Basic Introduction of Linguistic Study

Jaftiyatur Rohaniyah | Rini Listyowati | Linta Wafdan Hidayah

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(COURSE BOOK)

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Preface

This handbook of **Basic Introduction of Linguistic Study** began from small idea and target to make linguistic study develope more. It started from collecting handouts, reading and exercise and also making summary from Gearge Yule Theory. This recent handbook has been expanded enough to be used as the main text of the course. The book, as it stands now, probably contains more material than could be covered in quarter or even in one semester, and so provides flexibility in course design.

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I give my gratitude for the Dean and all of lectures of English Education Department of Universitas Islam Madura for the pure support given every time to time in finishing this handbook.

Acknowledgement

All praises due to Allah, the Most Gracious and the Mon Merciful because of His wonderful blessing and His mercy, the Authors can finish this book sucessfully. The incredible blessings make realize that nothing is difficult. Shalawat and Salam always be given to our beloved Prophet Muhammad SAW who had graded us from the darkness to the lightness.

However, this success would not be achieved without the support guidance, Therefore the Authors would like to express the deepest gratitude to all students of English Teaching Department who has given the inpiration in writing this book.

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CHAPTER 1

THE STUDY OF LANGUGE 4TH EDITION (THE ORIGINS OF LANGUAGE)

"The Suspicion does not appear improbable that the progenitors of man, either the males or females, or both sexes, before they had acuired the power of expressing their mutual love in

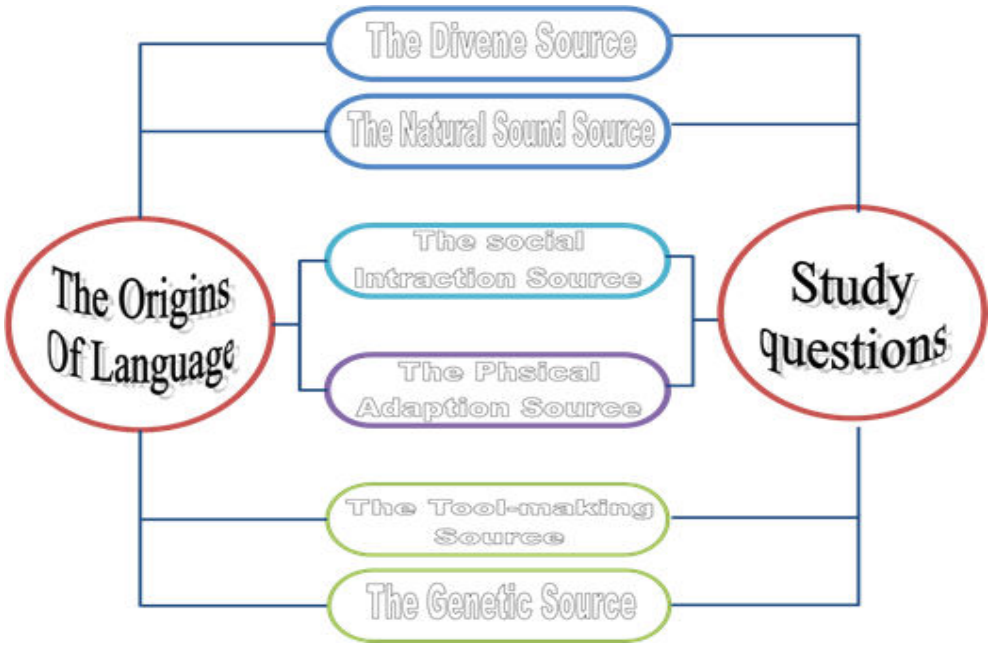
articulate language, endeavoured to charm each other with musical notes and rhythm."

~Darwin (18721)~

According to Charles Darwin's vision About the origins of language, humans had already developed musical ability prior to language and were using it "to charm each other. Actually we don't know how language originated. We also do know that the ability to produce simple vowel sounds and patterns (for example like a hum versus a grunt) seem to be in the ancient part of the brain that we share with all vertebrates, including fish, frogs birds and another mammals. However, as we Known, that is not human language.

We need to know that some type of spoken language have developed between 100,000 and 50,000 years ago, well before written language (about 5,000 years ago). we never find any direct evidence or artifacts relating to the speeches of our distant ancestors that might tell us how the origins of langguage was back in the early stages.

So here we go, the writer will provide little material exposure about the origins of language with the following arrangement:



THE DIVINE SOURCE

In the biblical tradition described in Genesis, God created Adam and "whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof". Alternatively, according to Hindu tradition, the language came from Saraswati, far from Brahma, the creator of the universe.

Several experiments have been conducted in an attempt to rediscover this original Divine language, with rather contradictory results. The basic hypothesis seems to have been that if human infants were able to grow up without hearing the language around them, they would naturally begin to use the original language given to them by God.

The Greek writer Herodotus told the story of an Egyptian pharaoh named Psametikos (or Psamtik) who attempted experiments with two newborn babies over 2,500 years ago. After two years of isolation, the children, with the exception of goats and a mute shepherd companion, spontaneously speak something identified as bekes, the Phrygian word for ‘‘bread,‘‘ rather than Egyptian. Pharaoh concluded that Phrygian, an older language spoken in parts of present-day Turkey, must be the original language.

King James IV of Scotlandia conducted a similar experiment around 1500 and was reported to have children spontaneously begin speaking Hebrew, confirming the king's belief that Hebrew was indeed the language of the Garden of Eden. Unfortunately, all other cases of children found living in isolation without contact with human language confirm the results of this kind of experimentation with sacred sources. No. Very young children who live without exposure to human language in infancy grow up without any 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)

The Natural Sound And Source

The basic idea is that primitive language may have mimicked the natural sounds early men and women heard around them. When an object flew and made a CAW-CAW sound, early humans tried to imitate that sound and used it to refer to anything related to the sound. And when another flying creature made a cooing sound, it adopted its natural sound to indicate these kinds of objects. The fact that all modern languages have some words with pronunciations that mirror naturally occurring sounds can be used to support this theory. In fact, such a view has been called the "doggie theory" of linguistic origin. It's true that many words in all languages are onomatopoeic, but how most of the soundless things and abstract concepts in our world can be referred to in languages that simply reflect their natural sounds It is difficult to imagine.

It has also been suggested that the original sounds of this language may have come from natural cries of emotions such as pain, anger, and joy. It will probably hurt after this!

Got that painful connotation. But *ohhh!* and other interjections such as *aah!, Ckkk!, Aishh!*, Or *Yuck!* is usually produced by sudden inhalation as opposed to normal speech. We normally speak when we exhale. Basically the expressive sounds that humans make in their emotional reactions include sounds that are not otherwise used to generate speech and are therefore unlikely to be source sounds for speech. increase.

The Social Interaction Source

Another idea for nature sounds is called the "yo-he-ho" theory. The idea is that the sounds emitted by a physically active person can become the source of our speech, especially when that physical activity affects multiple people and interactions need to be coordinated. Thus, early human groups made a series of grunts, groans, groans, and curses that they used when lifting and carrying large pieces of wood or lifeless, hairy mammoths. was able to develop.

The application of this idea is to place the development of human language in a social context. Early humans must have lived in groups, but only because larger groups offered better protection from attack.Human sounds, however produced, must have had major uses in the lives and social interactions of early human groups. This is a key idea related to the use of human-generated sounds. But it doesn't answer our question about the origin of the sound produced.

The Physical Adaptation

We can start by observing that our ancestors, in the early stages, made a very significant transition to bipedal locomotion (two legs) and an upright posture with a change in the role of

the front limbs The effects of this kind of change can be seen in the physical differences between gorilla and Neanderthal skulls that are about 60,000 years old. Reconstructed Neanderthal vocal tracts suggest that consonant-like phonetic distinctions may have been possible. In studies of evolutionary development, there are certain physical traits that are best thought of as partial adaptations that may be related to language.

The Capacity for Speech

Theeth	Human **teeth** are erect, do not slope outward like great ape teeth, and are about the same height. Such properties seem less useful for tearing and ripping food, and more suitable for grinding and chewing.It is also very useful for producing sounds such as *f* or *V*.
Lips	Human **lips** have a much greater muscular complexity than other primates, and their flexibility allows them to make sounds like *P* and *B*.
Mouth	The human **mouth** is relatively small compared to other primates, with a smaller, thicker, more muscular tongue that can be opened and closed quickly and can be used to shape a variety of sounds within the oral cavity. Additionally, unlike other primates, humans are able to close off their airways from their noses to create more air pressure in their mouths.
Larynx	The human **larynx,** or "voice box" (which includes the vocal cords or cords), is very different in location from the larynx of other primates, such as monkeys.
Pharynx	This creates a longer cavity called the **pharynx** above the vocal cords that acts as a resonator to increase the range and clarity of sounds produced by the larynx and vocal tract. An unfortunate consequence of this development is that the low position of the human larynx makes it easier for humans to choke on food scraps.

In evolutionary terms, there must have been a big advantage in getting this extra vocal power (ie, a larger range of sound distinctions) to outweigh the potential disadvantage from an increased risk of choking to death.

The Tool-Making Source

From a physical adaptation point of view, existing anatomical features (teeth, lips) that were previously used for other purposes (chewing, sucking) must be superimposed with function (producing speech). there is. A similar evolution is thought to have taken place with the human hand, and some believe that hand gestures may have been a predecessor to language. There is evidence that they were able to make stone tools. The results of making tools and manipulating things with both hands are proof that the brain is working.

The human brain is not only large compared to the size of the human body, but also divided into left and right sides. In other words, each of the two hemispheres has a special function.

The functions that control the motor movements involved in complex vocalizations (speech) and manipulation (making and using tools) are very closely related in the left hemisphere. There is an evolutionary link between human language and tool-using skills, and both may have been involved in the development of the speaking brain. Most of the other speculative suggestions for the origin of language seem to be based on images of humans making distinct sounds to indicate

objects in their environment. So all of languages, including sign language, require the organiz ing and combining of sounds or signs in specific arrangements.

In terms of linguistic structure, humans may have first developed naming abilities by producing specific consistent sounds (eg, bEEr) for specific objects. An important additional step was to combine another specific sound (e.g. good) with the first sound to build a complex message (better). After thousands of years of evolution, humans have refined this messaging to be able to watch a football game on Saturday, have a nutritious drink, and announce that beer tastes good. As far as we know, other primates are not doing this.

The Genetic Source

As a living example of these physical changes, we can think of early human babies. A baby's brain at birth is one-fourth of her later size, and the larynx sits much higher in the throat, allowing the baby to breathe and drink water at the same time, like a chimpanzee. in a relatively short time. The larynx descends, the brain develops, the child is in an upright position, begins to walk and speak.

This near-automatic sequence of development and the complexity of language in young children has led some scholars to look for something more powerful than the small physical adaptations of species over time as the source of language. Even children who are born deaf (incapable of speaking) can become fluent in sign language.

This seems to indicate that human descendants were born with the special ability to speak. It's innate, it doesn't seem to be found in other organisms, and it's not tied to any particular type of language.

This innate hypothesis, which unlocks the origin of language, seems to point to something in human genetics, perhaps a crucial mutation, as its origin. This is not a gradual change, but rather a rapid one. Our speculation about the origin of language, apart from fossil evidence and the physical sources of basic human sounds, is based on how computers work (e.g. pre-programmed or hard-wired).

It can be seen that the inherited concept shifts from research. of genetics. Research into the origin of language involves searching for special "language genes" that only humans have.

STUDY QUESTION

1) Why is it difficult to agree with psammetichus that phrygian must have been the original human language?

It difficult to agree with psammetichus that phrygian must have been the original human language is because it is highly likely that children could hear what the goat was saying and be able to understand it.

2) What is the basic ideabehindthe “bow-wow theory of language origin ?

That is the first human to imitate animal sounds to indicate specific animals.

3) Where is the pharynx? And how did it become an important part of humanspeech sound?

The pharynx is above the larynx (or larynx or vocal cords). when the larynx moved downward, it elongated and acted as a resonator, improving the range and clarity of sounds emanating from the larynx.

CHAPTER 2

ANIMALS AND HUMAN LANGUAGE

There are many phenomenon about creatures that we can talk. We usually assume that they are fantacy or fiction or that they involve birds or animals simply imitating something they have heard human say (as Terrence Deacon discovered was the case with the loud seal in Boston Aquarium). So, 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 creatures? To answer this question, we have to know special properties of human language, and we can review the number of experiments in communication involving humans and animals.

COMMUNICATION

If we talk about communication, first we should distinguish between specifically communicative signals and those which may be unintentionally informative signals. Because someone listening to you may become informed about you through a number of signals that you have not intentionally sent. For example, when you have a cold (you sneezed), you are disorganized (non-matching socks), you aren't at ease (you shifted around in your seat) and when you are from somewhere else (you have a strange accent). However when you language to this person, you normally considered to be intentionally communicating something.

Similarly, the blackbird is not normally taken to be communicating anything by having black feathers, but it is about considered to be sending a communicative signal with the loud squawking produced when a cat appears on the scene.

PROPERTIES OF HUMAN LANGUAGE

When we focus to think the primary function of human language is communicative, it is not a distinguishing. All creatures communicative in some way. This is reflexivity. The property of reflexivity (or "reflexiveness") account for the fact that we can use language (or something that we're going to say) to think and talk about language itself, making it one of the distinguishing features of human language. We wouldn't be able to reflect on or identify any of the other distinct properties of human language. We'll look at another five of them in detail: Displacement, Arbitrariness, Productivity, Cultural Transmission and Duality.

➢ DISPLACEMENT

Animal communication, it cannot effectively be used to relate events that are far removed in time and place. Human can refer to past and future time, but animals cannot do it. This property of human language is called **displacement**. It allows language users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment. Indeed, displacement allows us to talk about time and place (e.g. Angels, Fairies, Santa Claus, Superman, Heaven, Hell) whose existence we cannot even be sure of. Animal communication is generally considered to lack this property.

➢ ARBITRARINESS

It is generally the case that there is no "natural" connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. The connection is quite **arbitrary**. We can't just look at Arabic word ب ل ك and, from it shapes, for example, determine that it has a natural and obvious meaning anymore that we can with its English translation from dog. The linguistic form has no natural or" iconic" relationship with that hairy four-legged barking object out in the world. And this aspect of the relationship between linguistic signs and objects in the world is usually described as arbitrariness.

For the majority of animals signals, there does appear to be a clear connection between the conveyed message and the signals used to convey it. This impression we have of the non-arbitrariness of animals signaling may be closely connected to the fact that, for any animal, the

set of signals used in communication is finite. Animal communication consists of a fixed and limited set of vocal or gestural forms. Many of these forms are only used in specific situations and at particular times.

- PRODUCTIVITY

Human are continually creating new expressions and novel utterances by manipulating their linguistic resources to described 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 other creature communication system is not like that, for example Cicadas have four signals to choose from and vervet monkeys have thirty -six vocal calls etc. in one experiment, a hive of bees was placed at the food of a radio tower and a food of source placed at the top. Then they flew around in all direction, but couldn't locate the food. The problem seems to be that bee communication has a fixed set of signals for communicating locations and they all relate to horizontal distance. The bee cannot create a "new" message indicating vertical distance. Karl Von Frisch, who is conducted this experiment said "the bees have no word for up in their language" and they can't invent one.

This limiting feature of animal communication is described in terms of fixed **reference**. Each signal in the system is fixed as relating to a particular object or occasion. The human, given similar circumstances, is quite capable of creating a "new" signal after initial surprise perhaps, by saying something never said before, as in *Hey! Watch out for that flying snake!*

- **CULTURAL TRANSMISSION**

We acquire a language in a culture with other speakers and not from parental genes. Like an infant born to Korea parents in Korea, but adopted and brought up from birth by English speakers in the United States, will have physical characteristics inherited from his or her natural parents, but will inevitably speak English. A kitten, given comparable early experiences, will produce *meow* regardless.

This process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next is described as **cultural transmission.** It is clear that humans are born with some kind of predisposition to acquire language in a general sense.

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.

- **DUALITY**

Human language is organized at two levels or layers simultaneously. This property is called duality (or "double articulation "). In speech production, we have a physical level at which we can produce individual sounds, like *n,b* and *i*. as individual sounds, none of these discrete forms has any intrinsic meaning. This duality of level is, in fact, one of the most economical features of human laguage because, with a limited set of discrete sounds, we are capable of producing a very large number of sound combinations (e.g. words) which are distinct in meaning.

Among other creatures, each communicative signal appears to be a single fixed form that cannot be broken down into separate parts. For example if the dog was operating with the double level (i.e. duality), then we might expect to hear different combinitions with different meanings, such as *oowf* ("I'm hungry") and *foow* ("I'm really bored"). And 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*.

TALKING TO ANIMALS

Human language has the property that make it such a unique communication system, quite different from the commmunication system of other creatures, then it would seem extremely unlikely that other creatures would be able to understand it. Apparently under the impression that the animal follows what is being said. Riders can say *whoa* to horses and they stop (or so it seems), we can say *heel* to dog and they will follow at heel (well, sometimes), and a variety of circus animals go *Up, Down* and *Roll over* in response to spoken commands. The standards explanation is that the animal produces a particular behavior in response to a particular sound-stimulus or noise, but does not actually "understand" what the words in the noise mean.

If it seems difficult to conceive of animals understanding human language, then it appears to be even less likely that an animal would be capable of producing human language. So, we do not generally observe animals of one species learning to producethe signals of another species.

CHIMPANZEES AND LANGUAG

In the 1930s, two scientists (Luella and Winthrop Kellogg) reported on their experiences of raising an infant chimpanzee together with their baby son. The chimpanzee, called Gua, was reported to be able to understand about a hundred words, but did not "say" any of them. And in 1940s, a chuimpanzee named viki was reared by another scientist couple (Catherine and Keith Hayes) in their own home, exactly as if she was a human child. In retrospect, this was a remarkable achievement since it has become clear that non-human primates do not actually have a physically structured vocal tract which is suitable for articulating the sounds used in speech.

➢ WASHOE

In spoken language learning, a chimpanzee was a poor candidate. Another scientist couple (Beatrix and Allen Gardner) set out to teach a female chimpanzee called Washoe to use a version of American Sign Language.

The gardners and their research assistants raised washoe like a human child in a comfortable domestic environment. In a period of a three and a half years, Washoe came to use signs for more than a hundred words. Washoe also demonstrated understanding of a much larger number of signs than she produced and was capable of holding rudimentary conversations, mainly in the form of qiestion-answer sequences.

➢ SARAH AND LANA

These plastic shapes represented "words" that could be arranged in sequence to build "sentences" (Sarah preferred a vertical order). Systematically sarah was trained to associate these shapes with object or actions. She remained an animal in a cage, being trained with food rewards to manipulate a set of symbols. Sarah was capable of getting an apple by selecting the correct plastic shape (a blue triangle) from a large array. Notice that this symbol is arbitrary since it would be hard to argue for any natural cnnection between an apple and a blue plastic triangle. For example, *if sarah put red on green, Marry give Sarah chocolate*. Sarah got the chocolate.

A similar training technique with another artificial language was used (by Duane Rumbaugh) to train a chimpanzee called Lana. The language she learned was called yerkish and consisted of a set of symbols on a large keyboard linked to a computer.

Both sarah and Lana demonstrated an ability to use what look like word symbols and basic structures in ways that superficially resemble the use of language. This is only one of the many arguments that have been presented againts the idea that the use of signs and symbols by these chimpanzeez is similar to the use of language.

- **THE CONTROVERSY**

Another chimpanzee called by Nim, the psychologist Herbet Terrace argued that chimpanzees simply produce signs in response to the demands of people and tend to repeat signs those people use, yet they are treated (by naïve researchers) as if they are taking part in a "conversation". Herbert's conclusion was that chimpanzees are cleaver creaturers who learn to produce a certain type of behavior (signing or symbol selection) in order to get rewards and are essentially performing sophisticated "tricks".

In response, tne Gardners argued that they were not animal trainers, nor were they inculcating and then eliciting conditioned responses from Washoe. They also emphasize a major difference between the experiences of Washoe and Nim. While Nim was kept in a windowless cell as a research animaln and had to deal with a lot of different research assistant who were often not fluent in American Sign Language, Washoe lived in a domestic environment with a lot of oppurtunity for imaginative play and interaction with fluent signers who were also using sign language with each other.

- **KANZI**

Whilen sue Savage-Rumbaugh was attempting to train a bonobo (a pygmy chimpanzees) called Matata how to use the symbols of yerkish, Matata's adopted baby, Kanzi, was always with her. Kanzi had learned not by being taught, but by being exposed to, and observing, a kind of language in use at a very early age. Kanzi eventually developed a large symbol vocabulary (over 250 forms). There was also evidence that he was using a consistently distinct set of "gentle noises" as words to refer to things such as banana, grapes, and juice.

USING LANGUAGE

Important lessons have been learned from attempts to teach chimpanzees how to use forms of language. In arriving at these answers, we have also had to face the fact that, even with our list of key properties, we still don't seem to have a non- controversial definition of what counts as "using language"

On solution might be stop thinking of language, at least in the phrase "using language" as a single thing that one care either have or not have, in a very broad sense, language does serve as a type of communication system that can be observed in variety of different situations. In another situation, we observe very similar behavior fro chimpanzees and bonobos when they are interacting with humans they know. It has to be fair to say that, in both case, we observe the participants"using language".

No other creature has been observed "using language" in this sense it is I this more fundamental or abstract sense that we say that language is uniquely human.

CHAPTER 3

MORPHOLOGY

A. Definition of Morphology

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 represented as something like *I Will Love You.*

An example of investigating basic forms in language, generally known as morphology. Since the middle of the nineteenth century has been used to describe the type of investigation that analyzes all those basic "elements" ised in a language. What we have been describing as "elements" in the form of a linguistic message are technically known as "morpheme".

B. Morphemes

A morpheme is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, for example. "word-form" may consist of a number of elements. All these elements are described as ***morphemes.*** We can recognize that word english forms such as:

Word	Elements
Talks	*Talk* and *-s* (two elements)
Talker	*Talk* and *-er* (two elements)
Talked	*Talk* and *-ed* (two elements)
Talking	*Talk* and *-ing* (two elements)

For example *The police reopened the investigation.* The word *reopened* consist of three morphemes:

Reopened: Re (meaning again)

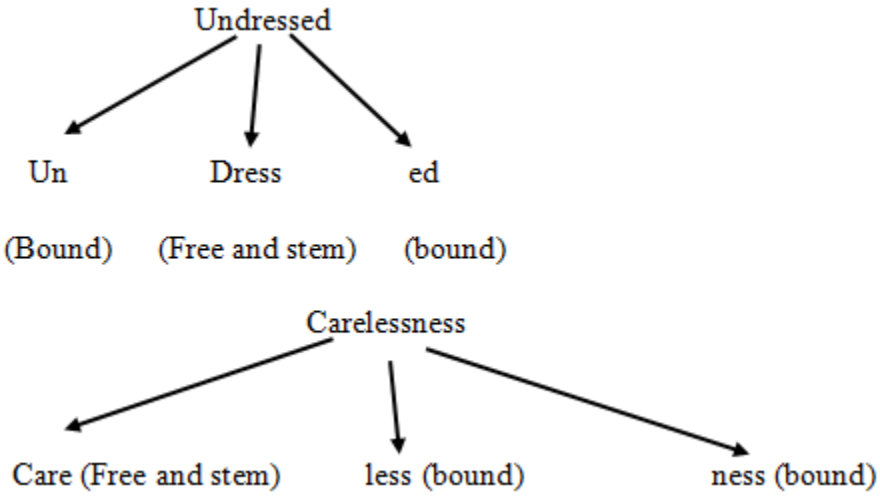
Open

-ed (indicating pas tense).

1. Free Morpheme and Bound Morpheme

Free morpheme is morphemes that can stand by themselves as single words. Bound morphemes which are those forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form. The free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate english word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, vebs, etc. When they are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are technically known as **stems.**

Example:



2. Lexical and Functional Morphemes

Free morphemes divide into two types. The first is free lexical morphemes are morphemes that carry the content or meaning of the message that we are conveying. Free lexical morphemes that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Some example are: girl, man, house, tiger, sad, long, yellow, sincere, open, etc. We can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they are treated as an "open" class of word.

Other types is free functional morphemes, this set consist of the functional word in the language such as conjuntions, prepositions, articels, and pronoun. Examples: are, and, but, because, on, that, the. Functional morphemes can be called closed class of words or grammatical morphemes because they do not carry the content or meaning of the message, it just help grammar of the sentence function.

Example in the sentence: I eat an Apple

The word "I" is free functional morpheme because that is pronoun. The word "eat" include free lexical morpheme because that is a verb. The word "An" is free functional morpheme because that is Articles. And "Apple" is free lexical morpheme because that is a noun.

3. Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes

Bound morphemes divided into two types. The first is Derivational morphemes. We use derivational morphem to make a new word of different grammatical category from the stem. For example, the addition -ness changes the adjective good to the noun goodness. A list of derivational morphemes will include suffix such as the -ish in foolish. The list also include prefix such as re-, pre-, and many more.

The second is inflectional morphemes. inflectional morphemes do not change the essential meaning or the grammatical category of a word. Inflectional morphemes are used to show if word singular or plural, past tense or not, comparative or possesive.

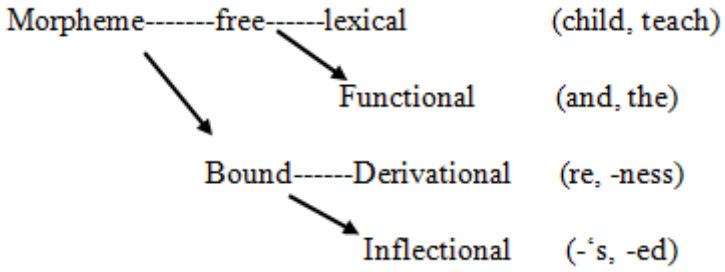
Inflectional morphemes in English include the bound morphemes -s (or -es); 's (or s'); -ed; -en; -er; -est; and -ing. These suffixes may even do double- or triple-duty. For example, - s can note possession (in conjunction with an apostrophe in the proper place), can make count nouns plural, or can put a verb in the third-person singular tense. For example: jim**'s** two sister**s** are diffferent. Bot inflection (-'s, -s) are attached to nouns, one marking possesive and the other marking plural.

C. Morphological Description

The difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes is worth emphasizing. An inflectional morphemes never changes the grammatical category of a word. For example, both old and older are adjectives. However, a derivational morpheme can change the grammatical category of word. The verb teach becomes a noun teacher if we added -er.

We can now take most sentences of english apart and list all the elements. For example:

*The child**'s** wild**ness** shock**ed** the teach**ers**.*



1. Problem in Morphological Description

The rather neat chart presented here conceals a number of outstanding problems in the analysis of english morphology. Consider examples of english words in which the different morphemes are easily identifiable as separate elements. What is the inflectional morpheme that make sheep the plural of sheep? And if -al is derivational suffix added to stem institution to give us institutional, then can we take -al off the word legal to stem leg? Unfotunately, the answer is "No".

There are other problematic cases, especially in the analysis of different languages, but the solutions to some of these problems are clearer in some instances than in others. No derivational relationship between the noun law and the adjective legal in english, nor between the noun mouth (from old english) and the adjective oral (a latin borrowing).

D. Morphs and Allomorphs

Morphs as the actual forms used to realize morphemes. A morphs is a physical form representing some morpheme in language. It is recurrent distinctive sound (phonem) or sequence of sound (phonemes). Example: He parked the car

Word	Morphs
He	1 morph /hi:/
Parked	2 morph /pa:rk/ /t/
The	1 morph
Car	1 morph /k^:r/

Allomorphs of a particular morpheme. For example: Cats: /s/ and dogs: /z/

The morpheme -s/plural on this word are described as allomorph, it is variant of morpheme. They have same form and different pronounciations.

Another allomorph of plural in english is zero-morph because the plural form of sheep is sheep.

E. Other language

Different patterns occur in other languages. We can try to work out how different forms in the languages are used to realize morphological processes and features. For example is from english and aztec (from central america).

Stem Derivational inflectional

Dark +en (make) +ed (past) =darkened

Mic (die) +tia (cause to) +s (future) = mictias (will kill)

1. Kanuri

Kanuri, a language spoken in Nigeria. The previx *nəm* is derivational morpheme that change noun to adjective. For example

	Adjective	**Noun**	
("Excellent")	*Karite*	*Nəmkarite*	(Excellence)
(Big)	*Kura*	*Nəmkura*	(Bigness)
("small")	*Gana*	*Nemgana*	(Smallness)
("Bad")	*Dibi*	*Nemdibi*	(Badness)

2. Ganda

Ganda, a language spoken in uganda. Different means to produce inflectional marking on forms. An inflectional prefix *omu-* used with singular nouns, and prefix *aba-* used with plural nouns.

	Singular	**Plural**	
Doctor	*Omusawo*	*Abasawo*	Dotors
Woman	*Omukazi*	*Abakazi*	Women
Girl	*Omuwala*	*Abawala*	Girls

3. Ilocano

Ilocano, a language of the Philipinnes, we find a quite different way of marking plurals. there seems repetition of the first part of the singular form. When the first part is *bi-* in the singular, the plural begins with *bibi-*. The process known as reduplication. For example:

	Singular	**Plural**	
Head	*Úlo*	Ulúlo	Heads
Road	*Dálan*	*Daldálan*	Roads
Life	*Bíag*	*Bibíag*	Lives

4. Tagalog

Tagalog is another language spoken in the Philipinnes.

Basa (read)	*Tawag* (call)	*Sulat (*write)
Bumasa (read!)	*Tumawag* (call!)	*Sumulat* (write!)
Babasa (will read)	*Tatawag* (will call)	*Susulat* (will write)

The first form can be treated as a stem. The second item, an element *-um-* has been inserted after the first consonant. In the third example in each coloumn, note that the change in form involves, in each case, a repetition of first syllable. So, the marking of future reference appears to be accomplished via reduplication.

CHAPTER 4

WORD FORMATION PROCESS

Around 1900, in new Berlin , Ohio, a department-store worker named J. murray spangler invented a device which he called an *electric suction sweeper.* The device eventually became very popular and could have been known as a *spangler*. people could have been *spanglering* their floors or they might even have spanglered their rugs and curtains. The use could have extended to a type of person who droned on and on (and really sucked), described as *spanglerish*, or to a whole style of behavior called *spanglerism.* In this chapter, we will explore some of the basic processes by which new words are created.

Etymology

The study of the origin and history of a word is known as its etymology,a term which,like many of our technical words,comes to us through Latin,but has its origins in Greek (*etymon* "original form" + *logia* "study of"), and is not to be confused with *entomology*, also from greek (*entomon* "insect"). we should keep in mind that these processes have been at work in the language for some time and a lot of words in daily use today were, at one time, considered barbaric misuses of the language. it is difficult now to understand the views expressed in the early nineteenth century over the "tasteless innovation" of a word like *handbook*, or the horror expressed by a London newspaper in 1909 over the use of the newly coined word *aviation.*

Coinage

One of the least common processes of word formation in English is coinage ,that is the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for commercial products that become general terms (usually without capital letters) for any version of that product. Older examples are *aspirin, nylon, vaseline*, and *zipper*; more recent examples are *granola, kleenex, teflon and Xerox*. it may be that there is an obscure technical origin (e.g. te(tra)-fl(our)-on)for some of these invented terms, but after their first coinage, they tend to become everyday words in the language.

The most salient contemporary example of coinage is the word google. originally a misspelling for the word *googol* (= the number 1 followed by 100 zeros),in the creation of the word *Googleplex*, which later became the name of a company (*google*), the term *google* (without a capital letter)has become a widely used expression meaning "to use the internet to find information. " New products and concepts (*ebay*) and activities ("have you tried *ebaying* it?") are the usual sources of coinage.

Borrowing

As Bill Bryson observed in the quotation presented earlier , one of the most common sourcesof new words in English is the process simply labeled borrowing, that is the taking over of words from other language. (technically, it's more than just borrowing because English doesn't give them back.) Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of words from other languages, including *croissant* (French) , *dope* (Dutch) ,*lilac* (Persian), *piano* (Italian), and ect.

In some cases, the borrowed words may be used with quite different meanings, asin the contemporary German use of the English words *partner* and *look* in the phrase *im partnerlook* to describe two people who are together and are wearing similar clothing. there is no equivalent use of this expression in English.

A special type of borrowing is described as loan-translation or calque. in this process, there is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. The English word

superman is thought to be a loan-translation of the German *Ubermensch*, and the term *loan-word* itself is believed to have come from the German *Lehnwort*.

Compounding

In some of the examples we have just considered there is a joining of two separate words to produce a singleform. thus, *Lehn* and *Wort* are combined to produce *Lehnwort* in German. this combining process, technically known as compounding, is very common in languages such as German and English, but much less common in languages such as French and Spanish. for examples; wallpaper, textbook, waterbed, and ect.

This very productive source of new terms has been well documented in English and German,but can also be found in totally unrelated languages,such as Hmong(spoken in south east Asia) , which combines *hwj* ("pot") and *kais* ("spout") to produce *hwjkais* ("kettle").

Blending

The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called blending. However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. In some parts of the USA, there's a product that is used like *gasoline.* but is made from alcohol, so the "blended" word for referring to this product is *gasohol*. To talk about the combinedeffects of "smoke" and "fog", we can use the word "smog".

To describe the mixing of languages, some people talk about *franglais* (French/Anglais) and *spanglish* (Spanish/English). in a few blends, we combine the beginnings of both words, as in terms from information technology, such as telex (teleprinter/exchange) or *modem* (modulator/demodulator). there is also the word *fax* but that is not a blend. it's an exsaple of our next category.

Clipping

The elemen of reduction that is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the processs described as clipping. this occurs when a word of more than one syllable (*facsimile*) is reduced to a shorter form (*fax*) , usually beginning in casual speech. the term *gasoline* is still used, but most people talk about *gas*, using the clipped form. other common examples are *ad* (advertisement), *bra* (brassiere), *cab* (cabriolet), *flu* (influenza), *fan* (fanatic) and ect. English speakers also like to clip each other's names, as in *Al,Ed,Liz,Mike,Ron,Sam,Sue and Tom.*

A particular type of reduction, favored in Australian and British, 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. This is the process that results in *telly* ("television"), and *movie* ("moving pictures"). It has also produced Aussie ("Australian"), brekky (breakfast"). you can probably guess what *Chrissy pressies* are.

Backformation

A very specialized type of reduction process is known as backformation**.** Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form a word of another type (usually a verb). A good example of backformation is the process where by the noun *television* first came into use and then the verb *televise* was created from it. Other examples of words created by this process are: *Donate* (from "donation"), *emote* (from "emotion"), *liaise* (from "liaison") and ect.

Conversion

A change in the function of a word , as for example when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction), is generally known as conversion. other labels for this very common process are "category change" and "functional shift". A number of nouns such as *bottle, butter, chair* and *vacation* have come to be used, through conversion, as verbs: *we bottled the home-brew last night*; *Have you buttered the toast?; someone has to chair the meeting* ; *They're*

vacationing in florida. these conversions are readily accepted, but some examples, such as the noun *impact* being used as a verb , seem to *impact* some people's sensibilities rather negatively.

The conversion process is particularly productive in Modern English, with new uses occurring frequently. the conversion can involve verbs becoming nouns, with *guess*, *must* and *spy* as the sources of *a guess*, *a must* and *a spy*. verbs (*see through, stand up*) also become adjectives, as in *see-through material or a stand-up comedian*. Or adjectives, as in *a dirty floor, and an empty room*, can become the verbs *to dirty* and *to empty.*

Acronyms

Acronyms are new words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words. These can be forms such as CD ("compact disk") or VCR ("video cassette recorder") where the pronunciation consists of saying each separate letter. More typically, acronyms are pronounced as new single words, as in NATO, NASA, or UNISCO.

These examples have kept their capital letters, but many acronyms simply become everyday terms such as *LASER* ("light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation"), *ZIP* ("zone improvement plan") and also names for organization, as in; MADD ("mothers against drunk driving"), and WAR ("women against rape").

Derivation

In our list so far , we have not dealt which what is by far the most common word-formation process to be found in the production of new English word. This process is called derivation and it is accomplished by means of a large number of small "bits" of the English language which are not usually given separate listings in dictionaries. in these small "bits" are generally described as **affixes**. for examples are the elements un-, pre-, mis-, -ful, -less, -ish, -ism, and -ness which apper in words like unhappy, careless, and ect.

- **Prefixes and Suffixes**

As we can see that some affixes have to be added to the beginning of the word (e.g. *un-, mis-*), These are called prefixes. other affixes have to be added to the end of the word (e.g. *-less, -ish*) and are called suffixes. for examples; ***mis****lead* has a prefix, ***dis****respect****ful*** has both a prefix and a suffix, and fool**ishness** has two suffixes.

- **Infixes**

There is a third type of affix, not normally used In English, but found in some other languages. this is called an infix and,as the term suggests, it is an affix that is inconporated inside another word. it is possible to see the general principle at work in certain expressions,occasionally used in fortuitous or aggravating circumstances by emotionally aroused English speakers: *Halle****bloody****lujah!, Abso****goddam****lutely!* and *Un****fuckin****believable!*

- **Kamhmu**

We could view these "inserted forms as a special version of infixing in English. However, a much better set of examples can be provided from Kamhmu, a language spoken in South East Asia.

	Verb	**Noun**	
("to drill")	see	sree	("a drill")
("to chisel")	toh	trnoh	("a chisel")
("to eat with a spoon")	hip	hrniip	("a spoon")
("to tie")	hoom	hrnoom	("a thing with which to tie")

from these examples, we can see that there is a regular pattern whereby the infix -rn- is added to verbs to form corresponding nouns.

Multiple Processes

Although we have concentrated on each of these word-formation processes in isola-tion, it is possible to trace the operation of more than one process at work in the creation of a particular word. for example, the term *deli* seems to have become a common American English expression via a process of first borrowing *delicatessen* (from German) and than clipping that borrowed form. If someone says that problems with the project have snowballed, the final word can be analyzed as an example of compounding in which snow and ball were combined to form the noun snowball, which was then turned into a verb through conversion.

An acronymthat never seems to have had capital letters comes from "young urban professional", plus the -ie suffix, as in hypocorism, to produce the word *yuppie* (first recorded in 1984). The formation of this new word ,however, was helped by a quite different process, known simply as analogy, whereby new words are formed to be similar in some way to existing words.

Many of these new words can, of course, have a very brief life-span. Perhaps the generally accepted test of the "arrival" of recently formed words in a language is their published appearancein a dictionary.

CHAPTER 5

LANGUAGE HISTORY & CHANGE

Family Trees

English has changed according to the development of the times, in the history of the development of English is not a language that has appeared and has only been perfected, but the various languages that exist are links between one language and another. so that in the 19th century involving us in the study of the history and change of language called philology, this created "family trees" which show the interrelationships between languages.

A British government official from India named Sir William made observations on ancient languages in 1786. In this century, Sanskrit was found to have a very good grammatical structure and to be related to Greek and Latin. Then he assumed that a number of languages from different regions must have a common ancestor, but this is still based on a hypothesis and still requires research and data to prove the truth because some languages are recorded as descendant languages. In this century there are several terms and dialects used to form the basic (Proto) of modern languages in the Indian subcontinent and the European subcontinent. With this in mind, Proto-Indo-European was formed as the "great-grandmother". Indo-European is one of the language families with the largest population distribution in the world, so that scholars traced and identified data that corresponded to the branches of the Indo-European family tree. about 30 language families containing more than 6000 different individual languages, according to one reliable source (ethonologue, 2005) there are actually 6913 languages in the world.

Family Connections

In history, various types of languages are interrelated and have similarities, this can be seen from the records of speakers of languages from older generations such as Sanskrit and Latin and also studying how languages developed from time to time to become the modern language now. for example when we write the words father and brother in Latin, ancient and Sanskrit

Sanskrit: Pitar	Latin: Pater	Ancient greek: Pater (Father)
Sanskrit: Bharatar	Latin: Frater	Ancient greek: Frater (Brother)

It can be seen from these languages that have similarities but not all languages can have similarities this can be good evidence to show the fact that various kinds of languages are related to each other and have family connections.

Cognates

Then in the process of building a possibility about language related to seeing "cognates" in the structure of language. we can analyze or look for similarities in related languages. For example cognate in English, the words father, mother and friend have one thing in common with German, namely *fater, mutter, and freund*. From this, we might conclude that English and German have similarities and of course also have a common ancestor so that we can called Germanic of Indo-European. Through other languages we can also find similar things with these relatives we can look for good evidence of a common ancestor.

Comparative Reconstruction

From the foregoing we can proceed with a procedure called comparative reconstruction, which aims to reconstruct the original form (proto) from a common ancestor. related according to some general principles.

1) The Majority Principle

This concerns the speech of the set in the same language, if three prepositions start with the sound [p] and one word starts with [b] then it is stated that the majority retains the original sound (i.e[p])

2) The Most Natural Development Principle

The most natural principle of evolution is based on the fact that some changes are very common, while others are very unlikely. In all cases, the candor described in is generally followed, but vice versa:

1) Vowel sounds become voiced, usually between vowels (youth and youth)
2) The final vowel often disappears (vino → vin)
3) Consonants become voiceless at the end of words (rizu → ris)
4) Stop being fricative (ripa → riva)

Sound Reconstruction

A	B	C	
cantare	cantar	chanter	(sing)
catena	cadena	chaine	(chain)
caro	caro	cher	(dear)
cavalio	caballo	cheval	(horse)

Turning to sound reconstruction, comparative reconstruction determines the initial form of the word. Then found a proof that in languages A and B everything reads (k) while in language c everything sounds [ʃ] on this proof the majority principle would suggest that the initial sound k in languages A and B is older than the sound f in language C. besides that the sound [k] is a stop consonant and the sound [ʃ] is a fricative. According to one of the most experienced principles of development, changes tend to occur towards fictitious stops, so that the sound k is more likely to be original.

Word Reconstruction

1	2	3	Proto-forms
mube	mupe	mup	(streams)
abadi	apati	apat	(rock)
agana	akana	akan	(knife)
enugu	enuku	enuk	(diamond)

Looking at a non-Indo-European word set, we can imagine the following information from a linguist. Examples are related sets of three related languages. by using the majority principle, we can assume that the older forms were probably based on 2 or 3 languages if this were correct, the consonant changes would have to be [p][b], [t] → [d], and [k] → [g] to produce the later forms in Language 1. There is a pattern to these changes that follows the part of " the principle of natural evolution" in which the voiceless sound between vowels becomes voiced. Therefore, words in languages 2 and 3 must have an older form than language 1.

The History of English

From several reconstruction processes of the early forms of language to show what a language was like before written records were not enough to prove the resemblance to the language written in today's newspapers some of the letters that look quite foreign the older letters /æ/ (ash) simply became “a” (as in to dæg- today), the older letters /ð/(eth) and /p/ (thorn) were both replaced by “th” (as in pu-thou,eorðan- earth)

To see the process of language change that occurred we can read the history of the English language, which is traditionally divided into 4 periods.

1) Old English (Before 1100)

Before the 1100th century there was a group of tribes from northern Europe who moved to the Tomsh Islands in the fifth century at which time this group used the smut language of the group for a real record. The beginning of what became their wrath in English was since there were company names which had an Anglo Saxon term to describe this group of people and from that name we get the English word and the land of Engie their new home. In this century, the most basic terms emerged, such as mann ("man") wif ("women"), cild ("child"), mete ("food"), etan ("eat") feohtan ("fight") and drincan ("drink") besides that we also get a vocabulary about several weekday names.

The 6th-8th century was a long period for this group to convert to Christianity and several Latin (religious) words entered English vocabulary such as *bishop, angel candle, church, martyr priest, and school* are from this period. From 8,9-10th century there was a group of northern Europeans who came to colonize and settled in some English coastal areas they were vikings and from their language we get the terms from some of their customs like in the winter festival they get the term "yule" which means season Christmas.

2) Middle English (1100-1500)

This event was marked by the arrival of a group of French Normans in England who at that time William the Conqueror triumphed at Hostings in 1066 became the ruling class so that the language of the nobility, government, law and civilized life in England for the next 200 years was French. so new vocabulary emerged such as *army, court, faith, defense, prison and tax*. During this period the so-called English from French was the language of prestige and chaucer.

"She was cleped Madame Eglentyne"

"Ful wel she song the service dyvyne"

These are examples of words used in the language at that time. Some of these changes from Old English to Chaucer still had to take place before the language took its modern form. The most significant difference lies in the vowel sound which is very different from today. Then in 1400-1600 which separated a group of Chaucer and Shakespeare there was a major vocal shift.

3) Early Modern English (1500-1700)

continued in the early modern English period in 1500, initially in 1476 they had started to recognize printing but were more inclined to standardize the language that was pronounced, this was what made early modern English pronunciation very different from the previous period. standardized pronunciation fell out of use after standardization of pronunciation in modern English (after 1700). there are external changes such as language borrowing from French and old norse norms and also internal changes from the following factors.

a) Sound Change.

Omission of sound in the pronunciation of certain words as in the words→ hlud, loud, and hlaford omission of certain words does not change the spelling, it just creates a "silent letter" in contemporary English.

Methathesis or a sound change in English that reverses the position of 2 sounds in a word, this is explained in a modified version of the initial form of the word.

acsian → ask brid → bird

hros → horse

Besides that, sometimes a position reversal can occur even if the sounds are not close together, as in the word palabra (Spanish) changed to parabola is derived by latin. Another type of sound change also has an epenthesis, which is adding a sound in the middle of a word. for example spinel → spindle, timr → timber.

one type of change in sound that does not occur in English but in other languages is the addition of a sound at the beginning of a word which is called a prothesis as in the word schola→ escuela (usually occurs in Latin - spanish)

b) Syntactic Changes

In Old English texts we find the most common modern English subject-verb-object order, but we can also find several other sequences which are no longer used. For example, the subject may follow a verb, such as ferde he ("he traveled"), and the object, which is called a change in syntax or word order, may appear before the verb, such as he hine geseah ("she saw him"), or in initial word. Verb Phrases such as fum man ne sealde ("no one gave him [something]"). the forms sealde ("he gave") and (sealdest) ("you gave") are distinguished only by the inflectional suffix (-e/-est) which is no longer used in modern English.

c) Semantic Changes

A number of loanwords used in Old English make the most obvious distinction between Old and Modern English as in the earlier terms loja, or egad.

Another change is in the process of narrowing/expanding meaning. An example of expanding the meaning of a holy day designated as a religious holiday means not only experiencing phonetic changes but also developing evaluative meanings. an example of narrowing the meaning as in the word wife which used to be used by any woman but now is limited only to married women. various refinements can lead to negative meanings for some words such as "vulgar" (used to mean simply "ordinary") and naughty (used to mean "having nothing")

d) Diachronic and Synchronic Variation

Language development can occur due to several long processes although some changes are associated with major social problems such as wars, upheavals, and invasions. The development of language is influenced by continuous cultural transmission where language can change at any time with the development of the times. on an ongoing cultural mission. Each new generation has to find a way to use the language of previous generations there is an inevitable tendency to take elements correctly and others only as approximations. There are also quirky desi that look different. Due to this weak transmission process, it is to be expected that speech will not remain stable and changes and variations are inevitable.

CHAPTER 6

LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Language Culture

The types of sociolinguistic variation described in the previous chapter are sometimes related to cultural differences. It is not uncommon to find linguistic features identified with African-American or European or Japanese cultures. This approach to language studies stems from the work of anthropologists who use language as a source of information in the general study of "culture".

Culture

We use the term culture to refer to all the ideas and assumptions about the nature of things and people that we learn by joining social groups. It can be defined as "socially acquired knowledge".

The particular languages we learn in the course of cultural transmission provide us, at least initially, with a ready-made system for classifying the world around us and what we experience from it.

As native English speakers develop more complex conceptual systems, they learn to classify different types of creatures such as dogs or horses.

To use words like dog or horse, rain or snow, dad or uncle, week or weekend, we must have a conceptual system that includes these people, things, and ideas as separate identifiable categories.

Category

Although in our experience there is a great deal of variation among all the individual "dogs", we may use the word dog to refer to any one of them as a member of the class.

Categories are groups that have certain characteristics, and we can think of the vocabulary we learn as inherited class identifiers.

It is tempting to believe that there is a definite connection between the vocabulary we learn (our classroom) and the setting of external reality.

But evidence from world languages suggests that the actual arrangement of external reality differs somewhat depending on the language used.

Although the Danes of New Guinea see all the colors of the spectrum, they only use names for the two colors that correspond to "black" and "white".

Seeing the differences in basic color terms between languages, it can be said that there are conceptual differences that are lexicalized ("expressed as one word") in one language and not in another.

Kinship Terms

The most obvious examples of lexical categories are words that refer to people belonging to the same family or kinship term.

All languages have family words (e.g. brother, mother, grandmother), but not all classify family members in the same way.

In some languages, the equivalent of the word father is not only "elder" but also "older brother".

In England we use the word uncle for this other type of individual.

However, we also use the same word (uncle) for "older sister".

Other differences between cognates can also be lexicalized differently in world languages.

For example, in Norwegian the distinction between "mother of male parents" (farmer) and "mother of female parents" (mormor) is lexicalized, but in English the word grandmother is usually used for both.

Time Concept

To take a more abstract example, when we learn words like week or weekend, we inherit a conceptual system that works with the amount of time as a general category.

The use of words for units of time, such as "two days" or "seven days", suggests that we can think of time (i.e. something abstract) in numerical terms, using noun phrases as well as "two".

In the Hopi language spoken in Arizona, there are traditionally no equivalent expressions for most of our time words and expressions (two hours, thirty minutes), because our terms express ideas about linguistic culture.

Perhaps for the same reason there is no term for a seven day unit.

There is no such thing as "week" and the terms "Saturday and Sunday" are not combined as units of time.

There's no such thing as a "weekend".

Linguistic Relativity

These examples deal with different uses of language as evidence for different ways of talking about external reality. This is often discussed in the context of linguistic relativity, because it seems that the structure of our language, with its predefined categories, inevitably influences the way we see the world. In a weak version, this idea simply captures the fact that we not only speak, but can think about the experiential world to some extent using the categories provided by our language. Our mother tongue seems to play a definite role in shaping 'ordinary thinking'. how we think about things in our daily life without analyzing our thinking.

There is a stronger version of this idea called linguistic determinism, which states that "language determines thinking". If language determines thinking, we can only think in the categories provided by our language. For example, English speakers use one word for "snow" and tend to think that all white things are one thing. In contrast, the Eskimos are said to see all white things and see them as several different things because they have several different words for "srow". Thus, the category system inherent in language determines how speakers interpret and articulate experience. We shall return to the subject of "snow", but the proposal just described is a good example of the approach which has been analyzing the relationship between language and culture since the 18th century.

Cognitive Caregories

As a way of analyzing cognition or how people think, we can look for clues in the structure of language, not reason. The fact that Hopi speakers inherited a language system in which clouds have an "animated" quality might tell us something about a traditional belief system or way of thinking that was part of their culture, not ours. In the Yagua language spoken in Peru, entities with "living" characteristics include the moon, rocks and pineapples, as well as people. In the Yagua tradition, all of these units are treated as assets, so that the cultural interpretation of these "living" characteristics could be closer to the concept of "special importance in life" than to "possession of life". as interpreted by most English-speaking cultures.

Classifiers

We know about word classification in a language like Yagua thanks to grammatical markers called classifiers, which indicate the type or "class" of the noun in question. For example,

Swahili (spoken in East Africa) uses different prefixes as classifiers for human (wa-), non-human (ri-), and object (vi-) nouns, as in the word watoto ("children"). , pantomime ("plant") and visu ("knife"). In fact, the conceptual difference between a raw material (miti, "wood") and an object made from it (viti, "chair") can only be characterized by the classification used.

In Dyirbal, Australia, the traditional use of classifiers is that "men, kangaroos and boomerangs" fall into one conceptual category, while "women, fire and dangerous objects" fall into another. Examining cultural beliefs (eg, "The sun is the wife of the moon") helps to understand the unknown side of the worldview and why the moon comes first and the sun comes second.

Classifiers are often used with numbers to indicate calculation methods. In the following Japanese examples, classifiers relate to objects that are conceptually represented as "long thin objects" (hon), "flat thin objects" (mai), or "small round objects" (ko).

Ni-Hon Bananas ("Two Bananas")

Syatu Ni-Mai ("Two Shirts")

Ringo Ni-ko ("Two Apples")

The closest use of English classification is when we talk about certain things "one" is different. In English, there is a difference between countables (shirts, words, chairs) and uncountables (clothes, information, furniture). In English, using a/an or plural forms with uncountable nouns (eg *clothes, *information, *two pieces of furniture) is grammatically incorrect. To avoid forms that do not conform to this grammar, classification-type expressions such as "goods" or "parts" are used, as in the less familiar garment and two pieces of furniture. In many other languages, the corresponding noun is treated as "countable", so the existence of the grammatical class "countable items" is a sign of the cognitive classification underlying English numbers.

CHAPTER 7

LANGUAGE AND REGIONAL VARIATION

Yesterday, I toll my dad, “Buy chocolate kine now, bumbye somebody going egg our house you know, cuz you so chang.” He sed, “Sucking kine mo’ bettah cuz lass mo’ long. Da kids going appreciate cuz …” And befo’ he could start his “Back in my days story” I jus sed, “Yeah, yeah, yeah, I undahstand,” cuz I nevah like hea da story again ah about how he nevah have candy wen he wuz small and how wuz one TREAT fo’ eat da orange peel wit sugar on top. Da orange PEEL you know. Not da actual orange, but da orange PEEL. Strong emphasis on PEEL cuz dey wuz POOR. Tonouchi (2001)

Throughout this book, we have been talking about languages such as English, Spanish or Swahili as if there was a single variety of each in everyday use. That is, we have largely ignored the fact that every language has a lot of variation, especially in the way it is spoken. If we just look at English, we find widespread variation in the way it is spoken in different countries such as Australia, Britain and the USA. We can also find a range of varieties in different parts of those countries, with Lee Tonouchi’s account of “Trick-O-Treat” in Hawai’i as just one example. In this chapter, we investigate aspects of language variation based on where that language is used, as a way of doing linguistic geography. First, we should identify the particular variety that we have normally assumed when we referred to a language as English, Spanish or Swahili.

The Standard Language

When we talked about the words and structures of a language in earlier chapters, we were concentrating on the features of only one variety, usually called the standard language. This is actually an idealized variety, because it has no specific region. It is the variety associated with administrative, commercial and educational centers, regardless of region. If we think of Standard English, it is the version we believe is found in printed English in newspapers and books, is widely used in the mass media and is taught in most schools. It is the variety we normally try to teach to those who want to learn English as a second or foreign language. It is clearly associated with education and broadcasting in public contexts and is more easily described in terms of the written language (i.e. vocabulary, spelling, grammar) than the spoken language.

If we are thinking of that general variety used in public broadcasting in the United States, we can refer more specifically to Standard American English or, in Britain, to Standard British English. In other parts of the world, we can talk about other recognized varieties such as Standard Australian English, Standard Canadian English or Standard Indian English.

Accent and Dialect

Whether we think we speak various standard English or not, we all speak with an accent. It is a myth that some speakers have accents while others don't. It's often thought that some speakers have a very distinct or easily recognized type of accent while others may have a more subtle or less noticeable accent, but every language user speaks with an accent. Technically, the term "accent" is limited to a description of aspects of pronunciation that identify where an individual speaker is from, regional or social. In contrast to the term dialect, which is used to describe grammatical and vocabulary features as well as aspects of pronunciation.

We recognize that the sentence You don’t know what you’re talking about will generally “look” the same whether spoken with an American accent or a Scottish accent. Both speakers will be using forms associated with Standard English, but have different pronunciations. However, this next sentence – Ye dinnae ken whit yer haverin’ aboot – has the same meaning as the first, but

has been written out in an approximation of what a person who speaks one dialect of Scottish English might say. There are differences in pronunciation (e.g. whit, aboot), but there are also examples of different vocabulary (e.g. ken, haverin') and a different grammatical form (dinnae).

Dialectology

Despite occasional difficulties, there is a general sense of mutual intelligence among the many speakers of different English dialects. this is one of the criteria used in the study of dialects, or dialectology, to distinguish between two different dialects of the same language (those speakers usually can understand each other) and two different languages (those speakers usually cannot understand). it is not the only one, or cannot be relied upon in this way, to identify dialects, but it is very helpful in establishing the fact that every different dialect, like every language, is equally worthy of analysis. It is important to recognize, from a linguistic point of view, that none of the various languages is inherently "better" than another. They are just different.

Regional Dialects

Going beyond stereotypes, those involved in serious investigations of regional dialects have devoted more survey research to identifying features that fit one geographic area more than another. These dialect surveys often involve an addressable concern for detail and tend to operate with very specific criteria in identifying acceptable informants. However, it is important to know whether the person whose speech you are recording is really a typical representative of the regional dialect.

Isoglosses and Dialect Boundaries

We can see examples of the regional variation found in the surveys that made the linguistic atlases of the upper middle of the United States. One of the aims of a survey of this type is to find some significant differences in the speech of people who live in different regions and can take advantage of the boundaries, in dialect terms, between those regions. If it is found, for example, that the majority of informants in one area say they brought home in a paper bag while the majority in another area say they use paper sacks, then it is usually possible to draw a line on the map separating the two areas, as shown shown in the accompanying illustration. This line is called isogLoss and is the boundary between the areas related to one particular linguistic item.

The Dialect Continuum

Another note of caution is expected with regard to dialect boundaries. The timeless images of isolis and dialect bars are quite useful in constructing a broad view of regional dialects, but tend to obscure the fact that, in most areas of dialect boundaries, one dialect or variety of languages merges into another. With that in mind, we can see regional variations as they exist along the dialect continuum rather than having sharp breaks from one region to the next.

Bilingualism and Diglossia

In many countries, regional variation is not simply a matter of two (or more) dialects of a single language, but can involve two (or more) quite distinct and different languages. Canada, for example, is an officially bilingual country, with both French and English as official languages. This recognition of the linguistic rights of the country's French speakers, largely in Quebec, did not come about without a lot of political upheaval. For most of its history, Canada was essentially an English-speaking country, with a French-speaking minority group. In such a situation, bilingualism at the level of the individual tends to be a feature of the minority group. In this form of bilingualism, a member of a minority group grows up in one linguistic community, mainly speaking one language (e.g. Welsh in Britain or Spanish in the United States), but learns another language (e.g. English) in order to take part in the larger dominant linguistic community.

A rather special situation involving two distinct varieties of language, called Diglossia, exists in some countries. In Diglossia, there is a "low" variety, which is locally based and used for

everyday affairs, and a "special entertainment" variety, studied in schools and used for important matters. Types of diglossia exist in Arabic-speaking countries where the variation is high Latin as high variety and one of the vernacular European languages (early modern versions of Italian, French and Spanish) as low variety or "vernacular" (see Chapter 19).

Language Planning

Consider a similar question in the context of Guatemala, a country in Central America, where twenty-six Mayan languages are spoken, as well as Spanish. If, in this situation, Spanish was chosen as the language of education, all Mayan speakers possessed the disadvantages of early education in society? Questions of this type require answers to some kind of language planning. Government, Legal and Educational Organizations in many countries have to plan for the variation or varieties of the language spoken in that country to use for official business. In Israel, despite the fact that it is not the most widely spoken language among the population, Hebrew is chosen as the official government language. In India, the choice was Hindi, but in many areas there were still many non-Hindi speakers, there were riots over this decision. There was a "national language war" in the Philippines before different groups could agree on a name for the national (Filipino) language.

Pidgins and Creoles

A variation that originally had no native speakers in a country may be a standard chosen in different areas. For example, in Papua New Guinea, much legal business is conducted at Tok Pisin. It is now spoken by over a million people, but began years earlier as a kind of "contact" language called a pidgin. A pidgin is a variety of languages developed for some practical purpose, such as commerce, between groups of people who have a lot of contact, but who do not know each other's languages. Thus, there will be no native speakers. The origin of the term "Pidgin" is ascribed to the English version of the English "Business".

Between six and twelve million people are believed to still speak the Pidgin language and between ten and seventeen million speak descendants of the Pidgins called "Creimles." When a pidgin evolves beyond its role as a language of trade or contact and becomes the first language of a social community, it is described as Creole. Tok Pisin now changed to Creole. Although still referred to as "Pidgin," the language spoken by a large number of people in Hawaii is also Creole, which is technically known as Hawaiian English. Areol Creole initially develops as the first language of children growing up in a pidgin community—and becomes more complex as it serves a more communicative purpose. Thus, unlike Pidgins, Creasles have a large number of native speakers and are not at all restricted in their uses. A French Creole spoken by most of the population in Haiti and English Creole spoken in Jamaica and Sierra Leone.

The Post-Creole Continuum

Creeol evolves in many contemporary situations where, usually, there is evidence of other processes at work. just as there was a development from pidgin to Creole, known as creolization, it is now also a retreat from the use of the Creole they contact with a greater variety of languages. Where education and greater social prestige are associated with the "higher" variety (eg British English in Jamaica), some speakers tend to use fewer Creole forms and structures. This process, known as decreolization, causes one extreme to a variety that is closer to the standard model and externally leaves, at the other extreme, a basic variation with even more features. These slightly different types of varieties may be somewhere between the two extremes, some a lot and some feature less. This varietal range, which developed after (= "pos") Creole had entered, is called the post-Creole continuum.

CHAPTER 8

GESTURES AND SIGN LANGUAGE

When we considered the process of language acquisition, we concentrated on the fact that what is naturally acquired by most children is speech. Yet this is not the only way that a first language can be acquired. Just as most children of English-speaking or Spanish-speaking parents naturally acquire English or Spanish at a very early age, so the deaf children of deaf parents naturally acquire Sign (or Sign Language).

Gestures

Although both Sign and gestures involve the use of the hands (with other parts of the body), they are rather different.

Examples of gestures are making a downward movement with one hand while talking about not doing very well in a class or making a twisting motion with one hand as you describe trying to open a bottle or jar.

In the study of non-verbal behavior, a distinction can be drawn between gestures and emblems. Emblems are signals such as "thumbs up" (= things are good) or "shush" (keep quiet) that function like fixed phrases and do not depend on speech.

In Britain, the use of two fingers (the index and middle fingers together) raised in a V-snape traditionally represents one emblem (= victory) when the back of the hand faces the sender and a quite different emblem (= I insult you in a very offensive way) when the back of the hand faces the receiver of the signal.

Types of Gestures

Within the set of gestures that accompany speech, we can distinguish between those that echo, in some way, the content of the spoken message and those that indicate something being referred to.

By itself, an iconic gesture doesn't "mean" the same as what is said, but it may add "meaning."

Another common group of gestures can be described as deictics. As noted in Chapter 10, the term "deictic" means "pointing" and we often use gestures to point to things or people while talking.

There are other gestures, such as those described as beats, which are short quick movements of the hand or fingers. These gestures accompany the rhythm of talk and are often used to emphasize parts of what is being said or to mark a change from describing everts in a story to commenting on those events. As with other gestures, these hand movements accompany speech, but are not typically used as a way of speaking. When hand movements are used in order to "speak," we can describe them as part of a sign language.

Types of Sign Language

There are two general categories of language involving the use of signs: alternate sign languages and primary sign languages. By definition, an alternate sign language is a system of hand signals developed by speakers for limited communication in a specific context where spiech cannot be used. In some religious orders where there are rules of silence, restricted alternate sign languages are used (e.g. by monks in a monastery).

In contrast, a primary sign language is the first language of a group of people who do not use a spoken language with each other. British Sign Language (BSL) and French Sign Language (SLF), as used for everyday communication among members of the deal communities of Britain and France, are primary sign languages.

We will focus our attention on ASL in order to describe some features of a primary sign language, but first, we have to account for the fact that, until fairly recently, it was not treated as a possible language at all.

Oralism

It was not until the 1960s that any serious consideration was given to the status of ASL as a natural language, following the work of William Stokoe (1960).

Before that, it was genuinely believed by many well-intentioned teachers that the use of sign language by deaf children, perhaps because it was considered too "easy." actually inhibited the acquisition of the English language.

Whatever the reasons, the method produced few students who could speak intelligible English (less than 10 percent) and even fewer who could lip-read (around 4 percent).

Since only one in ten deaf children had deaf parents from whom they acquired sign language, it would seem that the cultural transmission of ASL has been mostly carried out from child to child.

Signed English

Substantial changes in deaf education have taken place in recent years, but there is still an emphasis on the learning of English, written rather than spoken. As a result, many institutions promote the learning of what is known as Signed English (also called Manually Coded English or MCE).

For similar reasons, hearing teachers in deaf education can make use of Signed English when they sign at the same time as they speak. It is also easier for those hearing interpreters who produce a simultaneous translation of public speeches or lectures for deaf audiences.

However, Signed English is neither English nor ASL.. When used to produce an exact version of a spoken English sentence, Signed English takes twice as long as the production of that same sentence in either English or ASL.

The type of argument just presented is what has been used in support of teaching Signed English in deaf schools because one of the major aims is to prepare students in be able to read and write English.

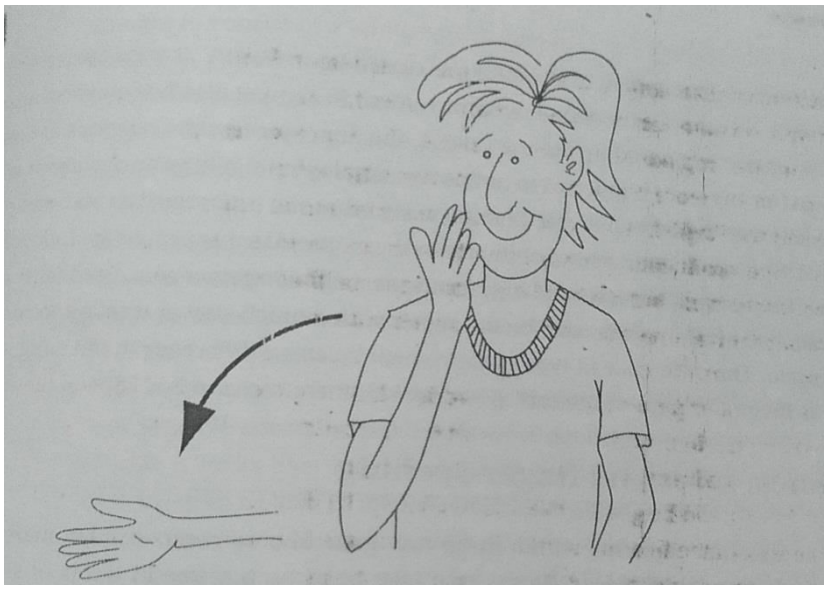
Origin of ASL

It would be very surprising if ASL really was "a sort of gestured version of English," as some have claimed. Historically, ASL developed from the French Sign Language used in a Paris school founded in the eighteenth century.

Clerc not only taught deaf children, he also trained other teachers. During the nineteenth century, this imported version of sign language, incorporating features of indigenous natural sign languages used by the American deaf, evolved in what became known as ASL.

The Structure of Signs

As a natural language functioning in the visual mode, ASL is designed for the eyes, the ears. In producing linguistic forms in ASL, signers use four key aspects of visual information. These are described as the articulatory parameters of ASL in terms of shape, orientation, location and movement. We can describe these parameters in the use of the common sign for THANK-YOU.



Shape and Orientation

To describe the articulation of THANK-YOU in ASL, we start with the shape, or config. uration of the hand(s), used in forming the sign.

The configuration shown in the illustration is a "flat hand" (not a "fist hand" or a "cupped hand").

The orientation of the hand is "palm up" rather than "palm down" when signing THANK-YOU.

Location and Movement

Whatever the shape and orientation of the hand(s,, there will also be a location (or place of articulation) in relation to the head and upper body of the signer.

The movement element in THANK-YOU is "out and downward" toward the receiver. The difference between faster and slower movement in signing also has an effect on mean- ing. In a story recounted by Stokoe (2001), the director of public relations at Gallaudet College (for the deaf) happened to notice two employees signing one day about a former president who had been very ill.

Primes, Faces and Finger Spelling

The contrasting elements within these four general parameters can be analyzed into sets of features or primes. We say that "flat hand" is a prime in terms of shape and "palm up" is a prime in terms of orientation.

In addition to these parameters and primes, there are important functions served by non-manual components such as head movement, eye movement and several specific types of facial expressions.

Also, if a new term or name is encountered, signers can use finger-spelling, which is a system of hand configurations conventionally used to represent the letters of the alphabet.

From these brief descriptions, it is clear that ASL is a linguistic system designed for the visual medium, in face-to-face interaction.

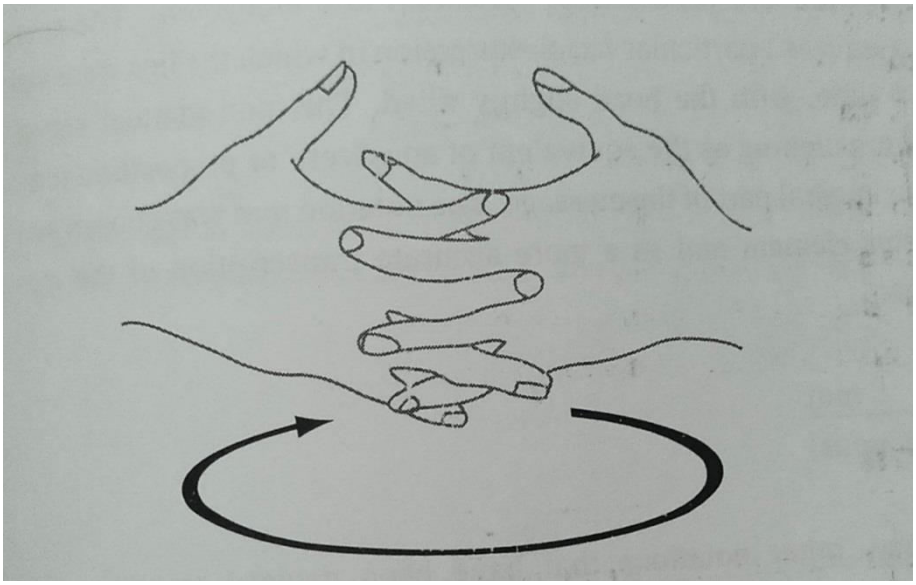
The Meaning of Signs

The signs of ASL are sometimes mistakenly believed to be simple visual representa- tions or "pictures" of the objects and actions they refer to and the whole language is thought to consist of a limited set of primitive gestures hat look like objects or mimic actions in pantomime.

Interestingly, as non-users of ASL, when we are told that a sign is used to refer to a particular object or action, we can often create some symbolic connection that makes the relationship between sign and signified seem more transparent in some sense.

However, most of the time, interpretation doesn't work that way in the opposite direction. We normally find it difficult to get the meaning of a sign simply on the basis of what it looks like. Indeed, as when confronted with any unfamiliar language, we may not even be able to identify individual signs (words) in fluent signing. If we can't see the "words," we are hardly likely to be able to identify the "pictures" needed for their interpretation.

In use, this sign consists of rotating both hands together with the fingers interlocked in front of the chest. Several different interpretations have been suggested for the source image of this sign. In one, it represents the stripes on a flag, in another, it's a mixing pot, and in yet another it's a coming together.



Representing Signs

The fact that a sign language exploits the visual medium in quite subtle ways makes it difficult to represent accurately on the page. As Lou Fant (1977) has observed, "strictly speaking, the only way to write Ameslan is to use motion pictures." One of the major problems is finding a way to incorporate those aspects of facial expression that contribute to the message.

q

_____

ME BORROW BOOK

Other subtle aspects of meaning that can be conveyed by facial expression are still being investigated. In one study, it was observed that a signer, in the middle of telling a story, produced the signed message: MAN FISH [continuous].

The basic translation would be: The man was fishing. However, ASL users translated it as The man was fishing with relaxation and enjoyment.

The notation mm was chosen as a way of incorporating this element and so a more accurate transcription of the message might look like this:

mm

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MAN FISH [continuous]

There are, of course, other notations that have been devised to capture major non-manual elements in ASL commurication.

ASL as a Natural Language

Investigations of ASL from a linguistic point of view are a relatively recent phenom- enon. Yet it has become clear that any feature that is characteristically found in spoken languages has a counterpart in ASL. All those defining properties of human language described in Chapter 2 are present in ASL. There are equivalent levels of phonology and morphology (basic elements), as well as syntax (arrangements of those elements).

Children acquiring ASL as their first language go through developmental stages similar to children learning spoken language, though the production of signs seems to begin earlier than the production of spoken words.

In summary, ASL is a natural language that is quite remarkable for its endurance in the face of decades of prejudice and misunderstanding. There is a very old joke among the deaf that begins with the question: What is the greatest problem facing deaf people? Perhaps increased knowledge and appreciation of their language among the general population will bring about a change in the old response to that question. The tradi- tional answer was: Hearing people.

CHAPTER 9

REGISTER AND JARGON

The register is a convenient way of using language that is appropriate in a particular case context, which can be identified as situational (e.g. in church), work (e.g. Among lawyers) or topical (e.g. Talking about language). In social terms, jargon helps create and maintain relationships between those who see themselves as "insiders" in some way and exclude "outsiders". One of the defining features of registers is the use of jargon, which is special technical vocabulary (e.g. Plaintiff, suffix) related to a particular field of work or interest.

Slang

slang is used more frequently among those outside established higher-status groups. Slang, or "everyday language," describes words or phrases used in place of colloquial terms among younger speakers and other special interest groups. The word bucks (for dollars or money) has been a slang expression for over a hundred years, but the addition of mega- ("a lot of") to megabucks is a more recent innovation, along with deceased presidents (whose photo is on the banknote). and Benjamin (from Benjamin Franklin, on the $100 note).

Like clothing and music, slang is an aspect of social life that is subject to fashion, especially among teenagers. It can be used by people in a group sharing ideas and attitudes as a way to differentiate oneself from others. Differences in the use of slang between groups are divided into older and younger speakers pointed out that age is another important factor involved in social variation.

However, the use of slang varies within younger social groups, as illustrated by the use of profanity or taboo terms. Taboo terms are words and phrases that people avoid for reasons related to religion, decency, and prohibited conduct.

African American English

African American English (AAE) Also known as Black English or Ebonics, AAE is the variety used by many (not all) African Americans in various places in United States territory. It has many distinctive features which, taken together, constitutes a different set of social markers.

large geographical barriers between groups will encourage linguistic differences in regional dialects, and sharp differences between social dialects are caused by social barriers such as discrimination and segregation.

Vernacular Laguage

The most studied form of AAE is usually described as African American Vernacular English (AAVE). since the first century the term "vernacular" has been used to describe that local European language (low prestige) in contrast to Latin (high prestige) later to characterize the non-standard spoken version of the language used by lower status groups. thus, colloquialism is a common expression for social dialects of Indo, usually spoken by lower-status groups, which are treated as "non-standard" because there are marked differences from "standard" languages. The AAVE that became the vernacular of African Americans shares some features with other non-standard varieties, such as some Hispanic American communities speaking "Chicano English".

The Sounds of Vernacular

The tendency to reduce the final consonant cluster is a widespread phonological feature in AAVE and other English vernaculars, such that words ending in two consonants are often pronounced as if there were only one. The initial dental consonant (think, that) is often pronounced as an alveolar stop (tink, dat), so the definite article (the) sounds as [də], as in You

da man!. Other morphological features, such as possessive - (John's girlfriend) and third-person singular -s (she loves him), are not usually used (John's girlfriend, she loves him). Also, when a phrase contains a clear indication of the plural number, the plural marker -s (guys, friends) is usually left out (two guy, one of my friend).

The Grammar of Vernacular

Usually, in the grammatical aspects of AAVE and another everyday language it is most stigmatized as "illogical" or "sloppy". One element often blamed is the double negative construct. Because the negative is represented twice, this structure is criticized as "illogical" (because one negative is supposed to cancel out the other). However, this AAVE feature can be discovered in many other English dialects and other languages such as French: il ne sait rien (literally, “he knows nothing”). It was also familiar in Old English: Ic naht singan ne cuðe (literally, "I can't sing I can't"). There is nothing inherently illogical about this arrangement, which could spill over into a lot of negativity, letting to greater priority on the negative parts of the message, as in He never did anything.

Becomes the focal point of the criticism of "sloppy" the frequent or absent form of the verb "to be" (are, is) in AAVE expressions such as You are crazy or She is working now. The formal style of Standard English requires are and is in such expressions, but many varieties of vernacular do not. Nor do many other languages such as Arabic and Russian require the form "to be" in equivalent contexts.

AAVE speakers in their expressions do not include the auxiliary verb is like She is working in now, to describe what is happening at the moment, they can use be (not is) as a way of expressing habitual actions. That is the presence or absence of a distinction between what is a recurring activity or state and what is currently occurring. AAVE uses bin (usually emphasized) instead, as in She bin works there To talk about a habitual action that started or happened in the past. Therefore, the habitual use of be or bin, and the absence of the form "to be" in present-state expressions, are all compatible parts in AAVE grammar.

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CHAPTER 10

THE SOUND OF LANGUAGE

Phonetics.

The study general of the characteristic of speech sounds is called **phonetics.** That usually we will be interest in **articulatory phonetics.** This we will study about how speech sound are made and articulated. Then in some area study are **acoustic phonetics,** it's deals with physical properties of speech in the air waves, and then is **auditory phonetics** or we can call it perceptual phonetics it's deals by the perception. By ear, of speech sounds. So Phonetics is the study of sound which acts as a means or medium for human language. The scope of phonetic science includes the formation of sounds by sound makers to the meaning of messages from sounds by sound listeners

Voice and Voiceless Sounds

In articulatory phonetics We start with the air pushed out by the lungs up through the trachea or windpipe to the larynx. In articulatory phonetics we investigate how speech sound are produced using the fairly complex oral equipment we have. Inside the larynx are your vocal folds or vocal cords. Which take two basic position, namely:

- When the Vocal folds are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Like voiceless that described sounds produce in this way.
- The air from the lungs repeatedly pushes the apart as it passes through, when the Vocal folds are drawn together. Which is created a vibration effect produce the sound In this way are described by voiced.

The distinction can be felt physically if you place a fingertip gently on the top of your Adams apple. Because these are voiced sounds. You should be able to feel some vibration. Now make the sounds S-S-S-S or F-F-F-F. because these are voiceless of course there is not vibration. Other way to put finger in each ear. Is not too far. And produce the voiced sounds (e.g. Z-Z-Z-Z) to hear and feel some vibration. Whereas no vibration will be heard or felt in the same way make voiceless sounds (e.g. S-S-S-S).

Place of Articulation

Please of articulation is most consonant sounds are produced by using part of mouth such as tongue and other. In some way the shape of the oral cavity through which the air pass. The location inside the mouth at which the construction takes place.

What we need is a slice of head If you crack a Heard right down the middle. To describe the place of articulation of most consonant sounds, we can start at the front of the mouth and work back. We can also keep the voiced-voiceless distinction in mind and begun using the symbols of the phonetic alphabet for spesific sounds. These symbols will be enclosed within square brackets

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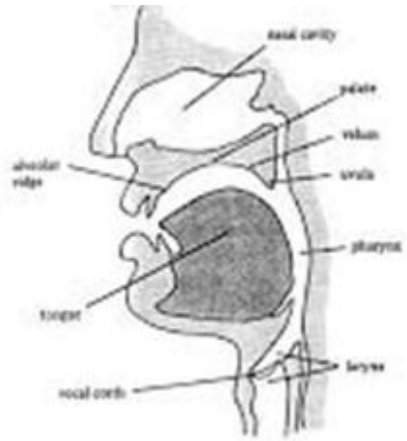


1. Bilabials

The sound that produce by the lip touch each other. The symbols of bilabials are [p], which is voiceless sound, [b] and [m] , which are voiced sounds. And also there's the (w) sound that found at the beginning way. For example *walk and world* as bilabial.

2. Labiodental

The sound that produce by the upper teeth touch the lower lip for example the initial sounds of the words *fat* and *vat* and the final sounds in the words *safe* and *save* are **labiodentals.** The symbols are (f) as voiceless and (v) as voiced. Notice that the final sound in the word *cough* , and the initial sound in *photo ,* despite the spelling differences, are both pronounced as (f).

3. Dental

The sound that produced with the tongue tip touch behind the upper teeth.the symbols used for this sound is "th" usually referred to as "theta." It's the symbols you would use for the first and last sounds in the phrase *three teeth.*

The voice in dental is represented by the symbol that usually called "eth." You will found this sound in the pronunciation of the initial sound of common words like *the,there,there,then* and *thus.* In the middle of consonants sound in *feather* and the final sound of *bathe.*

Sometimes the term "interdentals" these consonant using when they are pronounced with the tongue tip between the upper and lower teeth.

4. Alveolars

The sounds that produced with the front part of the tongue touch on the alveolar ridge, Which is the rough, bony ridge immediately behind and above the upper teeth. The symbols for these sounds are very easy to remember. The symbols are. (t),(d), (s) ,(z),(n). Of these, (t) and (s) are voiceless sounds whereas (d),(z) and (n) are voiced sounds.

5. Palatals

The sounds that produced with the tongue touch the palate are called palatals. If you feel back behind the alveolar ridge, you should find a hard part in the roof of your mouth. This is called the hard palate or just the palate. The symbol of palatals are "sh" and "ch". So, the word *shoe brush* begins and ends with the voiceless palatals sound.

6. Velars

The sound that produced with the back of the tongue against the velum. There's a Voiceless velar sound represented by the symbol (k), which occurs not only in kid and kill, but is also the initial sound in car and cold.

The voiced velar sound heard at the beginning of word like go, gun and give is represented by(g). This is also the final sound in words like bag, mug, and, despite the spelling, plague.

The velum can be lowered to allow air to flow through the nasal cavity and produce another voice velar.

7. Glottal

This sounds produce without using the active of the tongue and other parts of mouth, the symbol of sound is (h), for example *have, and house*. This sounds is usually described as a Voiceless. The space between the vocal folds in the larynx.

Charting Consonant Sounds

Having described in some detail the place of articulation of English consonant sounds. Along the top of the chart are different labels for place of articulation and, under each, the labels – V (*voiceless)* and +V (*voiced).* Also included in this chart, on the left -hand side, is a set of terms used to describe manner of articulation which we will discuss in the following section

	MANNER	VOICING	PLACE						
			Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Obstruent	Stop	Voiceless	p			t		k	ʔ
		Voiced	b			d		g	
	Fricative	Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
		Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
	Affricate	Voiceless					tʃ		
		Voiced					ʤ		
Sonorant	Nasal	Voiced	m			n		ŋ	
	Liquid Lateral	Voiced				l			
	Liquid Rhotic	Voiced					r (ɹ)		
	Glide	Voiced	w				j	(w)	

Limitation of the Chart

This chart is not too complete. It contains the majority of consonants sounds used in the basic description of English pronunciation.

Manner of Articulation

We have concentrated on describing consonant sounds in terms of where they are articulated.and the same sounds in terms how they are articulated. We have place in the same category. For example, we can say that (t) and (s) are both voiceless alveolar sounds. How to make its different? They differ in their manner of articulation, in the way they are pronounced. The one of a set of sound (t) called stops and one of set of sound (s) called fricatives.

Stops

Stop is resulting from a blocking or stopping effect on the air stream or we can called it "plosive" The sounds that we have already mentioned, the set (p), (b), (t), (d), (k), (g) these all sounds that produced by some form of "stopping" of the air stream.

Fricatives

The manner of articulation fricatives is blocking the air and having the air push. If you put your open hand in front of your mouth when making these sounds, (f) and (s) in particular, you should be able to feel the stream of air being pushed out. Fricatives is a type of friction that produced and resulting sounds.

Affricates
Affricates is stopping of the air stream with an obtracted release which causes some friction.

Nasals
Nasal is preventing airflow from entering the nasal cavity. However, when the velum is lowered and the air stream is allowed to flow out through the nose to produce (m), (n),(N).

Liquids
In liquids they are both voiced and is formed by letting the air stream flow around the sides of the tongue as the tip of the tongue makes contact with the middle of the alveolar ridge. The ® sound at the beginning of red is formed with the tongue tip raised and curled back near the alveolar.

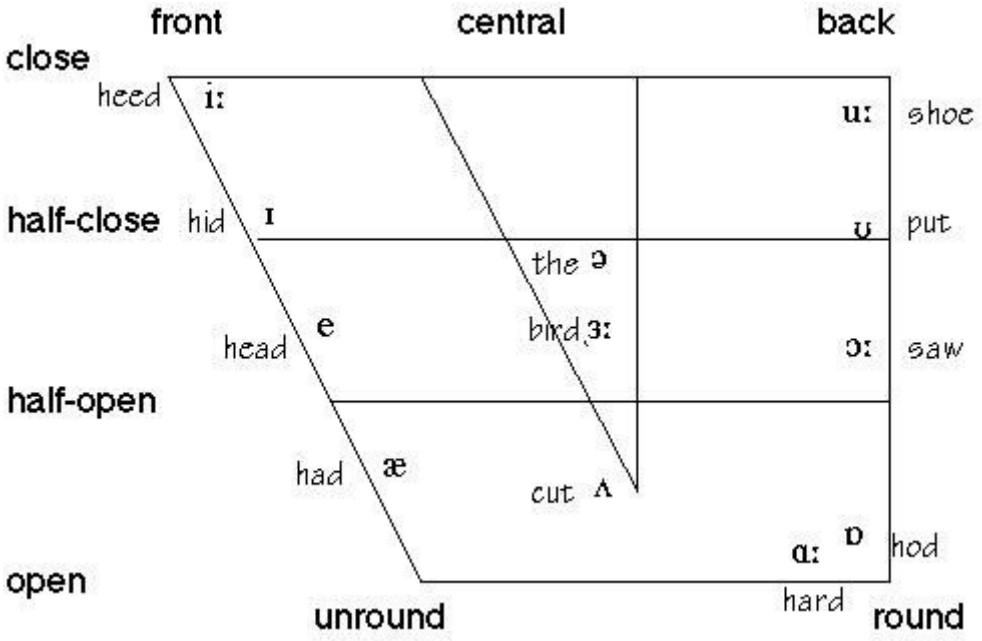
Glides
The sounds that are typically produced with the tongue in motion, the sounds (W) and (j) that described glides. They are both and occur at the beginning of *we, wet,* you and *yes.*

Glottal Stops and Flaps
There are common terms used to describe ways of pronouncing consonant which are not included in the chart presented earlier. Occurs when the space between the vocal folds (the glottis) is closed completely (very briefly, the released. Try saying the expression *oh oh!*. Between the first *Oh,* we typically produce a glottal sttop.

This rather lengthy list of the phone features of English consonant sounds is not presented as a challenge to your ability to memorize a lot of terminology and symbols.

Vowels
Vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. While the consonant sounds are mostly articulated via closure or obstruction in the vocal tract. In contrast, the vowel sound in hat is produced with the tongue in a lower position and the sound in ho can be described as a "low,back" lower.

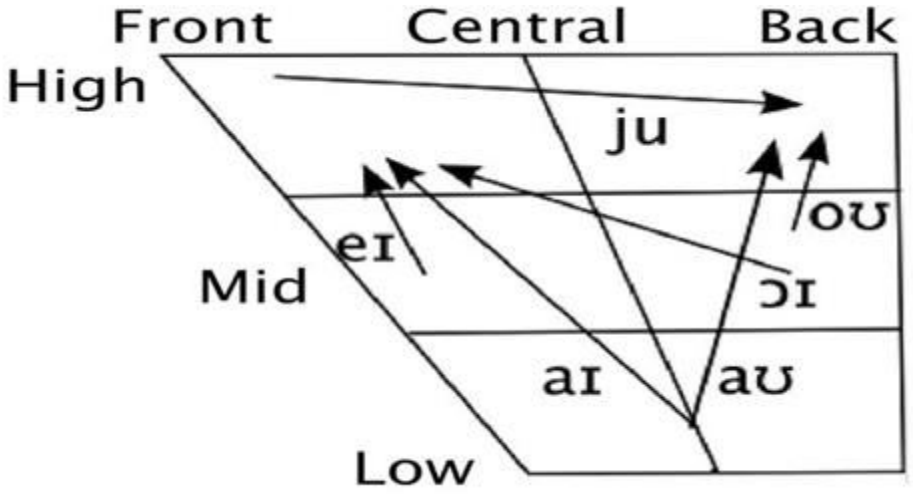
The terminology for describing vowel sounds in English example "high front " is usually based on their position is a chart.



Diphthongs

Known as diphthongs is when we produce diphthongs, our vocal organs move from vocalic position (a) to another (I) as we produce the sound (si)…as in *Hi* or *Bye.*

Some other varieties of English, they are only typically used as the first sounds of diphthongs in American English. The accompanying diagram provides a rough idea of how diphthongs are produced and is followed by a list of the sounds, with examples to illustrate some of the variation in the spelling of these sounds.



Subtle Individual Variation

There are many other variations in the actual physical articulation of the sounds we have considered here. The more we focus on the subtle difference in the actual articulation of each sound, the more likely we are to find ourselves describing the pronunciation of small groups or even individual speakers.

Project

When we concentrate on the articulation of sounds. It's easy to forget that people listening to those sounds often have clues to help them recognize what we're saying. In front of a mirror.

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CHAPTER 11

PHONOLOGY

Phonology is the branch of linguistic that studies how language or dialects systematically organize their sound. In the effect based on the theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously know about the patterns sound in that language. Because this theoretical status phonology is connected with abstract or mental aspect of the sound Than with the actual physical of articulation of speech sound. If we can understand the Bob Belviso's comic introduction to the story of goldllocks and the three bears quoted earlier, we have to use our phonological knowledge about the combinations of sound in English words to solve some unsual spellings of those words.

Phonology is also about the underlying design, the blue print of each sound type which serve for the constant basic of all the variations in different physical articulations of that sound type in different contexts. Like when we talk about [t] sound in the words *tar, star, writer and eight* is being same, it's mean that in phonology of English, they would be represent in the same way, but in actual speech, [t] sounds are all different.

How ever, all these articulation differences in [t] sound are less important to use than the distinction between the [t] sound in general and the [k] sound, or the [f] sound, or the [b] sound, because there are meaningful consequence related to the use of one rather than the others. These sound must be distinct meaningful sound, regardless of which individual vocal tract is being used to pronounce them, because they are what make the words tar, car, far and bar meaningfully distinct. Considered from this point of view, we can see that phonology is concerned with the abstract set of sound in a language that allows us to distinguish meaning in the actual physical sound we say and hear.

Phonemes

Phonemes is describing of each one of those meaning-distinguishing sound in a language. When we learn to use alphabet writing, we actually use the concept of the phoneme as the single stable sound type which is represented by a single written symbol. In this sense the phoneme / t / is described as a sound type which all the different spoken / t / is taken and usually slash mark are used to indicate a phoneme, / t / an abstract segment, as opposed to the square brackets, as in [t] used to each phonetic or produced physically segment.

An important property of a phoneme is contractive function. As we know that there are two phonemes / f / and / v / in English because they are the only basic of contrast in the meaning between the word *fat* and *vat* or in the word *fine* and *vine* . this contractive property is the basic operational test for determining the phoneme which is consist in a language. If we change one one sound to another sound in a word and changes the meaning, then two sound are have different phonemes. Basic phoneme in English are listed with consonant, vowel, and diphthong.

The technical terms used in creating charts can be called as " features " that distinguish each phoneme. If the feature is present, we mark it with a plus sign (+) and if it is not present, we use a minus sign (-) . / P / can be characterized as [-voice, + bilabil, + stop] and / K / as [- Voice. +Velar, +Stop], because these two sound share some features (both are voiceless stops), they are sometimes described as member of a natural sound. The prediction would be that sound which have features in common would behave phonologically in some similar ways. A sound which does not share those features would be expected to behave differently.

As example : / V / the features is [+Voice, +Labiodental, +Fricative] can not be in the same " Natural " class or sound as / P / and / K /. Although other factors will be involved, this features-

analysis could lead us to suspect that there are many be a good phonological reason why words beginning with / pl- / and / kl- / are common in English.

Phones and Allophones

Phones is describing different version of sound-type regularly produced in actual speech . phones are phonetic unit and appear in square brackets. When we have a set of phones, all of which are version of one phoneme. We add prefix "allo-" (one of a closely related set) and refer to them as **allophones** of that phoneme.

As example, the [t] sound in the word *tar* is normally pronounced with a stronger puff of air than it present in the [t] sound in the word *star*. if you put back of your hand in front of your mouth as you say *tar*, then *sta*r, you should be able to feel some physical evidence as aspiration (the puff of air) accompanying the [t] sound at the beginning of *tar* (but not in *star*). This aspirated version is represented more precisely as [t^h]. The [t] sound between vowels in s word like *writer* often become a flap, which we can represent as [D], word like *eight* / etθ /, the influence of final dental [θ] sound causes a dental articulation of the [t] sound. There are more variations of this sound which like [t^h] , [D] and [t] can be represented in a more precise way in a detailed, or narrow, phonetic transcription.

The crucial distinction between phonemes and allophones is that substituting one phoneme for another will result in a word with a different meaning, but substituting allophones only result in a different (and perhaps unusual) pronunciation of the same word.

Another example using a vowel, in English, there is a subtle difference in the pronunciation of / i / in the word see and seen. In the second word, the effect of nasal consonant [n] makes the [i] sound nasalized. We can represent this **nasalization** with a small mark (˜) which called as " tilde" over the symbol [î] in a narrow phonetic transcription. So, the are at least two phones, [i] and [î] used to realize the single phonemes. They are both allophones of / i / in English.

It is possible for two language to have the same pair of phonetic segments but to treat them differently. In English, the effect of nasalization on a vowel is treated as allophonic variation because the nasalized version is not meaningfully contrastive. Whether we try to say [sin] or [sîn], people will only recognize one word *seen*. In French [so] for the word *seau* (" pail ") contrast with [sõ] for the word son (" sound "), in this case, the distinction is phonemic.

Minimal Pairs and Sets

When two words such as *pat* and *bat* are identical in form except for a contrast in one phoneme, occurring in the same position, the two words are describe as a **minimal pair**. They would be classified as a minimal in the phonology of English. (like Arabic, does not have contrast between / p / and / d /. Another example of English minimal pairs are fan – van, bet – bat, site – side. Pair have traditionally been used in the teaching and testing of English as a second language or foreign language to help student develop the ability to understand the contrast in meaning based on the minimal sound contrast.

When a group of word can be differentiated, each one from the others, by changing one phoneme (always in the same position. In the word), then here we have a **minimal set.** As example , one minimal set based on the vowel phonemes of English could include *feat, fit, fate, fought, foot,* and another minimal set based on the consonant phonemes could have *big, pig, rig, fig, dig, wig*.

Phonotactics

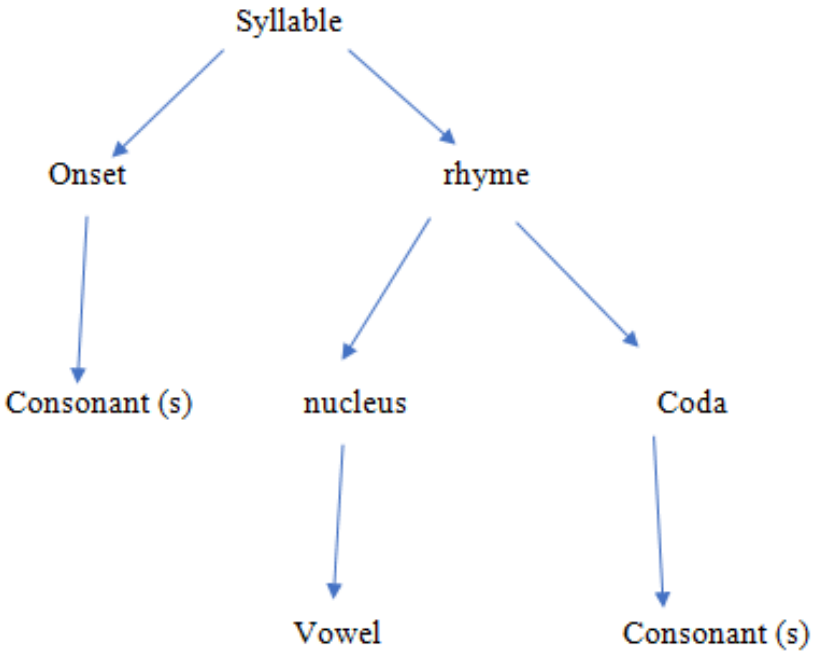
In English, the minimal set we have just listed does not include forms such as *lig* or *vig*, according to the dictionary, these are not English words, but they could be viewed as possible English word. Our phonological knowledge of the patterns of sound in English words would allow us to treat these forms as acceptable if at some future time, they came into use. For

example, begin as invented abbreviations (*I think bubba is one very ignorant guy* . ~ Yeah, he's a big vig !). Until then, they represent " accidental " gaps in the vocabulary of English.

It is, however, no accident that forms such as [fsIg] or [rnIg] do not exist or are unlikely ever to exist. They have been formed without obeying some constrain on the sequence or position of English phonemes. Such constrain are called the **phonotactics**.

Syllables

A syllables must be contain a vowel-like sound, including diphthongs. The most common type of syllable in language also has a consonant (C) before the vowel (V) and it is typically represent as CV. Technically, the basic elements of the syllable are the **onset** (one or more consonant) followed by **the rhyme.** The rhyme (sometime written as " rime ") consist of a vowel, which is treated as the nucleus, plus any following consonant (s), describe as **coda.**



Syllable *like me, to or no* have an onset and a nucleus, but no coda. They are known as **open syllable.** when a coda is present, as in the syllable *up, cup, at or that* they are called as **closed syllable**. the basic structure of the kind of syllable found in English word like green (CCVC), eggs (VCC) , and (VCC), ham (CVC), I (V) , do (CV), not (CVC), like (CVC), Them (CVC), sam (CVC), I (V), am (VC) is shown in the accompanying diagram.

Consonant Clusters

Both the onset and the coda can consist of more than one consonant, also known as a **consonant cluster.** The combination / st / is a consonant cluster (CC) used as onset in the word *stop*, and as coda in the word *post*.. there are many CC onset combination permitted in English phonotactic, as in *black, bread, trick, twin, flat and throw.* **Note that liquids (/ I / , / r / and a glide (/ w /) are being used in second position.**

English can actually have larger onset cluster, as in the words *stress* and *splat* , consisting of three initial consonant (CCC). The phonotactic of these larger onset consonant clusters is not too difficult to describe. The first consonant must always be / s /, followed by one of the voiceless stop (/ p / , / t / , / k /) and liquid or glide (/ I /, / r /, / w /). You can check if this description is adequate for the combinations in *splash, spring, strong, scream and square.*

Coarticulation Effects

In much of the preceding discussion, we have been describing speech sound in syllable and words as if they are always pronounced carefully and deliberated, almost in slow motion. Mostly our talk is fast and spontaneous, and it requires our articulators to move from one sound to the next without stopping,. The process of making one sound almost at the same time as the next sound is called **coarticulation.** There are two coarticculation effect, describe as assimilation and elision**.**

Assimilation

When two sound segments occurs in sequence and some Aspect of one of segement is taken or " copied " by the other, the process is known **as assimilation**. If we think of then physical production of speech, we realize that this regular process happens simply because it's quicker, easier and more efficient for our articulators as they do their job. Think of the have / hǽv / by itself, then think how it is pronounced in the phrase I have to go in everyday speech. In this phrase, as we start to say the / t / sound in to, which is voiceless, we tend to produce a voiceless version of the preceding sound, resulting in what sound more like / f / than / v /. So, we typically say [hǽfta] in this phrase and you may even see it written informally as " hafta ". Showing how the assimilation from a voiced to a voiceless sound is perceived.

Vowel are also subject to assimilation. In isolation, we would typically pronounce [I] and [ǽ] without any nasal quality at all. However, when we say words like *pin* and *pan* in everyday speech, the anticipation of forming the final nasal consonant will make it easier to go into the nasalized articulation in advance and consequently the vowel sound in these words will be, in more precise transcription, [î] and [ǽ] this is a very regular feature of English speakers' pronunciation. It is so regular, I fact, that a phonological rule can be stated in the following way: "any vowel becomes nasal whenever it immediately precedes a nasal ".

This type of assimilation process occurs in a variety of different contexts. By itself, the word can may be pronounced as [kǽn], but, when we say I can go, the influence of the following velar [g] will almost certainly make the preceding nasal sound come out as [ɳ] (the alveolar nasal). The most commonly observed conversational version of the phrase is [aIkəŋgɒʊ].

Elision

In the last example, illustration the normal pronunciation of *you* and *me*, the [d] sound of the word and was not in the transcription, that's because it isn't usually pronounced in this phrase. In the environment of a preceding nasal [n] and a following nasal [m], we simply don't devote speech energy to including the stop sound [d]. This isn't laziness, it's efficiency. There is also typically no [d] sound included in the everyday pronunciation of word like *friendship* [frɛnʃIp]. This process of not pronouncing a sound segment that might be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of word in isolation is described as **elison**. In consonant clusters, especially in coda position, / t / is a common casualty in this process, as in the typically pronunciation [æspɛks] for aspect, or in [himəsbi] for the phrase *he must be*. We can, of course, slowly and deliberately pronounce each part of the phrase *we asked him*, but the process of elision (of / k /) in casual conversation is likely to produce (wiǽstəm). Vowels also disappear, as in [ɛvri] for every, [IntrIst] for interest.

Normal Speech

These two processes of assimilation and elision occur in everyone's normal speech and should not be regarded as some type of sloppiness or laziness in speaking, in fact, consistently avoiding the regular patterns of assimilation and elision used in a language would result in extremely artificial- sounding talk. The point of investigating these phonological process is not to arrive at a set of rules about how a language should be pronounced, but to try to come to an understanding of the regularities and patterns which underline the actual use of the sound in language .

Study Questions

1. What is the difference between a phoneme and an allophone?
2. What is an aspirated sound and which of the following words would normally be pronounced with one: *kill, poll, skill, spool, stop, top?*
3. What is the meant by the phonotactics of a language?
4. What is the difference between an open and closed syllable?

Bob Belviso translated

One attempt to interpret those very unusual spelling might be as follows:

Once upon a time there was bears; mama bear, papa bear, and baby bear. Live in the country near the forest. NICE HOSE . No mortgage. One day papa, mama, and baby go beach, only they forget to lock the door.

By and by goldilocks. She got nothing to do but make trouble. She push all the food down the mouth; no leave a crumb. Then she goes upstairs and sleeps in all the beds.

Resumed by; Titania

CHAPTER 12

FIRST LANGUANGE ACQUISITION

First languange acquistion is ramerkable for the speed with whichit takes place. Long before achild starrts school her or she become anextremely sophisticated languange user.operrating a system for self expression and comonication that no a other creakture orcomputer comes clouse to mmatching in iddition to th speed of acqusition the fact that it generelly occurs withot over instruksion for oll children regardless of great diferebces in ther circumstacer provides strong support for the idea that there is an innate predisposition in the humman infant to acquire languange . we can think of this as a special capacitiy for languange with wich eacch nemborn child a capacity is not enough

ACQUISITION

The porcess of languange acquistion has some basic requrements .during the fist two or three years of devoment a child requeres intraction with other languange user in onder to bring the general languange capacity into contec with a particuler languange such as english. We have ready seen in the case of ganie. That child who does not hear or is not allowed to use languange will learn no languange .we have also indentified the inportance of cultural tranmission. Meaning that the particular languange a child lesrns is not genertically interited but acquired in a particuler languange using everonment

The child must also be physically capable of sending and receiving sound signals in a languange. All infant make "cooing"and" babbling"noises during the fist year but congetaly deaf infant stop after about six mount so in order to speak languange a child must be able to hear that languange being used. By self however hearleng languange sound is not enough. On case reported by moskawid {1991}demonstrated that .with deaf perent who cafe their normal hearing sound ample exposure to television and radio, program, the boy did not achquire an ability to speak or understand english. What he did learn very effectively, by the age of there, was the use of american sing language, that is the language he used to interraxtive with his parent. A crucial requirement appreas to be the opportunity to interrac with others via language

INPUT

Under normal circumstances, human infants are certainly helped in their language acquistions by the typical behavior of older children and adults in the home and environment who provide language samples, or input, for the child.

Silient features of this type of speech (also called "moderesse" or "childerected speech") are the frequnt use of question, oofte, using exagger intonation, extra launess and a slower tempo with longer pauses. In the early stages, this type of speech also incorporates a lot of forms associated with " baby talk".

Built iinto a lot of ceregifer speech is a type of corversational structure that seems to assign an interrative role to the young child event before he or she becomes a speaking participant. This example is from brunner, 1983.

Mother: look!

Child: (thouches pictures)

Motgger: what are those?

Child: (vicalizes a babble string and smiles)

Mother: yes, there are rabbits

Child: (vocalizes, smiles, looks up at mother)

Mother: (laughs) yes, rabbit.

Child: (vocalizes, smiles)

Mother: yes, (laughs)

THEACQUISITION SCHEDULE

Since we cold say the same thing for sitting up, crawling ,standing ,walking ,using the hand and many other phycical activitis ,it wold seem the languange acquisition scdule has the same basis is the biollogical determined development of motor skill.this biological achedule isted verymuch tothe maturtion of the infant brain

COOING AND BABBLING

The early used of speecd like sound has been diskcribed as cooing .during the first few mont of life ,the child gradually becomes caple of producing sequences of vowel like sound particulery higt vowel smilar to {i}and {u}

Between six and eight mounts the child is sitting up producing a number of different vowels and consunant as well as combination such as ba ba ba and ga ga ga.this type of sonud prodution is discripsi as babbling stage around nine to the mounths

This late babbling stage is chareteristyc more example sylebble combination {ma da ga ba } a lot of sound provides and atempet imatation this “prelanguange”

THE ONE WORD STAGE

Between twelve and eighteen mount .children begin to producen a varity ofrecognis able singe unit utrance.this preod traditional called the one wont stage is careteristic by speech in wich singel term are uttere d for everyday objek sun as “milk””cookie ”and”cat ””cup”spoon”{usully prounoun {pun}}.

THETWO WORD STAGE

What ever it is that the child actually intends to comonicatif trout suchexprension the sgnifikan funtionalconcetuikhdhjl ae that the adult behafes as if commun nication is taking pleace .that is ,the child not only produces ,but also receives feedback conmfirning that the uterance worked as contribusi to the in trak tion morever by the age of two wwther the cild is producing 200 or 300 distik “words ”he or she will be capable of undertanding fime times as many and will trypical be traited as an training conversitionl patner by principle xaregiver

TELEGRAPHIC SPEECH

Between two and two and a helf years old the child begin producing a large number of utterances that could be clsifik “multiple word ”speech. This is charestirisk by strengi of word {lexical morphemes }in prases or stene such as this shoe all well , cat drink milk and daddy go bye bye

THE ACQUISITION PROCESS

As the linguistik repertoir of the child increases it is often assumed that the child is in some sense , being “taught” the language It is splaynot posible that the child is aquiring the languange prinpacipally thought theprocess of imitating adult spech. Cartaily ,children an be heard to repead person of what a doul say on accasition and the are clearly in the porcess of adopthinhg a lot of vocoblary from the spech they here .however ,adults simply do not produce many ofthe wxpressinon that turn up in children speech .notice how in the flowing extra {from clark 1993} the child creattes a totally new verb in the contex this example :

Noah:{picking up a to dog}this is wood stok .

{he bobs the toy in adam face }

Adam :hey wook stock, dont do that

{noah persets}

Adam:l am going home so you wont wood stock me

It is olso unlikely that adult "correction "are avery effective determener of how the chilkd a speack. A lot very amusing convercatinal snippets, invonving an adult attemmpt to correck a child speech, seem to demonstrte the hopelessness of the task for example:

Child: my teacher holded the baby rabbits and we patted them

Mother: did you say your teacher held the baby rabbits?

Child:yes

mother:what did you say she did?

Child: she hulded the baby and we patted them

Mother: did you say she held them tightly ?

Child:no. She holded them loosely.

DEVELOPING MORPHOLOGY

by the time a child is and two ahalf yearsold, her or she is going beyond telegraphic speech form and pncorporrating of the inflektional morphomes that indicate the grammaticalfunction of the noun and verb used.

The next morphological development is typcally the marking of reguler pluras with the s from , is boys and cat. The acquisition of the plural marker is often accompanied by process of overgenera lization ,not long after the used of the posessive inflektion occurs in expression such girl dog and mommy s book

DEVELOPING SYNTAX

Smilar evidence aginst "imitation "as the basis the child speech production hes been found in studises of thet stntetic strukture used by young children on child specically asket to repeat what she heard, wouid listen to an adult say from such as the owl who eat candi runs fast and the rapeat them in the from owl eat candy and he run fast

FORMING QUESTIONS

In forming guestion the child fist stage has two prcedures.simply add a wh from{where, who }example

where kitty ?

doggie?

In the second stage more complex expression can be formed example:

What book name?

You want eat?

In the third atge ,the requered movent of the auxxiliaryin english question exampls:

Can l have a piece?

Did l caught it?

FORMING NEGATIVE

In the case of negative stage l seems to involve a strategy of putting no or not a the beggining as in these example:

No mitten not ateddy bear no fallno sitthere

In the second stage the additional negative from dont and cant appear sand with no and not example:

He no bite you l dont want it

The third stage sees incorporation of other auxelery forms such as didnt and wont whilethe typcal stage 1 froms disappearexample:

didint caugth it he not taking it

DEVELOPING SEMANTICES

Theenecdotes parents retell about their child early speech to the inense emberrasment of the gown up child usuly involve example of the stage use of words, one child fiused bow wow to refer to dog and then to a for apiece with a glass eyes, a set of acufflink and even abath thermometer

This porses is collek overection and the moust common pettern is for the child to overecten the meaning of aword on the basis of semilaritifs pf shape, sound and size, and leser exten, movement and texture

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CHAPTER 13

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

A distinction is sometimes made between learning in a "foreign language" settimg (learning a language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding commonity) and a "second language" setting (learning a language that is spoken in the surrounding community). That is, japanese students in an english class in japan are learning English as foreign language (EFL) and, if those same students werw in an english class in the USA, they would be learning englis as a second language (ESL).

- **Acquisition And Learning**

A more significant distinction is made between acquisition and learning. The term **acquisition** is used to referto the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situation with others who know the language.

Activities associated with learning have traditionally been used in language teaching in school and have a tendency, when successful, to result in more knowledge "about" the language (as demonstrated in test) than fluency in actually using the language (as demonstrated in social interaction. Activities associated with acquisition are those experienced by the young child and, by analogy, those who "pick up" a second language from long periods spent in iteraction, constantly using the language, with native speakers of the language.

- **Acquisition Barriers**

For most people, the experience with an L2 is fundamentally different from their L1 experience and it is hardly conducive to acquisition.

However, even in ideal acquisition situation, very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using an L2, there are individuals who can achieve great expertisein the witten language, But not the spoken language.

Againts this view, it has been demonstrated that students in their early teens are quicker and more effective L2 learners in the classroom than, for example, seven-year-olds.

- **Affective Factors**

Yet even during this proposed optimum age for L2 learning, there may exist an acquisition barrier of quite a different kind. Teenagers are typically much more self-conscious than younger children.

This type of emotional reaction, or "affect," may also be caused by dull tektbooks, unpleasant classroom surroundings or an exhausting schedule of study and/or work. All these negative feelings or experiences are **affective factor** that can create a barrier to acquisition. Basically, if we are stressed, uncomfortable, self-conscious or unmotivated, we are unlikely to learn very much.

Children seen to be less constarned by affective factors, descriptions of L2 acquisition in childhood are full of instances whereyoung children quickly overcome their inhibitions as they try to use new words and phrases.

Focus on Method

Despite all these barriers, the need for instruction in other languages has led to a variety of educational approaches and methods aimed at fostering L2 learning. As long ago as 1483, william caxton used his newly established printing press to produce a book of *right good lernyng for to lerne shortly frenssh and englyssh*.

➢ **The Gammar-Translation Method**

The most traditional approach is to treat L2 learning in the same way as any other academic subject. This method has its roots in the traditional teaching of latin and is described as the **grammar-translation method**. Altrough this method clearly produced many successfull L2 users over the centuries, it is sometimes claimed that students can leave school, having achieved high grades in french class via this method, yet find themselves at a loss when confronted by the way the french in france actually use their language.

➢ **The Audiolingual Method**

A very different approach, emphasizing the spoken language, bacame popular in the middle of the twentieth century. This approach, called the **audiolingual method**, was strongly influenced by a beliefthat the fluent use of a language was essentially a set of "habits" spent in a language laboratory repeating oral drills.

➢ **Communicative Approaches**

More recent revisions of the L2 learning experience can best be described as **communicative approaches**. The are partially a reaction against the artificiality of "pattern-practice" and also against the belief that consciously learning the grammar rules of language will necessarily result in an ability to use the language. Classroom lessons are likely to be organized around conceps such as "asking for things" in defferent social settings, rather than "the forms of the past tense" in defferent sentences.

Focus on the Learner

The most fundemental change in the area of L2 learning in recent years has been 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.

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 (which can be remedied trough extra practice of the correct form), we can look at this utterance as an indication of the natural L2 acquisition procces in action.

➢ **Transfer**

Of course, some errors may be due to "transfer" (also called "crosslinguistic influence"). **Transfer** means using sounds, expressions or stuctures 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 contructions.

➢ **Interlanguage**

On close inspection, 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. Evidence of this sort suggests that there is some in-between system used in the L2 acquisition process that certainly contains aspects of the L1 and L2, but which is an inherently variable system with rules of its own. This system is called an **interlanguage** and it is now considered to be the basis of all L2 production.

If some learners develop a fairly fixed repertoire of L2 expression, containing many forms tha do not match the target language, and seem not to be progressing any further, their interlanguage is said to have "fossilized".

- **Motivation**

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 publication, but not really for any social purposes.

It is also worth noting that those who experience some success in L2 communication are among the most motivated to learn. So, motivation may be us much a result of success as a cause.

- **Input and Output**

The term input is used, as in L1 acquisition (see chapter 13), to describe the language that the learner is exposed to.

Native speakers of english may try to aks an international student *how are you getting on in your studies?*, but, if not understood, may switch to *english class, you like it?* This type of foreigner talk may be beneficial, not only for immediate communicative success, but also for profiding the begining learner with clearer and comprehensible examples of the basic structure of the L2 as input.

In the following interaction (from pica *et al.,*1991), notice how the learner, a non-native speaker (NNS) of English, and the English native speaker (NS) negotiate meaning together. The comprehensible input (i.e. using the word *triangle* to describe a shape) is provided at a point where the learner needs it and is paying attention to the meaning in context.

NS: *like part of a triangle?*

NNS: *what is triangle?*

NS: *a triangle is a shape um it has three sides*

NNS: *a peak?*

NS: *three straight sides*

NNS: *a peak?*

NS: *yes it does look like a mountain peak, yes*

NNS: *only line only line?*

NS: *okay two of them, right? One on each side? A line on each side?*

NNS: *yes*

NS: *little lines on each side?*

NNS: *yes*

NS: *like a mountain?*

NNS: *yes*

In this type of interaction, the learner experiences the benefits of both receiving input (hearing the L2) and producing output (speaking the L2).

The goal of such activities is not that the learners will know more about the L2, but that they will develop communucative competence in the L2.

Communicative Competence

Communicative competencecan be devined as the general ability to use language accurately, appropriately, and flexibly. The first component is grammatical competence, which invloves the accurate use of words and structures.

The ability to use appropriate language is the second component, called sosiolinguistic *competence*. It enables the learner to know when to say *Can I have some water?* versus *Give me some water!* accorsding to the social context.

The third component is called strategic competence. This is the ability to organize a massage effectively and to compensate, via strategies, for any difficulties. Some learners may just stop talking (bad idea), whereas others will try to express themselves using a communication strategy (good idea). For example, a dutch L1 speaker wanted to refer to *en hoefizer* 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 (*horsesoes*). This flexibility in L2 use is a key element in communicative success. In essence, strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problem in interaction.

Applied Linguistics

In attempting to investigate the complex nature of L2 learning, we have to appeal to ideas not only from linguistic analysis, but from other fields such as communication studies, education, psychology and sociology. This large-scale endeavor is often describe as applied linguistics. Bacause it represents an attemp to deal with a large range of practical issues invloving language (not only L2 learning), applied linguistics has created connections with fields as diverse as anthropology (see Chapter 20), neurolinguistics (Chapter 12), social psychology (Chapter 19) and sign language studies (next chapter).

CHAPTER 14

LANGUAGE AND THE BRAIN

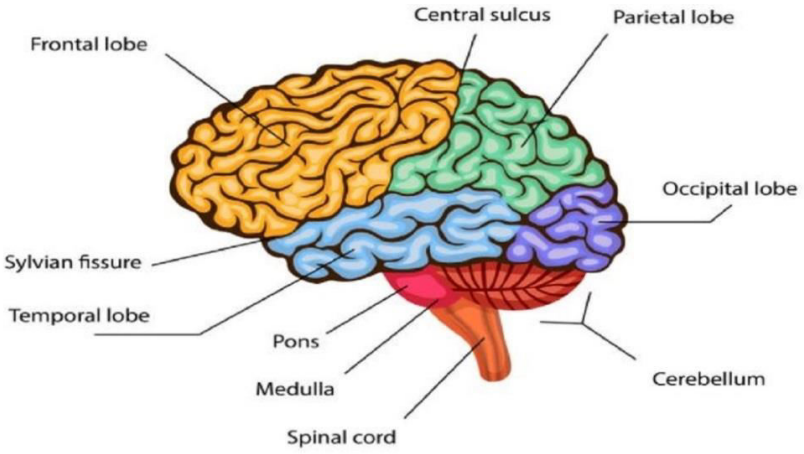
In previous chapters we have studied in detail the various elements of language that people use to generate and understand linguistic messages.

Simply, language can be interpreted as a tool to convey something that comes from the heart and mind. However, in general language can be interpreted as a tool for communicating and interacting with other people, both for conveying ideas, thoughts, and feelings. And language can also introduce the identity, symbol, and customs of a country. As the saying goes whith language then we can unite a nation.

There are several definitions of **language** according to experts:

- Algeo (2005): A language is a system of conventional vocal signs by means of which human beings communicate. This definition has several important terms, each of which is examined in some detail, those terms are system, signs, vocal, conventional, human, and communicate.
- Syamsuddin (1986): He gives two meanings of language. First, language is a tool used to shape thoughts and feelings, desires and actions. The tool used for language is a clear sign of influencing and being influenced. Second, good and bad personality, a clear sign of the family and nation, a clear sign of the human mind.
- Walija (1996): reveals the definition of Language is the most complete and effective communication to convey ideas, message, intentions, feelings and opinions to others.
- Wibowo (2001): language is a system of sound symbols that are meaningful and articulate (produced by the speech organs) that are arbitrary and conventional, which are used as a means of communication by a group of people to give birth to feelings and thoughts.

And the definition of the brain is the computer center of all organs of the body, which is located in the cranial cavity (cranium) which is covered by a strong brain membrane. Therefore, the brain is a very important organ of the body.



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Neurolinguistics

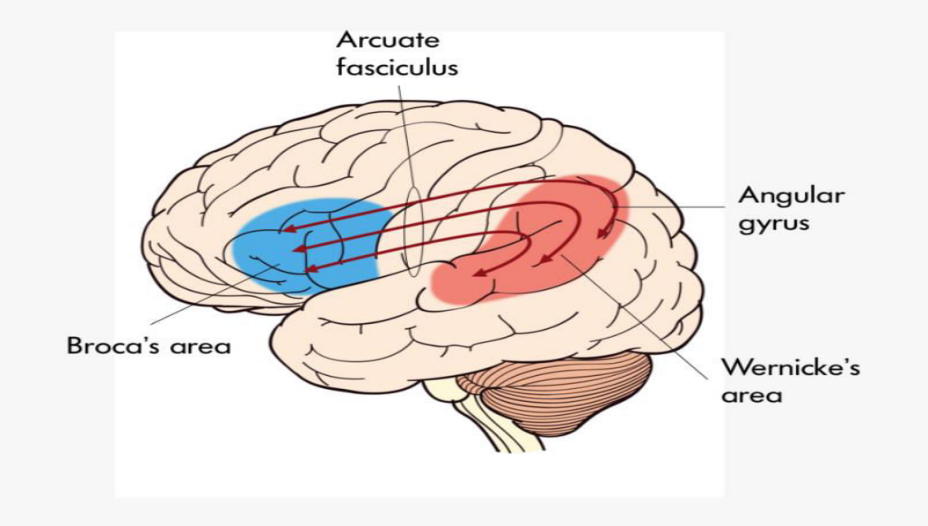
Since the nineteenth century, the study of the relationship between language and the brain is called ***neurolinguis-tics.*** Although this is a relatively recent term. Establishing the location of language in the brain was an early challenge that was not easy.

There was an incident that happened to Phineas P. Gage, in September 1848, near cavendish, Vermont, and provided a clue. The medical evidence was clear. A huge metal rod had gone through the front part of Mr.Gage's brain, but his language abilities were unaffected. He was a medical marvel. The point of this rather amazing tale is that, while language may be located in the brain, it clearly is not situated right at the front.

Language Areas in the Brain

Since that the incident, a number of discoveries have been made about the specific parts in the brain that are related to language functions. We knos that the most important parts are in areas above the left ear. 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 (adapted from Geschwind, 1991).

In this illustration indicate the general locations of those language functions involved in speaking and listening. That is, 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.



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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 not 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. Broca's area is part of the left hemisphere and has the function of producing language.

Wernicke's Area

The part shown as (2) is the wernicke's area. Carl Wernicke was a German doctor who, in the 1870s, reported that damage to this part of the brain was found among patients who had speech comprehension difficulties. 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. So, in general Wernicke's area is understanding of a language.

The Motor Cortex
The part shown as (3) is the motor cortex. Motor cortex is an area that generally controls movement of the muscles (for moving hands, feet, arms, etc) or control body movements or expressions. 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
The part shown as (4) is the arcuate fasciculus. This was also one of Wernicke's discoveries and is now known to form a crucial connection between the Wernicke's and Broc''s area.

The Localization View
The localization view is that the brain activity involved in hearing a word, understandingit, then saying it, would follow a definite pattern. The word is heard and comprehended via Wernicke's area. A signal is then sent to part of the motor cortex to physically articulate the word.

Tongue Tips and Slips

The Tip of the Tongue Phenomenon
The tip of the tongue phenomenon in which we feel that some word is just eluding us, that we know the word, but just won't come to the surface. When we make a mistakes in this retrieval process, the are often strong phonological similarities between the target word we're traying to say and the mistake we actually produce. For example, speakers produced *secant, sexted*, and *sexton* when asked to name a particular type of navigational instrument (*sextant).* Mistakes of this type are sometimes referred to as **malapropisms** after a character called Mr. Malaprop (in a play by Sheridan) who consistently produced "near-misses" for words, with great comic effect.

Slips of the Tongue
Another type of speech error is commonly described as a slip of the tongue. Slips of this type are sometimes called **spoonerisms** after William Spooner, an Anglican clergyman at Oxford University, who was renowned for his tongue-slips. Although the slips are mostly treated as errors of articulation, it has been suggested that they may result form "slips of the brain" as it tries to organize linguistic messages.

Slips of the Ear
Slips of the ear is pne other type of slip may provide some clues to how the brain tries to make sense of the auditory signal it receives. Some of these humorous examples of slips may give us a clue to the normal working of the human brain as it copes with language. However, some problems with language production and comprehension are the result of much more serious disorder in brain function.

Aphasia
Aphasia is defined as an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage that leads to difficulty in understanding and producing linguistic form. Consequenly, the classification of different type of aphasia is usually based on the primary symptoms of someone having difficulties with language.

Broca's Aphasia
The serious language disorder known as broca's aphasia also called "motor aphasia" is characterized by a substantially reduced amount of speech, distorted articulation and slow, often effortful speech.

The following is an example of a sentence produced by someone whose aphasia is not severe; *I eggs and eat and drink coffee breakfast*

In broca's aphasia , comprehension is typically much better than production.

Wernicke's Aphasia

The type of language disorder that resultsin difficulties in auditory comprehension is called wernicke's aphasia or "sensory aphasia". Someone suffering from this disorder can actually produce very fluent speech which is, however, often difficult to make sense of.

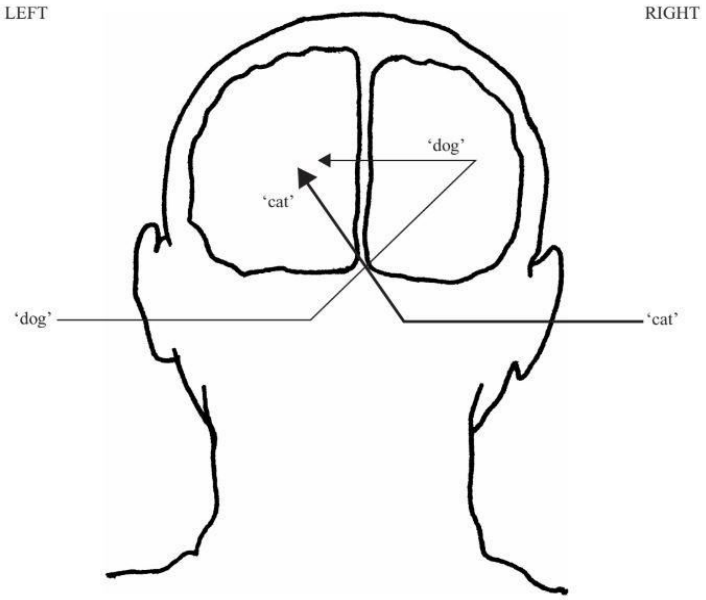
Difficulty in finding the correct word, sometimes referred to as **anomia**, also happens in wernicke's aphasia. To overcome their word-finding difficulties, speakers use different strategies such as trying to describe objects or talking about their purpose, as in the tting to put cigarettes in (for"ashtray").

Conduction Aphasia

Type of aphasia has been associated with damage to the arcuate fasciculus and is called **conduction apahasia**. Individuals suffering from this disorder sometimes mispronounce word, but typically do not have articulation problems. What the speaker hears and understands can't be transferred very successfully to the speech production area. Difficulties in speaking can also be accompanied by difficulties in writing. Impairment of auditory comprehension tends to be accompanied by reading difficulties.

Dichotic Listening

The dichotic listening test is an experimental technique that has demonstrated a left hemisphere dominance fpr syllable and word processing. This technique uses the generally established fact that anything experienced on the right-hand side of the body is processed in the left hemisphere. So, a basic assumption would be that a signal coming in the right ear will go to the left hemisphere and a signal coming in the left ear will got to the right hemisphere.



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When asked to say what was heard, the subject more often correctly identifies the sound that came via the right ear. This is known as **the right ear advantage** for linguistic sounds. The essential distintion seems to be between analytic processing, such as recognizing the smaller details of sounds, words and phrase structures in rapid sequence, done with the "left brain", and holistic processing, such as identifying more general structures in language and experience, done with the "right brain".

The Critical Period

The apparent specialization of the left hemisphere for language is usually described in terms of literal dominance or lateralization "one-sidedness". It is generally thought that the lateralization process begins in early childhood. During childhood, there is a period when the human brain is most ready to receive input and learn a particular language. This is sometimes called the "sensitive period" for language acquisition, but is more generally known as the critical period. The general view is that the critical period for first language acquisition lasts from birth to puberty.

Genie

In 1970 , a girl who became known as "genie" was admitted to a children's hospital in los angeles. Genie was unable to use language when she was first brought into care. However, within a short period of time, she began to respond to the speech of others, to try to imitate sounds and to communicate. Her syntax remained very simple. In genie's case, tests demonstrated that she had no left hemisphere language facility. Such a finding, supported by other studies of right brain function, raises the possibility that our capacity for language is not limited to only one or two specific areas, but is based on more complex connections extending throughout the whole brain.

CHAPTER 15

SYNTAX

The word "syntax" comes originally from Greek and literally means "a putting together" or "arrangement." In more recent attempts to analyze syntactic structure, there has been a greater focus on the underlying rule system that we use to produce or "generate" sentences.

Syntax

When we have an effective rule such as "a prepositional phrase in English consists of a preposition followed by a noun phrase," we can imagine an extremely large number of English phrases that could be produced using this rule. In fact, the potential number is unlimited. This reflects another goal of syntactic analysis, which is to have 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. This 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: first, how some superficially different sentences are closely related and, second, how some superficially similar sentences are in fact different.

Deep and Surface Structure

Surface structure is the different syntactic forms they have as individual English sentences. The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented.

Example:

Charlie broke the window.

The window was broken by Charlie.

In traditional grammar, the first is called an active sentence, focusing on what Charlie did, and the second is a passive sentence, focusing on The window and what happened to it.

Structural Ambiguity

Phrases can also be structurally ambiguous, as in expressions like small boys and girls. The underlying interpretation can be either "small boys and (small) girls" or "small boys and (all) girls. Our syntactic analysis will have to be capable of showing the structural distinction between these underlying representations.

Recursion

Recursive ("repeatable any number times") rules have the capacity to be applied more than once in generating a structure.

Basically, the grammar will have to capture the fact that a sentence can have another sentence inside it or that a phrase can be repeated as often as required. We should note that recursion of this type is not only a feature of grammar, but can also be an essential part of a theory of cosmic structure, as in the role of turtles in one little old lady's view of the universe (in the introductory quotation).

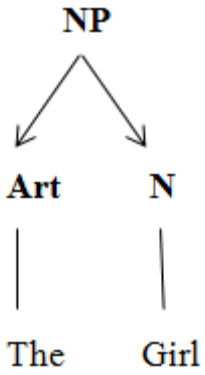
Tree Diagram

One of the most common ways to create a visual representation of syntactic structure 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. So, we can take the information in a labeled and bracketed format, shown on the left, and present it in a tree diagram, shown on the right.

It also shows very explicitly that there are different levels in the analysis. That is, there is a level of analysis at which a constituent such as NP is represented and a different, lower, level at which a constituent such as N is represented. This type of hierarchical organization can be illustrated in a tree diagram for a whole sentence, beginning at the top with S.

If we start 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). Finally, one word is selected that fits the label Art (the) and another that fits N (girl). You can go through the same procedure with the VP branches.



Symbols Used in Syntactic Analysis

Some symbols that are used as abbreviations for syn tactic categories. Examples are "S" (= sentence), "NP" (= noun phrase), "N" noun), "Art" (= article), "V" (= verb) and "VP" (= verb phrase). Others, such as "PP" (= prepositional phrase), seem fairly transparent. There are three more symbols that are commonly used in syntactic description.

The first is in the form of an arrow →. It can be interpreted as "consists of" or "rewrites as."The second symbol is a pair of round brackets (). Whatever occurs inside these round brackets will be treated as an optional constituent.

When we want to use a noun phrase in English, we can include an adjective (Adj) such as small, but we don't have to. It's an optional constituent in a grammatically well-formed noun phrase. The third symbol is in the form of curly brackets { }.These indicate that only one of the elements enclosed within the curly brackets must be selected. We use these types of brackets when we want to indicate that there is a choice from two or more constituents.

It is important to remember that, although there are three constituents inside these curly brackets, only one of them can be selected on any occasion.

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

Phrase Structure Rules

This second approach is very appealing because it would enable us to generate a very large number of sentences with what look like a very small number of rules. These rules are called phrase structure rules. As the name suggests, these rules state that the structure of a phrase of a specific type will consist of one or more constituents in a particular order. We can use phrase structure rules to present the information of the tree diagram in another format. That is, the information shown in the tree diagram on the left can be expressed in the phrase structure rule on the right.

According to this rule, "a noun phrase rewrites as an article followed by a noun." The first rule in the following set of simple (and necessarily incomplete) phrase structure rules states that "a sentence rewrites as a noun phrase and a verb phrase.". The second rule states that "a noun phrase rewrites as either an article plus an optional adjective plus a noun, or a pronoun, or a proper noun." The other rules follow a similar pattern.

SNP → VP

NP → {Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}

VP → V NP (PP) (Adv)

PP → Prep NP

Lexical Rules

We also need lexical rules that specify which words can be used when we rewrite constituents such as N. The first rule in the following set states that "a proper noun rewrites as Mary or George." (It's a very small world.)

PN (Mary, George}

N→ {girl, dog, boy}

Art → {a, the}

Pro{it, you}

V {followed, helped, saw}

Movement Rules

The very small set of phrase structure rules just described is a sample of what a more complex phrase structure grammar of English, with many more parts, would look like. These rules can be treated as a representation of the underlying or deep structures of sentences in English. One feature of these underlying structures is that they will generate sentences with a fixed word order. That is convenient for creating declarative forms (You will help Mary), but not for making interrogative forms, as used in ques- tions (Will you help Mary?). In making the question, we move one part of the structure to a different position. This process is based on a **movement rule.**

Talk about this process, we need to expand our phrase structure rules to include an auxiliary verb (Aux) as part of the sentence. This is illustrated in the first rewrite rule below. Auxiliary verbs (sometimes described as "helping" verbs) take different forms in English, but one well-known set can be included in the rudimentary lexical rule for Aux below. We also need a lexical rule that specifies the basic forms of the verbs, shown as the third rewrite rule below.

S → NP Aux VP

Aux →{can, could, should, will, would}

V →follow, help, see}

Back to Recursion

We actually need to be able to include sentence structures within other sentence structures. In traditional grammar, these "sentence structures" were described as "clauses." for example, that Mary helped George is a sentence. We can put this sentence inside another sentence beginning Cathy knew that [Mary helped George]. And, being tedi- ously recursive, we can put this sentence inside another sentence beginning John believed that [Cathy knew that [Mary helped George]].

In these sentences, two new proper nouns and two new verbs have been used. We have to expand our earlier set of lexical rules to include PN→ {John, Cathy} and V→ {believed, knew}. After verbs such as believe and know, as in these examples, the word that introduces a complement phrase.

Mary helped George.

Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

Complement Phrases

The word that, as used in these examples, is called a complementizer (C). The role of that as a complementizer is to introduce a complement phrase (CP). For example, in the second sentence (Cathy knew...), we can identify one CP which contains that plus Mary helped George. We already know that Mary helped George is a sentence (S). So, we are now in a position to define a CP in the following way: "a complement phrase rewrites as a complementizer and a sentence," or CP → CS.

We can also see from the same sentence that the complement phrase (CP) comes after a verb (V) knew. This means that we are using the CP as part of a verb phrase (VP), as in knew that Mary helped George. So, there must be another rule that says: "a verb phrase rewrites as a verb and complement phrase," or VP → V CP.

If we now look at these two new rules in conjunction with an earlier rule, we can see how recursion is built into the grammar.

S → NP VP

VP →V CP

CP → CS

We begin with S on the left and, as we rewrite symbols, we eventually have S on the right, allowing us to go back to the beginning and go through the set of rules again (and again).

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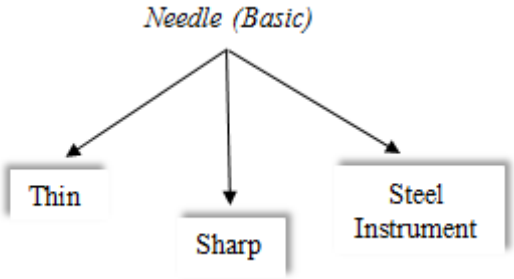
CHAPTER 16

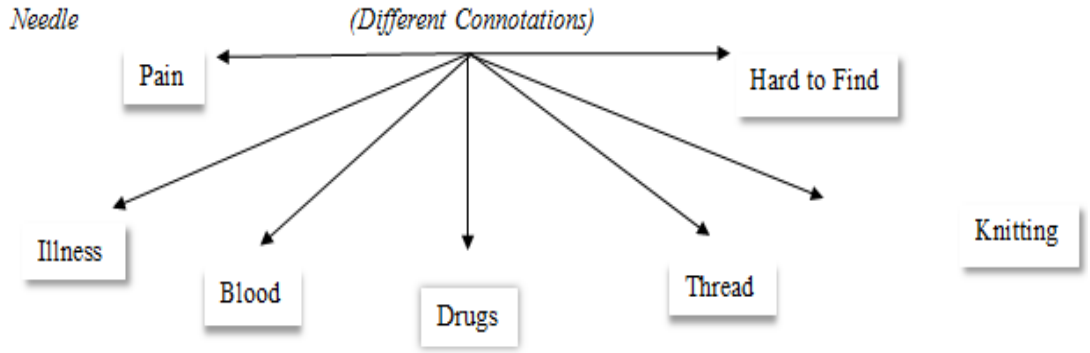
SEMANTICS

Semantics- *is the general term for the study of words, phrases, and sentences.* When we behave as though we are in agreement on the meaning of a word, phrase, or sentence in a language, we are doing semantics, which aims to explain what it is that we all understand. While semantics is the study of meaning in language, certain elements of meaning are more interesting than others. We have already ruled out any particular interpretations that one person may give words. We may go even farther and draw a clear line between ***conceptual meaning*** and ***associative meaning***.

Conceptual 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 and designed to describe. For example;



These components would be apart 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;



*hard to find (especially in a haystack)

These association may differ from one person to another (person). These types of associations are not treated as part of the word's conceptual meaning. Poets, song-writers, novelists, literary critics, advertisers and lovers may all be interested in how word can evoke certains aspects of associative meaning, but in linguistics semantics we're more concerned with trying to analysze conceptual meaning.

SEMANTICS FEATURES

One way that the study of fundamental conceptual meaning can be beneficial is when used as a method to explain the "oddness" we experience when reading phrases like the ones that follow;

The hamburger ate the boy.

The table listens to the radio.

The horse is reading the newspaper.

According to the basic syntactic rules for forming English sentences (as presented in Chapter 8), we have well-formed structures. *The hamburger (NP), ate (V), the boy (NP).* Did you see the oddness?

This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. We may be able to identify the source of the problem, 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. We can then use this idea to describe part of the meaning of words as either having (+) or not having (-) that particular features. The noun *boy* has is "+animate" means (= denotes an animate being), the noun *hamburger* has is "-animate" means (= does not denote an animate being).

This simple example is an illustration of a procedure for analyzing meaning in terms of **semantic features**. If we had to provide the crucial distinguishing features of the meaning of a set of English word such as *table, horse, boy, man, girl, and women.* We could begin with the following diagram down below:

table		**horse**	**boy**	**man**	**girl**	**women**
Animate	-	+	+	+	+	+
Human	-	-	+	+	+	+
Female	-	-	-	-	+	+
Adult	-	+	-	-	-	+

There are obviously more facets to a word's meaning than just these simple sorts of traits, and many terms in language may make it difficult to identify tidy meaning components.

SEMANTICS ROLES

Instead of thinking of words as "containers" of meaning, we can look at the "roles" they fulfill within the situation described by a sentence. The noun phrases in sentence describe the roles of entitites consist of people and things, and some that involved in the action. We can identify a small number of semantic roles (also called "thematic roles") for these noun phrases.

Agent and Theme

In our example sentence, one role is taken by the noun phrase *The boy* as "the entity that performs the action," technically known as the **agent**. 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 most prevalent semantics roles are agent and themes. "*The boy"* is an example of an agent, but they may also be non-human elements that create activities, such as the noun phrase for a natural force (the wind), a machine (a car), or a creature (the dog), all of which have an impact on the theme of "*the ball"*.

The boy kicked the ball.

The wind blew the ball away.

A car ran over the ball.

The dog caught the ball.

The theme is typically non-human, but can be human (*the boy),* as in *The dog chased the boy.* In fact, the same physical entity can appear in two different semantics roles in a sentence, as in *The boy cut himself.* In here, *the boy is* agent and *himself* is theme.

Instrument and Experiencer
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.

The words with the underline are (NP) and being used in the semantic role of instrument.

When a NP (noun phrase) is used designate an entity as the person who has a feeling, perception or state, it fills the semantics role of experiencer. e.g; *The boy feels sad.*

Location, Source & Goal
Other semantic roles specify the position of an entity in an event description. For example; the entity of (on the table, in the room) fills the role of **location**, where the entity moves from is the **source** (from Chicago, from Jakarta), and where it move to (to New Orleans, to Detroit) is the **goal.**

LEXICAL RELATIONS
In essence, lexical relations is the explanation of word meaning in terms of its connections. When we define each word's meaning in terms of how it relates to other words, this method is known as the study of lexical relation. The lexical relation are *synonymy* (conceal/hide), *anatonymy* (shallow/deep), and *hyponymy* (daffodil/flower).

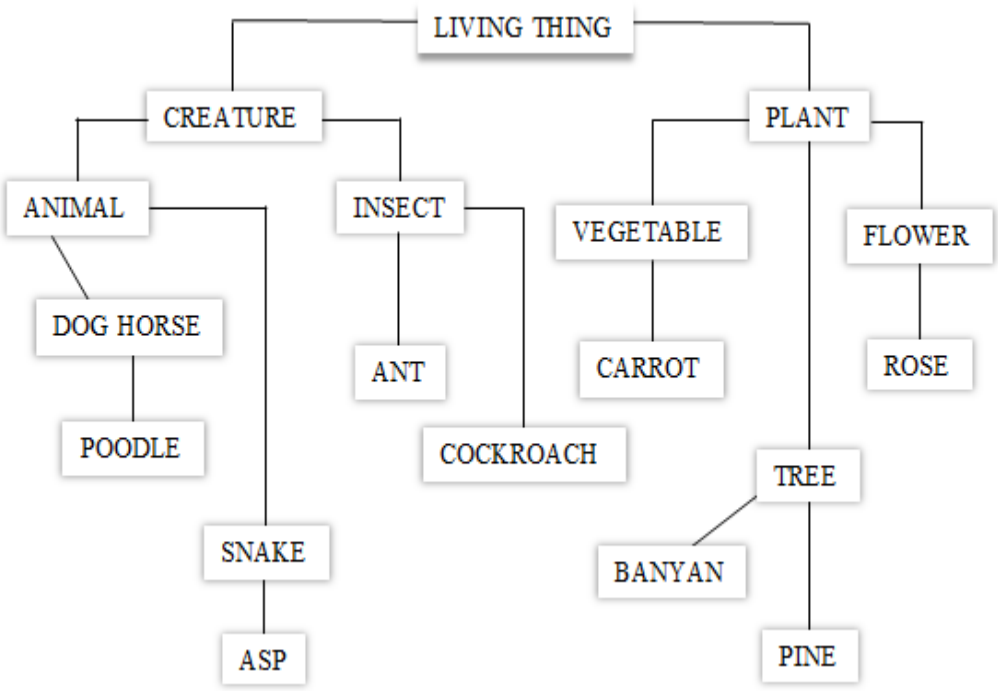
Synonymy
The meaning of synonyms are two word or more with very closely related meaning. In the appropriate circumstances, we can say; *What was his answer?* Or *What was his reply?* With much the same meaning. And there's common examples of synonyms such as; *almost/nearly, big/large, good/great, buy/purchase, cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa, etc.*

Anatonymy
When two forms have opposing meanings, it is called anatonyms. The common example of antonyms is such as; *dead/alive, big/small, fast/slow, happy/sad, long/short, male/female, true/false, rich/poor, etc.*

Antonyms are usually divided into two main types, the one is "gradable" (capable of being graded), and the second is "non-gradable" (direct opposite). **Gradable Antonyms,** such as the pair of big/small and can be used in comparative construction like *(I'm bigger than Anthony) or (A pony is smaller than a horse).* **Non-gradable** also called as (complementary pair) such as; *male/female, married/single, true/false.*

Hyponymy
Hyponymy is whe thw meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relathionship itself is described as *hyponymy.* For some example are the pairs of: *animal/dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/carrot, flower/rose, etc.*

When we consider hyponymous connections, we are essentially looking at the meaning of word in some type of hierarchical relationship. We will represent relationship between a set of word as a heararchical diagram down below;



Look at the diagram, we can say that "*horse* is a hyponym of *animal*" or "*cockroach* is a hyponym of *insect.*" In these two examples, *animal* and *insect* are called the **superordinated (=** higher-level) terms. We can also say that two word or more words that share the same superordinate term are are **co-hyponyms.** So, *dog* and *horse* are co-hyponyms and the superordinate term is *animal*.

Prototypes

Canary, cormorant, dove, duck, flamingo, parrot, pelican and robin are equally co-hyponyms of the superordinate *bird,* but they are not considered to be good example of the category "*bird"*. According to some researchers, 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. Thus, even native speakers of English might wonder if *ostrich* or *penguin* should be hyponyms of *bird* (technically they are), but have no trouble deciding about *sparrow* or *pigeon*. These last two are much closer to the prototype.

Homophones and Homonyms

The definition of **homophones** is when two or more different (written) forms have the same pronounciation. For some example: *bare/bear, meat/meet, flour/flower, pail/pale, right/write, sew/so and to/too/two.*

While, we use the term of **homonyms** when one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings, as in these example:

Bank (*of a river)* – Bank (*financial institution)*

Bat (*flying creature*) – Bat (*used in "baseball or cricket" sports*)

Race (*contest of speed*) – Race (*etnich group*)

Polysemy

Technically, *polysemy* known when we encounter two or more words with the same form and related meanings. *Polysemy* can be defined as one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings that are all related by extension. Common example are the word *head,* used to refer to the object on top of your body, froth on top of a glass of beer, person at the top of a company or department, etc. Other examples of polysemy are *foot* (of person, of bed, of mountain) or run (person does, water does, colors do).

Word Play

Wordplay, often known as play on words or word games, is the deft and humorous use of words and their connotations. It involves creating funny and frequently humorous written and spoken expressions utilizing literary devices and techniques such consonance, assonance, spelling, alliteration, onomatopoeia, rhyme, acronym, pun, and slang (to mention a few). In the nursery rhyme *Mary had a little lamb,* we think of a small animal, but in the comic version *Mary had a little lamb, some rice and vegetables,* we think of a small amount of meat. The polysemy of *lamb* allows the two interpretations.

Metonymy

The relatedness of meaning found in polysemy is essentially based on similiarity. There is types of relationship between words, based simply on a close connection in everyday experience. That close connection can be based on a container-contents realtion (*bottle/water, can/juice),* a whole-part relation (*car/wheels, house/roof*) or a representative-symbol relationship (*king/crown, the President/the White House*). While using one of these words to refer to the other is an example of **metonymy.**

Many example of metonymy are highly conventionalized and easy to interpret. However, other examples is depends on an ability to infer what the speaker ha in mind.

Collocation

One final aspect of our knowledge of words has nothing to do with any of the factors considered so far. We know which word tend to occur with other words. If you ask a thousand people what they think of when you said *hammer*, more than half will say *nail.* If you say *table,* they'll mostly say *chair,* and *butter* elicits *bread.* So, basically **collocation** means an expression consisting of two or more word that correspond to some conventional way of saying things.

CHAPTER 17

PRAGMATICS

In the late 1960,two laderly American tourist who had been touring Scotland reported that, in their travels,they had come to Scottish town in which there was a great ruined cathedtral in the previous chapter, we focused on conceptual meaning and the relationship between words. There are other aspects of meaning that depend more on context and the communicative intentions of speakers. In gill brown's story, the American tourist and the Scottish boy seem to be using the word war with essentially the same basic meaning. However the boy was the word to refer to something the tourist didn't expect,hence the iniytial misunderstanding. Communication clearly depends on not only on recognizing the meaning of words in an utterance,but recognizing what speakers mean by their utterances.

Pragmatics

In many ways, pragmatics is the study of invisible meaning, or how we recognize what is meant event when it isn't actually said or written.in order for that to happen,speakers (or writters) must be able to depend on a lot of shared assumptions and expectation when they try to communicate.the investigations of those assumptions and excpectations provides us with some insights into how more is always being communicated than is said.

Driving by a parking garage,you may see a large sign like the one in the one the picture. You read the sign,knowing what each of the words means and what the sign as a whole means. However, don't normally think that the sign is advertising a place where you can park your "heated attendant." The word in the sign may allow these interpretations, but we would normally unmderstand that we can park a car in this place, that it's a heated area and that there will been an attendant to look after the car. We must use thje meanings of the words, the context in which they occur, and some pre-existing knowledge of what would be a likely message as we work toward a reasonable interpretation of what the producer of the sign intended it to convey. Our interpretation of the" meaning" of the sign is not based solely on the words, but on what we think the writer intended to communicate.

Context

In our discussion of the last two examples, we emphasized the influence of context. There are different kinds of context.one kind is described as linguistic contetxt, 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. More generally, we know how to interpret wordsmon the basis of physical context. If we see the word BANK on the wall of a building in a city, the physical location will influence our interpretation. Our understanding of much of what we read and hear is tied to this processing of aspects of the physical context, particulary the time and place, in which we encounter linguistic expression.

Deixis

There are some very common words in our language that can't be interpreted at all if we don't know the context, especially the physical context of the speakers. These are word such as *here and there, this or that, now and then, yesterday,today,or tomorrow,as well as pronouns such as you ,me,she,him,it,them.* Some sentences of English are virtually imposibble to understand if we don't know who speaking, about whom,where and when. For example: *you'll have to* bring *it back tomorrow because she isn't here today.*

Out of context, this sentence is really vague. It contains a large number of expressions (*you, it, tomorrow, she, here, today)* that rely on knowledge of the immediate physical context for their interpretation (i.e that the delivery driver will have to return on February 15 to 660 college drive

with the long boy labelled "flowers, handle with care" addressed to lisa landry). Expressions such as *tomorrow* and *here* are obvius examples of bits language that we can only understand in terms of the speakers intended meaning. They are technically known as deitic (/daiktik/) **expressions**, from the greek word **deixis** , which means "pointing" via language.

We use deixis to point to things *(it,this,these,boxes)* and people *(him, theme, those, idiots),* sometimes called person deixis. Word and phrase used to point to a location *(here, there, near that,)* are examples of **spatial deixis**, and those used to point to a time (*now, then, last week)* are examples of **temporal deixis.**

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

People can actually use deixis to have some fun. The barf owner who puts up a big sign that reads *free beer tomorrow* (to get you to return to the bar) can always claim that you are just one day too early for the free drink.

Reference and Inference

In discussing deixis, we assumed that the use of words to refer to people, *places* and times was a simple matter.however, words themselves don't refer to anything.people refer. We have to define reference as an act bt which a speakers (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something to perform an act of refence, we can use proper nouns (*Chomsky, Jennifer, whiskas),* other nouns in phrase (*a writer, my friend, the cat,)* or pronouns *(he, she, it).* For each word or phrase, there is "range of reference" the words *Jennifer or friend* or *she can* be used to refer to many entities in the world. As we observed earlier, an expression *such* as the war doesn't directly identify anything by itself, because its reference depends on who is using it.

As in the "Mr. Kawasaki" example, a successful act reference depends more on the listener's ability to recognize what we mean that on the listener's "dictionary" knowledge of a word we use. For example, in a restaurant, on waiter can ask another. *Where the spinach salad sitting?* And receive the reply, *he's sitting by the door.* If you're studying linguistrics, you might ask someone, *can I look at your Chomsky?* And get the response,*sure,its on the shelf over there.*these examples make it clear that we can use names associated with things (*sad)* to refer to people, and use names of people. An inference is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant.

Anaphora

We usually make a distinction between introducing new referents *(a puppy)* and referring back to them *(the puppy,it).* In this type of referential relationship, the second (or subsequent) referring expressions is an example of anaphora ("referring back"). The first mention is called the antecedent.so, in our example*, a boy, a puppy, and a small, bath are antecedents and the puppy, the boy, he, it, and the bath* are anaphoric expressions. Anaphora can be defined as subsequent reference to an already introduced entity.mostly we use mostly we use in texts to maintain reference. The connection between an antecedent and a anophric expressions is created by use pf pronoun *(it*), or a phrase with the plus the attecendent noun (the puppy, or another noun that is related to the attecedent some way (***the little dog*** *ran out of the room).* The connection between attecendents and anophoric expressions is often based on inference, as in these example :

*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.*

Presupposition

In more general way, we design our linguistics messages on the basic of large-scale assumptions about what our listeners already know.some of these may be mistaken, of course, but, mostly they're appriote. What a speaker (or writer) *assumes* is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as **presupposition.** One of the tests used to check for the presuppositions underlying sentences involves negating sentence with a particular pressuppositions and checking if the presuppositions remains true. Whether you say *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 sentence have opposite meanings, this called the "constancy under negation" test for identifying a presupposition. If someone says, *I used to regret marrying him,but I don't regret marrying him now*, the presuppositions *(I married him)* remains constant even thought the verb regret changes from affirmative to negative.

Speech Acts

We have been considering ways in which we interpret the meaning of an utterace in terms of what the speaker intends us to "take" (or"interpret the function of") what is said. In very general terms, we can usually recognize the type of "action" performed by a speaker with the utterace. We use the term speech act to describe actions such as "requesting" "commanding," "questioning" or "informing" we can define a speech act as the actions performed by a speaker with an utterance.

Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

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

	Structures	**functions**
Did you eat the pizza?	interrogative	Questions
Eat the pizza (please)!	imperative	Command (request)
You ate the pizza.	declarative	statement

When an interrogative structure such *as Did you....? are they….? Or can we…?* Is used with the function of a questions, it is described as a **direct speech act**. For example, when we don't know something and we ask someone to provide the information, we usually produce a direct speech act such as *can you ride a bicyle?*

It is possible to have strange effects if one person fails to recognize another person's indirect speech act. Consider the following scene. A visitor to a city, carriying his luggage, looking lost, stops a passer-by.

Visitor: *excuse me, do you know where the ambassador hotel is?*

Passer-by:*oh sure,I know where it is* (and walks away)

The main reason we use indirect speech acts seems to be that actions such as request, presented in an indiect way *(could you open that door for me?)* are generally considered to be more gentle or more polite in our society than direct speech atcs *(open that door for me!),* exactly why they are considered to be more polite in based on some complex social assumptions.

Politeness

In the study of linguistics politeness, the most relevant concept is " face" your face, in pragmatics, is your public self-image. This is emotional and social sense of self that everyone

has and expects everyone else to recognize.**politeness** can be defined as showing awareness and consideration of another persons face.

Negative and positive face

We have both a negative face and a positive face. (Note that "negative" doesn't mean "bad" here, its simply the opposite of "positive" negative face is the need to be independent and free from imposition. Positive face is the need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of the group.

Understanding how successful communication works is actually a process of interpreting not just what speakers say, but what they" intend to mean" we'll explore other aspects of this process in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 18

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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. We are capable of more than simply recognizing correct versus incorrect forms and structure. 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 par. We can also make sense of notice like *No shoe, no service,* on shop windows in summer, understanding that a conditional relation exists between the two parts. ("If you are wearing no shoes, you will receive no service"). We have ability to create complex discourse interpretations of fragmentary linguistic messages.

Interpreting Discourse

We can even cope with texts, written in English, which we couldn't produce ourselves and which appear to break a lot of the rules of the English language. Yet we can build an interpretation. The following example, provide by Eric Nelson.

My townMy natal was in a small tow, very close to Riyadh capital of Saudi Arabia. The distant between my town and Riyadh 7 miles exactl. The name of this almasant that means in English factories, it takes this from the people's carrer. In my childhood I remember the people live, it was very simple. Most the people was farmer.

This example may serve to illustrate a simple point about the way we react to language that contains ungrammatical forms. It is this effort to interpret (or to be interpreted), and how we accomplish it, that are the key element investigated in the study of discourse. To arrive at an interpretation.

Cohesion

That texts must have a certain structure that depends on factors quite different from those required in the structure of single sentence. Some of those factors are described in terms of cohesion, a number of those types of cohesive ties can be identified in the following paragraph. Analysis of these cohesive ties within a text gives us some insight into how writers structure what they want they to say. An appropriate number of cohesive ties may be a crucial factor in our judgements on whether something is well written or not.

However, by itself, cohesion would not be sufficient to enable us to make sense of what we read. It is quite easy to create a highly cohesive Text that has a lot of connections between the sentences, but is very difficult to interpret. Note that the following text has connections such as *Lincoln-the car, red -that color, her-she, lettes-a letter, and so on.*

My father bought a Lincoln a convertible. The car driven by the police was red. That color doesn't suit her, she consists of three letters. However, a letter isn't as fast as a telephone call.

It become clear from this type of example that the "connectedness" we experience in our interpretation of normal texts is not simply based on connections between the words, there must be some other factor that leads us to distinguish connected texts that make sense from those that do no. This factor is usually described as "coherence".

Coherence

The key to the concept of coherence ("everything fitting together well") is not something that exist in the words or structure, but something that exist in people. It is people who "make sense" of what they read and hear. You may have found when you were reading the last example (of oddly constructed text) that you kept trying to make the text fit some situation or experience that

would accommodate all the details (involving a red car, a woman and letter). If you work at it long enough, you may indeed find a way to incorporate all those disparate elements into a single coherent interpretation. This process is not restricted to trying to understand "odd" texts. In one way or another, it seems to be involved in our interpretation of all discourse. Here is good example.

HER: that's the telephone

HIM: I'm in the bath

HER: ok

There are certainly no cohesive ties within this fragment of discourse. How does each of these people manage to make sense of what the other says? They do use the information contained in the sentences expressed, but there must be something else involved in the interpretation. we can characterize the brief conversation in the following way.

She makes a request of him to perform action.

He states reason why he cannot comply with request.

She undertakes to perform action.

If this is 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.

Speech Events

In exploring what it is we know about taking part in conversation, or any other speech event (e.g. debate, interview, various types of discussions), we quickly realize that there is enormous variation in what people say and do in different circumstances. we would have to take account of a number of criteria. For example, we would have to specify the roles of speaker and hearer (or hearers) and their relationship(s), whether they were friends, strangers, men, women, young, old, of equal or unequal status, and many other factors. All of these factors will have an influence on what is said and how it is said. We would have to describe what the topic of conversation was and in what setting it took place. Some of the effects of these factors on the waylanguage is used are explored in greater detail in Chapters 19 and 20. Yet,even when we have described all these factors, we will still not have analyzed the actual structure of the conversation itself. As language-users, in a particular culture, we clearly have quite sophisticated knowledge of how conversation works.

Conversation Analysis

In simple terms, English conversation can be described as an activity in which, for the most part, two or more people take turns at speaking. Typically, only one person speaks at a time and there tends to be an avoidance of silence between speaking turns. (This is not true in all situations or societies.) If more than one participant tries to talk at the same time, one of them usually stops, as in the following example, where A stops until B has finished.

A: Didn't you [know wh-

B: [But he must've been there by two

A: Yes but you knew where he was going

(A small square bracket [is conventionally used to indicate a place where simultaneous or overlapping speech occurs.)

For the most part, participants wait until one speaker indicates that he or she has finished, usually by signaling a completion point. Speakers can mark their turns as complete in a number of ways: by asking a question, for example, or by pausing at the end of a completed syntactic structure like a phrase or sentence.

Turn-Taking

There are different expectations of conversational style and different strategies of participation in conversation. Some of thesc strategies seem to be the source of what is sometimes described by participants as "rudeness" (if one speaker cuts in on another speaker) or "shyness" (if one speaker keeps waiting for an opportunity to take a turn and none seems to occur). The participants characterized as "rude" or "shy" in this way may simply be adhering to slightly different conventions of turn-taking.

One strategy, which may be overused by "long-winded" speakers or those who are used to "holding the floor," is designed to avoid having normal completionpoints occur. We all use this strategy to some extent, usually in situations where we have to work out what we are trying to say while actually saying it.

In the following example, note how the pauses (marked by ...) are placed before and after verbs rather than at the end of sentences, making it difficult to get a clear sense of what this person is saying until we hear the part after each pause.

A: *that's their favorite restaurant because they ... enjoy French food and when they were ... in France they couldn't believe it that ... you know that they had ... that they had had better meals back home*

In the next example, speaker X produces filled pauses (with em, er, you know) after having almost lost the turn at his first brief hesitation.

X: well that film really was . .. [wasn’t what he was good at

Y: [when di-

X : I mean his other ... em his later films were much more ... er really more in the romantic style and that was more what what he was ... you know ... em best at doing

Y: so when did he make that one

These types of strategies, by themselves, should not be considered undesirable or domineering. They are present in the conversational speech of most people and they are part of what makes conversation work. We recognize these subtle indicators as ways of organizing our turns and negotiating the intricate business of social interaction via language. In fact, one of the most noticeable features of conversational discourse Is that it is generally very "co-operative." This cl servation has been formulated as a principle of conversation.

The Co-Operative Principle

An underlying assumption in most conversational exchanges seems to be that the participants are co-operating with each other. This principle, together with four maxims that we expect our conversational partners to obey, was first described by the philosopher Paul Grice. The co-operative principle is stated in the following way: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required.

It is certainly true that, on occasion, we can experience conversational exchanges in which the co-operative principle may not seem to be in operation. However, this general description of the normal expectations we have in conversation helps to explain a number of regular features in the way people say things. Forexample,during their lunch break, one woman asks another how she likes the sandwich she is eating and receives the following answer.

Oh, A Sandwich is a Sandwich.
In logical terms, this reply appears to have no communicative value since it states something obvious and doesn't seem to be informative at all. However, if the woman is being co-operative and adhering to the Quantity maxim about being "as informative as is required," then the listener must assume that her friend is communicating something. Given the oppo tunity to evaluate the sandwich, her friend has responded without an explicit evaluation, thereby implying that she has no opinion, good or bad, to express. That is, her friend has essentially communicated that the sandwich isn't worth talking about.

Hedges
We use certain types of expressions, called hedges, to show that we are concerned about following the maxims while being co-operative participants in conversation. Hedges can be defined as words or phrases used to indicate that we're not really sure that what we're saying is sufficiently correct or complete. These are examples of hedges on the Quality maxim. Other examples would include the expressions listed below that people sometimes put at the beginning of their conversational contributions.

As far as I know ....

Now, correct me if I'm wrong, but

I'm not absolutely sure, but ....

We also take care to indicate that what we report is something we think or feel (not know'). is possible or likely (not certain), and may or could (not must) happen. Hence the difference between saying Jackson is guilty and I think it's possible that Jackson may be guilty. In thefirstversion,wewill be assumed to have very good evidence for the statement.

Implicatures
When we try to analyze how hedges work, we usually talk about speakers implying something that is not said. Similarly, in considering what the woman meant by a sandwich is a sandwich, we decided that she was implying that the sandwich wasn't worth talking about. With the co-operative principle and the maxims as guides, we can start to work out how people actually decide that someone is "implying" something in conversation. Consider the following example.

CAROL : Are you coming to the party tonight?

LARA : I've got an exam tomorrow.

On the face of it, Lara's statement is not an answer to Carol's question. Lara doesn't say Yes or No. Yet Carol will immediately interpret the statement as meaning "No" or "Probably not."

It is noticeable that, in order to describe the conversational implicature involved in Lara's statement, we had to appeal to some background knowledge (about exams, studying and partying) that must be shared by the conversational participants. Investigating how we use our background knowledge to arrive at interpretations of what we hear and read is a critical part of doing discourse analysis.

Background Knowledge
A particularly good example of the processes involved in using background knowledge was provided by Sanford and Garrod (1981), who presented readers with a short text, one sentence at a time. Their text begins with the following two sentences.

John was on his way to school last Friday.

He was really worried about the math lesson.

Most people who are asked to read these sentences report that they think John is probably a schoolboy. Since this piece of information is not directly stated in the text, it must be an inference. Other inferences, for different readers, are that John is walking or that he is on a bus. These inferences are clearly derived from our conventional knowledge, in our culture, about "going to school," and no reader has ever suggested that John is swimming or on a boat, though both are physically possible, if unlikely, interpretations.

An interesting aspect of the reported inferences is that they are treated as likely or possible interpretations that readers will quickly abandon if they do not fit in with some subsequent information. Here is the next sentence in the text.

Last week he had been unable to control the class.

This type of text and manner of presentation, one sentence at a time, is rather artificial, of course. Yet the exercise involved does provide us with some insight into the ways in which we "build" interpretations of what we read by using a lot more information than is presented in the words on the page. That is, we actually create what the text is about, based on our expectations of what normally happens. In attempting to describe this phenomenon, researchers often use the concept of a "schema" or a "script."

Schemas and Scripts

A schema is a general term for a conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory. We were using our conventional knowledge of what a school classroom is like, or a "classroom schema,"

Similar in many ways to a schema is a script. A script is essentially a dynamic schema. That is, instead of the set of typical fixed features in a schema, a script has a series of conventional actions that take place. You have a script for "Going to the dentist" and another script for "Going to the movies." We all have versions of an "Eating in a restaurant" script, which we can activate to make sense of this short text,

Trying not to be out of the office for long, Suzy went into the nearest place, sat down and ordered an avocado sandwich. It was quite crowded, but the service was fast, so she left a good tip. Back in the office, things were not going well.

Indeed, crucial information is sometimes omitted from important instructions on the assumption that everybody knows the script. Think carefully about the following instructions from a bottle of cough syrup.

Fill measure cup to line

and repeat every 2 to 3 hours.

No, you've not just to keep filling the measure cup every 2 to 3 hours. Nor have you to rub the cough syrup on your neck or in your hair. You are expected to know the script and drink the stuff from the measure cup we read every is 2 not or only 3 hours.based on what we see on the

Clearly, our understanding but of also what on other things that we have in mind (knowledge page (language To structures), understand more about the connection between these two things, we structures). a close look at the workings of the human brain.

CHAPTER 19

GRAMMAR

We can see that english has strict rules for combining words into pharases. 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 prasejarah must have the sequence article+Adjective+ noun (and not* noun + article+ adjective, for example).

The process of describing the structure of pharases and sentence in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the in grammatical sequences is one way of defining grammar. It is the kind of defination assumed when we talk about the grammar of english as opposed to the grammar of Swahili, tagalog or turkish. As illustrated in chapter 6 , each of these languages has different ways of farming grammatical phrases and sentences. Studying grammar in this way has a very long tradition.

Traditional Grammar

The terms" article, " adjective " and "noun" that we used to label the grammatical categories of the words in the phease *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 scholarship, religion, philosophy and " knowledge ", so the grammar of these languages was taken to be the model for others grammar. The best - known terms from that traditional are those used in describing the parts of speech.

The Parts of Speech

1. Nouns

Are words used to refer to people (boy), objects(backpack), creatures(dog), places(school), qualities (roughhness), phenomena (earth- quake) and abstract ideas (love) as of they were all" things".

2. Articles

Are words (a, an, the) used with nouns to form noun phrases classifying those"things" (you can have a banana or an apple) or identifying them as alteady known (i'll take the apple).

3. Adjectives

Are words used, typically with nouns, to provide more information about the things referred yo (happy People, large objects, a strange experience).

4. Verbs

Are words used to refer to various kinds of actions (Go, talk) and syayes (be, have) involving people and things in events (jessica is ill and has a sore throat so she can't talk or go anywhere).

5. Adverbs

Are words used to refer to various kinds of actions, states and events (slowly, Yesterday). Some adverbs (really, very) are also used with adjectives to modifikasi information about things (really large objects move slowly. I had a very strange experience Yesterday).

6. Preposations

Are words (at, in, on, near, with, without) used with nouns in phrase providing information about time (at five o' clock, in the morning), place (on the table, near the window) and other connections (with a knife, without a thought) involving actions and things.

7. Pronouns
Are words (she, herself, they, it, you) used in place of noun phrases, typically refer ringan to people and things already known (she talks to herself. They said it belonged to you).

8. Conjunctions
Are words (and, but, because, when) used to make connections and in dicatet relationship between events (chantel's husband was so sweet and he helped heran a lot because she could'nt do much when she was pregnant).

Agreement
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 speakers), second person (involving the hearer) and third person (involving any others). The different forms of english pronouns can be described internasional of person and number. We use *i* for firts person singular, you for second person singular, and *he, she, 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 whit " 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, 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 doesn't perform the action), an in *cathy is lover 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 biologi calon 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, is).

Grammatical Gender
The type of biological distinction used in english is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that used **Grammatical gender .**whereas natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminime) and is not yied to sex. In this latter sense, nouns are classified according to their gender class and, typically, artcles and adjectives have different forms to " agree whit " the gender of the noun.

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.

We should emphasize that this gender distinction is not based on a distinction in sex. A young Girl is biologically " female", but the german noun *das madchen* 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. So, the grammatically category of gender is very usefully applied in describing a number of languages (including latin), but mau not be appropriate for describing forms in other languages such as english.

Traditional Analysis
In traditional grammar books, tables such as the following were of tentang presented for enish verbs, constructed by analogy with similar tables of forms in latin grammar. The forms for the latin *verb amare* ("to love") are listed on the right.

First person singular (I) love amo

Present tense, active voice Second person singular (you) love amas

Third person singular (she) love amat

first person plural (we) love amamus

Second person plural (you) love amatis

Third person plural (they) love amant

Each of the latin verb forms is different, according to the categories of person and number, tetap the english verb forms are (whit one exception) mostly the same. This it makes sense, in describing a language such as latin, tonhave all those descriptive categories to characterize verb forms.

In english, it makes more sense to say the categories describe different pronouns, the influence of latin, however, goes beyond the tyoes of descriptive labels.

The Prescriptive Approach

This view of grammar as a set of rules for the" proper" use of a language is stikl to be found today and mau be best characterized as the **prescriptive a approach.** Some familiar examples of prescriptive rules for english sentences are:

You must not split an infinitive.

You must not end a sentence with a preposation.

And , in proper english writing, one should never begini a sentence whit *and!.*

It way, in fact, be a valuable part of one's education to be made aware of this " linguistik etiquette" for the proper use of the language. If it is a social expectation that someone who writes well should obey these prescriptive rules.

Captain Kirk's Infinitive

The infinitive in english has the form to + the base form of the verb, as in to go, and can be used with an adverb such as boldly. At the beginning of each televised star Trek episode, one of the main characters, captain kirk, always used the expression to boldly go... This is an example of asplit infinitive, captain kirk's teacher might have expecred him to say to go boldly or Boldly to go, so that the adverb didn't split the infinitive. If captain kirk had been a roman space traveler, speakinh latin, he would have used the expression ire ("to go") and audacter (" boldly"). Now, in saying ire audacter... In latin, capitaneus kirkus would not even have the opportunity to split.

It would be very appropriate in latin grammar to say you cannot split infinitive.

The Descriptive Approach

The descriptive approach is analysis collected samples of the language they were interesred in and attempted to describe the regular structures of the language as it was used, not according to some view of how it should be used.

Structural Analysis

One type of descriptive approach is called **structural analysis** and its main concern is to investigate the disribution of forms in a language. The method involving the use of " test-frames " that can be sentences with empty slots in them, for example.

The makes a lot of noise

I heard a yesterday

There are a lot of forms that can fit inti these slots to produce good grammatical sentence of english (e. g. Car, child, donkey, dog, radio). As a result, we can propose that because all these forms fit in the same test-fame, they are likelu to be examples of the same grammatical category. The label we give to this grammatical category is, of course, "noun".

However, there there are many forms do not fit those test- frames. Examples would be cathy, someone the dog, a car, and many others. (That is, we wouldn't say* the cathy... Or * The the dog... Here.) for these forms, we require different yest- frames, which could look like this:

I heard makes a lot of noise

Yesterday

Constituent Analysis

An approach with the same descriptive Aims is called constituent analysis. The technique employed in this approach is designed to show how small constituents (or components) in sentence go together to form larger constituents. One basic step is determining how words go Together to phrases.

We don't normally think of these combinations as phrases in english. We are more likely to say that the phrase- like constituents here are combinations of the following types:*an old man, a shotgun, the wedding,* which are noun phrases; *to the wedding,* which is a prepositional phrases; and *brought a shotgun,* which is a verb phrase.

Labeled and Bracketed Sentence

An alternative type of diagram is designed to show how the constituents in sentence structure can be marked off bu using labeled brackets. The first step is to put brackets (one on each side) round each constituent, and then more brackets round each combination of constituents.

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)

A Gaelic Sentence

Here is a sentence from scottish gaelic which would be translated as " the boy saw the black dog".

Chunnaic an gille an cu dubh

Saw the boy the dog black

One very obvious difference between the structure of this gaelic sentence and its english counterpart is the fact the verb comes firts in the sentence. Another notice able feature is that, when an adjective is used, it goes after the noun and not before itu. We can represent these structural observations in an labeled and bracketed diagram.

The diagram makes it clear that this gaelic sentence is organized with a V NP NP structure, which is rather different from the NP V NP structure we found in the english sentence analyzed earlier.

Th aim of this type of analysis that we should be able to draw complicated - looking diagram in order to impress our friends. The aim is to make Explicit, via the diagram, what we belive to be the structure of grammatical sentences in the language.

At a very practical level, it mau help us understand why a spanish learner of english produces phrases like * *the wine red (instead of the fed wine)* , using a structural organization of constituents that is possible in spanish, but not english.

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ABOUT THE BOOK

The book of **"BASIC INTRODUCTION OF LINGUISTIC STUDY"** has been arranged as course book material to make students easy in studying linguistic personally or studying with team. This course book material also beneficially has function as lecturing project report which was reported in the end of semester of course.

The content of this course material covered all linguistic branches (micro and macro linguistic) which were adopted from George Yule Theory, Language Files, and other theories of Linguistic Study.

Thus, the Author hope that It can give benefit for students and learners of Language Education and Linguistic Study to enrich their knowledge about Basic Linguistic

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