

MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION & SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF ALGIERS 2 "ABOU EL KACEM SAADALLAH"
FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES



DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

**PEDAGOGICAL SUPPORT
LINGUISTIC THEORIES
SECOND YEAR LICENCE**

**Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the professional rank of
Professor in English Linguistics & Didactics**

DR. NESRINE AOUDJIT-BESSAI

ACADEMIC YEAR

2021-2022



COURSE DESCRIPTION:

This course aims at acquainting students with the development of modern linguistics and its major theories in the 20th century such as structuralism, transformational generative grammar, functional linguistics as well as traditional grammar. This course also introduces students to the major works of the proponents of each theory.

This course also introduces students to the historical development of linguistic theory. It begins with the Greek and Roman linguistics through the Middle Ages into the twentieth century linguistics. Special focus will be placed on the relationship between twentieth century linguistic theory and philosophy, and the mind and psychology.

COURSE OBJECTIVES:

By the end of this course, students will have the requisite knowledge and skills to:

- Understand and use the concepts of major schools of Linguistics.
- Develop analytical and critical skills and ability to synthesize.
- Demonstrate a good mastery of academic English.

TEACHING METHOD

- Lecturing
- Interactive tasks
- Reading selected passages
- Handouts
- Short class presentations



ASSESSMENT METHOD

- Half-term test
- Homework
- Attendance & participation
- Final exam

BASIC READINGS:

- Crystal, D. (1985). *Linguistics*. Great Britain: Chaucer Press.
- Lyons, J. (1995). *Language and Linguistics: An Introduction*. Great Britain: CUP
- Polsky, B (2012) *Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: OUP
- Robins, R.H. (1997). (4th ed) *A Short History of Linguistics*. London: Longman
- Trudgill, P (2000) *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society*. Penguin
- Yule, G. (1997). *The study of language*. Cambridge: CUP.





COURSE OUTLINE: SEMESTER 3

Lecture	Title
Lecture 1	The Classical Period
Weeks 1 & 2	TRADITIONAL LINGUISTICS
Lecture 2	The Pre-modern Period
Weeks 3 & 4	THE RENNAISSANCE
Lecture 3	Comparative Philology
Week 5 & 6	
Lecture 4	The Modern Period
Week 7	EUROPEAN STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS
Lecture 5	DE Saussure's Dichotomies
Weeks 8 & 9	
Lecture 6	American Structural Linguistics
Weeks 10 & 11	
Lecture 7	EUROPEAN FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS
Week 12	Prague Linguistic Circle



COURSE OUTLINE: SEMESTER 4

Lecture	Title
Lecture 1 Weeks 1 & 2	CHOMSKYAN GENERATIVISM
Lecture 2 Weeks 3 & 4	COMPETENCE/ PERFORMANCE
Lecture 3 Week 5 & 6	GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (TG)/TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (TGG)
Lecture 4 Week 7	STRUCTURAL AMBIGUITY
Lecture 5 Weeks 8 & 9	BEHAVIOURISM/ MENTALISM
Lecture 6 Weeks 10 & 11	SOCIOLINGUISTICS



LECTURE 1

CLASSICAL PERIOD

TRADITIONAL LINGUISTICS

INTRODUCTION

Language has been studied for many years and from different perspectives. Ancient Greek philosophers elaborated on its proper use and purpose; their interests in language matters were of a theoretical and philosophical nature. Greek thinkers were essentially concerned with the nature and the relationships between things, ideas, and words. Modern scholars analyzed how it is produced and perceived. There are three different approaches to talking about language: treating it as a social fact, as natural behavior, or as a mental organ.

(i) Language as a social phenomenon was first described by Ferdinand De Saussure who claimed that providing only historical description of languages (as it was done at his time) should not be the only approach to this complex entity. He maintained that crucial information about language can be obtained from its common users, who in most cases do not possess practically any theoretical knowledge about their native tongue and yet are competent speakers. The social aspect of using language, or speech was called *parole* by Saussure, while the underlying knowledge of linguistic structure was known as *langue*.



(ii) Another view on language, mainly language as behavior partially derived from the behaviorist psychology and philosophy. Linguists representing this attitude focused on different languages used by various people rather than on linguistic universals, as they assumed that linguistic data is best gathered by observation of human behavior and interaction. Apart from that, it was assumed that the meaning of sentences is not observable, thus it must be analyzed by referring to introspective judgments.

(iii) According to the third approach to language started by Noam Chomsky: language is a mental organ. Having noticed certain similarities among languages Chomsky expressed the view that they cannot be

explained by environmental factors or be accidental and there should be a special mental ability embedded in human brains. He defined language by means of Generative Grammar: a finite set of rules which would enable users to make an unlimited number of expressions. Representatives of this approach support the view that it is not particular languages that should be analyzed, but the Universal Grammar, or the mental organ that allows humans to speak.

Nowadays, the history of linguistics is of major significance. Examining the development of linguistics through time helped us to clarify and reject some of the widespread misconceptions regarding the structure and the functions of language. Linguistics is not a new subject, but it builds

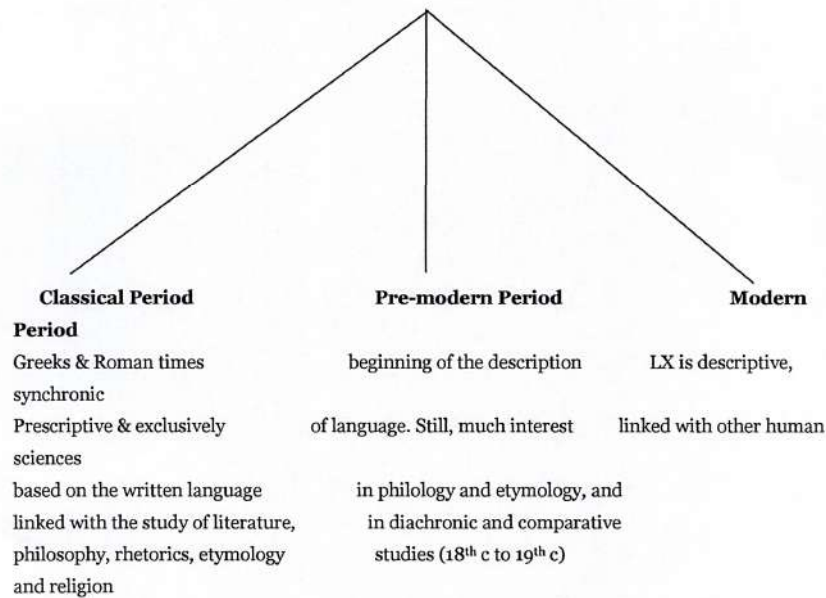


on the past. Modern ideas are not totally new, but are the logical development and reformation of old ideas. There are three main

periods in the western tradition of language study:



The Three Main Periods





TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR (TG)

Traditional Grammar refers to that tradition of 'linguistic' analysis and linguistic theory which originated in Greece in the 5th c BC and was further developed in Egypt, Rome and Europe. In the beginning, Greek and Latin were the object of study of TG. Then it was extended to the study of the European vernacular languages during the renaissance and afterward. The Greek philosophers were interested in the origin of language and the relationship between words and their meanings. Their etymological investigations stimulated the development of a grammatical theory known as Traditional Grammar.

1. The Greek Period:

Linguistic thought in ancient Greece is mainly linked to such people/groups as Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, the Stoics & Dionysius Thrax. It is characterized by a history of opposing ideas, such as: nature vs. convention and analogy vs. anomaly. Grammar in ancient Greece was regarded as the 'art of reading' and essentially two different types of linguistic units – apart from the **letter** – were recognized: **(1) minimal: word;** **(2) sentence: expression of complete thought**

The Greek interests in language matters were of a more theoretical and philosophical nature. Greek thinkers were essentially concerned with the nature and the relationships that exist between things, ideas, and words. Much of Greek philosophy was occupied with the distinction between that



which exists “by nature” and that which exists “by convention.”

1.1 Nature or convention:

The conventionalists, on the one hand, maintained that language is the result of some tacit agreement, or ‘social contract’, among the members of the community. On the other hand, extreme adherents of the ‘naturalist’ school argued that all words were naturally relevant or appropriate to the things they signified. Various ways were recognised in which the form of a word might be naturally related to its meaning:

- (i) A word is imitative of the sound it refers to: crash, tinkle, etc ... These words are known as **onomatopoeia**. The Greeks maintained that onomatopoeic words, which are relatively few,

form the basic set of ‘names’ from which language has developed. They are the nucleus of the vocabulary.

- (ii) The constituent sound(s) of a word is (are) suggestive or imitative of particular physical qualities or activities being classified as ‘smooth’, ‘harsh’, ‘liquid’, etc ... The sound ‘L’ in the spirit of the ‘naturalist’, was a liquid sound. Hence the words liquid and flow ... contain a sound which is ‘naturally’ appropriate to their meaning. This kind of relationship is known as **sound-symbolism**.

This dispute regarding the origin of language and meanings paved the way for the development of divergences between the views of the “**analogists**,” who looked on language as possessing an essential regularity as a result of the symmetries that convention



can provide, and the views of the “**anomalists**,” who pointed to language's lack of regularity as one facet of the inescapable irregularities of nature. The situation was more complex, however, than this statement would suggest. For example, it seems that the **anomalists** credited the irrational quality of language precisely to the claim that language did not exactly mirror nature. This led to the distinction that, in modern theory, is made with the terms signifiant (“what signifies”) and signifié (“what is signified”) or, somewhat differently and more elaborately, with “expression” and “content”; and it laid the groundwork of modern theories of inflection, though by no means with the exhaustiveness analysis reached by the **Sanskrit grammarians**.

1.2. Analogists and Anomalists:

Analogists maintained that language was **regular** and **systematic**: boy/ boys; cow/ cows; girl/ girls ... Analogical reasoning was widely applied by Plato and Aristotle in the study of sciences and was extended to the study of language. The analogists established various models with the reference to which the regular words of the language could be classified. They would tend to correct any apparent anomalies with which they might be confronted rather than change their ideas about the nature of language. They regarded language as **fundamentally regular** and **exceptionally irregular**.



Anomalists believed that language is fundamentally irregular, it contains many elements that are dissimilar and many irregularities: teach/ taught, fall/ fell; child/ children; mouse/ mice... The linguistic divergence was so strong that it became a political argument; the anomalists settled in Pergamon (Asia Minor) while the analogists settled in Alexandria in Egypt. Whatever their theoretical pronouncements, both analogists and anomalists admitted that there were certain regularities in language, and both contributed to the systematization of language. The stoics 'a Greek philosophical school' usually said to be anomalists, laid the foundation of TG in connection with their etymological work. And the Alexandrian 'analogists' built upon these. The Alexandrian had

the last word, both in politics and linguistics as they regarded not only language but the world (kosmos) as a well-ordered place. But there are still people today that deny essential regularity in languages and claim that grammarians want to impose a so-called regularity upon these languages.

The Greek tendency for speculation on language matters is really apparent in Plato (429-347 BC); his dialogue Cratylus is standard reading for anyone wishing to trace the history of ideas in linguistics. Plato was called by a later Greek writer 'the first to discover the potentialities of Grammar', his conception of speech (logos) as being basically composed of logically determined categories of noun and verb (the thing predicated and the



predicator). Adjectives were included in the class of verbs. While in the Alexandrian Grammar, they appeared under the class of nouns. Aristotle and later the stoics found the categories of grammar (case, gender and tense)

2. The Alexandrian Period:

The Greek language spread over to middle East when the Greeks settled in Alexandria after the political downfall of Athens(i) (Alexander the Great founded Alexandria, followed by Ptolomé; Egypt was Greek for 300 years). With the establishment of the great library in the Greek colony of Alexandria, that city became(ii) the centre of intense literary and intense linguistic research. The Alexandrian scholars were interested in restoring the

manuscripts of the authors of the past, and in particular those containing the text of the Homeric poems by comparing different manuscripts of the same works. Admiration for the great literary works of the past encouraged the belief that the language in which these texts were written was **'purer'** and more **'correct'** than the current colloquial speech of Alexandria. The Alexandrian approach to study of language involved **two misconceptions:** The spoken language is viewed as dependent on, and derived from the written language. And no consistent distinction was drawn between sounds and the letters used to represent them. The **'purity'** of a language is preserved by the usage of the educated, and **'corrupted'** by the illiterate.



However, it was in Alexandria that what we call now Traditional Grammar of Greek was more or less definitively codified. The grammar of Dionysius Thrax (late 2nd c BC) was the first comprehensive systematic grammatical description to be published in the western world.

Dionysius Thrax, in the 2nd century BC, produced the first systematic grammar of Western tradition; it dealt only with word morphology (he classified Greek words according to case, gender, and number). The study of sentence syntax was to wait for Apollonius Dyscolus, of the 2nd century AD. Dionysius meant by grammar the observation of what

is uttered by poets and writers,” using a word meaning a less general form of knowledge than what might be called “science.” His typically Alexandrian literary goal is suggested by the headings in his work: pronunciation, poetic figurative language, difficult words, true and inner meanings of words, exposition of form-classes, literary criticism. Dionysius defined a sentence as a unit of sense or thought, but it is difficult to be sure of his precise meaning.

Adapted from Robins, R.H. (1997). (4th ed) A Short History of Linguistics. Longman.



LECTURE 2 **PRE-MODERN PERIOD**

1. The Roman Period:

The Romans, who largely took over, with mild adaptations to their highly similar language, the total work of the Greeks, are important not as originators but as transmitters. Romans regarded Latin as being THE LANGUAGE and all other languages were 'vulgar'. An exception, however, was the Greek language which was greatly valued and held in high esteem mainly because Latin scholars modeled their decriptions and analyses on the Greek patterns (thus borrowing from stoics and Alexandrians alike). Aelius Donatus, of the 4th century AD, and Priscian, an African of the 6th century, and their colleagues

were slightly more systematic than their Greek models but were essentially retrospective rather than original. Up to this point, a field that was at times called ars Grammatica was a congeries of investigations, both theoretical and practical, drawn from the work and interests of literacy, logic, rhetoric, textual philosophy, poetics, and literary criticism. Yet modern specialists in the field still share their concerns and interests. The anomalists, who concentrated on surface irregularity and who looked then for regularities deeper down (as the Stoics sought them in logic) bear a resemblance to contemporary scholars of the transformationalist school. And



the philological analogists with their regularizing surface segmentation show striking kinship of spirit with the modern school of structural (or taxonomic or glossematics) grammatical theorists.

2. The Renaissance: (15th c to 18th c)

Despite the general atmosphere of retrospection towards antiquity during the renaissance, from this period onwards we can observe a growing interest in non-European languages (especially Hebrew & Arabic) and European vernaculars (national languages & dialects). Whereas the speculative grammarians had shown very little interest in phonetics, we now find scientific/systematic phonetic descriptions for Arabic for the

first time in the history of Western linguistics. The introduction of printing led to an increased diffusion and availability of language materials and along with this developed the notion of national standards, often equated with the language of the royal courts or capitals. The theory of universal grammar was developed further in the 17th century, especially with the publication Port Royal Grammar (Arnaud & Lancelot: Grammaire générale et raisonnée, 1660). Certain points/ideas in this philosophy are well worth noting:

- grammar = art of speaking
- language expresses the nature/structure of thought ⇒ rational principles explain the basic mechanisms/functions of language(s)



- irregularity is a matter of convention for a particular language
- contrast empiricism vs. rationalism

3. The Indian Tradition: The discovery of Sanskrit (18th c)

The Indian linguistics had a great influence on the development of modern linguistics thanks to the work of the Indian Grammarian Panini. Earlier, human language was studied as a means and not studied as an end in itself. When Panini (who lived in the 4th c or 5th c) wanted to analyze the Sanskrit, he did it for religious reasons to preserve the accuracy of pronunciation of the Vedic scriptures and the correctness of the prayers. His book **Astadyayi** is a monument of linguistic analysis in which he

describes the phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexis of the classical Sanskrit. Panini distinguished between the noun and verb just as Plato did between subject and predicate in Greek, he provided hundreds of lists of roots, and about four thousands rules of word formation. Many aspects of modern linguistics were derived from Panini's work, e.g. the principles of exhaustiveness, consistency, and economy.

Adapted from Robins, R.H. (1997). (4th ed) A Short History of Linguistics. Longman.



PRACTICE

Say whether the following statements are True or False and justify your answer in both cases:

1. The Greek Grammarians had a remarkable influence on Roman Grammar.
2. Panini's Grammar of Sanskrit has been described as one of the greatest monuments of human intelligence.
3. Traditional Grammar was speculative and philosophical.
4. The Alexandrian grammarians viewed the written form of language as equal to the spoken form.
5. The Indian Grammarians considered language change as a form of corruption.
6. The Greek Traditional Grammar was extended to the description of other languages.
7. Greek philosophers sought to preserve the whole framework of classical grammar and ignored the changing aspect of language.



LECTURE 3

COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY

The Discovery of Sanskrit:

It is believed that Mesopotamian, Chinese, and Arabic learning dealt with grammar, their treatments were so linked to the particularities of those languages that they have had virtually no impact on Western linguistic tradition. However, the most interesting non-Western grammatical tradition-and the most original and independent is that of India, which culminates with the grammar of Panini, of the 5th century BC.

It is generally agreed that the most outstanding achievement of linguistic scholarship in the 19th century was the development of the comparative method, which comprised a set of principles whereby languages could be

systematically compared with respect to their sound systems, grammatical structure, and vocabulary and shown to be "genealogically" related. As French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, and the other Romance languages had evolved from Latin, so Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit as well as the Celtic, Germanic, and Slavic languages and many other languages of Europe and Asia had evolved from some earlier language, to which the name Indo-European or Proto-Indo-European is now applied. That all the Romance languages were descended from Latin and thus constituted one "family" had been known for centuries, but the existence of the Indo-European family of languages and the nature of their genealogical relationship was



first demonstrated by the 19th-century comparative philologists. (The term philology in this context is not restricted to the study of literary languages).

Historical Linguistics is the study of not only the history of languages, as the name implies, but also the study of how languages change, and how languages are related to one another. The main job of historical linguists is to learn how languages are related. Generally, languages can be shown to be related by having a large number of words in common that were not borrowed (cognates). Languages often borrow words from each other, but these are usually not too difficult to tell apart from other words. When a related group of languages has been studied in enough detail, it is possible to know almost exactly how most words, sounds, and grammar rules have changed in the languages.

1. Language Families:

In 1786, a British government official in India called Sir William Jones made the following observation about Sanskrit, the ancient language of Indian law:

"The Sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which perhaps, no longer exists: there is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic had the same origin with the Sanskrit; and the old

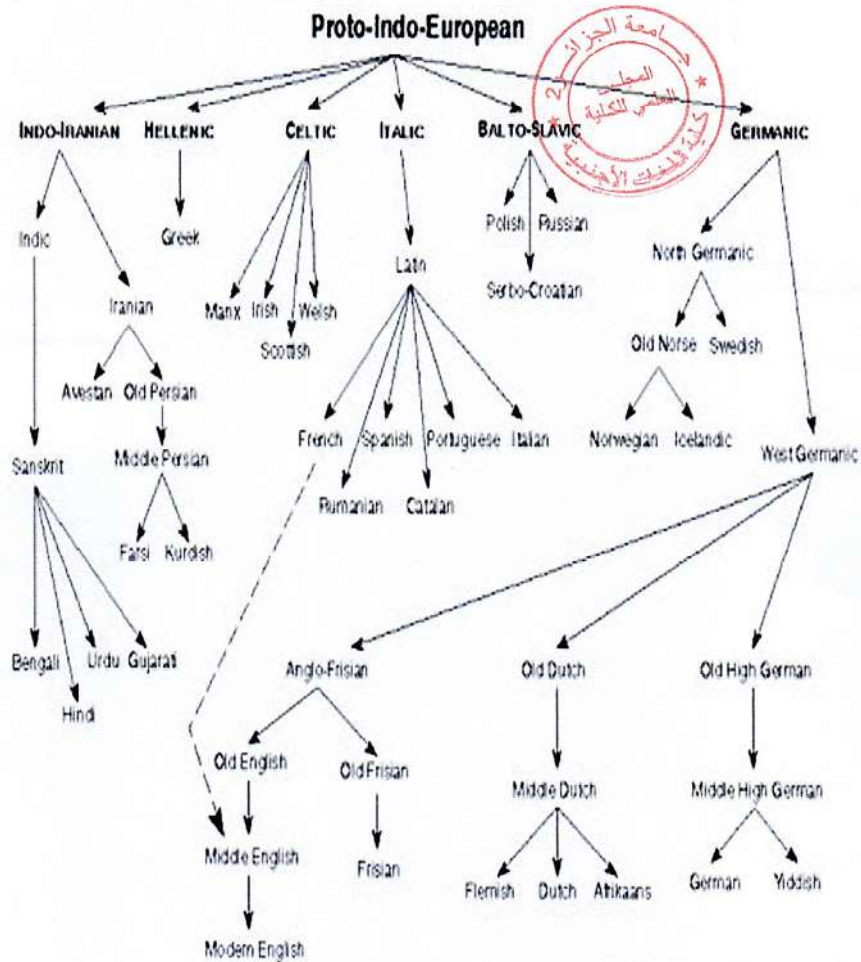


Persian might be added to the same family"

Sir William went on to suggest, in a way that was revolutionary for its time, number of languages from very different geographical areas must have some common ancestor. It was clear, however, that this common ancestor could not be described from existing records, but had to be hypothesized on the basis of similar features existing in records of languages that were believed to be descendants. During the nineteenth, a term came into use to describe that

common ancestor. It incorporated the notion that this was the original form (Proto) of a language that was the source of modern languages in the Indian sub-continent (Indo) and in Europe (European). With Proto-Indo-European established as some 'great-great-grandmother', scholars set out to identify branches of the Indo-European family tree, tracing the lineage of modern languages. The diagram below shows a small selection of the Indo-European Languages and their family branches:





Prepared by Jada Lynda jhad@outlook.com



Looking at the Indo-European family tree, we might be puzzled initially by the idea that all these diverse languages are related. After all, two modern languages such as Italian and Hindi would seem to have nothing in common. One way to get a clearer picture of how they are related is through looking at records :

of an older generation, like Latin & Sanskrit records generation, Latin and Sanskrit, from which the modern languages evolved. For example, if we use familiar letters to write out the words for father and brother in Sanskrit, Latin and Ancient Greek, some common features become apparent

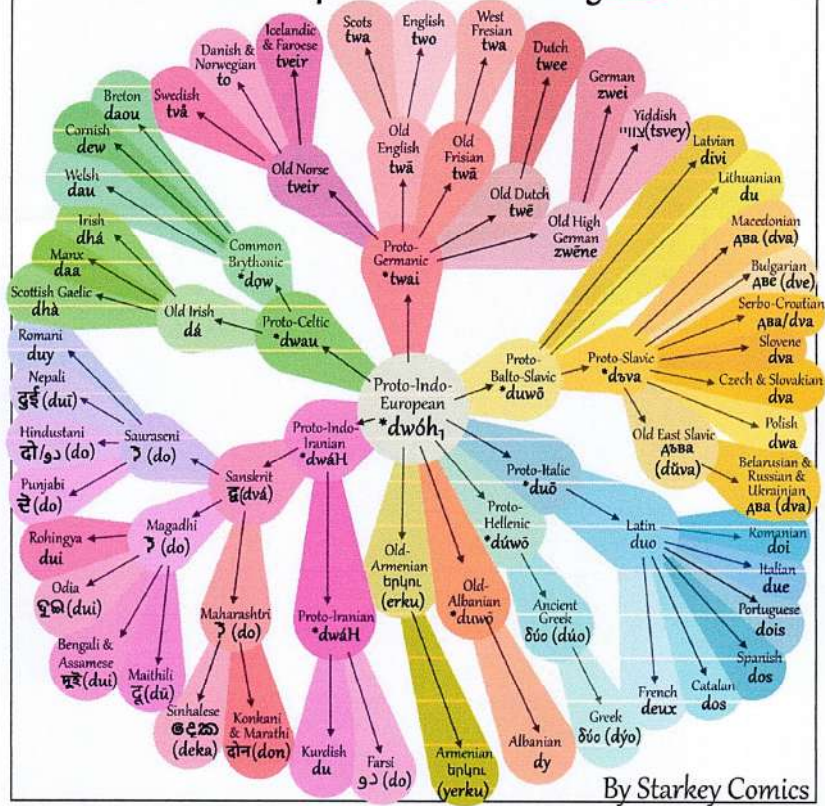
<u>Sanskrit</u>	<u>Latin</u>	<u>Ancient Greek</u>	
pitar	pater	pater	("father")
bhratar	frater	phrater	("brother")

Cognates: The process we have just used to establish a possible family connection between different languages involved looking at what are called 'cognates'. Within groups of related languages, we can often find close similarities in particular sets of words. A cognate of a word in one language (e.g. English) is a word

in another language (e.g. German) that has a similar form and is or was used with a similar meaning. The English words mother, father and friend are cognates of the German words Mutter, Vater and Freund. On the basis of these cognates, we would imagine that modern English and modern German probably have a



Indo-European Words for Two





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Sanskrit	Latin	Ancient Greek	
pitar	pater	pater	("father")
bhratar	frater	phrater	("brother")

English	Latin	Sanskrit	Greek
bear	ferō	bharāmi	phero
do	facere	(da)dhāmi	(ti)thēmi





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On the basis of these cognates, we would imagine that modern English and modern German probably have a common ancestor in what has been labeled the Germanic branch of Indo-European. By the same process, we can look at similar sets in Spanish (madre, padre, amigo) and

Italian (madre, padre, amico) and conclude that these cognates are good evidence of a common ancestor in the Italic branch of Indo-European.

2. Language Change:

All languages are constantly undergoing change. With time, a language may die out, or split off into several new languages, or assume new roles and functions as a result of migrations, conquests, and social changes. Any language is a highly complex communication system. To understand the working principles of language, linguists distinguish different components or subsystems that give shape to this complexity.

Thus, language can be described in terms of its sounds and sound patterns (phonetics & phonology), morphemes and words (morphology), grammatical word combinations (syntax), structures of



meaning (semantics), and patterns of language use (pragmatics). However, language is not only structurally complex. Rather than consisting of relatively uniform and static components, language is a dynamic communication system that is subject to different dimensions of linguistic variation.

3.The comparative method **(comparative reconstruction)**

It developed out of attempts to reconstruct the proto-language mentioned by Jones, which he did not name, but subsequent linguists named Proto-Indo-European (PIE). The first professional comparison between the Indo-European languages known then was made by the German linguist Franz Bopp in 1856. Though he did not attempt a reconstruction, he demonstrated that Greek, Latin and Sanskrit shared a common structure and a

common lexicon. Friedrich Schlegel in 1808 first stated the importance of using the eldest possible form of a language when trying to prove its relationship.

In 1818, Christian Rasmus Rask developed the principle of sound changes to explain his observations of similarities between individual words in the Germanic languages and their cognates in Greek and Latin. Jacob Grimm- better known for his Fairy Tales-in *Deutsche Grammatik* (published 1819-37 in four volumes) made use of the comparative method in attempting to show the development of the Germanic languages from a common origin, the first systematic study of diachronic language change.



The standard way of demonstrating the genetic relatedness of languages was realized by means of comparative philology, this method rested upon the fact that many of the most obviously related words across languages can be put into systematic correspondence in terms of phonetics, phonology and morphology.

However, particular attention was given to the phonetics and the phonology of languages: philologists noticed that the written form of languages conceals most of the phonetic and phonological changes that might have taken place in them. Comparative philologists noted instances of systematic correspondences between the sounds of equivalent words in different languages.

Their findings served as a basis for the establishment of a set of laws known as sound laws. The following table exemplifies the principle of systematic correspondence between Latin words equivalent to words taken from three Romance languages French, Italian, and Spanish.





Comparative reconstruction

- Method of determining a possible mother language of two or more related languages
- **Cognates** – words in sister languages which have similar forms and meanings – relationship across tree
- **Reflexes** - words in the daughter languages that have descended from words in the mother language – relationship up and down tree
- **Proto language** the mother of a language group
- No existing evidence for proto languages only linguists' hypotheses so we mark forms in proto languages with a * to show that this is a reconstructed form: *tapu PPN for 'forbidden, sacred'



	Latin (L)	French (F)	Italian (I)	Spanish (S)
"thing"	causa	chose	cosa	cosa
"head"	caput	chef	capo	cabo
"horse"	caballus	cheval	cavallo	caballo
"sing"	cantare	chanter	cantare	cantar
"dog"	canis	chien	canè	c
"goat"	capra	chèvre	capra	cabra
"plant"	planta	plante	pianta	llanta
"key"	clavis	clef	chiavre	llave
"rain"	pluvia	pluie	pioggia	lluvia
"eight"	octo	huit	otto	ocho
"night"	nox/noctis	nuit	notte	noche
"fact"	factum	fait	fatto	hecho
"milk"	lacte	lait	latte	leche
"daughter"	filia	file	figlia	hija

Some systematic correspondences of form in Latin and three Romance languages (quoted in Lyons, 1995, Language & Linguistics, p 193)

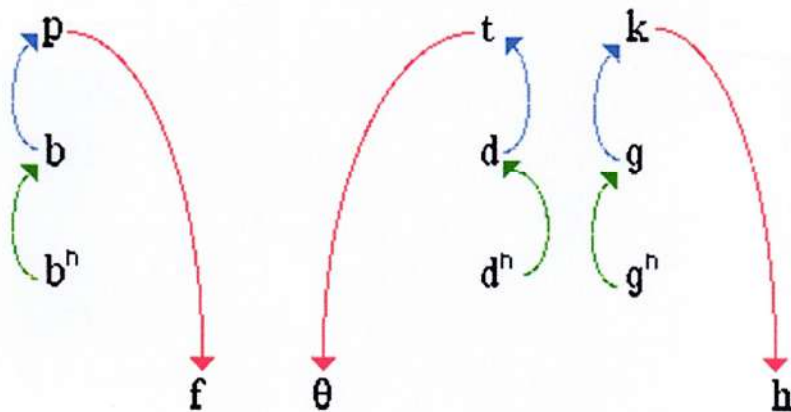


GRIMM' LAW

Grimm pointed out in the second edition of his comparative grammar of Germanic that there were a number of **systematic correspondences** between the sounds of Gothic (the earliest Germanic language) and the sounds of Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit in related words.



Grimm's Law



voiceless stops --> voiceless fricatives

voiced stops --> voiceless stops

voiced aspirated stops --> voiced stops



Jakob Grimm, of the Brothers Grimm who collected fairy tales, formulated "Grimm's Law" to explain the systematic differences between the Germanic language group and the Indo-European source language



Stops	IE	Germanic
-voice	p, t, k	f, θ, h
+voice	b, d, g	p, t, k
+voice +aspiration	bh, dh, gh	b, d, g



Gothic	F	p	b	θ	t	d	h	k	g
Latin	P	b	f	t	d	t	c	g	h
Greek	P	b	ph	t	d	th	k	g	kh
Sanskrit	P	b	bh	t	d	dh	s	j	h

This table shows that Gothic (Go) has:

1. an **f** where the three other (Indo-European) languages have a **p**,
2. a **p** where the three other (Indo-European) languages have a **b**,
3. a **th sound (θ)** where the three other (Indo-European) languages have a **t**,

4. a **t** where the three other (Indo-European) languages have a **d**, etc ...

Instances which illustrate some of these correspondences are:

	Gothic	Latin	Greek	Sanskrit
"foot"	fotus	pedis	podos	padas



Grimm explained such correspondences by postulating a sound-shift in a prehistoric period of Germanic whereby:

- a. Proto Indo-European (PIE) voiced aspirates (bh, dh, gh) became voiced stops (b, d, g) in Proto Germanic (PGmc).
- b. PIE voiced stops (b, d, g) became voiceless stops (p, t, k) in PGmc
- c. PIE voiceless stops (p, t, k) became voiceless fricatives (f, θ, h) in PGmc

N.B. Grimm's term, "aspirate," it will be noted, covered such phonetically distinct categories as **aspirated stops** (bh, ph), produced with **an accompanying audible puff of breath**, and **fricatives** (f), produced with **audible friction as a result of incomplete closure in the vocal tract**. Altogether, nine

sets of correspondences were noted, which fell into a clear phonetic pattern, suggesting that Germanic languages had diverged from Indo-European in a regular way. It was not possible to say exactly when the changes took place, but they were complete (sound shift) by the time the earliest Germanic texts came to be written.





Proto Indo-European (PIE)

Proto Germanic (PGmc)

Voiced Aspirates

Voiced Plosives (unaspirated)

bh → b

dh → d

gh → g

Voiced Plosives

Voiceless Plosives

b → p

d → t

g → k

Voiceless Plosives

Voiceless Aspirants

p → f

t → θ

k → x



VERNER'S LAW:

In 1875, the Danish scholar, Karl Verner, demonstrated that the correspondences such as PIE 't' to PGmc 'd', though exceptional in Grimm's law, were perfectly regular if this law was modified to account for the place of the accent in corresponding Sanskrit words. According to Verner, voiceless

fricatives like θ become voiced unless they are immediately preceded by the word-stress. The following table shows the development of the 't' consonant according to Verner's law.



	BROTHER	FATHER
SANSKRIT	bhra'tar	PITAR
GOTHIC	BROθAR	FADAR

Actually, Verner's law added more precision to Grimm's law: it formulated the conditions under which PIE 't' becomes a **PGmc 'θ'**. A clear distinction was then drawn between **unconditioned** and **conditioned sound-change**. An

enormous research had been devoted to formulate as precisely as possible the conditions under which a particular sound-change took place. Consequently, philologists in the later part of the 19th c began to feel that all exceptions to sound laws could be



explained, as long as proper attention was paid to the phonetic environment and to such matter as stress.

4. Types of Linguistic Classification:

There are two main ways of classifying languages: the Genetic and the Typological. Both are used in contemporary language work, but the former has received far more investigation and has the better developed procedures.

Language classifications

● Genetic

Languages share linguistic properties because they're genetically related, historically, they evolved from the same parent language.

Historical Comparative Linguistics

● Typological

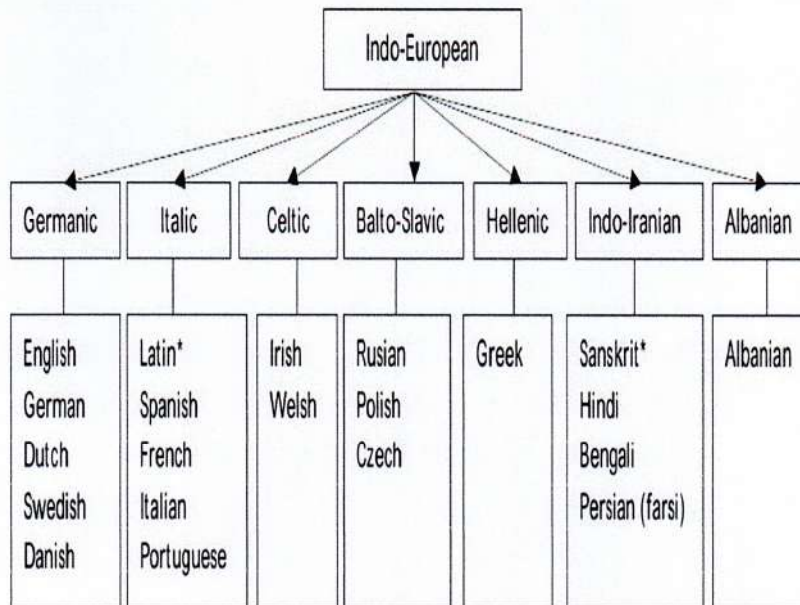
Typological classifications are based on shared formal characteristics of languages, irrespective of their origin: properties of sounds, words, sentences.

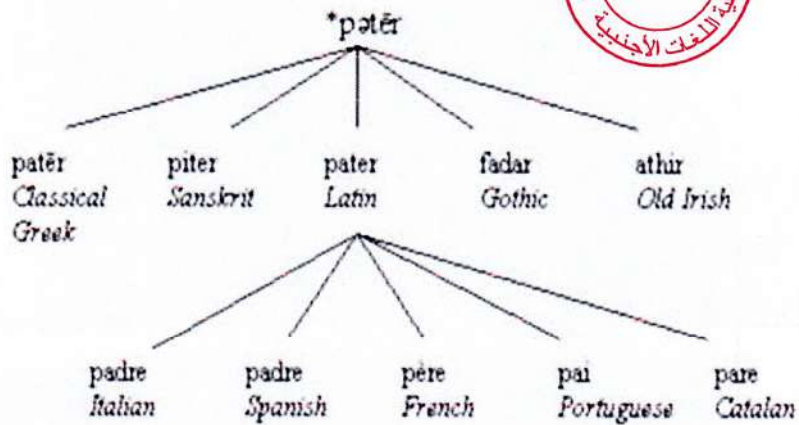
Linguistic Typology



4.1 Genetic classification:

This is a historical classification, based on the assumption that languages have diverged from a common ancestor. It uses early written remains as evidence, and when this is lacking, deductions are made using the comparative method to enable the form of the parent language to be reconstructed. The approach has been widely used, since its introduction at the end of the 18th c.





Genealogical classification of languages

- based on genetic principle
- get rid of loan words, onomatopoeic words and coincidences
- search for regular correspondences among certain languages
- languages displaying systematic similarities and differences must have descended from a common source language, they were genetically related, i.e. form a **language family**
- reconstruction of proto-languages and proto-languages from protolanguages
- idea: know the roots



University of Algiers 2/ Faculty of Foreign Languages /Department of English

Second Year /2021-2022

Course: LINGUISTIC THEORIES

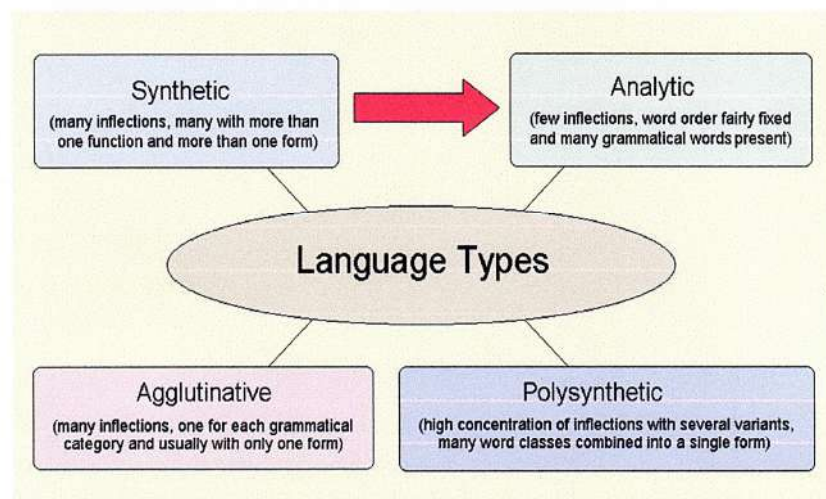
Lecturer: Dr. NESRINE AOUJIT-BESSAI





4.2. Typological classification:

This is based on a comparison of the formal similarities which exists between languages. It is an attempt to group languages into structural types, on the basis of phonology, grammar, or vocabulary rather than in terms of any assumed historical relationships. For example, it is possible to group languages in terms of how they use sounds (how many and what kinds of vowels they have). Languages can also be classified in terms of whether their word order is fixed or free. The earliest typologies, however, were in the field of morphology; these propounded by August Von Schlegel (1767-1845) and others in the early 19th c, recognised three main linguistic types, on the basis of the way a language constructs its words.





I. Structured Typology:

i. Isolating, analytic, or root languages:

In morphological typology (in linguistics), an **isolating language** is any language in which words are composed of a single morpheme.

- There are no endings: words are not inflected
- All grammatical relationships are shown through the use of word order
- An isolating language can thus be defined as a language that has a one-to-one correspondence between word and morpheme.

Isolating languages are especially common in Southeast Asia, and examples are Vietnamese and Chinese (especially classical Chinese).

ii. Inflecting, synthetic or fusional languages:

An **inflecting language** is one whose primary means of building new words is by adding affixes. In grammar, **inflection** or **inflexion** is the modification of a word to express different grammatical categories such as tense, mood, voice, aspect, person, number, gender and case. Conjugation is the inflection of verbs; declension is the inflection of nouns, adjectives and pronouns.



- **Examples in English: In English many nouns are inflected for number with the inflectional plural affix -s (as in "dog" → "dog-s"), and most English verbs are inflected for tense with the inflectional past tense affix -ed (as in "call" → "call-ed"). English also inflects verbs by affixation to mark the third person singular in the present tense (with -s), and the present participle (with -ing). English short adjectives are inflected to mark comparative and superlative forms (with -er and -est respectively).**

All Indo-European languages, such as Albanian, English, German, Russian, Persian (Fârsi), Kurdish (kurdî), Italian, Spanish, French, Sanskrit, Bengali and Hindi are inflected to a greater or lesser extent. In general, older Indo-European languages such as Latin, Ancient Greek, Old English, Old Norse, and Sanskrit are extensively inflected. Deflexion has caused modern versions of some languages that were previously highly inflected to be much less so; an excellent example is Modern English, as compared to Old English.



iii. Agglutinative or Agglutinating languages

Agglutination features in English

Comerse

Comersial, comersialism,comercialist(ic)

establish

establish-ment

establish-ment-ary

establish-ment-ari-an

establish-ment-ari-an-ism

dis-establish-ment-ari-an-ism

anti-dis-establish-ment-ari-an-ism

Agglutinative languages form words through the combination of smaller morphemes to express compound ideas. Each of these morphemes generally has one meaning or function and retains its original form and meaning during the combination process. For languages that have agglutinative morphology, such as Turkish, Finnish, Hungarian, or Korean, it is possible to produce thousands of forms for a given root word.



E.g. Turkish

Ev- ler- i- den-

House plural poss preposition

From their houses.

evlerimde



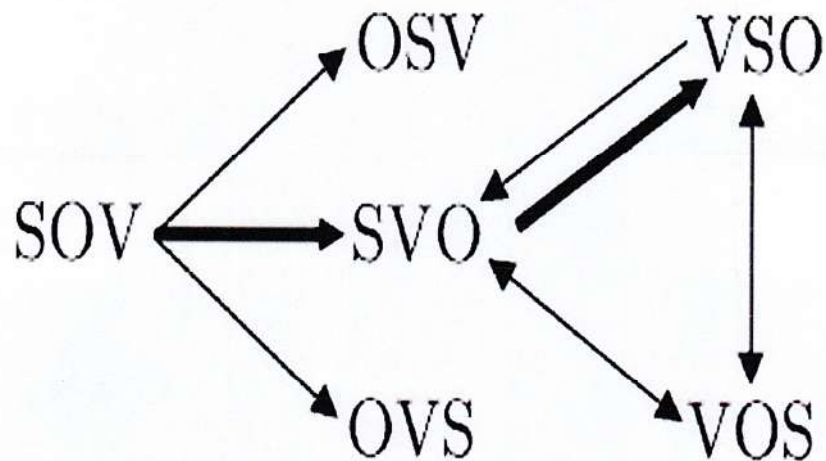
ev + -ler + -im + -de

II Word order Typology:

Word order typology refers to the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language, and how different languages can employ different orders. Correlations between orders found in different syntactic subdomains are also of interest. Some languages have relatively restrictive word orders, often relying on the order of constituents to convey important grammatical information. Others, often those that convey grammatical information



through inflection, allow more flexibility. Most languages however have some preferred word order which is used most frequently.



For most languages, basic word order can be defined in terms of the finite verb (V) and its arguments, the subject (S) and object (O). The latter are typically noun phrases, although some languages do not have a major word class of nouns.

There are six theoretically possible basic word orders for the transitive sentence: subject verb object (SVO), subject object verb (SOV), verb subject object (VSO), verb object subject (VOS), object subject verb (OSV) and object verb subject (OVS). The overwhelming majority of the world's languages are either SVO or SOV, with a much smaller but still significant portion using VSO word order. The remaining three arrangements are exceptionally rare, with



VOS being slightly more common than OVS, and OSV being significantly rarer than two preceding ones.

These are all possible word orders for the subject, verb, and object in the order of most common to rarest:

- SOV is the order used by the largest number of distinct languages; languages using it include the prototypical Japanese, Mongolian, Basque, Turkish, Korean, the Indo-Aryan languages and the Dravidian languages. Some, like Persian and Latin, have SOV normal word order but conform less to the general tendencies of other such languages.
- SVO languages include English, the Romance languages, Bulgarian, Chinese and Swahili, among others.
- VSO languages include Classical Arabic, the Insular Celtic languages, and Hawaiian.
- VOS languages include Fijian
- OVS languages include Hixkaryana.
- OSV languages include Xavante and Warao.

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PRACTICE

Say whether the following statements are True or False and justify your answer in both cases:

1. English belongs to the Gaelic language.
2. Typological classification is based on a comparison of formal similarities which exist between languages.
3. The task of classifying languages began as a philosophical awareness of language in many civilizations.
4. The discovery of Sanskrit by Panini led to the birth of historical linguistics.
5. Proto-Indo-European was an ancient language spoken in India.
6. The existence of French words in the English language clearly shows that English and French descend from the same parent language which is Latin.



LECTURE 4

MODERN LINGUISTICS

EUROPEAN STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS

11.1 Saussure (1857-1913)

Saussure is often described as "father of modern linguistics" and "a master of a discipline which he made modern". His 1916 book, *Course in General Linguistics*, which was a collection of his lecture notes, marked the beginning of modern linguistics.



Emergence of Linguistics

Emergence of Modern Linguistics

- Shift from *historic & descriptive study of language* to *scientific study of language*
- Language is itself a system
- Synchronic Approach
- Emergence of **Structuralist Approach**



Introduction: Why did Modern Linguistics develop?

Why are languages as they are? Various attempts starting from the Greek period with **Traditional Grammar** and passing by **Comparative Linguistics** and up to **Modern Linguistics** had been made to provide 'satisfactory' explanations of languages.

In the Greek period, the study of language was based on logic, and was detached from language itself. Preoccupied with 'rules for distinguishing' between correct and incorrect forms, TG was a normative (prescriptive) discipline far removed from actual observation.

Then came the 'Classical Philology' which was devoted to comparing texts of different periods. This approach followed written language too slavishly and focused on Greek and Latin antiquity, after that emerged 'Comparative Linguistics' which explored the relatedness of many languages along with their historical development.

By the beginning of the 20th century, linguists felt that too large a place was accorded to history, and that it was high time to turn back to the static view point of language adopted by TG, but in a new spirit based essentially on a scientific method of study. It was the birth of Modern Linguistics.



Traditional Grammar vs Modern Linguistics

More Information Online: WWW.DIFFERENCEBETWEEN.COM

	Traditional Grammar	Modern Linguistics
DEFINITION	Collection of prescriptive rules and concepts about the structure of language	Scientific study of language and its structure, including the study of grammar, syntax, and phonetics
ORIGIN	Origins can be traced back to the 15th century.	Derived from traditional grammar.
TYPE	Prescriptive	Descriptive
FOCUS	Written form	Speech
STANDARDS	Force language into a Latin-based framework	Does not force one language into the framework of another



1. Ferdinand De Saussure's approach to Language Study

Swiss Linguist Ferdinand de Saussure is considered the founder of modern linguistic and structuralism. His lectures (delivered in France) were reconstructed from the notes of his students after his death, and published in 1915 as "Cours de Linguistique Générale."

De Saussure maintained that the true and unique object of linguistics is to study language in itself and for itself: he believed that a language-system is a structure that can be abstracted from the historical forces and the social matrix in which it operates. The autonomy of linguistics was then proclaimed and presented as a fundamental principle of linguistics to ensure to be accepted as a scientific study of language.

De Saussure has influenced several fields such as philosophy, anthropology and semiology. He is the linguist who revolutionized the study of Linguistics, as he outlined his theory of language, in which he suggested the need to study language in a scientific way, rather than studying it in a cultural and historical context.

Saussure's theory of language started to take shape when he first argued that one could study **how human sounds are produced**, one could study **what the speaker means by saying particular words**, and one **could analyse how the speaker and listener understand each other**. He introduced a new definition of language by stating that is a "system of signs" that are there to express ideas and enable people to communicate. The



sign 'word' or 'term' in language refers to ideas and concepts which speakers understand and agree on.

Saussure and Structuralism cont.

- *The application of the linguistic theory of structuralism to literature is informed primarily by three elements defined by Saussure:*
- *Language as synchronic rather than diachronic*
- *The arbitrariness of the linguistic sign*
- *Linguistic value depends of DIFFERENCE*

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LECTURE 4
MODERN LINGUISTICS
DE SAUSSURE'S DICHOTOMIES

1. Signifier / Signified dichotomy:

A dichotomy is a split into two parts which are considered to be either contradictory or mutually exclusive. For example, the colors black and white represent a classic dichotomy: either something is black, or it is white, with no room for overlap or alternatives.

Before Modern Linguistics, there was a tendency to relate words and things directly. A noun was defined as the name of persons, objects, places... this is known as Notional Grammar, a grammar which is essentially extralinguistic.

The SIGN (*signe*) is described as a "double entity", made up of the SIGNIFIER, or SOUND IMAGE, (*signifiant*), and the SIGNIFIED, or concept (*signifié*). The sound image is a psychological, **not** a material concept, belonging to the system. Both components of the linguistic sign are inseparable. One way to appreciate this is to think of them as being like either side of a piece of paper - one side simply cannot exist without the other.

The relationship between signifier and signified is, however, not quite that simple. Saussure is persuaded that language cannot be considered a collection of names for a collection of objects (as where ADAM is said to have named the



animals). Indeed, the basic insight of Saussure's thought is that denotation, the reference to objects is mediated by system-internal relations of difference.

Saussure maintained that the nature of the sign in language is arbitrary as there is not a natural relationship between the signifier and signified. For example, the word 'car' does not naturally refer to that thing which we use to transport ourselves or something from one place to another, but we give the word that meaning by agreement within the system of language.





Saussure

Sign
The object / thing



Signifier

The physical existence
(sound, word, image)

Red / Leaf / Round / Apple

Signified

The mental concept

Fruit / Apple / Freshness / Healthy
/ Temptation / Teacher's pet /
Computer

Saussure rejected those notional definitions typical to Traditional Grammar, for him grammatical definitions have to be formal.

THE VALUE OF THE LINGUISTIC SIGN: The value of a sign is determined by all the other signs in the langue.

Saussure realized that if linguistics was going to be an actual science, language could not be a mere nomenclature; for otherwise it would be little more than a fashionable version of lexicology,

constructing lists of the definitions of words. Thus he argued that the sign is ultimately determined by the other signs in the system, which delimit its meaning and possible range of use, rather than its internal sound-pattern and concept. *Sheep*, for example, has the same meaning as the French word *mouton*, but not the same value, for *mouton* can also be used to mean the meal lamb, whereas *sheep* cannot, because it has been delimited by *mutton*.

Language is therefore a system of interdependent entities.

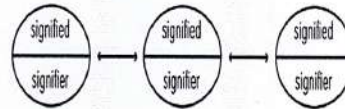


But not only does it delimit a sign's range of use, for which it is necessary, because an isolated sign could be used for absolutely anything or nothing without first being distinguished from another sign, but it is also what makes meaning possible. The set of synonyms *redouter* ("to dread"), *craindre* ("to fear"), and *avoir peur* ("to be afraid"), for instance, have their particular meaning so long as they exist in contrast to one another. But if two of the terms disappeared, then the remaining sign would take on their roles, become vaguer, less articulate, and lose its "extra something", its extra meaning, because it would have

2. Syntagmatic / Paradigmatic relationships

Saussure emphasized that meaning arises from the differences between signifiers; these differences are of two kinds: **syntagmatic**

nothing to distinguish it from. This is an important fact to realize for two reasons: (A) it allows Saussure to argue that signs cannot exist in isolation, but are dependent on a system from within which they must be deduced in analysis, rather than the system itself being built up from isolated signs; and (B) he could discover grammatical facts through SYNTAGMATIC and PARADIGMATIC analyses.



(concerning positioning) and **paradigmatic** (concerning substitution). The syntagm is understood as the linear sequence of oral and written language. Saussure called the latter associative relations. These two



dimensions are often presented as 'axes', where the horizontal axis is the syntagmatic and the vertical axis is the paradigmatic. Every item of language has a paradigmatic relationship with every other item which can be substituted for it (such as cat with dog), and a syntagmatic relationship with items which occur within the same

construction (for example, in **The cat sat on the mat**, cat with the and sat on the mat). The relationships are like axes, as shown in the accompanying diagram.

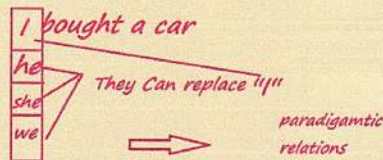


			syntagmatic			
	The	cat	sat	on	the	mat.
paradigmatic	His	dog	slept	under	that	table.
	Our	parrot	perched	in	its	cage.



Syntagmatic VS Paradigmatic

- Syntagmatic relation is the relation of difference between one unit and another that belong to the same sentence, and it represents the linear aspect of language
- Paradigmatics is a relation of difference between units belonging to the same category present in the brain, and it represents the associative aspect of language.



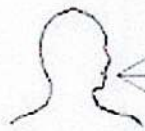
On the lexical level, paradigmatic contrasts indicate which words are likely to belong to the same word class (part of speech): cat, dog, parrot in the diagram are all nouns, sat, slept, perched are all verbs. Syntagmatic relations between words enable one to build up a picture of co-occurrence restrictions within SYNTAX, for example, the verbs hit, kick have to be followed by a noun (Paul hit the wall, not *Paul hit), but sleep, doze

do not normally do so (Peter slept, not *Peter slept the bed).

On the semantic level, paradigmatic substitutions allow items from a semantic set to be grouped together, for example, Angela came on Tuesday (Wednesday, Thursday, etc.), while syntagmatic associations indicate compatible combinations: rotten apple, the duck quacked, rather than *curdled apple, *the duck squeaked.



2. Langue / Parole dichotomy:



Parole



Langue

(what the individual speaks)

(what is shared by the community)

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN "LANGUE" AND "PAROLE"

LANGUE

It's the **social moment** of language. Language is composed by **codes and structures of rules**, always without the opportunity to change or invent them.

PAROLE

It is the **Individual moment** of language. It's the individual **way of using the linguistics code**.



Saussure focuses on what he calls *langue* or *langage*, that is "**a system of signs that express ideas**," and suggests that it may be divided into two components: *langue*, referring to the abstract system of language that is internalized by a given speech community, and *parole*, the individual acts of speech and the "putting into practice of language".

While speech (*parole*) is heterogeneous, that is to say, composed of unrelated or differing parts or elements, language (*langue*) is homogeneous, composed of the union of meanings and 'sound images' in which both parts are psychological. Therefore, as *langue* is systematic, it is this that Saussure focuses on since it allows an investigative methodology that is rooted, supposedly, in pure science.

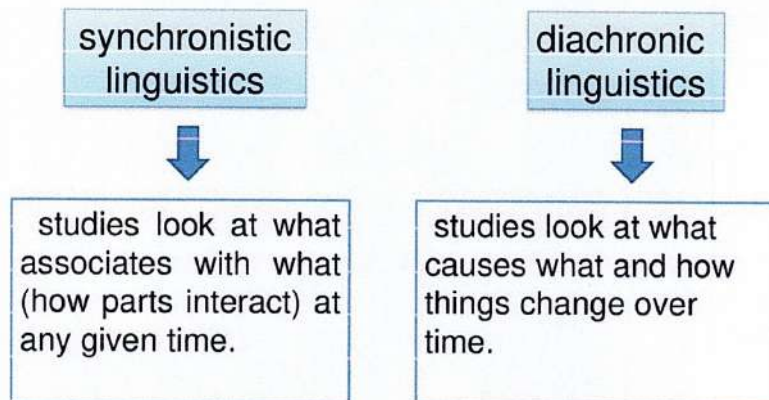
Langue, or "the language system," is the abstract system of values that make speech possible; *parole*, or "speech," is defined by Saussure as "the sum total of what people say, and comprises (a) individual combinations, depending on the will of who speaks, and (b) equally voluntary acts of phonation, which are necessary for these combinations". Saussure claims that the language system is "social in essence and independent of the individual, it is the product which the individual registers passively," whereas speech is purely individual, subjective, and voluntaristic.

La langue denotes the abstract systematic principles of a language, without which no meaningful utterance (*parole*) would be possible. The Course manifests a shift from the search for origins and ideals, typical of nineteenth-century science, to the establishment of systems. The modern notion of system is reflected in the title of the course: General Linguistics. Saussure in this way indicates that the course will be about language in



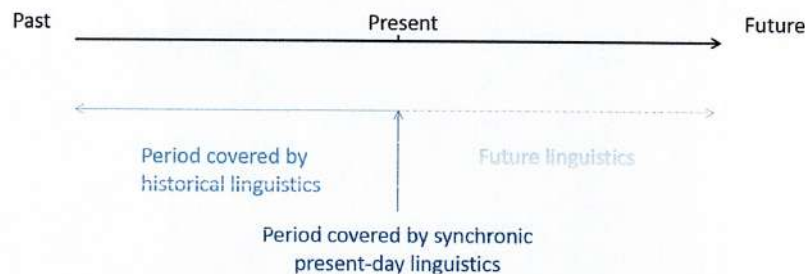
general: not this or that particular language (Chinese or French) and not this or that aspect (phonetics or semantics). General linguistics would be impossible by empirical means because there exist innumerable objects that can be considered linguistic. Instead, Saussure's methodology allows him to establish a coherent object for linguistics in the distinction between langue and parole.

3. Diachrony / Synchrony dichotomy





Ferdinand de Saussure tried to tackle the two dimensions of structural complexity, on the one hand, and temporal change, on the other, by introducing the terms **synchrony** – or **synchronic linguistics** - and **diachrony** – or **diachronic linguistics**.



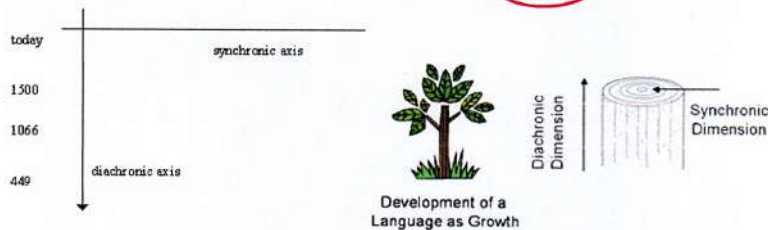
To exemplify these two dimensions of linguistic analysis, de Saussure used a tree analogy. Trees evolve, develop, grow. In other words, they change their shape throughout their lifetime, without, however, changing their basic anatomy. To trace the development of a tree, one can observe its longitudinal growth from being a shoot to becoming a huge plant. This temporal perspective of evolution corresponds to the diachronic perspective on language. If, however, the stem of the plant is cut transversely, a very complicated design of rings appears.

This design shows the complex arrangement of the tree's fibers – its internal complex structure. By analogy, the tree rings can be compared to the complex structure of a language. In the same way, as the transversal cut lays open the structure of the fibers at one stage in the tree's growth, the overall



structure of a linguistic system can be analyzed at a given point in time. This is the synchronic perspective.

Historical linguistics deals with the complex interaction of the synchronic and diachronic perspectives on language. On the one hand, it can analyze textual (or other) sources from a given period and try to reconstruct the synchronic state of a given language at a specific point in time. Moving from one such point to the other, it becomes possible to describe the **history of a language**, for instance, the history of English. On the other hand, **historical linguistics** is fundamentally interested in the principles according to which languages (and their subsystems) change. However, to be able to **describe** such **general principles and processes of language change**, historical linguists much compare different temporal states of the language in question. In short, the synchronic and diachronic dimensions of linguistic analysis are closely related. It is virtually impossible to understand one perspective without the other.





To illustrate this, Saussure uses a chess metaphor. In chess, a person joining a game's audience mid-way through requires no more information than the present layout of pieces on the board and who the next player is. They would not benefit from knowing how the pieces came to be arranged in this way.

Conclusion:

The 20th c was marked by the development of a new approach to the study of language, language was viewed as a set of interrelated systems (the phonological system, the grammatical system... And the elements like sounds, words, phrases...) that has to be studied independently of any social or historical factors. And every language has its own unique system (this latter view is known as the thesis of relativity or relativism contrasted with universalism.

This model of grammar advanced by the structuralists was essentially formal (ie. Independent of the non-linguistic reality). At word level, words were described on the basis of distributional analysis. At sentence level, the sentence was described as a sequence of grammatical words or phrases combined by virtue of the membership of distributional classes (ie. An article comes before a noun, a noun follows an adjective, etc ...)

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PRACTICE

Answer the following:

1. "Language (LA LANGUE) can be compared with a sheet of paper: thought is the front and the sound the back; one cannot cut the front without cutting the back at the same time. Likewise in language, one can neither divide sound from thought nor thought

from sound." De Saussure. Explain this statement using Saussure's terminology.

2. Linguistics being defined as the scientific study of language. Would you agree or disagree to say that the term "scientific" is compatible with the use of deductive method?





LECTURE 6

MODERN LINGUISTICS

AMERICAN STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS

American structuralism is a branch of synchronic linguistics that emerged independently in the United States at the beginning of the twentieth century. It developed in a very different style from that of Europe, under the leadership of the anthropologist F. Boas (1858–1942).

American linguistics began as a consequence of anthropology and was motivated by the urgency of describing and preserving American (oral) Indian languages which were fast dying out. **Leonard Bloomfield 1887-1949** Early work **Introduction to the Study of Language, 1914** was influenced by Wundt's mentalism. In his later **Language,**

1935 he adopted a strict and explicit behaviouristic stance. He led to the development of an empiricist methodology for the study of language. For Bloomfield, linguistics is a branch of psychology, and specifically of the positivistic brand of psychology known as behaviourism.

Behaviourism is a principle of scientific method, based on the belief that human beings cannot know anything they have not experienced. Behaviourism in linguistics holds that children learn language through a chain of “STIMULUS-RESPONSE reinforcement”, and the adult's use of language is also a process of



stimulus-response. According to Bloomfield:

- "The only useful generalizations about language are inductive generalizations."
- Since precise definition of most words was impossible to give, semantics was assumed to be outside the scope of linguistics.
- Distinction between descriptive and prescriptive (i.e. normative) grammar - the emphasis was on the former.
- The introduction of specific methods and techniques for recording and analysing unknown languages.
- The data of the linguist have to be collected from native speakers.
- Influence of behaviourism, a school of psychology, introduced by JB Watson: for the behaviourist psychologist, the data are observable pieces of behaviours. The psychologist can understand mental states and describe them if

he observes human behaviour. Similarly, the structuralist linguist can discover and explain the principles of language if he manages to describe adequately patterns in the linguistic corpus because the linguistic corpus (or language) is considered part of human behaviour.

According to the behaviourists there is, little or no difference between learning a language and learning any other skill, however, complex a skill language may be. Observed evidence shows that human beings learn skills through a trial-and-error process, through stimulus-and -response patterns involving REPETITION for the REINFORCEMENT of the accurate responses.



An utterance is regarded as being a response to a given stimulus, thus, human beings learn only when responding to stimuli.

1. The Morphemic, Phonemic Analysis of language:

According to Bloomfield, language can be organised and analysed on

two ~~LEVELS~~. Language has a double structure, on the primary level we have meaningful units or morphemes and on the secondary level we have elements which will enter the combination of the primary level, we call them: phonemes

Morphemes words Morphemes in sequences

A Double Structure= ----- ----- -----

Phonemes Sounds Phonemes in sequences

o **The morphemic analysis**

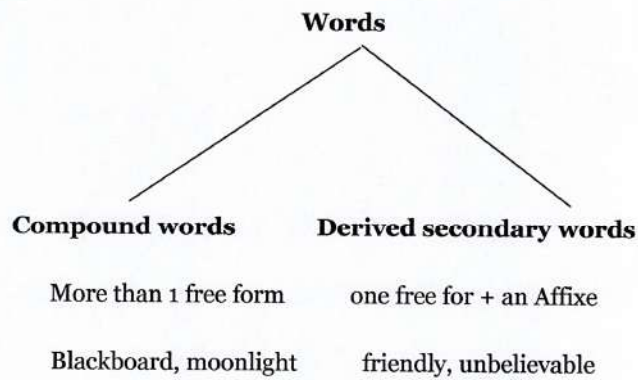
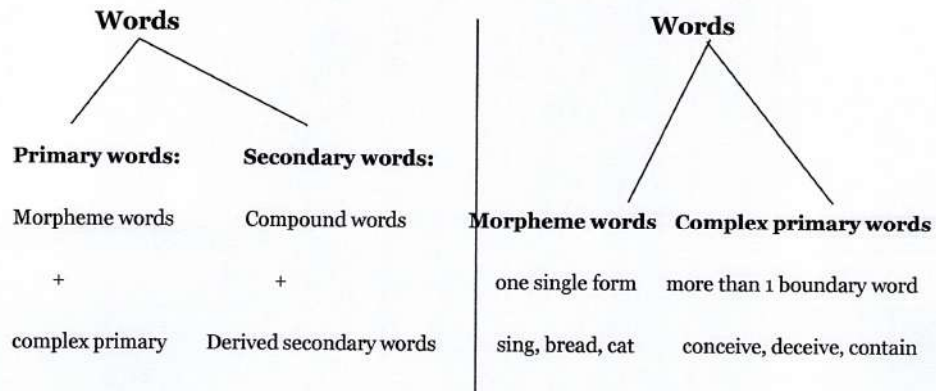
Bloomfield explained some morphological characteristics of American English, he illustrated that words have an internal structure and the smallest unit is the morpheme. Morphemes are of two types:

- a. Free morphemes: e.g. cat, plan, tree....
- b. Bound morphemes: e.g. -ing, -able, -s ...

Then he classified words according to their common morphological characteristics, he found two



important classes of words and each containing two subclasses:





o **The phonemic analysis:**

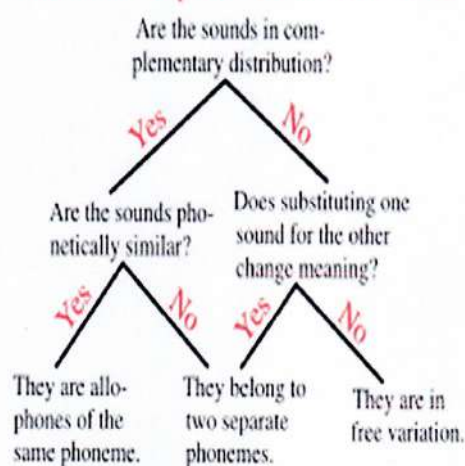
The great contribution of structuralism to phonology was the recognition of the phoneme as the fundamental unit of the organisation of sound systems. This unit is a contrastive element by which two words can be distinguished. Bloomfield divided the study of sounds into two sub_branches:

1. Experimental phonetics: which has three branches (articulatory, acoustic, and auditory)
2. Practical phonetics: or phonology

Part of Bloomfield's phonological study of language involves looking at data (phonetic transcriptions of the speech of native speakers) and trying to illustrate what the underlying phonemes are and what the sound inventory of the language is. Even though a language may

make distinctions between a small number of phonemes, speakers actually produce many more phonetic sounds. Thus, a phoneme in a particular language can be instantiated in many ways. Bloomfield used a method similar to that of minimal pairs to study the phoneme inventory of language.

To determine the phonemic status of two sounds:





A minimal pair is a pair of words from the same language, that differ by only a single categorical sound, and that are recognized by speakers as being two different words. When there is a minimal pair, the two sounds are said to be examples of realizations of distinct phonemes.

If two similar sounds do not belong to separate phonemes, they are called allophones of the same underlying phoneme. For instance, voiceless stops (/p/, /t/, /k/) can be aspirated. In English, voiceless stops at the beginning of a stressed syllable (but not after /s/) are aspirated, whereas after /s/ they are not aspirated.

Minimal Pairs

- Two identical sounding words except for 1 phoneme, which occurs in the same position in both words.
- Focus on sounds, not on spelling!

sh <u>i</u> p	she <u>e</u> p
kill <u>e</u> r	Ke <u>e</u> ler
dr <u>a</u> nk	dr <u>u</u> nk
s <u>a</u> d	s <u>a</u> id
ma <u>d</u>	ma <u>d</u> e

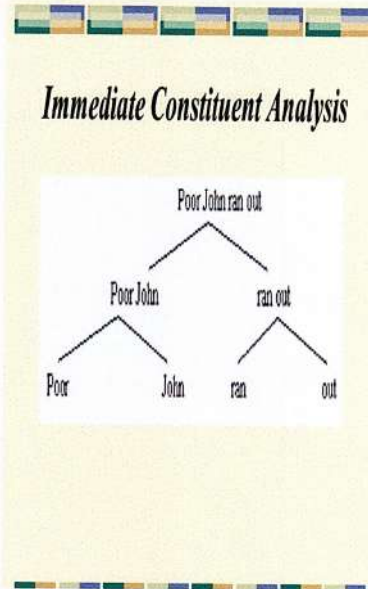
This can be seen by putting the fingers right in front of the lips and noticing the difference in breathiness in saying *pin* versus *spin*. There is no English word *pin* that starts with an unaspirated p, therefore in English, aspirated [p^h] (the [h] means aspirated) and unaspirated [p] are allophones of the same phoneme /p/. This is an example of a complementary distribution.



4. Immediate Constituent

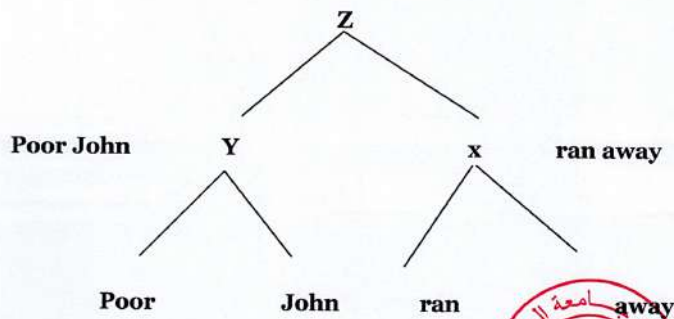
Analysis:

Immediate constituent analysis or **IC Analysis** is a method of sentence analysis first explicitly introduced by American linguist Leonard Bloomfield in his book *Language* in 1933. It is a major feature of Bloomfieldian structuralist linguistics. In IC analysis, a sentence is divided up into major divisions or "immediate constituents", and these constituents are in turn divided into further immediate constituents, and this process continues until irreducible constituents are reached, i.e., until each constituent consists of only a word or meaningful part of a word.





E.G. Poor John ran away



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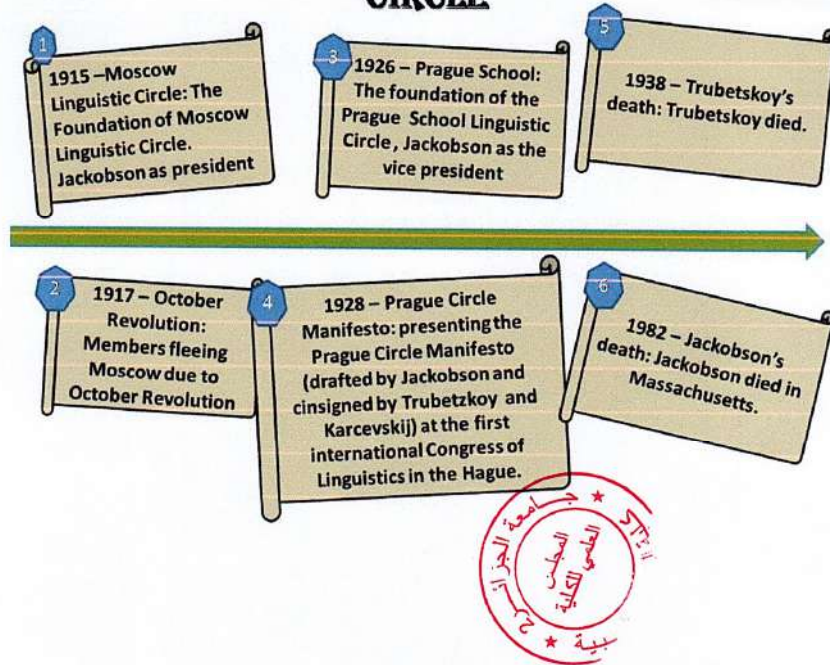


LECTURE 7

EUROPEAN FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS

PRAGUE LINGUISTIC CIRCLE

TIMELINE OF THE PRAGUE LINGUISTIC CIRCLE





The Prague School

- **The Prague School** (1926): Functionalism
- A group of literary critics and linguists in Prague
- Proponents: Nikolai Trubetzkoy, Roman Jakobson, Sergei Karcevskiy
- Focus:
 1. "Language in terms of function"
 2. "Sound system Analysis i.e. Phonology"



Introduction:

The **Prague Linguistic Circle** (French: *Cercle Linguistique de Prague*) or **Prague school** was an influential group of literary critics and linguists who came together in Prague with the common desire to create a **new approach to**

linguistics. The circle was founded by a Czech Vilém Mathesius and some Russian émigrés such as Roman Jakobson, Nikolai Trubetzkoy. Their work constituted a departure from the classical structural position of Ferdinand de Saussure.



The functionalists consider themselves as structuralists, they believe that language is a system whose parts are interrelated and work together. However, the difference between the structuralists lies in the finality of the approach. The structuralist describes the elements of language like the structure or word order, the components of language (phonemes, morphemes, sentences ...), the functionalist will go beyond a mere description of language but will deal with the description in terms of functions, he will focus on the functionality of elements of language and the importance of its social function.

The Prague School stresses the function of elements within language, their contrast to one another, and the system formed by these elements. They developed **distinctive feature analysis**, by which each sound is regarded as

composed of contrasting articulatory and acoustic features, with sounds perceived as different having at least one contrasting feature.

This functional contrast has to do with distinguishing one form from another: e.g. /t/ and /d/ are in functional contrast in English: tip and dip are two different words. The difference is due to the two phonemes /t / & / d/ which have **the function of distinguishing the first form from the second.**

This method of testing the phonological importance of a sound is called **the minimal pair test**. They maintained that there are two complementary ways for describing speech sounds:

1. To consider them as a substance, as a physical phenomena without paying attention to the particular role or function they may have in a language



2. To consider their linguistic function, their contribution in the act of communication and the functioning of language.

The two approaches characterise the physical analysis of the phonetician and the functional analysis of the phonologist.

Actually, it is not only in the phonology that members of the Prague school demonstrated their functionalism.

One of their interests, as far as the grammatical structure of languages is concerned, has been **functional sentence perspective (FSP)**. According to them, **the syntactic structure** of utterances is determined by **the communicative setting** (context) of this utterance, and in particular by what is **given** as background information and what is presented as being **new** to the hearer:

E.g. **The cat** has just eaten a mouse. (SVO) active voice
..... 1

The mouse has just been eaten by the cat. (OVS) passive voice
..... 2

On a narrower interpretation of meaning, the two sentences, though syntactically different, can be said to have the same meaning. However, the contexts in which the first sentence would be uttered differ systematically from the contexts in which the second sentence would be uttered.

The form placed at the beginning of the sentence is that piece of information the speaker wants to focus or attract the hearer's attention on, it is the theme of the sentence (**or the new**). You want to inform the hearer that the cat did the action and not the dog or any other animal; it will be the subject of your sentence as in (1). You want



to inform the hearer that the mouse not the chicken or the bird has been eaten, it will be the subject of your sentence as in (2).

Functionalism then has tended to emphasize the instrumental character of language, language is the linguistic instrument used by human beings to fulfill different social functions. And recognizing the social dimension of language means relating language to society and studying it within its social context.



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COURSE OUTLINE: SEMESTER 4

Lecture	Title
Lecture 1	CHOMSKYAN GENERATIVISM
Weeks 1 & 2	
Lecture 2	COMPETENCE/ PERFORMANCE
Weeks 3 & 4	
Lecture 3	GENERATIVE GRAMMAR
Week 5 & 6	(TG)/TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (TGG)
Lecture 4	STRUCTURAL AMBIGUITY
Week 7	
Lecture 5	BEHAVIOURISM/ MENTALISM
Weeks 8 & 9	
Lecture 6	SOCIOLINGUISTICS
Weeks 10 & 11	
Lecture 7	LANGUAGE CHANGE
Week 12	



LECTURE 1

CHOMSKYAN GENERATIVISM



“Language is a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation.

~ Noam Chomsky





"WHAT'S THE BIG SURPRISE? ALL THE LATEST THEORIES OF LINGUISTICS SAY WE'RE BORN WITH THE INNATE CAPACITY FOR GENERATING SENTENCES."



GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

Inspired by the original work of Noam Chomsky, linguists have attempted to produce a particular type of grammar that has a very explicit system of rules specifying what combinations of basic elements would result in well-formed sentences. This very explicit system of rules, it was proposed, would have a lot in common with the types of rules found in mathematics.

Indeed, Chomsky seems to have taken the view that the essential structure of language can be expressed in mathematical terms: "I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences" (1957: 13). The mathematical perspective helps to explain the meaning of the term 'generative', which is used to describe this type

of grammar. In basic algebra, if we have an expression such as $3x + 2y$, and we give x and y the value of any whole number, then that simple algebraic expression can 'generate' an endless set of values by following the simple rules of arithmetic. When $x = 5$ and $y = 10$, the result is 35. When $x = 2$ and $y = 1$, the result is 8. These results will follow directly and predictably from applying the explicit rules.

The endless set of such results is 'generated' by the operation of the rules. If the sentences of a language can be seen as a comparable set, then there must be a set of explicit rules that can produce all those sentences. Such a set of explicit rules is **generative grammar**.



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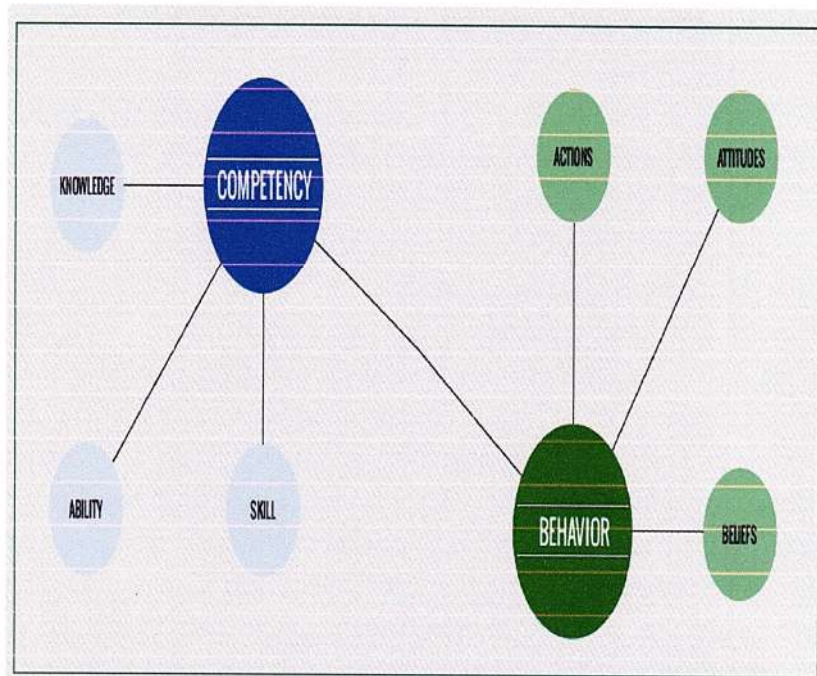
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LECTURE 2

COMPETENCE/ PERFORMANCE





A distinction developed by Noam Chomsky beginning in his 1965 book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* in which he outlines what he believes the goals of Linguistics: *“Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its (the speech community's) language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of this language in actual performance”* (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3)

Chomsky argued that linguists should study only the underlying representations of language, and specifically of their own language (he believed that until linguists

understand their own language, they cannot understand language in general; this is why he devoted so much of his career to the analysis of English syntax.)

Competence is the knowledge you (subconsciously) possess about how to speak a language.

Performance is your real-world linguistic output. Performance *may* accurately reflect competence, but it also may include speech errors due to slips of the tongue or, as Chomsky points out in the quote above, external factors such as memory problems, etc.

To understand this distinction, it is helpful to think about a time when you've made some sort of error in your speech. For example, let's say you are a native speaker of English and utter the following: **We**



swimmed in the ocean this weekend. As a proficient speaker, it isn't that you don't know that the past tense of *swim* is *swam*, you've just mistakenly applied the regular rule to an irregular verb. You're unlikely to make this kind of error more than a small portion of the time, and may never say "swimmed" again. Your competence is fine - you know how to conjugate irregular English verbs, and it is your performance that has let you down.

Though linguists have since realized that competence is not the only thing worth studying in Linguistics, but the distinction remains useful, primarily because it allows those studying language to differentiate between a speech error and not knowing something about a language. Linguists use this distinction to illustrate the intuitive difference between accidentally saying *swimmed* and the fact that a

child or non-proficient speaker of English may not know that the past tense of *swim* is *swam* and say *swimmed* consistently.

Chomsky's work in linguistics has had profound implications for modern psychology. For Chomsky, linguistics is a branch of cognitive psychology; genuine insights in linguistics imply an understanding of aspects of mental processing and human nature. His theory of universal grammar was seen by many as a direct challenge to the established behaviorist theories of the time and had major consequences for understanding how children learn a language and what, exactly, the ability to use language is. Chomsky considers that acquiring such a complex skill as human language cannot be reduced simply to respective responses and it has to be underlined by a particular, inborn capacity. In this case, the example



of the child learning unconsciously to develop this inborn attribute is appropriate, i.e.: he gradually assimilates the linguistic rules that he will have to respect, and so, constructs a grammar of his mother tongue.



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LECTURE 3

GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (TG)

TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (TGG)

1. Syntactic structures

A generative grammar defines the syntactic structures of a language. The grammar will generate all the well-formed syntactic structures (e.g. sentences) of the language and will not generate any ill-formed structures. This has been called the 'all and only' criterion, that is, *all* the grammatical sentences and *only* the grammatical sentences will be produced. The grammar will have a finite (i.e. limited) number of rules, but will be capable of generating an infinite number of well-formed structures. In this way, the productivity of language (i.e. our ability to create totally novel yet grammatically accurate sentences) would be captured within the grammar. The grammar should

also be capable of revealing the basis of two other phenomena: first, how some superficially different sentences are closely related and, second, how some superficially similar sentences are in fact different.

Words which are themselves combinations of morphemes are combined in specific ways to form larger units like phrases and sentences.

Syntax analyses how sentences are combined out of words. It describes the word order in sentences. It also studies the rules governing the way words are arranged to form sentences and the relations held between them. The unit of syntax is the sentence. How many distinct parts does a sentence have? How



are these parts related to one another?

Any sentence of the language is represented as a particular arrangement of constituents. Every sentence, therefore, has a linear structure.

Example: (1) My friend came home late last night.

This sentence is made up of seven words arranged in a particular order; these words are the constituents of the sentence. Part of the meaning of sentence (1) is determined by the order of the morphemes. The sentences of a language are well-formed, grammatical strings, not just any strings of morphemes, and it is the

Since the 1930's syntax –the grammar of sentences- has become intensively studied within linguistics and a number of new descriptive models have been

syntax of the grammar which accounts for this fact.

Example: (2) * friend home last my came home late.

(2) is not a sentence. The permutation of words may or may not affect the meaning of the sentence.

Example: (3) last night my friend came home late.

Example: (4) My friend came home late last night.

Example: (5) John killed Mary ----
-- Mary killed John.

Linguists assumed that every different arrangement of the same words is a different sentence, whether or not the meaning is affected by the permutation of the constituent words.

presented. One type of descriptive approach is called:

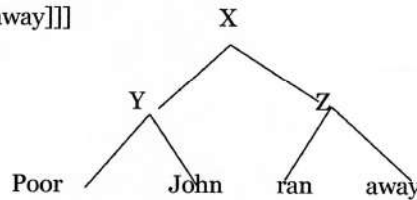


2. Immediate Constituent

Analysis: The technique employed in this approach is designed to show how small constituents go together to form Cutting: Poor/John/ran/away.

Bracketing: [[[poor] [John]] [[ran] [away]]]

Or we may construct a tree diagram:



Of the three techniques, the tree diagram is believed to be more efficient in bringing out clearly the hierarchical structure of sentences. The tree diagram given above is to be interpreted as follows: The ultimate constituents of the sentence (the elements out of which the sentence is constructed) are poor, John, ran and away. The words poor and John are the immediate constituents of one construction "poor John", so the branches leading to them derive

larger constituents. The analysis of a sentence into its IC can be represented graphically in many ways:

directly from the 'node' (Y). The words ran and away are the immediate constituents of another construction, being related through the next-higher 'node' common to them both (Z); and the two constructions poor John and ran away are the immediate constituents of the highest level construction: the sentence itself, so they both derive directly from the 'node' (X).

It will be observed that nothing is mentioned about the syntactic



function of the immediate constituents of the sentence. This model proved to be inadequate and relatively weak, a second model 'Phrase Structure Grammar' was proposed.

3. Phrase Structure Grammar:

Since the 1950s, particularly developing from the work of the American linguist Noam Chomsky, there have been attempts to produce a particular type of grammar which would have a very explicit system of rules specifying what combinations of basic

rule (1) S \longrightarrow NP VP

Rule (1) is a rule of English because it explains why the following strings are not sentences: * helps me; *the teacher.

Rule (2) VP \longrightarrow V (NP)

As we add rules we are clearly defining what a speaker knows about sentences. These rules are called phrase structure rules (PS rules), they show us what a

elements would result in well-formed sentences. A grammar of this type will GENERATE all the well-formed syntactic structures (e.g. sentences) of the language and fail to generate any ill-formed structures. Generative grammar is illustrated by means of the following rules:

If every sentence of a language must include a NP as subject and a VP as predicate, the grammar must include a rule which can be stated as:

Rule (2) abbreviates two rules:

VP \longrightarrow V

VP \longrightarrow V NP

Rule (3) NP \longrightarrow Det N

Pronoun

Prop noun

sentence is, what a NP is, what a VP is and so on; they also reveal grammatical relations. A sentence can be represented in a phrase



structure tree. E.g. The little boy chases his dog.

4. Recursive rules:

Just a few simple Phrase Structure rules can account for the production of huge numbers of

sentences. By using a special kind of PS rule called a recursive rule, the grammar would account for the fact that our linguistic competence permits us to produce sentences of indefinitely great length.

E.g. S --- S (and S) a sentence may consist of any number of sentences, each joined by the conjunction “and”

Another recursive rule:

NP --- NP (and / or NP) a noun phrase may consist of two (or more) noun phrases joined by either the conjunction “and”; “or”

Phrase structure rules are not sufficient to account for all the syntactic knowledge speakers have. Chomsky showed that although PS grammar was more powerful and more satisfactory for the description of a language than the previous model (ICA), it had certain limitations. The inadequacies of PS grammar motivated the addition of transformational rules to that type

of grammar (Chomsky's third model: **Transformational Generative Grammar**). Transformational rules are needed to account for other sentences. For example: adverbs will always come at the end of their sentences, if we follow PS rules. According to Chomsky, PS grammar groups together sentences that are dissimilar and separates others that are similar.



E.g. Mary is anxious to help

Mary is difficult to help

To someone who knows English, these sentences are radically different. However, the slot pattern of both is identical. Chomsky argued that a grammar that provides only one structure for sentences which are felt to be radically different by native speakers, and different structures

for sentences which are felt to be similar, was a bad grammar. A transformational model he claims, overcomes these problems.

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LECTURE 4
STRUCTURAL AMBIGUITY

Lexical Ambiguity

The presence of two or more possible meanings within a single word.



"I saw her duck."

Syntactic Ambiguity

The presence of two or more possible meanings within a single sentence or sequence of words.



"The chicken is ready to eat."

ThoughtCo.



1. Deep and surface structure

Two superficially different sentences are shown in these examples.

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

In traditional grammar, the first is called an active sentence, focusing on what *Charlie* did, and the second is a passive sentence, focusing on *The window* and what happened to it. The distinction between them is a difference in their **surface structure**, that is, the different syntactic forms they have as individual English sentences. However, this superficial difference in form disguises the fact that the two sentences are very closely related,

even identical, at some less superficial level.

This other 'underlying' level, where the basic components (noun phrase + verb + noun phrase) shared by the two sentences can be represented, is called their **deep structure**. The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented. That same deep structure can be the source of many other surface structures such as *It was Charlie who broke the window* and *Was the window broken by Charlie?* In short, the grammar must be capable of showing how a single underlying abstract representation can become different surface structures.

2. Structural ambiguity



Let's say we had two distinct deep structures. One expresses the idea that 'Annie had an umbrella and she whacked a man with it.' The other expresses the idea that 'Annie whacked a man and the man happened to be carrying an umbrella.' Now, these two different versions of events can actually be expressed in the same surface structure form: *Annie whacked a man with an umbrella.* This sentence provides an example of **structural ambiguity**. It has two distinct underlying interpretations that have to be represented

differently in deep structure. Phrases can also be structurally ambiguous, as in expressions like *small boys and girls*. The underlying interpretation can be either 'small boys and (small) girls' or 'small boys and (all) girls'. The grammar will have to be capable of showing the structural distinction between these underlying representations.

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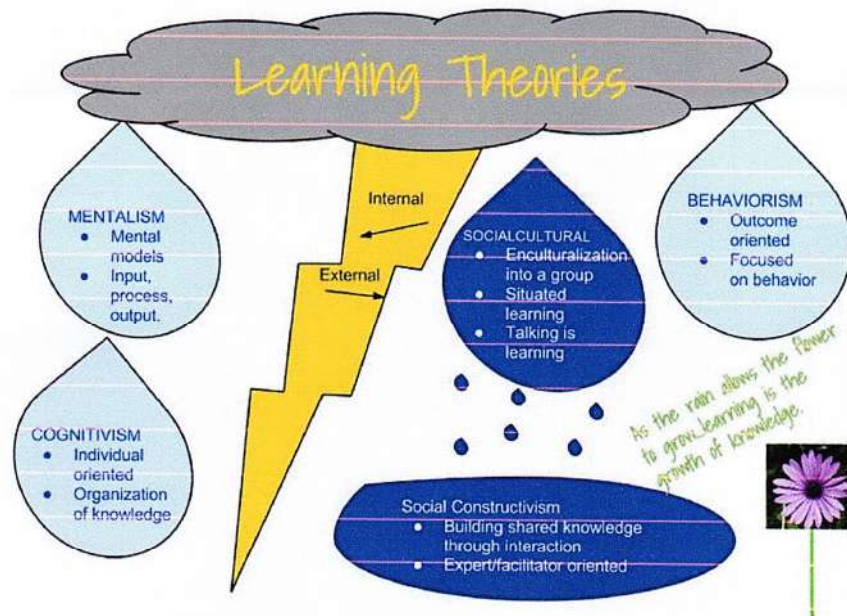
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LECTURE 5

BEHAVIOURISM/ MENTALISM





Introduction

The behaviourists regard language (like any other skill) as a proficiency that is gradually learnt through stimulus-response-reward and reinforcement processes. According to them both, both child and adult learn through these behavioural conditioning patterns.

On the other hand, the mentalists regard language as an inborn human gift, as an innate capacity to develop linguistic competence, through their performance in language use. For them the ability of the native speakers to indefinitely produce and understand utterances (creativity) shows their predisposition for language competence. Thus, the mentalists distinguish between the child spontaneously and naturally acquiring his mother tongue and the

adult purposefully learning other languages.

While considering the linguist's main concern as being a mere description of language would establish linguistics apart as an independent discipline, considering that this concern is the description of how language is put to use would inevitably make of it a branch of psychology.

According to the behaviourists there is, little or no difference between learning a language and learning any other skill, however, complex a skill language may be. Observed evidence shows that human beings learn skills through a trial-and-error process, through STIMULUS and RESPONSE patterns involving REPETITION for REINFORCEMENT of the accurate responses. Linguistic meaning is itself reduced to the accurate



language response, as each utterance is regarded as being a response to a given stimulus, whether it is an internal or an external one. As a consequence, to this view, human beings learn only when responding to stimuli, not, for instance, when neutrally observing other people interact in language. The highly prolific phenomenon of (structural or lexical) over-extension in language use is, therefore, explained in terms of the principle of ANALOGY which is considered to be generally operational in behavioural theory.

According to the Mentalists, acquiring such a complex skill as human language cannot be reduced simply to repetitive responses to stimuli; it has to be underlain by a particular, inborn capacity. The child learns UNCONSCIOUSLY to develop this inborn attribute, i.e., he gradually assimilates the linguistic

rules that he will have to respect, and so, constructs a grammar of his mother tongue. Thus, while the behaviourists claim the child learns by following response patterns, for the mentalists he acquires his language by “working out” and abstracting the RULES that are followed, in order to apply them properly.

Linguistic meaning is itself regarded by the mentalists as an ABSTRACTION process. Linguistic over-extensions are regarded as being as many evidence instances for there being more than just mechanistic analogies involved in the acquisition of language.

Ultimately, it would seem that, at the basis of the Behaviourist/Mentalist controversy, there is a question of priority: while the former put experiencing



(observation)first, the latter put imagining (theory) first. This is manifestly reminiscent of the Inductive/Deductive methodologies of scientific research and clearly akin to it.



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LECTURE 6

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language, while the latter's focus is on the language's effect on society. Sociolinguistics overlaps to a considerable degree with pragmatics. It is historically closely related to Linguistic Anthropology and the distinction between the two fields has even been questioned recently. It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc., and how

creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place (dialect), language usage varies among social classes, and it is these *sociolects* that sociolinguistics studies.

1. The standard language

When we investigated the sounds, words and structures of language in earlier lectures, we were concentrating on the features of only one variety, usually called the **standard language**. This is actually an idealized variety, but exists for most people as the version that is accepted as the official language of their community or



country. If we think of Standard English, it is the version we believe is found in printed English in newspapers and books, is widely used in the mass media and is taught in most schools. It is the variety we normally try to teach to those who want to learn English as a second or foreign language. It is clearly associated with education and broadcasting in public contexts and is more easily described in terms of the written language (i.e. vocabulary, spelling, grammar) than the spoken language. If we are thinking of that general variety used in public broadcasting in the United States, we can refer more specifically to Standard American English or, in Britain, to Standard British English. In other parts of the world, we can talk about other recognized varieties such as Standard Australian English, Standard Canadian English or Standard Indian English.

2. Accent and dialect

Whether we think we speak a standard variety of English or not, we all speak with an **accent**. It is a myth that some speakers have accents while others do not. We might feel that some speakers have very distinct or easily recognized types of accents while others may have more subtle or less noticeable accents, but every language user speaks with an accent. Technically, the term 'accent' is restricted to the description of aspects of pronunciation that identify where an individual speaker is from, regionally or socially. It is different from the term **dialect**, which is used to describe features of grammar and vocabulary as well as aspects of pronunciation. We recognize that the sentence *You don't know what you're talking about* will generally 'look' the same whether spoken with an American accent or a Scottish



accent. Both speakers will be using Standard English forms, but have different pronunciations. However, this next sentence – *Ye dinnae ken whit yer haverin' aboot* – has the same meaning as the first, but has been written out in an approximation of what a person who speaks one dialect of Scottish English might say. There are differences in pronunciation (e.g. *whit*, *aboot*), but there are also examples of different vocabulary (e.g. *ken*, *haverin'*) and a different grammatical form (*dinnae*). While differences in vocabulary are often easily recognized, dialect variations in the meaning of grammatical constructions are less frequently documented. In the following example (from Trudgill, 1983) two British English-speaking visitors (B and C) and a local Irish English speaker (A) are involved in a conversation in Donegal, Ireland.

A: *How long are youse here?*

B: *Till after Easter.*

(Speaker A looks puzzled.)

C: *We came on Sunday.*

A: *Ah. Youse're here a while then.*

It seems that the construction *How long are youse here?* in speaker A's dialect, is used with a meaning close to the structure 'How long have you been here?' referring to past time. Speaker B, however, answers as if the question was referring to future time ('How long are you going to be here?'). When speaker C answers with a past-time response (*We came on Sunday*), speaker A acknowledges it and repeats his use of a present tense (*Youse're here*) to refer to past time. Note that the dialect form *youse* (= 'You' plural) seems to be understood by the visitors though it is unlikely to be part of their own dialect.

3. Bilingualism and diglossia



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

English) in order to take part in the larger dominant linguistic community. Indeed, many members of linguistic minorities can live out their entire lives without ever seeing their native language appear in the public domain. Sometimes political activism can change that. Individual bilingualism, however, doesn't have to be the result of political dominance by a group using a different language. It can simply be the result of having two parents who speak different languages.

If a child simultaneously acquires the French spoken by her mother and the English spoken by her father, then the distinction between the two languages may not even be noticed by the child. There will simply be two ways of talking according to the person being talked to. However, even in this type of bilingualism, one language tends eventually to become the dominant



one, with the other in a subordinate role. A rather special situation involving two distinct varieties of a language, called **diglossia**, exists in some countries. In diglossia, there is a 'low' variety, acquired locally and used for everyday affairs, and a 'high' or special variety, learned in school and used for important matters.

A type of diglossia exists in Arabic speaking countries where the high variety (Classical Arabic) is used in formal lectures, serious political events and especially in religious discussions. The low variety is the local version of the language, such as Egyptian Arabic or Lebanese Arabic. Through a long period in European history, a diglossic situation existed with Latin as the high variety and one of the local languages of Europe (early versions of French, Spanish, etc.) as the low variety or 'vernacular'.

4. Code-switching is a linguistics term denoting the concurrent use of more than one language, or language variety, in conversation. Multilinguals, people who speak more than one language, sometimes use elements of multiple languages in conversing with each other. Thus, code-switching is the syntactically and phonologically appropriate use of more than one linguistic variety. It is distinct from other language contact phenomena, such as borrowing, and pidgins. Speakers form and establish a pidgin language when two or more speakers who do not speak a common language form an intermediate, third language. On the other hand, speakers practice code-switching when they are each fluent in both languages.

REFERENCES

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