Level: First Year	Semester: One

Contents of the Syllabus (NEW CANEVAS)

Semester: 01
Teaching Unit: Fundamental
Module: Linguistics and Phonetics
Credits: 04
Coefficient: 02
Course Objective

- To introduce the students to the basic foundations of the discipline

Subject Contents
Linguistics

1) Linguistics definition

a) a historical overview (as an introduction) the appearance of modern linguistics

b) linguistics as a science

c) <u>what does linguistics cover? (macro and micro functions)</u>

2) Language definition

a) Linguists' contribution

I- Sapir

II- Ferdinand de saussure diachotomies

- Langue and parole
- Signified and sgnifier
  - syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations
  - diachronic and synchronic linguistics

Phonetics

-Phonetics and phonology: basic definitions and differences

- Branches of phonetics

- Importance of Phonetics

-Organs of speech

- Speech mechanism and Vocal Tract

- Speech production (with a special reference to English phonemes)

-English consonants (classification of consonants according to their place and manner of articulation)

- Place of articualtion: - Plosives - Fricatives - Affricates – Nasals - Laterals

- Manner of articulation: - Bilabial - Labio-dental – Dental -Alveolars - Palato-alveolar – Velar - Glottal

-Allophones (Aspiration and Dark /l/)

- English vowels (short vowels, long vowels)

- Definition - Description of the articulation of each vowel - Vowel chart

-English Diphthongs and triphthongs

- Definition - Categories. - Description of the articulation - Representation on the diagram

Assessment

50% - 50% (Written exams and continuous Assessment)

Sources and references

1- P. H. Matthews, The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics (Oxford Paperback Reference) (2007)

2- Guy Cook, Applied Linguistics (Oxford Introduction to Language Study Series) (2003)

3- Bruce M. Rowe and Diane P. Levine Concise Introduction to Linguistics, A (2nd Edition)

4- http://www.englishmedialab.com/pronunciation.html

5- http://www.englishstudymaterials.com/2008/08/english-phonetic-activities.html

6- J. C. Catford, A Practical Introduction to Phonetics (Oxford Textbooks in Linguistics) (2002)

Phonetics

LECTURE 1 INTRODUCING PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

Introduction:

This course of English phonetics and phonology is intended for undergraduate students of English at university level. By the end of the year, you will be introduced to the theories of phonetics and phonology with the practice of transcription to improve your pronunciation. The current lectures will introduce you to the various branches of linguistics, and locate phonetics and phonology in its context.

1. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics:

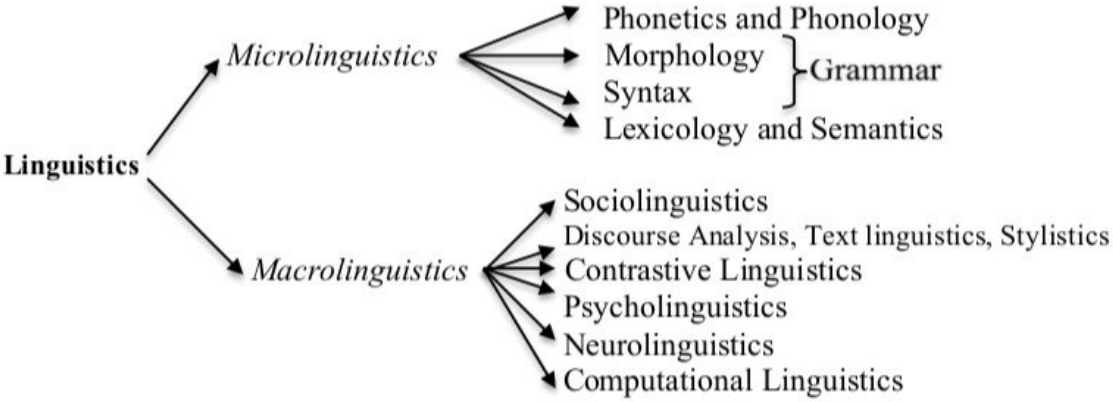


Figure 1. The Different Branches of Linguistics

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language; that is, its system and its relationship with other languages and disciplines. One the one hand, we investigation the language itself in **microlinguistics** in which we deal with the description and explanation of the language system as follows: **(1) Phonetics** and **phonology** which deal with the spoken form of language, or, more precisely, with speech sounds as segments and the sound system patterns and function. **(2) Morphology** covers the structure of words and inflection. **(3) Syntax** explains sentence structure patterns and rules. (Morphology and syntax, often combined into *morphosyntax* or *grammar.)* **(4) Lexicology** studies the form, meaning, and behaviour of language vocabulary or lexicon while **semantics** explores the meaning of words, phrases, or texts. On the other hand, **macrolinguistics** investigates the language in a broader sense; that is, its relationship with other disciplines such as **(1)** language and society in **Sociolinguistics** which connects linguistics with sociology and speech communities, dialects, distribution of languages. **(2) Discourse analysis** covers the various analyses of spoken or written discourse with special interest in *speech acts*, whereas **text linguistics** is concerned more with *coherence, cohesion*, and **stylistics** explains the right style to be used in the text and sets the other features of the text **(style)**. **(3) Contrastive linguistics** describes the similarities and differences between two or more modern languages to improve language teaching, learning and translation. **(4) Psycholinguistics** studies psychology and explores mental aspects of language, such as language learning and acquisition. **(5) Neurolinguistics** overlaps with medical science and brain to investigate the connection between language and the nervous system. **(6) Computational linguistics** overlaps with computer sciences and artificial intelligence like machine translation, speech recognition, and speech simulation.

2. Definition of Phonetics and Phonology:

Phonetics is the scientific study of human speech sounds. It studies the features of human sound making; especially language sounds used in speech, and provide methods for sounds description, classification, and transcription. Therefore, in phonetics we refer to individual sounds as ***phonemes*** or *sounds*; we never use *letters*.

Phonology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the systematic organization of sounds in languages. The language sounds are organized into a system of contrasts, which are analysed in terms of phonemes.

3. The Differences Between Phonetics and Phonology:

Both phonetics and **phonology** are branches of linguistics, which deal with sounds. Phonetics studies how human speech sounds are produced, transmitted and perceived. Phonology deals with the speakers' knowledge of the sound system of a language. It is not the study of how sound are produced and their physical properties or the perception of these sounds. Phonology is interested in the function and possible combinations of sounds within the sound system. It is concerned with those features of pronunciation that cannot be segmented because they extend over more than one **segment**, or sound. Such features include **stress**, **rhythm**, and **intonation**.

4. Branches of Phonetics:

Phonetics is the scientific study of speech sounds. It consists of three main sub-fields:

Articulatory phonetics: describes how speech organs or articulators (the tongue, lips, vocal folds, teeth, nose, etc.) produce or articulate the human speech sounds.

Acoustic phonetics: deals with the physical properties of speech sounds as sound waves in the air; in other words, it is concerned with what happens in the air between speaker and hearer. A spectrograph is a machine that measures the sound waves, which analyses duration, frequency, intensity, and quality of the sounds.

Auditory phonetics (perceptual): investigates the perception and the identification of speech sounds by the listener, i.e. how the sounds are transmitted from the ear to the brain, and how the brain interprets the information coming from the ear.

5. Branches of Phonology:

1- ***Segmental Phonology:*** is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds provided by phonetics. It is interested in the function and possible combinations of language sound system.

2- ***Suprasegmental Phonology:*** is concerned with those features of pronunciation that cannot be segmented because they extend over more than one segment or sound. Such features include stress, rhythm, and intonation.

7. Time for Practice

1. *How many letters and how many sounds (Check spelling and pronunciation)*

There are 26 **letters** in the English alphabet but there 44 **sounds** in British English. Sometimes the number of letters is equal to the number of sounds like **best** *(4 letters, 4 sounds)*; **dentist** *(7 letters, 7 sounds)*. However, mostly the number of sounds is different from the number of letters such as **green** *(5 letters, 4 sounds)*; **six** *(3 letters,4 sounds)*.

1. Begged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Graphic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Fished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Quick	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Listen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Damned	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Circle the correct number.

2. "The Chaos" by Dr. Gerard Nolst Trenité, written in 1922, designed to demonstrate the irregularity of English.

Dearest creature in creation,	/ˈdɪərɪst 'kriːʧə ɪn kriː'eɪʃən /
Study English pronunciation.	/'stʌdi 'ɪŋglɪʃ prə,nʌnsiː'eɪʃən/
I will teach you in my verse	/ɑɪ wɪl 'tiːʧ juː ɪn mɑɪ 'vɜːs/
Sounds like corpse, corps, horse, and worse.	/sɑʊndz lɑɪk kɔːps kɔː hɔːs ənd wɜːs/
Just compare heart, beard, and heard,	/ʤʌst kəm'peə hɑːt bɪəd ənd hɜːd/
Dies and diet, lord and word,	/dɑɪz ənd dɑɪət lɔːd ənd wɜːd/
Sword and sward, retain and Britain.	/sɔːd ən swɔːd rɪ'teɪn ənd 'brɪtn̩ /
Say break and steak, but bleak and streak;	/seɪ breɪk ənd steɪk bʌt bliːk ənd streɪk/
Woven, oven, how and low,	/ˈwəʊvn̩ ʌvən haʊ ənd ləʊ /
Script, receipt, shoe, poem, and toe.	/ˈskrɪpt rɪ'siːt ʃuː 'pəʊɪm təʊ /
Strewn with stones, stowed, solace, gunwale,	/struːn wɪð 'stəʊnz stəʊd 'sɒləs 'gʌnəl/
Islington and Isle of Wight,	/'ɪzlɪŋtn ənd ɑɪl ɒv wɑɪt /
Saying lather, bather, father?	/'seɪɪŋ læðə beɪðə fɑːðə /
Finally, which rhymes with enough,	/'fɑɪnəli wɪʧ ˈrɑɪmz wɪð ɪ'nʌf /
Though, through, bough, or cough, hough or sough and tough?	/ðəʊ θruː bɑʊ kɒf hɒk sɑʊ ənd tʌf/
Hiccough has the sound of cup.	/ˈhɪkʌp həz ðə ˈsɑʊnd əv kʌp/
My advice is to give up!!!	/mɑɪ əd'vɑɪs ɪz tə gɪv ʌp/

Chaos, Hiccough, Edinburgh, Ewe, Audi, Subpoena, Shepherd, Oxford, Greenwich, Yacht.

If you have pronounced correctly every word, you are better than 90% of English native speakers in the world.

8. Study Questions

1. Search on the Internet how phonetics and phonology emerged and look for the familiar scholars who set its basics.
2. Write a short essay about the role of phonetics in improving teaching English pronunciation.
3. What is the difference between a letter and a sound?
4. In what way are phonetics and phonology similar and/or different?
5. How can phonetics and phonology help improve foreign language learning and awareness?

Lecture 01 : INTRODUCING PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

1. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics:

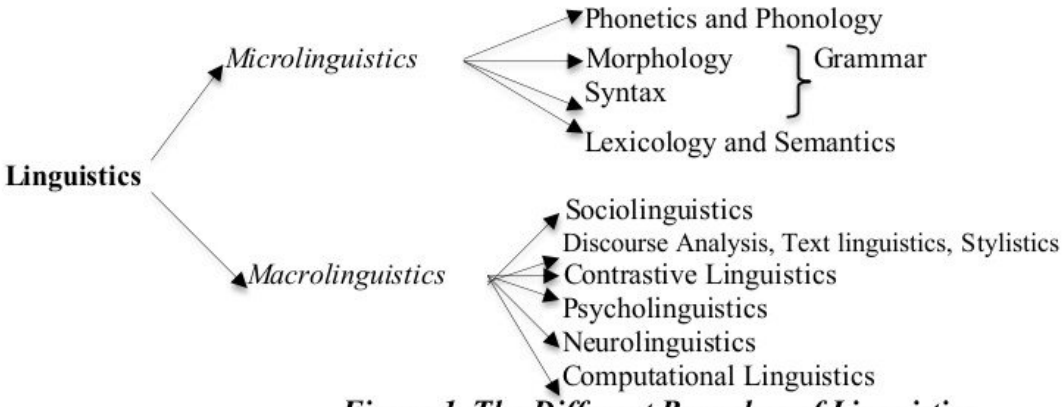


Figure 1. The Different Branches of Linguistics

2. Definition of Phonetics:

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics concerned with human speech sounds. It studies the features of human sound making. It provides methods for sounds description, classification, and transcription. Therefore, in phonetics we refer to individual sounds as ***phonemes*** or *sounds*; we never use *letters.*

3. The Differences Between Phonetics and Phonology:

a. Both phonetics and **phonology** are branches of linguistics, which deal with sounds.
b. *Phonetics* is concerned with how human speech sounds are produced, transmitted and perceived.
c. ***Phonology*** deals with the speakers' knowledge of the sound system of a language. **It** is interested in the function and possible combinations of sounds within the sound system.

4. Branches of Phonetics

Articulatory phonetics
- describes how speech organs or articulators (the tongue, lips, vocal folds, teeth, nose, etc.) produce or articulate the human speech sounds.

Acoustic phonetics
- deals with the physical properties of speech sounds as sound waves in the air; in other words, it is concerned with what happens in the air between speaker and hearer.

Auditory phonetics (perceptual)
- investigates the perception and the identification of speech sounds by the listener, i.e. how the sounds are transmitted from the ear to the brain, and how the brain interprets the information coming from the ear.

5. The Importance of Learning Phonetics:

Because of the confusing nature of English spelling, it is important to learn English pronunciation in terms of phonemes rather than letters of the alphabet. Since, there is not always a correspondence between the English spoken form and the written form.

6. Quiz: Can you pronounce the following words (***Score your correct answers out of 10***)

Chaos, Hiccough, Edinburgh, Ewe, Audi, Subpoena, Shepherd, Oxford, Greenwich, Yacht. ***... /10***

LECTURE 02

Introduction to Articulatory Phonetics

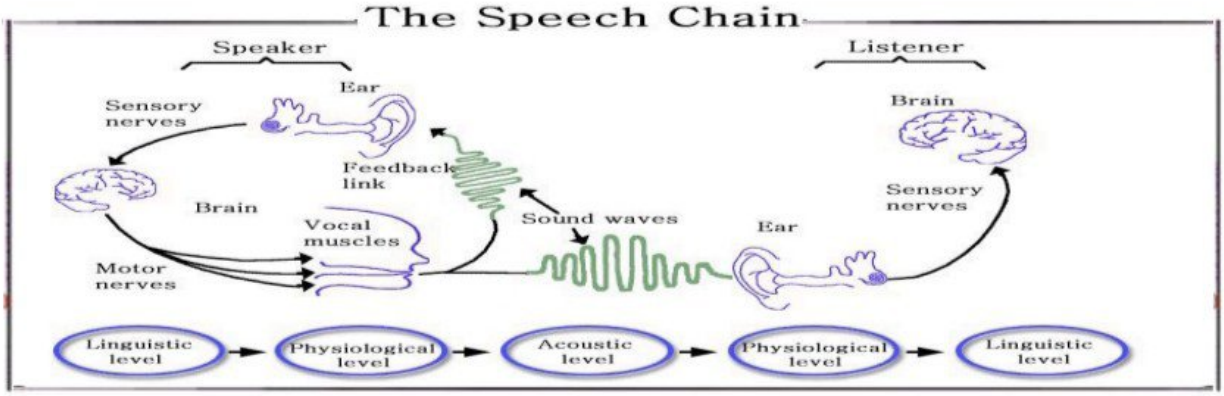
The production of speech: The Physiological Aspect

Introduction:

The field of articulatory phonetics is a subfield of phonetics. In studying articulation, phoneticians explain how humans produce speech sounds via the interaction of different physiological structures. To produce any kind of sound, there must be movement of air in the vocal tract then it leaves the body.

1. The speech chain: (adapted from *Gimson*, 2008: 7-15)

Any manifestation of language by means of speech is the result of a highly complicated series of events. The communication in sound of a simple concept as 'it's raining' involves a number of activities on the part of the speaker. In the first place, the formulation of the concept will take place at a linguistic level, i.e. in the brain; the first stage may, therefore, be said to be psychological.



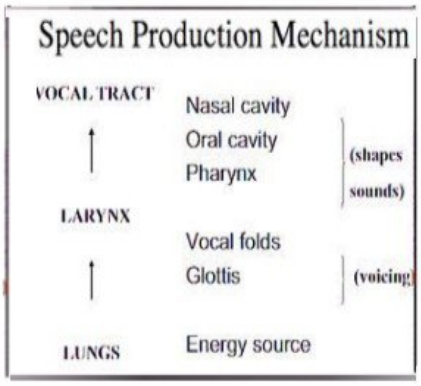
1.1. The psychological stage: in this stage, the nervous system transmits the message to the organs of speech and these in turn behave in a conventional manner, which have the effect of producing a particular pattern of sound.

1.2. The physiological stage: this second stage may also be called articulatory stage (important for our purpose). In this stage, the movement of the organs of speech will create disturbances in the air. These varying air pressures may be investigated and they constitute the third stage.

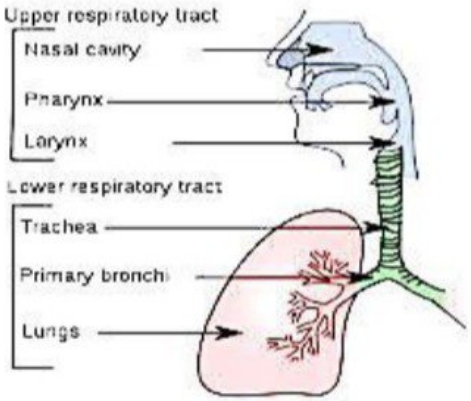
1.3. The physical or acoustic stage: since communication generally requires a listener as well as a speaker, these stages will be reversed to the listening end: the reception of the sound waves by the hearing apparatus (physiological) and the transmission of the information along the nervous system to the brain, where the linguistic interpretation of the message takes place (psychological).

2. The speech mechanism: (adapted from *Gimson*, 2008: 7-15)

Humans possess, in common with many other animals, the ability to produce sounds by using certain of his body's mechanisms. The human being is different from other animals in that he has been able to organize the range of sounds, which he/she can emit into a highly efficient system of communication. Thus, the most usual source of energy for vocal activity is provided by an air-stream expelled from the lungs.



The air-stream provided by the lungs undergoes important modifications in the upper stages of the respiratory tract before it acquires the quality of a speech sound. The production of any speech sound starts when the air escapes from *the lungs* which serve as an *energy source*. It, then, passes through the *trachea* (*wind pipe*) and through the *larynx*. The *larynx* contains *'the vocal cords'* which they open and shut off. Afterwards the air goes up through the *pharynx*, and escapes either via the *oral cavity* or the *nasal cavity*.



The trachea or windpipe, the air-stream passes through the larynx, containing the **vocal cords**.

The larynx is a casing, formed of cartilage and muscle, situated in the upper part of the trachea.

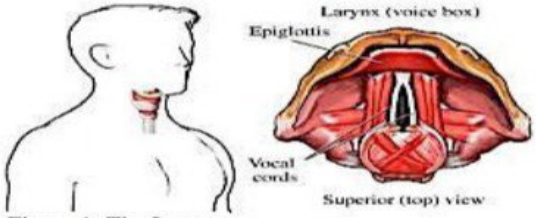


Figure 1: The Larynx

The vocal cords are two folds of ligaments situated at the top of the larynx. They act as a valve to prevent the entry into the trachea and lungs of any foreign body.

The glottis which is the opening between the vocal cords may be held tightly closed, making a glottal stop [ʔ], which occurs frequently in British English.

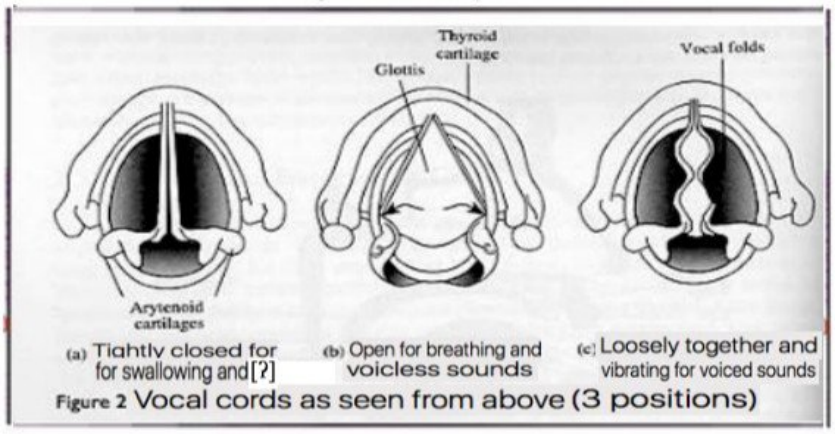


Figure 2 Vocal cords as seen from above (3 positions)

The glottis may be held open in such a way that, when the air steam is expelled through with sufficient energy, there is an audible glottal friction /h/. The action of the vocal cords which is most characteristically a function of speech consists in their role as vibrator set in motion by the lung air- the production of voice, or phonation; the vocal cords vibration is a feature of all vowels and some consonants such as /b, d, g/ …

When there is an almost total closure of the glottis, a very quiet whisper may result. There is no vibration and we call sounds such as some consonants voiceless /p, k, t/ …

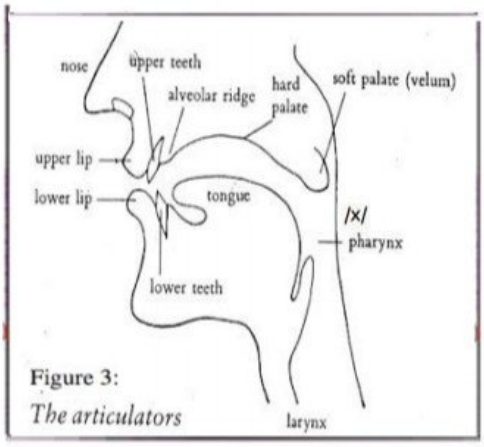


Figure 3:
The articulators

The pharynx is the place which comes immediately above the larynx and behind the back of the tongue. It is between the larynx the nasal cavity.

The Palate forms the roof of the mouth and separates the mouth cavity from the nasal cavity. It contains hard, soft palate, and alveolar ridge, in which the former ends in the **uvular.**

The Teeth are very important in speech, in English sounds like /θ/, /ð/ both of the lower teeth and upper teeth are used.

The Tongue is the most important of the organs of speech. It is divided into four parts, the back of the tongue is under the soft palate and the front is under the hard palate whereas the blade is under the alveolar ridge and the tip for teeth. The tongue has many shapes and positions when articulating vowels

The Lips can take several positions. They can brought together to stop the air and release it suddenly like in /p/ & /b/. Lower lip can touch the upper teeth to produce /f/,/v/. The articulation of vowels depend mainly on the shape of the lips such as: /i:/ spread lips but for /u:/ the lips are rounded.

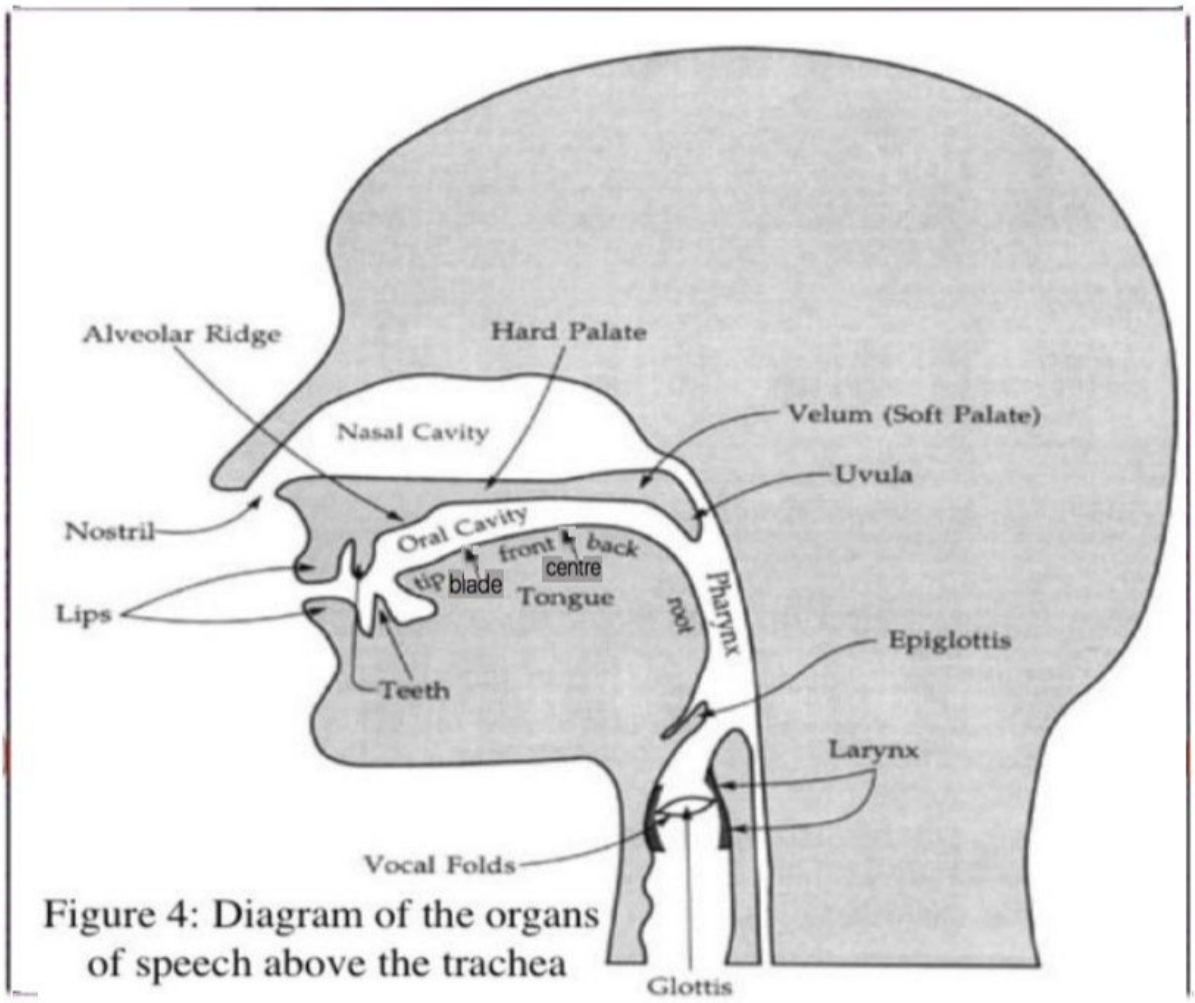


Figure 4: Diagram of the organs of speech above the trachea

Task one: starting from the information obtained from the course and from you own observation complete the table below, which compares *the survival* vs *the speech functions* of each speech organ.

Organs	Survival function	Speech function
Lungs	exchange oxygen and carbon dioxide	Supply airstream to the articulators
Vocal cords	----------	----------
Tongue	----------	----------
Teeth	----------	----------

Lecture 3 : Detailed Study of English Consonants

Introduction

In this lesson, we will introduce the properties of English consonants and their force, place, and manner of articulation.

1. Consonants /ˈkɒnsənənts/

Consonant: (*n.*) (**C**) it can be defined phonetically as the sound made by a closure or narrowing in the vocal tract so that the airflow is either **completely blocked, partially, or restricted with an audible friction.**

There are 24 consonantal phonemes classified in the table below into two general categories:

A. Those articulations in which there is a total closure or a stricture causing friction. In this class, there is a distinctive opposition between fortis and lenis.

B. Those articulations in which there is a partial closure or an oral or nasal escape of air. Such articulations, typically voiced and frequently frictionless may share many phonetic characteristics with vowels (Gimson, p.149).

	Place of Articulation / Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
A	Plosive	p , b			t , d				k , g	
A	Fricative		f , v	θ , ð	s , z		ʃ , ʒ			h
A	Affricate						tʃ , dʒ			
A	Nasal	m			n				ŋ	
B	Lateral				l					
B	Approximant[1]	w				r		j		

IPA table contains the **consonant phonemes** of the English language

2. Properties of English Consonants

A consonant is described in terms of **manner and place of articulation** and **voicing.**

2.1 Manner of Articulation

Plosive: formed by a blockage of the vocal tract, followed by an explosive release of air. As follows:

1- The CLOSING stage: the articulators move together to form the obstruction of the air breathed in.

2- The COMPRESSION stage: during which the lung compresses the air in the vocal tract.

3- The RELEASE stage: the organs forming the obstruction set apart rapidly, allowing the air to escape abruptly.

There are six *stops or* plosive consonants in English, as follows: / p, t, k, b, d, g /.

Fricative: formed by slight contact between articulators, allowing turbulent airflow. There are **nine** fricative consonants in English. i.e.: /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h /.

Affricate: formed by a blockage of the vocal tract like plosives and, followed by a gradual release of turbulent air, like a fricative. For instance: / tʃ, dʒ /.

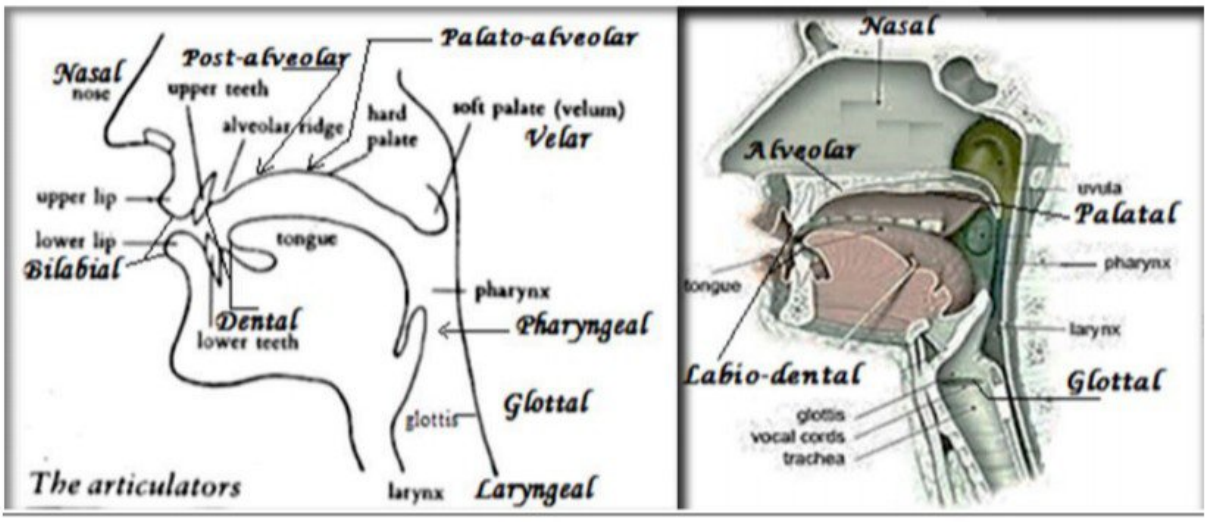
Nasal: formed by the lowering of the velum, allowing air to flow through the nasal cavity. i.e.: /m, n/.

***Lateral* (approximant):** formed by an obstruction of the passage of the airflow in the centre of tongue meanwhile the air flows through both sides of the tongue where obstruction occurs. E.g.: / l /.

Approximant: formed by the constriction of the vocal tract, but with no blockage of the air. /w, r, j/.

2.2 Place of Articulation

The following figures represent the major **Places of Articulation for English Consonants**:



The term place of articulation classifies speech sounds in terms of where in the vocal tract the shape is altered. Hereafter, the main places of articulation of English consonants are shown as:

Bilabial: bilabial sounds are those sounds made by the articulation of the lips against each other. i.e: /b, p, m, w/.

Labio-dental: labiodental sounds are made by moving the upper teeth towards the lower lip. i.e.: /f , v/.

Dental: interdental sounds are made by moving the tip of the tongue between the teeth. i.e.: / θ, ð /.

Alveolar: alveolar sounds are made by moving the tip of the tongue towards the alveolar ridge. / t, d, s, z, n, l /.

Palato-alveolar: sounds are made by pressing the front of the tongue towards the area between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate. Examples of such sounds in English are the following: / ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ /.

Post-alveolar: is a place of articulation produced with significant raising of the front of the tongue toward the back of the alveolar ridge in a retroflex manner. For example: /r/.

Palatal: palatal sounds are made by pressing the body of the tongue towards the hard palate. i.e.: / j /.

Velar: velar sounds are made by pressing the body of the tongue towards the velum. i.e.: / k , g , ŋ /.

Glottal: glottal sounds are made at the glottis by narrowing in the vocal tract. i.e.: / h /.

2.3. Force of Articulation/ Voicing

With regard to the *force of articulation*, we use the following terms: **fortis** (strong) and **lenis** (weak). In phonetic terms, *fortis sound* means an unvoiced sound which requires more force to be articulated. However, the *lenis sounds* are voiced sounds articulated with less force. For example: fortis /p/, lenis /b/.

3. Description of the Articulation of English Consonants

3.1. Identification of the consonants /p/, /b/

Those two bilabial sounds are made with total closure using the lips. The soft palate is raised to stop the air from escaping through nasal cavity. /**p**/ is unvoiced and fortis. /**b**/ is voiced and lenis. *Pay*/peɪ/, *bye*/bɑɪ/.

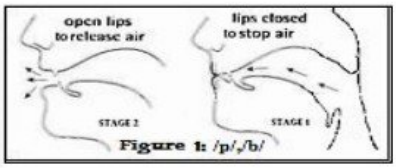


Figure 1: /p/,/b/

3.2. Identification of the consonants /k/, /g/

Those two velar sounds are made with total closure using the back of the tongue against the soft palate the suddenly release the air. /**k**/ is unvoiced and fortis. /**g**/ is voiced and lenis. e.g: *can*/kæn/, *guess*/ges/.

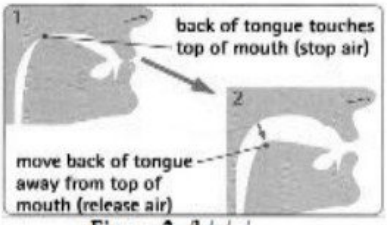


Figure 2: /k/, /g/

3.3. Identification of the consonants /t/, /d/

Those two alveolar sounds are made with total closure using the tongue blade against the alveolar ridge. Soft palate is raised to stop air from going to nasal cavity. /**t**/ is unvoiced & fortis. /**d**/ is voiced & lenis. *Tie*/tɑɪ/, *do*/duː/.

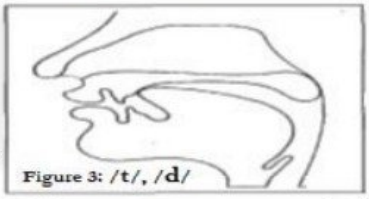


Figure 3: /t/, /d/

3.4. Identification of the consonants /f/, /v/

Labiodental sounds are made with partial closure in which an audible friction is heard. They are articulated with the front upper teeth against lower lip. /**f**/ is unvoiced & fortis. /**v**/ is voiced & lenis. *fit* /fɪt/, *vice* /vɑɪs/.

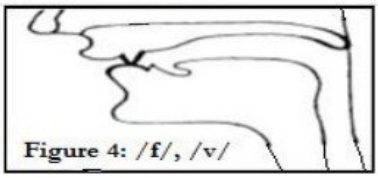


Figure 4: /f/, /v/

3.5. Identification of the consonants /θ/, /ð/

Dental sounds are made with partial closure or narrow opening using the upper front teeth against tongue-tip. The soft palate is raised. The consonant /θ/ is unvoiced & fortis. /ð/ is voiced & lenis. *Thin* /θɪn/, *that* /ðæt/.

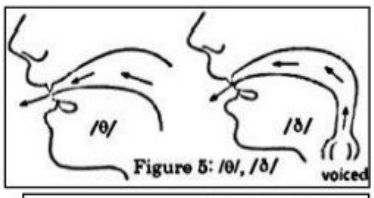


Figure 5: /θ/, /ð/

3.6. Identification of the consonants /s/, /z/

Those alveolar sounds are made with partial closure. The soft palate is raised to stop air from going thru nasal cavity. The tip of the tongue contacts alveolar ridge. /**s**/ is voiceless & fortis. /**z**/ is voiced & lenis. *See* /siː/, *zoo* /zuː/.

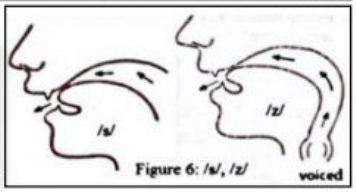


Figure 6: /s/, /z/

3.7. Identification of the consonants /ʃ/, /ʒ/

Fricative consonants are formed by a narrowing of the air passage then the air escapes making a kind of hissing sound with an audible friction. The blade of the tongue contacts the palato-aveolar slightly. The soft palate is raised. /**ʃ**/ is unvoiced & fortis. /**ʒ**/ is voiced & lenis. *Shake* /ʃeɪk/, *beige* /beɪʒ/.

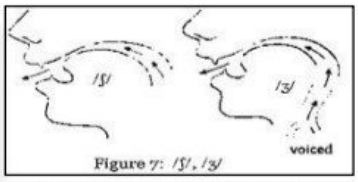
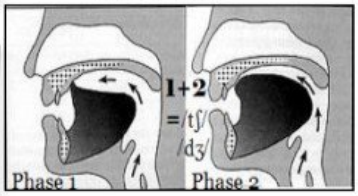


Figure 7: /ʃ/, /ʒ/

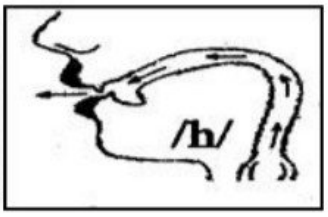
3.8. Identification of the consonants /tʃ/, /dʒ/

The English affricative sounds /**tʃ**/ and /**dʒ**/ are described as a transition from the plosives /**t, d**/ into the fricatives /**ʃ , ʒ**/ rapidly to get one phoneme. /**tʃ**/ is unvoiced & fortis. /**dʒ**/ is voiced & lenis. *Chief* /tʃiːf /, *Jack* /dʒæk/.



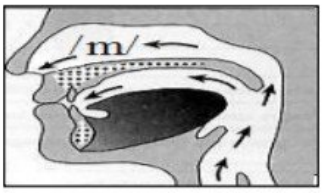
3.9. Identification of the consonant /h/

This consonant is articulated with the narrowing of the airflow in glottis. It is a kind of breathing out with an audible friction in the vocal cords. /**h**/ is voiceless when produced alone, but voiced when followed by a vowel. Example words: *Heat* /hiːt/, *who* /huː/, *perhaps* /pəˈhæps/, *adhere* /ədˈhɪə/.



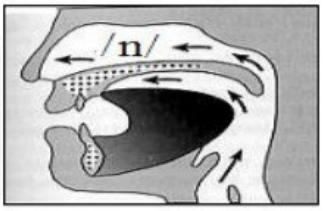
3.10. Identification of the consonant /m/

In the nasal consonants the air escapes through nose. To do this, the soft palate is lowered to let air go to nasal cavity. /**m**/ is articulated with closed lips (bilabial) then air goes through nasal cavity. /**m**/ is voiced. *Mike* /mɑɪk/.



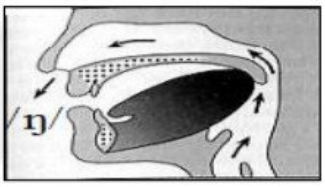
3.11. Identification of the consonant /n/

In the nasal sound /n/ the velum is lowered so that the air can escape thru nasal cavity. /**n**/ is articulated with tongue tip pressing the alveolar ridge. /**n**/ is voiced. *Nile*/nɑɪl/, *snow* /snəʊ/, *fallen* /ˈfɔːlən/, none /nʌn/.



3.12. Identification of the consonant /ŋ/

This voiced nasal sound is made with the back of the tongue against velum. e.g.: *Ring* /rɪŋ/, *link* /lɪŋk/, *singer* /ˈsɪŋə/, *hanger* /ˈhæŋə/, *hunger* /ˈhʌŋgə/.

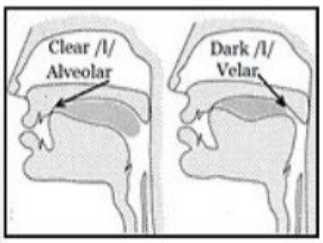


3.13. Identification of the consonant /l/

This voiced alveolar lateral consonant is articulated with tongue centre and the alveolar ridge in which the air flows around both sides of the tongue. There are two types of laterals:

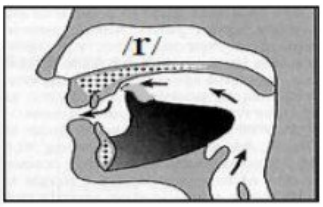
The clear /l/ is voiced alveolar lateral as: *let* /let/, wallet /ˈwɒlɪt/, *elite* /ɪˈliːt/

The dark /l/ is voiced velar lateral as: *well* [wel̴], *milk* [mɪl̴k], *little* [ˈlɪt̴].



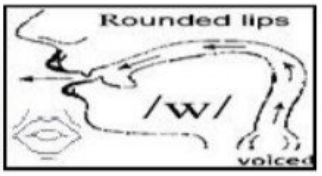
3.14. Identification of the consonant /r/

This post-alveolar consonant is pronounced with the articulators approach each other without a plosive or fricative sound as an approximant. The tip of the tongue approaches further back to the alveolar ridge somehow like /**t**, **d**/. the lips are slightly round. /**r**/ is voiced. *Right* /rɑɪt/, *free* /friː/, *writer* /ˈrɑɪtə/.



3.15. Identification of the consonant /w/

This glide or semivowel is made like back close vowel /**uː**/ but it is very short. This bilabial approximant is articulated with rounded lips. /**w**/ **&** /**j**/ never occur in word final position. e.g.: *waste* /weɪst/, *require* /rɪˈkwɑɪə/.



3.16. Identification of the consonant /j/

This glide or semivowel is made like front close vowel /**iː**/ but is very short. This palatal approximant is articulated with the back of the tongue raised to the velum (soft palate). /**j**/ is voiced. *Yes*/jes/, *tube*/tjuːb/, *new*/njuː/.

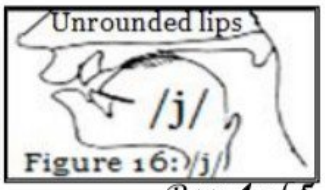


Figure 16: /j/

4. Time for practice

Task 1: ***Mention the consonant sounds described and their Voicing, Place, Manner of Articulation (VPM):***

a- The vocal cords vibrate. The soft palate is raised. A narrowing is formed between the tip and the blade of the tongue with alveolar ridge. A friction occurs. .....

b- The vocal cords do not vibrate. The soft palate is raised. A complete closure is made between the blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge. Meanwhile, the front of tongue is raised towards the hard palate. The closure is released slowly with a friction heard. .....

c- The vocal cords vibrate. The soft palate is lowered. A complete closure is made by the lips. The closure is released abruptly. .....

Task 2: ***Transcribe the words then write out the common sound for each set of words:***

1- Chest, cheap, chain, attach, fetch, wretch, question, suggestion, century, nature .....

2- Job, juice, eject, major, magic, pigeon, fragile, adjacent, exaggerate, judge .....

3- Thy, thou, though, clothes, leather, feather, worthy, breathe, smooth .....

Task 3: ***Find two minimal pairs for each consonant sound of the following:***

/p/	/b/	/s/	/z/	/n/	/ŋ/	/k/	/g/
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Task 4: ***Find the spelling form of the following:***

1- Quick /kwɪk/ **9-** .....
2- ..... **10-** .....
3- ..... **11-** .....
4- ..... **12-** .....
5- ..... **13-** .....
6- ..... **14-** .....
7- ..... **15-** .....
8- ..... **16-** .....

tʃ	eə	ɪ	ŋ	g	l	ɪ	ʃ
m	k	w	e	s	tʃ	ə	n
ɪ	k	n	j	uː	z	b	s
k	w	k	əʊ	s	f	r	ɪ
s	ɪ	w	ʃ	k	j	iː	k
t	k	aɪ	ə	uː	uː	ð	s
e	dʒ	t	n	l	tʃ	z	θ
dʒ	uː	s	ʃ	uː	ə	ð	əʊ

Task 5: ***Write words' spelling for the transcribed utterances in the given instances:***

/ˈpleɪst/	/ˈɔːlweɪz/	/wʌns/	/ˈeksəsɑɪz/	/ˈrɪtʃəd/	/ˈmeʒəd/ .....
/kɒfs/	/əˈlɑʊ/	/ˈlæŋgwɪdʒ/	/ˈeəriə/	/ɪgˈzɑːmpl̩/	/wɔːnz/ .....
/ˈθiːsɪs/	/ˈpeɪntɪŋz/	/ˈdɪfɪkəlt/	/ɪˈnʌf/	/mʌnθ/	/ˈtrɑɪɪŋ/ .....

4. Time for practice

Task 1: ***Mention the consonant sounds described and their Voicing, Place, Manner of Articulation (VPM):***

a- The vocal cords vibrate. The soft palate is raised. A narrowing is formed between the tip and the blade of the tongue with alveolar ridge. A friction occurs. /z/ Voiced Alveolar Fricative

b- The vocal cords do not vibrate. The soft palate is raised. A complete closure is made between the blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge. Meanwhile, the front of tongue is raised towards the hard palate. The closure is released slowly with a friction heard. /tʃ/ Voiceless Palato-alveolar Affricate

c- The vocal cords vibrate. The soft palate is lowered. A complete closure is made by the lips. The closure is released abruptly. /m/ Voiced Bilabial Nasal

Task 2: ***Transcribe the words then write out the common sound for each set of words:***

1- Chest, cheap, chain, attach, fetch, wretch, question, suggestion, century, nature ... /tʃ/

2- Job, juice, eject, major, magic, pigeon, fragile, adjacent, exaggerate, judge ... /dʒ/

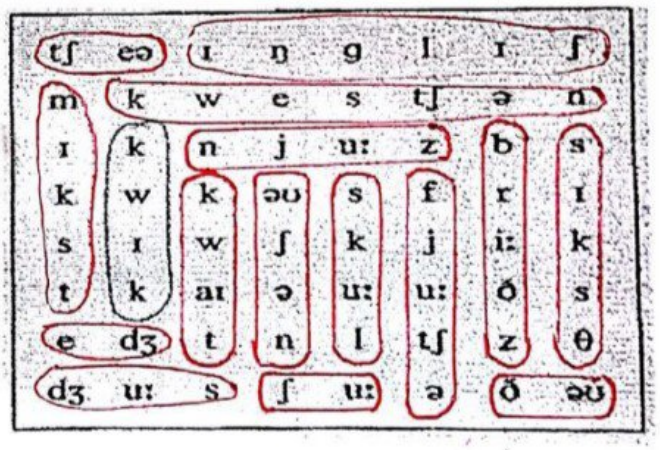
3- Thy, thou, though, clothes, leather, feather, worthy, breathe, smooth ... /ð/

Task 3: ***Find two minimal pairs for each consonant sound of the following:***

/p/	/b/	/s/	/z/	/n/	/ŋ/	/k/	/g/
Pin	Bin	Sink	Zinc	Sin	Sing	Came	Game
Pad	Bad	Seal	Zeal	Ton	Tongue	Clue	Glue

Task 4: ***Find the spelling form of the following:***

1- Quick /kwɪk/
2- Chair
3- English
4- Mix ed
5- Edge
6- Juice
7- Question
8- News
9- Sixth
10- Shoe
11- Though
12- Breathes
13- Future
14- School
15- Ocean
16- Quite



Task 5: ***Write words' spelling for the transcribed utterances in the given instances:***

/ˈpleɪst/ Placed	/ˈɔːlweɪz/ Always	/wʌns/ Once	/ˈeksəsaɪz/ (v) Excercise	/ˈrɪtʃəd/ Richard	/ˈmeʒəd/ Measured
/kɒfs/ Coughs	/əˈlaʊ/ Allow	/ˈlæŋgwɪdʒ/ Language	/ˈeəriə/ Area	/ɪgˈzɑːmpl/	/wɔːnz/
/ˈθiːsɪs/ Thesis	/ˈpeɪntɪŋz/ Paintings	/ˈdɪfɪkəlt/ Difficult	/ɪˈnʌf/ Enough	/mʌnθ/ Month	/ˈtraɪɪŋ/ Trying

1. In the words given below indicate plosives:

/k/ /k/ /b/ /b/
castle, ringing, thumbnail, Christmas, blackboard, psalm.

2. In the words given below indicate fricatives:

/s/ /z/ /ʃ/ /f/ /f/ /θ/ /z/ /f/ /s/ /f/
gin, examination, honorary, draught, pharaoh, thousand, philosophy.

3. In the words given below indicate nasals:

/m/ /ŋ/ /m/ /n/ /m/ /ŋ/ /m/ /m/ /m/
most, darling, column, pneumatic, handkerchief, commemorate, asthma.

4. In the words given below indicate semi-vowels:

/w/ /w/ /w/ /j/ /j/
with, acquaint, soliloquy, answer, Yorkshire, wrinkle, yesterday.

5. In the words given below indicate affricates:

/dʒ/ /tʃ/ /ʃ/ /tʃ/ /dʒ/ /dʒ/ /tʃ/
gin, cello, succession, Chicago, badge, adjust, duchess.

6. In the words given below indicate bilabial sounds:

/b/ /b/ /p/ /ʒ/
bill, pheasant, bombing, approach, handsome, Geoffrey, hiccough.

7. In the words given below indicate velar sounds:

/k/ /g/ /g/ /ŋ/ /k/ /k/ /k/ /k/ /k/ /k/
kettle, paradigm, singing, Connecticut, hierarchy, Chicago, celtic.

8. In the words given below indicate dental sounds:

/θ/ /ð/ /ð/ /ð/ /θ/
thin, number, something, Thames, rhythm, weather, Anthony.

9. In the words given below indicate alveolar sounds:

/l/ /t/ /d/ /d/ /l/ /l/
lack, thyme, courageous, diphthong, condemn, Faulkner, solemnly.

10. In the words given below indicate palato-alveolar sounds:

/tʃ/ /dʒ/ /dʒ/ /ʃ/ /ʒ/
chimpanzee, archangel, spinach, stomach, Sean, allusion.

Study questions:

1. Why are consonants termed as obstruents? High degree of obstruction
2. What are the basic features that characterise consonants? VPM
3. What are the various types of obstructions? Plosives, fricatives, affricates
4. How do plosives differ from fricatives? the first total closure and 2nd partial
5. How are approximants subdivided? Lateral, retroflex, semivowels.
6. Why are affricates called homorganic sounds? produced using the same organs.
7. Describe the phases in the production of plosive sounds.
   - Closing stage
   - Compressing stage (holding stage)
   - Release stage.

Linguistics

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

1. What is linguistics /lɪŋˈgwɪstɪks/ ?

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language.
First, we should know that what is language?
- Language is the central object of study in linguistics. According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopedic Dictionary*, language is a "system of sounds, words, patterns, etc used by humans to communicate thoughts and feelings." In General, people in their daily life tend to use the term *language* to signify many aspects of human and animal communication such as the language of flowers, the language of colours, the language perfumes, the language of bees, body language, the language of dreams, the language of traffic lights, etc. Surely, it is not that sense of language in which linguists are interested. One of the distinctive features of linguistics is its focus on *human verbal communication*.
- Language is a method of communication across human beings, either written or spoken, consisting of the use of words in a structured way.

According to Robins (1985): "Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential parts of the human life as we know it and as one of the far-reaching of human capabilities, in relation to the whole span of mankind's achievements."

- Linguistics is scientific which is bound to four major principles that govern language analysis:

1. **Exhaustiveness:** it means that the work has to be complete and thorough.
2. **Systematicness:** The work is characterized by order and planning.
3. **Consistency and objectivity:** the work has to be clear and without contradiction.
4. **Economy:** the linguist is bound to use few words to mean much.

2. A historical overview of the emergence of linguistics

Modern linguistics emerged in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries with the shift of focus from historical concerns of changes in languages over time to the idea that a language can be viewed as a self-contained and structured system situated at a particular point in time. This forms the basis for structuralist linguistics that developed in the post-First World War period.

a- The appearance of modern linguistics

1. Babylonian tradition

- Earliest linguistic dated four thousand before the present.
- Linguistic texts from earliest parts were lists of nouns in Sumerian the language of religious and legal texts.
- Sumerian was replaced by everyday speech by a different language.

Over the years Sumerian words were provided with Arcadian translations that were equivalents for not just single words.

2. Hindu Tradition

- Origins in the first millennium BC.
- Simulated by changes in Sanskrit.
- Expansion of rules for the ancient language.
- Panini's grammar covered phonetics and morphology and expressed largely rules of word formation.

3. *Greek Linguistics*

- It developed slightly in response to linguistic change needing explanation of the language of Homer's epics.
- Important facts of this Greek tradition were the origin of language, parts-of-speech systems, relation between language and thought, etc.
- Appollonius Dyscolus described Greek syntax a couple of centuries later.

4. *Roman Tradition*

- Continued studying Greek linguistic themes.
- Ancient traditions caused changes in the spoken language.
- The most important interest was morphology.
- Varro produced a multi-volume grammar of Latin.

5. *Arabic Traditions*

Arabic tradition was influenced by the Greek grammarians who were characterized by accurate phonetic descriptions and it was further developed by Al-Khaleel Ibn Ahmad's dictionary al-ayn, which was authored on the basis of place of articulation of the speech sounds of Arabic, thus indicating advanced knowledge of articulatory phonetics as well as Sibawaihi's al-Kitaab and Risalat Ibn Sina in phonetics (i.e. Avicenna 1037 AD).

6. *Middle Ages in Europe*

Latin was the primary written language in Europe.
Pedagogic grammars of Latin appeared for non-native speakers of Latin.
The notion of the universal nature of grammar was refined and developed by Roger Bacon among others.
Bacon believed that grammar was essentially equal for all the languages.

7. *Modern Linguistics*

Modern linguistics emerged in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century with the shift of focus from historical concerns of changes in languages overtime to the idea that a language can be viewed as self-contained and structured system.

Ferdinand de Saussure was the founding father of modern linguistics; he believed that language is a system of arbitrary signs what has been highly influential.
In 1886, the International Phonetic Association was established.

- The prague school was interested on the phonological theory, they placed the notion of the phoneme as one of the most important units besides including the area of syntax.
- Roman Jacobson impacted on the development of phonological theory in USA.
- J.R Firth brought original and provocative perspectives to linguistics and his tradition established "London School" that is interested in phonetics and phonology.
- Glossematics approach, an algebraic theory of language, was developed and it focused on the relations between units in the language system.
- American linguistics looked for information of the languages and cultures Native Americans before they disappeared, the methods that were applied became the basis of American structuralism.

b- Traditional Grammar Vs. Modern Linguistics

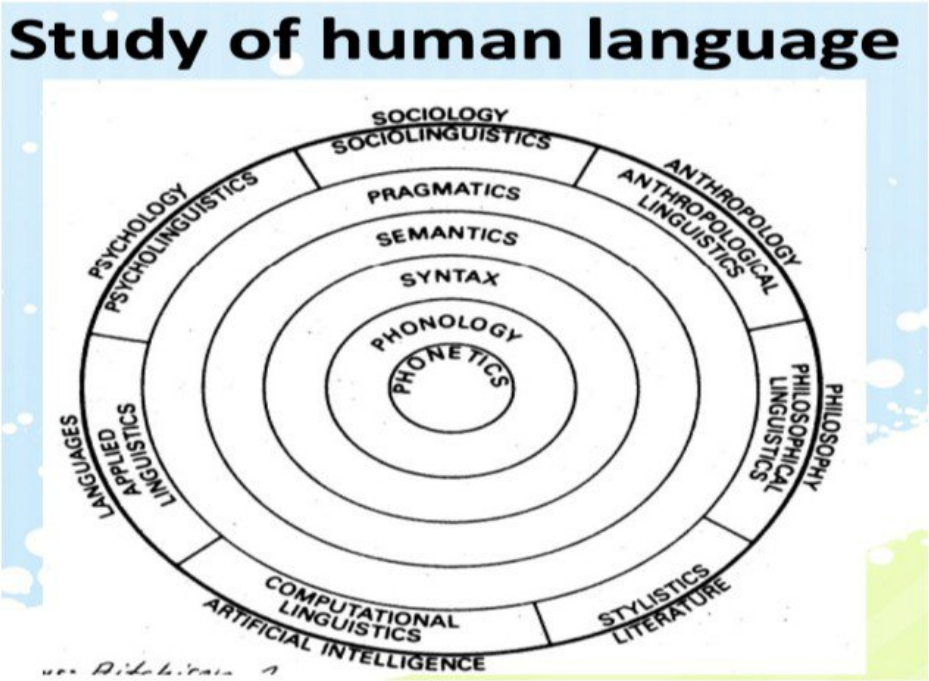
Linguistics is the **scientific study** of language and its structure, including the study of grammar, syntax, and phonetics. In contrast, traditional grammar is to the type of language study that existed before the beginnings of modern linguistics. It was a collection of **prescriptive** rules and concepts about the structure of language. Most importantly, traditional grammar is **prescriptive** whereas modern linguistics is **descriptive**. This is the main difference between traditional grammar and modern linguistics.

Traditional grammar	Linguistics
• T.G study language in relation to other disciplines.	• Linguistics study language as a complex and organized system of communication.
• study is not an autonomous subject.	• Language study is an autonomous subject.
• T.G explains how features of language are related to the human beings.	• Linguistics explains how features of language are related to each other.
• T.G pays more attention to the written form of the language	• Linguistics puts emphasis on the spoken medium.
• T.G is prescriptive.	• Linguistics is descriptive.
• T.G is interested more in syntax.	• Linguistics has a brooder scope for research.

Furthermore, most traditional grammarians considered **written** form as the most important aspect of language; however, modern linguists consider **speech** as the most important aspect of language. Moreover, traditional grammar attempted to **force** language into a **Latin-based framework**, but modern linguists **do not judge** one language by the standards of another.

3. What does linguistics cover? Micro Linguistics vs. Macro Linguistics

From various point of views, linguistics is divided into:



3.1. Micro Linguistics and its Different Branches

Micro linguistics focuses on the study of language itself, including its sound (phonetics and phonology) grammatical structures (morphology), syntax, and meanings (semantics) in context (pragmatics).

Phonetics

Phonetics is the study of the sounds of language. It deals with the way sounds are produced, transmitted and perceived by human beings. Phonetics is further divided into three different branches that are:

1. **Articulatory phonetics**: deals with the study of articulation of speech sounds,
2. **Acoustic phonetics**: studies the physical properties of sounds as transmitted from mouth to air and then received by ear drum,
3. **Auditory phonetics**: deals with the study of perpetual response to speech sounds as mediated by ear, auditory nerve and brain.

Phonology

Phonology is the study of how sounds are arranged in each language as organized units of speech. It also looks into the specifications in the distribution of sounds into small sound in each language.

Morphology

Morphology deals with the forms of words, use of words and construction of words by small letters. It studies how words are formed into small meaningful units (morphemes). Morphology is divided into two further branches: inflectional morphology and derivational morphology.

Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning in a language. It focuses on studying the structure of meaning of words and making a sentence that is meaningful.

Pragmatics

Pragmatics also deals with the meaning of language but is focuses on meaning in context rather than individual word meanings.

Syntax

Syntax is the study of phrase construction, clauses and sentences in a language. It deals with basic word order followed in any languages.

3.2. Macro Linguistics

Macro-linguistics takes a broad view of linguistic phenomena, studying language in different context and its development over time. Macro-linguistics includes study of other disciplines that are connected with language study in any perspective e.g. the study of relation between society and linguistics is sociolinguistics. Macro-linguistics is further divided into Intra disciplinary branches of linguistics and Intra disciplinary branches of linguistics.

3.2.1 Inter Disciplinary Branches of Macro Linguistics

Inter disciplinary branches of linguistics deals with study of linguistics with relation to other disciplines as sociology, psychology, neurology, geography, etc. Below are inter-disciplinary branches of macro linguistics.

Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is generally used for the study of the relationship between society and language. Sociolinguistics is the branch of linguistics that deals with the effect of society on a language. It has strong connections with anthropology, culture, and sociology.

Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics deals with the study of the mental aspects of language and speech. Its domain is concerned with how language is represented and processed in the brain. Psycholinguistics, study of linguistics and psychology, is part of the field of cognitive science.

Neurolinguistics

Neurolinguistics deals with the study how language is represented in the brain, how and where a brain stores knowledge of a language that we speak. It focuses on what happens in our brains as we acquire a language, and what happens as we put this knowledge into practice.

Computational Linguistics

Computational linguistics is branch of linguistics that is concerned with the rule-based modelling of natural language from a computational perspective. It is the branch of linguistics that deals with the techniques of computer science that are applied to the analysis and synthesis of language and speech.

Stylistics

Stylistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics that deals with the study and interpretation of style and tones in both written and spoken language.

Geographical Linguistics

Geography Linguistic also called dialect geography is study of local or regional variations of a language or dialect studied as a field of knowledge. Language geography is the branch of human geography that studies the geographic distribution of language(s) or its constituent elements.

Cognitive Linguistics

Cognitive linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics that deals with the study of language, mind, and sociocultural experience that first emerged in the 1970s. Cognitive linguistics is characterized by a commitment to the inseparability of meaning and form in the study of language.

3.2.1 Intra Disciplinary Branches of Linguistics

Intra disciplinary branches of linguistics deal with the study of linguistics within its own discipline. Below are the intra disciplinary branches of macro linguistics.

Theoretical Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics also known as General Linguistics deals with concrete theories presented by scholars of language about various aspects concerning to linguistics. General linguistics is devoted to the theoretical study of describing a language and methods of investigating linguistic phenomena.

Historical Linguistics

Historical linguistics, also called diachronic linguistics, is the scientific study of language change over time. Principal concerns of historical linguistics include: how and why language changes, changes in particular languages, history of words i.e., etymology, history of speech communities and relation between different language families.

Descriptive Linguistics

Descriptive Linguistics is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given set of speakers at a given time.

Applied Linguistics

Applied Linguistics examines the structure of language and its role in communication, language acquisition, second language learning, how the social or cultural environment interacts with language, and structure of language and its role in communication.

Comparative Linguistics

Comparative linguistics is an intra disciplinary field of linguistics that deals with comparative study of different languages. It is a sub-branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness. Comparative linguistics is the study of differences and similarities between languages. Particularly it focuses on the comparison of related languages

4. Scope of modern linguistics

Contemporary linguistics is a richly diversified field, with so many specializations that no scholar can hope to cover them all. Linguistics has been applied to an increasing range of practical concerns beyond the traditional ones of language learning, literacy, and translation. Many branches of the subject have contributed in some way to this field, applied linguistics, for instance, descriptive linguistics to maintaining and strengthening endangered languages; psycholinguistics to assisting individuals with language difficulties (e.g. resulting from strokes); pragmatics and conversation analysis to cross-cultural communication; and sociolinguistics to the educational field. Recent years have seen linguists increasingly called on for expert advice in the legal domain, including speaker identification from voice recordings and land-rights for indigenous peoples. Another major area of application is in the computational field, including to machine generation and recognition of speech, automatic parsing of texts, translation, and building and maintaining large corpora (collections of texts).

Task:

- Work in groups and discuss the following questions briefly:

What are the major branches of linguistics?

What does each of them study?

In what basic ways does modern linguistics differ from traditional grammar?

Is modern linguistics mainly synchronic or diachronic? Why?

For what reasons does modern linguistics give priority to speech rather than to writing?

What are the features of human language that distinguishes it from animal communication system?

LINGUISTICS, SCIENCE AND LANGUAGE

INTRODUCTION

Before starting to examine the foundations of modern linguistics including the contributions of major linguists who established linguistics as a science of language.

2. LINGUISTICS (its Scope)

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It deals with both systematic investigation of the properties of a particular language and understanding the general characteristics that are common in all languages. So, the main goal of Linguistics is to understand and learn more about the world languages. It explores how languages emerged (*diachronic linguistics*), constructed (*syntax*) and changed over time (*contrastive linguistics*), how languages are processed and stored in the mind (*psycholinguistics*) and also studies how languages are acquired by adults and children (*first/second language acquisition*).

Why Study Linguistics

Linguistics as a study helps us understand and analyse human language, as well as provides many viewpoints on how human languages evolved and the causes that influenced them and how to study new languages and describe them scientifically. The top main reasons why you should study Linguistics are:

- To understand and analyse the nature and theories of languages (Microlinguistics).
- To explore different aspects of language use in other domains (Macrolinguistics).
- To understand the vital role of language in human communications and its use in society.

3. SCIENCE

- Linguistics as a science is seen as a way of approaching data and trying to gain understanding. The choice of a scientific approach was made to provide an in-depth study of languages.

- The German linguist **August Schleicher** (1821-1868) placed linguistics among the natural sciences and distinguished linguistics from philology (1850:1, 1860:119) and from the philosophy of language (1860:119). For the American linguist **Leonard Bloomfield** (1887-1949) said that "it is only within the last century or so that language has been studied in a scientific way, by careful and comprehensive observation" (*Language* 1933, p.3)
- In modern science the data from observations by the senses are given *first place* over theory. Theories are inventions or creations of the scientist. Hypotheses is science always remain tentative, when firm observational data collide with the predictions become a theory, it is the theory that must be proven.

- Linguistics has acted in the same way as other sciences in trying to discover and remove assumptions and presuppositions unsupported by evidence. In the last century prescriptivism was thrown out in favour of *scientific descriptivism*. The scientific linguist was to study what people actually say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.

Example 1: The assumption that all languages are structured on a general Indo-European plan, that the categories of Latin grammar may be universally applicable.

Example 2: The Aristotelian assumption of the cross-cultural universality of meanings or mental experience.

- Linguistics as science works with researchable assumptions, which could be approved by *observational evidence*. As in the exact sciences, we can reach valid conclusions by reasoning from valid evidences. BUT can linguistics become a science in this strong sense?

According to this goal, linguistics should build on the accepted foundational assumptions of science referred to previously, that theories must be answerable to observational data, and that any other assumptions unsupported by data, whenever they are discovered, should be rejected.

4. LANGUAGE

The English word **language** derives from Proto-Indo-European **dn̥ǵwéh** "tongue, speech, language" through Latin **lingua**, " tongue, language". The word is sometimes used to refer to codes, ciphers, and other systems such as sign or computer languages used for programming. This lesson is specifically concerned with the properties of natural human language as it is studied in the discipline of linguistics.

Language is a complicated human phenomenon used as a **system of communication** to covey meanings, to ask for performing actions or to express feeling but all attempts to define it has proved inadequate. In brief, we can say, language is a conventional system of communication by means verbal signs either written or spoken in a society by a speech community to communicate with each other.

In the following excerpts, we review the different definitions of language over time provided by different scholars, linguists, authors and reference books.

4.1 Plato *(428-348BC)* on Language

Plato's work the **Cratylus** is the only Platonic dialogue devoted exclusively to language and its relation to reality from a linguistic standpoint. It shows the "correctness of names" in language use as a matter of decision (arbitrary) or convention (reality).

4.2 Aristotle (*384–322 BC)*

Speech is the representation of the experience of the mind. That is according to Aristotle, language is a speech sound produced by human beings in order to express their ideas, emotions, thoughts, desires and feelings.

4.3 Ferdinand de Saussure

Language is an arbitrary system of signs constituted of the signifier and signified. In other words, language is first a system based on no logic or reason; secondly, the system covers both objects and expressions used for objects; and thirdly objects and expressions are arbitrarily linked; and finally, expressions include sounds and graphemes used by humans for generating speech and writing respectively for the purpose of communication.

Saussure, in speaking of language, still used the term *organism* from time to time, but more often he called it a system. According to Saussure, language *is both a social product of the faculty of speech and a collection of necessary conventions that have been adopted by a social body to permit individuals to exercise that faculty. [1916:2; 1959 :9]*

> *It is a storehouse filled by the members of a given community through their active use of speaking, a grammatical system that has a potential existence in each brain, or, more specifically, in the brains of a group of individuals. For language is not complete in any speaker; it exists perfectly only within a collectivity. [1916 :30;1959 :13]*

> *It is a system of signs in which the only essential thing is the union of meanings and sound-images, and in which both parts of the sign are psychological. [1916:32;1959:15]*

4.4 Schleicher

He brought the comparative method to a high degree of development, and was noted for drawing family trees of languages, recognized four parts of grammar: the study of sounds, morphology, the study of function, and syntax (1859). Schleicher saw linguistics as a science on a par with other comparative sciences in biology and geology. For him language was an organism like the other organisms of nature—animal, vegetable, and mineral—a kind of fourth kingdom. Schleicher later emphasized that the material basis of language is in the brain and the organs of speech with their nerves, muscles, etc., and that at least at present it is known only through its audible effect in speech (1865).

4.5 Whitney (1867: 48–51)

He said that language is an institution—the work of those whose wants it subserves. For him it was the product of a series of changes effected by the will and consent of men, but developing in the absence of reflection and conscious intent. He called it a grand system with a highly complicated structure that had its existence only in the minds and mouths of those who use it (1867:35), and it consisted of the associations of ideas and their signs (1867:11).

4.6 Edward Sapir

According to Sapir, language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced sounds. The definition of Sapir expresses that language is mainly concerned with only human beings and constituted a system of sounds produced by them for communication. Sapir defined language as

> a purely human and noninstinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols. [1921:8]

This view stresses the idea of communication and appears to focus more on the external symbols produced than on a sign relation existing in the brains of a collectivity. But Sapir goes on to say that

> Language . . . consists of a peculiar symbolic relation—physiologically an arbitrary one—between all possible elements of consciousness on the one hand and certain selected elements localized in the auditory, motor, and other cerebral and nervous tracts on the other. . . . Hence, we have no recourse but to accept language as a fully formed functional system within man's psychic or "spiritual" constitution. [1921:10]

He adds that:

> The study of language isto be an inquiry into the function and form of the arbitrary systems of symbolism that we term languages. [1921:11]

Here and elsewhere Sapir championed the patterning of language as a system of symbols and its psychological reality.

4.7 Leonard Bloomfield

The totality of the utterances that can be made in a speech community is the language of that speech community. Bloomfield's definition of language focuses on the utterances produced by all the people of a community, and hence overlooks writing. Besides, he stresses form, not meaning, as the basis of language.

Bloomfield (1926) spoke of vocal features or sounds, and stimulus-reaction features of speech. Then by definition an act of speech was an utterance, and the totality of utterances that could be made in a speech-community was the language of that speech-community. A speech-community was defined as a community in which successive utterances are alike or partly alike. The vocal features common to same or partly same utterances were forms, and the corresponding stimulus-reaction features were meanings.

The study of similarities and differences led in Bloomfield's hands to an inductive method for working out the structure of a language from observational data. He summarized:

> To put it briefly, in human speech, different sounds have different meanings. To study this co-ordination of certain sounds with certain meanings is to study language. [1933:27]

In spite of the obvious differences in these positions, we can see a thread of agreement in what has become the canonical view: 1 language is conceived at once as a relation between sound and meaning, 2 the system or code behind particular utterances or texts, 3 postulated on the basis of evidence and having predictive power, 4 described in terms of grammar and lexicon, and 5 incorporating a series of levels variously understood but typically involving phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. This view, in one form or another, is widely, almost universally, held in the discipline today:

> A grammar of a language, in the sense in which I will use this term, can be loosely described as a system of rules that expresses the correspondence between sound and meaning in this language. [Chomsky 1970:52]

> A language, by its nature, relates sounds (or graphs, i.e. marks on paper) to meanings. [Lamb 1966:1]

4.8 Noam Chomsky

Noam Chomsky says the language is the inherent capability of the native speakers to understand and form grammatical sentences. A language is a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. This definition of language considers sentences as the basis of a language. Sentences may be limited or unlimited in number, and are made up of only limited components.

4.9 John Lyons

According to Lyons, languages are the principal systems of communication used by particular groups of human beings within the particular society of which they are members. Especially Lyons points out that, language is the best communicative system of human beings by particular social groups.

4.10 Encyclopedia Britannica

Language is a system of conventional or written symbols by means of which human beings as members of social groups and participants in its culture, communicate. In other words, it says the language is a system of communication of which human beings express themselves.
Thus, we can say, language is a system of communication or arbitrary vocal sounds by means of which human beings are used to communicate and interact with each other in their everyday life. There are approximately 6,500 spoken languages available in the entire world used by different kinds of social groups and cultures.

Study Questions: In groups, discuss the following:

1. Is it theory or methodology what unifies/holds the discipline of linguistics together?
2. In what way(s) are Linguistic Studies scientific?
3. What do the proposed definitions of language have in common?

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Lecture №03: Major Objectives of Linguistics

Modern linguists concern themselves with many different facets of language: how languages are structured, how languages are used, and how they change.

1. Language Structure

Perhaps the most important fundamental assumption is that human language at all levels is rule-governed. Every known language has systematic rules governing pronunciation, word formation, and grammatical construction. Furthermore, the way in which meanings are associated with phrases of a language is characterized by regular rules. Rules of language structure operate at various levels:

Language Levels	Category of Rules
Phonological level	Linguistic rules at this level describe how sounds are pronounced in various positions.
Morphological level	Rules of morphology focus on how words (and parts of words) are structured.
Syntactic level	Rules of language structure at this level deal extensively with how phrases, clauses, and sentences are structured.
Semantic level	Linguistic rules at this level specify precisely what words mean and how they combine into sentence meanings.
Pragmatic level	Linguistic rules at this level specify how the meaning of an utterance is interpreted differently according to situation.

Word order, also known as grammatical order, refers to the sequence in which words or phrases are arranged in a sentence to convey meaning. Different languages have different default word orders, which means that the order of the subject, verb, and object can vary across languages.

Word order	Examples of languages
Subject Object Verb	Hindi, Japanese, Kurdish, Latin, Persian, Turkish
Subject Verb Object	English, French, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Mandarin, Vietnamese
Verb Subject Object	Arabic, Aramaic, Hebrew, Irish
Verb Object Subject	Aneityan (Austronesia), Baure (Bolivia)
Object Verb Subject	Apalai (ancient Indo-European language of northwest Anatolia)

At the beginning of the 20th century, the attention of the world's linguists turned more and more to the study of grammar—in the technical sense of the term the organization of the sound system of a language and the internal structure of its words and sentences. By the 1920s, the programme of 'structural linguistics', inspired in large part by the ideas of the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, was developing sophisticated methods of grammatical analysis.

2. Language Use

Linguistics, the scientific study of language, concerns itself with all aspects of how people use language and what they must know in order to do so. Language use is an inherently social phenomenon. How you speak depends on such factors as ***where*** you grew up, your ***racial*** and ***ethnic*** identity, whether you are a ***woman*** or ***man***, ***whom*** you are ***addressing***, your ***job***, and your ***education***. That is, you use the variation in language as a creative means of expressing who you are (and who you are not). Technical terms such as ***standard language***, ***dialect***, ***accent***, ***register***, ***Jargon***, and ***Slang*** are used by linguists to refer to different variations of language use.

a. standard language: a variety of a language considered by its speakers to be most appropriate in formal and educational contexts. For example, the sentence "Many students are ill" is written in Standard English whereas the sentence "Lots of students are ill" is not.

b. dialect: a regional or social variety of a language in terms of grammar and vocabulary. For example, the English of London is noticeably different from the English of Birmingham, Liverpool, Glasgow, New York, New Orleans, or Sydney. For example,

British English	American English
Elevator	lift
Flat	apartment
first floor	ground floor
He **dived** into the pool	He **dove** into the pool
We should leave by ten **to/past** eight	We should leave by ten **of/after** eight

c. accent: a regional or social variety of a language in terms of pronunciation, a particular way of pronouncing a language. As far as English is concerned, we can cite many examples of accents: American accent, Scottish accent, working-class London accent, French accent, Indian accent, Spanish accent, etc.

e. register: a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific context, which may be identified as situational (e.g. in church), occupational (e.g. among lawyers) or topical (e.g. talking about language). We can recognize specific features that occur in the religious register (*Ye shall be blessed by Him in times of tribulation*), the legal register (*The plaintiff is ready to take the witness stand*) and even the linguistics register (*In the morphology of this dialect there are fewer inflectional suffixes*).

g. Jargon: special technical vocabulary associated with a specific area of work or interest. For instance, the phrase *Zanoxyn is a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug for arthritis, bursitis and tendonitis* is an example of medical jargon.

f. Slang: slang is more typically used among those who are outside established higher-status groups. Slang, or "colloquial speech," describes words or phrases that are used instead of more everyday terms among younger speakers and other groups with special interests. The word 'bucks' (for dollars or money) has been a slang expression for more than a hundred years, but the addition of 'mega-' ('a lot of') in 'megabucks' is amore recent innovation, and 'benjamins' (from Benjamin Franklin, on $100 bills).

3. Language Change

Language change is both obvious and rather mysterious. Historical linguistics is concerned with both the description and explanation of language change. All languages undergo change over time. Linguists study language change by addressing the following questions: Can we trace the evolutionary path of a language? How do language changes spread through communities? How do historical circumstances influence language change?

a. The Historical Evolution of English

English has undergone continuous and dramatic change throughout its three major periods Old English (roughly from 450 to 1100), Middle English (from 1100 to 1500), Early Modern England (from 1500 to 1700) and Modern English (from 1700 to the present). While Chaucer's Middle English is at least partially comprehensible today, Old English looks like a completely foreign language.

Old English	Modern English
Alegdon tha tomiddes maerne theoden Haeleth hiofende hlaford leofne Ongunnon tha on beorge bael-fyra maest Wigend weccan wudu-rec astah Sweart ofer swiothole swogende leg Wope bewunden ***(Beowulf*, 7th century)**	The sorrowing soldiers then laid the glorious prince, their dear lord, in the middle. Then on the hill the war-men began to light the greast of funeral fires. The wood-smoke rose black above the flames, the noisy fire, mixed with sorrowful cries.
Middle English	**Modern English**
Whan that Aprille with his shoures swote The droghte of Marches hath perced to the rote **(Geoffrey Chaucer, *The Canterbury Tales*, about 1387)**	When April with his sweet showers has struck to the roots Dryness of March

Early Modern English	Modern English
DUNCAN: Whence cam'st thou, worthy thane? **(William Shakespeare, *Macbeth*, about 1606-7)**	**DUNCAN:** Where did you come from, worthy Lord?

The Existence of such differences between early and later variants of the same language raises questions as to how and why such languages change over time. Language change occurs mainly as a result of events that are related to political, economic, social, religious, educational, and technological factors such as wars, invasions, the spread of education, new inventions, immigration, new religions, etc.

b. Aspects of Language Change

- **Sound Change:** Changes in sound are somewhat harder to document, but at least as interesting. In a number of changes from Middle to Modern English, some sounds disappeared from the pronunciation of certain words, in a process simply described as ***sound loss***. The initial [h] of many Old English words was lost, as in ***h****lud→loud* and ***h****laford→lord*. Some words lost sounds, but kept the spelling, resulting in the "silent letters" of contemporary written English. Word-initial velar stops [k] and [g] are no longer pronounced before nasals [n], but we still write the words ***k****nee* and ***g****naw* with the remnants of earlier pronunciations. During the so-called "Great Vowel Shift" 500 years ago, English speakers modified their vowel pronunciation dramatically. This shift represents the biggest difference between the pronunciations of so called Middle and Modern English. For example, the word *house* was pronouced /h**u:**s/ by Middle-English speakers, /h**əu**s/ by Early Modern-English speakers, and /h**au**s/ by Modern-English speakers.

- **Semantic Change:** Semantic change occurs through three main processes: borrowing, broadening, and narrowing. ***Borrowing*** means copying words used in other languages. For example, the following words, whose meanings underwent semantic change, were borrowed from French: café, chef, chauffeur, rouge, phrase, sensible, journal, journey, lecture, petrol, actual, and ignore. Another process is the ***broadening*** of meaning. An example of broadening of meaning is the change from "holy day" as a religious feast to the very general break from work called a "holiday". Another example is the modern use of the word "dog". We use it very generally to refer to all breeds, but in its older form (Old English "docga"), it was only used for one particular breed. The reverse process is called ***narrowing***. For example, The Old English version of the word *wife* could be used to refer to any woman, but has narrowed in its application nowadays to only married women.

- **Syntactic Change:** While vocabulary can change quickly, sentence structure—the order of words in a sentence—changes more slowly. Some noticeable differences between the structure of sentences in Old and Modern English involve word order. In Old English texts, we find the Subject-Verb-Object order most common in Modern English, but we can also find a number of different orders that are no longer used. For example, the subject could follow the verb, as in "ferde he" ("he traveled"), and the object could be placed before the verb, as in "he hine geseah" ("he saw him"), or at the beginning of the sentence, as in "him man ne sealde" ("no man gave [any] to him").

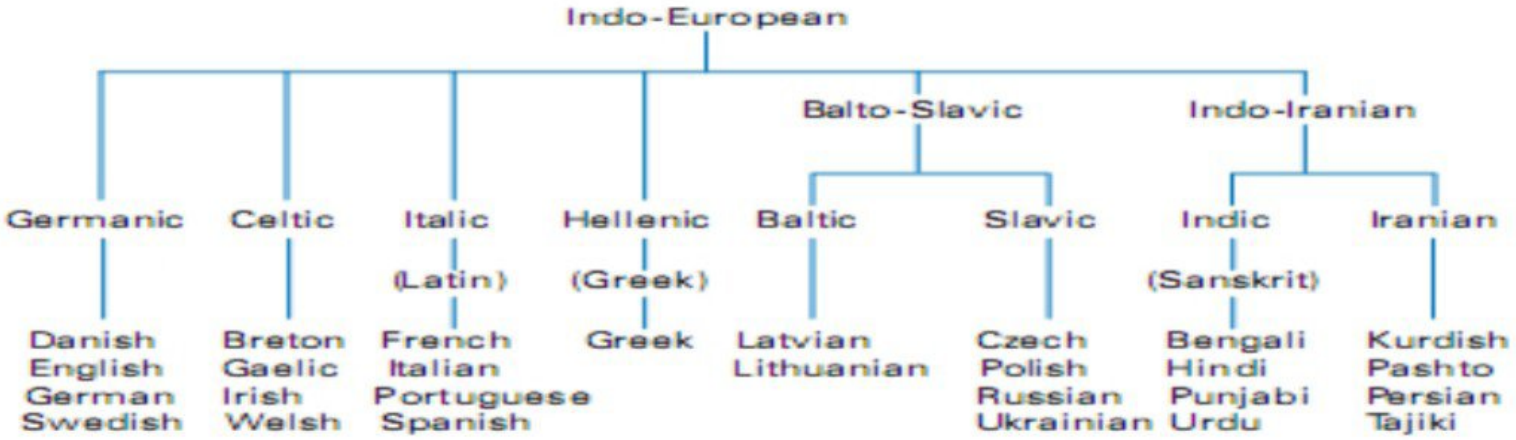
c. Language Families

Languages change very slowly. But once they do, we end up with a family of languages. A language family is a group of languages with a common origin. Linguists have given a name to the family. For instance, the Romance family consists of the parent language (Latin) and the daughter languages (French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese). We also say that French and Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian are sister languages. Some samples from European languages will illustrate this:

English	German	French	Italian	Spanish
Hand	hand	main	mano	mano
Life	leben	vie	vita	vida
Summer	sommer	été	estate	estio

Thus, it could be seen from these examples that English and German constitute one group, and French, Italian, and Spanish another group.

The common origin is postulated to have been a single language, referred to as a **proto-language**, that was spoken at a certain time in the past. Through the ages that proto-language broke up into dialects. As time went by, these dialects become increasingly more different from each other, ending up as different languages, primarily due to geographical distance. These languages developed dialectal differences, and the whole cycle was repeated, many times. The major language families in the world are ***Afro-Asiatic*** (353 languages spoken in Africa and Asia), ***Austronesian*** (1 246 languages spoken in Asia and Oceania), ***Indo-European*** (430 languages spoken in Asia and Europe, and in European settlements in other parts of the world), ***Niger-Congo*** (1 495 languages spoken in Africa), ***Sino-Tibetan*** (399 languages spoken in Asia), and ***Trans-New Guinea*** (561 languages spoken in New Guinea and adjacent islands). the branches of the Indo-European language family are illustrated in diagram below:


Indo-European
Germanic
Celtic
Italic
Hellenic
Balto-Slavic
Indo-Iranian
(Latin)
(Greek)
Baltic
Slavic
Indic
Iranian
(Sanskrit)
Danish
English
German
Swedish
Breton
Gaelic
Irish
Welsh
French
Italian
Portuguese
Spanish
Greek
Latvian
Lithuanian
Czech
Polish
Russian
Ukrainian
Bengali
Hindi
Punjabi
Urdu
Kurdish
Pashto
Persian
Tajiki