

LINGUISTICS: SECOND YEAR CLASSES OF ENGLISH

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- Teaching English language courses at university since 2006
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 - Grammar
 - Oral expression
 - Written expression
 - Phonetics
 - Culture
 - Research methodology
 - British civilization
 - Syllabus design
 - Linguistics

COURSE DESCRIPTION

This course presents details about theories and approaches to modern linguistics that were flourished in the 20th century, led by F. De Saussure, L. Bloomfield, E. Sapir and N. Chomsky. These series of lessons will be divided into units and main themes. They will spot light on the main schools of linguistics in Europe and America across the two semesters. The lessons will present the three main schools of linguistics of the 20th century: structural, functional and Mentalist. The course will also introduce to interdisciplinary fields of sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and applied linguistics.

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

The main objective of the course is to make the L2 students aware of importance of get acquainted with the history of linguistics contribution to language studies and its teaching and learning as well.

PREREQUISITES

Students are basically required to have good knowledge in first-year lessons about the basic concepts of language and linguistics. They should be able to understand linguistics terms; they should be to write good and effective paragraphs.

DUE TIME: 90 minutes per week

SEMESTERS:

The 14 lessons are to be presented yearly along semesters 03 & 04. The lesson is to be presented along two sessions i.e. 120 minutes due to the explanation accompanied with handouts.

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Unit 01

European Structuralism



Definitions of language according to linguists:

According to Sapir (1921), language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires through a system of voluntarily produced sounds.

According to Ferdinand de Saussure, Language is an arbitrary system of signs constituted of the signifier and signified. In other words, language is first a system based on no logic or reason, and secondly, the system covers both objects and expressions used for objects.

According to Bloomfield, The totality of the utterances that can be made in a speech community is the language of that speech community.

According to Noam Chomsky, the language is the inherent capability of native speakers to understand and form grammatical sentences. A language is a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite length constructed out of a limited set of elements.

Properties of language

There are basically six properties of language that makes the human language different from the animal language.

1. Displacement

This properties allows us to communicate about those events that are currently absent from the environment **e.g.** like I did the work yesterday, what is your plan for this vacation or I will get the job in the next month. It allows us to make up story and think about both the past and the future.

2. Productivity

It resembles the infinity of unique words / sentences and the combination of word. It is linked to the fact that the potential number of utterances in human languages are infinite.

3. Arbitrariness

No natural connection exists between a linguistic form and its meaning is. i.e the words or symbols used to make the right perception about the objects are not inherently interconnected to those objects they symbolize.

4. Discreteness

This properly ensures that the sounds used in languages are meaningfully distinct and those sounds are considered our own with our distinct meaning.

5. Duality

we find two kinds of simultaneity of language, one is discrete sounds and another is discrete meanings. **For example**, We can combine the letters l,a,k and e in two different ways : lake and leak. These two word means two different meanings even though they are comprised of the same four sounds.

6. Cultural Transmission

Language is learnt through culture with other speakers and not from parental genes.

Definition of linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of language - how it is put together and how it functions. Linguistics is the study of Sounds, Words, and meaning. There are various branches of linguistics. **Linguists** are people who study linguistics.

Branches of linguistics

Micro-linguistics

Phonetics is the study of the sounds of speech. It includes understanding how sounds are made using the mouth, nose, teeth and tongue, and also understanding how the ear hears those sounds and can tell them apart.

Phonology makes use of the phonetics in order to see how sounds or signs are arranged in a system for each language. It is interested in syllables, phrases, rhythm, tone, and intonation.

Morphology looks at how individual words are formed from smaller chunks of meaningful units called morphemes.

Syntax is the study of how phrases, clauses and sentences are constructed and combined in particular languages. Writing a grammar requires defining the rules that govern the structure of the sentences of the language.

Discourse analysis looks at bigger chunks of language - texts, conversations, stories, speeches, etc. Different types of these use language differently, and there can even be differences in how a language is used based on the genre.

Semantics is the study of meaning. It focuses on the relation between words, phrases and other bits of language and on how these words and phrases connect to the world.

Pragmatics is similar, but it involves the study of how speakers of a language use the language to communicate and accomplish what they want. Pragmatics looks more at the relationship between speaker and listener which allows assumptions to be made about the intended message.

Macro-linguistics

Historical Linguistics is the study of how languages have changed over time.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Lesson 2: Introduction to Modern Linguistics

TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR VS. MODERN LINGUISTICS

The key difference between traditional grammar and modern linguistics is that the traditional grammar is **prescriptive**; whereas, the modern linguistics is **descriptive**.

TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR	MODERN LINGUISTICS
Traditional grammar refers to the collection of prescriptive rules and concepts about the structure of language. The origins of traditional grammar can be traced back to 15 th century B.C., to Aristotle and Plato. 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.	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 <u>phonetics</u> . Moreover, modern linguistics regards language as a system and grammar is only considered as a systematic description of a certain language, either oral or written.

Traditional Grammar vs 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

HISTORY OF MODERN LINGUISTICS

Linguistics, as any science, has passed through many developmental stages. Many theories have been introduced to tackle various linguistics phenomena and issues. Starting, at least, from the 19th century, linguistics had been knowing interesting progressions in terms of the ways, methods, theories, and approaches of treating and conducting **linguistics issues**.

- In the 19th & 20th centuries, linguistics had known recognizable developments. **The school of historical linguistics** was established and progressed in the 19th century. It was, later, known as **Neogrammarianism**. At the beginning of the 20th century, **structuralism** came to light with the insights introduced by the Swiss-French linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. In the second half of the 20th century, **generative linguistics** was born and developed with its founder Noam Chomsky's permanent efforts and has been the dominant theory until the present time.

- The pre-structuralist tradition in the 19th Century

Linguistics, as a science, began at the beginning of the 19th century. Its main interest was comparing languages to identify their historical developments and to determine their genealogical relations. The period is thus known as **the comparative historical tradition**. Linguistics at this period was diachronic in its orientation.

- **The advent of structuralism in the 20th century**

At the beginning of the 20th century, and based on the developments linguistics had reached in the 19th century with the Neo-grammarians, there had been a turning point in linguistic theorizing, especially with the advancement put forth by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. Saussure's germinal ideas were gathered in the famous ***Cours de Linguistique Générale*** (lectures in General Linguistics), a collection of his lectures in Geneva; the book was based on Saussure's original insights and his students' notes and published in 1916 by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye after Saussure's death in 1913.

SCHOOLS OF MODERN LINGUISTICS

Modern linguistics started to flourish with the eminent work of Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) "***Cours De Linguistique Générale***". His concepts influenced many subsequent linguists such as Edward Sapir, André Martinet, William Pavlov and Noam Chomsky.

1. The structuralist school

It was led by Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) in Europe and Leonard Bloomfield (1933) in USA. De Saussure considered language as a structure which can be studied independently of other languages or other aspects of language. Language has its own internal structure, and the positions of words and their meanings in a language are dependent on their relationship to other words.

2. The functional school

The structuralists' view of language was opposed by the British linguist MAK Halliday (1973), the American philosopher John Searle (1971) and the French linguist André Martinet (1962). They think that language must be studied as a means of communication, not just as a structure. They stated that structure and function must be considered to understand language nature. This view also dated back to thoughts of Prague school led by Trubetzkoy and Jakobson who dealt with the functions of language.

3. The Mentalist school

The mentalist school was established by Noam Chomsky who called for the existence of mind in language studies. Influenced by Rationalist view of

Descartes, Chomsky stressed the role of reason in the discussion of topics like the philosophy of mind and language acquisition.

PRINCIPLE OF MODERN LINGUISTICS

1. Structuralism	Which became the tenets of modern linguistics.
2. Descriptivism	i.e. to describe the rules and facts of language exactly as they find them without any judgements which contrasts the traditional linguistics/grammar which was based on prescriptivism
3. Priority of the spoken language	Traditional linguistics was based on written texts; however, there are variations in grammar and vocabulary which are not reflected in written language. As a result, both spoken and written language should be studied.
4. Equality between languages	All languages are source for data to be studied; there is no priority to primitive language. Any existing natural language is a highly developed system and its structure does not directly correlate with the stage of social development of its speech community.
5. Synchronic and diachronic description of language	Two basic principles that can be applied to the language studies. Diachronic studies is related to the historical development and change of language, yet the synchronic linguistics studies language at a single point in time.
6. Paradigmatic vs. syntagmatic relation of linguistic units	A syntagmatic relationship involves a sequence of signs that together create meaning. A paradigmatic relationship involves signs that can replace each other, usually changing the meaning with the substitution
7. Functionalism	Functionalism sees functionality of language and its elements to be the key to understanding linguistic processes and structures.
8. Generativism	A linguistic theory that regards linguistics as the study of a hypothesised innate grammatical structure.

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORIES

There are two major schools of thought known as, 'Behaviorists' and 'Mentalists'. One school is of the view that language learning is entirely the product of experience and that our environment affects all of us. Others have suggested that everybody has an innate language learning mechanism.

1. Behaviourism:

The Behaviorist School B.F. Skinner and his followers are known as behaviorist. According to them language learning is process known as operant conditioning. Conditioned Behavior is behavior which is the result of repeated training. Operant means that it is voluntary behavior, it is result of learner's own free will, and it is not forced by any outside person or thing. The learner demonstrates the new behavior first as a response to a system of reward or punishment, and finally as an automatic response. In order to prove their theory they conducted an experiment.

EXPERIMENT They put a rat in a box containing a bar. If it presses a bar, it is rewarded with a pellet of food. Nothing forces it to press the bar. The first time it probably does so accidentally. When the rat finds that the food arrives, it presses the bar again. Eventually it finds that if it is hungry it can obtain food by pressing the bar. Then task is made more difficult. The rat only gets rewarded if it presses the bar while a light is flashing. Operant condition can be summarized thus **STIMULUS RESPONSE REINFORCEMENT REPETITION**. In operant conditioned, reinforcement plays a vital role. There are two kinds of reinforcement: A) Positive Reinforcement: Praise and rewards are positive reinforcement. B) Negative Reinforcement Rebukes and punishments are negative reinforcement.

The behaviorists also claim that we learn language by imitation and association. For example, a young child hears the word 'water'; with the actual thing. He then makes this sound himself, imitating what he has heard. His parents are pleased that he has learnt another word and so his response is reinforced.

The Behaviorist School

Language learning = Operant conditioning

Positive and Negative Reinforcement --- Imitation and Association

Criticism of Behaviourism:

Noam Chomsky explicitly rejects the behaviorists' position that language should be thought of as verbal behavior, arguing that it should be thought of as knowledge held by those who use language. Chomsky suggests that the learner of any language has an inbuilt learning capacity for language that enables each learner to construct a kind of personal theory or set of rules about the language based on very limited exposure to language.

2. Mentalism

The Mentalist School Chomsky and his mentalist followers claim that a child learns his first language through cognitive learning. They claim that language is governed by rules, and is not a haphazard thing, as Skinner and his followers would claim. According to Chomsky, the child is born with a mental capacity for working out the underlying system to the jumble of sounds which he hears. He constructs his own 'grammar' and imposes it on all the sounds reaching his brain. This mental grammar is part of his cognitive framework, and nothing he hears is stored in his brain until he has matched it against what he already knows and found a 'correct' place for it within this framework. Chomsky argues that language is so complex that it is almost incredible that it can be acquired by a child in so short a time. He says that a child is born with some innate mental capacity which helps the child to process all the language which he hears. This is called the

Language Acquisition Device, and he saws it as comprising a special area of the brain whose only function was the processing of language. This function, he argues, is quite separate from any other mental capacity which the child has. When Chomsky talks about 'rules', he means the unconscious rules in a child's mind these rules enables him to make grammatical sentences in his own language. Chomsky does not mean that a child can describes these rules explicitly. For example, a four or five year old child can produce a sentence like I have done my work; he can do that because he has a 'mental grammar' which enables him to form correct present perfect structures and also to use such structures in the right and

appropriate situations. But he is unable to define the formation of present perfect tense.

The Mentalists School

Language learning = an Innate ability

Input = LAD = Output

Mental grammar (own rules)=Grammatical sentences

Both the schools have said significant things, yet neither is perfect. The mentalists' emphasis on the rule-learning is over enthusiastic, and the behaviourists' rejection of meaning is entirely unjust. Language acquisition seems to be a process both of analogy and application, both nature and nurture.

Behaviourism	Mentalism
1) Language acquisition is a stimulus-response process.	Language is an innate, in-born process.
2) Language is a conditioned behavior like other behavior.	Language is not a behaviors, but a specific mental process.
3) Children learn language by imitation and analogy.	Children learn language by application.
4) Language learning is based on practice.	Language learning is analytical, generative and creation.
5) The role of imitation, repetition, reinforcement and motivation is very significant in language learning.	The role of exposure to language is quite vital.
6) Language acquisition is the result of nature	Language acquisition is the result of and nurture

Reference:

<https://www.slideshare.net/cupidlucid/behaviourism-and-mentalism-nasir-presentation>

1. Emergence of European Structural linguistics (GENEVA SCHOOL)

STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS IS an approach to LINGUISTICS which treats language as an interwoven structure, in which every item acquires identity and validity only in relation to the other items in the system. All linguistics in the 20th century is structural in this sense, as opposed to much work in the 19th century, when it was common to trace the history of individual words. Structuralism attempted to lay down a rigorous methodology for the analysis of any language. In Europe, Saussure influenced:

(1) the Geneva School of Albert Sechehaye and Charles Bally,

(2) the Prague School of Roman Jakobson and Nikolai Trubetzkoy, whose work would prove hugely influential, particularly concerning phonology,

(3) the Copenhagen School of Louis Hjelmslev, and

(4) the Paris School of Algirdas Julien Greimas. Structural linguistics also had an influence on other disciplines in Europe, including anthropology, psychoanalysis and Marxism, bringing about the movement known as structuralism.

(5) In 1944, John Rupert Firth, the Chair of General Linguistics at the University of London, launched the formal beginning of the “London school,” a body of linguistic thought important primarily for its contributions to phonology and semantics.

2. Structuralism as a linguistic Theory

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary states that structuralism in literature and language is a method which concentrates on the structure of system and the relations between its elements, rather than on the individual elements themselves.

David Crystal (1980) said in his dictionary that structuralism is a term used in linguistics referring to any approach to the analysis that pays explicit attention to the way in which linguistic features can be described in terms of structures and systems.

2. FERDINAND DE SAUSSURE



Ferdinand de Saussure was born on November 26th, 1857 at Geneva, Switzerland, from French Protestant family who emigrated from Lorraine when the religion war launched by the end of 16th century. His language talent had been shown up since he was a child. He died in 1913

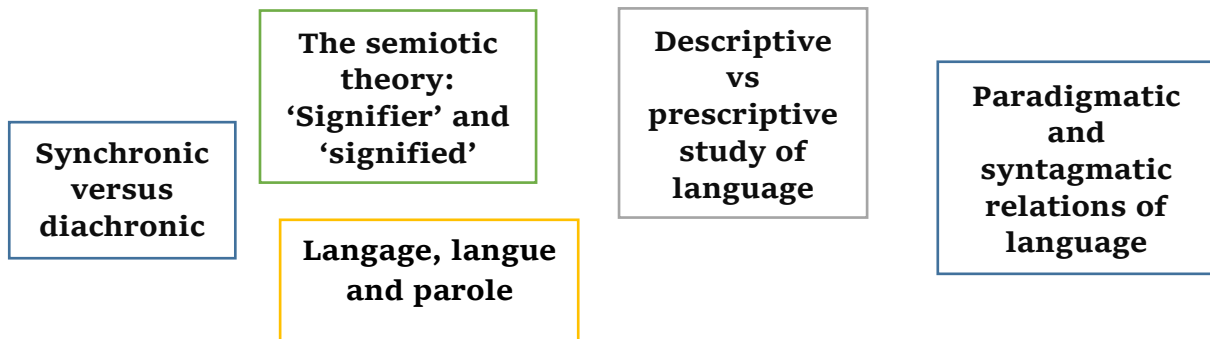
- In the beginning, he learned physics and alchemy at Geneva University as his family tradition, and then he learned linguistic at Leipzig from 1878 until 1879.
- In this university, he learned from great linguists that time, Brugmann and Hubschmann. In 1897, he achieved the doctor title, he proved that he was a brilliant historical linguist.
- His work under the title 'Memoire sur le Systeme Primitive des Voyelles dans les Langues Indo Europeennes' (The notes about ancient vowel system in Indo-European languages) was the proof of his talent. In such young age, de Saussure was already viewed as a great figure in historical linguistics.
- Many linguists also appeared and used his ideas as the approach in linguistics, such as Leonard Bloomfield, Charles Francis Hocke, Andre Martinet, Edward Sapir, and many more.

4. De Saussure' Definition of Language

In de Saussure's Course in General Linguistics, a book that summarizes his lectures at the University of Geneva from 1906 to 1911, he explained the relationship between speech and the evolution of language, investigating language as a self-contained system. For him:

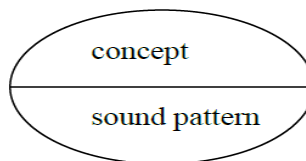
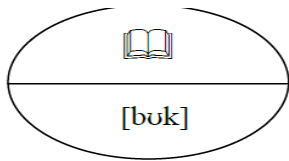
“A language is a system in which all the elements fit together, and which the value of any one element depends on the simultaneous coexistence of all the others.

5. Principles of Saussurean linguistics (dichotomies)



1. Synchronic versus Diachronic	
<p>Synchronic: the description of a language at a particular point or period in time E.g the modern system of modern English</p>	<p>Diachronic: the documentation and explanation of linguistic change E.g. the change in sound system of English from old English to modern English</p>
<p>The diagram shows a vertical line representing the diachronic axis, with an arrow pointing downwards. To the left of the line are the dates 449, 1066, 1500, and today. A horizontal line represents the synchronic axis, extending to the right from the vertical line. The label 'synchronic axis' is placed below the horizontal line, and 'diachronic axis' is placed to the right of the vertical line.</p>	
2. Signifier versus Signified	
<p>Signifier The linguistic sign, according to de Saussure, consists of two inseparable parts: a sound sequence, called signifier (French <i>signifiant</i>),</p>	<p>Signified a concept, called signified (French <i>signifié</i>) The signified is what these visible/audible aspects mean to us.</p>

The association between the two parts of a linguistic sign, is **arbitrary**, but **conventional**.



3. Langage, Langue and Parole

Langage:	Langue :	Parole :
<p><u>Language in general</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The most abstract concept of means of communication using verbal signs, both in written and spoken form. - This concept doesn't refer to any particular languages in the world. The ideal form of language. 	<p><u>A particular language</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The system of language, that is the arrangement of sounds and words which speakers of a language have a shared language of or 'agree to use' - Referring to any particular languages, such as English, French, Javanese etc. - Language as social possession - The most significant concept because the use of langue always relates to particular societies. 	<p><u>The language of an individual</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The actual use of language by people in speech or writing - The language of an individual <p>Examples: my language, yours, somebody else's</p>

4. Descriptive grammar vs. Prescriptive grammar

Descriptive grammar:	Prescriptive grammar:
<p>The systematic study and description of a language. Descriptive grammar refers to the structure of a language as it is actually used by speakers and writers.</p>	<p>A set of rules and examples dealing with the syntax and word structures of a language, usually intended as an aid to the learning of that language. Prescriptive grammar refers to the structure of a language as certain people think it <i>should be</i> used.</p>

5. Syntagmatic vs. paradigmatic relations

Syntagmatic relation

is a type of semantic relations between words that co-occur in the same sentence or text (Asher, 1994).

Syntagmatic relationships are about positioning.

e.g. John ate an octopus.

An octopus ate John.

Two sentences using the exact same words (syntagms), but very different meanings because the order (the syntagmatic relationship) of the words changed.

Paradigmatic relation

is a different type of semantic relations between words that can be substituted with another word in the same categories (Hjrlund, 2015).

Paradigmatic relationships are about substitution.

The	cow	jumped	over	the	moon
That	dog	walked	around	my	yard
This	cat	slept	under	your	bed

e.g.

6. Its Influence

Saussure's ideas were consonant with his compatriots such as Claude-Lévi Strauss and Emile Durkheim, pioneer of new field of sociology. Saussure's influence spread all through the new social sciences in the early and mid-twentieth century, and ultimately, to literary theory and modern cultural studies. They still exert a very strong intellectual force in all these disciplines (probably most in Linguistics and the disciplines most influenced by literary theory such as traditional Anthropology, Sociology and Psychology)

Structuralism is a 20th Century intellectual movement and approach to the human sciences (it has had a profound effect on linguistics, sociology, anthropology and other fields in addition to philosophy) that attempts to analyse a specific field as a complex system of interrelated parts. Broadly speaking, Structuralism holds that all human activity and its products, even perception and thought itself, are constructed and not natural, and in particular that everything has meaning because of the language system in which we operate. It is closely related to Semiotics, the study of signs, symbols and communication, and how meaning is constructed and understood.

There are **four** main common ideas underlying Structuralism as a general movement: firstly, every system has a structure; secondly, the structure is what determines the position of each element of a whole; thirdly, "structural laws" deal with coexistence rather than changes; and fourthly, structures are the "real things" that lie beneath the surface or the appearance of meaning.

Lesson 4: PRAGUE SCHOOL (Prague Linguistic Circle)

Prince Nikolay Sergeevich
Trubetzkoy 1890-1938



• Roman Jakobson
1896-1982



Vilém Mathesius

Prague school was an influential group of literary critics and linguists who were active between 1926 and the beginning of World War II. Vilém Mathesius was its leader, Prague linguistic circle included Russian such as Roman Jakobson, Nikolai Trubetzkoy, and Sergei Karcevsky, as well as the famous Czech literary scholars René Wellek and Jan Mukařovský.

Their work constituted a radical departure from the classical structural position of Ferdinand de Saussure. They suggested that their methods of studying the function of speech sounds could be applied both synchronically, to a language as it exists, and diachronically, to a language as it changes.

The functionality of elements of language and the importance of its social function were key aspects of its research program. They developed methods of structuralist literary analysis during the years 1928–1939.

After the war, the Circle no longer functioned as a meeting of linguists, but the Prague School continued as a major force in linguistic functionalism (distinct from the Copenhagen school or English linguists following the work of J. R. Firth and later Michael Halliday). It has had significant continuing influence on linguistics and semiotics.

Key concepts

The basic **approach** to the study of linguistics of the Prague Circle sees language as a synchronic and dynamic system. The functionality of elements of language and the importance of its social function have been key aspects of its research program.

The Prague School stresses **the function of elements** within language, their contrast to one another, and the system formed by these elements. They developed distinctive feature analysis, by which each sound is regarded as composed of contrasting articulatory and acoustic features, with sounds perceived as different having at least one contrasting feature.

Phonological contributions (distinctive-feature analysis of sounds)

The Prague school was best known for its work on phonology. Unlike the American phonologists, Trubetskoy and his followers did not take the phoneme to be the minimal unit of analysis. Instead, they defined phonemes as sets of distinctive features. For example, in

While they were known for their identification of the "distinctive features" of language, these theorists also explored **culture and aesthetics**. In fact, Jakobson considered language to be a means of the expression and development of culture.

Theory of markedness

The notion of markedness was first developed in Prague school phonology but was subsequently extended to morphology and syntax. When two phonemes are distinguished by the presence or absence of a single distinctive feature, one of them is said to be **marked** and the other unmarked for the feature in question. For example, /b/ is marked and /p/ unmarked with respect to voicing. Similarly, in morphology, the regular English verb can be said to be marked for past tense (by the suffixation of *-ed*) but to be unmarked in the present (*compare* "jumped" versus "jump").

Later contributions (postwar Prague school)

- Theme and rheme:

By the theme of a sentence is meant that part that refers to what is already known or given in the context (sometimes called, by other scholars, the topic or psychological subject); by the rheme, the part that conveys new information (the comment or psychological predicate).

- Functional sentence perspective & communicative dynamism

The first one is the syntactic structure of a sentence which is in part determined by the communicative function of its various constituents and the way in which they relate to the context of utterance.

Thus, the **general approach** of the Prague school can be described as a combination of **functionalism**—every component of a language, such as phoneme, morpheme, word, sentence, exists to fulfill a particular function—and **structuralism**—the context not just the components is what is important. In addition, synchronic and diachronic approaches are seen as interconnected and influencing each other. They regard language as a system of subsystems, each of which has its own problems but these are never isolated since they are part of a larger whole. As such, a language is never in a state of equilibrium, but rather has many deviations. It is these deviations that allow the language to develop and function as a living system (Doubravová 1999).

To summarize

- Prague Linguistic Circle brought new approaches and new methods in studying language . It emphasized two basic terms : the linguistic sign and communication and contributed to the development of linguistics and of the study of language.
- The Prague's school central tenet was that language is a coherent system fulfilling a range of " functions" in society.

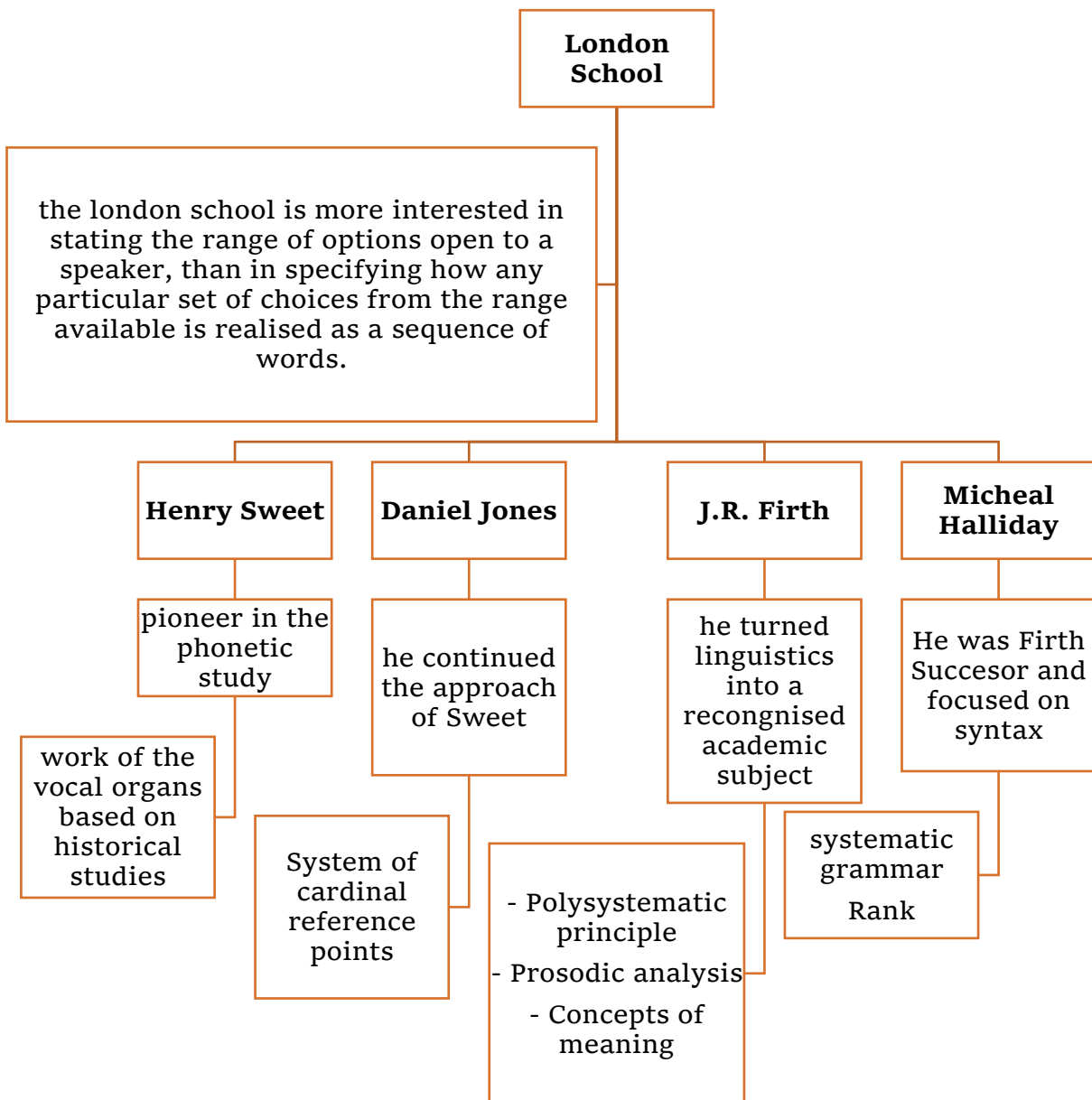


J.R. Firth

The London School of Linguistics is involved with the study of language on the descriptive plane (synchrony), the distinguishing of structural (syntagmatics) and systemic (paradigmatics) concepts, and the social aspects of language. Semantics is in the forefront.

The approach to language advocated by J.R. Firth during the 1950s. is now known as the **London School of linguistics**. Long before the distinction between semantics and pragmatics had been established, **Firth** argued for the primacy of the context of situation in the communication of meanings.

The school's primary contribution to linguistics has been the situational theory of meaning in semantics (the dependence of the meaning of a linguistic unit on its use in a standard context by a definite person; functional variations in speech are distinguished on the basis of typical contexts) and the prosodic analysis in phonology (the consideration of the phenomena accruing to a sound: the number and nature of syllables, the character of sound sequences, morpheme boundaries, stress, and so on).



To add more

Firth took blended between structuralism and functionalism showing his insights provided by the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski (1884-1942). The school was represented Firth, Malinowski, Halliday and R.AO Hudson. Firth's view to meaning and context found an echo in discourse analysis, corpus linguistics, pragmatics and sociolinguistics.

Lesson 6: Copenhagen School of Linguistics



Louis Hjelmslev (October 3, 1899, Copenhagen – May 30, 1965, Copenhagen) was a Danish linguist whose ideas formed the basis of the Copenhagen School of linguistics. Hjelmslev's sign model is a development of Saussure's bilateral sign model. Saussure considered a sign as having two sides, signifier and signified, and also distinguished between form and substance.

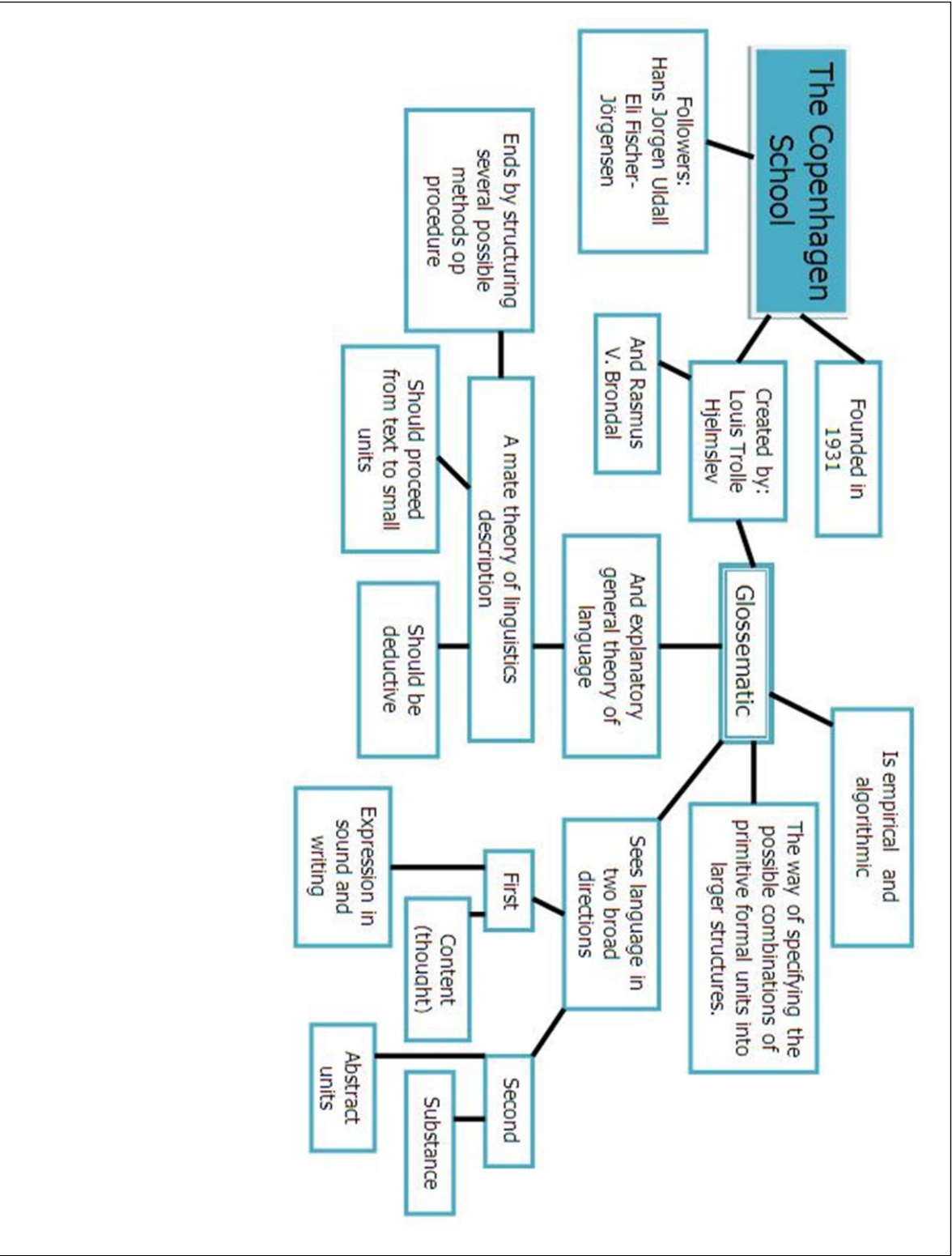
- The Copenhagen School of Linguistics evolved around Louis Hjelmslev (1899–1965) and his developing theory of language, glossematics. Together with Viggo Brøndal (1887–1942) founded the *Copenhagen linguistics Circle* in 1931, a group of linguists based on the model of the Prague Linguistic Circle. Within the circle, the ideas of Brøndal and Hjelmslev were not always compatible.
- Hjelmslev's more formalist approach attracted a group of followers, principal among them Hans Jørgen Uldall and Eli Fischer-Jørgensen, who would strive to apply Hjelmslev's abstract ideas of the nature of language to analyses of actual linguistic data.
- Hjelmslev's objective was to establish a framework for understanding communication as a formal system, and an important part of this was the development of precise terminology to describe the different parts of linguistic systems and their interrelatedness.

1. The glossematic school

The basic theoretical framework, called “Glossematics” which is an attempt to analyse the expression (phonetics and grammar) and the meaning of a language on a coherent basis. He assumed that language was not the only instrument of communication (i.e. the communication of deaf), and he was interested in a general theory of the signs of communication, semiotics or semiology. However, after Hjelmslev's death in 1965, the group that had formed around Hjelmslev and his glossematic theory dispersed—while the Copenhagen Linguistic Circle continued to exist, it was not really a "school" united by a common theoretical perspectives.

2. Danish functional linguistics

In 1989, a group of members of the Copenhagen Linguistic Circle, inspired by the advances in cognitive linguistics and the functionalist theories of Simon C. Dik founded the School of Danish Functional Grammar aiming to combine the ideas of Hjelmslev and Brøndal, and other important Danish linguists such as Paul Diderichsen and Otto Jespersen with modern functional linguistics. Among the prominent members of this new generation of the Copenhagen School of Linguistics were Peter Harder, Elisabeth Engberg-Pedersen, Frans Gregersen, Una Canger and Michael Fortescue. The basic work of the school is *Dansk Funktionel Grammatik* (Danish Functional Grammar) by Harder (2006). Recent developments in the school include Ole Nedergaard Thomsen's Functional Discourse Pragmatics.



Source: <http://thelinguisticproject.blogspot.com/2012/02/copenhagen-school.html>



Unit 02

American Structuralism



Lesson 7: Principles of American Structuralism

American and European structuralism shared a number of features. In insisting upon the necessity of treating each language as a more or less coherent and integrated system, both European and American linguists of this period tended to emphasize, if not to exaggerate, the structural uniqueness of individual languages. Structuralism proposes a Collective term for a number of linguistic approaches in the first half of the twentieth century, all based on the work of F. de Saussure, but strongly divergent from one another. While 'structuralism' in its narrower sense refers to de Saussure's linguistic theories, in its broader sense it is an umbrella term for approaches in anthropology, ethnology, sociology, psychology, and literary criticism, which – in analogy to linguistic structuralism – concentrate on synchronic analysis rather than on genetic / historical preconditions, in order to expose the universal structures at work under the surface of social relations.

American linguists, like their contemporaries in Europe, were all influenced by the structuralist views of Saussure. It had become evident among linguists that:

- Linguistics is descriptive, not prescriptive.
- Spoken language should also be studied.
- Language is structured and self-contained.
- Language is a system (of signs)
- Relation between form and meaning is arbitrary.
- Study of languages is synchronic.

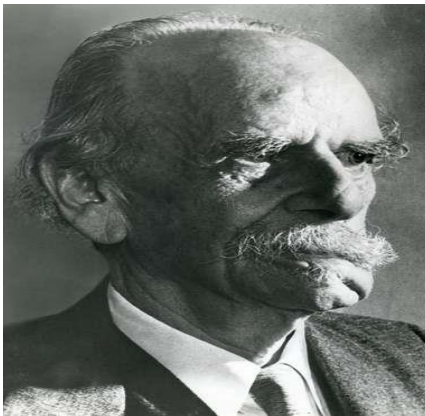
Features of American Structuralism

1. Influence of behaviourist psychology
 2. Study procedures
 3. Focus on American Indian languages
 4. Corpus-based analyses
 5. Descriptive (taxonomic) linguistics
-

- The American scholars were anthropologists who developed structural ideas far away from European work. They worked on existing languages, the Amerindian languages.
- Field work techniques of anthropologists characterized their approach. These languages did not have written records or previous descriptions as opposed to the European languages. Therefore, their historical aspects were discarded.
- American structuralists avoided the prescriptive attitude because they were in need to develop fresh descriptive frameworks fitting these languages' actual features.
- They also emphasized the uniqueness of each language's structure.
- American linguistics aimed at:
 - o Describing current spoken language, not dead languages.
 - o Focusing on language form as a sole objective, thus neglecting meaning to a subordinate place.
 - o Performing the description of language using an organized, unprejudiced and meticulous method which allows the analyst to extract the grammar of a language from a corpus of recorded data in a quasi-mechanical way following four steps:
 - a) Field recordings of a corpus of data;
 - b) Segmentation of the utterances of the corpus at different levels: phoneme, morpheme, word, group, clause and sentence;
 - c) Listing an inventory of forms thus obtained from each level and stating the distribution (possible environment) of the forms;
 - d) Classifying the forms (by giving them names) and utterances of the language being studied.

Structural linguistics in Europe was partly concerned with meaning and interpretation but in N. America **Franz Boas** and **Leonard Bloomfield** took a more descriptive/positivist stance. They also reversed de Saussure's emphasis on the creative aspect of everyday language.

1. **Franz Boas (1859–1942)**



➤ Major changes in the study of Amerindian languages came about as a result of the influence of **Franz Boas**. Boas took up linguistic work originally as a necessary tool for the investigation of culture, language being a particularly revealing aspect of culture. *The Handbook of American Indian Languages* written by Boas marks a major turning point in the study of linguistics in America.

2. **Edward Sapir (1884–1939)**

The German-born American anthropologist Edward Sapir (1884–1939) was responsible for many enduring contributions to linguistic research. Author of the volume *Language* (1921), Sapir emphasizes that language is tightly linked to culture. For Sapir, language is a function of culture rather than being biologically determined. This view is diametrically opposed to transformationalists, who believe (but have not proven) that human beings possess a genetically determined predisposition for language—including many of its most specific and distinguishing features—that is already present at the moment of birth.



Benjamin Lee Whorf, (1897- 1941) U.S. linguist noted for his hypotheses regarding the relation of language to thinking and cognition and for his studies of Hebrew and Hebrew ideas, of Mexican and Mayan languages and dialects, and of the Hopi language. Under the influence of Edward Sapir, at Yale

University, Whorf developed the concept of the equation of culture and language, which became known as the **Whorf hypothesis, or the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis**. Whorf maintained that the structure of a language tends to condition the ways in which a speaker of that language thinks. Hence, the structures of different languages lead the speakers of those languages to view the world in different ways.

Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949)



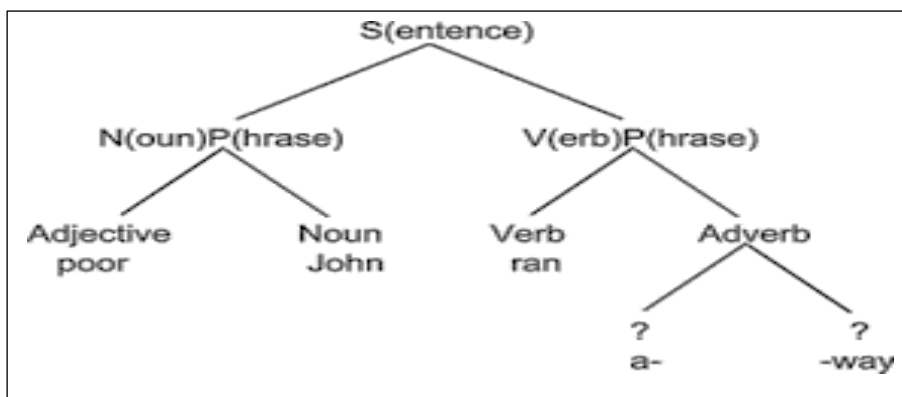
Although Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949) was a contemporary and colleague of Sapir. In 1914, he wrote *Introduction to the Study of Language*, which in later editions was called simply *Language* (1933). Bloomfield was responsible for an enormously influential synthesis that brought together three earlier traditions of language study (historical, philological, and practical), and forged them into a coherent whole. He was fiercely determined to establish linguistics as a science. Bloomfield was especially critical of those who took the features of Latin as the normative form of human speech. He was much more favourably disposed toward the grammatical studies of the ancient Indians because the latter were themselves excellent phoneticians who had also developed an intelligent systematization of grammar and lexicon.

Immediate constituent analysis, also called IC Analysis:

In linguistics, a system of grammatical analysis that divides sentences into successive layers, or **constituents**, until, in the final layer, each **constituent** consists of only a word or meaningful part of a word. (A constituent is any word or construction that enters into some larger construction.) In the sentence, “The old man ran away,” the first division into immediate constituents would be between “the old man” and “ran away.” The immediate constituents of “the old man” are “the” and “old man.” At the next level “old man” is divided into “old” and “man.” The term was introduced by the United States linguist **Leonard Bloomfield** in 1933, though the underlying principle is common both to the traditional practice of parsing and to many modern systems of grammatical analysis.

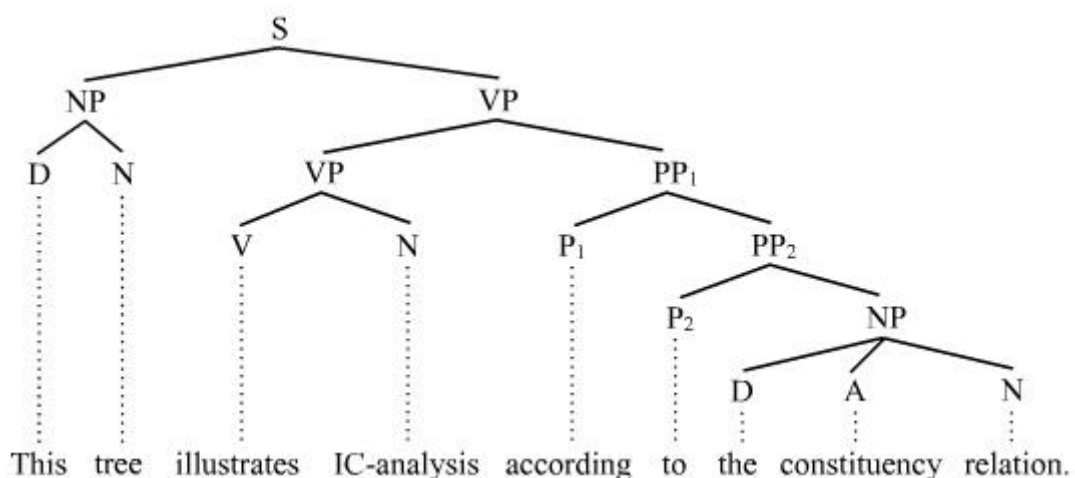
The goal of ICA is to identify and describe words that are closely related (Immediate constituents). A two-way or binary system is used in dividing up a sentence into decreasing parts called constituents. In syntax, the biggest constituent is therefore the sentence while the smallest is the word. In morphology, the smallest is the morpheme, whether bound or free. To illustrate, we will make a binary analysis of the sentence ‘**The small boys opened the door**’ and indicate how some of the constituents are related to each other.

1. The small boys / opened the
 {NP-subject} {VP-predicate}
2. The / small boys
 {det} {noun phrase}



STRENGTHS OF ICA

- It is able to show constituents that are closely related and to describe
- It is able to show the hierarchical nature of constituents (the biggest to the smallest) ability to remove ambiguity in sentences. For example, in the sentence “ **New shoes and handbags are expensive**”, we don’t know whether only the shoes are expensive or both the shoes and the handbags.



WEAKNESSES OF ICA

- It has no capacity to generate new sentences (can only analyse existing ones)
 - It cannot detect ill-formed structures as such * pupil write poem
 - It cannot handle discontinuous sentences:
 - For example:** “She brought the children up well”.
 - Explanation:** ‘brought’ and ‘up’ are closely related since they form a phrasal verb but ICA has no way of putting them in the same constituent.
 - The binary division does not work in some constituents. This problem is evident in cases involving coordination as in ‘ Kindness and honesty are virtues’. The question is, should ‘and’ be in the same constituent with ‘kindness’ or with ‘honesty’?
 - The relationships among constituents are not applicable to most languages
 - It has no way of indicating missing but understood elements such as ‘**You**’ in ‘**come here**’.
 - It has no way of showing how various types of sentences are related. Among these are: **active and passive, statements and questions and affirmative and negative sentences**
-

Overview: Bloomfield had immense influence—the so-called Bloomfieldian era lasted for more than 20 years. During this time, linguists focused mostly on writing descriptive grammars of unwritten languages. Bloomfield and his followers were interested in the forms of linguistic items and in their distributional arrangement. Meaning, according to Bloomfield, was not observable using rigid methods of analysis, and it was therefore the weak point in language study

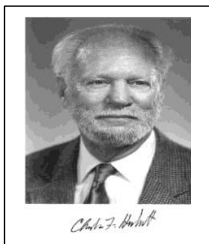
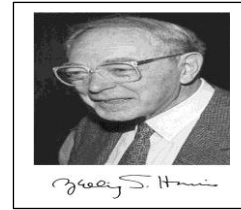
The 'post-Bloomfieldians' dominated American linguistics in the 1940s and 1950s. One of their most prominent members was Chomsky's teacher Zellig Harris. For American structuralists, the ultimate goal of linguistics was the perfection of the discovery procedures—a set of principles which would give them a foolproof way to discover the linguistic units of an unwritten language. Their goal was explicitly to 'discover' a grammar by performing a set of operations on a corpus of data.

One of the most characteristic features of "post-Bloomfieldian" American structuralism, then, was its almost complete neglect of semantics. The influence of Bloomfieldian structural linguistics declined in the late 1950s and 1960s as the theory of Generative Grammar developed by Noam Chomsky came to predominate.

Post-Bloomfieldian linguistics displays its own internal diversity, but still has enough coherence to put into relief the work of other language scholars who were close contemporaries to the post-Bloomfieldians, but who in various ways and for various reasons departed from them. American structuralism has at least this much heterogeneity.

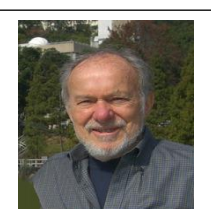
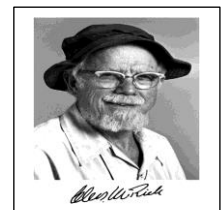
Four main post-Bloomfieldian linguists

1. **Zellig Harris (1909-1992):** Harris's *Methods in Structural Linguistics* (1951) established his scholarly reputation as a theorist. In subsequent work on discourse analysis, Harris suggested the use of transformations as a means of expanding his method of descriptive analysis to cross sentence boundaries. A transformation relates surface structure-sentence forms and is not a device to transform a deep structure into a surface structure, as it is in transformational grammar.



2. **Charles Francis Hockett (1916 – 2000):** Hockett proposed a widely acknowledged comparative approach of language by using a zoological method to identify the main points of connection, especially those found in animals. He invented a set of 18 design features of communication using spoken language including auditory vocal channel, broadcast transmission and directional reception, specialisation, semanticism, and arbitrariness.

3. **Kenneth Lee Pike (1912 –2000):** Tagmemics is an outgrowth of Bloomfieldian immediate constituent analysis and of Pike's own general theory of human behaviour, described in his *Language in Relation to a Unified Theory of the Structure of Human Behavior*.



3. **Sydney MacDonald Lamb (1929):** is an originator of stratificational grammar, an outgrowth of glossematics theory. (Glossematics theory is based on glossemes, the smallest meaningful units of a language.)

Key concepts of post-Bloomfieldian era

Stratificational Grammar

It is a structural framework developed by Sydney Lamb in the 1960s that aims to provide an account of the structure of language, the relationship between meaning and speech.

The framework is called *stratificational* because one of its chief features is its treatment of linguistic structure as comprising several structural layers or strata. Its earlier form, in the late fifties and early sixties, followed the tradition of structural linguistics in treating the structure as composed of linguistic elements and their relationships. In the mid-sixties, work on the relationships among linguistic units revealed that when the relationships are fully plotted, the units actually disappear, so that the entire structure consists of a network of relationships.

In keeping with the idea of stratification, the network as a whole can be considered to consist of multiple subnetworks, called stratal systems. Operation of the system, for speaking and understanding, takes the form of activation passing through the network. Multiple pathways are invariably active in parallel at any time.

By the end of the twentieth century, stratification and the relationship of realization had become widely recognized, and the theory's distinctiveness lay in its focus on the conception of linguistic structure as a network of relationships.

Accordingly, it increasingly became referred to as relational network theory rather than stratificational theory. Beginning in 1971 it was also called *cognitive linguistics*, but when that term became more widely used for a variety of other theories during the eighties and nineties, the more distinctive term *neurocognitive linguistics* began to be used. This latter term is in keeping with the hypothesis that relational networks are related to neural networks of the brain.

This model of language description raises a number of interesting theoretical issues. Not much linguistic description has been attempted within this model. In this model, language is analyzed in terms of the following levels or strata: **sememic**, **lexemic**, **morphemic**, and **phonemic**. Each stratum has its own structure. At the sememic stratum the distinctive meaning units of the language are set out in a network of relations.

--Thus the sentence: **The man caught the tiger**= has the following semantic units: Tiger, catch, male, human, agent, goal, past. At the lexemic stratum the **distinctive lexical units**:

man, caught, tiger, etc., are linked together in a sentence structure. At the **morphemic stratum**, morphemes appear in a successive string. At the **phonemic stratum**, simultaneous bundles of distinctive features make up a string of phonemic units.

Tagmemics:

A system of linguistic analysis developed by the American linguist Kenneth L. Pike in the 1950s and applied to the description of a very large number of hitherto unrecorded languages. **Tagmemics** differs from alternative systems of grammatical analysis in that it defines the basic units of language (tagmemes) as composite elements, one part being the “slot,” or “function,” and the other the “filler,” or “class.” For example, one such **tagmeme**, at the syntactic level of analysis, might be the noun-as-subject (in which the noun is a class that “fills” the subject “slot” in a construction).

The most important concept in Tagmemics is that of tagmeme. A tagmeme is ‘the correlation of a grammatical function or slot with a class of mutually substitutable items occurring in that slot’. In other words, it is the relation between function and category. The subject position filled by a NP, the predicate filled by a verb are examples of tagmemes. (e.g.) ‘She was Mary’ – has three tagmemes. The formula for such a sentence: Subject + Verbal + Object

Tagmemic theory is concerned primarily with grammatical analysis and is especially associated with Kenneth Lee Pike. It is an offshoot of structuralism. Structuralism ignored functions of a linguistic form and concentrated only on form. Tagmemics fuses together the form as well as the function of a linguistic entity.

Pike rejected the idea of a sentence as being the minimum unit of grammar and recommended a hierarchical order and labelling. It has **three** semi-autonomous but interlocking levels or modes -- **phonology, grammar and lexicon**. It stresses the hierarchical ordering of grammatical units into ranks of levels -- morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and discourses.

Immediate Constituent analysis of the structuralists insists just on binary cuts, but tagmemics always goes in favor of string constituent analysis, and have many cuts. Tagmemics, unlike a structural analysis asks for the function of the categories and not merely their naming. It is a "**slot and filler grammar**"; a **slot** being a position in construction frame. The **filler** class is the co-relation between a grammatical function like subject and class of

fillers like nouns that can fill that function. But neither the slot nor the filler itself is important, *it is the tagmeme which is significant*. The slot is the function and filler being the category.

A tagmeme, therefore, is the co-relation of a slot and the class of items that can occur in that slot. Hence we have

1. sentence level tagmemes,
2. clause level tagmemes,
3. phrase level tagmemes,
4. word level tagmemes
5. and morpheme level tagmemes.

For example: "The boy ate all his candy yesterday" has the following tagmemes:

1. Base -- transitive clause + intonation tagmeme

= T - cl Int: F

2. Clause level tagmeme

S: NP + Pr: tv + O: n+ Tense: past

3. Phrase level tagmeme

Det: det + H: n

4. Word level tagmeme

ate -- Nuc: Verb stem + Tense: past

5. Morpheme level Tagmeme

eat

The + and + signs are important in tagmemic formulae; in a generalized formula + precedes obligatory component tagmeme and + precedes optional component tagmeme.

Another example, the sentence:

"**He likes books**" consists of three tagmemes -- the **'subject' slot filled** by a pronoun, the **'predicate' slot filled** by transitive verb, and the **'object' slot filled** by a noun. It can be represented as

S: pn + P: tv + O: n

In bringing together into one unit, the tagmeme, of a grammatical function and a formal class seem especially valuable in the analysis of languages where a variety of formally different elements in English nouns and pronouns can function both as subjects and objects.

In this connection, one of the fundamental aims of tagmemic theory has been stated by Longacre: **"Tagmemics is a reaffirmation of function in a structuralist context."**

SYSTEMICS

The four crucial concepts in systemics are

structure, unit, class, and system.

- **Structure:** A linear or horizontal relation as implied in statements about the structure of an NP, sentence, syllable, etc.
- **Units:** used in systemic grammar are sentence, clause, phrase, word, and morpheme. The units of phonology are tone group, foot, syllable and phoneme. There is a hierarchical relation or rank existing amongst different units. The sentence, **for example**, belongs to the highest rank, the clause right below it, the phrase next to it and so on.
- **Class:** refers to a group of items corresponding roughly to parts of speech. In order to explicate class it may be useful to use Halliday's notion of choice. At every point in a structure, a speaker is faced with a number of choices. Thus, once a speaker has said: **I saw a ...** he is **free** to say table, cat, man, tree, etc. He has a fairly open set of words to choose from, and this open set constitutes a class. Table, cat, man, tree, etc., belong to the class of nouns. The kind of choice that a class offers has a wide range.
- This choice offered by a system has a restricted range. The **system of tense** in English, for example, offers a choice between two items only: present and past. **The system of number** in English offers only two choices (singular and plural) and **the system of gender** three (masculine, feminine, neuter). Systemic analysis is popular with British sociolinguists.

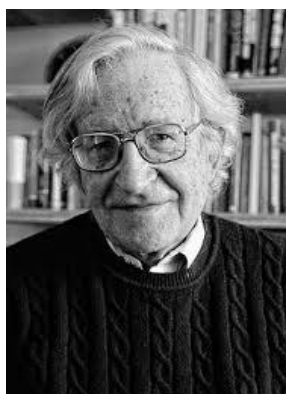


Unit 03

Contemporary approaches to linguistics



1. Who is Chomsky?



Avram Noam **Chomsky** (born December 7, 1928) is an American linguist, philosopher, cognitive scientist, historian, social critic, and political activist. Sometimes called "the father of modern linguistics", **Chomsky** is also a major figure in analytic philosophy and one of the founders of the field of cognitive science.

Chomsky was born in Philadelphia to Jewish immigrant parents, Chomsky enrolled in undergraduate studies at the University of Pennsylvania at the age of 16 and went on to earn his doctorate from the Harvard Society of Fellows in 1955 before going on to teach at MIT.

A vocal opponent of the Vietnam War and the War on Terror, Chomsky was known for his political activism and gained national attention for his anti-war essay "The Responsibility of Intellectuals" published as a special supplement by The New York Review of Books on February 23, 1967. **Chomsky has written over a hundred books on such topics as linguistics, mass media, war, and politics.**

What is TGG?

Transformational-generative Grammar is a system of language analysis of the relationship between sentence elements and its possible sentences of a language and rules (i.e. transformations). **TGG** is a theory of grammar that provides a model for the description of all languages. It was introduced by Noam Chomsky, and accompanied by the publication of his book *Syntactic Structures* in 1957 (**the classical theory**). Chomsky's early work falls into two related points:

1. Criticism of structuralism
2. New formulation of linguistic theory

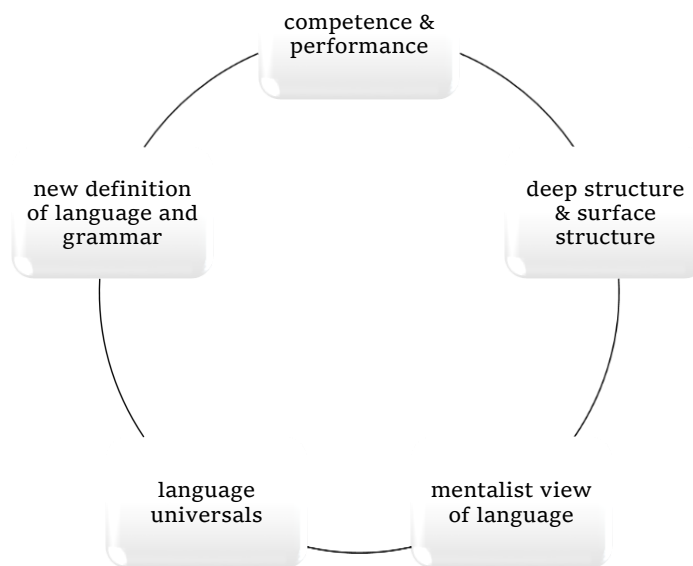
TG is thus a theory of grammar which holds that a sentence typically has more than one level of structure. Apart from the structure which it obviously has on the surface, it also has an abstract underlying structure (the deep structure) which may be substantially different.

The point of all this, in Chomsky’s view, is that certain important generalizations about the structures of the sentences in a language may be stated far more easily in terms of abstract deep structures than otherwise; in addition, the meaning of a sentence can often be determined much more straightforwardly from its deep structure.

TG has developed through a number of versions, each succeeding the other. In his 1957 book *Syntactic Structures*, Chomsky provided only a partial sketch of a very simple type of transformational grammar. This proved to be inadequate, and, in his 1965 book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Chomsky proposed a very different, and much more complete, version. This version is variously known as the Aspects model or as the Standard Theory. All text-books of TG published before 1980 present what is essentially the Standard Theory, sometimes with a few additions from later work.

2. Key concepts in TGG

Criticism of structuralism was the main foundation of transformational generative grammar which brought new concepts and methodology for the language studies.



a. COMPETENCE & PERFORMANCE

Chomsky separates **competence** and **performance**; he describes '**competence**' as an idealized capacity that is located as a psychological or mental property or function and '**performance**' as the production of actual utterances. According to Chomsky (1965) “We thus make a fundamental distinction between **competence** (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and **performance** (the actual use of language in concrete situations).” (p4)

b. DEEP STRUCTURE & SURFACE STRUCTURE

Grammatical analysis can be divided into two parts:

1. one is about the superficial or apparent structure of sentences,
2. The other about the sentences' underlying structure.

For example, we can take the following pair of sentences:

John is easy to please. (object)

John is eager to please. (John is subject)

Both these sentences have identical surface structures but different deep structures. The **surface structure** is actually produced structure. It refers to the sentence as it is pronounced or written. The **deep structure** is the abstract structure that allows the native speaker of a language to know what the sentence means. It may then be said that the **deep structure** expresses the semantic contents of a sentence, whereas the **surface structure** of a sentence determines its phonetic form.

c. MENTALIST VIEW OF LANGUAGE

The mentalists school of thought, which is led by Noam Chomsky, claim that a child learns his first language through cognitive learning by natural exposure. Both 'nature' and 'nurture' influence the acquisition of language in children. Chomsky regards linguistics as a subfield of psychology, more especially the cognitive psychology.

The Language Acquisition Device (LAD)

Chomsky argues that language is so complex that it is almost incredible that it can be acquired by a child in a short time. He further says that a child is born with some innate mental capacity which helps the child to process all the language which he hears. This is called the "Language Acquisition Device" (LAD).

d. LINGUISTIC UNIVERSAL

A linguistic universal is a pattern that occurs systematically across natural languages, potentially true for all of them. **For example**, All languages have nouns and verbs, or If a language is spoken, it has consonants and vowels. Research in this area of linguistics is closely tied to the study of linguistic typology, and intends to reveal generalizations across languages, likely tied to cognition, perception, or other abilities of the mind. Noam Chomsky's proposal of a Universal Grammar was largely pioneered by the linguist Joseph Greenberg, who derived a set of forty-five basic universals, mostly dealing with syntax, from a study of some thirty languages.

e. NEW DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR ACCORDING TO N. CHOMSKY

- Language as conceived of by Chomsky is “a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements” (Chomsky 1957:13). As he further claims, this holds true for all natural languages since they have “a finite number of phonemes (or letters in its alphabet) and each sentence is representable as a finite sequence of these phonemes (or letters)” (Chomsky 1957:13).
- Thus, a grammar of a language should be thought of as “a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis” (Chomsky 1957:13). Such a linguistic analysis of a language should attempt to sort out the grammatical sentences from the ungrammatical ones and study the structure of the grammatical sentences. Furthermore, the grammar of a language will generate all the grammatical sentences of a language and none of the ungrammatical ones.

3. Transformational generative grammar: Classical & standard Models

TG has developed through a number of versions, each succeeding the other. In his 1957 book *Syntactic Structures*, Chomsky provided only a partial sketch of a very simple type of transformational grammar. This proved to be inadequate, and, in his 1965 book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Chomsky proposed a very different, and much more complete, version. This version is variously known as the Aspects model or as the Standard Theory. All text-books of TG published before 1980 present what is essentially the Standard Theory, sometimes with a few additions from later work.

The classical theory:

Transformational generative grammar is a model of grammar that has been widely used in linguistics. It is based on the idea that there is a deep structure to grammar which is generated by rules, and that this deep structure is transformed into the surface structure by further rules. The basic components of transformational generative grammar are thus the rules of deep structure generation and the **rules of transformation**.

- **Rules for Phrase Structure:** These rules are used to define phrases based on smaller units, such as words and morphemes. They determine which words are

attached to which ones in a sentence, as well as which order the words should be placed.

-‘**Transformational rules**’ are principles that must be followed. These rules influence the structure of words in order to change their meanings. For example, the rule that transforms a word into a gerund can be seen as a transformation rule.

-The third rule states that “**Morphophonemic rules** must be followed.” These rules cover how words sound. The rule that changes a vowel to a diphthong can be thought of as a morphophonemic rule.

The standard theory/ Aspect Grammar.:

The Standard Theory (ST), mainly developed in two of Chomsky’s books that is Syntactic Structures (1957) and especially Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965), laid the foundations for Transformational and Generative Grammar (TGG). Three major components characterise this theory version: syntactic, phonological and semantic one. They are distributed as follow:

1. Syntactic components= the base (phrase structure+lexicon)
+ the transformational component
2. Semantic component: deep structure
3. Phonological component: is similar to morphophonemic component of the classical theory

Criticism of TGG

Despite of its recognition, the transformational generative grammar theory of Chomsky was criticised by scholars and academicians. According to the behaviourists, championed by B.F Skinner, children learn the language of their immediate social environment through continual trial and error process (stimuli-response) and that with repetition, experience is gained and language is learnt. This also states that children and toddlers learn through the process of imitations to discern the rules of the grammar of their language until their utterances synchronize with that of their immediate environment and that there is no innate basic grammatical rules of morphology, phonology and syntax in the human brain which had been argued by the transformationalists led by Chomsky.

Chomsky (1995) has stressed that language is not learned like how behaviour is and that language is innate and exclusive to humans. If this argument holds, then the question is; if the

basic rule of grammar of the child's language is innate and the environment is not useful to his grammatical competence, what therefore accounts for the frequent errors in the child's communication, the mispronunciation of certain words and non-adherence to the exceptions to the rule of the grammar language? According to the behaviourists, the answer is the environment and experiences. The adults in the child's environment through the stimuli-response synergy assist the child to build on his grammatical knowledge by correcting anomalies in his speech with the constant reinforcement on the parts of the observing adults always assisting him to fully internalize all the rules of the grammar and not just the basic ones.

1. What is functional linguistics?

This term is used to indicate linguistic approaches that are centrally concerned with the function of language – that is what language does, and how it does it in a given context. This approach contrasts with more formal approaches that are primarily concerned with formal structures, such as phonemes or sentence. Functional linguistics is focused on deriving grammatical, syntactic and textual structures from the ways in which language is used. Many functional linguists trace their work to either or both the British linguist, J. R. Firth and the early twentieth century Prague School of linguists. Multimodality is complex and draws on a range of origins, one of which is Systemic Functional Linguistics, notably the work of Michael Halliday that builds on the work of Firth. Systemic-Functional Linguistics is a theory of language centred on the notion of language function and which accounts for the syntactic structure of language.

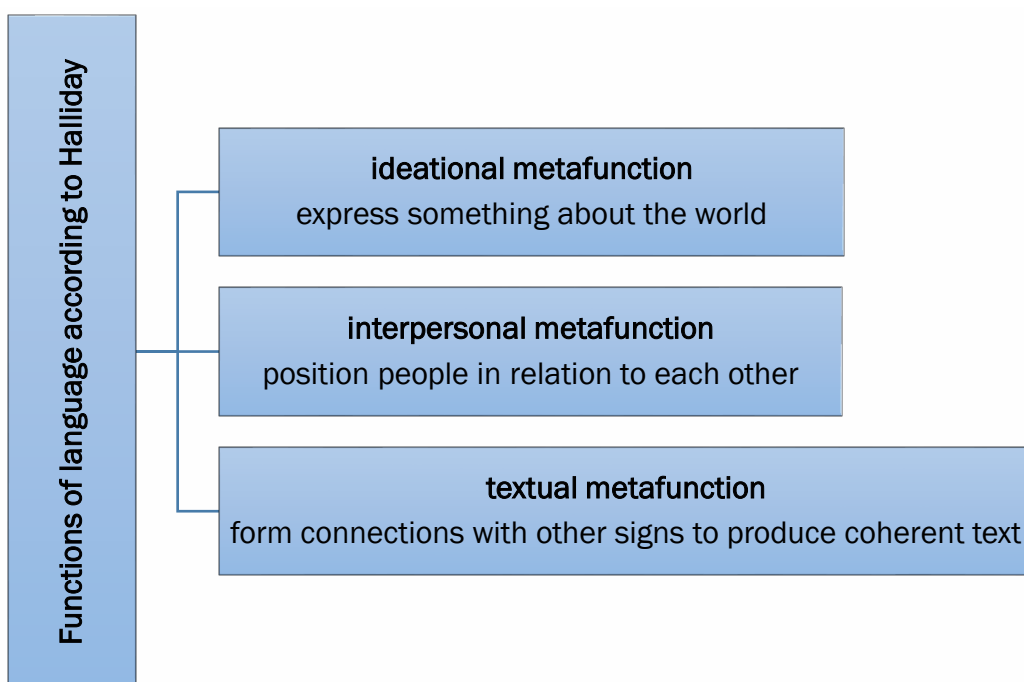
In *Language as Social Semiotic* (1978) Michael Halliday proposes that the semiotic resources of language are shaped by how people use them to make meaning, emphasising the social functions they are put to. He holds that every sign serves three functions simultaneously: they express something about the world ('ideational metafunction'), position people in relation to each other ('interpersonal metafunction') and form connections with other signs to produce coherent text ('textual metafunction'). Robert Hodge and Gunther Kress took up the linguistic ideas of Halliday and theories of society derived from Marx to develop a critical account of language in *Language as Ideology* (Kress & Hodge, 1979). In *Social Semiotics* (1988) they adopted a similar stance to explore any set of semiotic resources that people use in everyday life, the resources of language as much as the resources of image, and of other modes.

In the late 1980's, Gunther Kress and Theo van Leeuwen began to develop a social semiotic approach to the visual with a focus on print media, culminating in their book *Reading Images* (1996). In *Reading Images* they propose a framework for the analysis of image, which draws on the broad semiotic aspects of Halliday's social semiotic theory and made use of the functional linguistic system networks as a heuristic framework for theorizing meaning as choice. At the same time, Michael O'Toole applied Halliday's systemic functional grammar and

the tools it offered to examine the visual in his book *The Language of Displayed Art* (1994). These works laid part of the foundation for Multimodality theory.

2. Functions of language according to Halliday

In *Language as Social Semiotic* (1978) Michael Halliday proposes that the semiotic resources of language are shaped by how people use them to make meaning, emphasising the social functions they are put to.



- The **ideational metafunction** is that part of the meaning which concerns the way external reality is represented in the text. In informal terms it might be thought of as the content of the message, and is probably what many think of first when they refer to a semantic component. This means that it is intimately concerned with the processes involved, whether they be actions, events or states, the entities involved in these processes, and if mentioned the circumstances within which they take place.
- The **interpersonal metafunction** concerns the relationships that exist between the speaker and his addressee(s), and between the speaker and his message.
- The **textual metafunction** is that part of the meaning potential which makes a text into a text, as opposed to a simple string of words or clauses. It thus involves phenomena such as thematic structure, information structure, and cohesion.
-

3. Communicative function of language

For the purpose of communication the writer or speaker must follow a particular system or convention for such language to be communicative. The functional complexity of language is so unique and the symbolic function of language has been described as the mechanism by which meaning is attached to form. The communicative functions of language are the means by which language community exchange symbols in a conventional way to share concept.

Many scholars have reacted to the question, “why do we use language?” Roman Jakobson and M.A.K. Halliday answered this question. Jakobson emphasizes ‘poetic function’ while Halliday believes that there are three functions that language carries out in a text.

- Roman Jakobson’s Poetic Function of Language

The poetic function of language as explained by Roman Jakobson is the way text is formed structurally, and this is the concern of formalist linguistics. The focus is on the form of a language. Scholes argues his point in line with Jakobson’s submission. According to Jakobson (1960:351), each function is associated with a dimension of the communication process. He identifies six participants in the communication process to include context, message, sender, receiver, channel and code.

Jakobson argues that when the language of communication directs attention to the writer, who is the sender, it performs emotive function; when attention is directed to the reader or receiver, it performs conative function; when attention is on the context of communication, it performs referential function, when it is directed to the channel, the language performs phatic function; when attention is directed at the code (language), it performs metalingual function but when attention is directed to the message the language performs a poetic function. According to him, ‘the verbal situation of a message depends primarily on the predominant (poetic) function’.

However, M.A.K Halliday's submission is quite different as he collapsed all the functions that language performs under what he called **communicative functions of language**. The communicative function of language, according to Halliday, has to do with meaning of the text. **It is semantic in approach and a build up to the Systemic Functional Theory**. He never sees linguistic features that abound in a text in isolation. Rather, he sees them in relation to one another and to the whole work as a unified communicative event. The functionalists, generally, view language as a dynamic, open system by means of which a community exchanges information.

Halliday (1973:8) believes that 'language serves for the expression of content'. Functional theory of language also attempts to explain the linguistic structure and phenomena, by reference to the role that language plays in human lives. Halliday finds this approach valuable in general because of its insight into the nature and use of language. He places emphasis on meaning rather than form as opposed to Jakobson's emphasis on the poetic function of language. Halliday (1970:16) identifies three functions of language which include ideational, interpersonal and textual functions. By ideation, Halliday means an expression of cognitive meaning. The ideational function of language relates to the field of discourse, or its subject matter and context of use.

Halliday states that language is the study of how people exchange meanings through the use of language. **For example:** the boy ate the bread in the kitchen.

- **Statements....** the boy is eating the bread.
- **Commands...** eat the bread!
- **Questions...** is the boy eating the bread???

Explanation:

Language is used for much more than representing states of affairs. It is used in all kinds of verbal social interactions: asking questions, giving commands, making promises, expressing wishes, etc. These different uses are known as speech acts (Searle 1969). Functional approaches take a strongly discourse-oriented view of language. Halliday maintains that the ultimate explanations of linguistic phenomena are to be found in language use. Language has evolved to satisfy human needs; and the way it is organized is functional with respect to these needs

4. Speech act

Speech act theory, Theory of meaning that holds that the meaning of linguistic expressions can be explained in terms of the rules governing their use in performing various speech acts (e.g., admonishing, asserting, commanding, exclaiming, promising, questioning, requesting, warning). In contrast to theories that maintain that linguistic expressions have meaning in virtue of their contribution to the truth conditions of sentences where they occur, it explains linguistic meaning in terms of the use of words and sentences in the performance of speech acts.

Some exponents claim that the meaning of a word is nothing but its contribution to the nature of the speech acts that can be performed by using it. Ludwig Wittgenstein and J. L. Austin provided important stimuli for the theory's development.

5. Formal vs functional approaches

Those linguists who believe language as system of communication and take the communicative functions of language to be important for its analysis. Formalists consider the communicative functions of language to be irrelevant to its analysis, following Chomsky. All functionalists agree that language is a system of forms for conveying meaning in communication and therefore that in order to understand it, it is necessary to investigate the interaction of structure, meaning and communicative function

The formalist vs. functionalist debate in modern linguistics has a somewhat different character but the same elements are involved, and thus the same issues as well. Functional accounts necessarily start with the human side of language and language use, whereas formal accounts start with structure and work outwards.

Formal language theory, or formal grammar, is a set of formal rules that dictate the structures in language. The structures are things like words, sentences, paragraphs, et cetera. This theory says that the structure of language as the starting point of any language and little attention is paid to semantics or pragmatics. These rules describe how to form valid structures from the language's alphabet according to syntax and grammar is thought of as a language generator of sorts.

Functional language theory, or functional grammar, is an approach to the study of language that regards the functions of language to be the starting point. This theory conceives of language as a social interaction and seeks to explain why one linguistic form is more appropriate for a certain situation than another. The main principle is that structures are best analyzed and understood by the functions they carry out.

The Difference is that the functional approach differs from the formal approach in that the formal approach seeks to define the different structures of language and the way they relate to each other a set of formal rules, whereas the functional approach defines the functions performed by language and then relates those functions to the structures that carry them out. In other words, the formal approach focuses on the little technical components that build a language and the functional approach focuses on what the components do as a whole.

Lesson 12: introduction to applied linguistics

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field which identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology. Chris Brumfit provides a good starting point for defining the field. He defines applied linguistics as “*the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue*” (Brumfit, 1995, p. 27)

applied linguistics is a branch of linguistics where the primary concern is the application of linguistic theories, methods and findings to the elucidation of language problems which have arisen in other areas of experience. The most well-developed branch of applied linguistics is the teaching and learning of foreign languages, and sometimes the term is used as if this were the only field involved. But several other fields of application have emerged, including the linguistic analysis of language disorders (clinical linguistics), the use of language in mother-tongue education (educational linguistics), and developments in lexicography, translation and stylistics.

There is an uncertain boundary between applied linguistics and the various interdisciplinary branches of linguistics, such as sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics, especially as several of the latter’s concerns involve practical outcomes of a plainly ‘applied’ kind (e.g. planning a national language policy). On the other hand, as these branches develop their own theoretical foundations, the distinction between ‘pure’ and ‘applied’ is becoming more apparent, and the characterization of research as being in ‘applied psycholinguistics’, etc., is now more regularly encountered. (Crystal, 2008)

History of applied linguistics

'Applied linguistics' involves solving some language-related problem or addressing some language-related concern. In North America, applied linguistics was first officially recognized as an independent course at the University of Michigan in 1946. In those early days, the term was used to refer to applying a so-called 'scientific approach' to teaching foreign languages, including English for nonnative speakers. Early work to improve the quality of foreign language teaching by **Professors Charles Fries (University of Michigan)** and **Robert Lado (University of Michigan, then Georgetown University)** helped to bring definition to the field

as did the 1948 publication of a new journal, *Language Learning: A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics*

During the late **1950s** and the early **1960s**, the use of the term was gradually broadened to be '**automatic translation**'. In **1964** following two years of preparatory work financed by the Council of Europe, the **Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée** (the **International Association of Applied Linguistics** usually referred to by the French acronym **AILA**) was established and its first international congress was held in Nancy, France. Papers for the congress were solicited in two distinct strands—**foreign language teaching and automatic translation**.

Subfields of Applied linguistics

- Language acquisition
- Psycholinguistics
- Sociolinguistics
- Linguistic anthropology
- Cognitive linguistics
- Computational linguistics
- Descriptive linguistics
- Stylistics
- Corpus linguistics
- Internet linguistics

The Scopes of Applied Linguistic

<p>a. Language and Teaching</p> <p>This scope covers methods of language teaching. In doing teaching learning activity, linguistics is applied on those methods.</p>	<p>b. Language and Society</p> <p>The branch in this scope is called sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistic studies about the relationship between the society and language, and explore/solve the problem related to society that affects the language, varieties of language in society, terms of taboos and euphemism, etc.</p>
<p>c. Language Education/Learning</p> <p>This scope tries to explain about the first language education, additional language education such as second language education and foreign language education. It also help us to know about clinical linguistic and language testing. Clinical linguistic is the study about language disability.</p>	<p>d. Language, Work and Law</p> <p>The scope of Language, Work and Law explain about communication in the workplace, language planning, and forensic linguistic.</p>
<p>e. Language, Information and Effect</p> <p>It studies the literary stylistics, critical discourse analysis, translation and interpretation, information design, and lexicography.</p>	

Sociolinguistics:

The study of the sociological aspects of language. The discipline concerns itself with the part language plays in maintaining the social roles in a community. Sociolinguists attempt to isolate those linguistic features that are used in particular situations and that mark the various social relationships among the participants and the significant elements of the situation.

Sociolinguistics is the study of how language serves and is shaped by the social nature of human beings. In its broadest conception, sociolinguistics analyzes the many and diverse ways in which language and society entwine. This vast field of inquiry requires and combines insights from a number of disciplines, including linguistics, sociology, psychology and anthropology.

Sociolinguistics examines the interplay of language and society, with language as the starting point. Variation is the key concept, applied to language itself and to its use. The basic premise of sociolinguistics is that language is variable and changing. As a result, language is not homogeneous – not for the individual user and not within or among groups of speakers who use the same language.

By studying written records, sociolinguists also examine how language and society have interacted in the past. For example, they have tabulated the frequency of the singular pronoun and its replacement you in dated hand-written or printed documents and correlated changes in frequency with changes in class structure in 16th and 17th century England. This is historical sociolinguistics: the study of relationship between changes in society and changes in language over a period of time. Influences on the choice of sounds, grammatical elements, and vocabulary items may include such factors as age, gender, education, occupation, race, and peer-group identification, among others.

For example, an American English speaker may use such forms as “He don’t know nothing” or “He doesn’t know anything,” depending on such considerations as his level of education, race, social class or consciousness, or the effect he wishes to produce on the person he is addressing. In some languages, such as Japanese, there is an intricate

system of linguistic forms that indicate the social relationship of the speaker to the hearer.

Social dialects, which exhibit a number of socially significant language forms, serve to identify the status of speakers; this is especially evident in England, where social dialects transcend regional dialect boundaries.

Sociolinguists are interested in

- Explaining why people speak differently in different social contexts.
- The effect of social factors such as (social distance, social status, age, gender, class) on language varieties (dialects, registers, genres, etc),
- Identifying the social functions of language and the way they are used to convey social meanings.

The scope of sociolinguistics: and macro-sociolinguistics. (Fishman, 1972).

1. **Micro- sociolinguistics** studies how society influences a speaker's specific language, and also how people communicate with one another and live with different social factors. It also deals with how language varies with social attitudes, such as gender, class, and age. (effects of society on the language)
2. **Macro- sociolinguistics is also called the sociology of language**, it focuses on society in relation to language; in other words, it studies the language use to know more about the social structure.

Psycholinguistics:

The study of psychological aspects of language. Experiments investigating such topics as short-term and long-term memory, perceptual strategies, and speech perception based on linguistic models are part of this discipline.

Psycholinguistics is the study of the language processing mechanisms. Psycholinguistics deals with the mental processes a person uses in producing and understanding language. It is concerned with the relationship between language and the human mind, for example, how word, sentence, and discourse meaning are represented and computed in the mind.

Most work in psycholinguistics has been done on the learning of language by children. Language is extremely complex, yet children learn it quickly and with ease; thus, the study of child language is important for psychologists interested in cognition and learning and for linguists concerned with the insights it can give about the structure of language

In the 1960s and early '70s much research in child language used the transformational-generative model proposed by the American linguist Noam Chomsky; the goal of that research has been to discover how children come to know the grammatical processes that underlie the speech they hear. The transformational model has also been adapted for another field of psycholinguistics, the processing and comprehension of speech; early experiments in this area suggested, for example, that passive sentences took longer to process than their active counterparts because an extra grammatical rule was necessary to produce the passive sentence. Many of the results of this work were controversial and inconclusive, and psycholinguistics has been turning increasingly to other functionally related and socially oriented models of language structure.

1. The Scope of Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics basically derives from two different study of sciences, there are psychology and linguistics. Psychology deals with human minds while linguistics deals with the study of language. So, we can conclude that psycholinguistics studies about the cognitive process when human use the language to communicate with others. Psycholinguistics tries to disperse the psychological processes that take place when someone say the sentences at the time he listens to communicate and how language is acquired by humans. Then theoretically the main goal is to find a psycholinguistic theory of language that is linguistically and psychologically acceptable to explain the nature of language and acquisitions.

According to Clark and Clark (1977), Psycholinguistics scope is categorized into tree major scopes:

- a. **Comprehension:** Comprehending language involves a variety of capacities, skills, processes, knowledge, and dispositions that are used to derive meaning from spoken, written, and signed language
- b. **Production:** Is how human produce the language. Furthermore, it explain the mental process to produce the language to be spoken. Production occurs because there is a stimulus that come to our brain as a message, there the information will be processed to produce a respond.
- c. **Language Acquisition:** It means how human learn to comprehend and produce language. Language acquisition was acquired naturally since human completed by brain and speech organs. The acquisition occurs gradually through a process.

2. The Significant of Psycholinguistic for Language Teaching Learning

Psycholinguistics is important for language teaching learning. As explained above psycholinguistics derives from psychology and linguistics. Related to language teaching and learning, the students are expected not only to master the language (theory) but also to use it a real talk (practice) since Psycholinguistics science teaches that language is a tool of communication to convey thoughts or feelings in linguistics the students learn about the language component such as syntax, phonology and semantics.

But the language learning will not be said well done if the learners cannot apply language in in real communication. Sometimes, when the students had mastered the theory very well, they cannot manage their mind to use language to talk. It caused by

the leak of students' confidence or they are confuse of what will they say . William James (1842-1910) states that psychology as a science of mental life, it takes an important role in this deals, it analyse the causes and helps the students maintain their emotion or raise their confidence in revealing the language. So, its true that Psycholinguistic is significant for language learning.

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Appendices

Sample of tests and exams

Sample of TESTS

Student's full name:

TEST (SEMESTER 04)

Activity 01: Franz Boaz left a major effect in structural linguistics, explain.

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Activity 02: American and European structuralism shared some aspects, explain them

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

TEST (SEMESTER 04)

Activity 01: briefly explain the stratificational grammar model

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Activity 02: what are the major contributions of Leonard Bloomfield in modern linguistics?

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

GROUP N°=

TEST (SEMESTER 04)

1. Chomsky has introduced in new concept to study the sentence elements

relatedness which is 'DEEP STRUCTURE'? Explain

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2. Explain the difference between competence and performance according to

Chomsky

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

GROUP N°=

TEST (SEMESTER 04)

What does it mean TGG?

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How did Noam Chomsky define language and grammar?

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

GROUP N°=

TEST (SEMESTER 04)

Explain the view of Chomsky towards the child language acquisition from LAD perspective

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'UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR' explain this on the light of what you have seen in the lesson

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST 02 (SEMESTER 03)

I. Tick the correct answer

1. Prague school of linguistics adopted..... in its studies:
 - a. Synchronic studies
 - b. Diachronic studies
 - c. Semantic studies
2. London school of linguistics studies were mainly:
 - a. Descriptive
 - b. Prescriptive
 - c. Syntagmatic
3. Semantics is a discipline in language meaning that was established by:
 - a. Prague school
 - b. London school
 - c. Geneva school
4. Situational theory of meaning is the only contribution of London school:
 - a. True
 - b. False
5. Glossmatics refers to:
 - a. Phonetics/grammar/meaning
 - b. Grammar & meaning
 - c. Only phonetics

II. Explain the establishment of Danish functional school of linguistics

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST 02 (SEMESTER 03)

I. Tick the correct answer

1. Which of the following linguists belong to the Prague school
 - a. Saussure and Bloomfield
 - b. Jakobson and Trubetzkoy
 - c. Martinet and Boas
2. Prague linguistic circle was established in:
 - a. 1931
 - b. 1928
 - c. 1965
3. Michael Halliday focused in his studies on:
 - a. Systematic functional grammar
 - b. Pragmatics
 - c. System of cardinal references points
4. Situational theory of meaning is the only contribution of London school:
 - a. True
 - b. False
5. Glossmatics school of Copenhagen focused on:
 - a. Formalist approach
 - b. Functionalist approach
 - c. Both of them

II. Explain how was London school of linguistics influenced by De Saussure's concepts

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST 02 (SEMESTER 03)

I. Tick the correct answer

1. Copenhagen linguistics circle ended by the death of Hjelmsliv in 1942
 - a. True
 - b. False
2. London school of linguistics were influenced by De Saussure in their syntagmatics and pradigmatics studies:
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. Michael Halliday focused in his studies on:
 - a. Systematic functional grammar
 - b. Pragmatics
 - c. System of cardinal references points
4. Theory of Markedness was introduced in language syntax and morphology by:
 - a. Geneva School
 - b. Prague school
 - c. Copenhagen School
5. The approach adopted by the Prague school was:
 - a. Formalist approach
 - b. Structural Functionalist approach

II. Explain how was Glossmatics School of linguistics of Hjelmsliv influenced by De Saussure's concepts

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST 02 (SEMESTER 03)

I. Tick the correct answer

1. Copenhagen linguistics circle ended by the death of Hjelmsliv in 1942
 - c. True
 - d. False
2. London school of linguistics were influenced by De Saussure in their syntagmatics and pradiomatics studies:
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. London school started its contributions in :
 - a. 1940's
 - b. 1920's
 - c. 1950's
4. Theory of Markedness was introduced in language syntax and morphology by:
 - a. Geneva School
 - b. Prague school
 - c. Copenhagen School
5. Prague school has mainly focused on :
 - a. Distinctive features analysis of sounds
 - b. Semiology
 - c. Grammar

II. Explain how was Prague School of linguistics influenced by De Saussure's concepts

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST 02 (SEMESTER 03)

I. Tick the correct answer

1. Michael Halliday focused in his studies on:
 - a. Systematic functional grammar
 - b. Pragmatics
 - c. System of cardinal references points
2. London school of linguistics were influenced by De Saussure in their syntagmatics and pradihmatics studies:
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. Theory of Markedness was introduced in language syntax and morphology by:
 - a. Geneva School
 - b. Prague school
 - c. Copenhagen School
4. London school started its contributions in :
 - a. 1940's
 - b. 1920's
 - c. 1950's
5. Situational theory of meaning is the only contribution of London school:
 - a. True
 - b. False

II. Explain how was Prague School of linguistics influenced by De Saussure's concepts

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:.....

Second test (S 03)

Compare between the concepts of language acquisition and learning

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What characterize Modern Linguistics?

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Second test (S 03)

Explain the different stages of the child's cognitive development according to Jean Piaget

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What is structural Linguistics?

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group ...

Test (SEMESTER 04)

Activity 01: it is said that linguistics is descriptive according to American structuralist school, explain

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Activity 02: Edward Sapir had integrated lasting concepts about linguistics, briefly clarify that

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST (SEMESTER 03)

I. WRITE THE CORRESPONDING TERM TO THE FOLLOWING DEFINITIONS

1.: a general term in linguistics referring to the limitless ability to use language—any natural language—to say new things. It is also known as open-endedness.
2. : studying any aspect of language solely in one particular period of time (typically the present), without taking into account other periods of time in that language's history.
3.: is concerned with the way words are grouped together into categories, like nouns, verbs, adjectives.
4.: any material thing that signifies, e.g., words on a page, a facial expression, an image.
5.: the idea or concept associated with a word, which together constitute the linguistic sign.

II. WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR AND MODERN LINGUISTICS?

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST (SEMESTER 03)

I. WRITE THE CORRESPONDING TERM TO THE FOLLOWING DEFINITIONS

1.: the meaning of linguistic signs is not predictable from its word form, nor is the word form dictated by its meaning/function.

2.....: designates actual oral and written communication by a member or members of a particular speech community

3. describes the way sounds function within a given language and operates at the level of sound systems and abstract sound units

4. : the traditional approach of grammar that tells people how to use the English language, what forms they should utilize, and what functions they should serve.

5.: is an aspect of language which is linked to the fact that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite

II. BRIEFLY DESCRIBE THE TIMELINE OF DEVELOPMENT OF LINGUISTICS AS A DISCIPLINE

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GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:

Group:.....

TEST (SEMESTER 03)

I. WRITE THE CORRESPONDING TERM TO THE FOLLOWING DEFINITIONS

- 1.....: represents a system of rules, usages, meanings and structures that are shared by members of a specific speech community.
- 2.....: a characteristic of language that allows users to talk about things and events other than those occurring in the here and now.
- 3.....: *involves the examination of language beyond the sentence to understand how it functions in a social context.*
- 4.....: denotes schools or theories in which language is conceived as a self-contained, self-regulating semiotic system whose elements are defined by their relationship to other elements within the system
- 5.....: *is a non-judgmental approach that analyses how language is actually used by its speakers*

II. Briefly describe the Schools of modern linguistics

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GOOD LUCK

SAMPLE OF EXAMS

Student's full name:.....

GROUP NUMBER:.....

FIRST ACHIEVEMENT EXAM (S 03)

I. Give the corresponding terms to the following definitions (8 pts)

1. A person becomes capable of abstraction and formal thinking which excels concrete experience and direct perception and that the representation in the mind of a set of perceptions, ideas and /or actions which go together.
2. supposes that learning can be observed, explained, and predicted through observing antecedents and consequences.
3. claims that certain linguistic structures which children use so accurately must be already imprinted on the child's mind.
4. means that there is generally no natural, inherent relationship between the signs (i.e. sounds or letters) we produce and their meaning.
5. is a system of signs with fixed rules also called the linguistic system.
6. is any one of several schools of 20th-century linguistics committed to the principle that a language is a self-contained relational structure, the elements of which derive their existence and their value from their distribution and oppositions in texts or discourse.
7. is the abstract link that unites sound and idea. It is not a link between a thing and a name, but between a concept and a sound pattern.
8. is the actual use of the language by individuals in speech or in writing.

II. Answer by true (T) or false (F), then correct the false statements (12 marks)

STATEMENT	TRUE	FALSE
1. Descriptive grammar is a set of rules that deals with the syntax and refers to what language should be.		
2. The Synchronic perspective of language study is more considered than the diachronic perspective because the latter is not needed.		

<p>3. Paradigmatic relation of language refers to the semantic relations between words that can be substituted with other words of the same class.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>4. The term language refers to the concept of means of communications that use the verbal written and spoken signs.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>5. According to Chomsky, humans are born with a set of language learning tools referred to as language acquisition device (LAD). LAD is an abstract part of the mind which reflects the ability for human to acquire and produce language.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>6. Duality refers to the human ability to use the language across time, place and individuals. Humans can communicate about things that are not here or occurred in the past.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>7. The Behaviorist approach contends that children learn language through imitation, repetition and the reinforcement of the successful linguistic attempts.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>8. Generative linguistics refers to any one of various approaches to the study of grammatical descriptions and processes that consider the purposes to which language is put and the contexts in which language occurs.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>9. In Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development, the stage from 2 to 7 years is characterized as the period of a child's life when learning occurs through a child's sensory and motor interactions with the physical environment. It is called sensorimotor stage.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>10. First Language learning is the process whereby children learn their first languages. All humans without exceptional physical or mental disabilities have an innate capability to learn language. Children may learn one or more first languages.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		

<p>11. <i>Discreteness</i> is a general term in <u>linguistics</u> for the limitless ability to use <u>language</u> to say new things. It is also known as <i>open-endedness</i> or <i>creativity</i>. It is also applied in a narrower sense to particular forms or constructions (such as <u>affixes</u>) that can be used to produce new instances of the same type. In this sense, it is most commonly discussed in connection with <u>word formation</u>.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		
<p>12. <i>Microlinguistics</i> is a branch of linguistics that concerns itself with the study of language systems in the abstract, without regard to the <i>meaning</i> or notional content of linguistic expressions. In <i>micro-linguistics</i>, language is reduced to the abstract mental elements of syntax and phonology.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>		

☺ ALL THE BEST WISHES

**Mohamed Kheider University
English Department**

**Subject : Linguistics
Level : Second Year**

**Name:
Group:**

Second Semester Examination

**Activity one: Answer by providing the right term for the following definitions:
(1.25 for each answer)**

- 1-The abstract structure that allows a language speaker to know the semantic content of a sentence.
- 2-The study of how words are stored in our minds and how we find them
- 3-A discipline that studies the mental representations and processes involved in language use.
- 4-According to Chomsky, it is the process of relating semantically similar sentences starting from the deep structure to the surface structure
- 5-A term associated with generative linguistics, cognitive processes universal grammar and language acquisition.
- 6-The study of how language sentences are generated, their syntactic planning as well as words' finding and building.
- 7-The study of how society influences the speakers' particular language and how people communicate with each others.
- 8-All languages possess the same set of categories and relations and that in order to communicate through language, speakers make infinite use of finite means. It is based on the idea that certain aspects of syntactic structure are universal.

Activity two: Answer by True for correct statements and False for the incorrect ones:

- 1- Sociolinguistics is a discipline that combines language and society factors and the study of language outside the context where it is used.
- 2- Generative grammar is the humans' ability to produce an unlimited number of structured sentences.
- 3- According to Chomsky, the main concern of modern linguistics has to be the study of mind processes.
- 4- Language production includes intention, planning, parsing and articulation.
- 5- Language acquisition device means that children are born with a special innate and biological ability to possess language.

- 6- Competence is our unconscious knowledge of *languages* and is similar in some ways to [Ferdinand de] Saussure's concept of langue and Performance is the actual use of language which is similar to de Saussure's Parole.
- 7- TGG is a theory a system of language analysis that recognizes the relationship among different kinds of sentences, and uses processes or rules to express them.
- 8- The surface structure is the outward form of a sentence. It is the structure that corresponds to the version of a sentence that can be spoken and heard.

GOOD LUCK

Student's full name:.....

GROUP NUMBER:.....

First term exam

1. Find the corresponding term to the following definitions (8 pts)

1.: can address meaning at the levels of words, phrases, sentences, or larger units of discourse
2. The links and dependencies between linguistic elements that coexist simultaneously in a linear series of a text or speech:
3. It is used to address both the written and spoken language as experienced in everyday life:
4. The fundamental language phenomenon consisting of the use of combinations of a small number of meaningless elements (sounds i.e. phonemes) to produce a large number of meaningful elements (words).
5. The process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next in a community.
6.: Language that is used to influence the behaviour of others including persuading, commanding or requesting.
7.: lays out the grammatical elements and rules of a language as it is actually used. It is written by linguists who study how people create and use a language.
8.: is a branch of linguistics concerned with language in its broadest sense and including cultural and behavioural features associated with language.

II. Tick true or false in the following (6 PTS)

STATEMENT	TRUE	FALSE
1. The Synchronic perspective of language study is more considered than the diachronic perspective because the latter is not needed.		
2. Paradigmatic relation of language refers to the semantic relations between words that can be substituted with other words of the same class.		
3. Discreteness in language describes the fact that human language is composed of sets of distinct sounds. One sound on its own may convey one meaning, multiple sounds combined in a particular order convey a different meaning.		
4. Duality refers to the human ability to use the language across time, place and individuals. Humans can communicate about things that are not here or occurred in the past.		
5. The term language viewed abstractly as a system of forms and conventions used for communication in a community		
6. De Saussure divides the sign into two distinct components: the <i>signifier</i> ('concept') and the <i>signified</i> ('sound-image').		

III. BRIEFLY STATE THE PREWAR AND POSTWAR CONTRIBUTIONS OF PRAGUE SCHOOL (6pts)

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GOOD LUCK

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10. The term language viewed abstractly as a system of forms and conventions used for communication in a community
a. True b. False
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11.were influenced by De Saussure in their syntagmatic and paradigmatic studies:
a. Prague school b. London school c. Geneva school
-
12. Prague school has mainly focused on Distinctive features analysis of sounds
a. True
b. False
-
13. Functionalist approach was adopted by Glossmatics school of Copenhagen.
a. True b. False
-
14. Bloomfield, Jakobson and Trubetzkoy were the three major contributors in Prague School.
a. True
b. False
-
15. **Functionalism**, in linguistics, the approach to language study that is concerned with the functions performed by language.
a. True b. False
-
16. Spoken languages met the great interest of the European structural linguists.
a. True b. False
-
17. is the study of the internal structure of words and forms a core part of linguistic study.
a. Morphology b. Phonology c. Syntax
-
18.is the sound associated with an image of something
a. Signifier
b. Signified
c. Sign
-
19. What is "syntax"?
a. Set of rules, principles, and processes that govern the structure of sentences
b. having to do with word order
c. organization of sounds
d. study of language
-
20. Semantics is a discipline in language meaning that was established by London school
a. True b. False

GOOD LUCK

3. Signifier

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4. *Microlinguistics*

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5. Language Acquisition Device (LAD)

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BEST OF LUCK