

## Chapter 01

## What is linguistics?

**Linguistics:** 'is the systematic study of language' – a discipline which describes language in all its aspects and formulates theories as to how it works.

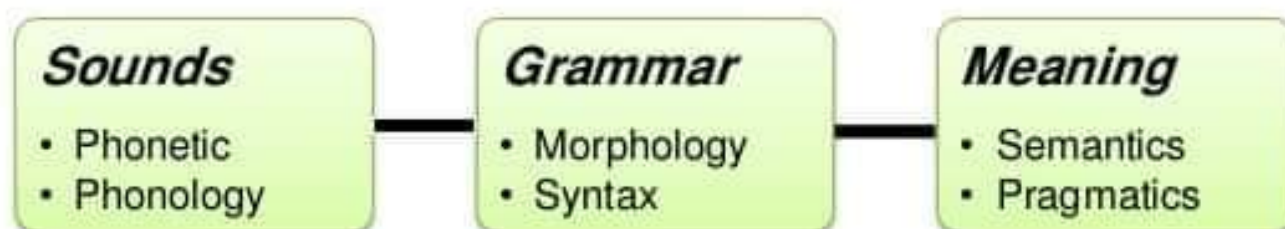
### Q/what is linguist?

A person who studies linguistics is usually referred to as a **linguist**.

### Q/how does linguistics differ from traditional grammar?

- 1- Linguistics is **descriptive** not prescriptive. Linguists are interested in what is said, not what they think *ought* to be said. They describe language in all its aspects, but do not prescribe rules of 'correctness'.
- 2- Linguists regard the **spoken** language as primary, not the written. In the past grammarians have over-stressed the importance of the written word, partly because of its permanence.
- 3- Linguistics doesn't force language into a Latin-based framework. In the past, many traditional textbooks have assumed unquestioningly that Latin provides a universal framework into which all language fit.

### • The scope of linguistics



**Phonetic:** is the science which studies how speech sound are produced, Transmitted and received (Interpreted).

**Phonology:** is the science which studies the system of sound it is conserved sounds pattern.

**Morphology:** is the science which studies word and pieces of word.

**Syntax:** is the science which studies the structure of the sentence.

**Semantics:** is the branch of linguistics and logic concerned with the dictionary meaning.

**Pragmatics:** is the study of what words mean in particular situations.

- **Pure science**

**Psycholinguistics:** is the relationship between language and mind.

**Sociolinguistics:** is the relationship between language and society.

**Applied linguistics:** is the relationship between language and language teaching.

**Computational linguistics:** is the relationship between language and the use of computer.

**Stylistics** is the relationship between language and literature.

**Anthropological linguistics:** is the relationship between language and culture.

**Philosophical linguistics:** is the relationship between language and logical thought.

**Historical linguistics:** is the relationship between language and history.

## • Diachronic Vs. Synchronic

**Note:** the two main temporal dimension of language study, Diachronic and Synchronic, invented by Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure in his course in general linguistics (1916).

**Synchronic:** is the studying of language at a single point of time.  
e.g. 1950

**Diachronic:** is the studying of language through different periods of time.  
e.g. 1950 – 1965 – 2016

**Linguistic typology:** is the study of different language types.

**Q/why do linguists regard speech rather than writing as primary?**

- 1- spoken come first.
- 2- Most writing systematics are derived from vocal cords.
- 3- Not all language are written, but all spoken.

**Q/ what is the difference between a prescriptive and a descriptive approach to language?**

Linguistics is **descriptive** not prescriptive.

Linguists are interested in what is said, not what they think *ought* to be said.

**Descriptive** is describe language in all its aspects.

**Prescriptive** means that the rules of language.

## Chapter 02

## What is language?

**Language:** is a patterned system of arbitrary sound signals, characterized by structure dependence, creativity, displacement, duality and cultural transmission.

- An American linguist *Charles Hockett* made a list of **design feature** to defined and distinguish from other system of animal communication.

### 1- Use of sound signals

**Sound signals have several advantages:**

- 1- They can be used in the dark and at some distance.
- 2- They allow a wide variety of message to be send.
- 3- They leave the body free for other activities.

### 2- Arbitrariness

**Animals ...** There is often strong recognizing link between the actual signal and the message an animal wishes to convey.

A cat, **for example**, will arch its back, spit and appear ready to pounce.

In **human** language, the reverse is true. There is no link whatsoever between the signal and the message. The symbols used are **arbitrary**. **For example** the word elephant and animal it symbolizes.

**Note:** words such as quack-quack and bang are exception

**Onomatopoeic:** words such as *quack-quack* and *bang* are exception – but there are relatively few of those compared with the total number of words.

### 3- The need for learning

Many **animals** automatically know how to communicate without learning. Their systems of communication are *genetically inbuilt*.

**Human** language is quite different from the long learning process needed to acquire human language. Which is *culturally transmitted*.

**For example**, if we isolate a newly born child from people for a period of 15 years. He does not acquire human language.

### 4- Duality

Most **animals** can use each basic sound only once. That is, the number of messages an animal can send is restricted to the number of basic sounds. **For example**, dolphins have between twenty and thirty basic sounds.

**Human** language works rather differently. Each language has a stock of sound units or **phonemes** which are similar in number to the basic sounds possessed by animals; the average number is between thirty or forty. But each phoneme is normally meaningless in isolation. It becomes meaningful only when it is combined with another phonemes.

**For example**, sound such as *f, g, d, o* mean nothing separately. They become meaning full only when we combined them together in various way, as in *fog, dog, god*.

**This organization of language into two layers:**

A layer of sounds which combine into a second layer of larger units is known as **duality** or **double articulation**.

e.g. first layer      *f, g, d, o*      second layer      *fog, dog, god*

**Q/a communication system with duality is considerably more flexible than one without duality, why?**

Because a far greater number of messages can be sent.



## 5- Displacement

Most **animals** can communicate about things in the immediate environment only. **For example**, a bird utters its danger cry only when the danger is present. It cannot give information about a peril which removed in time and place.

**Human** language, by contrast, can communicate about things that are absent as easily as about things as present. This apparently rare phenomenon, known as **displacement**, does occasionally occur in the animal world.

## 6- Creativity (Productivity)

Most **animals** have a very limited number of messages they can send or receive. The male of a certain species of grasshopper. **For example**, which might be translated such as: 'I am happy, life is good'.

This type of restriction is not found in **human** language, which is essentially **creative** (or **productive**). Humans can produce novel utterances whenever they want to. A person can utter a sentence which has never been said before, in the most unlikely circumstances, and still be understood.

## 7- Patterning

Many **animals** communication systems consist of a simple list of elements. There is no internal organization within the system.

**Human** language is most definitely not a haphazard heap of individual items. Humans do not juxtapose sounds and words in random way. Instead, they ring the changes on a few well-defined patterns.

**For example**, take the sound *a, b, s, t*. In English, there are only four possible ways in which those sounds could be arranged, *bats, tabs, stab*, or *bast*. And all other possibilities, such as *\*sbat, \*abts, \*stba*, are excluded.

Similarly, consider the words, *burglar, loudly, sneezed, the*. Here again, only three combinations are possible: *the burglar sneezed loudly, loudly sneezed the burglar, the burglar loudly sneezed*. And all other are impossible, such as *\*the loudly burglar sneezed*, or *\*sneezed burglar loudly the*.

**Summary:** Language can be regarded as an intricate network of interlink elements in which every item is held in its place and given identity by all other items. No item has an independent validity or existence outside the pattern.

## 8- Structure Dependence

It refers to the operation of language. It is the understanding of the internal structure of a sentence rather than the number of elements involved. But the rarity, or perhaps absence, of this property in animal communication indicate its crucial importance. Its presence has not been provide in any animal system.

Elements of structure can change places, or even be omitted. For example,

1                      2

[That dirty child] [must] wash.

2                      1

[Must] [that dirty child] wash?

In one type of question, the first verbal element changes place with the subject.

Also the number of words in each sentence is no guide whatsoever to its basic structure. For example,

The penguin It The penguin which slipped on the ice	Squawked
---	----------

*The penguin Squawked.*    or    *It Squawked.*

*The penguin which slipped on the ice Squawked.*

## • **Origin of language**

Language probably developed in east of Africa, around 100,000 years ago.

**Three preconditions have existed before the development of human language, and they helped early humans to build up a store of words.**

- 1- Human had to view the world in certain common ways: they noticed objects and actions.
- 2- They were able to produce the range of sounds.
- 3- They must have attained the 'naming insight', the realization that sound sequences can be symbols which 'stand for' people and object.

## • **The role of language**

What is the use of language?

- 1- Social chit-chat, the meaningless small talk of everyday life, may have played a key role, as it does today.
- 2- To persuading and influence other.
- 3- Language can be used to communicate feeling and emotions.
- 4- Can be used for purely aesthetic reasons such as, to write poetry and prose.



## **Chapter 03**

## **The study of language**

There have been three major directions in linguistics in the past two centuries:

- **Nineteenth century: historical linguistics**

### **Q/what was the language before the 19<sup>th</sup> century?**

Before the 19<sup>th</sup> century, language in the western world was of interest mainly to philosophers. It is significant that the Greek philosophers Plato and Aristotle made the major contributions to the study of language. Plato, for example, is said to have been the first person to distinguish between nouns and verbs.

### **Q/what happens in 1786?**

1786 is the year which many people regard as the birthdate of linguistics. In that year, an English man, Sir William Jones, read a paper to the Royal Asiatic Society in Calcutta pointing out that Sanskrit (the old Indian language), Greek, Latin, Celtic and Germanic all had striking structural similarities. So impressive were the likenesses that these languages must spring from one common source.

### **Q/what are the features of comparative grammar?**

- 1- Grammar which are first compared the different linguistic forms found in the various members of the Indo European language family.
- 2- Attempted to set up a hypothetical ancestor, Proto-Indo-European from which all these languages were descended.

### **Q/what happens in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century?**

In the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, Darwin published his famous *Origin of Species*, putting forward the theory of evolution. It seemed natural to attempt to chart the evolution of language alongside the evolution of species.

### **Q/ who are Young Grammarians?**

In the last quarter of the century, a group of scholars centred around Leipzig and nicknamed 'Young Grammarian', claimed that language change is 'regular'. They argued that if, in any word of a given dialect, one sound changes into another, the change will also affect all other occurrences of the same sound in similar phonetic surroundings.

For example, in Old English the word *chin* was pronounced 'kin' (spelt *cinn*). This change from a *k-sound* to *ch* affected all other *k-sounds* which occurred at the beginning of a word before *e* or *i* so we also get *chicken*, *child*, *cheese*... etc. all of which originally had a *k-sound* at the beginning.

### **• Early- to mid-20<sup>th</sup> century: descriptive linguistics**

### **Q/what happens to language in the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century?**

In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the emphasize shifted from language change to language description. Instead of looking at how a selection of items changed in a number of different languages, linguists began to concentrate on describing single languages at one particular point in time.

### **Q/who is the responsible of the language change to language description in 1915?**

If any one person can be held responsible for this change of emphasize, it was Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), who is sometimes labelled 'the father of modern linguistics. Amazingly, he died without having written any major work on general linguistics. But his students collected his lecture notes after his death and published them under the title *Course in General Linguistics* (1915), which exerted a major influence on the course of linguistics, particularly in Europe.

### **Q/why de Saussure an important figure in linguistics?**

De Saussure's crucial contribution was his explicit reiterated statement that all language items are essentially interlinked. This was an aspect of language which had not been stressed before. Nobody had seriously examined the relationship of each elements to all the others. And it was de Saussure who first suggested that language was like a game of chess, a system in which each item is defined by its relationship to all the others. His insistence that language is carefully built **structure** of interwoven elements initiated the era of **structural linguistics**.

### **Q/what happens in 1933?**

The state of affairs changed with the publication in 1933 of Leonard Bloomfield's comprehensive work entitled simply *language*, which attempted to lay down rigorous procedures for the description of any language.

Bloomfield considered that linguistics should deal objectively and systematically with observable data. So he was more interested in the way items were arranged than in meaning.

### **Q/what are the feature of descriptive grammar?**

- 1- This involved first finding native speakers of the language concerned and collecting sets of utterances from them.
- 2- Second, it involved analyzing the corpus of collected utterances by studying the phonological and syntactic patterns of the language concerned, as far as possible without recourse to meaning.

### **Q/what are discovery procedures?**

The ultimate goal of linguistics was the perfection of discovery procedures – a set of principles which would enable a linguist to 'discover' (or perhaps more accurately, 'uncover') in a foolproof way the linguistic units of an unwritten language.

- **Mid- to late-20 century: generative linguistics and the search for universals**

**Q/what happens in 1957?**

In 1957, linguistics took a new turning. Noam Chomsky, published a book called *Syntactic Structures*.

Chomsky has shifted attention away from detailed descriptions of actual utterances, and started asking questions about the nature of the system which produces the output.

**Q/why Chomsky criticized Bloomfieldian linguistics?**

According to Chomsky, Bloomfieldian linguistics was both far too ambitious and far too limited in scope. <sup>1</sup>It was too ambitious in that it was unrealistic to expect to be able to lay down foolproof rules for extracting a perfect description of a language from a mass of data. <sup>2</sup>It was too limited because it concentrated on describing sets of utterances which happened to have been spoken.

**Q/how did Chomsky used the word 'grammar'?**

Chomsky therefor used the word grammar of the word 'grammar' interchangeably to mean, <sup>1</sup>on the one hand, a person's internalized rules, and <sup>2</sup>on other hand, a linguist's guess as to these rules.

**Generative Grammar:** a grammar which consists of a set of statements or **rules** which specify which sequences of a language are possible, and which impossible, is a **generative grammar**.

**Q/what did Chomsky talked about grammar?**

Chomsky, therefore, initiated the era of generative linguistics. In his words, a grammar will be 'a device which generates all the grammatical sequences of a language and none of the ungrammatical ones.

**Q/explain the word 'explicit' when used in connection with grammars.**

A grammar is perfectly **explicit**, in which nothing is left to the imagination. The rules must exactly formulated in such a way that anyone would be able to separate the well-formed from the ill-formed ones, even if they did not know a word of the language concerned.

**Note:** the particular type of word generative grammar proposed by Chomsky was a so-called **transformational one. Transformational-generative grammar (TGG).**

**Language universals:** Chomsky pointed out that as all humans are rather similar, their internalized language mechanisms are likely to have important common properties.

e.g. Ali studies linguistics. ✓ but My cat studies linguistics. ✗

- **21<sup>st</sup> century: future trends**

**Optimality theory:** is anew major theory, which suggest that there are no fixed bounds on language.

**Corpus linguistics:** is the study and use of computerized databases for linguistic research.



- **There are also two types of Bound Morphemes:**

**Inflectional bound morpheme:** is the bound morpheme which cannot change the grammatical behavior of the word.

**Derivational bound morpheme:** is the bound morpheme which changes the grammatical behavior of the word.

e.g.



- **Allomorphs**

**Allomorphs:** different realization of same morpheme.

e.g. cats /s/ dogs /z/

**An allomorphs is said to be:**

1. **Phonologically conditioned:** is an allomorphs which can be predicted from the preceding sounds.

A. voiceless sounds + s = /s/ e.g. cats /kæts/ t: is voiceless

B. voiced sound + s = /z/ e.g. dogs /dɒgz/ g: is voiced

C. sibilants /ʃ, ʒ, s, z, ʒ, dʒ/ + s = /ɪz/ e.g. churches /tʃɜːtʃ ɪz/

2. **Lexically conditioned:** is allomorph which cannot be predicted from the preceding sounds, only dictionary determines their shape. They should be memorize.

A. e.g. man → men = replacive plural

sheep → sheep = Ø plural

B. en e.g. child → children

C. ed voiceless sound + ed = /t/ e.g. watched /wɒtʃt/

voiced sound + ed = /d/ e.g. cheesd /tʃiːzd/

/t, d/ + ed = ɪd e.g. started /stɑːtɪd/

**Note:** you should memorize the irregular ed-words. e.g. go → went

## • Word classes (part of speech)

Word classes are (verb, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition).

e.g. This is a deadly weapon.

N V adj

### - Notes:

- Noun + ly = adjective love + ly = lovely

- Adjective + ly = adverb sad + ly = sadly

- Only the nouns can be pluralized e.g. boy<sub>n</sub> → boys ✓

sad<sub>adj.</sub> → sads ✗

- Only the nouns can be preceded by determiners

e.g. this boy ✓

this sad ✗

- Intensifiers (very, so, rather, ...) are comes only with adjective and adverbs e.g. very happy<sub>adj.</sub> ✓ very slowly<sub>adv.</sub> ✓

- Predicate

<sup>A</sup> **Predicative:** When noun comes before the adjective we called predicative. e.g. the man<sub>n</sub> is young<sub>adj.</sub>

<sup>B</sup> **Attributive:** when noun comes after the adjective we called attributive. e.g. the young<sub>adj.</sub> man<sub>n</sub>.

- Adverbs describe the verbs. e.g. he walks<sub>v</sub> slowly<sub>adv.</sub> So 'walks' is describe 'slowly'.

- <sup>1</sup>'Charlie ate **caviar**' <sup>2</sup>'Charlie ate **well**' the difference between this two sentences is the first one can be changed to the passive form and the second one cannot. As in 'caviar was eaten by Charlie'.

## Q/how we determined the part of speech (word class)?

1- Position in the sentences.

e.g. This<sub>n</sub> is<sub>v</sub> a deadly<sub>adj.</sub> weapon.

2- Morphological shape of the word.

e.g. man<sub>singular</sub> → men plural

slow<sub>adj.</sub> → slowly<sub>adv.</sub>

## Chapter 07

## Sentence Patterns

There are two type of language and they are:

- 1- **Inflectional language**: are languages which depend on words ending determining in showing the relationship before words. (Arabic, Latin)
- 2- **Functional language**: are languages which depend on function of words in showing the relationship between words. (English, French)

### Q/why English is a function language?

Because English is the use of **Function words**; these are words such as *of, by, that*, which indicate relationships between parts of the sentence.  
e.g. *Azad wants **to** go home.*

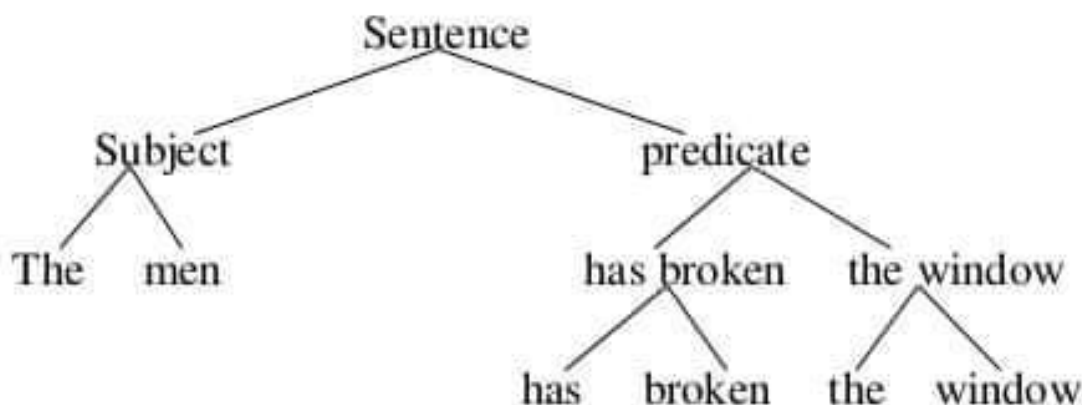
**Predicate**: is the verb and what comes after it.  
e.g. the man has broken the window.

Unit                  Predicate

**Constituent analysis**: is the analyzing the sentence into the part.  
e.g. the man has broken the window.

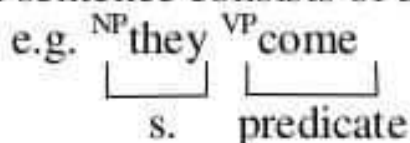
Unit	Unit	Unit
	Predicate	

### • Tree diagrams



## The rules of tree diagram:

**As a rule1:** each sentence consists of a noun phrase (NP) and a verb phrase (VP).



**As a rule2:** the VP (NP) (NP) because its optional.

e.g.



## Abbreviations

S = sentence

V = verb

N = noun

D = determiner

NP = noun phrase

VP = verb phrase

PP = prepositional phrase

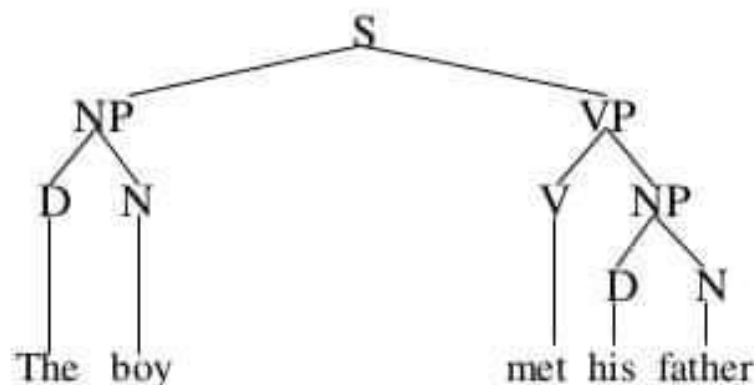
AP = adjective phrase

Intes = intensifier (so, very, rather,...)

## Notes:

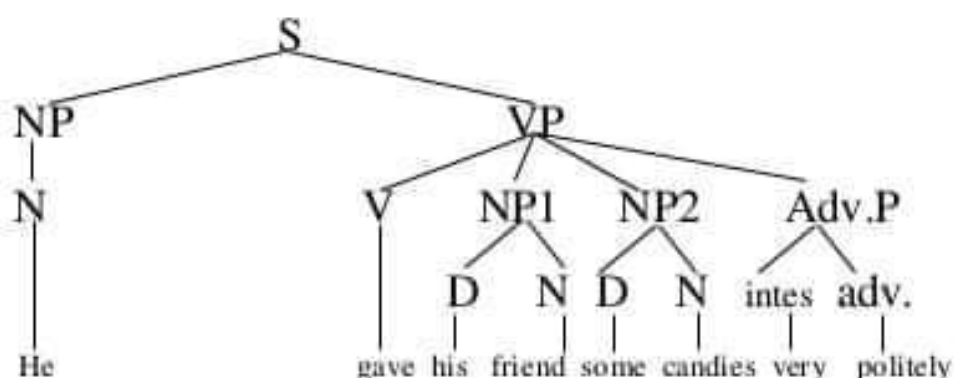
- D comes only with NP e.g. the boy met his father.
- Prepositional phrase: prep + N or NP, means that PP comes only with N or NP, and we have a PP with something else. e.g. in the school

e.g.

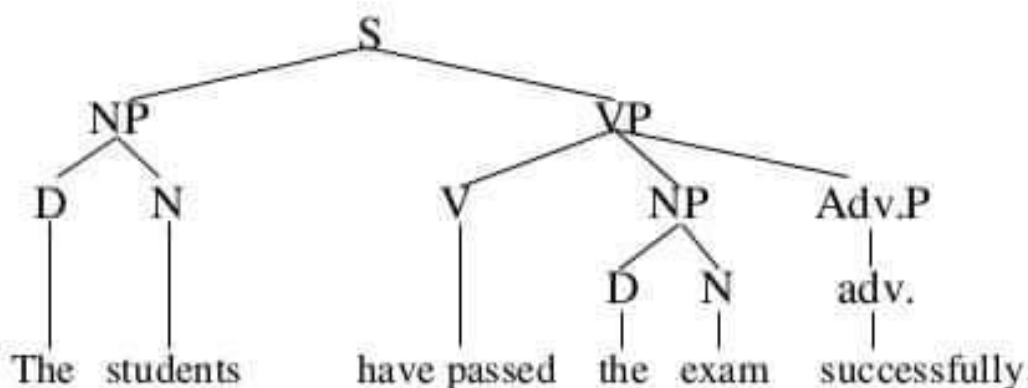


## • Examples, Simple Sentences

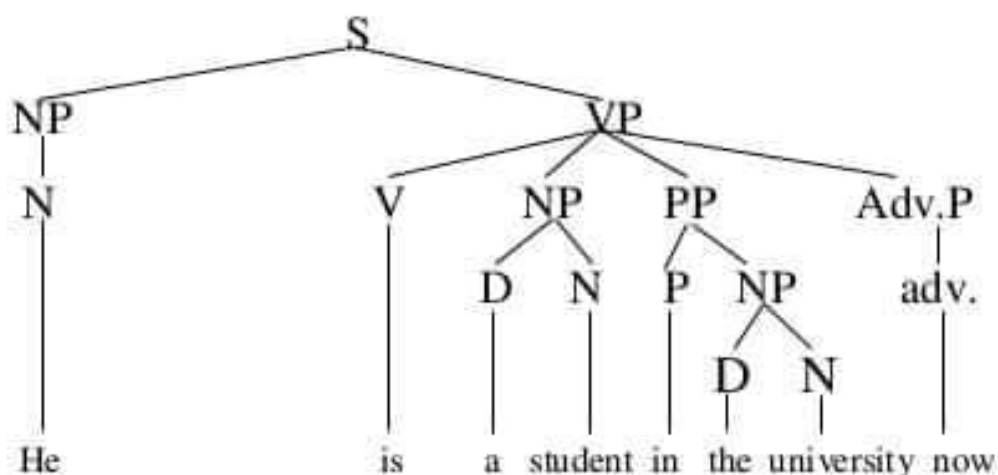
He gave his friend some candies very politely.



The students have passed the exam successfully.



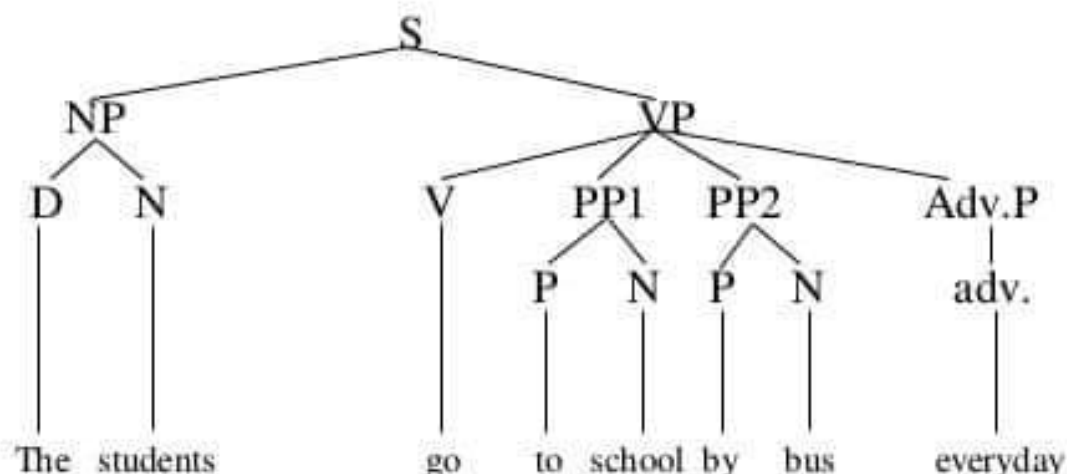
He is a student in the university now.



**Note:** the words should be in the same line



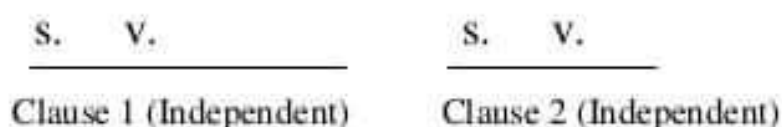
The students go to school by bus everyday.



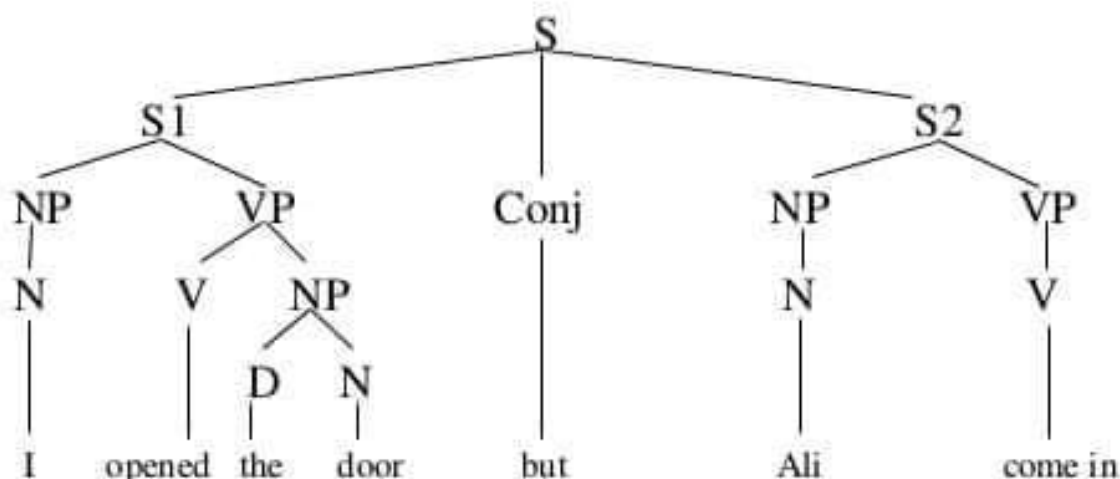
### • Examples, Compound Sentences: and, but, or / Conjunctions

Compound sentence means two or more sentences join into single sentence by using conjunctions (but, and, or).

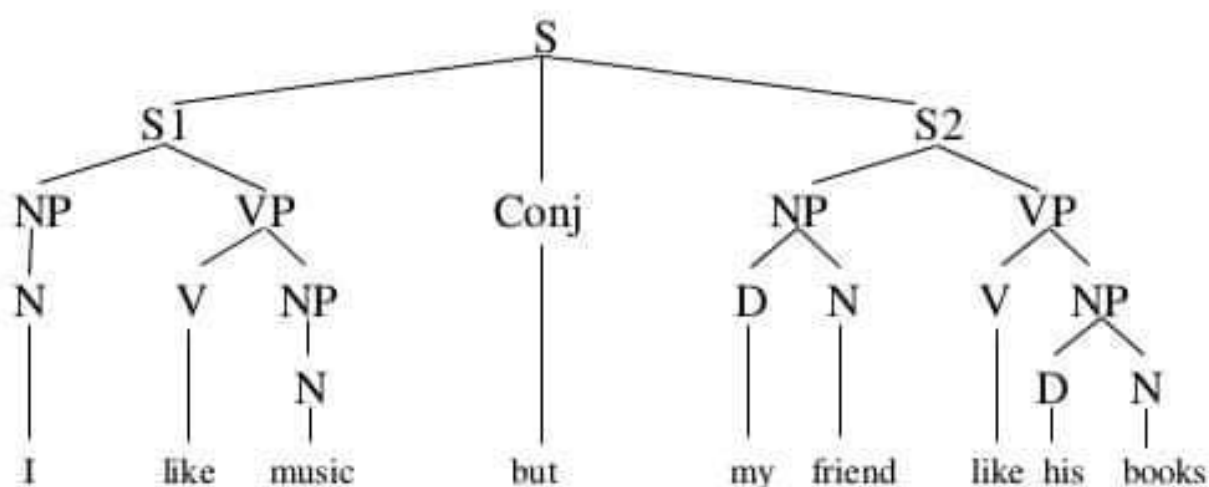
e.g. I opened the door but Ali come in.



- If one sentence gave dictionary meaning we will called **independent**.
- If the sentence consist two subjects and two verbs and contains conjunction means that is the **compound sentence**.



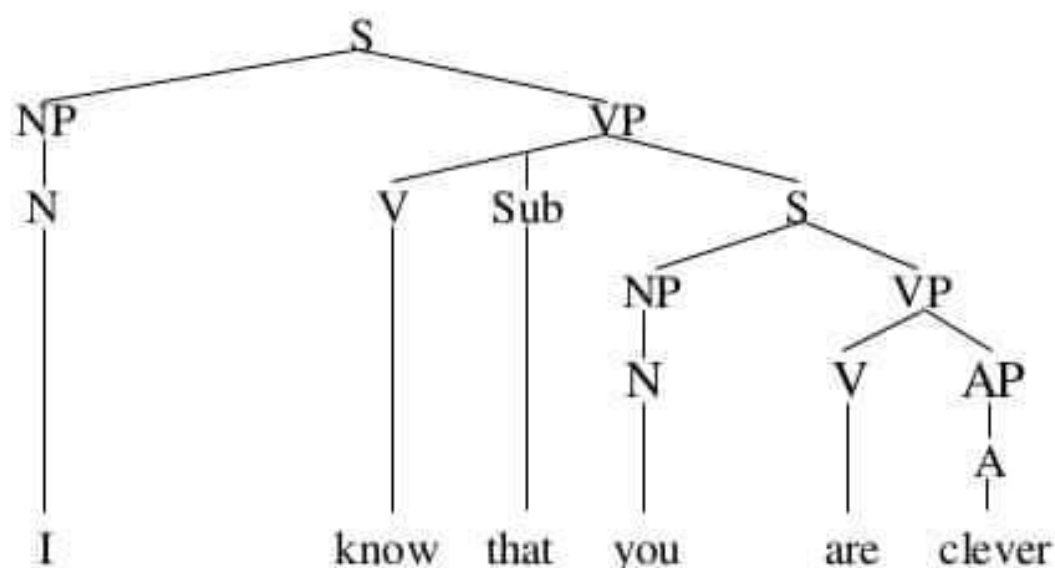
I like music but my friend like his books.



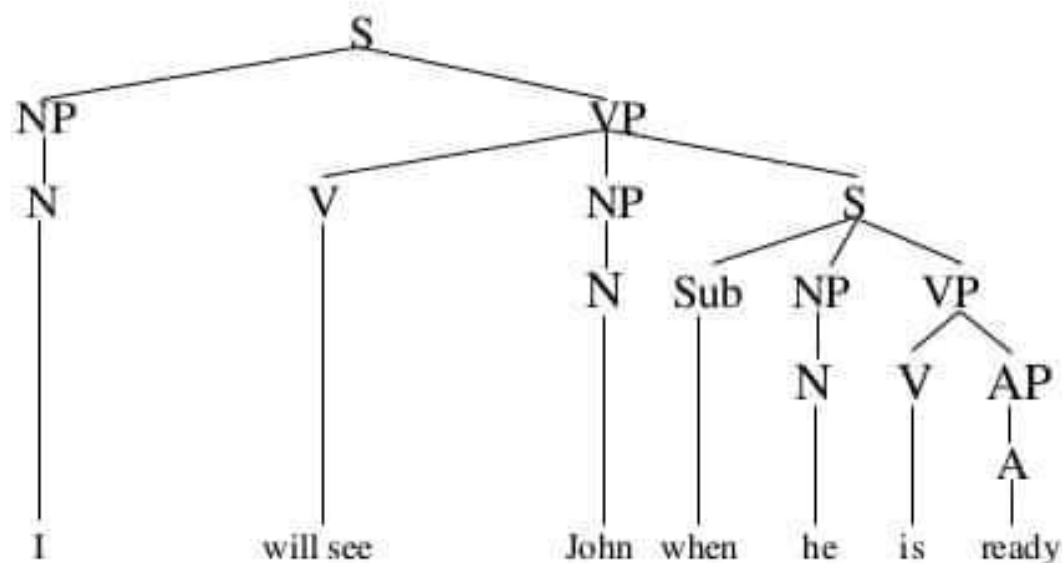
### • Examples, Complex Sentences

**Complex Sentences:** one main clause (independent) and one or more dependent (subordinate) clause(s)

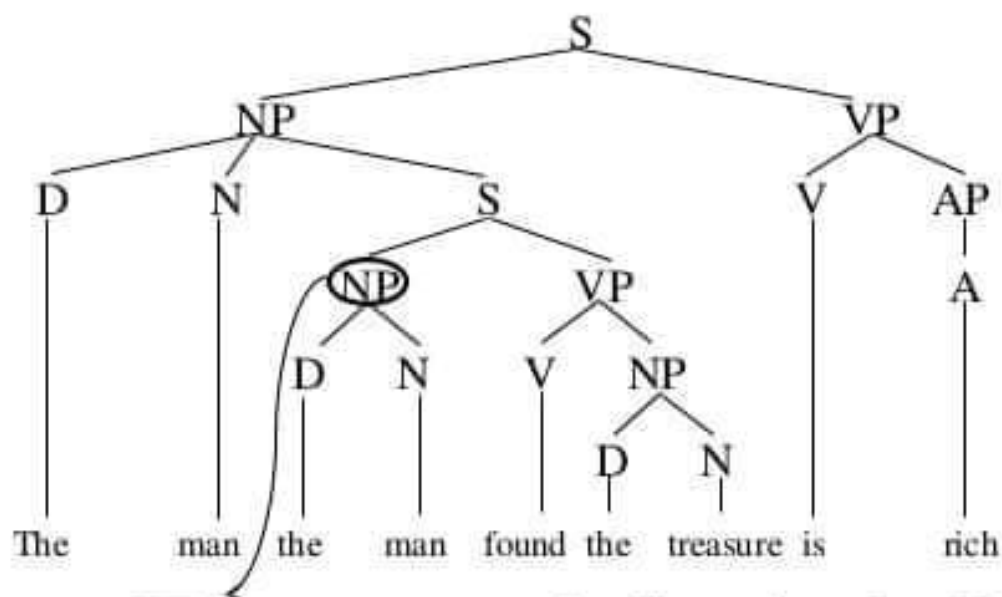
Complex's elements are connected by subordinators (because, if, that, who, when, ...etc. e.g. I know that you are clever.



I will see John when he is ready.



The man who found the treasure is rich.



**Note:** we put NP because sentence should consist only of NP and VP, so if we put 'who' we will break the rules.

## Q/what is tree diagram, and why is it useful?

**Tree diagram:** is the successive layers of constituents which make up a sentence can be shown most clearly on a tree diagram – so called because its branches resembles of a tree.

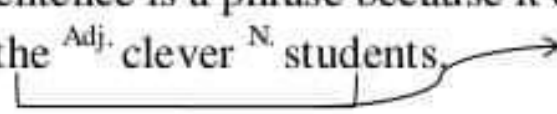
**The advantage** of a tree diagram is that each join or node on the tree can be labelled , so that the whole constructions become clearer.

**Sentence:** is a group of words which start with capital letter and end with full stop, question mark or exclamation mark, and expressing one idea.

### Type of sentences

- 1- **Simple sentences:** it means not composed of more than one grammatical unit.
- 2- **Complex sentences:** one main clause (independent) and one or more dependent (subordinate) clause(s).
- 3- **Compound sentences:** is a sentence which consists two or more independent clauses.
- 4- Compound complex sentences

### • Notes

- 1- If the sentence consist of one verb and one noun it means that the sentence is simple, and if the sentence contain conjunction (and, but, or) it means it is compound, and complex sentences contains subordinators (because, if, that, who, when, ...etc).
- 2- Any word in a sentence is a phrase because it consist more than one element. e.g. <sup>D.</sup>the <sup>Adj.</sup>clever <sup>N.</sup>students.  = NP, and for VP and AP is the same.

## Chapter 08

## Meaning

**Semantics** is the study of meaning. From the Greek noun *sēma*, ‘sign, signal,’ and the verb *sēmainō*, ‘signal, mean’.

### Q/why a linguists study meaning?

A linguist through the studying, tries to understand why certain words and constructions can be combined together in a semantically acceptable way, while others cannot.

e.g. Ahmad arrived yesterday.    not    \*Ahmad arrived tomorrow.

As for the second(\*) sentence, though well-formed syntactically, it is contradictory. An English hearer could interpret it only by assuming that the speaker has made a mistake.

### • Word meaning

A **word** is a single unit of language that has meaning and can be spoken or written, it is a unit of language, consisting of one or more spoken sound.

**Lexical items:** a lexical item (lexical unit) is a single word or a chain of words that forms the basic elements of a language’s lexicon.

### Q/what are three preliminary points need to be clarified in connection with word meaning?

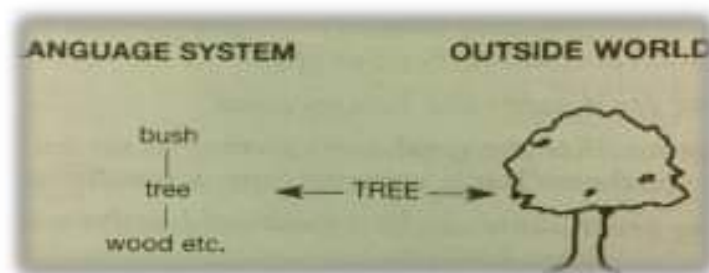
- 1- We shall be concerned primarily with content words, such as *zoo*, *apple*, *jump*, rather than with function words such as *of*, *by*, *which*.
- 2- We shall be dealing only with straightforward descriptive meaning, and ignoring what is sometimes called ‘emotive’ meaning or ‘connotation’.

For example, the word *adolescent* will be taken to mean someone who is between **childhood** and **adulthood**.



3- We must be aware that meaning is **double-faced**. The meaning of lexical item such as *tree* must be concerned in two ways: **first** of all, as one element in a large system, whose 'meaning' is depended on relationships with the other words in the system. **Second**, its 'meaning' is linked up with a certain class of recognizable objects in the external world.

**Note.** It is better to draw the Picture of tree in the exam.



### • Semantic fields

**Semantic fields:** is a set of lexemes which covers a certain conceptual domain and which bear certain specifiable relations to one another. In a more narrow sense, the words of a semantic field share some common semantic property. It is a set of words with related meaning.

e.g. field of emotion state: *fear, happy, sad, anxiety, depressed, afraid*.

[These example show us that for linguists, it is important to deal with the lexical structure of a language rather than with isolated words. The word green in English only becomes meaningful in relationship to its neighbours in the set of color terms: it denotes the color between blue and yellow. Purple denotes the color between red and blue.]

[In semantic, as in phonology and syntax, language is not an accidental junk-heap consisting of a haphazard collection of different items. Instead, it is more like a jigsaw puzzle, where each piece fits into those which surround it, and where an isolated piece simply does not make sense if it is moved from its place in the overall pattern.] **this is explanation, you can write by your own words. no need to memorize.**

e.g. *every word is at home*

*Taking its place to support the others.*

T. S. Eliot

## • Coping with overlaps

**Componential analysis:** is the analyzing the words by mentioning there components parts, regarding meaning.

e.g. Man: animate, human, male, adult.

Boy: animate, human, male, adolescent.

**Overlap in meaning of a word:** is the amount by which two things or activities cover the same area:

Cow is the **female** of a bovine animal.

Princess is a **female** member of a royal family.

Tigress is a **female** tiger.

**This type of analysis could also be extended to verbs:**

*die*                      BECOME NOT ALIVE

*kill*                      CAUSE BECOME NOT ALIVE

*murder*                INTENTIONALLY CAUSE HUMAN BEING BECOME NOT ALIVE

*slaughter*            INTENTIONALLY CAUSE HUMAN BEING BECOME NOT ALIVE

**Semantic properties** are semantics features such as Man: animate, human, male, adult.

## • Synonyms and opposites

**Synonyms:** are two or more words with the same meaning.

e.g. fine = ok = all right

- Lexical items can be regarded as synonymous if they can be interchanged without altering the meaning of an utterance.

e.g. *He snapped the twig in half.*

*He broke the twig in half.*

**But not**

*He snapped his finger.*

Doesn't mean the same as:

*He broke his finger.*

- Perfect synonymy is rare. That is, it is very unusual for two lexical items to have exactly the same meaning in all contexts.

**Opposites (antonyms):** are two or more words that have same opposite meaning. e.g. good ✕ bad

**Q/distinguish three types of opposites found in language.**

The study of opposite is more complex, as there are several different types of opposite.

- 1- The most obvious type is a pair of words in which the negative of one implies the other:

He is **not married**: *he is single.*

He is **not single**: *He is married.*

(not married = single) are synonyms

But

(married ✕ single) are opposites

2- A second type of opposite is one which is not absolute, but relative to some standard. *Small* and *large*, for example always imply some comparison:

*What a **large** mouse!* (=what a large mouse in comparison to a normal-size mouse)

*What a **small** elephant!* (=what a small elephant in comparison to a normal-size elephant)

3- A third type is when one word is the converse of the other.

*I **give** you the book: you **take** the book.*

**Note:** because of those reason above, the word 'antonyms' is avoided according the author of the our book 'Linguistics' by Jean Aitchiosn.

### • **Classification (inclusion)**

**Q/what is inclusion? Give examples.**

Classification a further way of examining lexical structure is to note the ways in which a language classifies items.

e.g.



**Hyponym:** is a term that denotes a subcategory of a more general class: 'chair' and 'table' are hyponyms of 'furniture'.

**Q/What are the advantages of different lexical relationship?**

- 1- They enable us to understand multiple links between different words.
- 2- They can all be expressed by means of logical notation(symbols).

- **Fuzziness and family resemblances**

**Q/why is impossible to assign firm meaning to some words?**

**Note:** the answer of the question is the explanation without definitions.

It's impossible to assign firm meaning to some words because of two main reasons:

**Fuzziness:** is the process when we have words where there are no clear boundaries in their meaning. glass and vase.

1- **Explanation:** words often have fuzzy edges. There is no absolute divide between a glass and a vase. They all merge into one another

**Family resemblance:** is when we have one word which covers a whole range of things. e.g. furniture

2- **Explanation:** family resemblances. A word such as *furniture* covers a whole range of things, which share characteristics with one another.

**Q/what is prototype, and why is this notion important for the study of meaning?**

**Prototype (typical example):** is the number or set of members of a category that best represent the category as whole.

It is **important** because prototype helps to explain the **meaning** of a word by resembling to the clearest exemplar.

e.g. **penguin** which is a prototype of *bird*.



## • Making sense of the word

Words have many sense based on the culture, for example English speakers regard a *week* as having seven days, divided into five working days followed by a weekend – though nothing in the external world forces this viewpoint. In other parts of world, a week may have a different number of day.

## • The meaning of sentences

**Q/how might one represent the meaning of sentences?**

Many linguists assume that semantic representations should be expressed in some type of *formal logic*. (enough for answering question)

**Formal logic:** is a system can (in theory) provide formulae for the representation of the sentences of any language.

e.g. *All the nice girls love a sailor.*

This could either mean: *first* every nice girls love some sailor or other.

<u>Girls</u>		<u>Sailor</u>
Emma	♥	John
Mary	♥	Ali
Vicky	♥	Adam

*Second* every nice girls love one particular sailor.

<u>Girls</u>		<u>Sailor</u>
Emma	→	♥ Jack
Mary	→	
Vicky	→	



## Chapter 09

## Using Language

**Q/what is pragmatics?**

**Pragmatics:** is the study of language in use.

**Note:** everything that related to our daily conversation is pragmatics.

### • The cooperative principle

An American philosopher, Paul Grice, is regarded as the 'father of pragmatics'. Grice emphasized that human beings communicate efficiently because they are by nature helpful to one another.

**Q/what four conversational maxims form the cooperative principle?**

#### 1- Maxim of quantity

Give the right amount of information when you talk.

**A:** who is that person with Bob?

**B:** that's his girlfriend, Alison. (cooperative)

**C:** a girl. (uncooperative)

#### 2- Maxim of quality

Be truthful, don't say what you believe to be false.

**e.g.** if someone asks you the name of unfamiliar animal such a platypus, replay truthfully, and don't say it is duck, if you know it is platypus.

#### 3- Maxim of relevance

Be relevant, give a replay which fits a question.

**A:** what's for supper?

**B:** fish and chips (cooperative)

**C:** tables and chairs (uncooperative)

#### 4- Maxim of manner

Be clear and orderly, describe things in the order in which they occurred.

**A:** where was Mosa yesterday?

**B:** Mosa went to the store and bought some candy.

## • Speech acts

Is an utterance considered as an action, particularly with regard to its intention, purpose, or effect. We perform speech acts when we offer an *apology, greeting, request, complaint invitation, compliment, or refusal.*

**Note:** a speech act might contain just one word to perform those offers above. e.g. I'm sorry I forgot your birthday. (perform apology)

### Q/what is speech act theory?

**Speech act theory:** it is another method by which philosophers and linguists have tried to classify the ways in which humans use language.

Proponents of speech act theory try, in the first place, to list the various possible speech acts which a speaker might attempt to perform – *statement, requests, queries, commands, promises.*

e.g. (I state that:) *it's cold*

(I ask you:) *What's time?*

(I command you:) *Go away!*

### There are two types of speech acts:

- 1- **Direct speech acts:** the act is expressed overtly by the most obvious linguistic means.
- 2- **Indirect speech acts:** the syntactic structure more usually associated with another act.

e.g. *Go to bed!* → Direct

*Isn't it past your bedtime?*

*You should have been in bed long ago.*

} Indirect 'both of them means' 'Go to bed'.

**Note:** this case maybe isn't referred to 'Question' because it means 'go to bed' indirectly.

**Felicity conditions**: circumstances under which it would be appropriate to interpret something as particular type of speech act.

e.g. pick up that book.

Direct

that book oughtn't to be on the floor.

Felicity condition

- **Remembered frameworks**

**Q/what are frames?**

**Frames**: knowledge might be stored in the form of stereotypical situation or frames. These memorized frameworks are adapted to fit in with present reality.

- **Discourse analysis**

**Discourse analysis**: It is segments of language which may be bigger or smaller than a single sentence but the adduced meaning is always beyond the sentence. the term discovered applies to both spoken and written language.

**Cohesive**: organizing and clarifying ideas. The cohesion of writing focuses on the grammatical aspect of writing.

*Example:*

**A:** George ate the curry with delight. <sup>1</sup>**Curry** had always been George's favorite food. <sup>2</sup>**The curry** was subtly flavored. <sup>3</sup>**George** detected hints of cumin and coriander in the curry. Cumin and coriander are George's favorite spices.

**B:** George ate the curry with delight. <sup>1</sup>**This type of food** had always been his favorite. <sup>2</sup>**The dish** was subtly flavored, and in it <sup>3</sup>**he** detected hints of his favorite spices, cumin and coriander.

- **Taking it in turns**

**Q/explain what is meant by adjacency pairs. Give two examples.**

**Adjacency pairs (exchanges):** are utterances that usually occur in pairs in any dialogue.

e.g. 1- Question: *what's the time?*

Answer: *ten past three.*

2- Greeting: *hi, Jo.*

Greeting: *why hallo Bill.*

- **Repairs**

**Repairs:** is an utterance in conversation analysis, the process by which a speaker or listener recognize a speech error and repeats what has been said with some sort of correction.

**Self-repair** happens when a speaker spontaneously noticed a problem and solve it. e.g. *Marion arrived on Saturday – sorry, I mean Sunday.*

**Other-repair** is used when someone is not quite sure about what has been said, or suspects that the other person has made a mistake.

e.g. *did Marion really arrived on Sunday? Wasn't it Sunday?*

**Other-initiated self-repair**

e.g. Speaker A: *Alan's taken a course in deep-sea diving.*

Speaker B: *Alan? Has he really?*

Speaker C: *sorry, I don't mean Alan, I mean Alec.*

## Chapter 10

## Language and society

**Sociolinguistics:** is the study of language and society.

### • The notion of language

**Q/what problems arise in an attempt to defined the notion of a 'language'?**

- 1- Can the notion of a 'language' be defined geographically?
- 2- Can it be equated with nationality?
- 3- Should a language be defined by the mutual intelligibility of its speakers?

**Speech community:** any group of people who consider that they speak the same language.

### • Dialect and accent

**Q/distinguish between dialect and accent.**

**Dialect:** is a variety of language which is spoken by a group of people and its different not only in pronunciation, but also in vocabulary, grammar, spelling as well as pronunciation.

**Accent:** is a variety of language which is spoken by subgroup of people which is different only in phonology.

### • From high to low

**Registers:** every native speaker is normally in command of several different language styles.

**Communicative competence:** is knowing *what to say when*.