use to participate in and make sense of interaction (Levinson, 1983, p.286).

A conversation is always based on turn taking. The ethno-methodologist tried to see how people handle a conversation at local level, how they judge when to speak and when to be silent. They further started to analyze with the bottom-up approach, i.e., study from word to sentence. They tried to understand how it unfolds in time. They viewed discourse as a developing process rather than a finished product, having planned beginning, middle and ending.

Topic- 190: Turn-taking

Conversation Involves Turn-taking

In conversation analysis, turn-taking is a term for the manner in which orderly conversation normally takes place. Once a topic is chosen and a conversation initiated, then matters of conversational **'**turn-taking**'** arise. Knowing when it is acceptable or obligatory to take a turn in conversation is essential to the cooperative development of discourse. This knowledge involves such factors as knowing how to recognize appropriate turn-exchange points and knowing how long the pauses between turns should be.

Overlap of Turn-taking

Speakers somehow know exactly when and where to enter.

- Signal of turn ending
- Overlaps have significance
- Signaling annoyance, urgency or a desire to correct what is said

Pauses between turns also have very particular meaning.

Conversation analysis tries to describe how people make turns, and under what circumstances the turns overlap. Turn-taking mechanisms vary between cultures and between languages. Efficient turn-taking also involves certain non-linguistic factors. Eye contact, body position and movement, gaze, intonation and volume the relative status of the speakers, or the role of speaker are also important. In formal situations, the roles can give people special rights clearly. In conversation, where according to our definition, unequal power is suspended. Students fall silent when the professor speaks - in the bar as well as in the seminar.

Topic- 191: Conversational Principles: Cooperative

According to Paul Grice (1975) we interpret language on the assumption that its sender is obeying four maxims. We assume he or she is intending to:

- be true (the maxim if quality)
- be brief (the maxim of quantity)
- be relevant (the maxim of relevance)
- be clear (the maxim of manner)

Combined with the general knowledge of the world, the receiver can reason from the literal, semantic meaning of what is said to the pragmatic meaning , and induce what the sender is intending to do so with his or her words. For example, I hear my neighbour saying:

There's a cat stuck under the gate at number 67.

The above sentence has all four maxims. We have no doubt about its truthfulness.

People do not consciously and explicitly formulate the co-operative principle. Co-operative principle does not fit in all situations. For example,

Did you like Algeria?

The question may be relevant but it does not have all four maxims.

Legal and scientific discourses often sacrifice the maxim of quantity to the maxim of quality. To be clear one sometimes needs to be long-winded.

Topic- 192: Flouting the Cooperative Principle

I have got millions of books in my college library. Or my car breaks down every five minutes.

Neither is true. They are perceived as figures of speech, hyperbole, and a way of making the point more forceful rather than it lies. These are deliberate violation or floating, as Grice calls them, of the cooperative principle.

- Metaphor , irony, sarcasm

- ‘Queen Victoria was made of iron’
- ‘I love it when you sing out of key all the time’

The assumption that they will be interpreted as deliberate flouting of the charge to ‘Be true’ rather than as untruths intended to deceive. Children and foreign language learners sometimes take figures of speech literally. Like quality maxim other three can also be flouted.

- Quantity maxim
- Crating prolixity or terseness
- Maxim of relevance
- To signal embarrassment or a desire to change the subject
- Maxim of manner
- As in the case of puns etc.

Topic- 193: Conversational Principles: Politeness

A: Excuse me. Are you busy?
B: No, not all
A: I wondered if I could have a word with you.

Politeness principle, like co-operative principle, may be formulated as a series of maxim, which people assume are being followed in the utterances of others. Any flouting of these maxims will take on meaning, provided it is perceived for what it is. Robin Lakoff (1973) formulated the following maxims:

Don’t impose
Give option
Make your receiver feels good

These maxims explain many of those utterances with no new information

I'm sorry. I saw you were home.

In English requests or pleas are made in the form of elaborate question.

‘Could you possible ’
‘May I ask you to ’
‘I am sorry to bother you’
‘You know much more about cars than I do’

Clearly, the cooperative and politeness principles are in conflict with each other whereas politeness and truth are mutually incompatible with each other.

‘How is my new hairstyle’?

These conflicting demands of the two principles are something which people are aware of, for example, ‘a white lie’.

Lesson-34

CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Topic- 194: Introduction

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a problem-oriented and trans-disciplinary set of theories and methods widely used in educational research. Many areas of commensurability exist between educational research and critical discourse analysis. First, educational practices are considered communicative events; discourse studies (DS) is useful to analyze the ways in which the texts, talk, and other semiotic interactions that learning comprises are constructed across time and contexts.

Second, discourse studies provide a particular way of conceptualizing interactions that is compatible with sociocultural perspectives in educational research (Gutiérrez, 2008; Lewis, Enciso & Moje, 2007). A shared assumption is that discourse can be understood as a multimodal social practice. Discourse reflects and constructs the social world through many different sign systems. Systems of meaning are caught up in political, social, racial, economic, religious, and cultural formations which are linked to socially defined practices that carry more or less privilege and value in society.

A third area of commensurability is that discourse studies and educational research are both socially committed paradigms that address problems through a range of theoretical perspectives. Critical approaches to discourse analysis recognize that inquiry into meaning making is always an exploration into power. Many of the problems that are addressed, particularly in a globalized world system, have to do with power and inequality. CDA provides the tools for addressing the complexity of movement across educational sites, practices, and systems in a world where inequalities are global in scope. The reflexive tendencies of critical discourse studies are rooted in the constitutive relationship between discourse and the social world. The field continues to grow and change, responding to problems with different ways of looking, understanding and, as its practitioners hope, acting.

Topic- 195: A Brief History of the 'CDA Group'

The CDA as a network of scholars emerged in the early 1990s, following a small symposium in Amsterdam, in January 1991 by scholars such as Dijk, Norman Fairclough, Gunther and others. The meeting made it possible to confront with the distinct and different approaches, which have, of course, changed significantly since 1991 but remained relevant, in many respects.

In this process of group formation, the differences and sameness were laid out; differences with regard to other theories and methodologies, and sameness in a programmatic way, both of which frame the range of theoretical approaches (Wodak, 2004). Some of the scholars previously aligned with CDA have chosen other theoretical frameworks. Many approaches were created and integrated with the more traditional theories. CDA as a school or paradigm is characterized by a number of principles, for example, all approaches are problem-oriented, and thus necessarily interdisciplinary and eclectic. CDA is characterized by the common interests in de-mystifying ideologies and power through the systematic investigation of semiotic data (written, spoken or visual). New journals have been created, multiple overviews have been written, and nowadays CDA is an established paradigm in linguistics.

Topic- 196: Considering 'Critical' in Critical Discourse Analysis

Power is a central concept in critical discourse studies. It tends to be defined in terms of negative uses of power, articulated through and within discourses and resulting in domination and oppression. Blommeart writes, "the deepest impact of power everywhere is inequality, as power differentiates and selects, includes and excludes". "Power is not a bad thing—those who are in power will confirm it". This suggests that critical discourse studies should offer an analysis of the effects of power, the outcomes of power, of what power does to people/groups/ societies and how this impact comes about.'

Critical Social Theory (CST) provides a theoretical foundation for critical approaches to discourse analysis. CST is a trans-disciplinary knowledge base structured by the dual agendas of critiquing and resisting domination and creating a society free of oppression (Anyon, 1997).

- Critical social theory and research rests on the rejection of naturalism (that social practices, labels, and programs represent reality),
- Rationality (the assumption that truth is a result of science and logic)
- Neutrality (the assumption that truth does not reflect any particular interests), and individualism
- CST's intellectual heritage draws on philosophy, literature, legal scholarship, cultural studies, critical race scholarship, political economy studies, ethnic studies, and feminist studies, and has been influenced by schools such as the Frankfurt School and the British Cultural Studies.

Critical social theory assumes that oppression and liberation are twin pillars of concern that include material, historical, and discursive dimensions and are enacted across time, people, and context. At the heart of critical social theory is a commitment to work with heart, head, and hands.

Topic- 197: Considering 'Discourse' in Critical Discourse Analysis

People seek to make meaning with every aspect of who they are and what they are doing:

- How they use their bodies?
- Integrate objects, artifacts, and technology.
- Use gestures, time, and space.
- Adjust their tone of voice when they speak.
- Choose the words they use.
- Interact in particular ways with others.

Meanings are made through representational systems—language being used of the sign systems to create meanings. Meanings are always embedded within social, historical, political, and ideological contexts. The discourse has been assigned many meanings located between the linguistic and the social perspectives.

Meanings are Motivated.

From a linguistic point of view, systemic functional linguistics (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Halliday, 1978) is the representational system—the theory of language—that is perhaps the most embedded in critical discourse studies. Systemic functional linguistics as a theory of language is oriented

toward choice and privileges meaning makers (language users) as agents making decisions about the social functions of their language use. Discourses both construct and represent the social world and thus can be referred to as constitutive, dialectical, and dialogic. Discourse is never just an artifact but a set of consumptive, productive, distributive, and reproductive processes that exist in relation to the social world. Discourses are social practices, processes, and products. Yule (1983) wrote, 'The analysis of discourse is necessarily the analysis of language in use. It cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions that these forms are designed to serve in human affairs.'

Topic- 198: Considering 'Analysis' in Critical Discourse Analysis

There are, as many different approaches to analyse within critical discourse analysis, as there are theories and problems to be studied (e.g., Titscher, Meyer, Wodak, & Vetter, 2000; van Dijk, 2001). The important is the analyses, connected to a theory of the social world and a theory of language that is coherent. Beyond that, procedures and methods vary.

In general, the view of methods of analysis is that one finds a research topic, applies a set of theoretical frames (or allows the frames to emerge from the data) to that research topic, and then selects appropriate methods, depending on the questions being asked and theories being used. Some analysts draw on extensive fieldwork; others collect large corpuses of texts from archives, websites or news sources. Some methods are less linguistically focused and more focused on the context in which the discourse arises. Some foreground micro-level issues, others the impact of global issues on local discourses. Other methods are interested in the historical emergence and evolution of a concept or narrative. Most influential traditions of critical approaches are James Gee (1986; 1991; 1996; 2004), Norman Fairclough (1989; 1992; 1995; 2003), and Gunther Kress (1979; 1993; 1996; 2001; 2003; 2009).

We cannot assign each scholar only one approach to critical discourse analysis because each scholar has developed and drawn on different theories and methods over time, many of them are overlapped. These researchers would all embrace the concept of methodological hybridity; they freely admit that their methods are drawn from a wide range of scholarship.

Topic- 199: Different Approaches to CDA

James Gee's Approach

An integrated approach to discourse analysis is the analysis of spoken and written language as it is used to enact social and cultural perspectives and identities. Assuming no prior knowledge of linguistics, James Paul Gee presents both a theory of language-in-use, as well as a method of research. Norman Fairclough developed a three-dimensional framework for studying discourse, where the aim is to map three separate forms of analysis onto one another. For example, analysis of (spoken or written) language texts, analysis of discourse practices (processes of text production, distribution and consumption) analysis of discursive events as instances of sociocultural practice.

Gunther Kress is one of the people credited with developing the branch of scholarship referred to as critical linguistics. He uses a social semiotic approach to contemporary communication, and brings

visual communication by applying social semiotics a theory based on meaning, social context, and developing multimodality phenomenon. He equates with understanding of communication but not the style or meaning of that communication. A social semiotic approach is concerned with how meanings are made—in both the outward and inner interpretation of signs.

Both of these approaches provide a set of tools and resources for understanding social events and practices that are taken up depending on the question. Our work is to apply these tools—and design new ones—in a context that is meaningful for our own work.

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Lesson-35

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Topic- 200: Introduction

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics which identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Language is at the heart of human life and the applied linguistics answers the following questions:

- What language skills should children attain beyond basic literacy?
- Should children speaking a dialect be encouraged to maintain it or steer towards the standard form of a language?
- Should everyone learn a foreign language?
- Language change. Should this just be accepted as an inevitable fact or should the change be controlled in some way?
- Which languages should be used in law courts and official documents?

Since late 1950s with the advent of generative linguistics, applied linguistics has always maintained a socially-accountable role, demonstrated by its central interest in language problems. In the 1960s, it was expanded to include language assessment, language policy, and second language acquisition. In 1970s, it became a problem-driven field rather than theoretical linguistics, including the solution of language-related problems in the real world. In 1990s, it broadened and included critical studies and multilingualism. Research in applied linguistics was shifted to "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue. The ‘applied linguistics’ refers to a broad range of activities which involve solving some language-related problem or addressing some language-related concern.

Topic- 201: Scope

A large and open-ended number of quite disparate activities to which applied linguistics is relevant. The scope of applied linguistics

- Language and education
- First-language education
- Additional-language education/second language education
- Clinical linguistics
- Language testing

Language, work, and law

- Workplace communication
- Language planning
- Forensic linguistics

Language, information, and effect

- Literary stylistics
- Critical discourse analysis
- Translation and interpretation
- Information design
- Lexicography

All of these areas fall within the definition of applied linguistics. These are areas of inquiry by organizations and journals concerned with the discipline.

Topic- 202: Major Branches

An interdisciplinary field of linguistics which identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.

- **Bilingualism:** the ability of an individual or the members of a community to use two languages effectively.
- **Multilingualism:** ability to use multiple languages is known as multilingualism.
- **Conversation analysis:** an approach to the study of social interaction and talk-in-interaction has exerted significant influence across the humanities and social sciences including linguistics.
- **Contrastive linguistics:** a practice-oriented linguistic approach that seeks to describe the differences and similarities between a pair of languages.
- **Sign linguistics:** any unit of language (morpheme, word, phrase, or sentence) used to designate objects or phenomena of reality.
- **Language planning and policy:** Decisions about language policies, requirements, and practices have important consequences in all social contexts. Language planning refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others through language codes.
- **Pragmatics:** the study of the use of linguistic signs, words and sentences, in actual situations.

Topic- 203: Linguistics Applied

Guy Cook (2005) writes, 'like Odysseus, applied linguistics has steered a difficult course between a rock and a whirlpool and has been in constant danger of hitting one or disappearing down the other'. Historically, there have been two main views on applied linguistics and they've been called linguistics applied and applied linguistics.

Linguistics Applied was the initial understanding of the discipline in the 1970s and assumed that anyone working within this field simply took insights from theoretical linguists. Applied Linguistics, as rethought in the 1980s, wanted to establish applied linguistics as a complete discipline in its own right – a complete and autonomous self that could also contribute to theory. The theoretical and applied disciplines could now coexist in an equal and mutually beneficial relationship.

The distinction has been proposed by Widdowson (2000) in his seminal article: "On the limitations of Linguistics Applied" published in Applied Linguistics Journal, OUP. He suggests that Applied Linguistics is a mediating activity which seeks to accommodate a linguistic account to other

partial perspectives on language to reformulate real world problems. Though in Linguistics Applied, as Widdowson argues, the assumption is that the problem can be reformulated by direct application of concepts and terms deriving from linguistic enquiry itself.

Lesson-36

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS I

Topic- 204: Introduction

Psycholinguistics reviews in some detail the various features of language that people use to produce and understand linguistic messages. The psycholinguist questions that where is this ability to use language located? The obvious answer is "in the brain." However, it cannot be just anywhere in the brain.

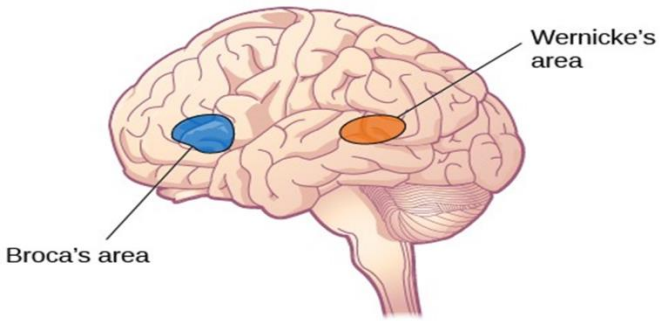
Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend and produce language. The discipline is mainly concerned with the mechanisms in which languages are processed and represented in the brain. Psycholinguistics has roots in education and philosophy, and covers the 'cognitive processes' that make it possible to generate a grammatical and meaningful sentence out of vocabulary and grammatical structures.

Topic- 205: Neurolinguistics

The study of the relationship between language and the brain is called 'Neurolinguistics'. The field of study dates back to the nineteenth century when the location of language in the brain was an early challenge. The accident of Mr. Gage made it clear to the scientists that language may be located in the specific parts of the brain; it is not clearly situated right at the front.

Topic- 206: Language Areas in Brain

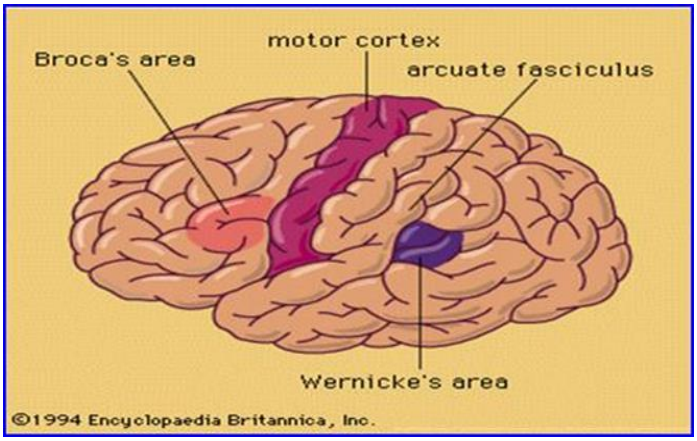
A number of discoveries have been made about the specific parts in the brain that are related to language functions. The most important parts are in areas above the left ear. We need to look more closely at some of the gray matter. So, if we observe a head, remove hair, scalp, skull, then disconnect the brain stem (connecting the brain to the spinal cord) and cut the corpus callosum (connecting the two hemispheres). If we disregard a certain amount of other material, we will basically be left with two parts, the left hemisphere and the right hemisphere. If we put the right hemisphere aside for now, and place the left hemisphere down so that we have a side view, we'll be looking at something close to the accompanying illustration.



The shaded areas in this illustration indicate the general locations of those language functions involved in speaking and listening. We have come to know that these areas exist largely through the examination, in autopsies of the brains of people who, in life, were known to have specific language disabilities. We have tried to determine where language abilities for normal users must be by finding areas with specific damage in the brains of people who had identifiable language disabilities.

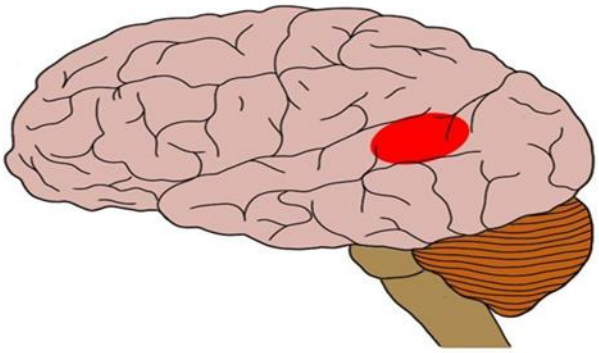
Topic- 207: Broca's Area and Wernicke's Area

Broca's area or the Broca area is a region in the frontal lobe of the dominant hemisphere of the hominid brain with functions linked to speech production. Language processing has been linked to Broca's area. Since Pierre Paul Broca reported impairments in two patients. The part shown as in the illustration is technically described as the "anterior speech cortex" or, more usually, as Broca's area.



Paul Broca, a French surgeon, reported in the 1860s that damage to this specific part of the brain was related to extreme difficulty in producing speech. It was noted that damage to the corresponding area on the right hemisphere had no such effect. This finding was first used to argue that language ability must be located in the left hemisphere and since then has been treated as an indication that Broca's area is crucially involved in the production of speech.

Wernicke's Area



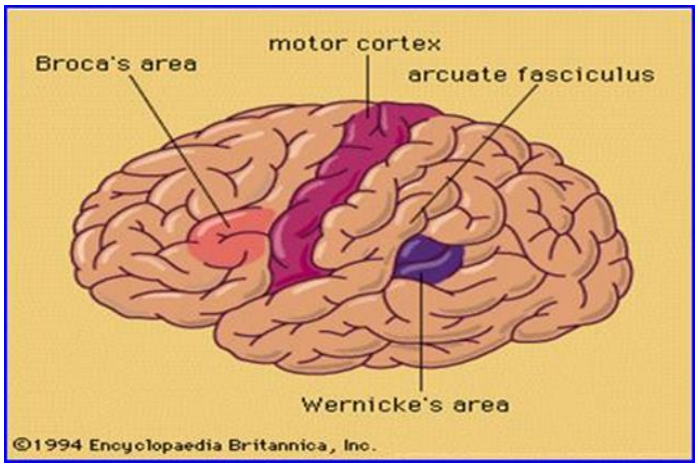
A region of the brain concerned with the comprehension of language, located in the cortex of the dominant temporal lobe. Damage in this area causes Wernicke's aphasia, characterized by superficially fluent, grammatical speech but an inability to use or understand more than the most basic nouns and verbs. This finding confirmed the left hemisphere location of language ability and led to the view that Wernicke's area is part of the brain crucially involved in the understanding of speech.

Topic- 208: The Motor Cortex and the Arcuate Fasciculus

Motor Cortex is the part of the cerebral cortex in the brain which originates the nerve impulses that initiate voluntary muscular activity. The part shown as in the illustration is the motor cortex, an area that generally controls movement of the muscles (for moving hands, feet, arms, etc.). Close to Broca's area is the part of the motor cortex that controls the articulatory muscles of the face, jaw, tongue and larynx.

The arcuate fasciculus (Latin: curved bundle) is a bundle of axons that forms part of the superior longitudinal fasciculus, an association fiber tract. The arcuate bidirectionally connects caudal temporal cortex and inferior parietal cortex to locations in the frontal lobe. Close to Broca's area is the part of the motor cortex that controls the articulatory muscles of the face, jaw, tongue and larynx. Evidence that this area is involved in the physical articulation of speech comes from work reported in the 1950s by two neurosurgeons, Penfield and Roberts (1959).

These researchers found that, by applying small amounts of electrical current to specific areas of the brain, they could identify those areas where the electrical stimulation would interfere with normal speech production. The part shown in the illustration is a bundle of nerve fibers called the arcuate fasciculus.



This was also one of Wernicke's discoveries and is now known to form a crucial connection between Wernicke's and Broca's areas.

Topic- 209: The Localization View

The localization view tempts to conclude that specific aspects of language ability can be accorded specific locations in the brain, and the brain activity involved in hearing a word, understanding it, then

saying it, would follow a definite pattern. The word is heard and comprehended via Wernicke's area. This signal is then transferred via the arcuate fasciculus to Broca's area where preparations are made to produce it, the signal is sent to part of the motor cortex to physically articulate the word. Certainly, it is an oversimplified version of what may actually take place, but it is consistent with much of what we understand about simple language processing in the brain. It is probably best to think of any proposal concerning processing pathways in the brain, as some forms of metaphor that may turn out to be inadequate once we learn more about how the brain functions. The "pathway" metaphor seems quite appealing in an electronic age when we're familiar with the process of sending signals through electrical circuits. In an earlier age, dominated more by mechanical technology, Sigmund Freud subtly employed a "steam engine" metaphor to account for aspects of the brain's activity when he wrote of the effects of repression "building up pressure" to the point of "sudden release". In an even earlier age, Aristotle's metaphor was of the brain as a cold sponge that functioned to keep the blood cool. In a sense, we are forced to use metaphors mainly because we cannot obtain direct physical evidence of linguistic processes in the brain. Because we have no direct access, we generally have to rely on what we can discover through indirect methods. Most of these methods involve attempts to work out how the system is working from the picked up clues when the system has problems or malfunctions.

Lesson-37

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS II

Topic- 210: Tongue Tips and Slips

We have all experienced difficulty, on some occasion(s), in getting brain and speech production work together smoothly. There are possible clues to how our linguistic knowledge is organized within the brain, 'the tip of the tongue phenomenon'. We feel that some word is just eluding us, which we know, but it just would not come to the surface. Studies of this phenomenon have shown that speakers generally have:

- an accurate phonological outline of the word,
- can get the initial sound correct
- and mostly know the number of syllables in the word.

This experience also mainly occurs with uncommon words and names. Our 'word-storage' system may be partially organized on the basis of some phonological information. Some words in the store are more easily retrieved than others. We make mistakes in this retrieval process because there are often strong phonological similarities between the target word and what we actually produce; e.g., fire distinguisher (for 'extinguisher') transcendental medication (instead of 'meditation').

Such types of mistakes are referred to 'malapropisms' after a character, Archie Bunker, who once suggested that; we need a few laughs to break up the monogamy. Here some examples of slip of tongue: Make a long shory stort (instead of 'make a long story short'); Use the door to open the key, and a fifty-pound dog of bag food.

Examples of 'spoonerisms' after William Spooner, an Anglican clergyman

Black bloxes (for 'black boxes')
Noman numeral (for 'roman numeral')
A tup of tea ('cup')

These all are treated as errors of articulation. It has been suggested that they may result from 'slips of the brain' as it tries to organize linguistic messages.

Topic- 211: Slips of the Ear

Many scientists provide some clues to how the brain tries to make sense of the auditory signal it receives. For example, the phrase 'great ape' may be heard 'gray tape'. A similar type of misunderstanding seems to be behind the child's report that in Sunday school every one was singing about: a bear called 'Gladly' that was cross-eyed for 'Gladly the cross I'd bear'.

In this case, malapropisms (e.g., transcendental medication) originate as slips of the ear. Some of these humorous examples of slips may give us a clue to the normal workings of the human brain as it copes with language. However, some problems with language production and comprehension are the result of much more serious disorders in brain function.

Topic- 212: Aphasia

All of us experience 'slips', but there are people who live with it constantly. Certain types of language disorders are generally described as 'aphasia'. Aphasia is defined as an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage that leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms. The most common cause of aphasia is a stroke; traumatic head injuries from violence or an accident may have similar effects. Those effects can range from mild to severe reduction in the ability to use language. Someone who is aphasic often has interrelated language disorders, and the difficulties in understanding can lead to difficulties in production.

Different types of aphasia

- Broca's aphasia
- Wernicke's aphasia
- Conduction aphasia

Topic- 213: Types of Aphasia

The classification of different types of aphasia is usually based on the primary symptoms of someone having difficulties with language. Following are some of the types of aphasia:

Broca's Aphasia or Motor Aphasia: This type is characterized by a substantially reduced amount of speech, in which distorted articulation and slow and often effortful speech are noted.

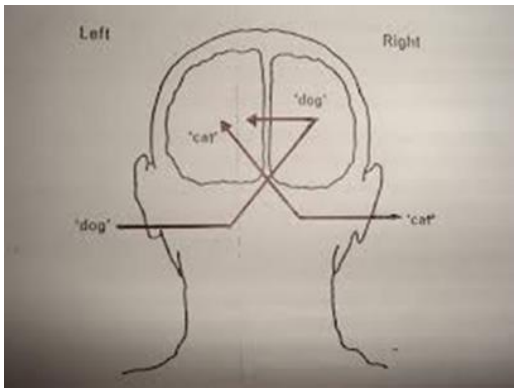
Agrammatic: In this type the speech consists entirely of lexical morphemes (e.g., nouns, verbs) whereas there are frequent omissions of functional morphemes (e.g., articles, prepositions) and inflections (e.g., plural -s, past tense -ed). Here is an example. I eggs and eat and drink coffee breakfast my cheek … very annoyance … main is my shoulder … aching' all round here. The patient faces difficulty in articulating single words. However, comprehension is typically much better than production.

Wernicke's Aphasia or Sensory Aphasia: The person with it has difficulties in auditory comprehension. He produces very fluent speech but feels difficulty to make sense. He uses very general terms. 'I can't talk all of the things I do, and part of the part I can go alright, but I cannot tell from the other people'. He finds difficulty in finding the correct word, sometimes referred to as anomia.

Conduction Aphasia: This aphasia is less common, as it is associated with damage to the arcuate fasciculus and is called conduction aphasia. In its symptoms, the person mispronounces words, but typically do not have articulation problems. He is fluent, but may have disrupted rhythm because of pauses and hesitations. His comprehension of spoken words is normally good. He produces words like the following: vaysse and fosh for 'base' and 'wash'. Language disorders described above are almost always the result of injury to the left hemisphere.

Topic- 214: Dichotic Listening

An Experimental Technique: Left hemisphere dominance for syllable and word processing is called the dichotic listening test. This technique uses the generally established fact that anything experienced on the right-hand side of the body is processed in the left hemisphere, and anything on the left side is processed in the right hemisphere.



Right Ear Advantage: The right hemisphere appears to have primary responsibility for processing a lot of other non-linguistic incoming signals. In the dichotic listening test, it can be shown that non-verbal sounds (e.g., music, coughs, traffic noises, and birds singing) are recognized more often via the left ear, meaning they are processed faster via the right hemisphere. The right hemisphere is first choice for non-language sounds (among other things) and the left hemisphere specializes in language sounds (among other things too). These specializations may actually have more to do with the type of processing, rather than the type of material, that is handled best by each of the two hemispheres. Analytic processing, such as recognizing the smaller details of sounds, words and phrase structures in rapid sequence is done with the 'left brain' . The holistic processing is done with the 'right brain'.

Topic- 215: The Critical Period

The apparent specialization of the left hemisphere for language is usually described in terms of lateral dominance or lateralization (one-sidedness). Since the human child does not emerge from the womb as a fully articulate language-user, the lateralization process begins in early childhood. It coincides with the period during which language acquisition takes place. During childhood, there is a period when the human brain is most ready to receive input and learn a particular language. This is sometimes called the 'sensitive period' for language acquisition, but is more generally known as the 'critical period'.

Though some think it may start earlier, the general view is that the critical period for first language acquisition lasts from birth until puberty. If a child does not acquire language during this period, for any reason, then it is almost impossible for him/her to learn language later on. Many unfortunate well documented cases provide us insight about what happens when the critical period passes without adequate linguistic input.

Lesson-38

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Topic- 216: Introduction

The way that people talk depends on personal and social backgrounds. It also depends on the details of a particular speech situation. The study of variation in speech depends on such matters is called the domain of sociolinguistics, variation in the form of language, especially as the result of social categories.

Sociolinguistics, thus, can be defined as the descriptive study of the effects of different aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and society's effect on language. There are certain social variables that are vital to the discipline such as: e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc. The adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes.

Sociolinguistics overlaps considerably with pragmatics. It is historically closely related to linguistic anthropology, and the distinction between the two fields has been questioned. It differs from sociology of language, which focuses on the effect of language on society. As the usage of a language varies from place to place, language usage also varies among social classes, and these sociolects are studied in sociolinguistics. People are normally aware of the social factors that make them to choose the suitable language. Sociolinguists study the social context and its influence on language.

Topic- 217: The Standard Language and Vernacular Language

Varieties of Language

A standard language is a variety of language that is used by governments, in the media, in schools and for international communication. There are different standard varieties of English in the world:

- British English
- North American English,
- Australian English
- Indian English, etc.

Standard Variety

It is an idealized variety, because it has no specific region. It is associated with administrative, commercial and educational centers, printed in newspapers and books, and used in the mass media regardless of region. It is more easily described in terms of the written language (i.e., vocabulary, spelling, grammar) than the spoken language.

Vernacular Language

A vernacular language is the native language or native dialect (usually colloquial or informal) of a specific population, especially. It is distinguished from a literary, national or standard variety of the language, or a lingua franca. It is used in the region or state inhabited by that population, and is spoken by the ordinary people of a country or region.

Topic- 218: Accent and Dialect (Dialectology)

Whether we speak a standard variety of English or not, we all have certain accents, they can be distinct or less noticeably recognised accents. It is a myth that some speakers have accents while others do not have.

Accent: An accent is a manner of pronunciation peculiar to a particular individual, location, or nation. Technically, it is the description of aspects of pronunciation that identify where an individual speaker is from, regionally or socially.

Dialect: Dialect includes the features of grammar and vocabulary as well as the aspects of pronunciation. You don't know what you're talking about. For example, 'Ye dinnae ken whit yer haverin' aboot.' (by a speaker of Scottish English might say)

Differences from Standard:

Pronunciation: **Whit for what**
Aboot for about,
Vocabulary: **Ken for know**
Havering for talking
Grammatical: **Dinnae for don't**

Differences in vocabulary are often easily recognised. However, dialect variations in the meaning of grammatical constructions are less frequently documented.

A: How long are youse here?
B: Till after Easter. (Speaker A looks puzzled.)
C: We came on Sunday.
A: Ah. Youse're here a while then. (from Trudgill, 1983)

One of the criteria used in the study of dialects, or dialectology is to distinguish between two different dialects of the same language and two different languages.

Topic- 219: Pidgin and Creole

A simplified speech used for communication between people with different languages. In some areas, the standard chosen may be a variety that originally had no native speakers in the country. For example, Tok Pisin, an English-based creole, used as a commercial and administrative language by over

2 million people in Papua New Guinea which began many years earlier as a kind of "contact". A pidgin is a variety of a language that developed for some practical purpose, such as trading among people not knowing each other's languages. It may be a Chinese version of the English word 'business'.

It will be described as an 'English pidgin' if English is the lexifier language, that is, the main source of words in the pidgin. No same pronunciation or meaning as in the source is used. The word gras has its origins in the English word 'grass', in Tok Pisin for 'hair'. It is part of mausgras ('moustache') and gras bilong fes ('beard'). Several English pidgins are still used today. They are characterized by an absence of any complex grammatical morphology and have a somewhat limited vocabulary. Inflectional suffixes such as -s and -'s on nouns in Standard English are rare in pidgins. Common Structures are like tu buk ('two books'), di gyal place ('the girl's place'). Functional morphemes often take the place of inflectional morphemes found in the source language. For example the English phrase your book, is like buk bilong yu.

Between six and twelve million people still use pidgin languages and between ten and seventeen million using descendants from pidgins called 'creoles'. When a pidgin develops beyond its role as a trade or contact language and becomes the first language of a social community, it is described as a creole.

Tok Pisin is now a creole. Although still locally referred to as 'Pidgin', the language spoken by a large number of people in Hawai'i is also a creole, technically known as Hawai'i Creole English. A creole initially develops as the first language of children growing up in a pidgin-using community and becomes more complex as it serves more communicative purposes. There are large numbers of native speakers and are not restricted at all in their uses. A French creole is used in Haiti. English creoles are used in Jamaica and Sierra Leone.

Topic- 220: Diglossia and Polyglossia

This is a situation in which two distinct varieties of a language are spoken within the same speech community, 'high' or special variety, learned in school and used for important matters. In Arabic-speaking countries 'the high variety' (Classical Arabic) is used in formal lectures, serious political events and especially in religious discussions. The low variety is the local version of the language, such as Egyptian Arabic or Lebanese Arabic.

The classic diglossic situation is the one in which two varieties of a language, such as standard French and Haitian Creole French, exist alongside each other in a single society. Each variety has its own fixed functions—one a 'high,' prestigious variety a 'low,' or colloquial, one. Using the wrong variety in the wrong situation would be socially inappropriate.

Polydiglossia

The coexistence of two or more languages or distinct varieties of the same language, within a speech community is known as Polydiglossia. According to Lindsay (2007), Polydiglossia is a term that refers to a person's ability to communicate in more than two languages. Polydiglossia situations involve

two contrasting varieties (high and low). The concept of polyglossia can be explained in the Singapore Chinese speaking community. Three languages are used by Singaporean Chinese namely Mandarin, Cantonese and Hokkien. Singaporean Chinese people will use Mandarin for their job; Cantonese and Hokkien are for daily conversation among the family used as Informal language.

Topic- 221: Language and Culture

Language and culture is the study of language which originates in the work of anthropologists who have used language as a source of information in the general study of 'culture'. Culture can be defined as 'shared beliefs, values and behaviours of a social group', where social group can be a family at a micro level and a nation at a macro level (Byram, 2008).

Language is 'socially acquired knowledge'. 'Language is used not just as a tool for the exchange of information, but as a symbolic system with the power to create and shape symbolic realities, such as values, perceptions, identities through discourse' (Kramsch, 2002). Our first language is initially acquired without conscious awareness. We develop awareness of our knowledge, and hence of our culture, only after having developed language. The particular language we learn through the process of cultural transmission provides us, at least initially, with a ready-made system of categorising the world around us and our experience of it. With the words we acquire, we learn to recognise the types of category distinctions that are relevant in our social world. Very young children may not initially think of 'dog' and 'horse' as different.

In native cultures of the Pacific, there were no horses so no words for them. We must have a conceptual system that includes these people, things and ideas as distinct and identifiable categories such as dog or horse, rain or snow, father or uncle, week or weekend, etc. The relation of culture and language is the way they share human values, realities and behaviours of a social group. According to Kramsch, language expresses, embodies and symbolizes cultural reality.

Lesson-39

FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION I

Topic- 222: Acquisition and Stages of Acquisition

The acquisition of first language is remarkable for the speed with which it takes place. A child long before he/she starts school, becomes an extremely sophisticated language user operating a system for self-expression and communication. The human child cannot be compared to any other creature or computer. The learning generally occurs without any overt instruction, regardless of great differences in their circumstances. The idea behind it is, there is an innate predisposition in the human infant to acquire language - special capacity for language with which each newborn child is endowed. There are many different ways to characterize the developmental sequence. The stages of language production by the children focusing primarily on the unfolding of lexical and syntactic knowledge are mentioned as follows:

Stage	Typical age	Description
Babbling	6-8 months	Repetitive CV patterns
One-word stage (better *one-morpheme* or *one-unit)* or holophrastic stage	9-18 months	Single open-class words or word stems
Two-word stage	18-24 months	"mini-sentences" with simple semantic relations
Telegraphic stage or early multiword stage (better *multi-morpheme*)	24-30 months	"Telegraphic" sentence structures of *lexical* rather than *functional* or *grammatical* morphemes
Later multiword stage	30+ months	*Grammatical* or *functional* structures emerge

It is observed in researches that the inborn language capacity is not enough. The child must be physically capable of sending and receiving sound signals in a language. Same as hearing language sounds is not enough because a crucial requirement appears as the opportunity to interact with others via language.

Topic- 223: Cooing and Babbling

The earliest use of speech-like sounds has been described as cooing e.g., sequences of vowel-like sounds, particularly high vowels similar to [i] and [u]. ‘cooing’ or ‘going’. By four months the child brings the back of the tongue into regular contact with the back of the palate allowing velar consonants [k] and [g] to produce. Speech perception studies have shown that by the time they are five months old, babies can already hear the difference between the vowels [i] and [a] and discriminate between syllables like [ba] and [ga].

Babbling

Between six and eight months, the child starts sitting up and producing a number of different vowels and consonants, as well as combinations such as ba-ba-ba and ga-ga-ga. In the later babbling stage, around nine to ten months, there are recognizable intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced, as well as variation in the combinations such as ba-ba-da-da can be observed.

Nasal Sounds

Common and certain syllable sequences such as ma-ma-ma and da-da-da are inevitably interpreted by parents as versions of "mama" and "dada" and are repeated back to the child. This "paralanguage" use of sound provides the child with some experience of the social role of speech because adults tend to react to the babbling, however incoherent, as if it is actually the child's contribution to social interaction. Development stages are taken as approximate and are subject to variation in individual children such as 'by six months' or 'by the age of two'.

Topic- 224: The One-Word Stage

Between twelve and eighteen months the child produces a variety of recognizable single-unit utterances. This stage is characterized by speech, in which single terms are uttered for everyday objects like 'Cookie', 'Cat', 'Cup' 'Spoon' (usually pronounced [pun]).

Other forms such as [ʌsæ]: A version of 'What's that', so the label 'one-word' for this stage may be misleading, the term such as 'single-unit' would be more accurate.

Holophrastic

During this stage a single form functions as a phrase or sentence to describe an utterance that could be analyzed as a word, a phrase, or a sentence. Holophrastic utterances seem to be used to name objects; they may also be produced in circumstances that suggest the child is already extending their use.

An empty bed may elicit the name of a sister who normally sleeps in the bed, even in the absence of the person named. During this stage the child may be capable of referring to Karen and bed, but is not yet ready to put the forms together to produce a more complex phrase. It is over expectation from a toddler to expect such thing. The child can only walk with a stagger and has to come downstairs backwards.

Topic- 225: The Two-Word Stage

This stage is dependent on what we count as an occurrence of two distinct words used together. It begins around eighteen to twenty months. The child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty words. By two years old, the child starts uttering a variety of combinations, similar to: Baby chair, mommy eat, cat bad etc.

The adult interpretation of such combinations is very much tied to the context of their utterance. The expression depends on different circumstances: 'Baby chair' an expression of possession, (This is baby's chair), or as a request, (Put baby in chair), or as a statement (Baby is in the chair).

Whatever it is that the child actually intends to communicate through such expressions, the significant functional consequences are that the adult behaves as if communication is taking place. The child not only produces speech, but also receives feedback confirming that the utterance worked as a contribution to the interaction. By the age of two, the child may producing 200 or 300 distinct 'words', and is capable of understanding five times as many. Typically he/she is treated as an entertaining conversational partner by the principal care giver.

Topic- 226: Telegraphic Speech

Between two and two-and-a-half years old, the child starts a large number of utterances that could be classified as "multiple-word" speech. The salient feature of these utterances ceases to be the number of words, but the variation in word forms that begins to appear. This is the stage characterized by strings of words (lexical morphemes) in phrases or sentences such as:

- This shoe all wet
- Cat drink milk
- Daddy go bye-bye.
- Sentence building capacity
- Can get the word order correct

While this type of telegram-format speech is being produced, a number of grammatical inflections begin to appear, the word forms and simple prepositions (in, on).

By the age of two-and-a-half, the child's vocabulary is expanding rapidly and the child is initiating more talk while increased physical activity includes running and jumping. By three, the vocabulary has grown to hundreds of words and pronunciation has become closer to the form of adult language. At this point, it is worth considering what kind of influence the adults have in the development of the child's speech.

Topic- 227: Summary/Discussion

Some well-known studies suggest about social-class differences in language acquisition by children. Betty Hart and Todd Risley remark that there are meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American Children. By the age of 3 years, the children from privileged families have heard 30 million more words than children from underprivileged families. Longitudinal data on 42 families has been examined that showed enormous differences in the rates of vocabulary growth. The children turned out to be like their parents in stature, activity level, vocabulary resources, and language and interaction styles. However, other researchers think that 42 is not a very large sample, and there are many other questions to ask. This work suggests that we should be concerned about possible lasting

effects of cultural differences in children's linguistic environment and socio-economic status differences in language learning.

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Lesson-40

FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION II

Topic- 228: The Acquisition Process

The linguistic repertoire of the child increases with the passage of time. The question arises whether the child is being taught or not. The idea is that a child is not really supported by what the child actually does. In the vast majority of children; no one provides any instruction about how to speak the language nor should we picture a little empty head gradually being filled with words and phrases. A more accurate view highlighted the children actively construct from what is said to them, possible ways of using the language. The child's linguistic production appears to be mostly a matter of trying out constructions and testing whether they work or not. A child is not simply imitating adult speech but a child hears and repeats versions of sayings on different occasions. Adults simply do not produce many of the expressions that turn up in children's speech. Look at the following two examples:

NOAH: (picking up a toy dog) This is Woodstock. (He bobs the toy in Adam's face)
ADAM: Hey Woodstock, don't do that. (Noah persists)
ADAM: I'm going home so you won't Woodstock me.
CHILD: My teacher holded the baby rabbits and we patted them.
MOTHER: Did you say your teacher held the baby rabbits?
CHILD: Yes.
MOTHER: What did you say she did?
CHILD: She holded the baby rabbits and we patted them.
MOTHER: Did you say she held them tightly?
CHILD: No, she holded them loosely.

One factor that seems to be important in the child's acquisition process is the actual use of sound and word combinations, either in interaction with others or in wordplay, alone.

Topic- 229: Developing Morphology

By two-and-a-half years old the child is beyond telegraphic speech forms. He/she incorporates some of the inflectional morphemes that indicate the grammatical function of the nouns and verbs used.
First, the child uses is the -ing form in expressions such as: cat sitting, mommy reading book etc.
Secondly, -s form is used; for example, boys and cats

The acquisition of the plural marker is often accompanied by a process of overgeneralization. S/he uses -s to form plurals and will talk about foots and mans. With the alternative pronunciation of the plural morpheme used in houses (i.e., ending in [-əz]) they overgeneralize application and forms such as boyses or footses. Along with overgeneralization, use of irregular plurals such as men which are quite appropriately for a while they also use expressions like some:

mens and two feets, or even two feetses.

Not long after the plural –s, the possessive inflection -'s also occurs in expressions like the following:

- girl's dog
- Mummy's book

At the same time, different forms of the verb "to be," such as are and was are started to be used. The appearance of forms such as was and, at about the same time, went and came should be noted. The irregular past-tense forms that we would not expect to hear before the more regular forms, the appearance of the -ed inflection. Once the regular past-tense forms (walked, played) begin appearing in the child's speech, the irregular forms may disappear for a while, replaced by overgeneralized versions such as goed and comed. Such oddities as walkeded and wented do not disappear till after the age of four when the child start distinguishing which forms are regular and which are not. The regular-s marker on third person singular present-tense verbs appears. It occurs first with full verbs like comes, looks etc. and then with auxiliaries like does, has etc.

A great deal of variability is observed at this stage. Individual children may produce 'good' forms one day and 'odd' forms the next. The evidence suggests that the child is working out how to use the linguistic system while focusing on communication and interaction rather than correctness. The parents who insist that the child didn't hear such things at home are implicitly recognize that 'imitation' is not the primary force in first language acquisition.

Topic- 230: Developing Syntax

Similar evidence against 'imitation' as the basis of the child's speech production has been found in studies of the syntactic structures used by young children. One child, specifically asked to repeat what she heard, would listen to an adult say forms such as:

- The owl who eats candy runs fast
- Owl eat candy and he run fast.

The child understands what the adult is saying but just has her own way of expressing it. There are numerous studies of the development of syntax in children's speech. We will look at the development of two structures that seem to be acquired in a regular way by most English-speaking children. In the formation of questions and the use of negatives, there appear to be three identifiable stages. The ages at which children go through these stages can vary quite a bit.

Stage 1: occurs between 18 and 26 months

Stage 2: between 22 and 30 months

Stage 3: between 24 and 40 months

The overlap in the periods during which children go through these stages is a natural effect of the different rates at which different children normally develop these and other structures.

Topic- 231: Forming Questions

The child's first stage has two procedures in forming questions. Simply add a Wh-form (Where, Who) to the beginning of the expression, or utter the expression with a rise in intonation towards the end.

Examples

- Where kitty?
- Doggie?
- Where horse go?
- Sit chair?

In the second stage, more complex expressions can be formed, but the rising intonation strategy continues to be used.

More Wh-forms come into use, as in these examples:

Examples

- What book name?
- You want eat?
- Why you smiling?
- See my doggie?
- Second stage,

More complex expressions the rising intonation strategy continues to be used. It is noticeable that more Wh-forms come into use, as in these examples:

- What book name?
- You want eat?
- Why you smiling?
- See my doggie?

In the third stage, the required movement of the auxiliary in English questions (I can have … ⇒ Can I have …?) is seen. It does not automatically spread to all *Wh-question* types In fact, some children beginning school in their fifth or sixth year may still prefer to form Wh-questions (especially with negatives) without the type of inversion found in adult speech (e.g., Why kitty can't …? instead of Why can't kitty …?). Apart from these problems with *Wh-questions* and continuing trouble with the morphology of verbs is found as in the following examples:

(e.g., Did I caught …? instead of Did I catch … ?), at stage 3 the child forms questions close to the adult model, as in these examples:

- Can I have a piece?
- Did I caught it?
- Will you help me?
- How that opened?
- What did you do?
- Why kitty can't stand up?

Topic- 232: Forming Negatives

The Stage 1percieves, in the case of negatives, the child seems to involve a simple strategy of putting No or Not at the beginning, as in these examples:

- no mitten

- not a teddy bear
- no fall
- no sit there

In the second stage, the additional negative forms are added and so don't and can't appear, with no and not, as they are increasingly used in front of the verb rather than at the beginning of the sentence, as in these examples:

- He no bite you
- I don't want it
- That not touch
- You can't dance

The third stage sees the incorporation of other auxiliary forms such as didn't and won't while the typical Stage 1 forms disappear. A very late acquisition is the negative form isn't, with the result that some Stage 2 forms (with not instead of isn't) continue to be used for quite a long time, as in the examples:

- I didn't caught it
- He not taking it
- She won't let go
- This not ice cream

The study of the developing use of negative forms has produced some delightful examples of children operating their own rules for negative sentences. One famous example (McNeill, 1966) also shows the futility of overt adult 'correction' of children's speech.

- CHILD: Nobody don't like me
- MOTHER: No, say 'nobody likes me.'
- CHILD: Nobody don't like me. (Eight repetitions of this dialog)
- MOTHER: No, now listen carefully; say 'nobody likes me.'
- CHILD: Oh! Nobody don't likes me.

Topic- 233: Developing Semantics

The anecdotes that parents retell about their child's early speech (to the intense embarrassment of the grown-up child) usually involve examples of the strange use of words. Having been warned that flies bring germs into the house, one child was asked what "germs" were and the answer was "something the flies play with." It is not always possible to determine so precisely the meanings that children attach to the words they use. It seems that during the holophrastic stage many children use their limited vocabulary to refer to a large number of unrelated objects.

One child first used bow-wow to refer to a dog and then to a fur piece with glass eyes, a set of cufflinks and even a bath thermometer. The word bow-wow seemed to have a meaning like 'object with shiny bits.' Other children often extend bow-wow to refer to cats, cows and horses. This process is called overextension and the most common pattern is for the child to overextend the meaning of a word on the

basis of similarities of shape, sound and size, and, to a lesser extent, movement and texture. Thus the word ball is extended to all kinds of round objects, including a lampshade, a doorknob and the moon. Or, a tick tock is initially used for a watch, but can also be used for a bathroom scale with around dial.On the basis of size, presumably, the word fly was first used for the insect and then came to be used for specks of dirt and even crumbs of bread. Apparently due to similarities of texture, the expression *sizo* was first used by one child for scissors, and then extended to all metal objects.

The semantic development in a child's use of words is usually a process of overextension initially, followed by a gradual process of narrowing down the application of each term as more words are learned. Although overextension has been well-documented in children's speech production, it isn't necessarily used in speech comprehension. One two-year-old used apple, in speaking, to refer to a number of other round objects like a tomato and a ball, but had no difficulty picking out the apple, when asked, from a set of round objects including a ball and a tomato.

One interesting feature of the young child's semantics is the way certain lexical relations are treated. In terms of hyponymy, the child will almost always use the 'middle'-level term in a hyponymous set such as animal – dog – poodle. It would seem more logical to learn the most general term (animal), but all evidence indicates that children first use dog with an overextended meaning close to the meaning of "animal." This may be connected to a similar tendency in adults, when talking to young children, to refer to flowers (not the more general plants, or the more specific tulips). It also seems that hyponymous relations are acquired fairly late (after the age of five). In one study, a large number of kindergarten children pointed to the same heavily laden apple tree when asked which tree has more apples. And also when asked which tree has less apples. They just seem to think the correct response will be the larger one, disregarding the difference between more and less. The distinctions between a number of other pairs such as before/after and buy/sell also seem to be later acquisitions.

Despite the fact that the child is still to acquire a large number of other aspects of his or her first language through the later years of childhood, It is normally assumed that, by the age of five, the child has completed the greater part of the basic language acquisition process. According to some linguists, the child is then in a good position to start learning a second (or foreign) language. However, most people don't start trying to learn another language until much later. The question that always arises is: if first language acquisition was so straightforward and largely automatic, why is learning a second language so difficult?

Lesson-41

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION/LEARNING

Topic- 234: Second Language Acquisition and Learning

Some children grow up in a social environment where more than one language is used and are able to acquire a second language in circumstances similar to those of first language acquisition. Those fortunate individuals are bilingual. Most of us are not exposed to a second language until much later. Even after years of study, our ability rarely matches our ability in our first language. There is something of an enigma in this, since there is apparently no other system of "knowledge" that we can learn better at two or three years of age than at thirteen or thirty. A number of reasons have been suggested to account for this enigma, and a number of different approaches have been proposed to help learners become communicator in a second language.

Second Language Learning

A distinction is made between learning in a "foreign language" setting as:

- A 'second language' setting
- English as a foreign language (EFL)
- English as a second language (ESL)

In either case, they are simply trying to learn another language, so the expression second language learning is used more generally to describe both situations.

Acquisition and Learning

The term acquisition is used to refer to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language whereas learning is a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features, such as vocabulary and grammar, of a language, typically in an institutional setting. (Mathematics, for example, is learned, not acquired.)

Those individuals whose L2 exposure is primarily a learning type of experience tend not to develop the same kind of general proficiency as those who have had more of an acquisition type of experience.

Topic- 235: Acquisition Barriers

Acquisition Barriers

The experience with an L2 is fundamentally different from that of L1 experience, and it is hardly conducive to acquisition. They usually encounter the L2 during their teenage or adult years, in a few hours each week of school time rather than via the constant interaction experienced as a child with a lot of other things going on and with an already known language available for most of their daily communicative requirements. Despite the fact that insufficient time, focus and incentive undermine many

L2 learning attempts; some individuals who seem to be able to overcome the difficulties and develop an ability to use the L2 quite effectively learn the language fast. However, sounding like a native speaker is difficult. Even in ideal acquisition situations, very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using an L2. There are individuals who can achieve great expertise in the written language, but not the spoken language. One of the greatest examples of this is Joseph Conrad. He wrote a lot of English novels but whenever he used to speak English, he had his Polish accent.

This might suggest that some features of an L2, such as vocabulary and grammar, are easier to learn than others such as pronunciation. Without early experience using the sounds and intonation of the L2, even highly fluent adult learners are likely to be perceived as having an "accent" of some kind.

This type of observation is sometimes taken as evidence that, after the critical period for language acquisition has passed, around the time of puberty, it becomes very difficult to acquire another language fully. The optimum age for learning is ten to sixteen when the flexibility of our inherent capacity for language has not been completely lost.

Topic- 236: Affective Factors

Yet even during this proposed optimum age for L2 learning, there may be an acquisition barrier of quite different kind. Teenagers are typically much more self-conscious than younger children. If there is a strong element of unwillingness or embarrassment in attempting to produce the different sounds of another language, then it may override whatever physical and cognitive abilities there are. If this self-consciousness is accompanied by a lack of empathy with the other culture, then the subtle effects of not really wanting to sound like a Russian or a German or an American may strongly inhibit the learning process. This type of emotional reaction, or 'affect', may also be caused by dull textbooks, unpleasant classroom surroundings or an exhausting schedule of study and/or work. All these negative feelings or experiences are affective factors that can create a barrier to acquisition.

If the learner is stressed, uncomfortable, self-conscious or unmotivated, they are unlikely to learn very much. Children seem to be less constrained by affective factors. Descriptions of L2 acquisition in childhood are full of instances where young children quickly overcome their inhibitions as they try to use new words and phrases. Adults can sometimes overcome their inhibitions too.

Topic- 237: Focus on Method

Despite the barriers, the need for instruction in other languages has led to a variety of educational approaches and methods aimed at fostering L2 learning. Caxton (1483) wrote:

Right good lernyng for to lerne shortly frenssh and englyssh.

The first to compile exercise material for L2 learners and his phrase-book format with customary greetings:

- Syre, god you kepe.
- I haue not seen you in longe tyme

More recent approaches designed to promote L2 learning have tended to reflect different theoretical views on how an L2 might best be learned.

The Grammar–Translation Method

The most traditional approach is to treat L2 learning in the same way as any other academic subject. Vocabulary lists and sets of grammar rules are used to define the target of learning. It focuses more on memorization. Written language rather than spoken language is emphasized. It has its roots in the traditional teaching of Latin and is described as the grammar–translation method.

The Audio Lingual Method

This method has the following characteristics:

- A very different approach
- Emphasize on the spoken language
- Became popular in the middle of the twentieth century
- Involved a systematic presentation of the structures of the L2
- Moving from the simple to the more complex
- Drills that the student had to repeat

It basic belief was that the fluent use of a language was essentially a set of "habits" that could be developed with a lot of practice.

Communicative Approaches

More recent revisions of the L2 learning experience can best be described as communicative approaches. They were partially a reaction against the artificiality of 'pattern practice'. It was against the belief that consciously learning the grammar rules of a language will necessarily result in an ability to use the language. However there are different versions of how to create communicative experiences for L2 learners. This approach is based on a belief that the functions of language should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language. These changes have coincided with attempts to provide more appropriate materials for L2 learning that has a specific purpose, as in 'English for medical personnel' or 'Japanese for business people'.

Topic- 238: Focus on the Learner

Focus on learner is the most fundamental change in the area of L2 learning. It is a shift from concern with the teacher, the textbook and the method to an interest in the learner and the acquisition process. For example, one radical feature of most communicative approaches is the toleration of "errors" produced by students.

Traditionally, "errors" were regarded negatively and had to be avoided or eradicated. The more recent acceptance of such errors in learners' use of the L2 is quite normal. Rather than consider a Spanish (L1) speaker's production of 'in the room 'there are three womens' as simply a failure to learn correct English; the utterance is taken as an indication of the natural L2 acquisition process in action. An "error,"

then, is not something that hinders a student's progress but a clue to the active learning progress being made by the student just as children acquiring their L1 produce certain types of ungrammatical forms at times. L2 learner may produce similar forms at certain stages. The example of 'womens' might be seen as a type of overgeneralization.

Transfer 'Cross Linguistic Influence'

Transfer means using sounds, expressions or structures from the L1 when performing in the L2. For example, a Spanish (L1) speaker who produces 'take it from the side inferior' may be trying to use the Spanish adjective inferior (=lower in English) and placing it after the noun, as is typical in Spanish constructions.

Positive Transfer

If the L1 and L2 have similar features (e.g., marking plural on the ends of nouns), then the learner may be able to benefit from the positive transfer of L1 knowledge to L2.

Negative Transfer

Transferring an L1 feature that is really different from the L2 (e.g., putting the adjective after the noun) results in negative transfer and it may make the L2 expression difficult to understand. The negative transfer (sometimes called 'interference') is more common in the early stages of L2 learning and often decreases as the learner develops familiarity with the L2.

Interlanguage

The language produced by L2 learners contains a large number of 'errors' that seem to have no connection to the forms of either the L1 or L2. Following is an example: 'She name is Maria.'

Motivation

There are several factors that combine in a profile of a successful L2 learner. Obviously, the motivation to learn is important. Many learners have an instrumental motivation. .That is, they want to learn the L2 in order to achieve some other goal, such as completing a school graduation requirement or being able to read scientific publications, but not really for any social purposes. In contrast, those learners with an integrative motivation want to learn the L2 for social purposes, in order to take part in the social life of a community using that language and to become an accepted member of that community.

Topic- 239: Communicative Competence

Communicative competence can be defined as the general ability to use language accurately, appropriately, and flexibly. The first component is grammatical competence, which involves the accurate use of words and structures. Concentration on grammatical competence only, however, will not provide the learner with the ability to interpret or produce L2 expressions appropriately. The ability to use

appropriate language is the second component, called sociolinguistic competence. It enables the learner to know when to say according to the social context. For example: Can I have some water? versus give me some water.

Much of what was discussed in terms of pragmatics has to become familiar in the cultural context of the L2 if the learner is to develop sociolinguistic competence. The third component is called strategic competence. This is the ability to organize a message effectively and to compensate, via strategies, for any difficulties. In L2 use, learners inevitably experience moments when there is a gap between communicative intent and their ability to express that intent. Some learners may just stop talking, whereas others will try to express themselves using a communication strategy. For example, a Dutch L1 speaker wanted to refer to een hoefijzer in English, but didn't know the English word. So, she used a communication strategy. She created a way of referring to the object by using vocabulary she already knew, saying 'the things that horses wear under their feet', the iron things' and the listener understood immediately what she meant. This flexibility in L2 use is a key element in communicative success. In essence, strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problems in interaction.

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Lesson-42

HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS

Topic- 240: Introduction

Consider the following is a text from old English:

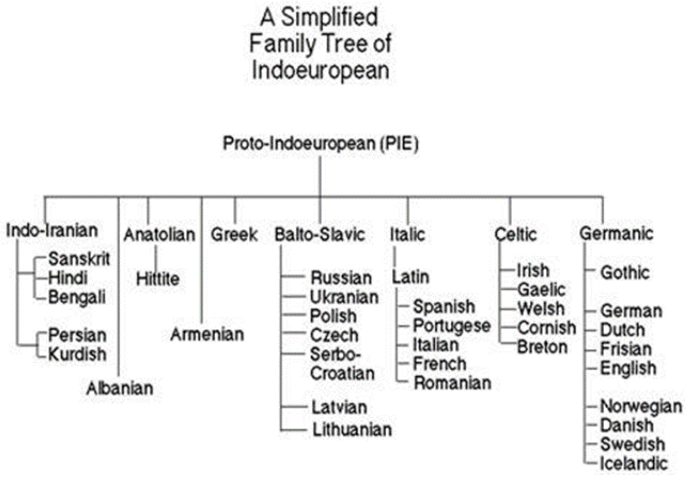
Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum,
Si þin nama gehalgod.
To becume þin rice.
Gewurþe þin willa on eorðan swa swa on heofonum. (Lord's Prayer)

Historical linguistics is the field of investigation of the features of older languages, and the ways in which they developed into modern languages. It involves using the study of language and change, also known as philology and also called diachronic linguistics. In the nineteenth century, philology dominated the study of language and one result was the creation of "family trees" to show how languages were related. Principal concerns of historical linguistics include:

- to describe and account for observed changes in particular languages
- to reconstruct the pre-history of languages and to determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families (comparative linguistics)
- to develop general theories about how and why language changes
- to describe the history of speech communities
- to study the history of words, i.e., etymology

Topic- 241: The Family Tree Model

Jones (1786) made the following observation about Sanskrit, the ancient language of Indian law: a number of languages from very different geographical areas must have some common ancestor. The discovery brought forth Proto-Indo-European group of languages. Scholars set out to identify the branches of the Indo-European family tree, tracing the lineage of many modern languages.



Thirty such language families containing more than 6,000 different individual languages (actually 6,912 languages) were established. These languages are in danger of extinction while a few are expanding. In terms of number of speakers:

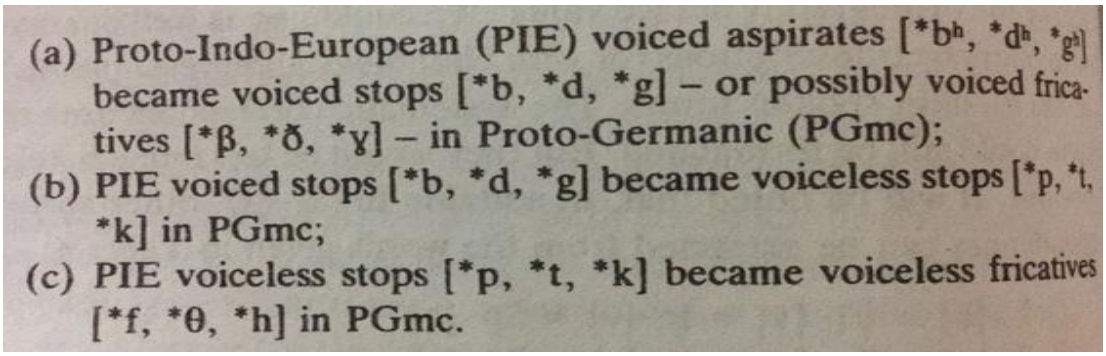
- Chinese (about 1 billion)
- English (about 350 million

Topic- 242: Grimm's Law

Grimm (1822) gave the concept of a systematic correspondence holding between the consonants of Germanic languages, on the one hand and of the other Indo-European on the other.

	p	f
Latin	English	German
pedem	foot	Fuss

Grimm's Law: These differences were first originally observed by Danish scholar, Rasmus Rask. However, Grimm's work was readily accessible to international scholars. Grimm's Law consists of three parts which form consecutive phases in the sense of a chain shift. The phases are usually constructed as follows:


(a) Proto-Indo-European (PIE) voiced aspirates [*b^h, *d^h, *g^h] became voiced stops [*b, *d, *g] – or possibly voiced fricatives [*β, *ð, *ɣ] – in Proto-Germanic (PGmc);
(b) PIE voiced stops [*b, *d, *g] became voiceless stops [*p, *t, *k] in PGmc;
(c) PIE voiceless stops [*p, *t, *k] became voiceless fricatives [*f, *θ, *h] in PGmc.

The asterisks indicate the sounds in question are reconstructed rather than being directly attested. The PIE and PGmc are hypothetical constructs. [p] of English in spit, spew corresponds to a [p] in other languages is in apparent violation of Grimm's Law as in Latin spuo, etc. Similarly Gmc [t] is same as Gk [t]. and Skt [t]. Each sound occurs as second segment of the two-consonantal cluster. The preservation can be seen as a regular development in English spit, spew, stand etc.

Topic- 243: The Comparative Method

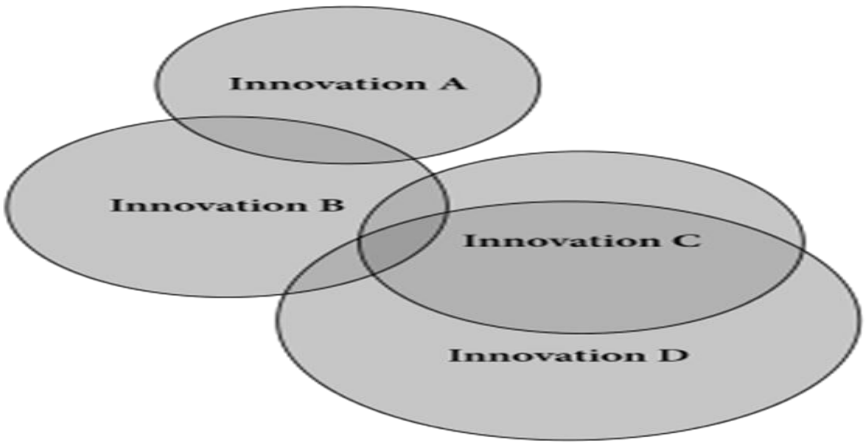
The standard way of demonstrating the genetic relatedness of languages is by means of comparative method developed in earlier period of historical linguistics 1820 -1870. It is claimed many of the related word across languages can be put into systematic correspondence in term of their phonological and morphological structure. Words across languages can be put into systematic correspondences in terms of phonological and morphological structure.

(1)	"thing"	causa	chose	cosa	cosa
	"head"	caput	chef	capo	cabo
	"horse"	caballus	cheval	cavallo	caballo
	"sing"	cantare	chanter	cantare	cantar
	"dog"	canis	chien	cane	
	"goat"	capra	chèvre	capra	cabra
(2)	"plant"	planta	plante	pianta	llanta
	"key"	clavis	clef	chiave	llave
	"rain"	pluvia	pluie	pioggia	lluvia
(3)	"eight"	octo	huit	otto	ocho
	"night"	nox/noctis	nuit	notte	noche
	"fact"	factum	fait	fatto	hecho
	"milk"	lacte	lait	latte	leche
(4)	"daughter"	filia	fille	figlia	hija
	"beautiful"	formosus			hermoso

- The words in table related not only in forms- but also in meaning.
- Words can change their meaning in the course of time.
- Latin word 'horse' was not 'caballus' (more specific mean of peck horse) also meant 'nag' not 'equus' become a general and neutral word in place of 'equus'
- The words do not cause problem semantically.
- The words may not change meaning but fall into disuse and be replaced.

Topic- 244: The Wave Model

During the 20th century the wave model has had little acceptance as a model for language change overall. It has recently gained more popularity among historical linguists due to the shortcomings of the Tree model. The wave model was originally presented by Johannes Schmidt.



In this diagram, the circles are to be regarded as diachronic; that is, they increase in diameter over time, like the concentric waves on a water surface struck by a stone. The circles are stable dialects; characters or bundles of characters that have been innovated and have become more stable over an originally small portion of the continuum for socio-political reasons. These circles spread from their small

centers of maximum effectiveness like waves, becoming less effective than dissipating at maximum time and distance from the center. Languages are to be regarded as impermanent sets of speech habits that result from and prevail in the intersections of the circles.

Topic- 245: Language Change

Language change is variation over time in a language's phonological, morphological, semantic, syntactic, and other features. It is studied by historical linguistics and evolutionary linguistics. Influences from the outside, such as the borrowed words from Norman French or Old Norse, are examples of external change in the language. Following are a number of changes from Middle to Modern English:

- [h] hlud loud
- Hlaford lord

Some word lost sound but kept the spelling in the 'silent letters' like [k], [g]. e.g., knee, gnaw
The sound change known as metathesis involves a reversal in position of two sounds in a word acsian → ask.

- frist → first
- brinnan → beornan (burn)
- bridd → bird
- hros → horse
- wæps → wasp

Following are syntactic change:

Old English
Subject-verb-Object
But, there were other different orders too that are not seen any more now.
Verb – subject as in 'ferde he'(he traveled)
Object could be placed before the verb 'he hine geseah'. He saw him.

There are also semantic changes. Modern English differs in the number of borrowed words that have come to language since Old English. Many words have ceased to be used like the following:

- Foin 'the thrust of sword'
- Were for man is only werefolf

There is also a broadening effect also.

- Holy day as a religious feast is now holyday for any day(s) off.

Similarly the narrowing of the meaning is also found.

- Hound for any kind of dog
- Wife any woman is only for married women now.

Lesson-43

COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS

Topic- 246: What is Computational Linguistics?

There has been a dream of human science fiction in recent years that computer could use language like humans. At present scientists have developed programs that can understand and learn aspects of human language both written and spoken. Varying degrees of translating between languages is possible. Computational linguistics seeks to develop the computational machinery needed for an agent to exhibit various forms of linguistic behaviour. Agent means human being and artificial agents such as computer program. Machinery mean computer programs as well as linguistics knowledge that they contain. Computers have no intelligence. Their linguistic capabilities derive from programs that are written for them. Computational understanding of language also provides insight into thinking and intelligence.

The connection between these two fields is hardly accidental. Language involves complex symbols system and computers are very fast mechanical symbol-processor. Computational linguistics draws upon the involvement of linguists, computer scientists, and experts in artificial intelligence, mathematicians, logicians, philosophers, cognitive scientists, cognitive psychologists, psycholinguists, anthropologists and neuroscientists, among others. 'Human knowledge is expressed in language. So, computational linguistics is very important.' (Mark Steedman)

Topic- 247: Processes and Methods of CL

The methods employed in theoretical and practical research in computational linguistics have often drawn upon theories and findings in theoretical linguistics, philosophical logic, cognitive science and of course computer science. Early work from the mid-1950s to around 1970 was theory-neutral. The primary concern has been the development of practical techniques for such applications as MT and simple QA.

In MT, central issues were:

- lexical structure and content,
- The characterization of 'sublanguages' for particular domains (for example, weather reports),
- Transduction from one language to another.

In QA, the concern was:

- Characterizing the question patterns encountered in a specific domain,
- The relationship of these question patterns to the forms in which answers might be stored.

By the mid-1960s with the increasing power and availability of general-purpose computers, the dream of human-level artificial intelligence began to be fulfilled. Since the 1970s, the scientists have had the aim of encoding the bulk of linguistic and world knowledge in more understandable, modular, re-usable forms, with firmer theoretical foundations. With the emergence of comprehensive syntactico-semantic frameworks such as Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar attention was given to the

computational tractability of parsing, and the mapping from syntax to semantics. Language is a mirror of mind, a computational understanding of language also provides insight into thinking and intelligence.

Topic- 248: Morphological Processing

Computational morphology deals with the processing of words and word forms, in both their graphemic, i.e., written form, and their phonemic, i.e., spoken form. The task of an automatic morphological analyzer is to take a word in a language and break it down into its stem form along with any affixes that it may have attached to that stem. In processing a sentence such as:

Hussain reads well,

The analysis should be:

- Hussain as a proper name
- reads as the third person singular present form of the verb read (read+s)
- well as either an adverb or a singular noun

The morphological analyzer will not be able to identify the syntactic roles of words. The role is the subsequent task of a syntactic parsing program.

Tokenization

Usually, the first step in morphological analysis is to identify separate words. This can be fairly simple in languages like English, where words are delimited by space and punctuation characters, and where sentence start with capital letters. But even in English ambiguous punctuation can cause tokenization problems: periods may be part of an abbreviation UK. However it is very challenging in synthetic languages.

Morphological analysis and synthesis

- incompatibilities
- in+con+patible+ity+s
- incompatibility+ Noun Plural

Use of a Simple Stemming Algorithm

A simple stemming algorithm is used which strips off suffixes to arrive at the stem form. The most basic task in computational morphology is to take a string of characters or phonemes as input and deliver an analysis as output.

Topic- 249: Syntactic Processing

How can a computer characterise the grammatical structure of a sentence? A syntactic parser tries to find the best grammatical analysis of a sentence. However, there are ambiguous sentence with more than one possible grammatical structure like the following:

I can fish.

Context-free grammars	
• S → NP VP	• V → can
• VP → Aux V	• V → fish
• VP → V NP	• V → dance
• VP → V	• Aux → can
• VP → Aux V NP	• D → the
• NP → D N	• N → fish
• NP → N	• N → dance
• NP → Pronoun	• Pronoun → I

For this purpose we use 'Toy grammar'. This toy grammar recognizes:

- Four different kinds of VPs: (Aux V, V NP, V, and Aux V NP)
- Three kinds of NPs (D N, N, and Pronoun)
- Terminals categories and non-terminals categories

Our toy grammar covers only three different verbs, one auxiliary verb, one determiner, two nouns, and one pronoun, but even so it can describe quite a variety of sentences. Grammars written in this format are called context-free grammars.

Parsing

There is another question. How can we get a computer to analyze the syntactic structure of a sentence like the following?

- I can fish.

A parser takes an input sentence and produces one syntactic representations of it. But more than one representation if there is syntactic ambiguity as in: I can fish. One way to represent the hierarchical syntactic structure of a sentence is called a parse tree. There are several types of parsers. A top-down parser, as you might expect, builds the parse trees from the top to down.

Topic- 250: Semantic Processing

How can a computer understand the meaning of an utterance?
The parse tree, a given part-of-speech may have more than one meaning.
Spot

- We found a nice spot for lunch.
- Out, out, damned spot.

- Would you like a spot of tea? (British English)

Word-sense Disambiguator: It uses the context of neighboring words in the sentence as well as other words in the document to figure out which meaning of a given word is most likely. It uses rules that depend on context, and these rules can be derived by human intuition or by training a machine learning program. A word's syntactic and semantic properties are represented in the computer's digital lexicon. A word's syntactic and semantic properties are represented in the computer's digital lexicon.

Cook (v)
A verb's meaning includes:

- Syntactic sub-categorization (the syntactic elements, or "arguments," it combines with)
- Thematic roles (the semantic relations between a verb and its arguments).
  a. COOK (Theme NP)
- Husain cooked meatloaf
  b. COOK (Recipient NP, Theme NP)
- Husain cooked Mary a great dinner
  c. COOK (Theme NP, Recipient for-PP)
- Husain cooked a great dinner for Mary,

Computational semantics is largely concerned with representing these kinds of semantic functions, the rules for assembling the semantics of larger phrases from smaller ones.

Topic- 251: Application of CL

The impact of computational linguistics on society depends on the applications it makes possible. Computers have for many years been using more computational linguistics tools in applications such as:

- multilingual word processing,
- spelling correction,
- grammar checking.

The increase in speed and storing vast amounts of information online have resulted in an exponential increase in the amount of information available to computers, with a lot of it being in natural languages.

Since computers can search through documents in different languages and find information much faster than humans can, Search engines that troll through web pages have become extremely useful. With the wide use of email and cellular phones, speech enabled applications have started to become a presence in flight information and hotel reservation systems. It does the following tasks as well:

- Information extraction
- Speech recognition
- Speech synthesis
- Machine translation

These and other technologies provide opportunities to embed and apply computational linguistic methods.

Lesson-44

LEXICOGRAPHY

Topic- 252: The Dictionary: Definition and History

There are many types of dictionaries and in up-to-date definition all types are not included.

A Prototypical Dictionary

The prototypical dictionary has the form of a static (book) or dynamic product (e-dictionary) with an inter-structure that establishes links between the various components (e-dictionary) and is usually alphabetically structured. A dictionary provides many useful things.

- A reference book
- Record of lexicon of language
- Quick to find information
- Serves as a guardian of purity of that language provides information on
- Spelling, form, meaning, usages of words and fixed collocation

A broad distinction is made between general and specialized dictionaries. Specialized dictionaries include words in specialist fields, rather than a complete range of words in the language.

Who invented the dictionary? Which dictionary came first? Was the first dictionary bilingual or monolingual? The oldest dictionary dates back to 2600 BC. The Akkadian or Babylonian wrote on clay tablet to make Sumerian language accessible. In medieval Europe, glossaries with equivalents for Latin words in vernacular or simpler Latin were in use (e.g., the Leiden Glossary).The first edition of A Greek-English Lexicon by Henry George Liddell and Robert Scott appeared in 1843.The earliest dictionaries in the English language were glossaries of French, Spanish or Latin words along with their definitions in English. The word ‘dictionary’ was invented by an Englishman called John of Garland in 1220.The first purely English alphabetical dictionary was A Table Alphabetically, written by an English schoolteacher Robert Cawdrey in 1604. It was not until Samuel Johnson's A Dictionary of the English Language (1755) that a more reliable English dictionary was produced. Many useful dictionaries are available now.

Topic- 253: Source Materials for Dictionaries

The vocabulary of English contains words from more sources than any other language as a consequence of its history and contacts with any other language. The substratum of English is Anglo-Saxon. Overlaid on this stratum is a Stratum of Latinate vocabulary. The invading Germanic tribes, the Angles, Saxon and Jutes also contributed to its richness. English has imported words from countless languages around the world. Two basic methods by which a language may increase its vocabulary:

- Use of material available
- Import world from another language

All new words are added to the word class: nouns, verbs, adjectives, with the majority being nouns. Other ways of forming words:

Compounding: Seatbelt, bookshop
Derivatives: Careful, shipment
Acronyms: ATM, UNESCO
Loanwords: Spaghetti (Italian), tycoon (Japanese)

The data from which lexicographers draw their information have to be chosen to suit the type of dictionary they are planning. The sources of lexicographers are:

Primary: archives, corpus
Secondary: fieldwork, other dictionaries, encyclopedia, www etc.

Topic- 254: Uses and Users of Dictionaries

Since 1960 lexicologists and lexicographers have become more and more convinced that dictionaries have to be designed for special user groups in response to specific needs. A dictionary is not a resource containing all sort of interesting facts of data about a language.it should be a tool for the solution of problem that people may have when using a language. Throughout research was done to have information about user+ uses of dictionaries on the bass of self-evaluation. Subject were given questionnaire how often they use the dictionary, what they look up, for what purpose they open dictionary and how satisfied they were with the result.

- Dictionaries are most used for reading tasks.
- Mostly in order to find out about meaning of unknown words.
- Less for writing tools especially for checking of spellings.
- Grammatical, etymological or phonetic information is only rarely looked up.
- In case of foreign languages, bilingual dictionaries are used more frequently.

Varantola (2002:33) divides dictionary users into three broad categories: language learners, non-professional users, and professional users; the last being those who ‘normally use a dictionary to perform a task that they get paid for.

Other user variables that affect behaviour are; age, mother tongue, second or foreign language, language proficiency level, educational level, skill level in dictionary use etc. Much research has been done over the last twenty years. Nevertheless uses and users of dictionaries remain for the moment relatively unknown.

Topic- 255: Corpora for Lexicography

A dictionary describes the vocabulary of a language or a coherent subset of a language. For each language and subset a set of texts can be assembled which provides evidence of the choices and combinations of choices that are made by users of the language. Such a set of text is called corpus almost

always in electronic form nowadays. The adequacy of the corpus depends on its size, its diversity and skill of those who assemble it. A corpus is close to the centre of dictionary project. The lexicographer should formulate a policy concerning the way in which the corpus will be used.

Topic- 256: Developments in Electronic Dictionary Design

An electronic dictionary is a dictionary whose data exists in digital form and can be accessed through a number of different media. Electronic dictionaries can be found in several forms, including:

- as dedicated handheld devices
- as apps on smartphones and tablet computers or computer software
- as a function built into an E-reader

As CD-ROMs and DVD-ROMs, they are typically packaged with a printed dictionary to be installed on the user's own computer. As free or paid-for online products most of the early electronic dictionaries were print dictionaries made available in digital form. The content was identical. But the electronic editions provided users with more powerful search functions. But soon the opportunities offered by digital media began to be exploited.

Electronic dictionary databases, especially those included with software dictionaries are often extensive and can contain up to 500,000 headwords and definitions, verb conjugation tables, and a grammar reference section. Bilingual electronic dictionaries and monolingual dictionaries of inflected languages often include an interactive verb conjugator, and are capable of word stemming and lemmatization. Electronic dictionaries are also available in logographic and right-to-left scripts, including Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Devanagari, Greek, Hebrew, Japanese, Korean, and Thai. Several developers of the systems that drive electronic dictionary software offer API and SDK – Software Development Kit tools for adding various language-based functions to programs, and web services such as the AJAX API used by Google.

Topic- 257: Linguistic Corpora and the Compilation of Dictionaries

The drastic improvement in the field or computer technology has made a lasting impact on the diversified growth and expansion of a corpus and made it an indispensable resource for work of linguistics and language technology. The computer has provided corpus designers a massive storage facility and impressive test processing power, which they can access quite easily for their work. Some major English dictionaries were compiled from corpora in electronic form. People realized that corpus based electronic dictionaries are far more exhaustive, authentic and reliable. The printed dictionaries are compiled manually with lexical databases obtained from secondary sources.

The electronic dictionaries contained information about the meaning, the usage of headwords long with elaborate information of their lexical information, contextual usage and polysemous connotations directly obtained from corpora. Besides, they contained etymological, phonological and morphological information normally found in standard printed dictionaries.

Language corpora are utilized to develop multilingual monological, bilingual dictionaries (in both printed and electronic versions) machine readable dictionaries and multilingual lexical resource. In some attempts introspective analysis of corpora established the fact that most of the hard words are never used as part of actual vocabulary of people although they occupy important place in dictionaries.

This led scholars to argue for their removal because people never used them in normal linguistic expression and interaction. Reference to the history of corpus-based studies in lexicology has an explicit significance. It implies that both historical and diachronic corpora are available for excessive use in lexicology for making a significant contribution to historical semantic and lexicology.

© Virtual University of Pakistan

Lesson-45

LATEST TRENDS OF RESEARCH IN LINGUISTICS

Topic- 258: What is Linguistic Research or Research in Linguistics?

Linguistics is an important field of study which was introduced as a regular discipline in the universities of Europe as later as 1960s (Crystal, 1985).With the turn of the present century, this branch of knowledge further developed and many specializations were offered in various branches of linguistics in the well-known universities of the world (ibid). Research is one of the most important jobs of universities in the modern world. Universities keep on encouraging their students to conduct research studies in the neglected areas of various disciplines. It is a need of time to study the work of universities to evaluate their performance and for determining the existing research trends in various disciplines.

There is no solid research to determine research trends in Linguistics in Pakistan. It may be a very important study to find out research trends in linguistics in Pakistan. A key strand of linguistic research evolved from the writings of Noam Chomsky (1965), who argued that the goal of linguistics should be to study underlying linguistic competence': the rules that inform the production of grammatical sentences.

For Chomsky, the focus of study was the abstract system: the underlying structure of language. Actual utterances were regarded as disorderly, chaotic and of no value in offering an understanding of language as a system. A significant challenge to Chomsky's theories was made by the applied linguist, Hymes(1972) who offered the term communicative competence in deliberate contrast to linguistic competence'. As Hymes observes, a person who has only linguistic competence would be quite unable to communicate – a social monster 'producing grammatical sentences disconnected from the context in which they occurred. Later on, however, a compromising attitude emerged in the world of linguistics and the latest research trends show an interdisciplinary approach towards socio- and psycholinguistics. The study and analysis of discourse is also one of the emerging areas of linguistics in the current era.

Topic- 259: Research Trends in Applied Linguistics

In the past quarter of the century, research in the field of SLA has grown enormously with the quantity of published research increasing annually. It is striking, however, that the main thrust of research has been towards establishing how language learners are similar and how processes of language learning are universal. That is, traditionally, the majority of the research in SLA and applied linguistics looked for phenomenon that would presumably affect all the individual language learners. In studies concerned with SLA, researchers have tried to identify universal sequences in development or common processes, such as transfer, cross-linguistic interference, and so forth that would affect everyone in the same way.

In the field of psychology two contrasting approaches to the study of human functioning have long been recognized – the experimental and the differential approaches. The former focuses on identifying structures and processes common to everyone – similarities between individuals. In contrast, the latter approach emphasizes differences between people, seeking to identify the most relevant major

ways that people vary. In the field of applied linguistics, with the researcher's awareness of the potential impact of learners' differences on L2 learning, an era of research with focus on the L2 learners' variables was marked in the 1970s. Concern about the learner variables resulted in an increasing number of studies that accounted for the learner's differences from different perspectives in ESL/EFL contexts. Learners' differences can generally be divided into three categories: personality, cognitive, and affective. A basic question concerned has been why all individuals with normal faculties successfully acquire their first language but meet with different degrees of success when they attempt to master a second language. The answer to this fundamental question, as the literature shows, concerns the individual L2 learner and lies in his/her personality, cognitive, and affective construct.

Neurolinguistics is the study of the neural mechanisms in the human brain that control the comprehension, production, and acquisition of language. As an interdisciplinary field, neurolinguistics draws methodology and theory from fields such as neuroscience, linguistics, cognitive science, neurobiology, communication disorders, neuropsychology, and computer science.

Forensic linguistics is the application of linguistic knowledge, methods and insights to the forensic context of law, language, crime investigation, trial, and judicial procedure. It is a branch of applied linguistics. According to Rastegar (2006), the research work using simple linear model of correlation was more in quantity while that using complex casual modelling, although less in quantity, was promising and of qualitatively high calibre and importance. The researcher concludes that casual modelling-pathway analysis is an effective tool of data analysis in the field of applied linguistics.

Topic- 260: Current Trends in Linguistic Research Methodology

Lazarton (2000) studied trends in research methodology and use of statistics for data analysis in Applied Linguistics. She attempted to find out if the current research trends in empirical studies published in journals of Applied Linguistics matched with the research models recently discussed in the same field.

Thus, the aim of this research was to know how latest models of data analysis were adopted by researchers in the field of Applied Linguistics. For the purpose, the researcher analyzed and classified 332 articles published in four well-known journals of Applied Linguistics during the period 1991-1997.

The articles were classified into qualitative and quantitative etc. categories, sub-classified into various categories on the basis of research methodology, data analysis techniques and research models used in the articles. The classification was based on the claim of researchers without further evaluation. For example, if a researcher claimed that s/he had used regressive analysis method in the study, the article was included in the subclass of regressive analysis without evaluating whether the regressive analysis technique as claimed by the researcher was used properly or not. According to the findings, almost 88% of research articles in the selected journals were quantitative studies. Statistical research methods were used in the quantitative research.

On the other hand, a limited number of qualitative studies published in the four research journals understudy had followed ethnography and oral and written analysis models. In the quantitative research which used statistics for analysis, techniques of descriptive statistics were used in most articles published in the selected journals. According to the author (Lazarton, 2000), almost 50% of the authors applied

ANOVA for data analysis in the research studies of quantitative nature. The remaining half used other statistical methods like Pearson Correlation, t-test, regressive analysis, chi-square test, MANOVA etc. in their research papers. The researcher thinks it 'troubling' that use of ANOVA is so common in empirical research in Applied Linguistics because, according to the author, it is not an easier test (ibid). Finally, she recommends future researchers to combine both qualitative and quantitative research.

Topic- 261: Research Trends in Linguistics in China

Young, Lichun and Jun (2001) analyzed contents of four Chinese journals of Applied Linguistics and equal number of journals of the West for comparative study of research trends in Applied Linguistics. The aim of the study was to compare research trends in linguistics in China with those of the West. The focus of this study was research methods used in applied linguistic studies published in the journals of both groups. The top research journals from both groups were selected. Articles published in the selected journals were analyzed with focus on research methodology used in the studies published during last two decades. The data were categorized into classes like qualitative, quantitative, classroom interaction analysis and non-empirical studies, etc. The findings were presented in two (decade-wise) pools.

According to the findings, utter dominance with gradual decrease of non-empirical studies marked main trends in the field of Applied Linguistics in China. Besides, quantitative research method was adopted more than qualitative research methods. On the other hand, in the West, qualitative and empirical research was more liked than non-empirical quantitative research, while 'personal experiences and reviews were virtually absent' (Young et. al, 2001, p.7). Argument-based opinions, although existed in the West, were not confused with research articles. A wider gap between qualitative and quantitative research which existed in China had been bridged up by the West. Ethnography as a method of research was the latest phenomenon of the 80s decade. The analysis of data was always statistical and scientific. Nature and relation between research and language, SLA, (in) dependence of practice on theory and Chomskyan influence on linguistic theories were topics which emerged as prominent theoretical issues in the research scenario of the West during the period under study. The favourite topics of study for Chinese researchers included language policy, language teaching, correlation between national ideology and language teaching, translation studies, significance of research in China and theories of language. One of the significant findings of this research is that there was an utter difference between research trends in the first and second decade of the study period in China in the field of applied linguistics.

The lack of inferential statistics in applied linguistic research and that of experimental designs was found to be a vital deficiency in research work of first decade of the study period. But the next decade saw a significant change in the approach of Chinese researchers towards research methodology. The areas which were neglected in the previous decade became foci of attention in the next decade. The neglected areas of research and major lacunae in research methodology were pointed out in the first decade of the study period. As a result, an utter change in the attitude of researchers was noted in the next decade regarding the use of research methods. The study shows vigilant nature of the Chinese towards research. Constant improvement in the field of research speaks of the dynamic process of evolution in research in China. One of the important developments noted by the researchers was that subjective research was replaced by objective research and the number of studies based on only 'personal experiences and views' decreased. Memory based research reports were replaced by empirical studies.

Topic- 262: Research Trends in Linguistics in Japan

Izui (1962) studied research trends in Japanese linguistics. The article is divided into four parts. The first part is about vowels of Japanese, the second about research studies on the origin of Japanese language, the third on various research studies in Japan and the last part is about the dominant theories and research methodology in Japanese linguistics.

In the first part, the researcher gives history, origin and development of the vocalic system of Japanese. The writer enumerates efforts of Japanese researchers during past centuries to study and analyze nature of vowels of Japanese language. It is pointed out that most of the efforts of researches to understand the nature of Japanese vowels were focused on ancient Japanese and Chinese scripts and distribution of occurrence of vowels with other phonemes.

In the second part of the article, the researcher describes efforts of Japanese researchers and the problems faced by them in the way to determine origin of their language. In this section, the writer summarizes efforts of various researchers to find out the origin of Japanese language in different (families of) languages like Altaic, Ural, Austronesian or Korean etc.

The third part of the article is about study of languages of the East and West. In this section, the researcher summarizes very briefly efforts of Japanese linguists and researchers for decipherment of the ancient script and its comparison with the existing scripts. The writer particularly describes efforts of the researchers to explain the script and grammar of Sihia. Among other important works published in Japan are those about various languages and dialects of the world. Of special importance, in the opinion of the writer, are studies on the origin and grammar of languages which may help to understand the origin of Japanese language. The researcher particularly points out the rarity of studies on Australian, American and African languages and strongly recommends the Japanese researchers to pay special attention to these languages 'to achieve broader base' in Japanese linguistics (Izui, 1962, p. 54).The last part of this survey is about the theories and methodologies used in research in the field of linguistics in Japan.

The writer finds no significant difference in linguistic theories and research methods prevalent in Japan and the world. Most of the research in Japan is, in the opinion of the writer, under influence of Saussure's thought. In the field of research methodology, significant achievement in Japanese linguistics is the activities of the Mathematical Society of Linguistics in Japan which works for 'mathematical management of linguistic facts' (ibid, p.54). Another prevalent theory in Japanese linguistics is modern stylistics.

Topic- 263: Trends of Linguistics in India

Jha (2003) studied current trends in linguistics in India. The study surveys progress in the field of information technology developed for linguistic purposes. It also gives passing remarks on the current status of languages and attitude of speakers in Indian society and politics. Depicting the linguistic scenario of India, Jha (2003) describes, that there are over a thousand languages with well-defined grammars, of five language families namely, Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic, Tibeto-Burman, and Andamanese.

According to the claim of the writer, considerable development in the field of information technology enabled India to use IT for linguistic purposes by 'preserving data of the dying languages. Different public and private organizations, Universities and IT institutes are constantly working for finding ways to use IT in linguistics. According to the researcher (ibid), Indian organizations are working for creation and analysis of corpora, integration of language technology into curricula, development of speech databases, speech engines, machine translation, speech to speech translation and many other internet related programmes. The researcher concludes with a comment on the issue of funding in research. The researcher claim that the funding provided by the government of India is enough for development of various research projects for integration of IT and linguistics; however, the writer feels that the funding provided by private sector organizations to the researchers is not enough.

Topic- 264: Recent Progress in Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary subject and has wide development prospect. It occupies an irreplaceable important position in contemporary linguistic researches to a large extent and owns great practicability value. So, applied linguistics study has developed to the stage of cognitive theory and social constructivist theory. Cognitive theory school plays an important promotion role for development of applied linguistics. It advocates learners' learning subjectivity and creativity and considers language study is an active activity process. But, cognitive theory neglects researched on nonintellectual factors. Social constructivist theory makes up for this shortcoming. It stresses equal importance of social environment and cultural knowledge and holds knowledge acquisition is the result of learners' contact and interactions in specific social environment. It has great enlightenment on linguistics teaching practice and theoretical teaching and provides a new opportunity for applied linguistics development.

The development process of applied linguistics is human socialization process. Because social constructivist theory regards language as an important constituent part of social semantic system, language learners are important members in whole social group. Besides, it will make research fields of applied linguistics become wide, continuously update foreign language teaching idea and teaching mode and make foreign language teacher face larger teaching pressure.