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University of Tlemcen Faculty of Letters and Languages Department of English	جامعة تلمسان كلية الآداب واللغات قسم اللغة الإنجليزية

An Introductory Course to

Language & Linguistics:

Simplified Lectures for LMD 1 Students

Prepared by

⚑ Dr. Yassamina ABDAT-HADJADJ

Supervised by:

⚑ Prof. Radia BENYELLES

Academic Year
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I.   Preface

The present handout is precisely intended for first year undergraduate students reading for a Licence in English as a part of LMD system, which strives to enlarge students' knowledge on the field of linguistics. The course seeks to equip students with pertinent information about general linguistics definitions, origins, foundations and scope shedding more light on the contributions of linguistics to language education, particularly second or foreign language teaching/learning.

This teaching aid strives to present our university EFL students with a succinct and concise discussion of some of the main topics that modern linguistics addresses which are delivered to them once a week. The teaching guide comprises a set of practical activities and exercises for each topic and questions for debate. Some of the exercises have been done and tested in class and some of them have not. The teaching guide also includes a glossary of the most important linguistic concepts and terminologies which are of paramount importance for they enable our students to use them not only in this course but also in the other linguistic courses that they take in the programme.

  The present handout is a combination of book chapters, papers and university handouts and some web-retrieved documents that were adapted to the needs of LMD1 students. These sources are acknowledged in the list of references.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Semester One

Lesson 1: WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?

1 INTRODUCTION

As a scientific- based discipline, the term Linguistics is one of those subjects that not many people have heard of, so you might well be wondering exactly what it is. The simplest definition of Linguistics is that it's the science of language. In spite of its simplicity, this definition contains some significant terms that should necessarily be clarified. Initially, the term science does not necessarily mean you need a lab coat and safety goggles to do linguistics. Instead, what it means is that the way we ask questions to learn about language uses a scientific approach.

2 LINGUISTICS DEFINED

The word linguistics has been derived from Latin word lingua (tongue) and istics (knowledge and science). It is study not only of one particular language but of human languages in general.

This term can be defined as the scientific analysis of any human language. It is based on a systematic investigation of a body of data "human speech" within general theory of language structure. In other terms, it is seen as a science in the sense that it scientifically studies the rules, systems and principles of human languages. According to Lyons (1981:16)

'Linguistics is commonly defined as a science of language. The word 'science' is crucial here. we may say that the scientific description is one that is carried out systematically on the basis of objectively verifiable observations and within the framework of some general theory appropriate to the data'.

In the same line of thought, Robins (1985), asserts that linguistics "is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and of the human faculties perhaps one of the most essential to human life

as we know it, and one of the most far reaching of human capabilities in relation to the whole span of mankind's achievements.

The major tenet of linguistics work on specific languages, yet, its primary goal is to understand the nature of language in general. Likewise, any other disciplines, it strives to help people increase their knowledge and understanding of the world. Since language is universal and fundamental to all human interactions, the knowledge attained in linguistics has many practical applications. Linguists, with some training in other appropriate disciplines, are thus prepared to seek answers to questions such asm

- What distinguishes human language from other animal communication systems?
- What features are common to all human languages?
- How are the modes of linguistic communication (speech, writing, sign language) related to each other?

3   THE SCIENTIFIC CHARACTERISTICS OF A LINGUISTIC APPROACH

Since the term science is a key concept, it is indeed of paramount importance to provide at least a definition- based before clarifying its significance in the present course. Thus, the concept science implies:

"The systematic study of humans and their environment based on the deductions and inferences which can be made, and the general laws which can be formulated, from reproducible observations and measurements of events and parameters within the universe"

(Commonwealth, 2010)

Indisputably, it seems to be generally agreed outside linguistics that for any enterprise to qualify as a scientific, in the usual sense, it should display at least three major characteristics which are: empiricism, exactness and objectivity.

> **Empiricism:** You must have already heard the quote: "I will not believe it unless I see it". This came from the ancient empiricists, a fundamental understanding that powered the emergence of medieval science during the

renaissance period and laid the foundation of modern science, as we know it today. The word itself has its roots in Greek. It is derived from the Greek word empeirikos which means "experienced".

In today's world, the word empirical refers to collection of data using evidence that is collected through observation or experience or by using calibrated scientific instruments. All of the above origins have one thing in common which is dependence of observation and experiments to collect data and test them to come up with conclusions

Simply, put, as an important and essential criterion, empiricism can be explained by the fact that any linguistic research should rely on experiment and observation i.e. , the view that all concepts originate in experience, that all concepts are about or applicable to things that can be experienced, or that all rationally acceptable beliefs or propositions are justifiable or knowable only through experience.

➢ **Exactness:** Any linguistic theory should be correct in every detail and valid in terms of time and place.

➢ **Objectivity:** The rule states and not thinks; that is objectivity means judgement based on observable phenomena and uninfluenced by emotions or personal prejudices. In other words, objectivity is a cardinal feature of scientificness. The questions they ask, the conclusion they reach and the evidence they cite must be capable of being publically observed and tested. The usual word which attempts to summarize this point is empirical. An empirical test is one in which the examination of phenomena takes place under controlled, experimental conditions, the result being available to direct observation and judgement, so that if the experiment were replicated, the same results and the same popular judgements would be obtained. Putting this another way, the results are verifiable. (Crystal.1985: 78-99).

In this line of thought,

'Scientific objectivity is a property of various aspects of science. It expresses the idea that scientific claims, methods, results—and scientists themselves—are not, or should not be, influenced by particular perspectives, value judgments, community

bias or personal interests, to name a few relevant factors. Objectivity is often considered to be an ideal for scientific inquiry, a good reason for valuing scientific knowledge, and the basis of the authority of science in society'.
Reiss, J. & Sprenger, J (2020)

According to P.M. Cook: ***'Research is an honest, exhaustive, intelligent searching for fact and their meanings or implications with reference to a given problem. The product of findings of a given piece of research should be an authentic, verifiable, and contribution to knowledge in the field studies.***

In this respect, he has emphasised the following characteristics of research in his description: − It is an honest and exhaustive process. − The facts are studied with understanding. − The facts are discovered in the light of a problem. Research is problem- centred. − The findings are valid and verifiable. − Research work should contribute new knowledge in that field (Cited in Singh, 2006).

4   LECTURE SUMMARY

All in all, linguistics as a science strives to study human language, namely its spoken form obeying the requirements o a scientific method which involves empiricism, exactness and objectivity. Its main purpose is to define language and provide a description of its characteristics and functions. Moreover, this discipline attempts to give information about the history of language and explain the differences between languages.

Therefore, the role of the linguist is to provide theories and ideas about language in order to help people to understand this human phenomenon and try to draw some conclusions about the nature of language.To better understand the linguistic research as well as its required criteria for any investigation, one may consider the following figure:

Figure 1. Empirical research methodology cycle
(Retrieved from https://www.questionpro.com/blog/empirical-research)

This empirical cycle captures the process of coming up with hypothesis about how certain subjects work or behave and then testing these hypotheses against empirical data in a systematic and rigorous approach following the deductive approach

The initial phase called, Observation in which the investigator proposes a hypothesis and strives in the coming step to gather the required empirical data using observation.

- **Induction:** Inductive reasoning is then carried out to form a general conclusion from the data gathered through discrete observation.

- **Deduction:** This phase helps the researcher to deduce a conclusion out of his experiment. This has to be based on logic and rationality to come up with specific unbiased results.

- **Testing:** This phase involves the researcher to return to empirical methods to put his hypothesis to the test.

- **Evaluation:** This phase is generally forgotten by most but is an important one to keep gaining knowledge. During this phase the researcher puts forth the data he has collected, the support argument and his conclusion.

5 PRACTICAL PART: EXERCISES ABOUT LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

Exercise N°1: Say "True" or "False" and correct the wrong statement

- Linguistics is concerned only with the historical development of language.

- A linguist is a person who makes research about language.

- Linguistics existed in ancient times.

Exercise N°2 Are the following statements true or false? Correct when necessary.

- The scientific study is empirical which means that is based on observations.
- Traditional grammar is descriptive.
- Linguistics existed in ancient times.
- The role of the modern linguist is to prescribe the rules and norms of the language system to be used by all the members of a speech community.

Exercise N° 3 Read the text quickly to answer the following questions

General Linguistics is generally defined as the science of language. It studies human language as a universal part of human behaviour and one of the most essential human faculties.Language in all its manifestations, that is all the languages of the world constitute the field of the linguist. Indeed, he seeks a scientific understanding of the place of language in human life by studying the ways in which it is organised. For instance, the linguist studies how people pronounce words and produce well-formed sentences. He also studies how words and sentences convey meaning.For the linguist, any language of the estimated 3,000 languages of the world is a valuable object of study, regardless of its manifestations, region and race of speakers. He describes equally all living languages as well as some of the dead ones, which are known from written records In sum, linguistics tries to be as equal as possible in its scope and objective in its method

Exercise N° 4Choose the correct sentence

- **What is true about language?**
    - It is free to use.
    - It is both instinctive and non instinctive.
    - It is fundamental to human communication.
    - It is the production of sounds and noises.
- **What is common to all humans?**
    - They all watch communication.
    - They all have the ability to speak.

- They all try to define language.
- They all respect language.

- **How are animal noises different from human Speech sounds?**
  - They are learned and used voluntarily.
  - They are not learned but used instinctively.
  - They are related to each other.
  - They are developed systems.

- **Why are animal noises instinctive?**
  - Because they are voluntarily used.
  - Because they depend on instincts.
  - Because animals have various needs.
  - Because they are useful.

- **What would be the case if human language were also instinctive?**
  - There would be one language all over the world.
  - There would be many languages.
  - There would be more agreement among humans.
  - There would be problems of communication.

- **What are humans able to do?**
  - To understand animal noises.
  - To arrange words to express meaning.
  - To use gestures to communicate.
  - To solve problems of speech.

- **Words are arbitrary :**
  - Because the names of objects are natural
  - Because the names are accepted and used by all speakers
  - Because the names are complex.

- **What is the primary manifestation of language?**
  - Speech
  - Emotion
  - Writing
  - Action

Exercise N° 5: Complete the below paragraph with the following vocabularies.

Instinctive – language – speech – communication – non-instinctive – variety _ written – speak - symbol – communicate – speakers – symbols – write – human language.- functions- acquire.

In order to.....................................with each other, we need to learn both the rules and…………………… of language. It is the basis of any act of..................................

.........................is the primary medium of………………..……... We begin to..................................before we................................

All the ....of a language ………………………….. and learn the..medium first. When they go to school they learn the..for words are..of objects, ideas and relationships. For example, the white dove is generally...of liberty and peace.

....................................differs from such animal noises in being.......................................if it were................................then there would be only one.....................................and the large......................................of languages in the world would not exist.

Exercise N° 6: Complete the following notes

Human Language	Animal Noises
Non- instinctive	Instinctive
....	....
....	....
....	....

ExerciseN°7: Here are the most important words that have been taught in this unit. Make sure that you know their meanings and then substitute one of the above words for the underlined word having nearly the same meaning

Language, sounds, words, speech/ communication, symbols, agreement, speakers/ essential, instinctive, voluntarily, arbitrary/ human, names, meaning, writing.

- "Language without sense is senseless". Jakobson
- "What is a name? is a question that has occupied philosophers of language for centuries. Plato was concerned with whether arranged sequence of sounds were "natural" or "conventional".
- We are not free to change the sense of "agreed upon" signs at will because we would be unable to send and receive information with each other. All users of the language have willingly accepted and learned the meanings of words. Of

course, there are certain exceptions. For example, poets and journalists usually change or redefine the meanings but they do it on purpose. Most ordinary people will find difficulties in understanding the new senses.

- Fortunately, the vast majority of people share and respect the basic meaning of vocabulary. This common acceptance is in turn the basis of speech community.
- Thus, the most fundamental property of man and woman is to be able to use creatively and willingly a comprehensible medium of expression either through sounds or letters.

Exercise N°8:Questions for self-study

1- Briefly explain how language is (a) systematic (b) creative (c) human special and (d) non-instinctive.

2- Match the following linguistic terms to their corresponding synonyms/ definitions

1. dialect	a. grammar
2. register	b. Word structure
3. morphology	c. vocabulary
4. syntax	d. sound system
5.neurolinguistics	e. variety used by specific group
6. lexicon	f. language represented in the brain
7. phonology	g. variety employed in a specific situation

Exercise N°9: Answer the following questions or give response to the following cases clearly and briefly! Donot forget to support your answers with your own examples, reasons, or illustration wherever necessary!

- What is the purpose of linguistic research?
- How can the linguists classify the linguistics?
- What is the main difference between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics?
- All fields of applied linguistics are categorized into macro- linguistics. Why is it so?
- What are the advantages of studying phonetics?
- How did traditional grammar contribute in modern linguistics?
- What are the contributions of linguistics for you and for human beings?

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Selected Readings

"Linguistics is the study of language. Knowledge of linguistics, however, is different from knowledge of a language. Just as a person is able to drive a car without understanding the inner workings of the engine, so, too, can a speaker use a language without any conscious knowledge of its internal structure.Conversely, a linguist can know and understand the internal structure of a language without actually speaking it"

(ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics Washington DC 1992).

"Linguistics may be defined as the scientific study of language. This definition is hardly sufficient to give the reader any positive indication of the fundamental principles of the subject. It may be made a little more revealing by drawing in greater detail the implications contained in the qualification 'scientific'. For the moment, it will be enough to say that by the scientific study of language is meant its investigation by means of controlled and empirically verifiable observations and with reference to some general theory of language-structure".

(Lyons, 1968:1)

"A linguist, then, is not an individual who speaks more than one language, more accurately called "polyglot" or "bilingual" or "multilingual." Rather, a linguist is concerned with language as a human phenomenon. Linguists study grammar, the social and psychological aspects of language use, and the relationships among languages, both historical and present-day. The field of linguistics, like any complex field, includes several major divisions".

CAL Online Resources: Digests (December,1992)

"The most important claim linguists make is that their study of language is scientific. Although both scientists disagree to some extent concerning the nature of their respective activities, there does seem to be general agreement about some

requirements for a scientific method. These include the use of controlled experiment in which the variable factors involved have been precisely identified in an objective way, as well as the requirement that the methods used to be made public so that the results of an experiment can be verified. Thus, a scientific study should be empirical, exact and therefore objective"

"Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Linguists do work on specific languages, but their primary goal is to understand the nature of Language in general. Linguistics is primarily concerned with the nature of language and communication. There are broadly three aspects to the study, including language form, language meaning, and language use in discursive and communicative contexts..... Linguistics deals with the study of particular languages and the search for general properties common to all languages or large groups of languages.

<div align="right">EvdokiaKaravas (2014:3-4)</div>

Lesson 2: Linguistics vs Traditional Grammar: An Overview on The Similarities and Key Differences

1   INTRODUCTION

Language changes from generation to generation, at all levels of sound and meaning. Thus, grammar as a method of analysing these changes altered accordingly. Now we have two branches: the traditional Grammar and modern linguistics. It should be noted that before the 19th century, linguistics as a scientific discipline was called philology because it was based on philosophical assumptions concerning the grammar of language. By the beginning of the 19th century, researchers started thinking about the use of a scientific approach for the study of language. Thus, the term linguistics was used to refer to any form of investigation about the different elements of language including grammar. Yet, before clarifying and analysing the sameness and dissimilarities between traditional grammar and modern linguistics in terms of their principles and assumptions, it might seem compulsory to provide at first a thorough explanation about each branch.

2   THE CONCEPTION OF TRADITIONAL LANGUAGE STUDIES

Traditional Grammatical Studies refer back to all the scholarly works that studied the nature of language study before the emergence of modern linguistics (1916). The history of such studies is divided into several periods: classical grammar (Latin and Greek), medieval grammar (the Middle Ages), pedagogical grammar (early English grammar), and comparative historical philology. Each of these periods is characterized by widely held assumptions about language and its analysis.

2.1 CLASSICAL GRAMMAR
Classical Grammar started with the investigations in the nature of language carried out by the Greek grammarians in the fifth century B.C. Platon (429- 347) distinguished between nouns and verbs and established the problematic of etymology.

Aristotle (322- 384) classified conjunctions and defined verbs in term of tense. However, the main grammarians were Alexandrian and included Dionysius Thrax (170- 190) B.C. Thrax was the first to elaborate a full handbook of grammar defining it as "the technical knowledge of the language generally employed by poets and writers." He classified the Greek words into eight parts of speech (nouns, verbs, articles, adverbs, conjunctions, propositions, participles and pronouns). The other Alexandrian grammarians established case, gender, number, tense, voice and mood. Likewise, the Latin grammarians, notably, Aelius Donatius (4th century A.D) and Priscian (5th century A.D) elaborated grammar books for beginners and learners.

Basically, all these grammarians considered language as writing. Speech, for them, was an imperfect copy of writing. The reason behind this view is the prevalence of sacred texts Greek and Latin. Such languages were considered as logical and richer than the other so-called primitive languages. That is why they were the only written languages worthy of study at that time. As a result, grammar was completely prescriptive. That is to say, grammarians prescribed the rules and norms of correct usage. Prescriptive rules dictated precisely how the writers and speakers ought to write and speak. Any kind of deviation was dismissed as a corruption of the pure, prestigious texts.

2.2 MEDIEVAL GRAMMAR

The Middle Ages perpetuated the dominance of Latin as the languages of all theological and scholarly works. The most important contribution was made by the 17th century grammarians of Port-Royal in France. They developed what is called GrammaireGenéral et Raisonée (1660), establishing the foundation for a philosophical grammar. The main thinkers were Claude Lancelet (1615- 95) and Antoine Arnauld (1612- 94). These thinkers tried to study the common principles between languages.

Medieval grammar also includes the contributions of the Arab and Muslim grammarians. Their main works consisted in lexicography i.e. reference books and translations. In effect, the first types of dictionary were produced in Arabic. The aim was to teach the classical language and preserve it from deviations.

2.3 PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR

The eighteenth century British grammarians were essentially pedagogical in nature. They attempted to teach a great number of people how to read and write in the newly standardized language, English, that would be intelligible throughout the new industrialized nation, Britain. In this respect, they established rules and norms based on the Latin model. The most famous grammar book of the 18th century was Joseph Priestley's Rudiments of English Grammar (1761). Subsequently, other influential grammars appeared, namely, Robert Lowth's Short Introduction to English Grammar (1762) and Murray's English Grammar (1794). Many contemporary school grammars are still based on such works, perpetuating the classical perspective legacy (purity, propriety and order).

2.4 COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY

Study of the relationships or correspondences between two or more languages and the techniques used to discover whether the languages have a common ancestor. The fundamental technique of comparative linguistics is the comparative method, which aims to compare phonological systems, morphological systems, syntax and the lexicon using this comparative method, linguists have been able to establish the connections among a group of languages. Comparative grammar was the most important branch of linguistics in the 19th century in Europe. Also called comparative philology, the study was originally stimulated by the discovery by Sir William Jones in 1786 that Sanskrit was related to Latin, Greek, and German (i.e., in which he found many similarities between Latin, Greek, and German and suggested the existence of a common original language). Accordingly, he believed that the Sanskrit language:

> *"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 a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source."*

This observation gave rise to two main fields of study: comparative and historical. Indeed, the investigation into the similarities, also called cognate forms, between Sanskrit, Greek, Latin and other European languages gave birth to the Indo-European family of languages and the establishment of a general theory of language change and relationships known as comparative philology.

According to Robins (1985, p.5); Historical Linguistics is the study of the development in language in the course of time, the ways in which languages change from period to period and of the causes and results of such changes… It must be based on a description of two or more stages in the development of the language being studied; whereas in comparative Linguistics, linguists study language changes, formation and its development of languages.This is not possible without describing the related languages. comes in Descriptive linguistics • When descriptive linguists study two or more languages that exist at a particular time, they study language changes.Thanks to comparative philology, the phenomenon Language family was born.

The term family of languages or linguistic group was coined to show the genetic and philological relationships existing between a group of related languages. Thus, the Indo-European family of languages may be called sister languages. English, German and Dutch are said to be descendant or daughter languages of Germanic. Similarly, French, Spanish and Italian are daughter languages of Latin. Classical Greek and Modern Greek are daughter languages of Greek.

The Indo-European family is divided into several branches or subfamilies. It consists of numerous Indo-Iranian languages, including Sanskrit, Hindi, and Farsi (Persian); Greek; Baltic languages such as Lithuanian and Latvian; Celtic languages such as Breton, Welsh, and Scottish and Irish Gaelic; Romance languages such as French, Spanish, Catalan, and Italian; Germanic languagessuch as German, English, and Swedish; and Slavic languages such as Polish and Serbian

The Indo-European Family
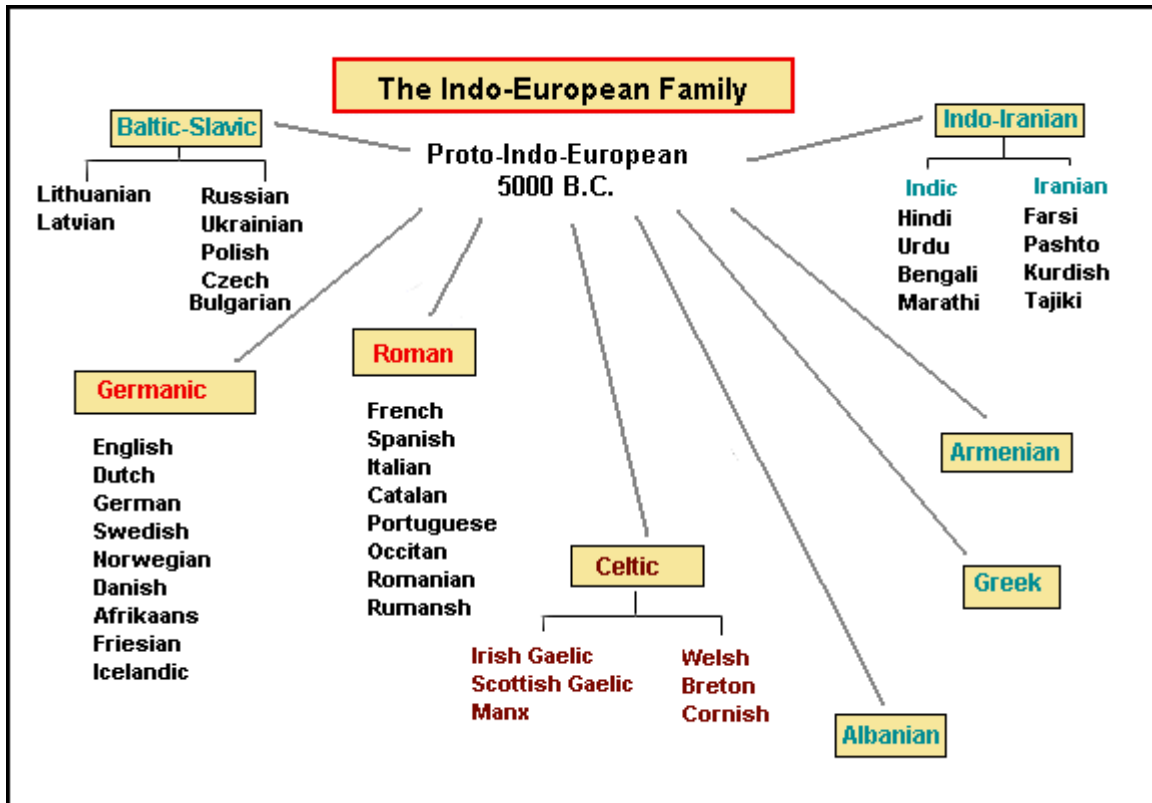
This family has been the one most studied. It is also the one with the greatest number of surviving ancient documents and the one for which genetic links can be established with absolute certainty.

Here is the list of Indo-European languages presented in their respective subgroups:

Group   Subgroup   Languages

NOTE: = Extinct language

Group	Subgroup	Languages
Indo-Iranian	Indian	Sanskrit, Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, Marathi, Bihari, Gujarati, Punjabi, Oriya, Rajasthani, Nepali, Assamese, Bundeli, Sindhi, Konkani, Pahari, Singhalese, Santali, Gypsy, etc.
	Iranian	Avestan†, Persian (Farsi/Dari/Tajik), Afghan (Pashtu), Kurdish, Balouchi, Hazara, Aimak, Ossetian, Talyshe, Tat, etc.
Greek		Ancient Greek, modern Greek
Italic or Romance languages		Oscan, Umbrian, Venetic, Messapian, Raetian (Raetic)
		Latin (mother language of Romance languages)
		Italian, French, Spanish, Catalan, Portuguese, Galician,

Group	Subgroup	Languages
		Mirandese, Provençal, Sardinian, Romanian, Romansch, Ladino, Friulian, Dalmatian†, Sicilian, etc.
Celtic		Gaulish
		Breton, Welsh, Cornish
		Irish, Scots, Manx
Germanic		Gothic
		Danish, Swedish, Norwegian (Bokmål and Nynorsk), Icelandic, Faroese
		English, Friesian, German, Dutch, Afrikaans
Baltic		Old Prussian, Lithuanian, Latvian
Slavic		Polish, Czech, Slovak, Sorbian
		Serbo-Croatian, Slovene, Bulgarian, Macedonian
		Russian, Belorussian, Ukranian (and Ruthenian)
Armenian (isolate)		Armenian
Albanian (isolate)		Albanian (Tosk and Gheg)
Various isolates		Hittite, Tocharish, Lykian, Lydian, Luwian, Phrygian, Thracian, etc

The Indo-European Family. Retrieved from
https://www.uottawa.ca/clmc/indo-european-family

3   CHARACTERISTICS OF TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

The origins of traditional grammar can be traced back to15th century B.C., to Aristotle and Plato and Greek. However, the most prominent traditional grammarians began writing in the 18th century, when English developed as a separate language. However, it is important to note that principles of Latin grammar are the main basis of

Traditional English grammar. Furthermore, traditional grammar includes prescriptive rules that users should follow, and prescriptive rules of usage users should avoid. Books of traditional grammar generally contain lists of grammatical terms, definitions of these terms, and advice on using standard grammar, which includes correct punctuation, spelling and diction. Even though linguists consider traditional grammar as an irrational method to study language and grammar, we can still find basic Latin-based concepts of grammar in English textbooks and usage guides.

Simply put, the assumptions that characterize Traditional grammar are listed as follows:

➢ Language is prescriptive not descriptive; since the classical languages are more correct than every daily speeches, it is essential to prescribe the rules and the norms of correct usage rather than describe what people actually say. In other words, traditional grammars told people how to use a language and henceforth strongly believed that there is not an absolute standard of correctness concerning language use which modern linguists or school teachers should view as their duty to maintain. However, modern linguists insist that value judgments about language should be recognized as such, and should be examined in the light of the facts. Besides, they would prefer to be observers and recorders of facts, but not judges. they therefore believe that whatever occurs in natural speech(hesitation, incomplete utterances, misunderstanding, etc.) should be descriptive in their analysis. 'Jian& Ming, 2015:289).

➢ Writing is seen as the primary medium of human expression: In the past, grammarians have overstressed the significance of the written word, partly because of its permanence. It was difficult to cope with fleeting utterances before the invention of sound recording. Conversely, speech was regarded as an imperfect copy of writing. Though it is widely agreed among linguists that speech is a primary medium of expression for several reasons as it existed long long before written system came into being. This belief stems from the previous sacred writing in Latin and Greek

➢ Language study is selective; Grammar considers Latin and Greek as the most logical, more advanced and richer than the so called primitive languages. As a result, they are the only written languages worthy to be studied.

4 DISADVANTAGES OF CLASSICAL GRAMMAR

It should be noted that Traditional grammar is inadequate and full of shortcomings that paved the way for so many models of modern grammar. Since it is mainly based on Indo-European classical languages like Latin, Sanskrit, and Greek, etc., it provides a poor model for the grammars of languages that differ from them. These shortcomings can be summarized as follows:

1. It does not, adequately distinguish between all the linguistic levels- phonetic, morphological, syntactic, and descriptive.

2. It is normative and prescriptive rather than explicit and descriptive. i.e. its rules are illogical, it is inconsistent and inadequate as a description of actual language in use. It neglects not only the contemporary uses but also the functional and social varieties of language.

3. Its approach is diachronic (historical) rather than synchronic (contemporary). Fries in his book "The structure of English" (1952) challenges the traditional grammars by calling them "not insightful", "pre-scientific", "prescriptive" and having a "literary bias'". There may be about 200 definitions of the sentence, yet they are not able to differentiate between the dog is barking. the barking dog.

4. Traditional grammar uses meaning as the primary tool of linguistic analysis. Total meaning of a language cannot be analyzed in the present stage of our knowledge. Meaning is a complex entity for the understanding of which a formal description of a language should form the base. Furthermore, it fails to indicate clearly which meaning it is going to treat

5. It gives priority to the written form of language and ignores the priority of spoken form. It does not even cover the whole range of written form and is restricted to specific kinds of writing form, especially the formal styles.

6. It cannot resolve the ambiguity existing in the grammatical forms. Its methods are inaccurate, incomplete and inconsistent, and the descriptions are inexplicit and intuitive.

5   MAIN CONTRIBUTIONS OF CLASSICAL GRAMMAR

Despite its numerous misconceptions and false assumptions about the patterns underlying language, and the lack of a theoretical systematic analysis, classical grammar has as its record a rich technical vocabulary and sound rules governing correct usage of language. Here are its main highlights:

✓ The classification of patterns of inflection and the distinction between active and passive voice as well as transitive and intransitive verbs.

✓ The classification of all Greek words in terms of case, gender, number, tense, voice and mood.

✓ The classification of words according to gender.

✓ The classification of words into eight parts of speech: noun, verb, article, pronoun, adverb, preposition, conjunction and participle.
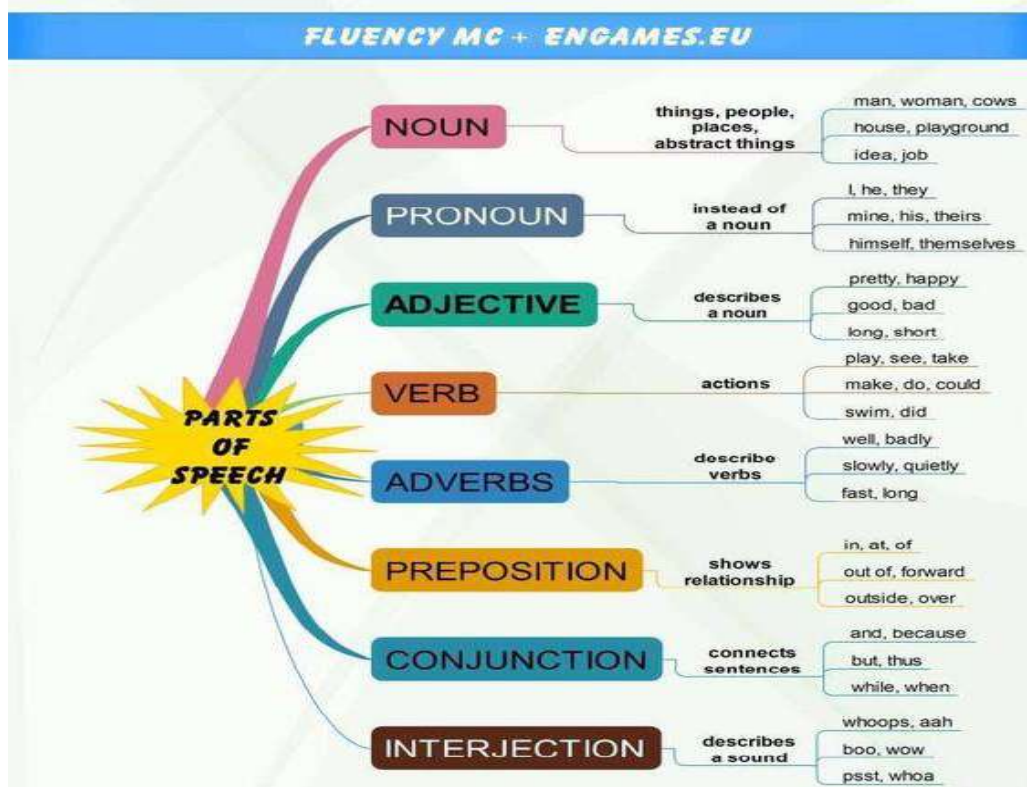
Linguistics or modern linguistics refers to the scientific study of language and its structure. This includes the study of features such as grammar, syntax, and phonetics. Moreover, modern linguistics regards language is a system and grammar is only considered as a systematic description of a certain language, either oral or written. Most importantly, modern linguistics is descriptive, i.e., it doesn't prescribe how one should use language; instead, it describes how natural language functions. Moreover, it considers oral language as the basic form of language. Linguists also consider language change as a natural process; in linguistics, a language that doesn't change is a dead language.

7   THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MODERN LINGUISTICS AND TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

The key difference between traditional grammar and modern linguistics is that the traditional grammar is prescriptive whereas the modern linguistics is descriptive. Traditional grammar and modern linguistics are two branches of language studies. Traditional grammar is the oldest of the two, and its origin runs back to the 15th century. Linguistics is a relatively new branch of language study. Furthermore, it is also important to note that traditional grammar mainly focuses on the written language while modern linguistics considers speech as the basic form of language.

It involves labelling the grammatical categories in sentences (traditional grammar, rules of Latin) It sets out rules for the correct or 'proper' use of a language. It is based on the written language. It advocates the standard language.

In this approach, grammarians decide what the correct use of language, not speakers of the language. Examples of prescriptive rules:

a- You must not split an infinitive. e.g.: to slowly drive
b- You must not end a sentence with a preposition. e.g.: this is the girl I gave the book to.

Unlike the descriptive approach, the prescriptive approach deals with what the grammarians believe to be right and wrong, good or bad language use; not following the rules will generate incorrect language.

A prescriptive grammar, on the other hand, specifies how a language and its grammar rules should be used. A prescriptivist view of language implies a distinction between "good grammar" and "bad grammar," and its primary focus is on standard forms of grammar and syntactic constructions.

A descriptive approach looks at the way a language is actually used by its speakers and then attempts to analyse it and formulate rules about the structure. - Descriptive grammar does not deal with what is good or bad language use; forms and structures. - it is a grammar based on the way a language actually is and not how some think it should be.

All in all, to recapitulate what has been mentioned above, it is wiser to consider the following table that summarizes the main principles of traditionalgrammar and modern linguistics.

	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

Difference Between Traditional Grammar and Modern Linguistics (Hasa, 2018)

More specifically, the key differences between traditional language studies and modern linguistics as far as their principles are concerned can be well understood on the basis of the table below

Area	Traditional	Modern
Focus of Effort	The focus of traditional historical linguistics lies in keeping records of language change in past times of a language or language family.	Modern historical linguistics, however, focuses on the progress of language change, trying to analyze the cause or motivation, the spread and the modality of language change.
Internal vs. External Factors	Traditional historical linguistics concentrates on language and its changes regarding internal factors.	Modern historical linguistics puts its focal point on external factors, e.g., the social surroundings.
Centrality of Language Use	For traditional historical linguistics the language structure and the language system are very important.	In modern historical linguistics, the language use and the user are centered, claiming that grammar is shaped by discourse, and language is changed by the speakers.
Primary Subjects of Interest	Traditional historical linguistics is mainly interested in phonology and morphology and not so much in syntax and semantics.	In modern historical linguistics, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics are also taken into account.
Methods	Traditional historical linguistics is based on qualitative assessments.	Modern historical linguistics is both qualitative and quantitative.
Subject Matter	Traditional historical linguistics deals only with written language.	Modern historical linguistics is also concerned with spoken language.

8 AN OVERVIEW ON THE SIMILARITIES BETWEEN PRESCRIPTIVE LINGUISTICS AND TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

Prescriptive grammar is the prescribed grammar according to the grammarian. However, descriptive grammar is how people actually construct their sentences. Example:

➢ Ain't got no money. - **(Descriptive grammar)** the sentence is an example of descriptive grammar because the construction of the sentence is double negative which is not grammatically correct BUT people use it anyway.

➢ I don't have money. - **(Prescriptive grammar)** The sentence is, as you can see, the grammatically correct form of "Ain't got no money"

However, the only similarities that I can notice between descriptive and prescriptive grammar is that they are used to evaluate how people construct sentences.
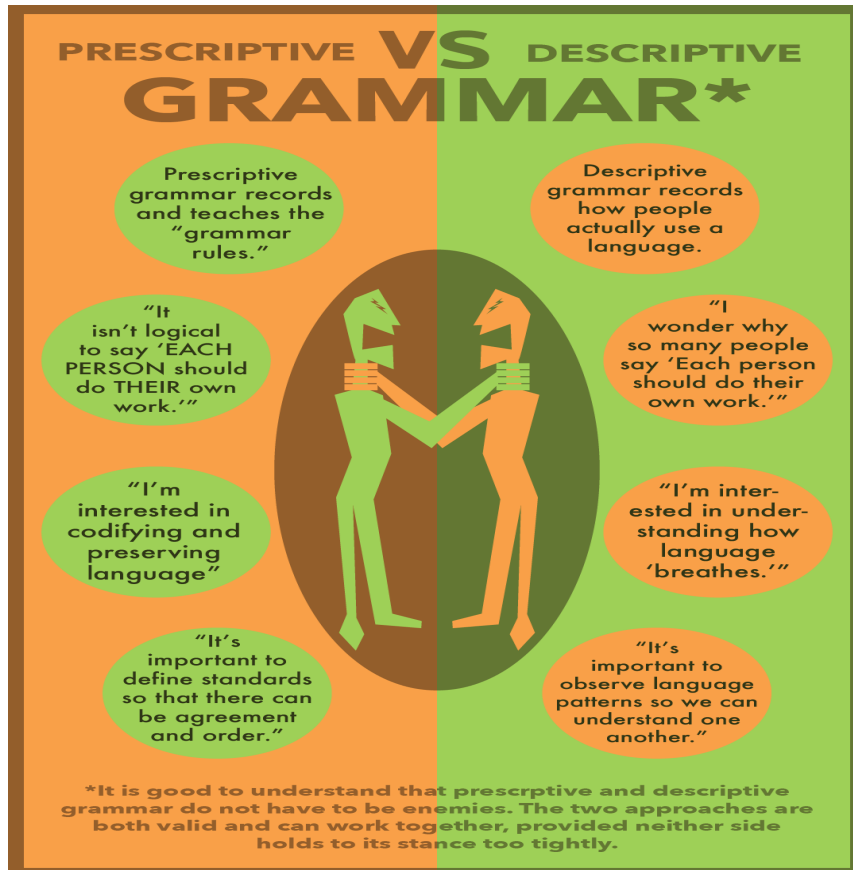
Reynolds, Amy. "Understanding Prescriptive vs Descriptive Grammar Comments."

9 LINGUISTICS AND OTHER APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE

Linguistics, which is commonly defined as the scientific study of language, is divided into a number of subfields according to the view that is adopted or the angle from which language study is approached. For instance, linguistics can offer the study of languages in general as well as that of a given language. It can trace the development of a language in history or just make an account of it at a given point in time. It can focus its investigation on language as a system in itself and for itself as it can study how language operates in relation to other variables. It can be approached as purely theoretical or as applied in a particular field. Accordingly, Lyons (1981) distinguishes the field of linguistics into general vs. descriptive, diachronic vs. synchronic, micro vs. macro, and theoretical vs. applied.

Language has long been a concern for manhood throughout centuries and was studied by ancient civilizations like Greeks and Romans. There were also comparative

and historical linguistics; however, our concern here is the scientific study of language, some will mainly focus on modern linguistics. Linguistics may be studied and well understood drawing upon Lyon's distinction among micro and macro linguistics. This distinction clearly shows how linguistics is scientific in itself and how it is interrelated with other disciplines like sociology, psychology, anthropology, neurology, etc.

9.1 MICRO-LINGUISTICS

Micro-linguistics is concerned solely with the structure of languages sytems in itself and for itself. It includes phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. The case about semantics seems to be the problematic; since semantics may be concerned beyond sentential level. Therefore, it is a question of debate among linguists. For some linguists, semantics – the scientific study of meaning –should be located in macro-linguistics, because studying meaning needs a holistic approach.

9.1.1 PHONETICS

Phonetics is the study of the production, classification and transcription of speech sounds. There are three corresponding branches of phonetics: Articulatory (the analysis of speech production.), acoustic (acoustic properties of production.) and auditory (the audition of speech production) phonetics (Demirezen : 1987).

Phonetic alphabet is an indispensable guide for a language teacher as it is an important reference for appropriate articulation. If we consider the fact that a language teacher is a model for students, his knowledge in phonetics becomes an important determinant in the learning environment.

9.1.2 PHONOLOGY

Phonology is the study of the distribution and patterning of speech sounds in a language. It is the study of the distinctive sounds of a language, the so-called Phonemes. Phonology examines the functions of sounds within a language. Focus in phonetics is on finding characteristics of speech sounds that are adequate for description and classification of phone perception in language use.

Phonetics and phonology may help to a language teacher in various ways. He/ she may use the contrastive analysis of sound patterns among the native language and target language. In addition to this, examples of minimal pairs or exercises on problematic sounds may help students overcome problems in target language pronunciation.

9.1.3 MORPHOLOGY

Morphology, basically, is the study of how words are formed out of smaller units. Morphology studies the smallest meaningful elements of a language, which are called morphemes. There are free and bound morphemes. The former can stand alone within a given discourse. Morphology can be divided into two areas as derivational and inflectional. Affixes play the primary role in this distinction.

Affixes maybe in three forms: suffix (attached to the end of a word), infix (attached within a word) and prefix (attached to the beginning of a word). Derivational affixes have the potential to change the part of speech of a word. In English, infixes are not so common (except examples like mother-in-law etc).

9.1.4 SYNTAX

Basically, syntax is concerned with the ways in which words can be combined together to form phrases and sentences (Radford: 1997). It deals with the structural or grammatical rules that define how symbols in a language are to be combined to form words, phrases, expressions and other allowable constructs. In syntactic analysis, tree diagrams are used in order to reveal how phrases come together and form grammatical sentences.

Chomsky's transformational generative grammar and the recent minimalist approach mainly drew upon syntactic analysis. However, he was severely criticized as he generally used isolated sentences in his analysis which are free from their context. Many linguists believe that naturally occurring data should be used in any form of language analysis; isolated sentences neglect semantic and contextual considerations.

A language teacher, surely, should have a broad knowledge on the syntactic structures of both his native language and the language to be taught. Therefore, it may be claimed that a pre-performed syntactic and morpho-syntactic study will be helpful for a language teacher and relatedly for a student. Syntactic knowledge of a speaker will obviously lead to a comprehensive and holistic competence in a particular grammar.

9.1.5 SEMANTICS

In simple terms, semantics is the study of meaning. Meaning in a specific discourse may be analyzed in terms of lexis, sentence, grammar and utterance. The relation between lexical meaning, sentence meaning, grammatical and utterance meaning is mutual; as they cannot be separated from each other in revealing the meaning in a particular discourse.

9.1.6 PRAGMATICS

The term pragmatics was coined in the 1930s by the philosopher C.W. Morris. Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics concerned with the use of language in social contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language. Pragmatists focus on what is implicitly stated and on how we interpret utterances in situational contexts. It is concerned with what is communicated by the manner and style of an utterance.
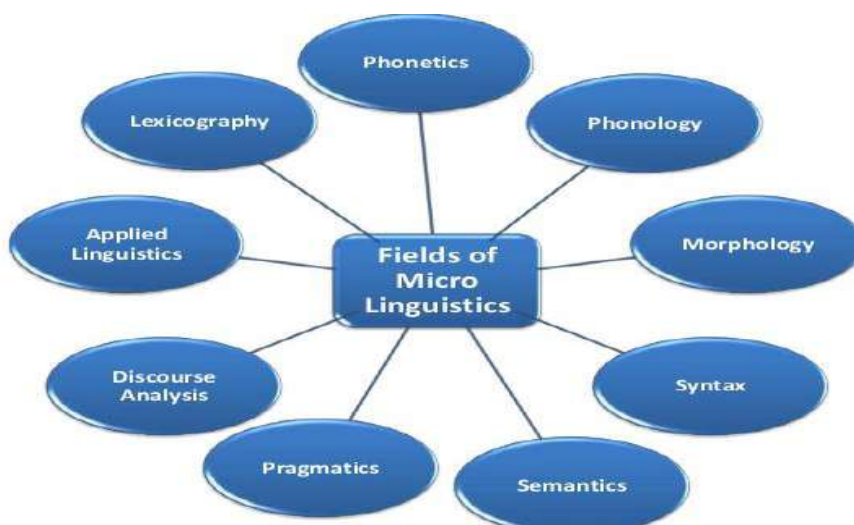
9.2   MACROLINGUISTICS

Macro-linguistics, interest is always placed on the study of language in relation to something in the real world, like 'socio-linguistics' which refers to the study of 'language' and 'society'. The following are some macro-linguistics areas of investigation as defined by Richards & Schmidt (2010):

9.2.1 PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

It is the study of language and mind; the mental structures and processes which are involved in the acquisition, comprehension and production of language. Most work in psycholinguistics has been done on the learning of language by children. Language is extremely complex, however children learn it quickly and with ease; thus, the study of child language is important for psychologists interested in cognition and learning. In the 1960s, research on language acquisition was strongly influenced by Chomsky's theory of generative grammar (mentalist theory)that children are born with an understanding of the ways languages work which was referred to as "Universal Grammar". They would know underlying principles of language and that children would need only enough exposure to the language. But others have argued that it is not grammatical competence as such that is innate but more general cognitive principles.

9.2.2 SOCIOLINGUISTICS

It studies the relationship between language and society. The study of the effect of society, including culture norms, expectations and context, on the language is used. For example a study of language variation according to such factors as the speakers' social class. This is the broad area of investigation as it has the strong connections with culture, social groups and institutions. It Influences on the choice of sounds, grammatical elements, and vocabulary items may be because of such factors as age, sex, education, occupation, race, and peer-group identification, among others. For example, a person may use such forms as "He don't know nothing" or "He doesn't

know anything," depending on his level of education, race, social class or perception, or context.

9.2.3 APPLIED LINGUISTICS

"Applied linguistics is the knowledge about the nature of language achieved by linguistic research for the improvement of the efficiency of some practical task in which language is the central component."

(Corder, 1974: 24)

Applied linguistics deal with the application of linguistics to the study and improvement of language teaching and language learning and language planning, communication between groups, speech therapy and the language handicap, systems of communication, translating, interpreting, lexicography.

9.2.4 COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS:

It is the approach to linguistics which implies mathematical techniques often with the help of a computer. Computational linguistic, makes use of electronic digital computers. Computational analysis is most frequently applied to the handling of basic language data e.g., making concordances and counting frequencies of sounds, words, and word elements etc.

9.2.5 ANTHROPOLOGICAL LINGUISTICS

The concern of anthropological linguistics is to study the relationship between language and culture i. e. to what extent the structure, form, context of a particular language is determined. Vocabulary differences between languages give rise to cultural differences.

Anthropological linguists study the languages of humans and the rules that make these languages work. Like culture, languages are learned and shared. When two people who speak different languages meet, they may not be able to communicate. The sounds one person produces may have no meaning in the other person's language, or,

sometimes embarrassingly, the sounds have very different meanings. Anthropological linguists also study how meaning is conveyed by people and the histories of languages.

9.2.6 MATHEMATICAL LINGUISTICS

Mathematical linguistics comprises two areas of research: the study of the statistical structure of texts also called statistical linguistics and the construction of mathematical models of the phonological and grammatical structure of languages also called algebraic linguistics are distinct from each other.

9.2.7 STYLISTICS

Stylistics is a modern branch of linguistics which is concerned to the study of "style" or the linguistic choices made by speakers and writers, especially in literary texts as well as in other non-literary contexts such as advertisements, film and media, political speeches, casual conversations, etc. Stylistic analysis involves examination of grammar, lexis, semantics, syntax, phonological properties and informal devices in a given work. In this way, Stylistics includes discourse analyses.

9.2.8 HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS

Historical linguistics is the branch of linguistics concerned with the development of a language or of languages over time, traditionally known as philology. It is a way of identifying relations among languages in the absence of written records.

9.2.9 LINGUISTICS TYPOLOGY

The branch of linguistics that studies the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history of languages is known as typological linguistics. It is the analysis, comparison, and classification of languages according to their common structural features and forms.

9.2.10   NEUROLINGUISTICS

It is the study of language processing in the brain, with an emphasis on the processing of spoken language when certain areas of the brain are damaged. Its subject matter is the relationship between the human nervous system and language. The primary goal is to understand and explicate the neurological bases of language and speech, and to characterize the mechanisms and processes involve in language use. It includes language and speech impairments in the adult aphasias and in children, as well as reading disabilities.

Hence, macro linguistic view includes the levels of analysis mentioned above, as well as other aspects of language and its relationship with many areas of human activity.
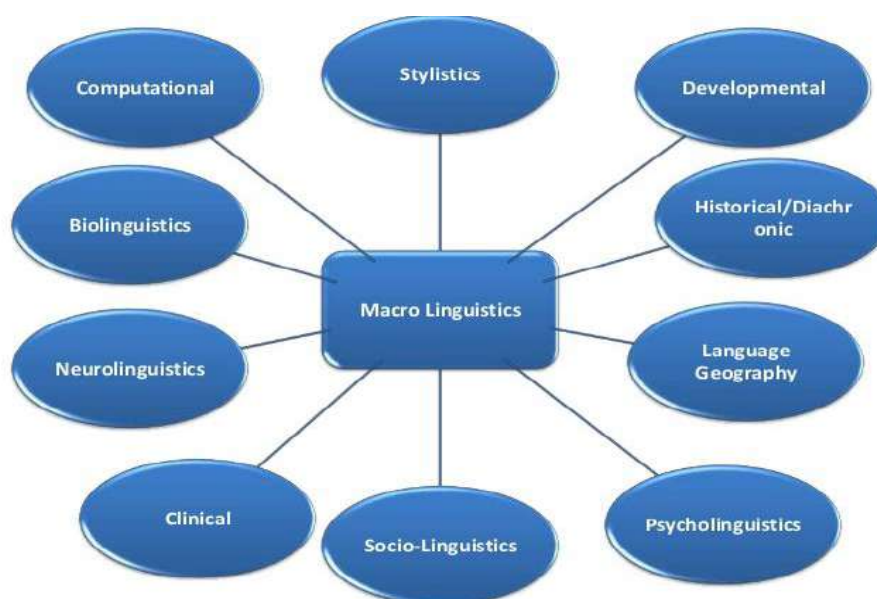
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Selected Readings

- **INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY**

 No other language family has been studied so intensively as Indo-European and the reconstruction of the parent language is generally acknowledged to be one of the real achievements of the 19th century science. Indo-European is also a very interesting family because many written records of its branches have been preserved from various points in time. Within the family itself there is also a wide range of divergence or difference among the various member languages. It is a very well defined family. Linguists are in agreement as to which languages are and which languages are not IndoEuropean. Indo-European family was preserved by Karl Brugmann in his famous book "Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages" and in his "Introduction to the Comparative Study of Indo-European Languages." AntonicMeillet presented the same system. Though there has been some progress in Indo-European studies since the time of Brugmann and Meillet in the early 20th century, yet in its basic structure the Brugmann system is still valid. The various sub-groups of the Indo-European family of which representations are spoken today are as follows:

- **INDO-IRANIAN**

This branch consists of languages of present day India, Iran and certain neighboring areas. It consists of two sub-groups-Indic and Iranian of which the former is more important than the latter. The earliest Indic material is contained in Rigveda. Since the poems of Rigveda and other vedas were considered sacred, they were memorized and transmitted orally for many generations. As a result of linguistic analysis, a standardized language emerged and was so completely described and regulated (Sanskrita) that it underwent few further changes which is known to us as Sanskrit. In the period before Christ, we have three stages of Indic-vedic Sanskrit, classical Sanskrit and prakrits. Vedic and classical Sanskrit are often referred to as 'old Indic',

the prakrits as 'Middle Indic' of which emerges 'Pali' and at the end of the Middle Indic period, we get materials known as Apbhramsas which means 'off-branching'. From the Apbhramsas developed modern Indic dialects including 'Hindi' and 'Urdu'. Others are Bengali, Gujrati, Marathi, Punjabi, Sinhalese and Romany. On the Iranian side, we have two important ancient languages: 'Old Persian' and 'Avestan'. In Avestan we have the sacred books of the Zoroastrian religion. At present the various Iranian languages include 'Persian', 'Balochi', 'Pashtu', 'Kurdish' and 'Ossetic'.

- **ARMENIAN**

Until 5th century A.D., no material was available on Armenian. The oldest materials were composed in 5th century A.D. and are almost translations of Christian writings. The language of these texts are known as 'the classical Armenian'. Modern Armenian exists in two branches-Eastern spoken in USSR and Iran and Western spoken in Turkey. Armenian has been highly influenced by other languages and particularly by Iranian.

- **ALBANIAN**

The early history of Albanian is even more adequately known. Before 1685, when a Latin Albanian dictionary was produced, we had few materials. The production of dictionary was followed by religious translations and collection of folktales in the 19th century. There are two dialects - Geg in the north and Tosk in the south, extending into Greece and Italy. It has also undergone many changes in its vocabulary, influenced successively by Latin, Greek, Slavic and Turkish. Some scholars consider it as a modern representative of Illyniam or Thracian.

- **BALTO-SLAVIC**

The Balto-Slavic group consists of two large sub-groups: Baltic and Slavic. Three principal languages make up the Baltic group: Old Prussian, Lithuanian, and Latvian. Old Prussian is extinct today but Lithuanian and Latvian are still spoken along the southern coast of the Baltic sea in the Lithuanian and Latvian republic of Soviet Union. The Slavic languages spoken today are classified in three groups: South, West and East Slavic. South Slavic comprises: Bulgarian, Serbo-Croatian and slovarian. West Slavic comprises: Czech, Slovak, Polish and Wendish. East Slavic comprises Great Russian, White Russian or Byelorussian and Ukrainian. The differences between the various Slavic languages are slight, much smaller than those between the Germanic languages.

- **GREEK OR HELLENIC**

Historically Greek is extremely important but it has a relatively low speakers. It is attested in inscriptions from seventh century B.C. In Greek we have a diversity of

dialect materials sub-divided into two large groups: West group and East group. West group is further divided into North-West Greek and Doric. To east Greek belongs Atlic-Ionic, the language of Atlika and Asia Minor. Historically, the most important dialect is that of Athens, Atlic Greek. Because of intellectual domination of Athens, its dialect came to be used throughout Greek speaking areas.

- **ITALIC**

Among the Italic languages, the most important is, of course, Latin, the language of ancient Rome and the ancestor of modern Romance languages. It includes Italian, Provincial, French, Spanish, Catalan, Portuguese and Rumanian. Besides these seven important languages three minor ones are also included from modern times: Sardinian, Rhaeto-Romance, Romansch or Ladin. Compared with early Latin they are lesser known, but often helpful dialects of Oscan and Umbrian, of which we have several inscriptions.

- **CELTIC**

The Celtic languages themselves divide into two groups: Continental and insular. The Continental branch is known through a single language. Gaulish, which was spoken in an area centering around present day France. Insular Celtic is further subdivided into two branches: Brythonic and Goidelic. Welsh, Breton and Cornish are Brythonic languages. The first attested Goidelic language is Old Irish. Old Irish has two present day descendants: Modern Irish and Scots Gaelic.

- **GERMANIC**

The Germanic branch of Indo-European family is generally broken down into three main divisions: East, North and West. East Germanic is known from a single language, 'Gothic' which was attested in a Bible translation of the 4th century A.D. North Germanic consists of two groups- East Norse, composed of Swedish, Danish and Gutnish; and West Norse composed of Norwegian, Faroese and Icelandic. West Germanic is divided into three major subgroups: High Germanic, Low Germanic and Anglo Frisian. Modern Standard German is a high German dialect, as is Yiddish. Low German is represented by modern languages such as Dutch, Flemish and Afrikaans. Anglo-Frisian branch consists of two branches- English, the most important member of the branch, and Frisian. Old English (formerly called Anglo Saxon) is attested as early as the seventh century A.D.; the Middle English period extends from twelfth to the fifteenth centuries; New English continues the same language down to the present. In Old English there were three distinct dialects, Kentish, Saxon and Anglican or Northern, further subdivided into Northumbrian and Mercian. In Middle English, we may follow a classification into four subgroups: Northern, West Midland, East Midland and Southern. The dialect of London, on the border between Southern and Midland, came to be model for Standard English. Like New High German, Modern

English is therefore a direct continuation of the prominent language of the older period. Since approximately 1600, English has expanded continually. It is now the language used most widely as a second language and as an auxiliary language for internal communication.

- **ANATOLIAN**

It consists of three principal languages: Hillitite, Luvian and Lydian. Of these the most important is Hillitite since there are a large number of its documents some dating back as far as 1300 B.C. Luvian and Lydian are attested in only few inscriptions.

- **TOCHARIAN**

The Tocharian languages which are found in texts unearthed in Central Asia, are attested in the seventh century A.D. It has two dialects labelled as A and B: Agucan or West Tocharian for Tocharian B. One of the remarkable features of Tocharian is the preservation of palates as /k/ before back vowels. Nothing is known about the provenience of the speakers of Tocharian.

Lesson 3: WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

General Course Objectives

Having studied linguistics as a science of language in the preceding lecture, the present course entitled "Language and Linguistics" strives to tackle the following key points that are listed below:

- ➢ **Definitions- based on the term Language**
- ➢ **The nature of language, animal communication and human language**
- ➢ **Characteristics and the main functions of human language.**
- ➢ **Universal properties of language.**
- ➢ **And will be concluded with the contribution of the most important figures in the field of Linguistics.**

Attempting to introduce this lecture to our students helps them achieve the following aims listed below:

- - **Know and comprehend the nature of language.**
- - **Understand the similarities and/or differences between animal communication and human language.**
- - **Be able to distinguish between natural and artificial languages.**
- - **To have a clear idea about functions and the main Characteristics of language.**
- - **To equip students with pertinent information about the sub- branches of linguistics (micro/ macro-linguistics).**

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of this lecture, the students are expected to be able to:

1. **Use conveniently the fundamental linguistic terms.**
2. **Apply the main principles of modern linguistics.**
3. **Know and comprehend the nature of language.**
4. **Mention and write the definitions of language.**
5. **Explain the essential differences between different branches of linguistics.**
6. **Be aware of the similarities and/or differences between animal communication and human language.**

1 INTRODUCTION

Language is a part of our life; we live in the ocean of language and most of our interactions is conducted by using language. However, not all of people ask question What is language? Language is a complex but also interesting phenomenon to be understood. Linguists have been trying to study and express what the language is. In addition to this, language teachers have been trying to find and develop methods or techniques of how to teach language well. Therefore, in spite of its crucial role, studying language actually is interesting and challenging at the same time. All right, let 's begin our discussion about the nature of language with What is language?

2 WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Whatever people do whether they play, quarrel, cook, wash, etc.—when they come together, they will talk. We live in a world of language. We are the only —animals that talk by means of language. According to the philosophy expressed in the myths and religions of many people, it is language that becomes the source of human 's life and power. To some people of Africa, a newborn baby is a kuntu (thing), not a muntu (person). Only by the act of learning does the baby become a human being. According to this tradition, we all become _human 'because of language; because we all come to know at least one language (see Fromkin et. al., 1990:3).

Linguists are in a broad agreement about some important characteristics of human language, and definition of a language widely associated with linguistics may be used to illustrate areas of agreement. This particular definition states that language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication '. The definition

is rather imprecise in that it contains a considerable redundancy, particularly in employing both of the Linguistics tries to analyze:

1. What language is.

2. What languages have in common.

3. Social differences in language usage.

4. How languages change over time.

5. How languages work.

6. How languages vary.

7. How children acquire language.

8. How language reflects the mind.

3   DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE

The dictionary definition of language differs from the linguistic one. For example, the **Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary** defines language as: ***"a system of communication consisting of sounds, words, and grammar, or the system communication used by people in a particular country or type of work"***.

In **Oxford dictionary**, it may refer to ***"the method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way"*** or it may mean ***"a system of communication used by particular country or community***".

The **Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary** defines language as ***"the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country or area."***, ***"the use by humans of a system of sounds and words to communicate."***, or ***"a way of expressing ideas and feelings using movements, symbols and sound"***.

4   LINGUISTIC DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE

Language is a means of communication. It is specific to the human being. In fact, linguists do not agree on one definition of language as they view it from different

perspectives. According to **Edward Sapir**, (1921:8): ***"Language is a purely human activity and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols"***.

Therefore, Sapir focuses on the idea that language is human. He adds that it is acquired. Moreover, Sapir mentions the fact that language is a system relying on the use of symbols which refer to sounds.

On the other hand**, Ferdinand De Saussure** (1959:19) asserts that ***"Language exists in the form of a sum of impressions deposited in the brain of each member of a community"***. This means that language is related to cognitive processes. Also, there is a close relationship between language and thought since the former is a means of expressing ideas. Language is a social phenomenon as it is a method of communication used by a group of individuals living in a society.

Noam Chomsky says: ***"I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. All-natural languages in their spoken or written form are languages in this sense."***

Thus, language is considered as a group of sentences composed of a set of elements. Moreover, language has two forms: speech and writing. As a result, some linguists focus on spoken form while others give importance to the spoken and written form as both of them are used as a means of communication.

5 FUNCTION OF LANGUAGE

Language must be investigated in all the variety of its functions. At the time people talk about language functions, they are talking about the reason for using language. At its most basic, the function of language is communication or usually called by speech function; people use language to give and receive messages between themselves. It is difficult to see adequately the functions of language, because it is so deeply rooted in the whole of human behaviour that it may be suspected that there is little in the functional side of our conscious behaviour in which language does not play

its part (Newmeyer, 2000: 89). Language has some functions based on some viewpoints.

From the speaker's viewpoint, language has personal or emotive function. Through language, the speaker shows his/her emotions (e.g. sad, happy, angry, etc)

From the listener's viewpoint, it has directive or instrumental function. It functions to control the listener's behavior. It does not only make the listener doing something, but also doing something as what the speaker wants.

From the contacts between the speaker and listener's viewpoint, it has phatics, interactional, or interpersonal function. The phatic function of language is that which keeps the channels of communication open. Phatic communication is a term used by the British-Polish anthropologist Malinowski to refer to communication between people which is not intended to seek or convey information but has the social function of establishing or maintaining social contact. Phatic is language such as greetings, that is used primarily for maintaining social contact and interpersonal relationships, rather than for exchanging information. For example, Nice day, isn't it? How are you?, How do you do?, How's life?, What's up?, Hey, man, how's it going?, etc.

From the topics of speech viewpoint, it functions referential, representational, cognitive, denotative, or informative. We can use language to talk about the object or event in our surroundings. The sentences "The students are studying", and "Our new buildings are painted yellow" show that the language has referential function.

From the code used in communication viewpoint, it functions methalinguistics. In this case, we use language to discuss language itselffrom the message conveyed in communication viewpoint, it has imaginative or phonetics speech function. It can function to express our true or imaginative thought, idea, or feeling.

6 FEATURES COMMON TO ALL LANGUAGES

There are a lot of questions that can be asked about language, some scientific, some not. One such question is: Which is the oldest language in the world? Several centuries ago, researchers were much concerned with this question, however, it does

not have a reliable answer, simply because we cannot go so far into the history of humanity. Another often asked question is about the features that all-natural human languages share. The American linguist Charles Hockett has pointed out a number of such properties. Here are some of them:

a. All languages have vowels and consonants;
b. All languages have words;
c. All languages can create new words when required and modify their meanings;
d. All languages are open-ended in the sense that they can produce totally new utterances which are understood by the users of the language;
e. All languages can form questions.
f. In all languages it is possible to talk about things and situations that are removed from the immediate situation of the speaker (this is called displacement).
g. In all languages we can use hypothetical, unreal, and fictional utterances.

7   UNIVERSAL PROPERTIES OF LANGUAGE

How does human language differ from animal languages?human languages differ from animal languages in many ways. Some of the major features of human languages are: Displacement, Arbitrariness, Productivity, Cultural transmission, Discreteness, and Duality. Animal languages do not possess these features.

7.1 DISPLACEMENT

A major difference between animal language and human language is the displacement feature of human language. It means that human language can overcome the limitations of time and space. Animal communication is designed for here and now. But, human language can relate to events removed in time and space.

7.2   ARBITRARINESS

A major difference between animal language and human language is the arbitrariness of human language. It means that human linguistic signs do not have any natural connection between its form and meaning. The only exceptions are the onomatopoeic sounds. In the animal communication, the signs they use are synonymous with meaning.

7.3   PRODUCTIVITY

A major difference between animal language and human language is the productivity of human language. This refers to the human ability to combine limited linguistic signs to produce new sentences and expressions. Animals are incapable of this as animal signals have fixed reference.

7.4   CULTURAL TRANSMISSION

A major difference between animal language and human language is the cultural transmission of human language. While animals get heir language genetically, human beings acquire language. Human languages are passed down by the society in which one lives and grows up.

7.5   DISCRETENESS

A major difference between animal language and human language is the discreteness of human language. This refers to the uniqueness of the sounds used in human languages. Every language uses a set of different sounds. Each of these sounds is different from the rest and is combined to form new meanings. A sound can be repeated, or combined with another to form a new meaning. But animal languages do not have this feature of discreteness.

7.6   DUALITY

A major difference between animal language and human language is the duality of human language. This is not found in animal languages. Human languages can be both spoken and written. Even languages that do not have alphabet can be written down using some symbols. Animal languages are only spoken.

8   LANGUAGE VARIETIES

Language varieties refer to those aspects of language that differ from a person to the other or from a social group to the other. They include the dialect, idiolect, accent, register and style.

1- **Dialect:** it is a variety of language used by a specific group of people.
2- **Idiolect:** it is the speech of the individual.
3- **Accent** refers to a manner of pronunciation specific to a person or a group.
4- **Register** is a variety of language employed in a specific situation for a particular purpose.

Style refers to the degree of formality of the language used by the individual.

9   LECTURE SUMMARY

Language is a system used for expressing ideas via the association of symbols (sounds or letters) in the form of words and sentences. It may be defined as a set of grammatically correct utterances having meaning. Language is acquired from society. The mother tongue which is also called the native language or the first language is acquired from the family members and society. The second language is not the native language; it is learnt at school but it is used in society. However, the foreign language is learnt at school but it is not used outside it.

10 PRACTICAL ACTIVITIES ABOUT LANGUAGE

Exercise N°1: Complete the following sentences

Language is...

Symbols refer to..

Thoughts means..

Language varieties include..

Acquisition means..

Exercise N°2: Define the following linguistic concepts

Phonology, semantics, syntax, language, sociolinguistics, culture, society, teaching, learning, speech, writing Communication, system, sentence, mother tongue, community

Exercise N°3: find out if these statements are True or False, then correct the false ones.

- Language is a system representing meaning through symbols.
- All languages have grammar.
- Phonology refers to word formation.
- Language is not a mental faculty and it is used for oral communication.
- Linguistics focuses on one aspect of language.

<u>**References**</u>

- Chomsky, N. (1957). Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton.
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<u>**Selected Reading**</u>

➢ Nonetheless, we are not able to find a single definition of language that has completely explained the phenomenon in that particular question and give us satisfaction and stopped scholars, authors and linguists to define the exact answer to that question. However, language is a complex human phenomenon as all attempts to define it has proved inadequate. In brief, we can say, language is an

'original noise' used in actual social situations by human beings.Language is basically a system of conventional, spoken or written symbols utilizing which human beings are used to communicate with each other.

➢ **Definition of Language by Different scholars**

Let us now go through the definition of language delivered by different scholars, linguists, authors and reference books.

- **Aristotle**

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

- **Saussure**

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

- **Sapir**

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

- **Bloomfield**

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

- **Bloch and Trager**

According to Bloch and Trager, a language is a system of arbitrary vocal sounds through a social group that cooperates.In their definition of language, they point out that, language is an arbitrary system, vocal sounds, way of communication, and collectivity.

- **Noam Chomsky**

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

- **Derbyshire**

Derbyshire says the language is undoubtedly a kind of means of communication among human beings. It consists primarily of vocal sounds. It is articulatory, systematic, symbolic and arbitrary.This definition of Derbyshire clearly utters, language is the best source of communication. It also portrays how human language is formed and what are the fundamental principles of language.

- **Lyons**

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

- **Wardhaugh**

A language is a system of arbitrary vocal sounds used for human communication. This definition of language by Wardhaugh mainly insists on arbitrariness, vocal sounds, humans and communication.

Lesson 4: DE SAUSSURE'S THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

1 INTRODUCTION

Ferdinand De Saussure provided a set of theories that turned around distinct concepts that influenced research in the field of linguistics.

Langue vs. Parole

De Saussure identifies –two aspects of language called Langue and Parole. The former according to De Saussure is a social product that must exist within a collectivity. It is stored in the minds of all individuals. The latter on the other hand is heterogeneous and requires the interaction of at least two individuals. It involves concepts or mental facts that are connected to sound images or linguistic sounds. It results from psychological and physiological productions; speech is individual and it is the function of the speaker that employs grammatical system stored in the brain. Langue is a system including an associated and coordinating faculty that enables the speaker to express his thoughts.

Parole — (what the individual speaks)

Langue — (what is shared by the community)
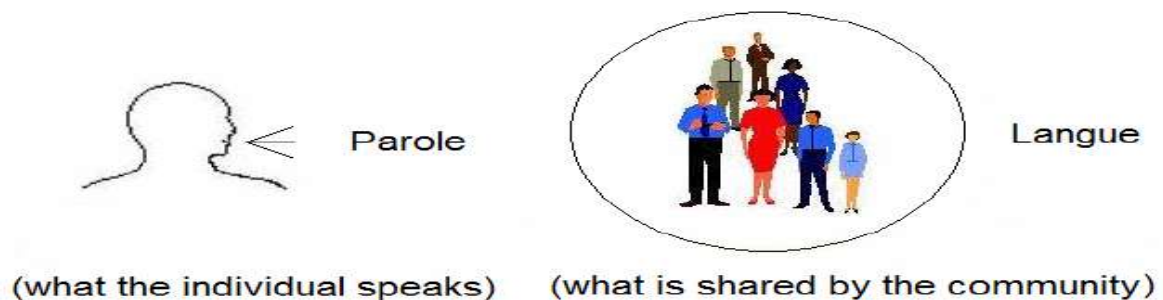
Saussure believes that linguistics is fundamentally the study of langue, although some later scholars have suggested that there might also be a linguistics of parole. Had corpus linguistics been a concept with which Saussure was familiar, he would no doubt have dismissed it as dealing with parole rather than with langue. In one of his celebrated images (Saussure 1969 [1916]: 36), he suggests that when an orchestra plays a symphony, the symphony exists externally to the way in which it is performed: that existence is comparable to langue in language study. The actual performance, which may contain idiosyncrasies or errors, is to be compared to parole.

The distinction between langue and parole has suffered two major changes in subsequent scholarship. First, a third level has been added, that of the NORM (see especially *Coseriu* 1962 [1952]). Our langue would allow us to say what the time is by saying It is ten minutes before four o'clock, or It wants ten minutes to be four o'clock, or In ten minutes it will be four o'clock, or It is five minutes after a quarter to four. We do not find such utterances attested in parole. Rather, we find multiple utterances of It is ten (minutes) to four. This cannot be related to vagaries of parole, because it is extremely homogeneous within relevant speech communities. Neither can it be a matter of langue, because langue allows us to say the same thing in many different ways. It is a matter of norm that we say It is ten to four rather than one of the alternatives. Note that different dialects may have different norms. There are also varieties of English in which the expression is It is ten of four.

2   SYNCHRONIC AND DIACHRONIC RELATIONS

For De Saussure, language can be studied synchronically and diachronically. As far as the first way is concerned, it refers to the study of language at a particular point in time. It focuses on the speakers who constitute the group of informants who supply the linguist with data about how this language functions. Whereas, diachrony implies the study of language through time relying on prospective and retrospective perspectives.

Synchrony attempts to reveal the psychological relations linked to the system of language that exists in the brain of the speakers; it depicts a language state. Diachrony studies the evolutionary phase of language from a historical point of view in order to know the linguistic changes that existed throughout the history of the speech community.
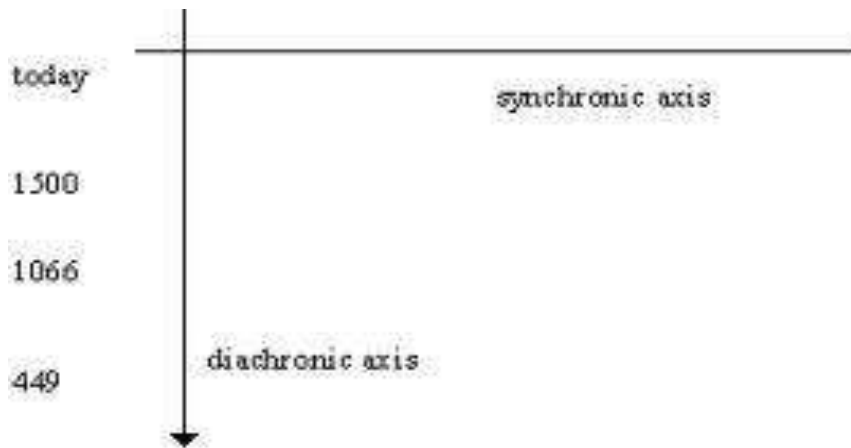
Synchornic vs. Diachronic Axis

We can study a given language in two ways; Saussure maintains. The first is that we can look at the language as it is (or was) at any particular point in time. Thus, we might study the syntax of American English in the early twenty-first century, or the phonology of seventeenth-century French or the patterns of compounding in Classical Chinese. These are all SYNCHRONIC studies (syn- 'alike', chronos 'time').The alternative is to look at the way in which a language develops or changes over time. In this way we might consider the development of the English verb system, or changes in Arabic phonology from the classical period until today. These are DIACHRONIC studies (dia- 'through', chronos 'time').

3   SYNTAGMATIC AND PARADIGMATIC RELATIONS

According to De Saussure, linguistic terms are grouped into two categories: syntagms and paradigms. A syntagm includes two or more units; it is a group of words, a phrase or a sentence. Thus, syntagmatic relations refer to the succession of words and their contribution to the structure and meaning of the sentence (i.e, the combination of elements to form a longer unit). They reflect a sort of interdependence of the terms that constitute a sentence. On the other hand, a paradigm refers to different forms of the same word (Lexeme). Simply put, paradigmatic relations

involve associative relations that involve groups of words that have a common feature in terms of the similarity of meaning of form. Unlike syntagmatic relations, it refers to the replacement/ substitutability of elements to give a novel construction it may include the synonym of words or their derivatives. As a result, a paradigm is linked to the aspect of word formation while a syntagm refers to the arrangements of various units within a sentence or fragments of a sentence.
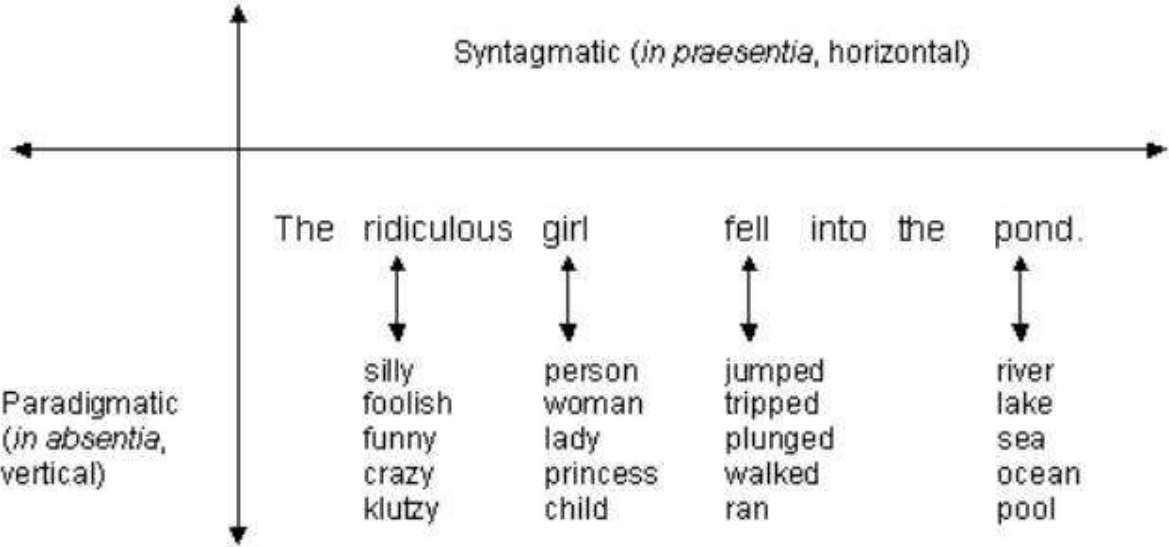
syntagmatic Vs Paradigmatic axis

4 THE LINGUISTIC SIGN

De Saussure refers to the word as a linguistic sign which links a concept and the sound image. The sign is a two-sided psychological entity. The concept is also called the signified while the sound image is referred to as the signifier. There an arbitrary relationship between the signified and the signified. Therefore, the sign relates a mental image to a particular sound in an arbitrary relationship. It the combination of signs that helps in producing a language. (see the image below)
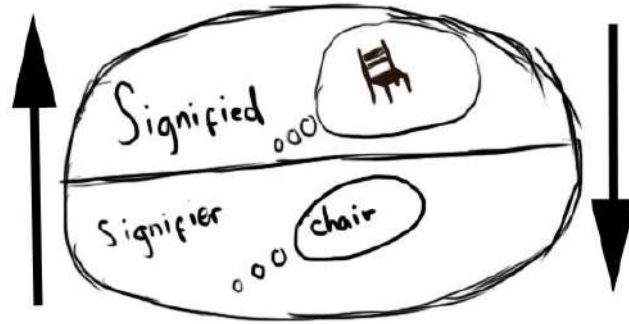
Lyons (1981) summarizes the diachronic-synchronic distinction of linguistics as follows: A diachronic description of a language traces the historical development of the language and records the changes that have taken place in it between successive points in time: 'diachronic' is equivalent, therefore, to 'historical'. A synchronic description of a language is non-historical: it presents an account of the language as it is at some particular point in time. (p. 35)

Lesson 5: Chomsky: Competence and Performance

1   CHOMSKY'S LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

The American linguist, **Noam Chomsky** (1965) has made a similar distinction between *linguistic competence* and *performance*. According to Chomsky, competence is the native speaker's knowledge of his/her language and the ability to produce and understand large stretches of sentences. Performance is the actual use of these utterances in routine life. In other words, the abstract or the internal grammar, which enables a speaker to utter and understand sentences and utterances in potential use, is a speaker's competence. According to him, competence is free from interference due to the slips of memory, the lapses of attention and so on. Chomsky states:

> *"Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its 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 the language in actual performance."(1965: 3)*

2   CHOMSKY'S LANGUAGE ACQUISITION DEVICE (LAD) AND UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR(UG):

2.1.1 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION DEVICE (LAD)

Chomsky theorized that children were born with a hard-wired language acquisition device (LAD) in their brains.

- LAD is a set of language learning tools, intuitive at birth in all children.
- LAD explains human acquisition of the syntactic structure of language.

- It encodes the major principles of a language and its grammatical structures into the child's brain.

- It enables the children to analyze language and extract the basic rules.

- The child exploits its LAD to make sense of the utterances heard around it, deriving from this "primary linguistic data" –the grammar of the language.

- He later expanded this idea into that of universal grammar, a set of innate principles and adjustable parameters that are common to all human languages.

2.1.2 UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR (UG)

Chomsky says that **UG** does not have the actual rules of each language but it has **PRINCIPLES** and **PARAMETERS**.

1- Principles: universal basic features of Grammar. These features are common across all languages. In other words, principles account for the similarities between languages e.g. Nouns, Verbs and structure dependency (all languages have sentences consisting of NP and VP).

2- Parameters: account for variation between languages. In other words, theses parameters tell us how languages are different. E.g. English has SVO pattern, while Japanese has SOV pattern.

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Semester Two

Lesson 6: Language as a Means of Communication

General Course Objectives

The present lecture as the title suggests, strives to introduce our students to key components of effective communication in contemporary organizational life, which are required in any communicative situation so that a message is properly conveyed; this includes skills such as active listening, non-verbal communication (i.e. body language) and more. Educating students on these kinds of skills is of critical importance not only for efficient cross-cultural communication but also for effective communication strategies after.

Attempting to introduce this lecture to our students helps them attain the following objectives listed as follows:

- **Explain the concept of communication.**
- **Identify and describe the essential components of communication.**
- **Describe different types of communication.**
- **Examine the various models of communication.**
- **Identify various barriers which exist in the process of communication.**
- **Suggest strategies for effective communication.**

Expected Outcomes:

- ➢ **By the end of this lecture, the students are expected to be able to**
- ➢ **Understand the meaning and concept of Communication**
- ➢ **Understand the Process of Communication.**
- ➢ **Understand the importance of Communication.**
- ➢ **Understand the functions of Communication**
- ➢ **Distinguish between interpersonal and intrapersonal communication types of communication)**
- ➢ **Analyse barriers to effective communication.**

1 INTRODUCTION

"Where language is a tool, communication is an experience".

On the basis of this expression, which actually demonstrates how language and communication go hand in hand, one can really confirm that nothing can be successfully accomplished unless communication is available. That is, all that ever has been accomplished by humans and all that ever will be accomplished involves communication with others. It is a main linguistic tool for communicating, exchanging ideas, and building interpersonal relationship with people. As a matter of fact, many social and organizational problems derive from unsatisfactory relationships brought about by inadequate communication between people. Success on and off the job often stems from one's ability to transfer information and express ideas to others. Effective communication is therefore frequently the results in friendships that are more meaningful, smoother and more rewarding on and off the job, and increased ability to meet personal needs. Psychologist Abraham Maslow (1970) suggests that the capability to satisfy personal needs arises mainly from the ability to communicate.

2 COMMUNICATION DEFINED: MEANING AND CONCEPT

The word communication has been derived from the Latin word 'communicare' meaning 'common' which consequently implies common understanding. Basically, this term is commonly defined in various ways. Generally it is understood as a process of exchange of ideas, views, facts, feelings etc between or among people to create common understanding, information with others, which includes thinking, dreaming, speaking, arguing and so on. Thus, the scope of communication is very wide.

According to Crane, et. al. (1981:3—4), communication is a process in which information is transmitted from a source—the sender—to a goal—the receiver.

Communication is part skill, part art and part science. As a skill, it involves certain fundamental techniques, it is an art as it involves creative challenges, and it is science because certain verifiable principles are involved in making communication more effective. All this makes communication a complex process. (Pamela Chester, 2019).

As an art and science, Communication is requisite for life for it enables us to share and exchange ideas and information. It sustains businesses, schools, governments, hospitals. Therefore, communication tends to represent a mirror as it defines us, reveals our personality, our connections, and our ability to reason. If it were unavailable, then we could not survive and we would not even exist. If communication were only science, then art would not exist. There would not be a way to describe how an individual feels. If communication were only art, then science would not exist. There would not be a way to describe science because pure scientific writing is void of art. Science and scientific writing is reproducible. It is not formed by deliberating arranging words to cause emotion. (Chester, 2019).

To well understand the concept of communication as a linguistic phenomenon, it seems indeed wiser to examine its various definitions put forward by different scholars.

Communication is described as, "an act of interchanging ideas, information, or messages from one person or place to another, via words or signs which are understood to both parties." It's a crucial activity for any group of beings, because it is the means by which members of the group cooperate together.

Communication is not a static act but a dynamic process, which is continuous in nature and vital for teaching and learning. It involves the usage of a channel. This channel could be signs, symbols or verbal or written language. For communication to be complete and effective it has to achieve the desired objectives as intended by the communicator.

3   THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION BEHAVIOUR

Communication is necessary for any group to function effectively. It is, at its core, a two-way activity, consisting of seven major elements: sender, message, encoding, channel, receiver, decoding, and feedback which are required and needed in any communicative situation

3.1 A SOURCE OR SENDER

The source initiates a message. This is the origin of the communication and can be an individual, group or inanimate object. The effectiveness of a communication depends to a considerable degree on the characteristics of the source. Three conditions are necessary for successful encoding the message.

- **Skill:**

Successful communicating depends on the skill you posses. Without the requisite skills, the message of the communicator will not reach the requisite skills; the message of the communicator will not reach the receiver in the desired form.

- **Attitudes:**

Our attitudes influence our behaviour. We hold predisposed ideas on a number of topics and our communications are affected by these attitudes.

- **Knowledge:**

We cannot communicate what we don't know. The amount of knowledge the source holds about his or her subject will affect the message he or she seeks to transfer. (Koontz& O'Donnell, 2018).

3.2 AN ADDRESSEE OR RECEIVER

Once the source has decided what message to communicate, the content of the message must be put in a form the receiver can understand. As the background for encoding information, the sender uses his or her own frame of reference. It includes the individual's view of the organization or situation as a function of personal education, interpersonal relationships, attitudes, knowledge and experience.

Like the sender, the receiver is subject to many influences that can affect the understanding of the message. Most important, the receiver will perceive a communication in a manner that is consistent with previous experiences. Communications that are not consistent with expectations is likely to be rejected.

3.3 CHANNEL

The actual means by which the message is transmitted to the receiver (Visual, auditory, written or some combination of these three) is called the channel. The channel is the medium through which the message travels.

3.4 MESSAGE

It is usually in a recognizable form of text or utterance made up from the inventory of, a code. The message is the actual physical product from the source encoding. The message contains the thoughts and feelings that the communicator intends to evoke in the receiver. The message has two primary components:

- **The Content:**

The thought or conceptual component of the message is contained in the words, ideas, symbols and concepts chosen to relay the message.

- **The Affect:**

The feeling or emotional component of the message is contained in the intensity, force, demeanour (conduct or behaviour), and sometimes the gestures of the communicator.

According to D.K Berlo:

> *"when we speak, the speech is the message. When we write, the writing is the message. When we paint, the picture is the message. When we gesture, the movements of our arms, the expressions on our faces are the message." (2018)*

3.5 CODE

Code is the form in which the message is sent. It might be in the form of language, text, video, etc

3.6 TOPIC

Communication is usually about a particular topic, within a physical and social context common to the participants in the communication situation. The context of the communication interaction involves the setting, scene, and expectations of the individuals involved.

3.7 FEEDBACK

When you respond to the source, intentionally or unintentionally, you are giving feedback. Basically, it is a composed of messages the receiver sends back to the source. Verbal or nonverbal, all of these feedback signals allow the source to see how well, how accurately (or how poorly and inaccurately) the message was received. Feedback also provides an opportunity for the receiver or audience to ask for clarification, to agree or disagree, or to indicate that the source could make the message more interesting. As the amount of feedback increases, the accuracy of communication also increases.

All in all, to recapitulate what has been previously stated, it might seem wiser to consider the following figure that describes components of the communication process.
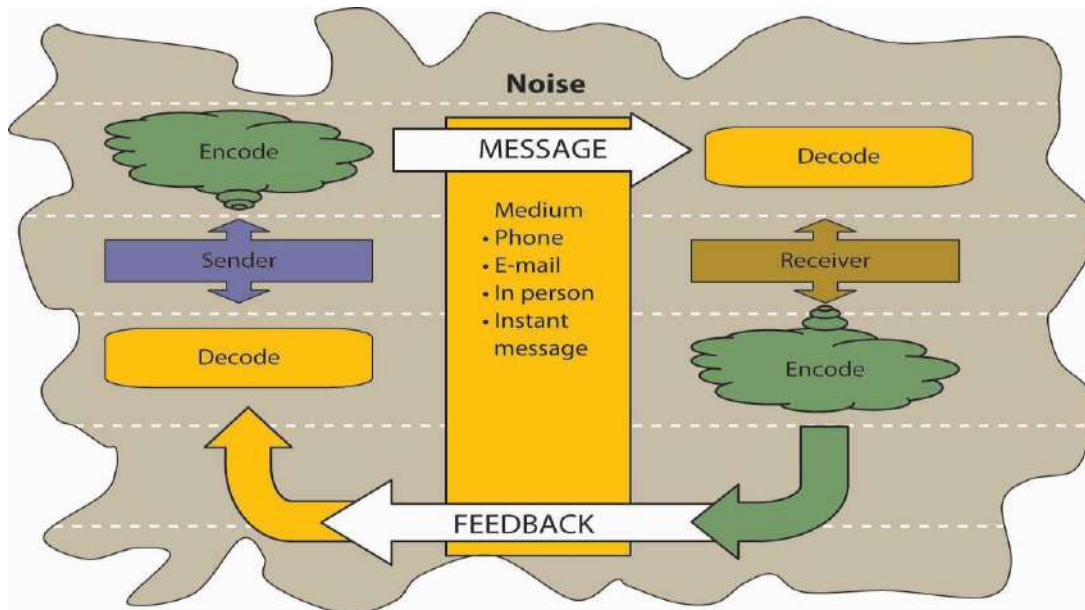
The communication Process Model

4 EXAMPLES OF COMMUNICATION SITUATIONS

Examples of Appropriate Situations for Using Each Communication Style

Informal	Mode of Communication	Formal
Text message to a friend	Verbal – Written	Email to a professor
Birthday card for a relative		Resume & cover letter
Grocery list		English paper
Tweet or Facebook status		Online discussion board post
Skyping with a sibling	Verbal – Oral/Spoken	Tutoring
Family dinner		Job interview
Socializing at a club meeting		In-class presentation
Getting to know your roommate		Scheduling a doctor's appointment
Riding the bus	Nonverbal	Sitting in class
Dinner out with a friend		Interacting with customers at work
Watching a movie at home		Turning in a job application
Hugging your mother to say hello		Shaking hands to greet your boss

Retrieved from:yourarticlelibrary.com

	Situation1	Situation 2
Sender	1-sender:doctor	1-sender:teacher
Receiver	2-receiver: patient	2-receiver:students
Channel	3-channel: face to face	3-channel: face to face
Message	4-message:spoken when the doctor explains the pathology to the patient/ and written when he prescribes the medical drugs relevant to the patient's disease	4-message:spoken when the teacher explains the lesson and written for the dictation
Code	5-code: French , Arabic, English	5-code:French , Arabic, English
Topic	6-topic: topic discussion	6-topic: topic discussion
Context	7-Social/physicalcontext:private cabinet or hospital	7- Social/physical context:school or university

5   LECTURE SUMMARY

In gross, communication is a matter of passing or exchange of information distinguishes what is living and what is non-living in nature. It is found even in the apparently passive world of plants; trees, for example, which evidently have been found to pass on information about advancing predators by means of chemical signals.

Related to the human communication system, we should note that there are three systems of human communication. The three systems are in the form of speech, writing, and gesture. For most people, speech is the basic system of communication. Writing, however, allows the preservation of communications over space and through time, and its great importance in human history and in complex societies would be hard to overestimate. The role of gesture is less obvious. Among the deaf, of course, it may replace speech as the principle form of communication; but for most people it is

an important supplement to speech. Together these systems allow us to communicate in a variety of situations with subtle shades of meaning (Crane et. al., 1981:14).

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Lesson 7: Levels of Analysis: The Inner Nature of Language

General Course Objectives

The present lecture endeavours to fulfill some significant objectives which can be summarized as follow:

- **Introducing the discipline of linguistics and its most important linguistic concepts.**
- **Explaining the meaning of the sub systems of language and the function of each of them**
- **Clarifying the key differences between phonetics and phonological analysis of a language.**
- **Teaching the morphological and syntactic analysis of a language(from theory to practice)**

<u>Learning Outcomes:</u>

By the end of this lecture, the students are expected to be able to:

- ✓ **Carry out a basic linguistic analysis of the English sound system, word and sentence structure, sense relations of words and sentences;**
- ✓ **Provide accurately both simple and complex words classification (both derivational and inflectional morpheme) and word formation.**
- ✓ **Distinguish between different types of phrases, sentences, clauses and provide complete syntactic analyses for many sentences by means of a tree diagram.**

1 TAXONOMIC HIERARCHY

The hierarchy of units better explains the relationship between units such as sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, hierarchy means, "a system by which the members of an organization are grouped and arranged according to higher and lower ranks, especially official ranks."

The sentence is considered as the longest structural unit of which full grammatical and phonological descriptions are possible. The linguistic unit contains all the elements (words) which are completely describable in terms of grammatical and phonological rules.

As for the former (grammatical analysis), it starts with the lowest minimum form (morpheme) and moves gradually through successive ranks to the longest unit (sentence)

In the later, phonology analysis starts with the lowest minimum form (phoneme) and moves gradually through syllables to phrase (utterance)
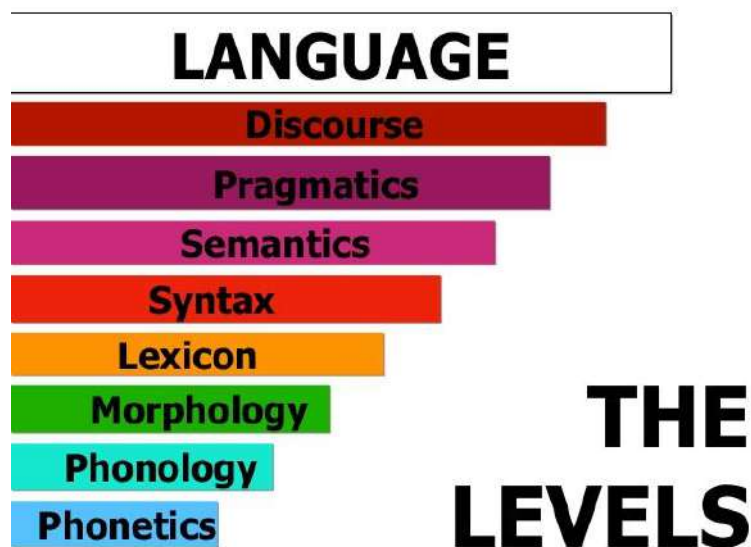
Nathacia, 2018

In grammatical hierarchy, morphemes are the smallest units (of grammar) and the sentences are the highest in rank. Morphemes combine to form words, words combine to form groups, groups combine to form clauses, and clauses combine to form sentences. In other words, a sentence consists of clauses, which consist of group of words and words are formed by the combination of morphemes. In other words, this relationship is a 'consists of' relationship if one is thinking downward along the scale, and a 'constituency relationship' if one is thinking upwards along the scale. Each unit consists of units of lower rank, or which are next down the scale, and each unit provides the constituents of the unit next above. Words, phrases, clauses and sentences constitute what is called the "Grammatical".

The present course, as its title suggests, strives to through light upon the linguistic analysis of language in terms of its inner nature, i.e. at micro level which consists of a set of six levels of linguistic analysis that range in depth between the specifics of the sounds we make to form language to the context surrounding speech events. They are (from most specific to the broadest) phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics (with a focus on the first three levels).

Lesson 8: Language as Available and Organized Sound: Phonetics &Phonology

1   INTRODUCTION

This course as its name implies aims to introduce students to basic practical and descriptive levels of the English sound system. The significance of this course's arises from the fact that pronunciation is regarded as one of the most important aspects of learning a language. This includes learning sounds in isolation as well as in connected speech. As regards phonetics, the course covers the vocal tract and its function in producing speech sounds. Consonants and vowels are described in articulatory terms, and students are taught phonetic transcription. With regard to phonology, on the other hand, students study the contrastive sounds of language - phonemes- as well as the phonological processes whereby the pronunciation of such sounds is affected when grouped with other sounds.

It should be pointed out however that in spite of its important role in language learning, the present course is slightly discussed and briefly elaborated as it represents a whole module scheduled to our students at tertiary level.

2   PHONETICS & PHONOLOGY

If the 19th century was an era of comparative and historical philology, the 20th century saw a decisive shift in favour of descriptive or synchronic linguistics. Often seen as the father of what became known as structural linguistics, Ferdinand de Saussure thinking underpins most work undertaken in this century and the last.

Structural linguistics is a synchronic   approach to language study in which a language is analyzed as an independent group of formal systems that are composed of elements that are defined in terms of their contrasts 'similarities and differences) with

other elements in the system. It emphasizes the overt formal features of language, principally the phonological, morphological, and syntactic ones. Structural linguistics involves collecting a corpus of utterances and then attempting to classify all of the elements of the corpus at their linguistic levels: the phonemes, morphemes, lexical categories, noun phrases, verb phrases, and sentence types.

2.1 PHONETICS

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics which studies how speech sounds are produced, how they are transmitted, and how they are perceived. Therefore, phonetics is off three kinds:

1- **Articulatory phonetics** is concerned with the way in which speech sounds are produced by the vocal organs.

2- **Acoustic phonetics** studies the physical properties of sound waves.

3- **Auditory phonetics** examines the way in which speech sounds are identified by the hearer.

Of these, articulatory phonetics is the longest established. Because the most familiar descriptions of speech sounds are based on their articulation, phonetics describes these sounds using the symbols of the ***International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).***

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)   ˌɪntəˈnæʃn·l fəˈnɛtɪk ˈælfəˌbɛt

Consonants (pulmonic)

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k g	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	N		
Trill	ʙ			r					R		
Tap or flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

73

2.2 PHONOLOGY

Phonology as a sub-discipline of linguistics is concerned with how speech sounds structure and function in a given language. In other words, phonology considers the grammatical properties of sounds. While phonetics is concerned with the description of how speech sounds are produced, transmitted and perceived, phonology deals with how such sounds are combined together to convey meaning.

Scope:

Phonetics -- What are the sounds? How are they made in the vocal tract?

Phonology -- How do sounds combine? How are they memorized?

Speaker's Mind → Speaker's Mouth → Listener's Ear → Listener's Mind

In terms of patterning, there are restrictions on the sequences of sounds (phonemes) in every language. In English, for instance, no word begins with zdr-,vzgl- or fsxl, but this is possible in Russian. However, there are English words which begin with the cluster **"str-"**. As for Arabic, no word begins with two consonants or ends with two vowels. This implies that there are restrictions on how sounds in different languages are sequenced.

In terms of function, the same speech sound may have different functions in different languages. For example, the glottal stop in English is not a distinctive phoneme; it is rather an allophone. In fact, there are English accents which are characterized by the substitution of the sound /t/ with the glottal stop [ʔ]; this does not introduce any change in the meaning of the word.

e.g. lot   [lɒt]   =   [lɒʔ]

[ʔ] in English is no other than an allophone as it does not lead to any semantic difference. This is not the case with, for example, Arabic where the sound /ʔ/ is a full phoneme. This can be simply illustrated with the following example:

/ʔlifa/   ≠   /talifa/   (تَلِفَ ≠ أَلِفَ)

Another example which shows the importance of phonology relates to *aspiration*. For example, the voiceless plosives /p- t- k/ exist in English and Thai. In both languages, they can be realized as aspirated or unaspirated. From a phonetic point of view, they are similar sounds. From a phonological standpoint, they do not behave the same in the two languages. Aspiration is redundant in English as its presence or absence does not introduce any change in the meaning of the word. This is not the case with Thai where aspiration is a distinctive feature.

English /p-t-k/ are 3 phonemes which can be realized with
$$\begin{cases} \text{aspiration } [p^h\text{-}t^h\text{-}k^h] \\ \\ \text{no aspiration } [p\text{-}t\text{-}k] \end{cases}$$

2.3 PHONETICS VS. PHONOLOGY

Even before Ferdinand de Saussure phonetics and phonology were confused to the point of using words as synonyms. But with Saussure in "General Linguistics Course" the differences that gave birth to the science we now know under the name of Phonology were determined. Saussure says: "The physiology of sounds is often called phonetics. This term seems improper; We replace it with phonology. Because phonetics appointed at the beginning, and should continue to designate, the study of the evolution of sounds; Do not confuse under the same name two absolutely different studies. Phonetics is a historical / science: it analyzes events, transformations, and moves in time – diachronic study.

In fact, phonology was seen as phonetics. However, linguists agree that they are totally different. Even if phonology and phonetics are dealing with the sounds of language, they study distinct aspects of the sound. The former implies the abstract system which deals with the rules that link language sounds to thinking, while the latter is concerned with the physical sounds and the way they are produced. Some

linguists refer to phonology as *functional phonetics* since it gives importance to the structure of sounds and attempts to describe the functions of sounds in the system of language. It focuses on the mental aspects of sounds. It tries to explain how the abstract sets of sounds convey meaning through the physical sounds that are produced by the speaker and heard by the listener.

To better understand, let's consider the following table that juxtaposes the two sub branches of linguistic analysis

Phonetics	Phonology
Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that deals with how to human speech sounds are made.	In contrast to phonetics, phonology is the study of significant speech sounds.
It describes how physical expressions of human speech sounds are produced.	On the other hand, phonology deals with the mental aspects of sounds in a language.
Phonetical units are called phones.	Phonological units are called phonemes.
It deals with a large number of speech sounds.	It deals with a limited number of speech sounds.
As we know that phonetic symbols are enclosed in square brackets	On the other hand, phonemic symbols are enclosed in the slashed bracket.
Phonological units are formed contrastively.	Whereas, phonetical units may not form contrastively.

3 PRACTICAL ACTIVITIES

Exercise N°1: Which of the following pairs of words show the same vowel quality? Transcribe each word.

pool – pull	hide - hid	least - leave	school – scope
back – bake	grasp - grass	snug – snuff	howl – huff
cot – caught	dump – damp	key - kick	number – numeral

soap – soak   fiend - friend   fight - flight   fell - feel

Exercise N°2: Mark stresses of the following words. Note that some words have primary and secondary stress. If not sure, you can use a dictionary.

1) daylight   9) restaurant

2) day off   10) responsible

3) day-to-day   11) shoelace

4) day training   12) health club

5) monopolize   13) health centre

6) kangaroo   14) bacteriology

7) midstream   15) changeover

8) midsection   16) prosperity

Exercise N°3: Transcribe the following words, as you would pronounce them in isolation. Mark the stresses. Then check your transcription with a dictionary.

Political-anguish- development- education- pearl-variable - English-saliva- comprehensible –component- miniature -predator

Exercise N°4: Questions and tasks:

1. What is the role phonetic transcription? Why is it important to have a standardized phonetic alphabet like the International Phonetic Alphabet?
2. Describe the sound producing system.
3. What is the main difference in articulating voiced and voiceless speech sounds?

Adapted from Masaitiené (2009: 14-15)

Exercise N°5 Find minimal pairs of words that would contrast the following English phonemes:

1) /f/ - /v/   5) /i:/ - /i/

2) /t/ - /d/   6) /i/ - /ai/

3) /m/ - /n/   7) /u:/ - /u/

4) /s/ - /z/   8 /au/ - /ai/

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Selected Readings

The level which concerns itself with the smallest units of language is phonetics. Phonology on the other hand is the functional classification of the sounds of a particular language. It is the system of sounds by means of which meanings are differentiated in a language and which serve as the building blocks for the higher linguistic levels, e.g. morphology. Phonetics is the study of human sounds in general without saying what function which sounds may have in a particular language. The term 'phonetics' is, however, often used with reference to one language when the emphasis is on the pronunciation of this language. For instance, a book on The phonetics of Irish would be about how to pronounce Irish correctly and not necessarily about the functions which the sounds may have in the phonological system of the language. It is customary to divide the field of phonetics into three branches as follows. 1) articulatory phonetics (emission of sounds) 2) acoustic phonetics (transmission of sounds) 3) auditive phonetics (reception of sounds)

Raymond Hickey Phonetics and Phonology (2002 :01)

Lesson 9: Language as Form: Morphology

1   INTRODUCTION

Recall that in the preceding lecture we have briefly tackled the lecture of phonetics and phonology; the first sub-discipline of linguistic description and analysis which studies the basic building blocks of language (speech sounds, phonemes, allophones), i.e. the scientific study of speech sounds in general and their functions in particular language/s. In this course, our focus will be on grammar, which linguists have traditionally seen as comprising the two sub-disciplines of morphology: the internal structure of words and their classification into grammatical categories, and syntax: the arrangement of words in a sentence. At the outset, the present shortened theoretical & practical- based course introduces the basic concepts needed for the study and description of morphologically simple and complex words. Since this lecture is also about the particular branch of morphology called word formation, we will take a look at the notion of "word", and then we will turn to a first analysis of the kinds of phenomena that fall into the domain of word-formation (derivation) and what make this last dissimilar from the other sub- branch of morphology (inflection).

2   WHAT IS A WORD?

It has been estimated that average speakers of a language know from 45.000 to 60.000 words. This means that we as speakers must have stored these words somewhere in our heads our so called mental lexicon.

Truly, in non- technical everyday talk, we make use words without ever thinking that this could be a problematic notion. In this section, we will strive to provide a definition- based on the term word as it represents the central part of this lecture and henceforth deserves some attention because it is not as straightforward as one may expect.

According to Plag (2002: 06), a word *"Could be defined in four ways: in terms of sound structure (phonologically), in terms of its internal integrity, in terms of meaning (semantically) or in terms of sentence structure (syntactically)."*

In the same line of thought, Hickey (2002: 30) provides another definition claiming that:

> *"A word can be defined linguistically as an element which exhibits both internal stability and external mobility. To take an example the word pack is internally stable in as much as it cannot be broken down into further elements...... It is externally mobile in as much as it can occupy various positions in a sentence, i.e. it is moved as a unit within a syntactic construction."*

The blank spaces used in orthography have nothing to do with the linguistic definition of the word. These spaces reflect pauses in the spoken language and that perhaps one could define the word as a unit in speech surrounded by pauses.

It should be noted that in word formation, the unit called a word may seem to be regular and easily identifiable form. This does not seem unreasonable when we look at a text of written English since the words in this text are quite obviously those sets of things marked in black with bigger spaces separating them. Unfortunately, there are a number of problems with using this observation as the basis of an attempt to describe language in general, and individual linguistic forms in particular. Largely because of the ambiguity and imprecision of the term 'word' linguists frequently prefer to use another term, 'morpheme'.

3 MORPHOLOGY

Unlike phonology, morphology does not analyse words in terms of syllables but in terms of morphemes, i.e. components of words that are carriers of meanings.

As a micro-linguistic sub- branch, the term morphology basically refers to the study of word structure and word formation. Because words are impossible to define in

absolute terms, they can be thought of as the macro-units that are combined to form sentences. Just as a sentence can be broken down into smaller units (words), we can also break words down into smaller units. The smallest meaningful part of a word is called a morpheme.

Generally speaking, the linguistic discipline of morphology – the term is derived from the Greek word *morphos* meaning form – examines the internal makeup and structure of words as well as the patterns and principles underlying their composition. In doing so, morphology straddles the traditional boundary between grammar (i.e. the rule-based, productive component of a language) and the lexicon (i.e. the idiosyncratic, rote-learned component).

3.1 MORPHEME

We can recognize that English words form such as walk, walks, walked and walking consist of one element which is walk, and a number of other elements such as s- ed- ing. All these elements are described as morpheme.

A morpheme is the minimal unit in which there is an arbitrary union of a sound and a meaning, be it a lexical meaning, or a grammatical function. To clarify this definition, we would say that the word inventor can be segmented into two smallest parts/ morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is invent called free morpheme and another minimal unit or known as bound morpheme.

 One should also know that not all words have more than one morpheme. Words that have only one morpheme are called mono-morphemic Words with more than one morpheme are called poly-morphemic. Neighbour for example, is not composed of neighb and or, although the word looks like rather similar to words such as creator, actor is decomposable into two morphemes because both create and or are meaningful elements, whereas neither "neighb" nor or carry any meaning in neighbour.

This implies that some morphemes can occur only if attached to some other morphemes. Such morphemes are called bound morphemes, in contrast to free morpheme which do occur on their own without being segmented to other element.

4   TYPES OF MORPHEMES

4.1.1 FREE MORPHEME

Free morphemes are those that can stand alone as words. They may be lexical morphemes or grammatical morpheme.

Free morphemes either convey lexical meaning, or achieve a grammatical function, the former are referred to as Content words, whereas the latter are known as Function words. Content words are the nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs that constitute the major part of vocabulary. They are referred to as Open Class Words because new words can be added to these classes. Function words, on the other hand, are words that do not have a clear lexical meaning, but have a grammatical function instead. Function words include conjunctions, prepositions, articles, pronouns and auxiliaries. They are also referred to as Closed Class Words because new words cannot be added to these classes.

4.1.2   BOUND MORPHEME

Bound morpheme is a morpheme that cannot stand by itself to form a word. It is bound because it has to be joined to one or more morphemes to fully achieve meaning (e.g. –ish, dis-, -ment).

Affixes are bound morphemes that occur before (prefixes), after (suffixes), in the middle of (infixes), stems (root morphemes).

Prefix: Un-,   pre-,   e.g. undo (do is the root)
          bi-,

Suffix: -ing, -er, -
          ist, -ly

Infix: Un-   English has no true infixes, but the plural suffix-s behaves
          freaking-   something like an infix in unusual plurals like: passers-by and

believ-able   mothers-in-law.   Infixes   are   morphemesthat   are
insertedbetweenothermorphemes.

5 MORPHEMES AND OTHER MORPHOLOGICAL BUILDING BLOCKS:

5.1 INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY

The set of affixes which fall into the bound category can also be divided into two types. The first is known as inflectional morphology and deals with the markers of grammatical categories such as case, number, tense and aspect. These inflectional morphemes are attached to lexical stems and create word-forms (rather than new words). English has only eight inflectional morphemes illustrated in the following:

{PLU} = plural Noun –toys.

 {POSS} = possessive Noun -'s director's

{COMP} = comparative Adj -er clear

{SUP} = superlative Adj -est oldest

{PRES} = present Verb -s walks

{PAST} past Verb -ed walked

{PAST PART} = past participle Verb -en driven

{PRES PART} = present participle Verb -ing driving.

The second major branch of morphology is word-formation, whose scope includes the direct terminological counterpart to inflectional morphology, derivational morphology, but goes beyond that.

5.2 DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY

It is concerned with the creation of new words and are often used to make words of a different category. Thus, the addition of the derivational morpheme ness changes

the adjective happy to the noun happiness. A list of derivational morphemes will include suffixes such as ish, in foolish, ly in badly and the less in careless, and ment in requirement. It will also include prefixes such as re, pre, ex, dis, co, un and mis.

The difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes is worth emphasizing. An inflectional morpheme never changes the grammatical category of a word. However, the derivational morpheme can change the grammatical function of a word.

To sum up what has been previously stated regarding both derivational and inflectional morpheme, one can consider the following table that juxtaposes the two types:

Inflection	Derivation
- Does not change meaning: produces new forms of a single lexeme	- Change meaning: produces new forms of a old lexeme.
- Preserves syntactic category	- Changes syntactic category
- Is expresses by suffixes only.	- Is expressed by suffixes and prefixes
- Involves few variables	- Involves any variable
- Further from the root than derivation	- Closer to the root than inflection

Table 1. the Difference between Derivation and Inflection

6   STUDYING WORD FORMATION: A METHOD TO GET NEW WORDS

The term Derivational Process or word-formation can be defined as the process by which new words are produced either by modification of existing words or by complete innovation, which in turn become a part of the language. We can very quickly understand a new word in our language and accept the use of different forms of that new word. The study of the origin and history of a word is known as its etymology, a term which, like many of our technical words, comes to us through Latin,

but has its origins in Greek (e´tymon "original form" + logia "study of"), and is not to be confused with entomology, also from Greek (e´ntomon "insect"). When we look closely at the etymologies of less technical words, we soon discover that there are many different ways in which new words can enter the language. Here, we will explore some of the basic processes by which new words are created.

6.1 CLIPPING

Clipping can be defined as the word formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts (Marchand: 1969). This occurs when a word of more than one syllable (facsimile) is reduced to a shorter form (fax), usually beginning in casual speech. The term gasoline is still used, but most people talk about gas. ad (advertisement), cab (cabriolet), condo (condominium), fan (fanatic), flu (influenza), (Yule, 2017:174)

6.2 BORROWING

One of the most common sources of new words in English is the process simply labelled borrowing, that is, the taking over of words from other languages. (Technically, it's more than just borrowing, because English doesn't give them back.) Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of words from other languages, including these examples: alcohol from Arabic Language, Boss from Dutch language, robot from Czech language, piano (Italian) tattoo (Tahitian)

6.3 COMPOUNDING

When we conjoin or join two separate words to produce a single form, it is called compounding. This word- formation process technically known as compounding, is very common in languages such as German and English, but much less common in languages such as French and Spanish. Common English compounds are: bookcase, doorknob, fingerprint, sunburn, textbook, wallpaper. All these examples are nouns, but we can also create compound adjectives (good-looking, low-paid) and

compounds of adjective (fast) plus noun (food) as in a fast-food restaurant or a full-time job. (Yule, 2017).

6.4 BLENDING

The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called blending. However, in blending, we typically take only the beginning of one word and join it to the end of the other word. To talk about the combined effects of smoke and fog, we can use the word smog. In places where they have a lot of this stuff, they can jokingly make a distinction between smog, smaze (smoke + haze) and smurk (smoke + murk), brunch (breakfast/ lunch), motel(motor/ hotel), telecast (television/ broadcast), Oxbridge (Oxford/ Cambridge) for both universities considered together and the Chunnel (Channel/tunnel) connecting England and France.

6.5 BACKFORMATION

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

6.6 CONVERSION

A change in the function of a word, as for example when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction), is generally known as conversion. Other labels for this very common process are "category change" and "functional shift." A number of nouns such as bottle, butter, chair and vacation have come to be used, through

conversion, as verbs: We bottled the home-brew last night; Have you buttered the toast?; Someone has to chair the meeting; They're vacationing in Florida.

Some other examples of conversion are listed here. Noun → Verb Verb → Noun dust Did you dust the living room? to cheat He's a cheat. glue I'll have to glue it together. to doubt We had some doubts. referee Who will referee the game? to hand out I need a handout.

6.7 COINAGE

The invention and general use of totally new terms, or coinage, is not very common in English. Typical sources are trade names for commercial products that become general terms (usually without capital letters) for any version of that product. Older examples are aspirin, nylon, vaseline and zipper.

6.8 ACRONYMS

They are new words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words. These can be forms such as CD ("compact disk") or SPCA ("Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals") where the pronunciation consists of saying each separate letter. More typically, acronyms are pronounced as new single words, as in NATO, NASA or UNESCO.

6.9 DERIVATION

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

7   LECTURE SUMMARY

So far we have strived though this lecture, to introduce some fundamental properties of words and the notion of "word" itself. We have seen that a key part of knowing a language is the capacity to construct and interpret the words of that language. Thus, as a linguistic term "word" can be decomposed into smaller unit called morphemes, and that there are many different ways to create new words on the basis of other existing ones by means of affixation, non-affixation and compounding processes. Those morphemes, bearing richer lexical meaning and belonging to the major lexical categories of nouns (N), verbs (V), and adjectives (A) are called lexemes, and may serve as the root for additional morphological operations. Those serving primarily to signal a grammatical function are called grammatical morphemes.

8   PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise N°1: Read and Reflect

"Languages differ more in morphology than in syntax. The variety is so great that no simple scheme will classify languages as their morphology. One such scheme distinguishes analytic languages, which use few bound forms, from synthetic, which use many. At one extreme is a completely analytic language, like modern Chinese, where each word is a one-syllable morpheme or compound word or phrase-word; at the other, a highly synthetic language Eskimo, which unites long strings into single words (...) this distinction, however, except for cases at the former extreme, is relative; any one language may be in some respects more analytic, but in other respects more synthetic, than some other language." (Bloomfield, 1933: 207).

Exercise N°2: Fill in the table using words from the text below:
"A powerful agent is the right word. Whenever we come upon one of those intensely right words . . . the resulting effect is physical as well as spiritual, and electrically prompt."

MARK TWAIN

Open class words	Closed class words
....	....
....	....

Exercise N°3: Identify the root in these words by underlining it and state which syntactic category it belongs to:

Example: faster: adjective.

Hushes, kindness, fried, gamers, heavily, grandfathers

Exercise N°4: Identify the prefixes and suffixes by underlining them:
Singing, unhappy, mechanism, trousers, brother, Blackboard rewarded, misfortune establish, submit, strawberry, abnormal

Exercise N°5: Identify the free morphemes in the following words by underlining them:
kissed, freedom, stronger, follow, goodness, talkative, teacher, actor.

Exercise N°6: Divide the following into free and bound sets:
action, nation, pre, post, angle, ible, infra, out

Free sets	Bound sets
....	....
....	....

(Fromstudylib.net)

Exercise N°7: Separate the affixes from the stems in the following words

Example: faster   =   fast   +   er

Trains, succeeded, lighter, predetermined, retroactive, confusions, instructional.

Exercise N°8: Compounds are often frequent in modern technical areas where new vocabulary is being created. Find the compounds in the following passage:

Free Talker , Nokia 610 Car Kit

The cell phone stays by your side -- instead of your ear -- with Nokia's hands-free Bluetooth system. An unobtrusive dash-mounted screen provides the same information as your cell-phone display, and you can effortlessly download contact info from your phone.

A small console-mounted control unit with three intuitive buttons and a dial is but one way to manage calls and messages, which sound off through your car's speakers: Choose to use Nokia's decent voice-recognition software and neither hand has to leave the wheel.

www.nokia.com

Exercise N°9: Complete the process and identify the type of word formation in English: (From studylib.net)

Influenza	flu	Clipping
Teleprinter, exchanger	telex	....
Megabyte	meg	....
Random access memory	RAM	....
A progress	To progress	....
Black,board	Blackboard	....
United States of America	USA	....
Compact disc	CD	....
Act	action	....

Exercise N°10: Which of the following words may not deserve to be regarded as lexical items, and so may not need to be listed in a dictionary of modern English? Why?

1- break breaking breakable breakage read reading readable punish punishing punishable punishment

2- conceive conceivable conception receive receptive receivable reception perceive perceptive perceivable perception

3- gregarious gregariousness gregariously happy happiness happily high highness highly

Exercises N°11: Consider the following words:

(a) tigers   (b) untimely   (c) decorating

speakers   uniquely   decentralising

(d) wholesome   (e) consumed   (f) leucocyte

gruesome   consumption   erythrocyte

1- Divide them into morphemes, noting any instances where you are not sure. What differences are there between the words in each pair?

2- Are there any morphemes here which have two or more allomorphs?

3- Which of these morphemes are free and which are bound? Are the bound morphemes all affixes, or are some of them roots or combining forms?

Exercises N°11

1. Draw tree diagrams to illustrate the structure of the following words, assigning appropriate word class labels (N, A or V) to the roots and to the nodes in the trees, and identifying heads:

Greediness cabin crew Deconsecrating cabin crew training. Incorruptibility cabin crew safety training. Enthronement cabin crew safety training manual. Re-uncover airline cabin crew safety training manual.

2. Compare the structure of unhappiness and unhappiest. Does either of them show a mismatch between meaning and structure?

3. Discuss the grammatical structure of the following, and whether each one is a phrase or a compound word:

income tax rate / high tax rate/ value added tax /goods and services tax

Adapted from Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy (2002: 14-83)

Exercise N°12: Study questions

- What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence?

➤ When he arrived, the old man had an umbrella and a large plastic bag full of books.

➤ List the bound morphemes in these words:

 fearlessly, misleads, previewer, shortened, unhappier

➤ In which of the following examples should the 'a' be treated as a bound morpheme? a boy, apple, atypical, AWOL

➤ 3 What are the inflectional morphemes in these expressions? It's raining; the cow jumped over the moon; the newest style; the singer's new songs

<p align="right">Adapted from George Yule (2005:69)</p>

Exercise N°13: Compounding

Identify the syntactic pattern in each of the following compounds and express it in a lexical rule. Example: gravedigger N + V + -er > N

Hovercraft, dairyman, goldfish, inroads, bystander, setback meltdown, blackout stand-in, turnout, money-hungry, dugout, hardhearted, homesick, proofread, overqualified, overachieve, badmouth, redhead.

2. **The following words are compounds which also include derivational affixes. Analyze the words, identifying the roots and their parts of speech, as well all the affixes and their function as nominalizer, verbalizer, adjectivalizer, or adverbializer**.

Example: housekeeper: house (root - noun) + keep (root - verb) + -er (nominalizer)

Flight, worthiness, chatterbox, owner-occupied, freedom, loving, handicraft, broken-hearted, safety-tested, worldly-wise, antiaircraft, machine-readable, chartered accountant

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Lesson 10: Language as Form and Patterns: Syntax
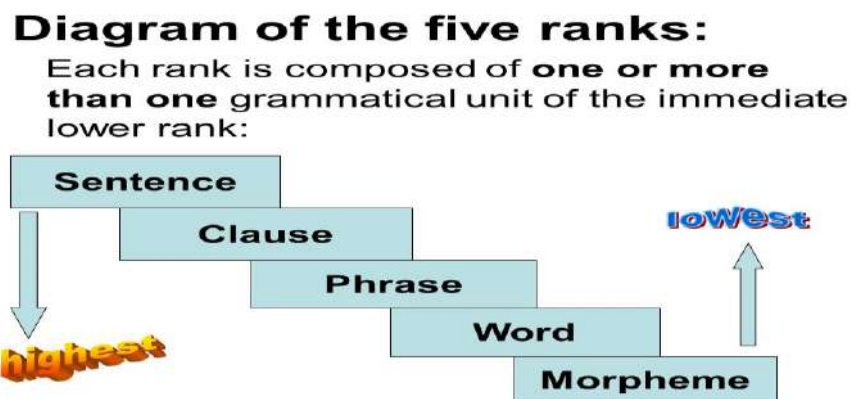
1   INTRODUCTION

Recall that in the preceding lecture, morphology has been tackled and briefly explained which concerns basically the descriptive analysis of word structure and word formation and studies the morphemes and their permissible arrangements in forming words. It represents the lowest domain of grammar. This last is regarded as an analytical tool used to describe and find out the rules occurring in a sentence. To do this, it provides precise set of terminological terms called a meta-language.

This lecture as its title suggests concerns basically the second sub-type of grammar that is syntax. A term that is derived from the Greek elements syn and tax, meaning arranging together. Simply put, it is a micro-linguistic sub branch which studies the grammatical structure of the sentence. Sentences are not simply linear strings of words but are phrases, which are linked together in hierarchical structures. Even though sentences are constructed in specific ways according to each language (language-specific constraints), there are syntactic rules which apply universally to all natural languages. Such as study is carried out with reference to a set of five basic units:

Diagram of the five ranks:

Diagram of the five ranks:
Each rank is composed of **one or more than one** grammatical unit of the immediate lower rank:

Sentence

Clause

Phrase

Word

Morpheme

highest

lowest

These units constitute the rank scale. This scale is ordered in such a way that any one unit is made up of one or more examples of the unit next below it, and just as there are various classes of words, so there are various classes of each of the other unit. These classes have a characteristic structure and the elements of these structures are realized by a particular class of the unit next below on the rank scale.

Syntax can also be seen as the way in which the basically subconscious rules that are part of each person's linguistic competence are used to construct sentences. People apply the rules of their language automatically and without noticing that they are doing anything special. A native speaker of English will know without having to consciously think about it that 'A to going minutes I be few in will store the' is not a grammatical sentence. However, 'I will be going to the store in a few minutes' is a grammatical sentence and would automatically be recognized as such by a native speaker of English. Words are not put together randomly to create phrases, clauses, and sentences.

When linguists and anthropologists study syntax, they are interested in describing the subconscious knowledge that people possess about the syntax of their language, not prescribing how they should construct sentences. On the one hand, what linguists are actually discovering is called descriptive syntax or descriptive grammar. They listen to what people actually say and then attempt to discover the rules being used. On the other hand, what a language teacher does in grammar class by telling learners that there is a correct or incorrect way to write or speak is called prescriptive syntax or prescriptive grammar.

Descriptive Syntax or Descriptive grammar refers to the mostly subconscious rules of a language that one uses to combine smaller units into sentences. The term also refers to the study of these rules.

Prescriptive Syntax or Prescriptive Grammar (as the term implies) refers to the concept that there is a correct and an incorrect way to speak, write, or sign. To better understand the difference it might be interesting to consider the following figure

Prescriptive and Descriptive grammar

Prescriptive grammar: How one SHOULD say to use the language PROPERLY, prescribing how language should like. e.g:
- Never use a preposition to end a sentence with.
- Don't use no double negatives.
- And don't start a sentence with a conjunction.

Descriptive grammar: How one actually use the language, describing the patterns of languages in actual use.

Figure: the Difference between Prescriptive and Descriptive grammar

The terms in the title stand for two distinct ways of approaching writing. Prescriptive grammar defines the norms and rules, and represents accepted usage. Descriptive grammar, on the other hand is the language, syntax, and words that are actually used by speakers of a given language.

2   SYNTACTIC CONSTRUCTION- SENTENCES, CLAUSES, AND PHRASES

2.1   THE SENTENCE

A typical linguistic definition of a sentence involves the fact it is the largest unit on which linguistic analysis can be carried out, i.e. it is a grammatical structure made up of a string of organized patterns according to regular rules.

The term sentence has been defined in several ways. Few definitions have been listed below**: "A sentence is a word or set of words followed by a phrase and revealing an intelligible purpose."** (Gardiner, The Theory of Speech and Language, p.98) **"A sentence is a grammatical form which is not in construction with any other grammatical form: constitute which is not a constituent."** (Hockett, A Course in Modern Linguistics, p.199) **"A sentence is an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger**

linguistic form.” (Bloomfield). **“A sentence is an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic unit”** Bloomfield (1933: 170).

A sentence is having at least two main constituents; one is called a subject and the other is called a predicate. The subject is the person or thing that is doing an action, or the person or thing that is the focus of the sentence. Most of the time the subject comes at the beginning of a sentence, in which case it is very easy to identify. The predicate of the sentence is the part that contains the action. It is the part of the sentence that is not the subject, and includes all the descriptions of the action and the objects that are affected by the action. In other terms, a predicate is comment or assertion made about the topic.

It should be noted that a sentence can include words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command or suggestion. Sentences, hence can be divided into four main types listed below:

- ➢ **Declarative/ Assertive sentences** make statements, provides an explanation or conveys one or more facts. For example: I am meeting him next week. You are not the only applicant. We must not forget that day.
- ➢ **Imperative sentences** give orders, make requests and usually have no overt subject. For example:- join your place. Calm down...
- ➢ **Interrogative sentence** is a sentence that asks a question like. For example:- who was there?, Any further queries?.

One hallmark of interrogative sentences is that they begin with pronouns or auxiliary verbs. When this kind of sentence does start with the subject, it's usually in colloquial speech. For example:
- He dit it again?
- She is coming today, right?
- ➢ **Exclamatory sentences**: likewise an interrogative question that ends with a question mark, an exclamatory sentence ends with an exclamation mark

expressing generally heightened emotion strong or sudden feeling used as greetings, warnings. Examples include: oh, how I wish you were here!, How beautiful you are!....

Types of Sentence

1. Assertive or Declarative Sentence.
This sentence relates to facts, thoughts, opinions, and end with a full stop.
Ex. David loves traveling with friends.

2. Imperative Sentence
An Imperative sentence expresses an order, request, command, and suggestion
Ex. Go to the grocery shop.

3. Interrogative Sentence
Interrogative sentence means a sentence that asks a question, and ends with a question mark
Ex. When did he will come to my house?

4. Exclamatory Sentence
A Sentence that expresses some strong, unexpected, and extraordinary emotion
Ex. Please, talk to me now!

www.onlymyenglish.com

2.1.1 TYPES OF SENTENCE BASED ON STRUCTURE

Based on sentence structure, the other way to categorize sentences is to classify them into the following types.

❖ **A simple sentence** is a sentence with one subject and one predicate. " the cat ran away"

❖ **A compound sentence** is made up of at least two simple sentences joined by a coordinating conjunction; in writing, punctuation can substitute for the conjunction. "The cat and the dog ran away." Or "we studied all day for the test; it is time to rest."

- ❖ **<u>An independent clause</u>** is a simple sentence "Start without me."
- ❖ **<u>A dependent clause</u>** has a subject and predicate but cannot stand alone as a simple sentence. It depends on an independent clause to make it complete. "if you come late." / "As soon as you find a flat."
- ❖ **A complex sentence** contains a simple sentence and one or more dependent clauses. "If I come late, start without me."
- ❖ **<u>A compound complex sentence</u>** has two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. "Students were tired, but I didn't keep their teacher from carrying on, because he believed in them."

3   A PHRASE

A phrase is any constituent of a clause. It is commonly named for one of their main elements. In other terms, it may be a string of words that can act as a part of speech as the words of a phrase act together as a single grammatical unit to function in a sentence, but it does not stand alone as a sentence. The length of the phrase can be at least two words. It combines to make some clauses and sentences. According to Osborne et al;

> *"In linguistic analysis, a phrase is a group of words (or possibly a single word) that functions as a constituent in the syntax of a sentence, a single unit within a grammatical hierarchy."- Osborne, Timothy, Michael Putnam, and Thomas Gross.*

> *(2011)*

3.1 TYPES OF PHRASES

Generally, phrases are grouped into eight categories, namely; noun phrases, infinitive phrases, verb phrases, appositive phrases, participial phrases, gerund phrases, absolute phrases, and prepositional phrases.

3.1.1 NOUN PHRASE

A noun phrase (NP) a phrase is called a noun phrase where it consists of a noun (head noun) or a pronoun along with its modifiers. Nouns like people, places, things, animals, or ideas come in a sentence with a single modifier or more modifiers.
 "Jullian mailed a letter.", The deceased person was humble and faithful.

3.1.2 VERB PHRASE

A verb phrase (VP) tells something about the subject. It includes a verb and can include an auxiliary verb, direct or indirect object. English sentence is composed of a least a noun phrase and a verb phrase.
 "He was pleased to have his application approved"
"He was eager to say goodbye to his classmates."

3.1.3 PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

A Prepositional Phrase (PP) is a phrase headed by a preposition. It can function to modify a noun phrase or a verb phrase.

3.1.4 GERUND PHRASE

A gerund phrase is a noun phrase that starts with a verb that acts as a noun. "Getting a good grade was the result of hard work."
Infinitive Phrase It is a noun phrase that starts with an infinitive verb. " to prepare a cake, all the required ingredients should be available."

3.1.5 PARTICIPLE PHRASE

 Participle phrase a participle phrase is a type of verbal phrase that begins with a verb and that verb is either in past participle form or in a present participle form along with a modifier. "Being aware of the current situation, I wish I had never told her the truth."
"Stood on the chair, the young girl was able to see what happened outside through the window."

3.1.6 APPOSITIVE PHRASE

Appositive Phrase an appositive phrase is a phrase that defines and reaffirms a noun. It generally consists of single or multiple words. "My mum, the candle of my life and the source of tenderness is my everything."

3.1.7 ABSOLUTE PHRASE

Absolute phrase is having a subject but no finite verb and modifying the full sentence is referred to as an Absolute phrase.

All in all, and to recapitulate what has been previously stated, it might be crucial to consider the following table:

Eight types of phrases

phrases	sentences
Noun Phrase	The teacher is distributing the exam paper to the students.
Verb Phrase	She has forgotten her car key on the desk.
Prepositional Phrase	The disabled woman was left out of the trip.
Gerund Phrase	Making assignments can be challenging.
	Playing cards on the train is a real fun while travelling
Infinitive Phrase	To donate some charity is a good thing.
Participle Phrase	Painted with a light- green, my old car appears to be new.
Appositive Phrase	My father, the eternal source of love and kindness passed away.
Absolute Phrase	Having the assignment done, I went out for a walk.
	Her presence in the party, we all were screaming with joy

It should be noted that descriptive linguistics is essentially concerned with a formalization of the observable structure of a sentence. It consists of segmenting each sequence of elements of a sentence into its constituent parts and further segments the constituents. Therefore, the structure of the sentence is a linearly arranged sequence of constituents labelled immediate and ultimate constituents.

Immediate constituent analysis is a word or group of words that functions as a single unit within a hierarchical structure. In other words, it attempts to describe the given sentence by dividing first its elements into major constituent parts into groups. These groups are called immediate constituents.

The ultimate constituents are the smallest meaningful units which any given construction can be broken down to, consisting of a morpheme at the morphological level and a word at the syntactic level. (bloomfield, 1933

How   to   Build   Tree   Structure
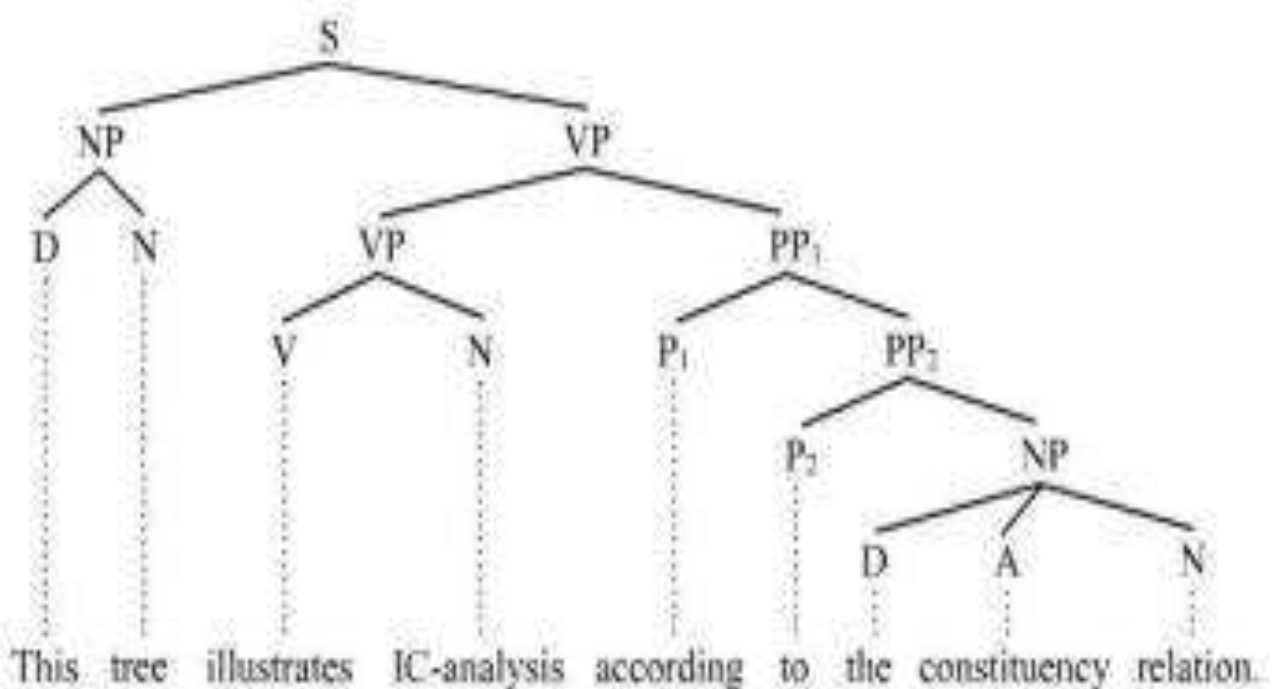
5 SUMMARY

To sum up what has been previously discussed, one may assert that a hierarchical analysis of sentences into their constituent parts allows us to better understand the relationship among them. In this case, Functional grammar relates grammatical categories to the communicative functions which they serve. These functions are seen to operate at different levels of organization in the language. In this line of thought, we can say that words and groups perform different functions at different levels.. Having a better understanding of the functions of different structures in a sentence, helps us develop our grammatical competence which in turn improves the communicative competence of a speaker. Functional grammar hence, is a key to communicative success. "Communicative competence can be defined, in terms of three components, as the ability to use the L2 accurately, appropriately, and flexibly. The first component is grammatical competence which involves the accurate use of words and structures in the L2." (Yule, 2010: 197)

6 PRACTICE: SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS EXERCISES

Exercise N°1: Identify the lexical category of the underlined word in each sentence

1.a. It was a cold and dreary day.

 b. I can't seem to get rid of my cold

2.a. You must dry cilantro leaves before storing

 b. The dry heat of the desert proved to be deadly.

3.a. There has been some improvement in the past week.

 b. In the past, there has not been much improvement.

4.a. That's a promise.

 b. I promise to take you to the zoo tomorrow.

II. **Phrasal Structure**

For each of the following phrases, identify its type, its head, and any specifiers orcomplements. (Remember that every phrase must have a head, but that specifiersand complements are optional.)

	Specifier	Head	Complement	Type
Example: the rat	the	rat	(none)	NP.

- Men
- in the barn
- really mean
- worked at the station
- extremely boring
- that house on the corner
- never walks to the park
- the poem about love
- seldom smiles
- Swept the floor

Exercise N°2

Do a complete analysis of the structure in the following sentences by making a diagram of each or by giving an account of each. You don't need to identify definite ("the") and indefinite ("a"/"an") articles. For an account, you should use the following abbreviations:

- n = noun
- prn = pronoun
- subj = subject
- do = direct object
- io = indirect object
- op = object of preposition
- vb = verb

- pred = predicate

- adj = adjective

- adv = adverb

- prep = preposition

- conj = conjunction

- vbl = verbal (infin, part, ger)

- phr = phrase

- dept cl = dependent clause

- ipt cl = independent clause

1. Little Ms. Muffet sat on the Supreme Court bench.

2. The grey monkey quickly chased the brown weasel around the mulberry bush.

3. I am trying to run slowly, because I know that you are not in shape.

4. When Peter picked a peck of pickled peppers, he was very busy.

Exercise N°3: Do a complete analysis of the structure in the following sentences. Consult the instructions given in Exercise 1. Be sure that you have memorized the definitions of classes and functions of words, phrases, and clauses.

1. After careful consideration of their needs, Jack and Jill went up the hill.

2. The two looked in the well, when they reached the summit.

3. For a reason which is not immediately apparent, the children, Jill and Jack, fell down the hill. Adopted from Elizabeth A. Dobbs (2017) (http://web.grinnell.edu/individuals/

Exercise N°4: Draw the full tree structure of the following sentences:

1. That story, I have not heard before.

2-Jack was ignored and he seemed quite angry.

3 - Did it appear to be safe?

4- Eventually the city was totally destroyed by the invaders.

5- Where did they hope to sleep?

6-Jack who seems much beher now was ill yesterday.

7-Who did you say that your mother believed we would meet?

8-Why did you ask where she had been?

9- The man who they considered dead suddenly returned from a trip to Spain.

10- Why did you say she did that?

11. Those guests should leave.

12. Maria never ate a brownie.

13- That shelf will fall.

14- The glass broke.

15- The student lost the debate.

16- The manager may offer a raise.

Exercise N°5: Mark the grammatical sentences in each set. Determine why the other sentences are not grammatical.

1) **The girl put.**

  - The girl put on the table.
  - The girl put carefully.
  - The girl put the apples on the table.

2) **John slept the bed.**

  - John slept.
  - John slept on the bed.

3) **The children took.**

  - The children took three.
  - The children took three books.
  - Three books took the children.
  -

Exercise N°6: Determine what part of speech each word in the given sentences represents.

1) A woman was injured in the accident and was taken to hospital.

2) If you commit a serious crime, you could be sent to prison.

3) A couple were drinking tea at a table by the window.

4) Susan gave an amused laugh.

5) We got there at about five o'clock.

6) He got into the car quickly and drove off.

7) The tourists left the lake and climbed higher.

8) The girl who came into the room was small and slender.

9) The older men couldn't find a job if they left the village.

10) Stay with me until I go.

Exercise N°7: Draw a tree structure for each phrase and determine the type of phrase.

1) the book

2) a new book

3) very intelligent

4) on the shelf

5) with the new binoculars

6) so stupid

7) ideas

8) the brilliant ideas

Exercise N°8: Indicate cases of coordination and subordination of clauses.

1) The girl who was injured in the accident is now in hospital.

2) She said you took her notes.

3) More and more money is being given to social projects, and it is reasonable to expect that this will become a common practice.

4) I asked if I could borrow his car but he refused.

5) The medicine, which is being tried at several medical institutions, has already helped a number of patients who have failed to respond to other remedies.

6) He was waiting for the girl, who was buying ice cream.

7) The woman who was driving the car was all dressed in black.

8) I try to ignore the noise they make in the kitchen but I simply can't.

9) One passenger was killed and another seriously wounded

Adopted from MASAITIENĖ, D. (2009: 25-27)

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II.   Glossary

Glossary of linguistics

Applied linguistics The application of insights from theoretical linguistics to practical matters such as language teaching, remedial linguistic therapy, language planning or whatever.

Acoustic phonetics: the study of the physical properties of speech as sound waves

arbitrariness An essential notion in structural linguistics which denies any necessary relationship between linguistic signs and their referents, e.g. objects in the outside world.

competence According to Chomsky in his *Aspects of the theory of syntax* (1965) this is the abstract ability of an individual to speak the language which he/she has learned as native language in his/her childhood. The competence of a speaker is unaffected by such factors as nervousness, temporary loss of memory, speech errors, etc. These latter phenomena are entirely within the domain of *performance* which refers to the process of applying one's competence in the act of speaking. Bear in mind that competence also refers to the ability to judge if a sentence is grammatically well-formed; it is an unconscious ability.

context A term referring to the environment in which an element (sound, word, phrase) occurs. The context may determine what elements may be present, in which case one says that there are 'co-occurrence restrictions' for instance 1) /r/ may not occur after /s/ in a syllable in English, e.g. */sri:n/ is not phonotactically permissible in English; 2) the progressive form cannot occur with stative verbs, e.g. *We are knowing German* is not well-formed in English.

contrast A difference between two linguistic items which can be exploited systematically. The distinction between the two forms arises from the fact that these can occupy one and the same slot in a syntagm, i.e. they alternate paradigmatically, e.g. the different inflectional forms of verbs contrast in both English and German. Forms which contrast are called *distinctive*. This can apply to sounds as well, for instance /p/ and /b/ contrast in English as minimal pairs such as *pin* /pɪn/ : *bin* /bɪn/ show.

convention An agreement, usually reached unconsciously by speakers in a community, that relationships are to apply between linguistic items, between these and the outside world or to apply in the use of rules in the grammar of their language.

creativity An accepted feature of human language — deriving from the phenomenon of sentence generation — which accounts for speakers' ability to produce and to understand a theoretically infinite number of sentences.

descriptive An approach to linguistics which is concerned with saying what language is like and not what it should be like (prescriptivism).

diachronic Refers to language viewed over time and contrasts with *synchronic* which refers to a point in time. This is one of the major structural distinctions introduced by Saussure and which is used to characterise types of linguistic investigation.

displacement One of the key characteristics of human language which enables it to refer to situations which are not here and now, e.g. *I studied linguistics in London when I was in my twenties*.

duality of patterning A structural principle of human language whereby larger units consist of smaller building blocks, the number of such blocks being limited but the combinations being almost infinite. For instance all words consist of combinations of a limited number of sounds, say about 40 in either English or German. Equally all sentences consist of structures from a small set with different words occupying different points in the structures allowing for virtually unlimited variety.

formalist An adjective referring to linguistic analyses which lay emphasis on relatively abstract conceptions of language structure.

general linguistics A broad term for investigations which are concerned with the nature of language, procedures of linguistic analysis, etc. without considering to what use these can be put. It contrasts explicitly with *applied linguistics*.

generative A reference to a type of linguistic analysis which relies heavily on the formulation of rules for the exhaustive description (generation) of the sentences of a language.

hierarchy Any order of elements from the most central or basic to the most peripheral, e.g. a hierarchy of word classes in English would include nouns and verbs at the top and elements like adjectives and adverbs further down with conjunctions and subordinators still further down. The notions of top and bottom are intended in a metaphorical sense.

idealisation A situation where the linguist chooses to ignore details of language use for reasons of greater generalisation.

language A system which consists of a set of symbols (sentences) — realised phonetically by sounds — which are used in a regular order to convey a certain meaning. Apart from these formal characteristics, definitions of languages tend to

highlight other aspects such as the fact that language is used regularly by humans and that it has a powerful social function.

lay speaker A general term to refer to an individual who does not possess linguistic training and who can be taken to be largely unaware of the structure of language.

level A reference to a set of recognisible divisions in the structure of natural language. These divisions are largely independent of each other and are characterised by rules and regularities of organisation. Traditionally five levels are recognised: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics. Pragmatics may also be considered as a separate level from semantics. Furthermore levels may have subdivisions as is the case with morphology which falls into inflectional and derivational morphology (the former is concerned with grammatical endings and the latter with processes of word-formation). The term 'level' may also be taken to refer to divisions within syntax in generative grammar.

linguistics The study of language. As a scientific discipline built on objective principles, linguistics did not develop until the beginning of the 19th century. The approach then was historical as linguists were mainly concerned with the reconstruction of the Indo-European language. With the advent of structuralism at the beginning of the 20th century, it became oriented towards viewing language at one point in time. The middle of this century saw a radically new approach — known as generative grammar — which stressed our unconscious knowledge of language and underlying structures to be found in all languages.

linguistic determinism Refers to the view, propounded by Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf, that language determines the way in which people think. Also termed the *linguistic relativity hypothesis.*

metalanguage The language which is used to discuss language; see also *object language.*

paradigm The set of forms belonging to a particular word-class or member of a word-class. A paradigm can be thought of as a vertical list of forms which can occupy a slot in a syntagm. Pronounced [ˈpærədaim].

parameter Any aspect of language which can obtain a specific value in a given language, e.g. canonical word-order which can have the verb in a declarative sentence either before the subject, after the subject or after both subject and object. Contrast *principle* in this respect.

performance The actual production of language as opposed to the knowledge about the structure of one's native language which a speaker has internalised during childhood (*see* Competence).

productivity A reference to the extent that a given process is *not* bound in its application to a certain input. For instance the prefixation of *re-* to verbs in modern English is productive because this can be done with practically all verbs, e.g. *re-think*, *re-do*, *re-write*. The term also refers — in syntax — to the ability of speakers to produce an unlimited number of sentences using a limited set of structures.

psychological reality The extent to which the constructs of linguistic theory can be taken to have a basis in the human mind, i.e. to somehow be reflected in human cognitive structures. Many linguists are divided on this issue, one extreme claiming that this requirement of a theory is not necessary, other saying that it is the ultimate test of any respectable theory.

reflexiveness The possibility of using language to talk about language; this is one of its delimiting characteristics with respect to other communication systems.

rhetoric The technique of speaking effectively in public. Regarded in the past as an art and cultivated deliberately.

root 1) In grammar the unalterable core of a word to which all suffixes are added, e.g. *friend* in *un-friend-li-ness*. 2) In etymology, the earliest form of a word. 3) In phonetics, the part of the tongue which lies furthest back in the mouth.

Sapir-Whorf hypothesis The notion that thought is determined by language. While few linguists nowadays accept this strict link, there would seem to be some truth to the postulation of the two American anthropologists/linguists.

sign language A communication system in which people use their hands to convey signals. In recent years sign language has been the object of linguists' attention and has come to be regarded as a fully-fledged system comparable to natural language with those individuals who are congenitally deaf and who learn sign language from childhood.

structuralism A type of linguistic analysis which stresses the interrelatedness of all levels and sub-levels of language. It was introduced at the beginning of the century by Ferdinand de Saussure (1957-1913) as a deliberate reaction to the historically oriented linguistics of the 19th century and subsequently established itself as the standard paradigm until the 1950's when it was joined, if not replaced, by generative grammar.

synchronic A reference to one point of time in a language. This may be the present but need not be. Forms a dichotomy with *diachronic*. Structural studies of language are usually synchronic and the Indo-Europeanists of the 19th century were diachronic in their approach.

taxonomic A reference to linguistics in which the main aim is to list and classify features and phenomena. It is usually implied that no attempt for linguistic generalisations is made.

theoretical linguistics The study of the structure of language without any concern for practical applications which might arise from one's work.

Phonetics and phonology

Phonetics is the study of human sounds. *Phonology* is the study of the sound system of a language or languages.

allophone The realisation of a phoneme. Each segment has different realisations which are only partly distinguishable for speakers. A phoneme can have different allophones, frequently depending on position in the word or on a preceding vowel, e.g. [l] and [ɫ] in English (at the beginning and end of a word respectively) or [ç] and [x] in German (depending on whether the preceding vowel is front or not). Allophones are written in square brackets.

alphabet A system of letters intended to represent the sounds of a language in writing. For all west European languages the Latin alphabet has been the outset for their writing systems. However, because each language has a different sound system different combinations of letters have arisen and letters have come to be written with additional symbols attached to them..

articulatory phonetics One of three standard divisions of phonetics which concerns itself with the production of sounds (compare acoustic and auditive phonetics).

auditory phonetics One of the three standard divisions of phonetics which is concerned with the perception of sounds.

fricative A type of sound which is characterised by air passing a constriction somewhere between the glottis and the lips, e.g. [x, s, ʃ, f]. Turbulence arises when air flows through a narrow gap and it is this which causes the noise typical of fricatives. Fricatives can be voiced or voiceless. The equivalent term *spirant* is sometimes found.

glide A sound which from the point of view of phonological classification lies between a vowel and a consonant, e.g. /j/ and /w/ in English. It is formed with little friction and has a high degree of sonority which accounts for why glides are found near the nucleus of syllables. Sometimes called a semi-vowel.

glottal A term referring to sounds produced at the gap in the vocal folds. Such sounds can either be stops [ʔ] or fricatives [h, ɦ] — voiceless and voiced respectively.

homophone Any set of words pronounced the same way, e.g. English *poor* and *pour* /pɔː/ (Received Pronunciation) and German *Ferse* and *Verse*.

homorganic Any set of sounds which are articulated at the same point in the vocal tract, e.g. the sounds in the syllable-coda of *mind* /maind/ both of which are alveolar.

intonation That part of the sound system of a language which involves the use of pitch to convey information. It consists of both accent (concerns individual words) and sentence melody (concerns word groups).

IPA A system of transcribing the sounds of languages which consists of some Latin and Greek letters and a variety of additional symbols and diacritics. The goal is to represent each recognisable sound in a unique fashion. The IPA was developed at the end of the last century; the acronym stands for *International Phonetic Alphabet*.

manner of articulation One of the three conventional parameters (the others are place of articulation and voice) which are used to specific how a sound is produced. Common types are plosives, fricatives and affricates.

minimal pair Any two words which are only distinguished by different sounds in a single position. Such word pairs are used in traditional phonology to determine the status of sounds as phonemes, e.g. German *Kunst # Gunst* and English *railing # sailing* which show that the initial sounds in all these words are phonemes in the respective languages. Note that the spelling of minimal pairs is irrelevant..

onomatopoeia The putative imitation of a natural phenomenon (for instance bird song) by phonetic means. Contrary to the opinion of many speakers, onomatopoeia is not a major principle in historical phonology.

optional A term which refers to allophonic processes which do not necessarily have to be carried out, cf. the shortening of high vowels before nasals as in Received Pronunciation *room* /ru:m/ > /rum/ or *been* /bi:n/ > /bɪn/; in general terms any process which is not obligatory.

oral Articulated in the mouth. The term usually implies that the nasal cavity is not involved, e.g. in French there are distinct oral and nasal vowels.

organs of speech Parts of the human anatomy which are used in speech production, e.g the glottis, velum, palate, alveolar ridge, lips and the tongue of course. From an evolutionary point of view one can see that these functions are secondary adaptation

phoneme In traditional phonology the smallest unit in language which disinguishes meaning, e.g /k/ and /g/ as seen in *coat* and *goat*. Each phoneme has one or more realisations, called allophones.

phonemics The study of phonemes in language, their distribution, status and interrelationships.

phonetic A reference to a phenomenon in the area of phonetics (often as opposed to phonology).

phonetics The study of human sounds without immediate regard to their systematic status for a certain language.

phonological A reference to the phonology of a language, i.e. to the deeper and more abstract organisation of the sounds of a language. A language's phonology is its inventory of phonemes and the rules for their combination, distribution, etc.; in short all the 'grammatical' or structural aspects of the sound level. In a wider sense, phonology could be said to subsume phonetics as its 'surface' aspect.

phonology The study of the sound system of one or more languages. Phonology involves the classification of sounds and a description of the interrelationship of the elements on a systematic level.

speech The production of sounds using the organs of speech; contrasts directly with writing which is a secondary medium for communication via language.

stop A consonant which is formed by blocking off the airstream completely, e.g. /p, t, k/. It contrasts directly with a fricative which does not involve an interruption of the airstream.

stress The acoustic prominence of a syllable in a word. The physical correlates of stress can vary. Typically it involves the raising of the basic frequency and/or of volume matched by a prolongation of the syllable involved.

structure A network of connections between elements of a system, for instance syllable structure is the set of relations which exist between parts of a syllable.

suprasegmental A reference to phenomena which do not belong to the sound segments of language but which typically are spread over several segments, e.g. intonation, stress, tempo, etc.

syllable The most important structural unit in phonology. A syllable consists of a series of sounds which are grouped around a nucleus of acoustic prominence (usually a vowel). A closed syllable is one which has a coda, an open syllable has a codaless rhyme: *got* /gɒt/ versus *go* /gəʊ/.

syntagmatic A reference to the linear (or temporal) sequence of elements which contrasts directly with the vertical axis — the paradigmatic axis.

tongue The most frequently used active articulator in all languages. The tongue can be divided into the following areas: the tip (Latin *apex*), blade (Latin *lamina*), back (Latin *dorsum*). The distinction between tip and blade is important for the production of dental and alveolar sounds. The tongue may also show a groove, for instance with palato-alveolar fricatives such as /ʃ, ʒ/. The tip can be made to roll in the escaping airstream as is the case with the apical rolled /r/ of many Romance languages and in

many southern varieties of German. The root of the tongue can be retracted in order to achieve a constriction of the larynx as with the so-called 'emphatic' sounds of Arabic.

transcription A system of representing sounds in writing unambiguously. For phonological purposes a broad transcription is sufficient as long as the systemic distinctions in the particular language can be recognised. A narrow transcription is more typical of phonetics and may also be necessary in phonology where a feature relies on a phonetic basis which has to be specified. In English it is sufficient to transcribe /r/ as [r], although a narrow transcription would demand [ɹ] as strictly speaking [r] refers to an apical trill as in Spanish *perro* [pero] 'dog".

voiced Spoken with simultaneous vibration of the vocal folds.

voiceless Spoken without the vocal folds vibrating; the folds can either be open (the normal state) or closed with the compression of air between them and the supra-glottal stop position producing sounds which are called *ejectives*.

Morphology

Morphology is the study of the words as they express grammatical categories.

allomorph A non-distinctive variant of a morpheme, e.g. *-keit* and *-heit* in German (*Heiterkeit*, *Schönheit*) which vary according to the final consonant of the base to which they are suffixed but share the same grammatical function of nominal derivation.

bound In a general sense any form which cannot occur on its own. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes may be bound, but the number of the former is very limited, e.g. the first part of *raspberry* in English which does not occur independently.

case An inflection which indicates the relationship of a noun to other elements in a sentence, e.g. the dative in German which broadly indicates the beneficiary of an action: *Sie hat ihm versprochen*, *nach Hause zu kommen*. There are, however, many instances in which case requirements are not semantically motivated, e.g. *gratulieren*, *imponieren* with the dative as opposed to *beglückwünschen*, *beeindrucken* with the accusative.

closed class A term which refers to any linguistic level whose elements form a relatively small number which is not altered by the individual speaker. For instance phonemes, grammatical morphemes and syntactic structures are a closed set but the lexicon is definitely an open class as it is continuously expanding.

definite article A grammatical word which marks a following noun for definiteness. Not every language has such an element, though it is more common for the indefinite article to be missing. Languages furthermore vary according to whether they demand the definite article when nouns are used generically. This is a major difference

between English and German, cf. *He is interested in philosophy. Er interessiert sich für die Philosophie.*

function word A word which serves the purpose of indicating a grammatical category or relationship. It contrasts explicitly with a content word which has lexical meaning.

inflection An alteration made to a word to indicate a certain grammatical category, e.g. number and case with nouns or person, number and tense with verbs. The number of inflections in a language can be taken as an indication of its type, a large number being characteristic of synthetic languages. Diachronically inflections arise from clitics which become unseparable from the lexical bases to which they are attached.

irregular A form which can be regarded as an exception to a given pattern or rule, e.g. the plurals formed with a stem vowel change in Modern English, *man* : *men*, *tooth* : *teeth*.

morph Any item of language which cannot be broken down any further without a loss of meaning. A morph usually realises a morpheme, the unit of grammar on an abstract level, e.g. /ʌn/ in *undoable* but also /ɪm/ in *impossible*.

morpheme The smallest unit in a grammar which can contrast with another and which carries meaning. A morpheme can be an inflection, e.g. /riː-/ in *rewrite* or a lexical word, *house*, *tree*, *sick*. A morpheme is an abstract unit and is realised by a morph; it is the approximate equivalent of a phoneme on the level of phonology.

morphology The level of linguistics which is concerned with the structure of words, both from the point of view of inflections and of word-formation. It is traditionally located between phonology (the level of sounds) and syntax (the level of sentences).

noun One of the major parts of speech which refers to objects in the non-linguistic world or to notions which are regarded as forming entities parallel to real-world objects, e.g. by showing the property of countability.

number A grammatical category which refers to quantity, usually along a binary axis, singular vs. plural, although some languages have other number distinctions involving a dual or a paucal category (referring to a few items).

person A grammatical distinction which applies to the speaker, addressee or person talked about in verbal systems. Normally there is a distinction between singular and plural as well. There are more distinctions available than just those found in European languages, for instance languages may distinguish between a personal form for 'we' which includes the addressee and one which does not.

personal pronoun A grammatical form which refers to the speaker, addressee or person talked about and which occupies a position immediately next to the verb. In discourse it is used to avoid repetition of a name which has already been mentioned.

plural A category in the grammar of all languages which refers to more than one object. All languages have a particular means for expressing this category, frequently by using a characteristic inflection.

pronoun A grammatical element which refers to a noun previously mentioned; as such it has a deictic or anaphoric function as in *The lecturer was here and he spoke to us on a special topic*.

singular A grammatical category which indicates a single occurrence of something. This is taken as the unmarked or normal instance in language, the plural, or even more so the dual, being marked forms, usually with special inflections characterising them.

stem A part of a word to which prefixes and/or suffixes can be added. It is normally unalterable, though some morphological processes, such as umlaut in German, may change it. It is usually used synonymously with *root*.

suffix Any element attached to the right- hand side of a stem. Suffixation in one of the major operations in morphology and is undertaken to indicate grammatical categories as in *stone* : *stone-s* where the *-s* is a plural marker suffix.

suppletion A form in a paradigm (a set of morphologically related elements, such as the forms of a verb or noun) which etymologically comes from another source, e.g. the past tense form *went* in English is not formally related to the verb *go.*

verb One of the two major lexical categories — the other is that of nouns — which is used to express a state or an action. The set of inflectional forms of a verb is termed a *conjugation* (parallel to *declension* with nouns). Verbs are usually distinguished for person and number along with tense and mood and frequently for aspect as well.

word class A group of words which are similar in their grammatical characteristics: the kinds of inflections they take, their distribution in sentences and the relations they enter with other sets of words. Typically word classes are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions.

word A general term for a morphological form which is internally stable, can stand on its own and which in principle can be moved to a new position in a sentence. In a synthetic language like German inflected words tend to be morphologically complex whereas in an analytic language like English these are usually simpler in structure.

compound A term from derivational morphology, i.e. a lexicological term, which refers to a word which contains more than one lexical morpheme. This word is thus a new word which is gained by combining two or more morphologically simpler words, e.g. *girlfriend* from *girl* and *friend*, *teabreak* from *tea* and *break*.   The   term   is occasionally used in syntax, as in 'a compound sentence', when referring to a sentence which consists of clauses which in turn could function as sentences on their own.

conversion The use of an item of one class in another without any formal change, e.g. *to breakfast* from *breakfast*. Conversion is a common feature of analytical languages such as English.

lexeme The smallest (abstract) unit which is recognised as semantically independent in the lexicon of a language. A lexeme subsumes a set of forms which are related semantically, e.g. the lexeme walk unites the various forms *walk*, *walks*, *walked*, *walking*.

type A reference to a unique word in a text, e.g. there are 6 types — but 8 tokens — in the following sentence: *The young girl spoke to the older girl* because the words *the* and *girl* occur twice.

vocabulary The set of words in a language. These are usually grouped into word fields so that the vocabulary can be said to show an internal structure. The term *lexicon* is also found here but the latter has two meanings (the words of a language and one's mental storehouse for these words).

word formation The second main branch of morphology (the other being inflection) and the chief process in lexicology (the study of the vocabulary of a language). Word formational processes are closely connected to a language's type: German as a synthetic language has much compounding but English as an analytic language has somewhat less, though in this sphere a tendency towards complex formations is noticeable, e.g. *part-financed*, *low-intensity*, *small-scale*.

accusative In an inflectional language the formal marking of the direct object of a verb. A similar marking may be used after prepositions. As a term from traditional Latin grammar the term is inappropriate to modern English as the latter does not have any corresponding inflection.

active A reference to a type of sentence in which the semantic subject is also the formal subject; contrasts with passive in which this is not the case. This type is generally taken as more basic than a passive sentence.

adjective A word class which generally qualifies a noun. Because of this adjectives are found either before (in SVO languages) or after (in VSO languages) the noun they refer to. Adjectives in this position are termed 'attributive' while those placed after a copula are called 'predicative' as in *The snow is very dry*. Adjectives can themselves be qualified by adverbs (as in the example just given).

adverb A word class which encompasses those elements which qualify verbs/verb phrases (*She smiled slyly*) or nouns/noun phrases (*A remarkably good linguist*). The category is somewhat fuzzy and tends to be used as a bin for elements which cannot be assigned unequivocally to another word class. Some adverbs can qualify a clause or an entire sentence as in *Surprisingly, John left for home*.

clause A syntactical unit which is smaller than a sentence. There are basically two types, main clauses and subordinate clauses, which are joined by certain grammatical words such as conjunctions or subordinators.

constituent Any unit which is part of a larger one. This can be a recognisable part of a word as with lexical compounds or it can be a phrase in a sentence as indicated in tree representations in phrase structure grammar.

declarative A type of sentence which makes a positive statement rather than negating a statement or asking a question. Taken as the basic type of sentence.

deep structure A level in grammar — specifically syntax — in which ambiguities in structure do not exist and in which the semantic interpretation of a sentence is clear. Contrast surface structure.

dependent Any linguistic element which requires the presence of another in a structure or whose form is determined by another element or a grammatical category, for instance the form of the definite article in German which depends on the gender, number and case of the noun it co-occurs with.

determiner A linguistic item, such as an article, a pronoun or a numeral, which co-occurs with a noun and in some way qualifies — or determines — the noun. This is a cover term for articles, demonstrative and possessive pronouns.

direct object An item in a sentence which indicates the object or being which is immediately affected by the action of the verb, e.g. *He bought the book*; *She kissed the boy*.

gender A feature of many synthetic languages such as German and Latin which group words — nouns and their determiners (articles, pronouns, adjectives) — according to different formal classes. In the Indo-European context these have the traditional names masculine, feminine, neuter, ultimately because of the connection with the sex of humans and animals — though this is not decisive for the gender system.

generative linguistics The main school of linguistics today which assumes that speakers' knowledge of language is largely unconscious and essentially rule-governed. The models used by these linguists are intended to generate, i.e. properly describe, how deep structures are mapped onto actual sentences.

grammar A level of linguistics which is concerned with the manner in which words combine together structurally to form sentences. In this sense grammar is a descriptive phenomenon. It can also be used to refer to speakers' knowledge of how to produce well-formed sentences in which case it is an ability, it is speakers' competence in the generative sense.

grammatical A term which refers to whether a sentence, phrase or form is judged by native speakers to be well-formed in their language. Note carefully that *grammatical* and *correct* are two different terms. The latter refers to whether structures or words are deemed right in some externally imposed and putatively absolute sense. A structure or word is deemed grammatical if the majority of speakers accept it and use it in this form. Many so-called 'correct' forms are not in fact used by speakers, e.g. the inflected form *whom* as an accusative relative pronoun which has long since been abandoned in spoken English.

indicative A factual mood which is used to make statements rather than issue commands (imperative) or make uncertain, hypothetical statements (subjunctive).

indirect object An item in a sentence which accompanies the direct object and which frequently denotes the person affected by an action and as such is always animate. This is a semantic definition. Formally the indirect object may be an accusative as in German *Sie lehrte ihn eine neue Sprache*. In English there is only one pronominal form for both direct and indirect object, the latter being indicated by its position before the former or by a directional preposition like *to*: *She wrote a letter to her cousin*; *She gave him the book*.

mood A division in the verbal area which refers to whether the action of the verb represents a fact, a wish, a possibility, necessity or a command.

negation In a very general sense the process of denying something. There are many means of saying that something is not the case and most languages reflect this fact in their modes of expression for negation. The Indo-European languages have negation particles beginning in /n-/ which are normally positioned adjacent to the verb to negate it, *Er kam nicht; He didn't come*. In addition there are usually means of negating an entire sentence *Not all the students took their exams in June*. Furthermore, languages have means of augmenting negation, by special adverbs or by doubling the negation particles: *He definitely won't stay; He don't do no work for no-one* (non-standard).

nominative A case which indicates the subject of a sentence and the obligatory complement of a verb. It is usually taken to be neutral or basic and is used for the citation form of a noun.

noun phrase Any part of a sentence which has a noun as its head. It can range from a single noun to a complex phrase. In behaviour and distribution it is similar to a noun.

part of speech Any set of words which form a grammatical group, i.e. which can indicate the same categories or relations, e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs, prepositions.

participle A non-finite form of the verb which in most Indo-European languages is used to express participation in an action, e.g. with the present participle as in *He is writing a new book*, or to show that an action has been completed, e.g. with the past

participle as in *He has written a new book*. Participles can also appear in attributive form as adjectives, e.g. *A crying baby*, *A written message*.

passive A mood, present in Indo-European languages, and which serves to avoid indicating the subject of a verb and which highlights the object, e.g. *The book was stolen* (*by a young student*). Passive sentences are taken to be semantically identical with active ones and are derived from the latter by transformation in generative grammar.

past tense A tense which points backwards in time, i.e. which refers to the past viewed from the time at which an utterance is spoken. There may be varying time depths which receive expression in a language, such as the pluperfect in English which indicates that one action took place before another as in *She had eaten before he arrived*.

perfect The simple past tense which does not refer to great time depth (*see* Pluperfect) and which may in English express relevance of the action to the present, e.g. *I have spoken to the boss* (present perfect).

phrase Any group of words which are taken to be less than a sentence, e.g. by lacking a finite verb, but which are regarded as forming a unit grammatically.

phrase-structure grammar A type of primitive generative grammar which offers an analysis of sentences by showing the structure which lies behind them, usually with the help of tree diagrams.

pluperfect A form of verbs found in many Indo-European languages and which expresses an action which is in the remote past; those languages which possess such a tense also have a simple tense which is understood to refer to a time closer to the present.

predicative A reference to an adjective which occurs after a form of the copula *be* instead of before the noun it qualifies. Some adjectives can only occur in this position, e.g. *The girl is awake* but **The awake girl* is ungrammatical.

preposition A grammatical word which occurs in conjunction with a noun or phrase and which expresses the relation it has to other elements in a sentence. In an analytic language like English prepositions play a central role in the grammar.

prepositional phrase A part of a sentence which consists of a noun phrase preceded by a preposition and which functions in its entirety as a complement to a verb, e.g. *She cut the cake with a knife*.

principles and parameters model [linguistic theory] A model of generative linguistics which assumes that everyone is born with an unconscious knowledge of what constitutes a basic language, i.e. what essential *principles* it embodies. The

term *parameters* alludes to those sections of language structure which receive special values (within a given spectrum) from the particular language acquired by speakers in early childhood.

sentence The basic unit of syntax. A structural unit which contains at least a subject and a verb possibly with other complements and which may occur with subordinate elements (in relative clauses) or which may be concatenated with other sentences.

subject The consituent of a clause which is the primary complement of the verb and about which something is said, e.g. *speaker* in the sentence *The speaker was nervous*.

subordination A general reference to a relationship of dependence between two elements, units or phrases, for instance, a subordinate clause is one which is dependent on a main clause which it usually follows *He said that she was tired*.

surface structure The form in which a sentence actually appears in speech; contrast this with *deep structure*.

syntagm Any set of elements which can be strung together as a linear sequence, i.e. as a syntactic unit (phrase or sentence).

syntax The investigation of the possible combinations of words in a language. The basic unit of syntax is the sentence which minimally consists of a verb and a subject and maximally of a string of clauses, possibly in a specific relationship to each other. As it is concerned with whole words, syntax is above morphology which examines the internal structure of words. Like other levels of language, syntax is governed by rules of well-formedness which specify which combinations are permissible and which not. It is the task of a syntactic theory (of which there are many) to determine these rules.

tense 1) A reference to the point in time at which an action takes place from the stance of the speaker. Three common tenses which are frequently formally marked on verbs are past, future and present with the latter normally being the unmarked case. Languages may also have further divisions such as a remote past or a distant future and may use additional verbal elements, such as modals, to indicate these secondary tenses.

tree diagram A method of representing the structure of a sentence — or occasionally a compound — so that the internal hierarchical organisation is evident. Such structures can be equally well represented using bracketing but this is not as effective visually.

transformation [applications] In early versions of generative grammar this was a type of operation which showed a formal link between two types of sentence with more or less identical meaning, e.g. between active or passive sentences. A second usage was in the process of derivation, i.e. when moving from deep to surface structure. Here many linguists assumed that various transformations were necessary. The number of

these has been greatly reduced so that present-day generative grammar believes that only one transformation is required, given the general form 'move alpha'.

word order The arrangement of words in a linear sequence in a sentence. There is normally an unmarked, a so-called 'canonical', word order in a language — such as SVO in English, VSO in Irish, SOV in Turkish — but usually alternative word orders exist, particularly to allow for emphasis in a sentence such as the fronting of sentence elements for the purpose of topicalisation.

Sociolinguistics *Sociolinguistics* is the study of how language is used in society.

accent 1) Strictly speaking this refers to the pronunciation of a dialect, i.e. it is a reference to the collection of phonetic features which allow a speaker to be identified regionally or socially. It is frequently used to indicate that a given speaker does not speak the standard form of a language. The term is used in German to refer to grammatical features as well. 2) The stress placed on a syllable of a word or the type of stress used by a language (pressure or pitch).

bilingualism The ability to speak two languages with native-like competence. In every individual case one language will be dominant. Lay people often use the term if someone can simply speak a second language well.

code switching Moving from one language to another within a single sentence or phrase. This is a phenomenon found among bilinguals who feel it is appropriate to change languages (or dialects in some cases) — perhaps to say something which can only be said in the language switched to. Code-switching is governed by fairly strict rules concerning the points in a sentence at which one can change over.

correctness An extra-linguistic notion, usually deriving from institutions in society like a language academy or a major publishing house, which attempts to lay down rigid rules for language use, especially in written form. Notions of correctness show a high degree of arbitrariness and are based on somewhat conservative usage, intended to maintain an unchanging standard in a language — a complete fiction.

dialect A traditional term referring to a variety of a language spoken in a certain place. There are urban and rural dialects. The boundaries between dialects are always gradual. The term *dialect* is used to denote a geographically distinct variety of a language. Two major points in this connection should be noted: 1) 'dialect' does not refer to the social or temporal aspect of language and 2) the term 'dialect' makes no reference to the standard variety of a language. In connection with the latter point it is important to stress that the standard of a language is nothing more than a dialect which achieved special political and social status at some stage in the past and which has been extensively codified orthographically.

idiolect The language of an individual as opposed to that of a group.

interference The transfer of certain phenomena from one language to another where they are not considered grammatical. This may happen on an individual level (during second language learning, for example) or collectively in which case it often leads to language change.

langue A term used by Saussure to refer to the collective knowledge of a community of the language spoken by its members.

parole A term deriving from Ferdinand de Saussure and which refers to language as it is spoken, contrast this with *langue*.

register A style level in a language. When we speak we automatically locate ourselves on a specific stylistic level. This can vary depending on the situation in which we find ourselves. For example when talking to the postman one would most likely use a different register than when one is holding a public address.

sociolect A variety of a language which is typical of a certain class. Sociolects are most common in urban areas. In history, sociolects may play a role, e.g. in the formation of the English standard, Received Pronunciation, which derives from a city dialect (that of London in the late Middle Ages) but which has long since become a sociolect (Cockney being the dialect of London nowadays).

sociolinguistics The study of the use of language in society. Although some writers on language had recognised the importance of social factors in linguistic behaviour it was not until the 1960's with the seminal work of Labov that the attention of large numbers of linguists was focussed on language use in a social context. In particular the successful explanation of many instances of language change helped to establish sociolinguistics as an independent sub-discipline in linguistics and led to a great impetus for research in this area.

speech community Any identifiable and delimitable group of speakers who use a more or less unified type of language.

standard A variety of a language which by virtue of historical accident has become the leading form of the language in a certain country. As a result of this, the standard may be expanded due to the increase in function which it experiences due to its position in society. There is nothing inherently superior about a standard although nearly all speakers of a community accept that it has highest prestige.

variety A term used to refer to any variant of a language which can be sufficiently delimited from another variant. The grounds for such differentiation may be social, historical, spatial or a combination of these. The necessity for a neutral term such as *variety* arose from the loaded use of the term *dialect*: this was not only used in the sense defined above, but also with the implication that the linguistically most interesting varieties of a language are those spoken by the older rural population. This view is understandable given the origin of dialectology in the 19th century, that is in

the heyday of historical linguistics. Nowadays, sociolinguistic attitudes are prevalent and the need for a term which can include the linguistic investigation of urban populations from a social point of view became evident.

vernacular The indigenous language or dialect of a community. This is an English term which refers to purely spoken forms of a language.

Applied linguistics

Applied linguistics studies the uses to which linguistic insights can be put, especially in second language teaching.

conversation analysis The techniques for examining and structuring conversations or any type of social interaction which involves spoken language.

corpus Any structured and principled collection of data from a particular language — usually in electronic form, i.e. on disk — which has been compiled for the purpose of subsequent analysis. The number of corpora available has increased greatly since the spread of the personal computer in the 1980's. The most famous corpus for historical forms of English is the *Helsinki Corpus of English*.

dictionary A reference work which offers varied information — usually arranged in alphabetical order — about words in a language, such as their spelling, pronunciation, meaning and possibly historical origins, additional shades of meaning, typical combinations (collocations) and status vis à vis the standard of the language concerned.

discourse analysis The investigation of the structure and patterning of discourse (human speech). It contrasts explicitly with analyses of written language or of contrived examples in linguistic works.

second language teaching This is probably the main area of applied linguistics. There are many views on how a second language is *learned*, above all in comparison with the relative perfection of first language *acquisition*. Research here tends to concentrate on developing models to explain the process and ideally they should be applied to the actually teaching of foreign languages to improve results.

textlinguistics The investigation of the structure and style of texts, of pieces of language which consist of more than a single sentence.

Language change

Language change is the investigation of the manner in which languages change their structure over time.

borrowing The act of adopting some aspect of one language into another. It may be lexical (the most obvious and common type of borrowing) but also syntactic, morphological or phonological. The latter types of borrowing require that some section of the population be in direct contact with the second language. Lexical borrowing can be due to written influence as with the English loanwords in Modern German yielding so-called 'cultural borrowings'. Borrowing is one of the chief means of expanding the vocabulary of a language.

comparative method The method used in comparative philology. The technique involves comparing cognate forms from genetically related languages (such as those of the Indo-European family) with a view to reconstructing the proto-language from which all others can be taken to have derived. Such a method must take regular sound changes and later analogy into account. This allows one to link up forms which are superficially different but which can be traced back to a single form, itself usually non-attested. For instance English *heart*, German *Herz*, Latin *cordia*, Greek *kardios* can be shown to derive regularly from an Indo-European root **kerd.*

contact A term which refers to a situation in which speakers of two languages or varieties are continually in contact with each other, either due to geographical or social closeness or both. The mutual influence which results from such contact can and does

family tree A model of language development common in the last century (the term derives from August Schleicher) which sees languages as splitting further in a manner reminiscent of genetic relationships. A major alternative to this was the *wave model* of Johannes Schmidt (1870).

family A group of languages that can be shown to stem from a single proto-language by a process of splitting at various points in the latter's history.

genetic classification The arrangement of languages into groups on the basis of their historically recognisable relationships and not going on any similarity in structure.

grammaticalisation This is an historical process in language which refers to a change in status from lexical to grammatical for certain elements, frequently due to semantic bleaching (loss of lexical meaning). For instance the (archaic) adverb/adjective *whilom* 'formerly, erstwhile' derives from a dative plural of the Old English word *hwīlom* 'at times' which was with time not felt to be an inflected noun but a different word class, an adverb or adjective.

historical linguistics The study of how languages develop over time as opposed to viewing them at a single point in time. The major direction in linguistics up until the advent of structuralism at the beginning of the 20th century.

internal reconstruction One of the two major procedures of historical linguistics in which evidence from the internal development of a language is used in reconstructing

earlier stages of the language. It contrasts explicitly with the comparative method which relies on evidence from related languages.

language change A process by which developments in a language are introduced and established. Language change is continual in every language and it is largely regular. However, the rate of language change is different among different languages. It depends on a number of factors, not least on the amount of contact and informational exchange with other linguistic communities on the one hand (this tends to further change) and the degree of standardisation and universal education in the speech community on the other hand (this tends to hamper change).

language contact A situation in which speakers of two languages intermingle. The causes of this range from invasion and deportation to voluntary emigration to a new country. The results of this intermingling depend on external factors such as the relative status of the two linguistic groups and on internal factors such as the typological similarity of the languages involved, i.e. whether their grammatical structures are comparable or not.

language death The process by which a language ceases to exist. It is characterised by the switch over to some other language which surrounds the dying language and which is a superstratum to it, e.g. English vis à vis Manx on the Isle of Man in the middle of the present century.

metonymy A type of semantic change in which a single aspect of a meaning or an attribute is used for the entire phenomenon, e.g. *Whitehall* for the English parliament, *Paris* for the French government, *The White House* for the American administration.

reconstruction A technique for determining earlier forms of a language. This is achieved by analysing and comparing early attestations (first texts) in one or more languages.

superstrate A variety of a language which enjoys a position of power and/or prestige compared to another. It may be a standard form of a language or a different language from that found natively in a specific country or region.

Language typology

Language typology is the study of the synchronic structure of languages for the purpose of classifying them according to recurring patterns and regularities.

analytic A term used for a language which tends to use free morphemes to indicate grammatical categories. Examples are Modern English and French to a certain extent. Other languages, such as Chinese or Vietnamese, are very clearly analytic and approach a relationship of one word per morpheme.

cross-linguistic Refers to phenomena which occur in several different languages or in investigations which draw on data from diverse languages.

isolating language A language type where individual words do not vary in form and where grammatical categories and relations are indicated by separate words and/or by word-order. English is fairly isolating; Chinese much more so.

linguistic area A part of the world in which several genetically unrelated languages are spoken but which nonetheless show structural similarities. Such areas usually form an approximate geographical unit, e.g. the Balkans, the Caucasus, perhaps the eastern Baltic Sea region. The term is a translation of German *Sprachbund*, lit. 'language federation'.

linguistic universals A postulated set of linguistic features which are common to all languages and which ultimately derive from our psychological make-up and our perception of the world, e.g. the existence of subject, predicate, object or first, second and third pronouns in all languages.

polysynthetic A reference to a language which has large complex words in which several grammatical categories are fused together. *See* Incorporating.

synthetic A language which is characterised by an extensive inflectional morphology, e.g. Latin and Modern German. This type contrasts with analytic and can be taken to have developed historically from the latter through centuries of change during which words fused together to give compound forms. For this reason new languages, like pidgins and creoles, are never synthetic in type.

typology The description of the grammatical structure of language independently of genetic relationships. There are many commonalities between languages which result from morphological principles so that this view of language structure is just as valid as an historical consideration. Furthermore, languages which occupy a geographically delimited area, for instance the Balkans, may come to share structural properties, irrespective of historical background or genetic affiliation.

typological classification The ordering of language on the basis of shared grammatical structure rather than on historical or genetic grounds.

universal Any feature or property which holds for all languages. These are few and far between though near-universals, i.e. those which are good for the vast majority of languages, are more common and often more interesting in the insights which they lead to concerning the nature of human language in general.

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