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1/8/2015

ÖABT - English Linguistics

ÖABT – İngiliz Dilbilimi Konu Anlatımı

ÖABT, Eğitim fakültesi mezunlarına yani öğretmen adaylarına ek olarak getirilen bir sınavdır.Öğretmen atamalarında 15 branşta öğretmen adaylarına Genel Yetenek, Genel Kültür ve Eğitim Bilimleri testlerinin yanı sıra ÖABT uygulanır. ÖABT – Yabancı Dil (İngilizce) bölümünde Dilbilimi soruları yer almaktadır. Bu kitabın amacı öğrencilere gerekli Dilbilimi bilgilerini aktarmakta öğretmene kaynak kitap olmaktır.

COURSE CONTEXT

Previously Asked Questions in ÖABT

2013 - ÖABT

Which of the following defines the basis of the specific grammar of all possible human languages and constitutes the innate components of the human language faculty?

- a) Functional grammar
- b) Prescriptive grammar
- c) Descriptive grammar
- d) Pedagogical grammar
- e) Universal grammar

Answer: E

2013 - ÖABT

What is the semantic relationship between the words 'cat' and 'animal'?

- a) They are the hyponyms of each other.
- b) The first one is the hyponym of the second one.
- c) They are examples of binary antonymy.
- d) The first one is the super ordinate of the second one.
- e) They prove that perfect synonymy is impossible.

Answer: B

2014 - ÖABT

When we say language is arbitrary we mean ----.

Choose the option that completes the sentence.

- a) words may mean different things depending on the context
- b) speakers cannot always express what they have in mind
- c) listeners do not necessarily understand what you say or write
- d) words or sentences may have more than one meaning
- e) there is no logical connection between words and their meanings

Answer: E

2014 - ÖABT (have not published yet)

Which one is the property of human language that helps us to produce sentences that we have never heard before?

Answer: Creativity

Which sounds are those that we produce by putting the front part of our tongue on a rough bone behind the upper front teeth?

Answer: Alveolar

Which one of the following words has Acronym?

Answer: AIDS

Which one is the functional disorder in the parts of brain that causes problems in understanding and producing language?

Answer: Aphasia

Which one is true about motherese?

Answer: Motherese is the language used between mother and child that mother modifies for the child.

Which one of the following is not one of the features of Slang?

Answer: In slang, long words are always used.
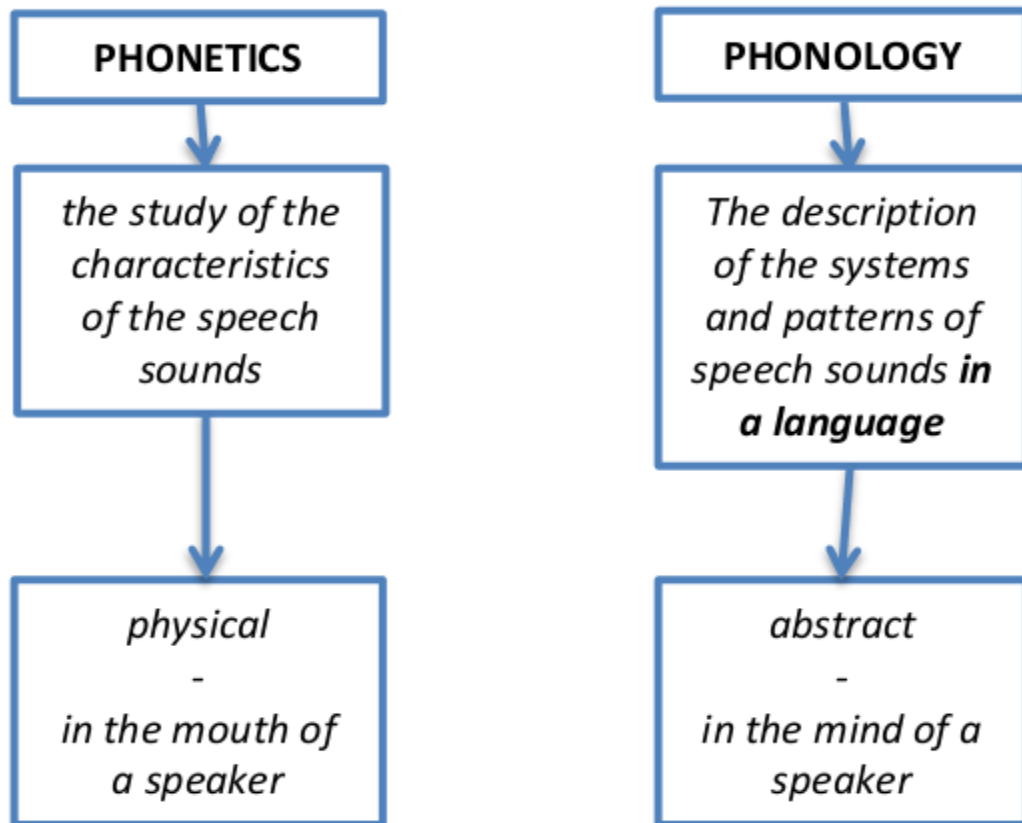
4. PHONETICS

(the Sounds of Language)

Phonetics is the study of characteristics of speech sounds and primary areas of phonetics can be given as follows:

- Articulatory phonetics: How speech sounds are made
- Acoustic phonetics: deals with the physical properties of speech as sound waves in the air
- Auditory phonetics (perceptual phonetics): deals with the perception
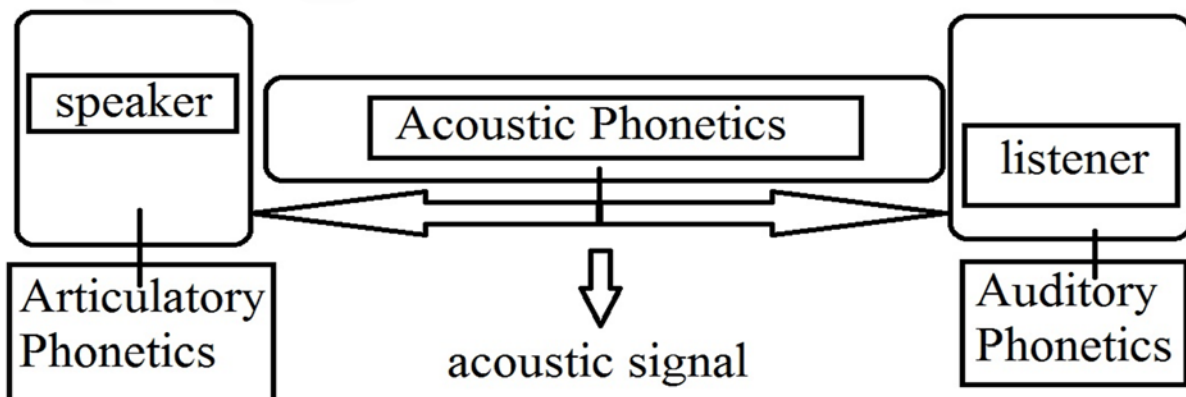
In bringing a physical explanation (how the speech sounds are made) to the sounds that we produce, linguists focus on whether a sound is voiced or voiceless, its place and manner of articulation.

A. ARTICULATORY PHONETICS

The production of any sound involves the movement of air. Most speech sounds are produced by pushing lung air through the *vocal cords* - a pair of thing membranes - up the throat, and into the mouth or nose, and finally out of the body.

1. CONSONANTS

- **Place of articulation**
- **Manner of articulation**
- **Voicing**
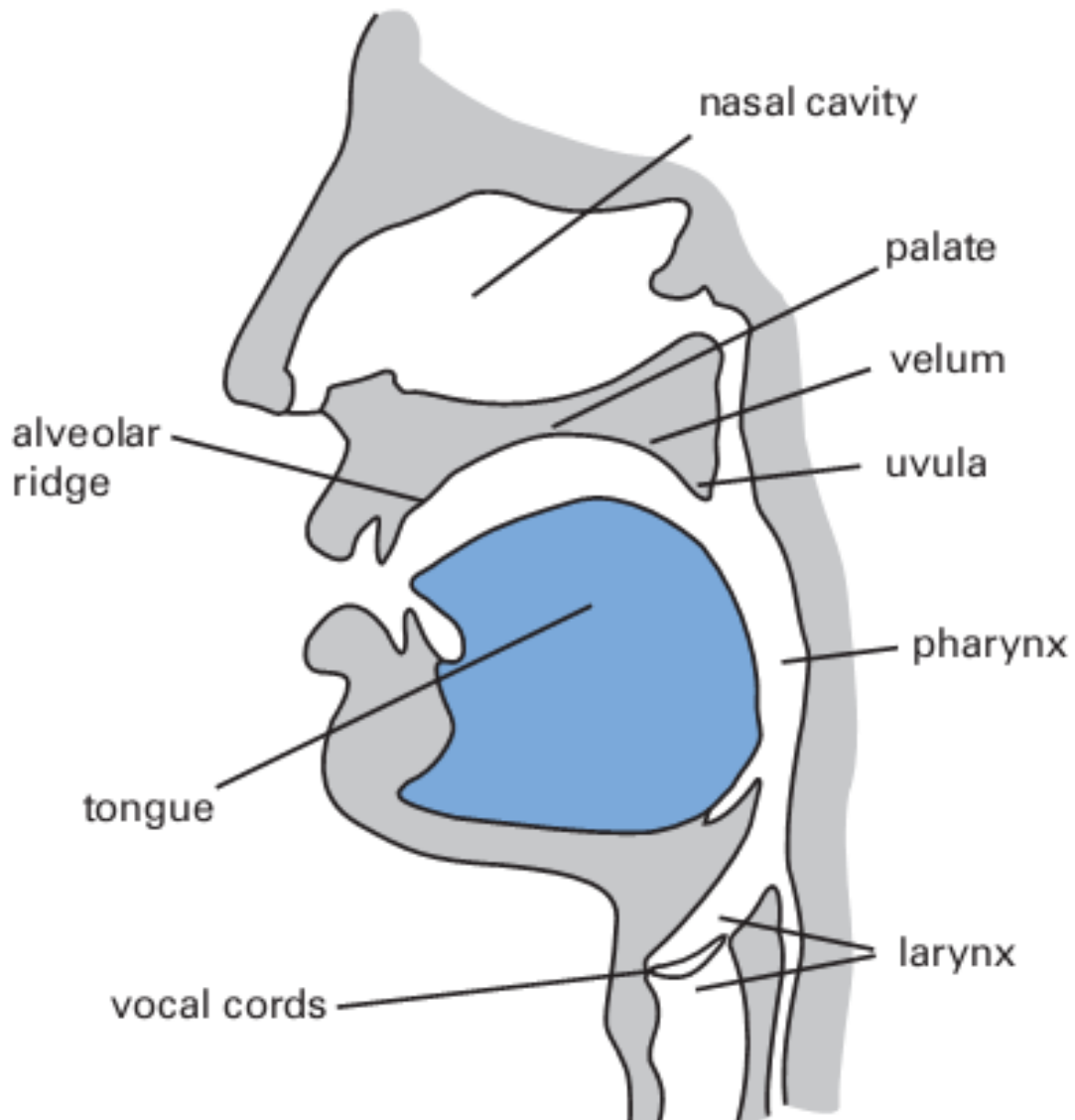
B. PLACE OF ARTICULATION

1) Bilabial

These are sounds formed using both (=bi) upper and lower lips (=labia).

[p], [b], [m]

pat, mat, bat

2) Labiodental

We articulate these sounds by touching the bottom lip to the upper teeth.

[f], [v]

fat, vat, safe, save

3) Interdental

These sounds, both spelled *th,* are pronounced by inserting the tip of the tongue between the teeth. However, for some speakers the tongue merely touches behind the teeth, making a sound more correctly called **dental.**

[θ], [ð]

thin, bath

4) Alveolar

All seven of these sounds are pronounced with the tongue raised in various ways to the **alveolar ridge.**

[t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [l], [r]

- For [l] the tongue tip is raised while the rest of the tongue remains down, permitting air to escape over its *sides.* Hence, [l] is called a **lateral** sound. You can feel this in the 'l's of "Lolita".
- For [r] [IPA ɹ] most English speakers either curl the tip of the tongue back behind the alveolar ridge, or bunch up the top of the tongue behind the ridge. As opposed to [l], air escapes through the central part of the mouth when [r] is articulated. It is a **central** liquid.

5) (Alveo)palatal

For these sounds, which occur in *mission* [mɪʃən], measure [mɛʒər], cheap [tʃip], judge [dʒʌdʒ], and yoyo [jojo], the constriction occurs by raising the front part of the tongue to the palate.

[ʃ], [tʃ], [ʒ], [dʒ], [j]

The Turkish 'r', /R/ is a flap whereby the tip of tongue makes a single tap against the alveolar ridge. Notice what you do with your tongue when you say the word 'ara'. The tongue rapidly taps against the alveolar ridge.

5. NASALS

With the velum raised, preventing airflow from entering the nasal cavity.

[m], [n] and [ŋ] morning, knitting

6. LIQUIDS

The initial sounds in *led* and *red* are described as liquids.

7. GLIDES

Produced with the tongue in motion (or "gliding") to or from the position of a vowel and are sometimes called semi-vowels.

[w] and [j] we, wet, you, yes

8. GLOTTAL STOPS

When the space between the vocal folds (the glottis) is completely (very briefly), then released.

Oh oh! [ʔ]

D. VOICING STATE

When the air is pushed out by the lungs up through larynx, there are vocal folds (vocal cords) inside the larynx and they have two basic functions: Voiced and voiceless.

➢ When they are spread apart - **voiceless** sounds - sssss - fffff
➢ When they are drawn together - **voiced** sounds - zzzzz - vvvvv

<= VOICELESS
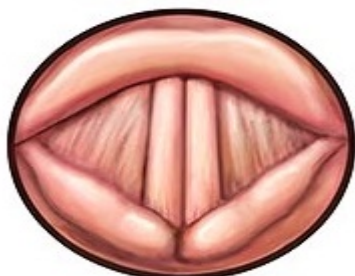
<= VOICED

5. PHONOLOGY

(The Sound Patterns of a Language)

How do we, as native speakers of Turkish, know that 'dolap' and 'dolabı', 'burun' and 'burnu' are related in meaning although they have different forms?

Phonology is concerned with the organizations of speech.

Phonology is the description of the systems and patters of speech sounds in a language. Phonology is concerned with the <u>abstract or mental aspects of the sounds in a language</u> rather than with the actual physical articulation of speech sounds.

cunur / kambat / sortunk / skinez / arktrat

A. PHONEME

Meaning-distinguishing sounds in a language

PHONETICS	PHONOLOGY
the sound [t] - physically produced segment - represented as square brackets [ ]	the sound /t/ - abstract segment - represented as slashes / /
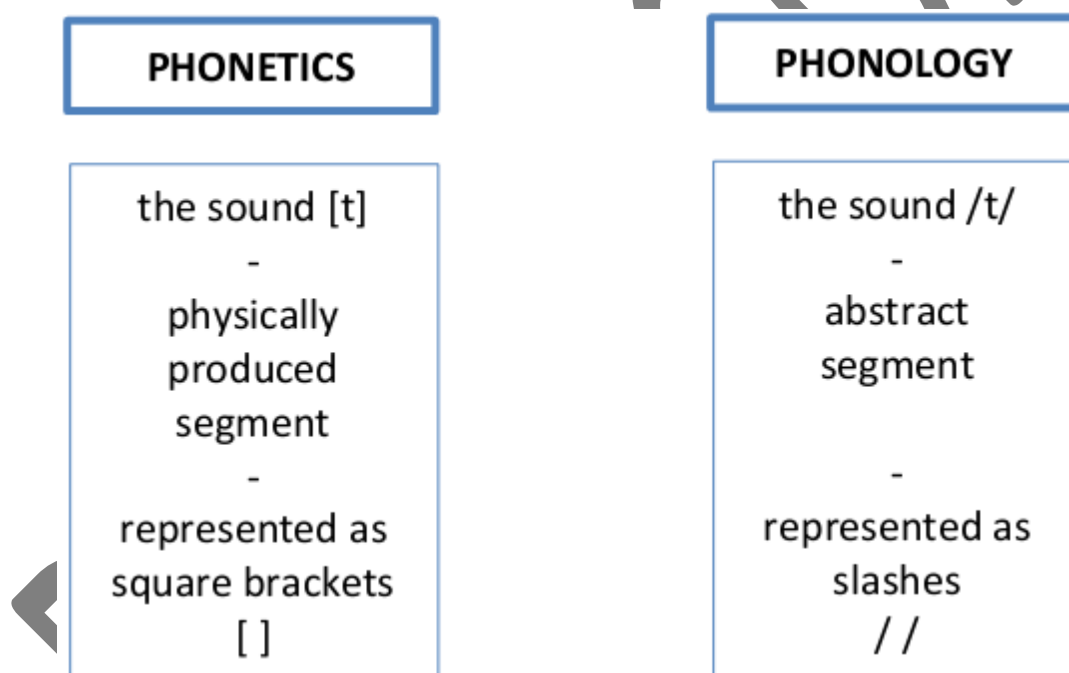
An operational test for determining phonemes in a language:

The words **f**at and **v**at

If we substitute one sounds for another in a word and there is a change of meaning, the two sounds represent different phonemes.

/f/ and /v/ are two phonemes.

Technically, phonemes are represented alongside with their "**features**"

Sesbirimler bir dilde betimlenirken özellikleri ile verilirler. Eğer bir özellik bir sesbirimde bulunuyorsa bu [+], bulunmuyorsa [-] olarak gösterilir.

Example:

/p/ [-voice, +bilabial, +stop]

/k/ [-voice, +velar, +stop]

Bu durumda /p/ phonemeinin (sesbiriminin) özelliği voiceless (ötümsüz), bilabial (dudaksıl) ve stop olması. /k/ sesbiriminin ise voiceless (ötümsüz), velar (damaksıl) ve stop olması olarak verilebilir.

Bu durumda, /p/ ve /k/ seslerinin voiceless ve stop gibi iki ortak özelliği bulunmaktadır. Bu da bir dilde bu iki sesin hemen hemen benzer ses dizilişlerinde yer alabileceği konusunda bir fikir verir.

B. PHONES AND ALLOPHONES

Phoneme | sesbirim	Phone | ses
Abstract unit or **sound-type** (in the mind)	There are many different versions of **that sound-type** regularly produced in actual speech (in the mouth)
SOYUT	FİZİKSEL (SOMUT)
represented as / /	represented as [ ]
Bir dildeki bir **sesbirimin** (phoneme) gerçek konuşmada üretim durumu bakımından birçok **ses** (phone) karşılığı vardır.	
Aynı sesbirimin (phoneme) duyulabilir fakat anlam ayrımına yol açmayan farklı gerçekleşmeleri – **Allophone (alt ses)**	

One of a set of multiple possible spoken sounds (or phones) used to pronounce a single phoneme.

- ✓ [t] sound in the word "tar" aspiration - [tʰ]
- ✓ [t] sound in the word "star" [t]
- ✓ [t] sound in the word "writer" flap – [D]
- ✓ [t] sound in the word "eighth" dental articulation [θ]

These variations given above are all part of one set of phones, THUS, they are referred to as allophones of the phoneme /t/.

Yani bir dildeki /t/ sesbiriminin 4 farklı alt sesi (allophone) var.

Yukarıdaki örnekte *olduğu gibi bir dildeki /t/ sesbiriminin allophoneları [tʰ], [t], [D] ve [θ] olarak veriliyor. Eğer biz bir sesbirimi farklı bir sesbirimle değiştirirsek farklı bir anlam ortaya çıkar. Fakat, bir allophoneu farklı bir allophone ile değiştirirsek farklı bir anlam ortaya çıkmaz, alışılmadık bir sesletimi olan bir sözcük ortaya çıkar. Bu da bize sesbirimler ve alt sesler arasındaki farkı verir.*

4. Which one of the following forms a minimal pair?

   a) know- knock
   b) except - expect
   c) knee - see
   d) sea - see
   e) keen - seat

5. Which one of the following has an onset in the syllable?

   a) ear
   b) cat
   c) earn
   d) at
   e) eat

6. Which one has fricative sound in the initial position?

   a) pear
   b) gear
   c) tear
   d) dear
   e) fear

7. Which one has a different vowel?

   a) blood
   b) hot
   c) fund
   d) cut
   e) hut

8. Which word has a diphthong?

   a) flat
   b) cat
   c) set
   d) toy
   e) bit

9. Which one has a different initial consonant?

   a) physics
   b) physical
   c) psychology
   d) fair
   e) phantom

6. MORPHOLOGY

How words are composed and organized in human language

nitakupenda – [SWAHILI]

I will love you – [ENGLISH]

ni- ta- ku- penda

I will you love

The example given from Swahili is a "Word" but rather than identifying it as only a "word," there are "elements."

Thus, the exercise that we have performed above is an example of **investigating the basic forms in language**.

A. MORPHEME

A minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function

➢ He reconstructed the building again.
➢ re-, construct, -ed
➢ there are three elements in the word reconstructed
➢ re- (again)
➢ construct
➢ -ed (indicating past tense)

one morpheme boy | desire

two morphemes boy + ish | desire + able

three morphemes boy + ish + ness | desire + able + ity

four morphemes gentle + man + li + ness | un + desire + able + ity

more than four un + gentle + man + li + ness | anti + dis + establish + ment + are + an + ism

Which one of the following word has four morphemes?

a) destination
b) decomposition
c) solution
d) nationalization
e) suggestion

B

B. FREE MORPHEME

Morphemes that can stand by themselves

Example:

> ➤ **open**

> ➤ **construct**

Constitute words by themselves

C. BOUND MORPHEME

Morphemes that cannot stand by themselves and are typically attached to another form

Example:

> ➤ **re-**

> ➤ **-ist**

> ➤ **-ed**

> ➤ **-s**

Always part of words

Cannot stand alone

Free morphemes can generally be identified as <u>the set of separate word forms</u> such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. When they are used with bound morphemes attached, the basic word forms are technically known as **STEMS** (gövde).

Examples:

a)   cats: cat - free morpheme

            -s - bound morpheme

b)   un-   dress   -ed

      prefix   stem   suffix

      (bound)   (free)   (bound)

c)   care   -less   -ness

      stem   suffix   suffix

      (free)   (bound)   (bound)

d)   undesirable: desire- free morpheme

              un-,-able-bound morphemes

root	Chomsky	(proper) noun
stem	Chomsky + ite	nount + suffix
word	Chomsky + ite + s	noun + suffix + suffix

root	believe	verb
stem	believe + able	verb + suffix
word	un + believe + able	prefix + verb + suffix

Morphemes vs Syllables?

The terms morpheme and syllable should not be confused:

- many morphemes are syllabic (i.e., contain at least on vowel) - cat

- many others are non-syllabic (contain no vowels): -s 'more than one'

F. LEXICAL AND FUNCTIONAL MORPHEMES

LEXICAL MORPHEMES (content words)

Set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs that we think of as the words that carry the "content" of messages we convey

Since we can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, they are regarded as OPEN-CLASS of words.

- girl, man, house, tiger

FUNCTIONAL MORPHEMES

Set of functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns

Since we almost never add new functional morphemes to the languages, they are known as CLOSED-CLASS of words.

- but, when, because, on, it, them, that

G. DERIVATIONAL AND INFLECTIONAL MORPHEMES

DERIVATIONAL

- ✓ Bring semantic changes to the word, often word class changed

- ✓ Deriving new words

careful | care + -ful

careless | care + -less

INFLECTIONAL

- ✓ To indicate aspect of the grammatical function of word

- ✓ They are used to show if a word is plural or singular, past tense or not

Jim'<u>s</u> two sister<u>s</u> are really different.

He is one of the loud<u>est</u> people in this room.

- ❖ An inflectional morpheme never changes the grammatical category of the word.

- ❖ Whenever there is a derivational suffix and an inflectional suffix attached to the same word, they always appear in that order.

Example:

The words "old" and "older" - are both are adjectives

The words "teach" and "teach<u>er</u>" - the former is verb and the latter is noun

First the derivational (-er) is attached to teach, then the inflectional (-s) is added to produce teachers.

H. MORPHS AND ALLOMORPHS

MORPH: Actual forms used to realize morphemes.

Actual forms used to realize morphemes.

THUS,

The word "cats" consists of two morphs

cat + -s

The word "busses" consists of two morphs

bus + -es

Considering the examples of "cats" and "buses" there are at least two different morphs (-s and -es) used to realize inflectional morpheme "plural" just as there are "allophones" of a particular phoneme (/s/ and /əz/)

-s and -es are the allomorphs of plural morpheme

Allomorph | *Example:*

buses | bus + "plural"

cats | cat + "plural"

baby | baby + "plural"

sheep | sheep + zero morph

7. WORD FORMATION

ETYMOLOGY

The study of the origin and the history of a word.

DERIVATION

Words having new meanings can be formed by adding derivational affixes to the stem.

The process of forming a new word on the basis of an existing word.

Happy => happiness, unhappy.

REDUPLUCATION

Copying some part of the underlying stem to various extent by repeating the leftmost syllable of the stem accompanied by the insertion of one of the consonants /p/, /m/, /s/, /r/

Partial Reduplication

temiz - tertemiz | ince - ipince | sıkı - sımsıkı

Full Reduplication (by copying the entire stem)

kapı kapı (dolaştı) | hızlı hızlı (yürüdü)

bye bye, poo poo

> **Phonologically,** reduplication in Turkish allows sounds alternations to form rhyming pairs. One example is consonant alternation: s>f as in *sıkı fıkı*, k>s as in *kaba saba*, s>p as in *sus pus*. Another example is the internal vowel alternation <a-u> as in *çar çur*, *hart hurt*, *zart zurt*. These words are called **mimetic words** since they are created by imitating the stem.

hokey pokey, boogie woogie.

COMPOUNDING

Two or more words may be joined to form new, **compoun** words.

homework, sleepwalk ...

In English, the rightmost word in a compound is the head of the compound. The head is the part of a word or phrase that determines its broad meaning and grammatical category.

e.g. noun + adjective = adjective | headstrong

Apart from two-word compounds, there are also other formations:

mother-of-pearl, sergeant-at-arms, master of ceremonies, daughter-in-law

Nominal compounds | credit card

Verbal compounds | truck driving

Adjectival compounds | three-column

8. GRAMMAR

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

*boys the lucky

*lucky boys the

?

The article (the) must go before the adjective (lucky), which must go before the noun (boys)

GRAMMAR: *The process of describing the structure of phrases and sentences* in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences.

A. PARTS OF SPEECH

1. NOUNS - are words used to refer to people (boy), objects (backpack), creatures (dog), places (school), qualities (roughness), phenomena (earth-quake) and abstract ideas (love).

2. ARTICLES - are words (a, an, the) used with nouns to form noun phrases classifying those "things" (You can have a banana or an apple) or identifying them as already known (I'll take the apple). (tanımlık)

3. ADJECTIVES - are words used, typically with nouns, to provide more information about the things referred to (happy people, large objects, a strange experience).

4. VERBS - are words used to refer to various kinds of actions (go, talk) and states (be, have) involving people and things in events (Jessica is ill and has a sore throat so she can't talk or go anywhere).

5. ADVERBS - are words used, typically with verbs, to provide more information about actions, states and events (slowly, yesterday). Some adverbs (really, very) are also used with adjectives to modify information about things (Really large objects move slowly. I had a very strange experience yesterday).

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

7. PRONOUNS - are words (she, herself, they, it, you) used in place of noun phrases, typically referring to people and things already known (She talks to herself. They said it be longed to you).

8. CONJUCTIONS - are words (and, but, because, when) used to make connections and indicate relationships between events (Chantel's husband was so sweet and he helped her a lot because she couldn't do much when she was pregnant).

B. AGREEMENT

Traditional grammatical analysis has also given us a number of other categories, including "number", "person", "tense", "voice" and "gender". These categories can be discussed in isolation, but their role in describing language structure becomes clearer when we consider them in terms of agreement.

1. NUMBER: whether the noun is singular or plural

2. PERSON: covers the distinction of first person (involving the speaker), second person (involving the hearer) and third person (involving any others).

Example:

The different forms of English pronouns can be described in terms of **person** and **number**:

Cathy loves her dog.

Cathy – third person singular agrees with **loves** (not love)

3. TENSE: The form of the verb.

Example:

Cathy **loves** her dog. | verb is in present tense, not past.

The sentence is in **active voice** (that Cathy does) (she performs the action). It can also be in **passive voice** (which can be used to describe what happens to Cathy) – Cathy is loved by her dog. Cathy is loved.

4. GENDER:

Example:

Cathy loves **her** dog.

Cathy and her – natural gender

GRAMMATICAL GENDER:

Languages that use grammatical gender (masculine & feminine)

Example:

German uses three genders, *masculine* **der Mond** (the moon), *feminine* **die Sonne** (the sun) and *neuter* **das Feuer** (the fire).

C. APPROACHES TO GRAMMAR

1. PRESCRIPTIVE APPROACH

That was an approach taken by a number of influential grammarians, mainly in eighteenth-century England, who set out rules for the "proper" use of English. This vie w of grammar as a set of rules for the "proper" use of a language is still to be found today and may be best characterized as the **prescriptive approach**.

Examples:

You must not split an infinitive.

You must not end a sentence with a preposition.

2. DESCRIPTIVE APPROACH

Describing the regular structures of the language as it was used, not according to some view of how it should be used.

Examples:

Adjectives qualify nouns.

3. STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

Main concern is to investigate the distribution of forms in a language. The method involves the use of "test-frames" that can be sentences with empty slots in them.

The _____ makes a lot of noise.

car, child, dog, donkey, radio, etc.

4. CONSTITUENT ANALYSIS

The technique employed in this approach is designed to show how small constituents (or components) in sentences go together to form larger constituents.

Example: - nine constituents at word level

An old man brought a shotgun to the wedding.

Constituents in sentence structures can be marked off by using **labeled brackets**.

Example:

The dog loved the girl.

$$\Big[\big[[\text{The}] \quad [\text{dog}] \big] \quad \big[[\text{loved}] \quad \big[[\text{the}] \quad [\text{girl}] \big] \big] \Big]$$
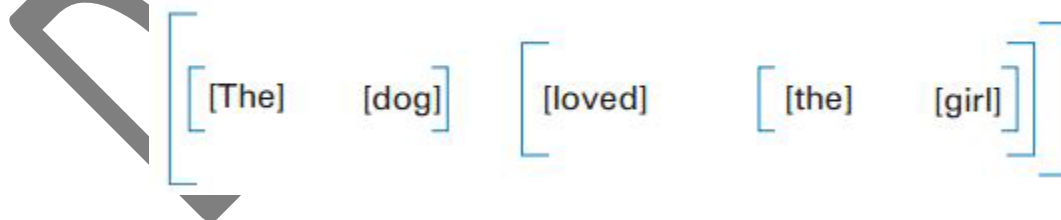
With this procedure, the different constituents of the sentence are shown at the **word level** [the] or [dog], at the **phrase level** [the dog] or [loved the girl], and at the **sentence level** [The dog loved the girl].

Abbreviated grammatical terms of the constituents:

Art (= article) V (= verb)
N (= noun) VP (= verb phrase)
NP (= noun phrase) S (= sentence)
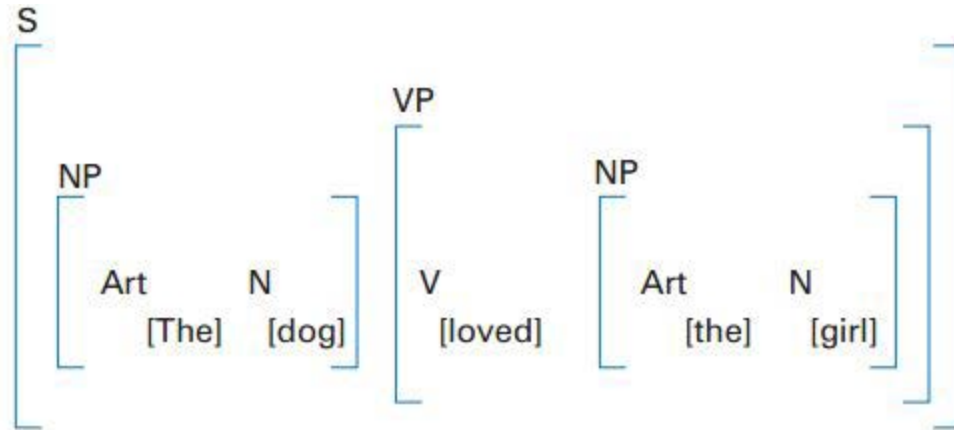
Immediate constituent - elements alone by themselves (word level)

Secondary constituent - elements formed anything else by joining together (phrase level)

There is a **hierarchical organization** of the constituents in the above example. In this hierarchy, the sentence (S) is higher than and contains the noun phrase (NP). The noun phrase (NP) is higher than and contains the noun (N). We can also see that the sentence (S) contains a verb phrase (VP) which contains a verb (V) and another noun phrase (NP).

9. SYNTAX

A rule in English

We put a preposition before a noun

near + Ankara = near Ankara

near tree?

with dog?

When we concentrate on the structure and ordering of components within a sentence, we are studying **SYNTAX.**

However, if we only apply this rule to create structures like "near tree, with dog," we end up with ungrammatical constructions and put * (asterisk)

- * near tree

- * with dog

Agreement – "near the tree" and "with the dog"

Thus, this small rule is tested considering unlimited number of sentences. TO GENERATE OR PRODUCE SENTENCE STRUCTURES – **Generative grammar**

A. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

The child found a puppy.

The professor wrote a book.

That runner won the race.

Det--N--V--Det--N
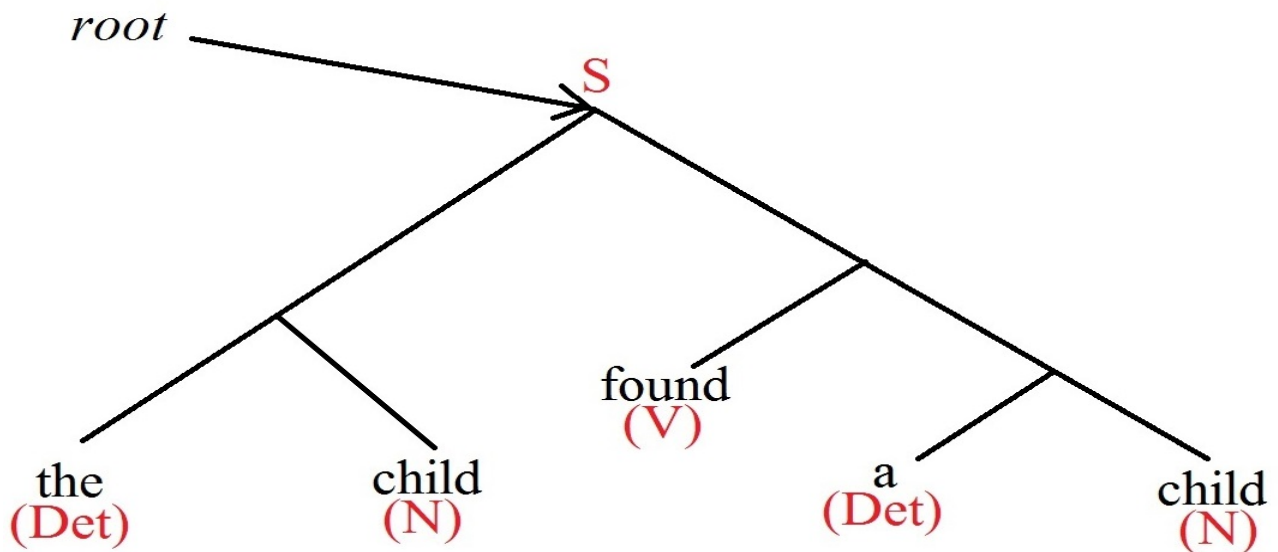
B. SYNTACTIC CATEGORIES

The child found a puppy.

<u>A police officer</u> found a puppy.
<u>Your neighbor</u> found a puppy.
<u>This yellow cat</u> found a puppy.

<u>Noun phrase</u> = NPs may function as the subject or as an object in a sentence. It often contains a determiner.

We can substitute any member of this family for the child without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence, although the meaning of course would change.

C. PHRASAL AND LEXICAL CATEGORIES

Syntactic categories include both **phrasal categories** such as NP, VP, AdjP (adjective phrase), PP (prepositional phrase), and AdvP (adverbial phrase), as well as **lexical categories** such as noun (N), verb (V), preposition (P), adjective (Adj), and adverb (Adv). Each lexical category has a corresponding phrasal category.

Noun (N) puppy, boy, soup, happiness, fork, kiss, pillow, cake, cupboard

Verb (V) find, run, sleep, throw, realize, see, try, want, believe

Preposition (P) up, down, across, into, from, by, with

Adjective (Adj) red, big, candid, hopeless, fair, idiotic, lucky

Adverb (Adv) again, carefully, luckily, never, very, fairly

Determiners (Det) a, the

Demonstratives this, that, these, those

Auxiliary (Aux) have, had, be, was

Modals may, might, could, must, shall, should, will, would

<div align="center">

D. PHRASE STRUCTRE TREES AND RULES
</div>

1. The linear order of the words in the sentence

2. The identification of the syntactic categories of words and groups of words.

3. The hierarchical structure of the syntactic categories (e.g., an S is composed of an NP followed by VP, a VP is composed of a V that may be followed by an NP, and so on)
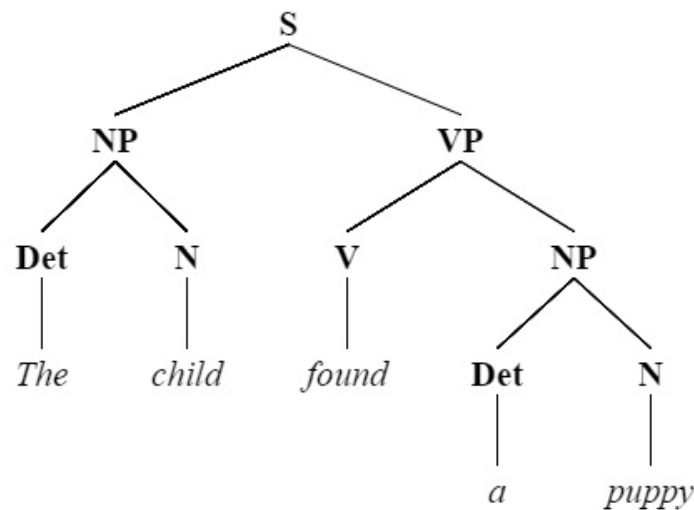
phase structure tree / constituent structure tree

S ⟶ NP VP

NP ⟶ Det N

VP ⟶ V NP

Phrase structure rule

⟶ = "consists of" or "rewrites as" NP ⟶ Det N

( ) = whatever occurs inside these round brackets will be treated as an optional constituent

"the dog" and "the small dog"

NP ⟶ Art (Adj) N

Means: a noun phrase rewrites as (⟶) an article (Art) and a noun (N), with the option of including an adjective (Adj) in a specific position between them.

{ } = only one of the elements en closed within the curly brackets must be selected.

VP ➜ V CP

CP ➜ C S
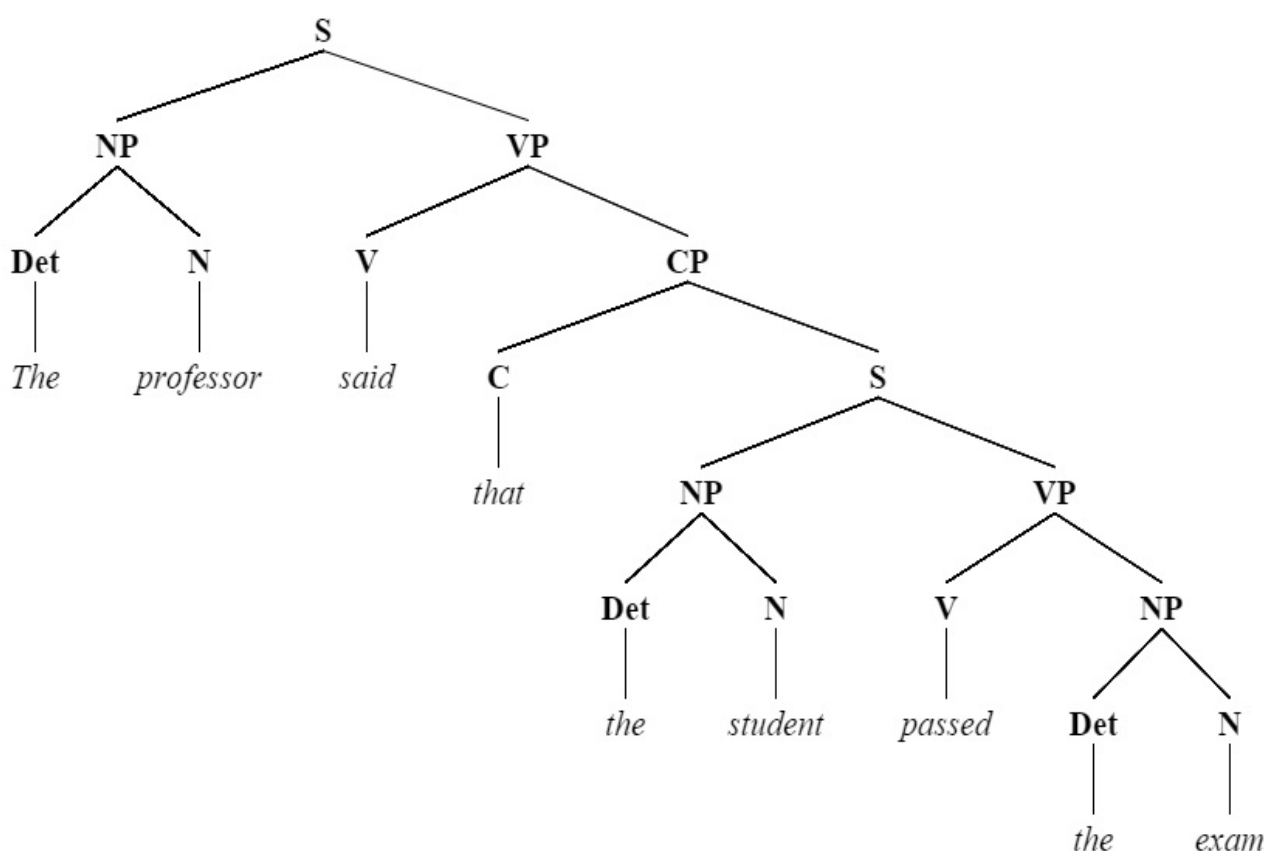
E. HEADS & COMPLEMENTS

Phrase structure trees - relationships among elements in a sentence

The **head** of a phrase is the word **whose lexical category defines the type of phrase:** the noun is a noun phrase, the verb in a verb phrase, and so on.

Every VP contains a verb, which is its head. The VP may also contain other categories, such as an NP or CP - Those sister categories are **complements.**

an *argument* over jelly beans (PP complement to noun)

his *belief* that justice will prevail (CP complement to noun)

happy to be here (infinitive complement to adjective)

about the war in Iraq (NP complement to preposition)

wrote a long letter to his only sister (NP - PP complement to verb)

tell John that his mother is coming to dinner (NP CP complements to verb)

6. Identify a constituent in the following sentence:

> *His son bought a beautiful car for him last year.*

a) his son
b) bought a
c) car for
d) him last year
e) son bought a

ANSWERS

1	E
2	A
3	C
4	C
5	B
6	A

10. SEMANTICS

WHAT IS MEANING?

> With the meaning of words, and the meaning relationships among word | **LEXICAL SEMANTICS**

> Concerned with the meaning of syntactic units larger than word | **PHRASAL / SENTENTIAL SEMANTICS**

> How the sentence It's cold in here comes to be interpreted as "close the windows" in certain situations | **PRAGMATICS**

A. TRUTH CONDITIONS

Whether a sentence is true or false, when one sentence implies the truth or falsehood of another, and whether a sentence has a multiple meanings | **truth-conditional semantics / compositional semantics.**

Knowing the meaning of a sentence, then, means knowing under what circumstances it would be true or false according to your knowledge of the world, namely **its truth conditions**.

For most sentences it does not make sense to say that they are always true or always false. But a restricted number of sentences are indeed always true regardless of the circumstances. They are called **tautologies / analytic sentence** (e.g. *Circles are round* or *A person who is single is not married*).

```
          S
         / \
        /   \
       NP    VP
       |     |
       |     |
      Jack  swims
```
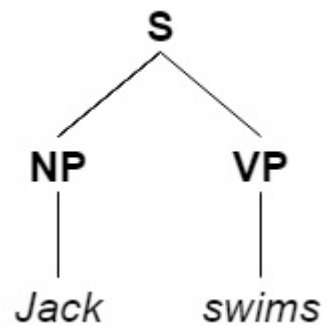
To account for speaker's knowledge of the truth, reference, entailment, and ambiguity of sentences, as well as for our ability to determine the meaning of a limitless number of expressions, we must suppose that the grammar contains semantic rules that combine the meanings of words into meaningful phrases and sentences.

There are, however, interesting cases in which compositionality breaks down, either because there is a problem with words or with the semantic rules.

Moreover, even if the individual words have meaning but cannot be combined together as required by the syntactic structure and related semantic rules, we will also not get to a meaning. We refer to these situations as semantic **anomaly.**

metaphors, idioms

E. THEORIES OF WORD MEANING

If the meaning of a word is not like a dictionary entry, what is it?

REFERENTIAL THEORY

Meaning is the reflection of real-world. Considering this, philosopher Bertrand Russell states that a statement is true as far as it reflects the real-world. However, Referential Theory neither explains the components of grammar nor the fictional entities such as Pegasus.

Reference | Objects, things pointed out in world.

Co-referential

Mark Twain - Samuel Langhorne Clemens

However, many meaningful expressions are not associated with any clear, unique image agreed on by most speakers of the language. i.e. very, if every.

The **reference** part of a word's meaning, if it has reference at all, is the association with its referent; and the **sense** part of a word's meaning contains the information needed to complete the association.

	(Denotative) ▲	(Connotative) ▲
	CONCEPTUAL MEANING	**ASSOCIATIVE MEANING**
	basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word dictionary meaning needle – thin, sharp, steel instrument	Different people might have different associations or connotations attached to a word. Needle – pain, blood, illness Differs from one person to another

F. SEMANTIC FEATURES

Example:

The hamburger ate the boy. – oddness?

The table listens to the radio. – oddness?

PROBLEM: the oddness of these sentences does not derive from their syntactic structure.

According to the basic syntactic rules for forming English sentences, we have well-formed structures:

SOLUTION: The kind of noun that can be the subject of the verb ate must denote an entity that is capable of "eating".

<u>Semantic feature</u> of the subject must be an entity who can eat sth – THUS – an **<u>animate</u>** being. "+animate, −animate," "+human, −human," "+female, −female,"

The hamburger ate the boy.

The boy ate the hamburger.

The boy "+ animate" – denotes an animate being

The hamburger "- animate" – does not denote an animate being

NP	V	NP
The hamburger	*ate*	*the boy*

Complementary (Non-gradable) Pairs | alive/dead, present/absent, awake/sleep, single/married (there is no continuum or middle ground)

Gradable Pairs | big/small, hot/cold, fast/slow, happy/sad (they belong on a scale)

Another characteristic of certain pairs of gradable antonyms is that one is **marked** and the other is **unmarked**. The unmarked member is the one used in question of degree.

How *high* is the mountain?

2800m high

But we do <u>NOT</u> say '2800 m low'

A sub-category of gradable pairs/antonyms are **relational opposites/antonyms**. In this type of antonymy, there is a relationship in which the two opposites must both exist. For example, if someone is **selling**, there must be someone **buying.**

If X *gives* Y to Z, then Z *receives* Y from X.

If X is Y's *teacher,* then Y is X's *pupil*.

Reversives | While <u>*undress*</u> can be treated as the opposite of <u>*dress*</u>, it does not mean "not dress." It actually means "*do the **reverse** of dress*." | **reversive –** enter/exit, pack/unpack, lengthen/shorten, etc.

3. HYPONYMY

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another | **HYPONYMY**

Examples:

animal/dog, vegetable/carrot, flower/rose

If an object is a rose, then it is necessarily a flower. THUS – the meaning of flower is included in the meaning of rose. THUS – rose is a hyponym of flower.
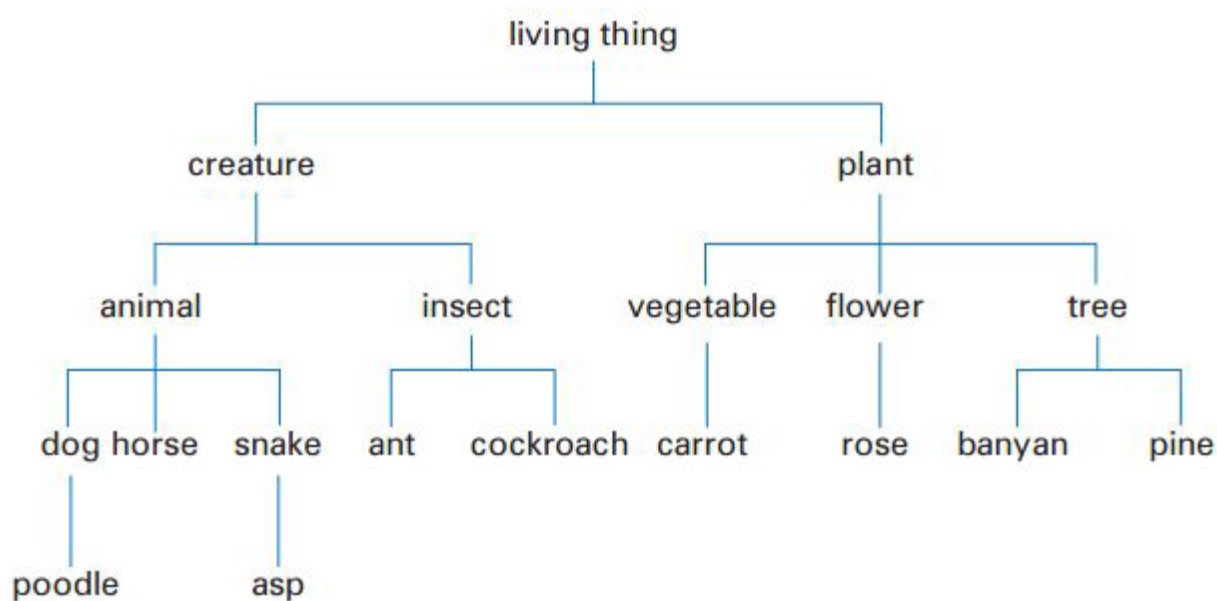
Cockroach is a hyponym of insect.

Animals and insects are called – **SUPERORDINATE** (high-level terms)

Two or more words share the same hyponym – **CO-HYPONYMS**

THUS,

Dog and horse are called co-hyponyms and the super-ordinate term is animal.

4. PROTOTYPES

The idea of "the characteristic instance" of a category is known as the **PROTOTYPE.**

According to some researchers the most characteristic instance of the category "bird" is robin.

Homophone
Same pronunciation, different meaning

Homograph
Same spelling, different meaning

Same pronunciation   Same spelling

Heterograph
Different spelling and meaning
e.g. too / two

Homonym
Different meaning
e.g. tire (car wheel) / tire (fatigue)

Heteronym
Different pronunciation and meaning
e.g. desert (arid region) / desert (leave)

Different spelling
e.g. gases / gasses

Identical words

Different pronunciation
e.g. the (before vowel sound) / the (before consonant sound)

Synonym
Different spelling and pronunciation
e.g. settee / sofa

Same meaning

Words with different spelling, pronunciation and meaning

5. HOMOPHONE

When two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, they are described as **HOMOPHONES**. Common examples are bare/bear, meat/meet, flour/flower, pail/pale, right/write, sew/so and to/too/two.

6. HOMONYM

When one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings – **HOMONYMS**

➢ bank (of a river) – bank (financial institution)

➢ pupil (at school) – pupil (in the eye)

7. HOMOGRAPH

Words that share the same written form as another word but has a different meaning.

➢ bear (verb) - to support or carry

➢ bear (noun) - the animal

8. HETERONYM

Word that is written identically but has a different pronunciation and meaning

➢ I did not object to the object.

An **utterance (sözce)** has time, place, speaker, language, but no special form or content.

Examples:

> ➤ Two plus two makes four.
>
> ➤ Did you have the pleasure of meeting Miss Austen?
>
> ➤ Get that dog off my lawn!
>
> ➤ Jacob, he... vampire... um... or troll... um... no?
>
> ➤ S21 is an airport building project.

A **sentence** has no time or place etc, but it has a definite linguistic form.

Examples:

> ➤ Two plus two makes four.
>
> ➤ Did you have the pleasure of meeting Miss Austen?
>
> ➤ Get that dog off my lawn!
>
> ➤ ~~Jacob he... vampire... um... or troll... um... no~~?
>
> ➤ S21 is an airport building project.

A **proposition** is a claim about the world. It has just the form of an idea.

Examples:

> ➤ Two plus two makes four.
>
> ➤ ~~Did you have the pleasure of meeting Miss Austen~~?
>
> ➤ ~~Get that dog off my lawn!~~
>
> ➤ ~~Jacob he... vampire... um... or troll... um... no~~?
>
> ➤ S21 is an airport building project.

LEVELS OF MEANING

Sentence meaning: Just what the words say, abstractly

Utterance meaning: What the words refer to on a specific occasion

Communicative sense: Everything that is meant, or understood

Example:

"Ich bin ein Berliner."

'I am a Berliner' uttered by John F. Kennedy on 26 June 1963 in Berlin

Sentence meaning: *At utterance time, the speaker has the property of coming from the city Berlin. Determined by the words ich, bin, ein, Berliner and the way they are syntactically combined.*

Utterance meaning: *On June 6 1996, John F. Kennedy had the property of coming from the city of Berlin. Meaning determined by sentence meaning plus the context of utterance.*

Communicative sense*: Based on utterance meaning, but also requires massive amount of world knowledge (e.g. that JFK was president of the USA at the time, that West Berlin felt threatened by the USSR at the time etc.)*

J. SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Semantics is concerned with word meanings and sentence meanings

Pragmatics is concerned with communicative sense

Utterance meaning is located at borderline between semantics and pragmatics.

REVIEW

Lesson 6: Morphology

Morpheme, Monomorphemic, Free Morpheme, Bound Morpheme, Lexical Morpheme, Functional Morpheme, Derivational Morpheme, Inflectional Morpheme, Root, Stem, Affix (Prefix, Suffix, Infix, Circumfix), Morph, Allomorph.

Lesson 7: Word Formation

Etymology, Derivation, Reduplication (Partial/Full), Compounding, Onomatopeia, Coinage, Borrowing, Loan Translation/Calque, Semantic Change (Broadening, Narrowing, Reversal), Metaphorical Extension, Clipping, Blending, Acronym, Abbreviation, Backformation, Conversion, Multiple Processes.

Lesson 8: Grammar

Agreement, Number, Person, Tense, Gender, Prescriptive vs. Descriptive Approach, Structural Analysis, Constituent Analysis, Immediate Constituent, Secondary Constituent.

Lesson 9: Syntax

Generative Grammer, Syntactic Categories, Lexical Categories, Phrasal Categories, Functional Categories, Phrase Structure, Tree Diagrams, Recursive Rules, Heads and Complements, Structural Ambiguity, Deep and Surface Structure, Transformational Rules, Universal Grammar, Principles and Parameters

Lesson 10: Semantics

Meaning, Lexical Semantics, Phrasal/Sentential Semantics, Pragmatics, Truth Conditions, Truth Conditional/Compositional Semantics, Tautologies/Analytic Sentences, Contradictions, Entailment, Lexical Ambiguity, Anomaly, Reference, Co-referential, Sense, Conceptual Meaning, Associative Meaning, Semantic Features, Thematic/Theta Roles (Agent, Theme, Source, Experiencer, Instrument, Goal), Lexical Relations (Synonymy, Antonymy (Complementary Pairs, Gradable Pairs (Marked, Unmarked, Relational Opposites), Reversives), Hyponymy, Prototypes, Homophone,

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

Example:

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

(you, it, tomorrow, she, here, today)

Expressions such as tomorrow, there and here are obvious examples of **deictic expressions**.

C. REFERENCE

An act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something.

To perform an act of reference, we can use proper nouns (Chomsky, Jennifer), other nouns in phrases (a writer, my friend, the cat) or pronouns (he, she, it).

Endophoric Reference: Refers to someone or something inside the text; *endophora*

Exophoric Reference: Reference to something extralinguistics, i.e. not in the same text; *exophora*

1. ANAPHORA/ANAPHORIC EXPRESSION

Subsequent reference to an already introduced entity

Example:

*We saw a funny home video about a boy washing **a puppy** in a small bath.*

***The puppy** started struggling and shaking and the boy got really wet.*

*When he let go, **it** jumped out of the bath and ran away.*

In this type of referential relationship, the second (or subsequent) referring expression is an example of **anaphora** ("referring back"). The first mention is called the **antecedent** (öncül gönderim). So, in our example, *a boy*, *a puppy* and *a small bath* are antecedents and *The puppy*, *the boy*, *he*, *it* and *the bath* are anaphoric expressions.

2. CATAPHORA/CATAPHORIC EXPRESSION

Subsequent reference to an already introduced entity

Example:

*I caught **a bus** and asked **the driver** if it went near the downtown area.*

"If X is a bus, then X has a driver" – inference aşamasında gerçekleşen süreçlerin aynısı gerçekleşiyor. Bu çıkarımı (inference) yapmamızı sağlayan ise "a bus" (antecedent) ve "the driver" (anaphora).

3. INFERENCE

An **inference** is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant.

Example:

A: Can I look at your Chomsky?

B: Sure, it is on the shelf over there.

4. PRESUPPOSITION

What a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as a **presupposition**.

Examples:

If someone tells you "*Your brother is waiting outside"*, there is an obvious presupposition that you have a brother. If you are asked "*Why did you arrive late?"*, there is a presupposition that you did arrive late.

Question:

When did you stop smoking? – What are the presupposition(s) involved in this utterance?

I was smoking before.

My car is a wreck.

My car is not a wreck. | Both sentences have the presupposition of (*I have a car*).

D. SPEECH ACTS

We perform speech acts when we offer an apology, greeting, request, complaints, invitation, compliment, or refusal. A **speech act** is an utterance that serves a function in communication.

Speech act theory begins with the distinction between **constative** utterance and **performatives.**

Constative: Which report truly or falsely on some external state of affairs. They do not denote action, they describe something, i.e. *I pour some liquid into the tube.*

Performative: Which are verbal actions in themselves - such as promising - rather than true or false statements. They denote action, i.e. *I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth.*

In Speech Act Theory, an utterance may comprise three different speech acts:

1. **Locutionary Act:** *performance of an utterance.*

2. **Illocutionary Act:** *as soon as an utterance is spoken, it has an intended meaning depending on the temporal condition and speakers' purpose.*

3. **Perlocutionary Act:** *how the hearer treats what he or she heard.*

F. CONVERSATIONAL MAXIMS

The Gricean maxims are a framework for understanding how humans co-operate socially in their use of language.

1. The Quantity maxim: Make your contribution as informative as is required, but not more, or less, than is required.

2. The Quality maxim: Do not say that which you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence, in short, do not lie.

3. The Relation maxim: Be relevant.

4. The Manner maxim: Be brief and orderly; avoid ambiguity and obscurity.

Examples:

Teacher: *Why didn't you do your homework?*

Student: *May I go and get some water? I'm so thirsty?*

    <u>NO Relation.</u>

Mother: *Did you study all day long?*

Son (who has been playing all daylong): *Yes, I've been studying till now!*

    <u>NO Quality.</u>

Student: *So, why is that sentence ungrammatical?*

Teacher: *Oh, that's easy. It's an ECP violation.*

    <u>NO Manner.</u>

A (to a foreigner she's only just met): *So where are you from?*

B: *Louwesveg 1, 1066 EA, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, Europe.*

    <u>NO Quantity.</u>

Ali: *Where are you, Murat?*

Murat: *I'm in my clothes.*

    <u>NO Quantity.</u>

Bob: *What were you and Anna talking about? You were looking at me all the time!*

Marry: *Oh, well... why don't we go get something to drink?*

    <u>NO Relation.</u>

H. IMPLICATURE

Implicature is a component of speaker meaning that constitutes an aspect of what is *meant* without necessarily being part of what is *said.* Speakers usually mean more than they say, especially drawing upon the context of the utterance.

Implicature actually occurs when the conversational maxims are violated. Implicature arises because of the speaker's and hearer's mutual understanding of the conversational maxims.

Implicature occurs because a speaker **flouts some or all of the maxims deliberately** or for reasons such as linguistic imperfection, socio-cultural reasons, or where violation is already expected in order to encode some particular social meaning.

Floating a maxim: Willingly and knowingly violating a maxim.

Violating a maxim: The conversation could <u>NOT</u> be understood due to the violation of a maxim unwillingly and unknowingly.

I. POLITENESS

Different from its general meaning, in the form of linguistic politeness, the most relevant concept is "face." Your face, in pragmatics, is your public self-image. **Politeness** can be defined as *showing awareness and consideration of another person's face.*

FACE

The concept of "**face**" in pragmatics refers to someone's self image. Your face, therefore, is your emotional and social sense of self worth that you expect someone else to recognize.

If anyone says something to you that constitutes a threat to your self image, that is called a **face-threatening act.**

> ➤ *Give me that paper!*

The other person who adopts and indirect speech act (in form of a question) removes the face-threatening act, thus making his request less threatening. Then it turns out to be a **face-saving act.**

> ➤ *Can I have the paper?*

People have both the **negative face** and **positive face.** The negative is the need to be independent and free of any form imposition, while the positive face is the person's need to be well treated, to belong, to be a member of a group.

```
                          ┌─────────────┐
                          │   Cohesion  │
                          └─────────────┘
```

| Reference | Substitution | Ellipsis | Conjuction | Lexical Cohesion |

| Anaphora (referring to the previous entity) | Cataphora (referring to the following entity) | Exophora (referring to the entity in the surrounding) | Reiteration | Collocation |
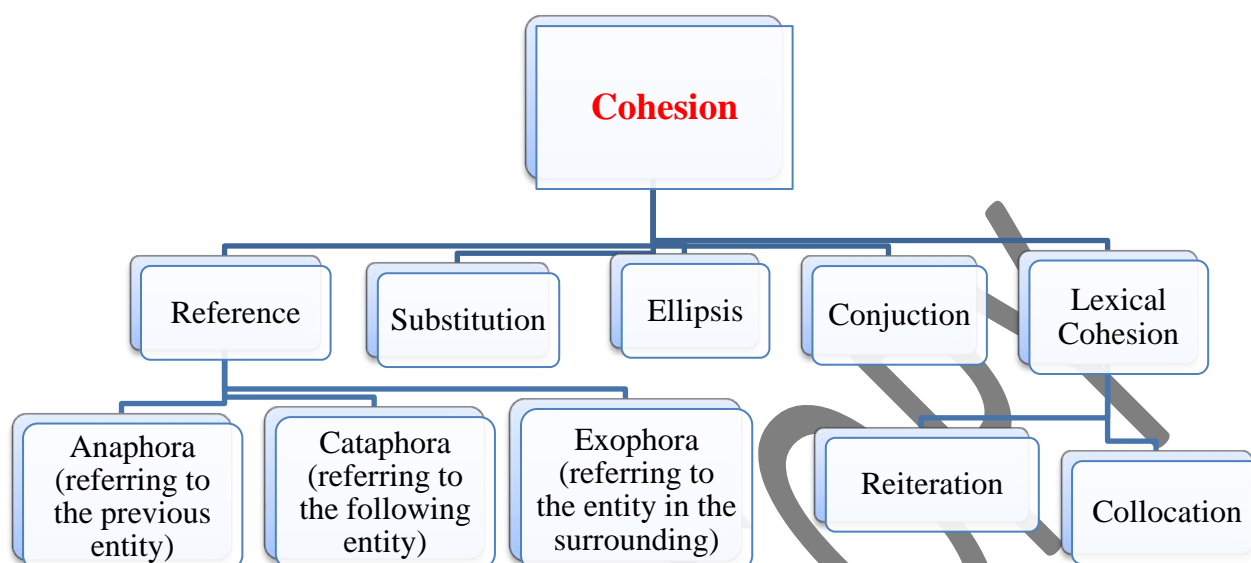
1. REFERENCE

Reference can be described as the use of words in the text which do not have meaning of their own, such as pronouns, but they contribute greatly to the connectedness of the text.

Endophoric Reference

Anaphoric Reference: Pointing back

Cataphoric Reference: Pointing forward

Exophoric Reference: It takes place when the referent does not appear in the text, but rather it is situated in the real world.

Example:

*Can you give **that** to me?*

A: *How do you like my new Mercedes Vito?*

B: ***It** is a nice van. **I**'m also **thinking** of buying **one of them**.*

2. SUBSTITUTION

It is used in order to avoid repeating the same word several times in one paragraph it occurs, most often by words, such as **one, do** or **so.** *So* and *do* in its all forms might also substitute whole phrases or clauses.

Nominal substitution | It replaces nouns/noun phrases with **one, ones, same:**

➤ *Judy has **a dog**. I want **one** of my own.*

➤ *Harry buys old **cars**. Still, Judy prefers new **ones**.*

Verbal substitution | It replaces verbs/verb phrases with **do** or **do so.**

➤ *A: Did Ayşe **feed the cat?***

*B: Yes, she **did**.*

➤ *Ali painted his office white, I will **do so**.*

Clausal substitution | It replaces clauses with **so;** replaces and negates with **not.**

➤ *A: The newspaper says **it's going to rain.***

*B: But I don't think **so**.*

➤ *A: Has **Judy already left for London?***

*B: I certainly hope **not**.*

3. ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis is very similar to substitution; however, a phrase or a clause is deleted. In other words, it is the omission of a noun / noun phrase, verb / verb phrase, or a clause on the assumption that it is understood from the linguistic context.

➤ *Peter wrote this **book**. Then he wrote that ___.*

➤ *Ayşe mavi **elbiseyi** denedi. Sonra kırmızıyı ___ aldı.*

➤ *A: Have you been **swimming?***

B: Yes, I have ___.

4. CONJUNCTIONS

They specify the relationship between clauses or sentences in the creation of a text. Most frequently used types of conjunction are as follows.

Additive conjunctions | and, further(more), moreover, in addition, besides that, incidentally, by the way, similarly, on the other hand, etc.

Adversative conjunctions | but, yet, still, nevertheless, however, actually, on the contrary, anyhow, at any rate, in any case, etc.

Casual conjunctions | so, thus, hence, therefore, as a result, because, on the grounds of, etc.

Temporal conjunctions | then, next, afterwards, at once, immediately, soon, later, etc.

5. LEXICAL COHESION

It denotes links between words which are semantically related. Two types of lexical cohesion are differentiated, namely: **reiteration** and **collocation.**

Reiteration: It is observed in various forms, particularly synonymy, repetition, hyponymy or antonymy.

> ➢ *Alice saw **a mushroom. The mushroom** was enormous.*
>
> ➢ *Alice saw **a pine. The tree** was wet with dew.*
>
> ➢ *Alice saw **a deer. The creature** was beautiful.*

Collocation: It is another dimension of lexical cohesion. Collocation is the way in which certain words occur together.

D. COHERENCE

Coherence is a notion that unifies discourse in terms of the meaning of sentences and their organization in an orderly manner to make the discourse totally comprehensible. Coherence derives from the speaker's / writer's cooperation to produce and understand the aim, topic and direction of the ongoing discourse in the current context.

E. OTHER ASPECTS OF DISCOURSE

1) Discourse **participants** (i.e. a speaker / writer and a hearer / reader)

2) It conveys some **information**. Therefore, it is informative in certain ways.

3) Each text / discourse is produced with some **intention**, such as informing, entertaining, convincing, arguing, etc. Therefore, it has intentionality.

4) Each text / discourse takes place in **a context of situation**, not in a vacuum.

5) The hearer / reader **accepts or rejects** the message. That aspect of discourse is related to the notion of acceptability.

6) Each text / discourse must have certain features known as **cohesion** and **coherence.**

7) Finally, each text / discourse **is shaped by other texts.** It can include an author's borrowing and transformation of a prior text. This is known as **intertextuality.**

F. SPOKEN DISCOURSE / CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

Conversation is an enterprise in which one person speaks, and another listens. Discourse analysts who study conversation note that speakers have systems for determining when one person's turn is over and the next person's turn begins.

This exchange of turns or 'floors' is signaled by such linguistic means as intonation, pausing, etc.

Speakers can **mark their turns** as complete in number of ways: by asking a **question,** for example, or by **pausing** at the **end** of a completed syntactic structure like a phrase or sentence. Other participants can indicate that they want to **take** the speaking **turn**, also in a number of ways. They

The part shown as **(4)** in the illustration is a bundle of nerve fibers called the **arcuate fasciculus**. This was also one of Wernicke's discoveries and is now known **to form a crucial connection between Wernicke's and Broca's areas.**

B. THE LOCALIZATION VIEW

Having identified these four components, it is tempting to conclude that **specific aspects of language ability can be accorded specific locations in the brain**. This is called the localization vie w and it has been used to suggest that the brain activity involved in hearing a word, understanding it, t hen saying it, would follow a definite pattern. The word is heard and comprehended via Wernicke's area.

This signal is then transferred via the *arcuate fasciculus* to Broca's area where preparations are made to produce it. A signal is the n sent to part of the motor cortex to physically articulate the word.

C. APHASIA

Most aphasics do not show total language loss. Rather, different aspects of language are selectively impaired, and the kind of impairment is generally related to the location of the brain damage.

1. BROCA'S APHASIA

Broca's aphasia is characterized by labored speech and certain kinds of word-finding difficulties, but it is primarily a disorder that affects a person's ability to form sentences with the rules of syntax.

One of the most notable characteristics of Broca's aphasia is that the language produced is often **agrammatic** meaning that it frequently lacks articles, prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, and other grammatical elements that we will call "function words" for now.

Example:

➢ Doctor: Could you tell me what you have been doing in the hospital?

Patient: Yes, sure. Me go, er, uh. P.T. [physical therapy] none o'cot, speech ... two times ... read ... r ... ripe ... rike ... uh write ... practice ... get ... ting ... better.

Doctor: And have you been going home on weekends?

Patient: Why, yes ... Thursday uh ... uh ... uh ... no ... Friday ... Bar ... ba ... ra ... S wife ... and oh car ... drive ... purpike ... you ... know ... rest ... and Tv.

Broca's aphasics (also often called **agrammatical aphasics**) may also have difficulty understanding complex sentences in which comprehension depends exclusively on syntactic structure and where they cannot rely on their real-world knowledge.

2. WERNICKE'S APHASIA

Unlike Broca's patients, people with **Wernicke's aphasia** (**fluent aphasia**) produce fluent speech with good intonation, and they may largely adhere to rules of syntax. However, their language is often semantically incoherent.

Example:

➢ One patient replied to a question about his health with:

I felt worse because I can no longer keep in mind from the mind of the minds to keep me from mind and up to the ear which can be to find among ourselves.

People with damage to Wernicke's area have difficulty naming objects presented to them and also in choosing words in spontaneous speech. They may make numerous lexical errors (word substitutions), often producing jargon and nonsense words.

Example:

➢ The only thing that I can say again is madder or modder fish sudden fishing sewed into the accident to miss in the purdles.

Severe Wernicke's aphasia is often referred to as **jargon aphasia**.

Difficulty in finding the correct word, sometimes referred to as **anomia**, also happens in Wenicke's aphasia.

3. CONDUCTION APHASIA

One other, much less common, type of aphasia has been associated **with damage to the arcuate fasciculus** and is called **conduction aphasia**. Individuals suffering from this disorder sometimes mispronounce words, but typically do not have articulation problems. They are fluent, but may have disrupted rhythm because of pauses and hesitations. Comprehension of spoken words is normally good.

However, the task of repeating a word or phrase (spoken by someone else) creates major difficulty, with forms such as *vaysse* and *fosh* being reported as attempted repetitions of the words "**base**" and "**wash**." What the speaker hears and understands can't be transferred very successfully to the speech production area.

The linguistic deficits exhibited by people with Broca's and Wernicke's aphasia point to a **modular organization** of language in the brain. We fin that damage to different parts of the brains results in different kinds of linguistic impairment (e.g., syntactic versus semantic). This supports the hypothesis that the mental grammar, like the brain itself, is not an undifferentiated system, but rather consists of distinct components or modules with different functions.

D. BRAIN PLASTICITY & LATERALIZATION IN EARLY LIFE

Lateralization of language to the left hemisphere is a process that begins very early in life. Wernicke's area is visibly distinctive in the left hemisphere of the fetus by the twenty-sixth gestational week. Infants as young as one week old show a greater electrical response in the left hemisphere to language and in the right hemisphere to music.

They study found that during smiling, the babies had a greater opening of the left side of the mouth (the side controlled by the right hemisphere), whereas during babbling, they had a greater opening of the *right* side (controlled by the left hemisphere).

While the left hemisphere is innately predisposed to specialize for language, there is also evidence of considerable *plasticity* (i.e., flexibility) in the system during the early stages of language

development. This means that under certain circumstances, the right hemisphere can take over many of the language functions that would normally reside in the left hemisphere. The plasticity of the brain decreases with age and with the increasing specialization of the different hemispheres and regions of the brain.
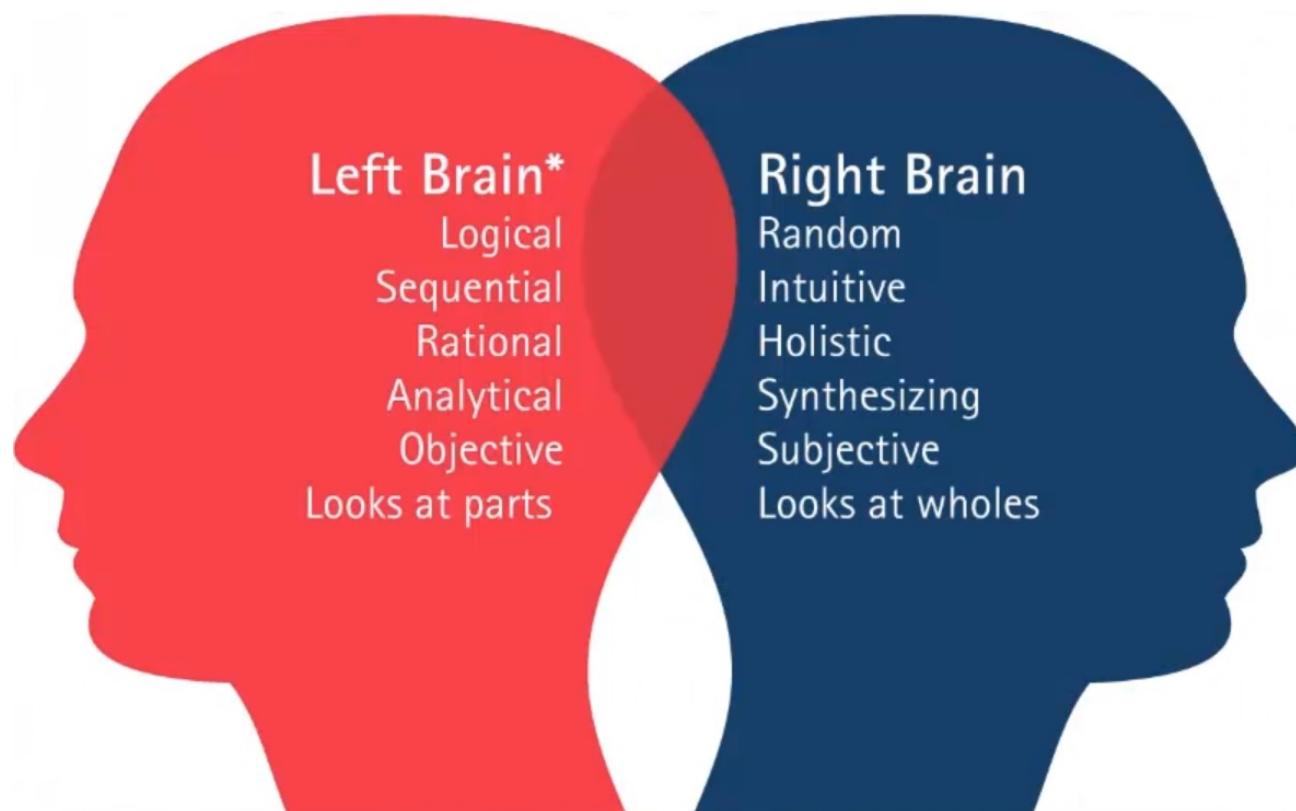
E. SPLIT BRAINS

Split-brain is a lay term to describe the result when the corpus callosum connecting the two hemispheres of the brain is severed to some degree. When this pathway is severed, there is no communication between the "two brains". Such **split-brain** patients also provide evidence for language lateralization and for understanding contralateral brain functions.

With [the corpus callosum] intact, the two halves of the body have no secrets from one another. With it sectioned, the two halves become two different conscious mental spheres, each with its own experience base and control system for behavioral operations...

When the brain is surgically split, certain information from the left side of the body is received only by the right side of the brain, and vice versa.

In human who have undergone split-brain operations, the two hemispheres appear to be independent, and messages sent to the brain result in different responses, depending on which side receives the message.

For example if a pencil is placed is in the left hand of a split-brain person whose eyes are closed, the person can use the pencil appropriately but cannot name it because only the left hemisphere can speak. The right brain senses the pencil but the information cannot be relayed to the left brain for linguistic naming because the connections between the two halves have been severed. By contrast, if the pencil is placed in the right hand, the subject is immediately able to name it as

well as to describe it because the sensory information from the right hand goes directly to the left hemisphere, where the language areas are located.

Dichotic listening is another experimental technique which uses auditory signals to observe the behavior of the individual hemispheres of the human brains.

Subject hears two different sound signals simultaneously through earphones. They may hear *curl* in one ear and *girl* in the other, or a cough in one ear and a laugh in the other. When asked to state what they heard in each ear, subjects are more frequently correct in reporting linguistic stimuli (words, nonsense syllables, and so on) delivered directly to the right ear, but are more frequently correct in reporting nonverbal stimuli (musical chords, environmental sounds, and so on) delivered to the left ear. Such experiments provide strong evidence of lateralization.

F. TONGUE TIPS AND SLIPS

We have all experienced difficulty, on some occasion(s), in getting brain and speech production to work together smoothly. (Some days are worse than others, of course.) Minor production difficulties of this sort may provide possible clues to how our linguistic knowledge is organize d within the brain.

There is, for example, **the tip of the tongue** phenomenon in which we feel that some word is just eluding us, that we know the word, but it just won't come to the surface.

Studies of this phenomenon have shown that *speakers generally have an accurate phonological outline of the word, can get the initial sound correct and mostly know the number of syllables in the word*.

This experience also mainly occurs with uncommon words and names. It suggests that our "word-storage" system may be partially organized on the basis of some phonological information and that some words in the store are more easily **retrieved** than others.

When we make mistakes in retrieval process, there are often strong phonological similarities between the target words we're trying to say and the mistake we actually produce. For example, speakers produced secant, sextet and sexton when asked to name a particular type of navigational instrument (sextant). Other examples are fire distinguisher (for "extinguisher") and transcendental medication (instead of "meditation"). Mistakes of this type are sometimes referred to as **malapropisms.**

Another type of speech error is commonly described as a **slip of the tongue**. This produces expressions such as make a long shory stort (in stead of "make a long story short"), use the door to open the key, and a fifty-pound dog of bag food. Slips of this type are sometimes called **spoonerisms.**

One other type of slip may provide some clues to how the brain tries to make sense of the auditory signal it receives. These have been called slips of the ear and can result, for example, in our hearing great ape and wondering why someone should be looking for one in his office. (The speaker actually said "gray tape.")

11. In order to interpret the utterance, such as 'I love Picasso' in the sense that 'I love his art', the hearer must use ....

    a) a script
    b) co-text
    c) an inference process
    d) a person deixis
    e) an anaphora

ANSWERS

1	C	7	D
2	C	8	A
3	B	9	E
4	A	10	E
5	E	11	C
6	B		

14. FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

A. ACQUISITION & INPUT

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

The characteristically simplified speech style adopted by someone who spends a lot of time interacting with a young child is called **caregiver speech** (motherese, child-directed-speech). *Oh, goody, now Daddy push choo-choo?*

Language acquisition is a creative process. Children are not given explicit information about the rules, by either instruction or correction.

1. UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR

Children are equipped with an innate template or blueprint for language and that this blueprint aids the child in the task of constructing a grammar for her language. This is referred to as the **innateness hypothesis.**

The innateness hypothesis receives its strongest support from the observation that the grammar a person ends up with is vastly underdetermined by his linguistic experience. In other words, we end up knowing far more about language than is exemplified in the language we hear around us. This argument for the innateness of UG is called the **poverty of the stimulus.**

B. STAGES IN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

All normal children develop language *at roughly the same time*, along much *the same schedule*. Since we could say the same thing for sitting up, crawling, standing, walking, using the hands and many other physical activities, it would seem that the language acquisition schedule has the same basis as the biologically determined development of motor skills. This biological schedule is tied very much to the maturation of the infant's brain.

1. COOING & BABBLING (Pre-language)

The earliest use of speech-like sounds has been described as **cooing**. During the first few months of life, the child gradually becomes capable of producing sequences of vowel-like sounds, particularly high vowels similar to [i] and [u].]. By four months of age, the developing ability to bring the back of the tongue into regular contact with the back of the palate allows the infant to create sounds similar to the velar consonants [k] and [g], hence the common description as "cooing" or "gooing" for this type of production.

Between six and eight months, the child is sitting up and producing a number of different vowels and consonants, as well as combinations such as *ba-ba-ba* and *ga-ga-ga*. This type of sound production is described as **babbling**.

As children begin to pull themselves into a standing position during the tenth and eleventh months, they become capable of using their vocalizations to express emotions and emphasis. This late babbling stage is characterized by more complex syllable combinations (*ma-da-ga-ba*), a lot of sound-play and attempted imitations. This "pre-language" use of sound provides the child with some

experience of the social role of speech because adults tend to react to the babbling, however incoherent, as if it is actually the child's contribution to social interaction.

Reduplicated babbling: 'da da da da'

Non-reduplicated babbling: 'ka-da-bu-ba-mi'

2. THE ONE-WORD STAGE (HOLOPHRASTIC STAGE)

Between twelve and eighteen months, children begin to produce a variety of recognizable single-unit utterances. This period, traditionally called the **one-word stage**, is characterized by speech in which single terms are uttered for everyday objects such as "milk," "cookie," "cat," "cup" and "spoon."

3. THE TWO-WORD STAGE

Depending on what we count as an occurrence of two distinct words used together, the **two-word stage** can begin around eighteen to twenty months, as the child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty words. By the time the child is two years old, a variety of combinations, similar to baby chair, mommy eat, cat bad, will usually have appeared. The adult interpretation of such combinations is, of course, very much tied to the context of their utterance. The phrase baby chair may be taken as an expression of possession (= this is baby's chair), or as a request (= put baby in chair), or as a statement (= baby is in the chair), depending on different circumstances.

4. TELEGRAPHIC SPEECH

Between two and two-and-a-half years old, the child begins producing a large number of utterances that could be classified as "multiple-word" speech. This stage is called **telegraphic speech**. This is characterized by strings of words (lexical morphemes) in phrases or sentences such as *this shoe all wet, cat drink milk* and *daddy go bye-bye*.

C. THE DEVELOPMENT OF GRAMMAR

1. ACQUISITION OF PHONOLOGY

The first words are generally monosyllabic with a CV (consonant-vowel) form. The vowel part may be a diphthong, depending on the language being acquired. The phonemic inventory is much smaller than is found in the adult language. It appears that children first acquire the small set of sounds common to all languages.

2. ACQUISITION OF WORD MEANING

A child may learn a word such as *papa* or *daddy*, which she first uses only for her own father, and then extend its meaning to apply to all men, just as she may use the word *dog* to mean any four-legged creature. After the child has acquired her first seventy-five to one hundred words, the overextended meanings start to narrow until they correspond to those of the other speakers of the language. **OVEREXTENSION**

the other hand, early language learning may involve **UNDEREXTENSION**, in which a lexical item is used in an overly restrictive way. It is common for children to first apply a word like *bird* only to the family's pet canary without making a connection to birds in the tree outside, as if the word were a proper noun.

3. ACQUISITION OF MORPHOLOGY

Children's errors in morphology reveal that the child acquires the regular rules of the grammar and then over generalizes them. This **overgeneralization** occurs when children treat irregular verbs and nouns as if they were regular. We have probably all heard children say; *bringed, goed, drawed,* and *runned* or *foots, mouses,* and *sheeps.*

D. CRITICAL PERIOD

The critical period hypothesis is the subject of a long-standing debate in linguistics and language acquisition over the extent to which the ability to acquire language is biologically linked to age. The hypothesis claims that there is *an ideal "window" of time* to acquire language in a linguistically rich environment, after which further language acquisition becomes much more difficult and effortful.

The critical period hypothesis states that the first few years of life is the crucial time in which an individual can acquire a first language if presented with adequate stimuli. If language input doesn't occur until after this time, the individual will never achieve a full command of language—especially grammatical systems.

15. SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING / ACQUISITION

A. ACQUISITION & LEARNING

Acquisition - the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language

Learning - a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features, such as vocabulary and grammar, of a language, typically in an institutional setting.

➢ **THUS**, for example, we can say that mathematics is learned, not acquired.

B. KNOWING MORE THAN ONE LANGUAGE

➢ People can acquire a second language under many different circumstances.

The term **second language acquisition,** or **L2 acquisition**, generally refers to the acquisition of a second language by someone (adult or child) who has already acquired a first language. This is also referred to as **sequential bilingualism.**

Bilingual language acquisition refers to the (more or less) simultaneous acquisition of two languages beginning in infancy (or before the age of three years), also referred to as **simultaneous bilingualism.**

C. SECOND LANGUAGE

In contrast to the bilinguals just discussed, many people are introduced to a second language (L2) after they have achieved native competence in a first language (L1).

A distinction is sometimes made between learning in a **"foreign language"** setting (learning a language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding community) and a **"second language"** setting (learning a language that is spoken in the surrounding community). That is, Japanese students in an English class in Japan are learning English as a foreign language (EFL) and, if those same

students were in an English class in the USA, they would be learning English as a second language (ESL). In either case, they are simply trying to learn another language, so the expression **second language learning** is used more generally to describe both situations.

D. ACQUISITION BARRIERS

There are some individuals who seem to be able to overcome the difficulties and develop an ability to use the L2 quite effectively. However, even in ideal acquisition situations, very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using an L2.

After the *critical period* for language acquisition has passed, around the time of puberty, it becomes very difficult to acquire another language fully. We might think of this process in terms of our inherent capacity for language being strongly taken over by features of the L1, with a resulting loss of flexibility or openness to receive the features of another language.

1. AFFECTIVE FACTOR

Yet even during this proposed optimum age for L2 learning, there may exist an acquisition barrier of quite a different kind. Teenagers are typically much more self-conscious than younger children. If there is a strong element of unwillingness or embarrassment in attempting to produce the different sounds of another language, then it may override whatever physical and cognitive abilities there are.

If this self-consciousness is accompanied by a lack of empathy with the other culture (for example, feeling no identification with its speakers or their customs), then the subtle effects of not really wanting to sound like a Russian or a German or an American may strongly inhibit the learning process. This type of emotional reaction, or "affect," may also be caused by dull textbooks, unpleasant classroom surroundings or an exhausting schedule of study and/or work.

E. APPLIED LINGUISTICS

In attempting to investigate the complex nature of L2 learning, we have to appeal to ideas not only from linguistic analysis, but from other fields such as communication studies, education, psychology and sociology. This large scale endeavor is often described as applied linguistics.

Because it represents an attempt to deal with a large range of practical issues involving language (not only L2 learning), applied linguistics has created connections with fields as diverse as anthropology, neurolinguistics, social psychology and sign language studies.

F. FOCUS ON THE LEARNER

The most fundamental change in the area of L2 learning in recent years has been a shift from concern with the teacher, the textbook and the method to *an interest in the learner and the acquisition process*.

1. TRANSFER

Transfer means using sounds, expressions or structures from the L1 when performing in the L2. The term is also called *crosslinguistic influence.*

If the L1 and L2 have similar features (e.g. marking plural on the ends of nouns), then the learner may be able to benefit from the **positive transfer** of L1 knowledge to t he L2.

On the other hand, transferring an L1 feature that is really different from the L2 (e.g. putting the adjective after the noun) results in **negative transfer** and it may make the L2 expression difficult to understand.

2. INTERLANGUAGE

On close inspection, the language produced by L2 learners contains a large number of "**errors**" that seem to have no connection to the forms of either the L1 or L2. For example, the Spanish L1 speaker who says in English *She name is Maria* is producing a form that is not used by adult speakers of English, does not occur in English L1 acquisition by children, and is not based on a structure in Spanish.

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

16. GESTURES AND SIGN LANGUAGES

Although both **sign** and **gestures** involve the use of the hands (with other parts of the body), they are rather different. Sign is like speech and is used instead of speaking, whereas gestures are mostly used while speaking.

A. GESTURES & EMBLEMS

In the study of non-verbal behavior, a distinction can be drawn between **gestures** and **emblems**. Emblems are signals such as "thumbs up" (= things are good) or "shush" (= keep quiet) that function like fixed phrases and do not depend on speech. Emblems are conventional and depend on social knowledge (e .g. what is and isn't considered offensive in a particular social world).

B. TYPES OF GESTURES

Iconics are gestures that seem to be a reflection of the meaning of what is said, as when we trace a square in the air with a finger while saying: *I'm looking for a small box.* By itself, an iconic gesture doesn't "mean" the same as what is said, but it may add "meaning."

Another common group of gestures can be described as **deictics**. The term "deictic" means "pointing" and we often use gestures to point to things or people while talking. We can use deictics in the current context, as when we use a hand to indicate a table (with a cake on it) and ask someone *Would you like some cake?*

There are other gestures, such as those described as **beats**, which are short quick movements of the hand or fingers. These gestures accompany the rhythm of talk and are often used to emphasize parts of what is being said or to mark a change from describing events in a story to commenting on those events.

C. TYPES OF SIGN LANGUAGES

There are two general categories of language involving the use of signs: *Alternate sign languages* and *primary sign languages*.

A key property of both pictograms and ideograms is that they do not represent words or sounds in a particular language.

Modern pictograms are language-independent and can be understood with much the same basic conventional meaning in a lot of different places where a number of different languages are spoken.

A. REBUS WRITING

One way of using existing symbols to represent the sounds of language is through a process known as rebus writing. In this process, the symbol for one entity is taken over as the symbol for the sound of the spoken word used to refer to the entity.

Example:

➢ nd2spk2u2nite

B. SYLLABIC WRITING

When a writing system employs a set of symbols each one representing the pronunciation of a syllable, it is described as **syllabic writing**.

There are no purely syllabic writing systems in use today, but modern Japanese can be written with a set of single symbols representing spoken syllables and is consequently often described as having a (partially) syllabic writing system, or a syllabary.

C. ALPHABETIC WRITING

If you have a set of symbols being used to represent syllables beginning with, for example, a *b* sound or an *m* sound, then you are actually very close to a situation in which the symbols can be used to represent single sound types in a language. This is, in effect, the bas is of **alphabetic writing**. In principle, an alphabet is a set of written symbols, each one representing a single type of sound or phoneme.

The situation just described is what seems to have occurred in the development of the writing systems of Semitic languages such as Arabic and Hebrew. Words written in these languages, in everyday use, largely consist of symbols for the consonant sounds in the word, with the appropriate vowel sounds being supplied by the reader (or rdr). This type of writing system is sometimes called a **consonantal alphabet**.

REVIEW

Lesson 11: Pragmatics

Pragmatic Competence, Context (Physical, Epistemic, Linguistic/Co-Text, Social Context), Deixis (Person, Spatial, Temporal), Reference (Inference, Anaphora, Presupposition), Speech Acts, Constative, Performative, Locutionary, Illocutionary, Perlocutionary Acts, Representatives/Assertives, Directives, Commisives, Expressives, Declaratives, Direct and Indirect Speech Acts, Conversational Maxims (Quality, Quantity, Relation, Manner), Implicature, Politeness, Face-Saving Act, Face-Threatening Act, Negative Face, Positive Face.

Lesson 12: Discourse Analysis

Cohesion (Reference, Substitution, Ellipsis, Conjunction, Lexical Cohesion), Coherence, Conversational Analysis, Discourse Markers, Hedges, Schema, Script.

Lesson 13: Language and the Brain

Localization, Neurolinguistics, Language Areas (Broca's Area, Wernicke's Area, Motor Cortex, Arcuate Fasciculus), Aphasia (Broca's Aphasia (Aggramatic), Wernicke's Aphasia (Jargon Aphasia), Anomia, Conduction Aphasia, Lateralization, Split Brains, Dichotic Listening, Tip-of-the-tongue, Malapropism, Slip-of-the-tongue, Spoonersim.

Lesson 14: Language Acquisition

Acquisition and Input, Caregiver Speech, Universal Grammar, Poverty of the Stimulus, Innateness Hypothesis, Cooing and Babbling (Reduplicated, Non-Reduplicated Babbling), One-word Stage, Two-word Stage, Telegraphic Speech, Acquisition of Phonology, Acquisition of Word Meaning (Overextension, Underextension), Acquisition of Morphology, Acquisition of Syntax, Critical Period

Lesson 15: Second Language Learning / Acquisition

Acquisition vs. Learning, Bilingualism, Sequential Bilingualism, Simultaneous Bilingualism, Foreign Language, Second Language, Acquisition Barrier, Affective Factor, Applied Linguistics, Focus on the Learner, Transfer (Positive and Negative Transfer), Interlanguage.

### Lesson 16: Gestures and Sign Language

Gesture, Emblem, Types of Gestures (Iconics, Deitics, Beats), Types of Sign Languages (Alternate Sign Language, Primary Sign Language), Articulatory Parameters of Primary Sign Languages (Shape, Orientation, Location, Movement).

Lesson 17: Writing Systems

Pictograms, Ideograms, Logograms, Rebus Writing, Syllabic Writing, Alphabetic Writing, Consonant Alphabets.

18. LANGUAGE, HISTORY & CHANGE

A **language family** is a group of languages related through descent from a common ancestor, called the **proto-language** of that family. The term 'family' reflects **tree model** of language origination in **historical linguistics.**
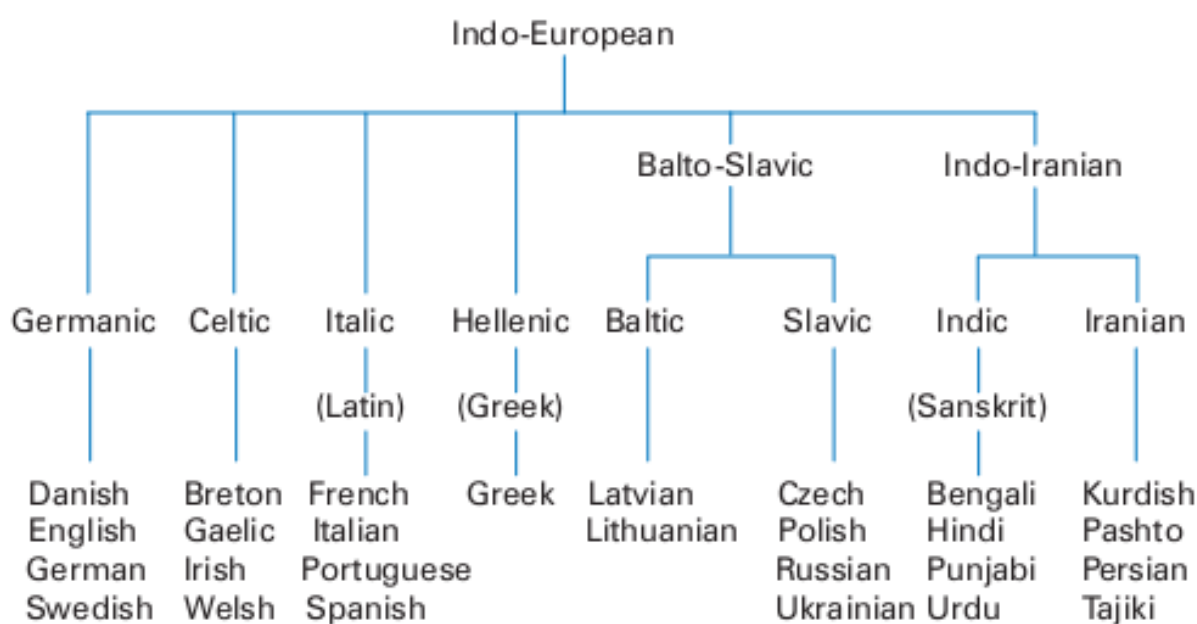
A. HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS

Historical linguistics (also called **diachronic linguistics**) is the scientific study of language change over time.

Five of the principal concerns of historical linguistics are:

1) to describe and account for observed changes in particular languages,

2) to reconstruct the pre-history of languages and determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families (comparative linguistics)

3) to develop general theories about how and why language changes

4) to describe the history of speech communities,

5) to study the history of words, i.e. etymology.

B. FAMILY CONNECTIONS

One way to get a clearer picture of how two languages that have family connections are related is through looking at records of an older generation.

Sanskrit	Latin	Ancient Greek	
pitar	pater	patēr	("father")
bhrătar	frāter	phrāter	("brother")

While these forms have rather clear similarities, it is extremely unlikely that exactly the same words will be found throughout the languages. However, the fact that close similarities occur

(especially in the probable pronunciations of the words) is good evidence for proposing a family connection.

C. COGNATE

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*.

D. COMPARATIVE RECONSTRUCTION

Using information from these sets of cognates, we can embark on a procedure called **comparative reconstruction.** The aim of this procedure is to reconstruct what must have been the original or 'proto' form in the common ancestral language.

In carrying out this procedure, those working on the history of languages operate on the basis of some general principles:

a. **Majority principle**

b. **The most natural development principle**

Majority Principle | If, in a cognate set three words begin with a [p] sound and one word begins with a [b] sounds, then our best guess is that the majority have retained the original sound (i.e. [p]).

The most natural development principle | is based on the fact that certain types of sound change are very common whereas others are extremely unlikely.

1) Final vowels often disappear (vino ⟶ vin)

2) Voiceless sounds become voiced, typically betweend vowels (muta ⟶ muda)

3) Stops become fricatives (ripa ⟶ riva)

4) Consonants become voiceless at the end of words (rizu ⟶ ris)

Example:

What was the most likely form of the initial sound in the original source of all three?

I. SPEECH STYLE AND STYLE SHIFTING

The most basic distinction in speech style is between **formal** uses and **informal** uses. Formal style is when we pay more careful attention to how we're speaking and informal style is when we pay less attention. They are sometimes described as "**careful style**" and "**casual style**." A change from one to the other by an individual is called **style-shifting**.

1. PRESTIGE

In discussing style-shifting, we introduced the idea of a "**prestige**" form as a way of explaining the direction in which certain individuals change their speech. When that change is in the direction of a form that is more frequent in the speech of those perceived to have higher social status, we are dealing with **overt prestige**, or status that is generally recognized as "better" or more positively value d in the larger community. There is, however, another phenomenon called **covert prestige**. This "hidden" status of a speech style as having positive value may explain why certain groups do not exhibit style-shifting to the same extent as other groups.

For example, we might ask why many lower-working-class speakers do not change their speech style from casual to careful as radically as lower-middle-class speakers. The answer may be that they value the features that mark them as members of their social group and consequently avoid changing them in the direction of features associated with another social group. They may value group solidarity (i.e. sounding like those around them) more than upward mobility (i.e. sounding like those above them).

Among younger speakers in the middle class, there is often covert prestige attached to many features of pronunciation and grammar (I ain't doin' nuttin' rather than I'm not doing anything) that are more often associated with the speech of lower-status groups.

2. SPEECH ACCOMODATION

Speech accommodation is defined as our ability to modify our speech style toward or away from the perceived style of the person(s) we're talking to. We can adopt a speech style that attempts to reduce social distance, described as **convergence**, and use forms that are similar to those used by the person we're talking to. In contrast, when a speech style is used to emphasize social distance between speakers, the process is called **divergence**.

3. REGISTER AND JARGON

Another influence on speech style that is tied to social identity derives from **register**. A register is a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific context, which may be identified as situational (e.g. in church), occupational (e.g. among lawyers) or topical (e.g. talking about language).

One of the defining features of a register is the use of **jargon**, which is special technical vocabulary (e.g. RAM, CD, double-click, etc.) associated with a specific area of work on interest.

4. SLANG

Whereas jargon is specialized vocabulary used by those inside established social groups, often defined by professional status (e .g. legal jargon), **slang** is more typically used among those who are outside established higher-status groups.