FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS IN LINGUISTICS

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to

my professors and instructors
in BA, MA and Ph.D. programs

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INTRODUCTION

Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics is a survey of basic concepts in linguistics written in a simple language for undergraduate students. It can be used as an essential textbook in related courses such as General Linguistics, Phonetics and Phonology, L1 & L2 Acquisition and so on. It can also be a helpful source of information for those who seek admission to M.A. programs.

The sample questions in this book are classified according to the concepts presented in different chapters. Having read each chapter, the students can take the relevant test and find out about their degree of achievement at the same time as they get familiar with the items that they will encounter in real Entrance Examinations to M.A. programs.

It is hoped that the present book will be helpful to our students and prove useful for M.A. candidates.

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PREFACE

The main incentive behind preparing a book of this kind in spite of the fact that many books on the same subject are available at the market is to provide students with a single book dealing with the major issues in Linguistics from different perspectives. Moreover, in the preparation of the book the Iranian students were in mind and it was tried that the final outcome would satisfy their needs.

I am indebted to a number of people who have assisted me in one way or another to write this book.

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CHAPTER ONE
PERSPECTIVES ON THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE

The goal of **linguistics** - the scientific study of language - is to describe language and to explain the unconscious knowledge all speakers have of their language. Linguists are not the only scholars who are concerned with the study of language. A philosopher, for instance, is also interested to determine the relationship between language and thought. Many other scientists are also involved in the study of modern branches of linguistics. In fact, since the introduction of Chomsky's **transformational generative grammar** (TGG), several new interdisciplinary branches of linguistics have evolved. **Psycholinguistics** brings psychology and linguistics together by focusing on the relationship between language and mind. It also deals with such issues as the relationships between language and cognition, the development of language in children and the interpretation of meaning in sentences. **Sociolinguistics** combines sociology and linguistics and studies the language people use in real life in their social interactions. **Neurolinguistics** concerns itself with the relations between language learning and the brain. It tells us how and where in the brain language is stored and what happens to the language if the brain is damaged. (Falk, 1978). These issues will be elaborated on in later chapters.

The earliest records of Greek interest in language related to the **Sophists** in the fifth century B.C. They were teachers of **rhetoric**, the art of public debate. The meaning of a speech was of little importance to them. They were primarily interested in the linguistic form. Among them, some believed in the natural relationship between the sound and the meaning. But assuming a **natural** view of language in general is insufficient. For the most part, the conventional view that the relationship between sound and meaning is **arbitrary** provides the most valid and accurate position and is of primary importance. A second matter of philosophical concern in Greek linguistics revolved around the issues of **regularity** in language. Those who stressed the regularity in language are known as **analogists**; while those who emphasized the presence of irregularity are called **anamolists**. It is clear that language is systematic and regular. In addition, the **Alexandrians** of the third and the second centuries B.C. were interested in the **literature of the past** (Falk, 1978).

The scholastic philosophers of the 13th and 14th centuries attempted to form a unified theory of human knowledge. A group of these philosophers known as **Modistae** were interested in the study of language. They wanted to explain why languages consist of systems of rules and forms. They further maintained that thoughts and knowledge are determined by the universe. As the universe is based on a system of rules, thought and the acquisition of knowledge should also be **rule-governed**. Furthermore, language as a reflection of the universe must be rule-governed and **universal**. Moreover, the **behaviorist** view claimed that a baby is born with a tableau Rosa; i.e. a totally blank mind (Falk, 1978).

The **rationalist** philosophers of the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries were interested in continuing the works of the **Modistae** with some major differences. Like the Modistae, the rationalists also concerned themselves with the **meaning** of linguistic utterances as well as their **form.** However, rather than arguing for the universality of language, they proposed the **innatist hypothesis** which maintains that human beings are born with a biological predisposition to learn language and it is this innate capacity that makes language learning feasible and rapid for children.

The opposing view to the **innatist** position is the **empiricist** stance which considers all human knowledge as related to experience and derived from the environment.

1.1 Modern Linguistics

Language and **speech** are not synonymous. **Speech** is a concrete, physical act—the production of certain utterances using certain words in a given order. **Language** is a mental phenomenon, a body of knowledge in the mind concerning phonology (sound system), syntax (word arrangement) and semantics (meaning structure). This knowledge can be put to use, but the resulting speech, or writing, is just a representation of the language, not the language itself (Falk, 1978).

The knowledge of language for the most part is unconscious and not accurately reflected by the use of language. Therefore, we need to make a distinction between **competence** and **performance**. Linguistic competence is the tacit knowledge native speakers have about their own language. It is this knowledge that helps them relate the sound and meaning together. Linguistic performance is the actual language behavior—**the use of language in daily life**. Linguists are mostly interested in competence, whereas other scholars in other fields are usually interested in performance. Linguistic competence is an abstraction from reality, a body of knowledge in the mind that is not open to direct observation. Linguistic competence is an idealized version of language as it exists in the minds of individuals, but linguistic

performance is the actual use of language by individuals in speech and writing (Richards *et al.*, 1992; Yule, 1996).

Table 1. 1 Culicover's (1997: 2) classification

What is in the mind	What people say
Grammar	Language
I-language	E-language
Competence	Performance

Grammar is the internal linguistic knowledge whereas language is defined as the set of words, phrases, and sentences that speakers can produce.

I-language (internalized language) is what is in the mind that accounts for our ability to acquire, speak, and understand language, whereas **E-language** (Externalized language) is what a speaker or a group of speakers say.

Linguistic rules are of two types: 1) **Constitutive rules** are those that are essential for the very existence of an activity or phenomenon. 2) **Regulative rules** are those that regulate an already existing activity. Laws such as prohibiting smoking are regulative rules. Linguists are concerned with the constitutive rules of human language. They are concerned not only with writing grammars of particular languages but also with determining the general principles of human language—*universal characteristics present in every language.* **Linguistic universals** provide the basis for **linguistic theory**. Linguistic theory in turn provides the basis for the writing of grammars of individual languages (Falk, 1978).

A grammar of a language is a description of underlying, mental linguistic competence of its speakers. Such a grammar is **descriptive**; *it describes the knowledge that underlies actual language use.* The rules in such a grammar are constitutive; *they describe what the language is.* But the grammars that one usually encounters in schools are not descriptive at all; rather, they are **prescriptive** grammars with regulative rules of *what language should be* (Yule, 1996).

1.2 The Origins of Language

According to Jesperson (1921) human language was originated while humans were actually enjoying themselves; but this is a speculation. We simply do not know how language originated. However, we do know that spoken language developed well before written language. According to Yule (1996) and Falk (1978), there are different speculations about the origin of language and some of them are reviewed below.

a) **Divine source**: According to this view, God gave language to humans as a gift. If human language did emanate from a divine source, we have no way of reconstructing that original language.

b) **Natural–sound source**: According to this theory, primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds which early men and women heard around them e.g. *moo, bow-wow*, and *meow*. It is, also, called **bow-wow theory**. These words are called **on·o·mat·o·poe·ic** (echoing natural sounds).

c) **Pooh-pooh theory**: Language started with groans, grunts, and cries of pain or pleasure. In other words, the original sounds of human language came from natural cries of emotions such as pain, anger, and joy; e.g. OUCH came to have its painful connotations.

d) **Yo-heave-ho theory**: Human language was created by sounds of people involved in physical effort, especially when it involved several people and had to be coordinated. This theory places the development of human language in *social context*.

e) **Ding-dong theory**: It means that people happened to make noises when they saw certain objects and the noises gradually acquired the status of words naming the objects.

f) **Oral-gesture theory**: There is a link between physical gesture and orally produced sounds. It is claimed that a set of physical gestures was developed as a means of communication. Then a set of oral gestures *(involving the mouth)* developed, in which the movements of tongue, lips and so on were recognized according to patterns of movement similar to physical gestures. This theory is, also, called a **specialized pantomime of the tongue and lips.**

h) **Glossogentics**: This focuses mainly on the biological basis of the formation and development of human language. In this theory, there is a concentration on some of the physical aspects of humans not shared by other creatures.

Yule (1996) mentions two major functions of language, namely: **interactional** and **transactional** functions. The interactional function has to do with how humans use language to interact with each other socially or emotionally to indicate *friendliness, cooperation, hostility, annoyance, pain* or *pleasure*. The transactional function is that function of language whereby humans use their linguistic abilities to communicate *knowledge, skills* and *information*. This function must have developed, in part, for the transfer of knowledge from one generation to the next, but it remains fairly restricted in time and space as long as it is realized in speech. By its nature speech is transient.

1.3 The Development of Writing

A very large number of the languages found in the world today are used in spoken form. They don't have a written form. Yule (1996), Fromkin & Rodman (1988), and Falk (1978) present the development of writing in the following way.

a) **Pictograms**: are pictures that have come to represent pictorial images in a consistent way. A sign like ☼ could be used to refer to the sun. So the relationship between sound and meaning is *conventional* not arbitrary. If this pictogram becomes a more fixed symbolic sign such as ⊙, and gets to be used for some other relevant concepts such as 'heat', the pictogram has become an **ideogram** or **idea writing**. The more picture-like forms are pictograms, while the more abstract derived forms are ideograms. Pictogram and ideogram don't represent words or sounds in a particular language. They are language independent. It is thought that there are pictogram or ideogram origins for a large number of symbols which turn up in later writing systems. The **hieroglyph** is a picture or symbol of an object, representing a word, a syllable or a sound, especially as used by ancient Egyptians.

b) **Logograms**: are symbols that represent words in a language. The relationship between form and object is arbitrary. A good example of logographic or word writing is **cuneiform** (*wedge-shaped*) used by Sumerians. When the expression "the earliest known writing system" is used, it means **Sumerain cuneiform**. People who might be unable to understand one another's speech understand logographic writing. 3 + 5 = 8 is an example of logographic writing. Chinese is mostly logographic.

c) **Rebus writing**: is a process in which the symbol for one entity is taken over as the symbol for the sound of the spoken word which is used to refer to that entity. That symbol then comes to be used whenever that sound occurs in any words; e.g. 👁 is a logographic writing for the word EYE. With Rebus principle, we can refer to ourselves as 👁 (I), to one of our friends as + 👁 (crosseye). Via this process there is a sizable reduction in the number of symbols needed in a writing system.

d) **Syllabic writing**: When a writing system employs a set of symbols which represent the pronunciations of syllables, it is described as syllabic writing. Modern Japanese is syllabic writing. Phoneticians who lived in modern Lebanon made full use of syllabic writing system.

e) **Alphabetic writing**: refers to a system in which symbols can be used to represent single sound types in a language. The alphabet is essentially a set of written symbols each of which represents a single type of sound. Semitic languages such as Arabic and Hebrew make use of alphabetic writing. The basis of writing system used in Russia today is what is called Cyrillic writing.

As a general rule, the written form of language lacks many features such as *intonation, intentional emphasis of a word in a sentence, gestures,* and *body* language (*the harmonious movement of the hands and the body and facial expressions during speech*). Thus, the study of the spoken form of a language provides the linguist with more genuine information than the written form.

1.4 General Properties of Language

1) **Communicative signals** are those that are intentionally transmitted such as linguistic messages or deliberate looks and smiles, and 2) **informative signals** are unintentional which are transmitted by a person about himself. For example, one may inform others that he is not feeling well by looking pale (Yule, 1996).

1.5 Unique Properties of Language

According to Yule (1996), the properties of language are:

1) **Displacement**: Humans can refer to any time (past and future) and locations in their speech. This property allows the users of language to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment. It enables us to talk about things and places we cannot be sure of and to refer to mythical creatures like demons, fairies, angels, and recently invented characters such as Superman. It is this property that allows us to create fiction and to describe possible future worlds. Animal communication lacks this property and is essentially concerned with this moment, *here and now.*

2) **Arbitrariness**: There is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning. The linguistic forms have no natural or **iconic** relationships to their meaning. The forms of human language don't, in any way, fit the objects they denotate. For example, we cannot determine the meaning of the word DOG from its form.

3) **Productivity**: Novel utterances never heard or uttered before, are continually being created. It is related to the fact that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite. It is also called **creativity, linguistic novelty,** or **open-endedness**. But animal signals have a feature called **fixed reference**. Some grammarians call this feature **recursive**; that is, it can be applied repeatedly and without any definite limit.

4) **Cultural transmission**: The process whereby language is passed on from one generation to the next is called **cultural transmission**. We are not born with the ability to produce utterances in a specific language, such as English, but all cats in the world communicate with the same sounds.

5) **Discreteness**: The fact that every sound has a specific role in determining the meaning of a cluster of sounds and that the sounds are not randomly set next to each other is called **discreteness**. Each sound in the language is considered as discrete.

6) **Duality**: Language is organized at two levels simultaneously. One is the physical level of speech production in which every individual sound *(b-n-i)* is articulated, and the other one is the abstract level of meaning that is attributed to specific sound combination; e.g. *bin* or *nib*. Duality is an economical feature because with limited sounds we produce unlimited number of words.

7) **Structure dependency**: Language is patterned. There is no random word order in the language.

S → NP + VP = I work.

NP → (ART) (ADJ) N = We visited the polluted river.

VP → V (NP) (PP) = He put the book on the desk.

VP → S = I know that he will come.

There are other properties of language that human and animal languages have in common: a) **vocal-auditory channel** means that *linguistic communication* is generated via organs and perceived via ears, but it can also be transmitted via writing or sign language of the deaf; b) **reciprocity** means that a speaker can also be a listener. In other words, language is not limited to just one of the two modes. Any sender can also be a receiver; c) **specialization** means that linguistic signals are only employed in language and have no other function such as breathing or feeding; d) **nondirectionality** means that linguistic signals can be picked up by anyone within hearing even unseen; e) **rapid fade** means that linguistic signals are produced and disappeared quickly, or sounds are disappeared almost as quickly as they are produced. Most of these properties are of spoken language not the written.

CHAPTER TWO

PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

2.1 Phonetics

The general study of the speech sounds utilized by human beings to represent meaning is called **phonetics**. The branches of phonetics are as follows: 1) **Articulatory** phonetics is the study of how speech sounds are produced or articulated; 2) **Auditory** or **perceptual** phonetics deals with perception (via the ear) of speech sounds; and 3) **Acoustic** phonetics deals with the physical properties of speech as sound waves. Since both articulatory and acoustic investigations deal with physical phenomena, they may be grouped together under the general term **physical** phonetics. Another branch is **forensic** phonetics that has applications in legal cases involving speaker identification and the analysis of recorded utterances. When linguists study speech sounds, they are concerned with **systematic** phonetics that deals with just those independently controllable features of sounds that people use in the sound system of their languages (Yule, 1996).

Most speech sounds are produced by pushing air *out* of the lungs through the mouth and the nose. Since the lung air is used, these sounds are called **pulmonic** and because the air is pushed *out*, they are called **egressive**. All English sounds are produced by **pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism**. Other air stream mechanisms used to produce sounds called **ejectives, implosives, and clicks**. Instead of lung air, the body of air in the mouth can be used. When the air is sucked in, **ingressive** sounds (*implosives* and *clicks*) are produced, but ejectives are egressive sounds because the air in the mouth is pushed out. Implosives and ejectives are produced by **glottalic air stream** mechanism whereas clicks are produced by a **velaric** air stream mechanism (Fromkin & Rodman, 1988).

We start with the air pushed by the lungs through the **trachea** (*windpipe*) to the larynx. Inside the larynx are vocal cords, which are flexible and elastic. The vocal cords can take different positions two of which are our concern in this chapter and are explained in the following paragraphs.

When the vocal cords are near each other without being tightly closed, the air stream forces its way through and causes them to vibrate and produce voice or **phonation.** Sounds produced in this way are called **voiced**.

When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them without any hindrance. No vibration and consequently no voice is produced. Sounds produced in this way are called **voiceless**.

Once the air passes through the larynx, it comes up and out through the mouth or the nose or both. When the velum (*soft palate*) is raised, the nasal passage is blocked and the air can escape only through the mouth. Such sounds are **oral sounds**. When the velum is lowered, the air escapes through the nose as well as the mouth. Sounds produced in this way are called **nasalized sounds**. If the passage through the mouth is closed somehow and the velum is lowered, the air escapes only through the nose. Sounds thus produced are **nasal sounds**.

In order to represent speech sounds in writing, linguists use a set of phonetic features (symbols) that have a one-to-one correspondence with the sounds they represent. These symbols are phonetic symbols and the kind of writing making use of them is called **phonetic transcription**. If only a basic set of symbols is used without recording the details of pronunciation **broad transcription** is produced. With the addition of other symbols, it is possible to provide a **narrow transcription** of speech sounds, which shows all or most of the characteristics of the sounds that the transcriber can perceive. For example, the word *pin* can be transcribed as [pɪn] in broad transcription and as [pʰɪ̃n] in narrow transcription.

When the vocal tract is positioned in such a way that the air moving through the vibrating vocal cords passes out of the oral cavity with no obstruction or narrowing of the passage, the feature [**+ vocalic**] is produced. But if some part of the vocal tract moves substantially away from the pre-speech position and an obstruction or narrowing of the passage is created, the feature [**+ consonantal**] is produced. Each of these features may be present or absent in the production of a given sound. Thus four categories can be distinguished as follows:

[**+ vocalic, - consonantal**] = vowels
[**+ vocalic, + consonantal**] = liquids (l, r)
[**- vocalic, + consonantal**] = consonants
[**- vocalic, - consonantal**] = glides = semivowels (w, y, h)

2.1.1 Place of Articulation

The place in the vocal tract where the air stream is stopped or impeded is called **place of articulation**. Consonants can be classified according to their place of articulation in the following way (Yule, 1996; Fromkin & Rodman, 1988; Falk, 1978; Richards *et al.*, 1992):

a) **Bilabials**: These sounds are produced by bringing both lips together ([p, b, m]).

b) **Labiodentals**: These sounds are formed by putting the upper teeth on the lower lip. [f] and [v] are labiodentals.

c) **Dentals** or **Interdentals**: They are formed with the tongue tip between the upper and the lower teeth: [θ, ð].

d) **Alveolars**: These sounds are formed with the tip of the tongue on the alveolar ridge, the rough bony ridge behind the upper teeth: [t, d, s, z, n, l, r].

e) **Alveopalatals**: Sounds produced with the tip of the tongue against the borderline between the hard palate and the alveolar ridge are called alveo-palatals: [ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ]

f) **Palatal**: This sound is produced by bringing the front of the tongue close to the hard palate: [j].

g) **Velars**: Sounds produced with the back of the tongue against the velum (soft palate): [k, g, ŋ, w].

h) **Glottals**: They are produced in the **glottis**, the space between the vocal cords, without the active use of the tongue and the other parts of the mouth. [h] and [ʔ] are glottal sounds.

If the tip of the tongue is raised in the articulation of a sound, the feature [+ coronal] is produced. Therefore, dentals, alveolars and alveopalatals are [+ coronal] and other sounds are [- coronal]. Sounds that are produced at points to the front of the alveopalatal region have the feature [+ anterior] and other sounds are [- anterior]. Based on these features, the following **groups** can be identified:

[- coronal, + anterior] = bilabials and labiodentals
[+ coronal, + anterior] = dentals and alveolars
[+ coronal, - anterior] = alveopalatals
[- coronal, - anterior] = palatals, velars, and glottals

2.1.2 Manner of Articulation

The way in which the air stream flows out of the vocal tract is called **manner of articulation** (Yule, 1996; Fromkin & Rodman, 1988; Falk, 1978; Richards *et al.*, 1992).

a) **Stops**: They are produced by some form of complete stopping of the air stream and then letting it go abruptly. They are also called **plosives**. [p, b, t, d, k, g] are **oral stops** and we use the feature [+ **abrupt release**] to refer to them. [m], [n], and [ŋ] are **nasal stops.**

b) **Fricatives**: They involve narrowing the air passage and having the air pass through the narrow opening. As the air pushes through, a type of friction is produced. [f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ] and [ʒ] are all **fricatives**. As the obstruction is partial, with sufficient space left for the air stream to continue moving through the mouth, these sounds are said to be [+ **continuant**]. The

[+ continuant] sounds may accompany turbulence or friction noise. Sounds produced with this feature are referred to as [+ strident]. [θ] and [ð] are [- strident], whereas all other fricatives are [+ strident].

c) **Affricates**: These sounds share features with stops and fricatives. They begin like stops and end like fricatives. In other words, the air passage is completely blocked but the release is not abrupt, so the final stage becomes similar to fricatives. Thus affricates are said to be [- abrupt release], but [+ strident].

In the production of fricatives ([s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ]) and affricates ([tʃ] and [dʒ]), there is a friction which causes a hissing sound. These sounds are called **sibilants**. In the production of sibilants and labiodentals ([f], [v]) there is more noise or stridency. So they are called **[+ strident]** sounds.

d) **Nasals**: These sounds are formed when the velum is lowered and the air stream is allowed to flow out through the nose. [m], [n], and [ŋ] are nasal sounds ([+ nasal]); all the other sounds are oral ([- nasal]).

Non-nasal stops, fricatives and *affricates* are called **obstruents** because the air stream can not escape through the nose; it is either fully obstructed or partially obstructed through the vocal tract. All the other sounds (vowels, liquids and glides) are [+ sonorant].

e) **Approximants**: The articulation of each is strongly influenced by the following vowel sound.

1) [l] is a **lateral** sound. The tongue is raised to the alveolar ridge, but the passage is not blocked so that the air can escape laterally over the sides of the tongue.

2) The sound [r] is produced in a variety of ways: A) **Retroflex**: this kind of [r] is produced by curling the tip of the tongue back behind the alveolar ridge. B) **Trill (rolled)**: this [r] is produced by the tip of the tongue vibrating against the roof of the mouth. C) **Tap**: this sound is produced by a single tap instead of a series of a vibrating taps. [l] and [r] are liquids.

3) **Semi-vowels** or **glides**: They are produced with the tongue moving or gliding to or away from the position of a nearby vowel. [y] is a palatal but [w] is a labiovelar glide.

4) [h] is a voiceless **glottal** fricative sound. The glottis is open for its production but [ʔ] is a glottal stop because the air is stopped completely at the glottis by tightly closed vocal cords and then released.

Obstruents and glides are [- **syllabic**] all the time. Vowels are [+ **syllabic**] all the time, but liquids and nasals are sometimes [-**syllabic**] and sometimes [+ **syllabic**]. When they come at the end of a syllable preceeded by a stressed syllable, they are [+ **syllabic**].

Table 2.1 Classification of Phonetic Symbols for Non-vowel Sounds

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	velar	Glottal
Stop (oral) -Vd Unasp - Vd asp +Vd	p p^h b			t t^h d		k k^h g	?
stop (Nasal)	m			n		ŋ	
Fricative - Vd +Vd		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
Affricate - Vd + Vd					tʃ dʒ		
Glide - Vd + Vd	w				j		
Liquid				l r			

- vd = - voiced   unasp = unaspirated
+ vd = + voiced   asp = aspirated

2.1.3 Vowels and Diphthongs

Vowels are produced with a relatively free flow of air. They are all [+ voiced]. All simple vowels are monophthongs. **Diphthongs** are usually considered as one distinctive vowel of a language but actually involve two vowels, with one gliding to the other.

Vowels are described in terms of three variables:

a) The height of the tongue: **low**, **mid** and **high**,

b) The part of the tongue: **front**, **central** and **back**,

c) The shape of the lips: **rounded** or **unrounded** (all of the front vowels in English are unrounded and all of the back vowels except [ɑ:] are rounded).

Table 2.2. Classification of Phonetic Symbols for Vowel Sounds

Parts of the tongue involved / Tongue height	Front	Central	Back
High	i(see) ɪ (it)		u (too) ʊ (book)
Mid	eɪ (way) e(pen)	ʌ (cut) ə (ago)	əʊ (boat) ɔ: (bore)
Low	æ (ant)		ɑ: (bar)

2.1.4 Suprasegmentals or Prosodic Features

These features describe the properties of units larger then a single sound segment. They include **stress, tone, intonation** and **length**.

The feature **stress** describes the prominence of a syllable. Differences in stress may result in different meanings. The suprasegmental feature **tone** describes the relative pitch at which a syllable is produced. In English, the pitch of a particular syllable is generally unimportant. Languages such as Hausa in which the use of tone is significant in reflecting differences in meaning and in which the tone remains level throughout a syllable are referred to as **level** or **register tone languages.**

When a pattern of pitch changes occurs during a phrase or sentence, we have a phenomenon called **intonation**. In English, different intonations reflect different meanings.

Length refers to the duration, or quantity of a sound. Notice that unlike *stress* and *tone*, which refer to entire syllables, length describes the duration of a particular sound segment. Length differences do not result in meaning differences in English.

The **syllable**, like the sound segment, is a unit of phonological system with an arbitrary relationship to meaning and no meaning of its own (unlike **morpheme**, which is a unit of meaning represented by sound). The syllable is described as a sequence of sounds produced with the air from a single chest pulse.

2.2 Phonology

The study of the sound system of a language is called **phonemics**, but **phonology** is the study of all aspects of the sounds and sound system of a language. For some linguists, phonology is a cover term for both phonemics

and phonetics. For others, phonology is another term for phonemics. Phonology is based on what we unconsciously know about sound patterns of our language. It is concerned with the abstract or mental aspect of sounds in languages rather than with actual physical articulation of speech sounds. Phonology always allows us to distinguish meaning in the actual physical sounds we say and hear (Yule, 1996; Falk, 1978).

Phonemes are meaning distinguishing sounds. They function contrastively and they are abstract. They are in the mind. **Phones** are produced in the actual speech (in the mouth). When we have a set of phones (all of which are versions of one phoneme) they are called **allophones**. Substituting one phoneme for another would result in a word with a *different meaning* or *pronunciation*, but substituting one allophone for another would result in a *different pronunciation* of the same word with no change in the meaning.

When two different forms are identical in every aspect except for one sound segment that occurs in the same place in the string, they are called **minimal pairs,** e.g. [sɪt , sæt] (sit, sat). When a group of words are differentiated, each one from the others, by changing one phoneme (always occuring in the same position), then we have a **minimal set**, like [sit, sɪt, set, sæt, sɔːt, sʊt] (seat, sit, set, sat, sort, soot). When two words are exactly alike phonetically except for one feature, the phonetic feature is **distinctive** or **phonemic** since this difference alone accounts for the contrast or difference in meaning; e.g. the difference between *bat* and *mat* is because of **nasality**. [b] is [- **nasal**] but [m] is [+ **nasal**]. When two or more sounds occur in the same phonemic context or environment, they are said to be in **complementary distribution;** e.g. *when oral vowels occur, nasal vowels do not occur* and *vice versa.*

The **phonological generalizations** are called **redundancy rules**, since they add redundant, or predictable, information about features to the phonemic representation. Redundancy rules can be presented as **"if...then"** statements; e.g. a) **Nasalization rule**: "If vowels and diphthongs occur before nasal sounds, then they are nasalized" and b) **Aspiration rule**: "Aspirate voiceless stops before stressed vowels at the beginning of a word or a syllable."

Unlike **redundancy** rules which simply fill in information about predictable features in sound segments, **phonological rules** may add, delete sound segments, or even change the features within a sound segment. As an example, co-articulation effects are phonological rules. Co-articulation is the process of making one sound almost at the same time as the next. Co-articulation consists of **assimilation, dissimilation, elision,** and **liaison** (Richards *et al.*, 1992; Fromkin &Rodman, 1988).

1) **Assimilation**: When a speech sound changes and becomes more like another sound, which follows or precedes it, this is called **assimilation**. There are two kinds of assimilation:

A) **Progressive assimilation**: When one of the features of a sound is transmitted to the following sound; e.g. in the word *cats* the plural "s" is pronounced *s* because "t" is voiceless.

B) **Regressive assimilation**: One feature moves backwards; e.g. *n* is alveolar and *p* is bilabial; therefore *p* affects *n* and changes *n* to *m* in the word *impossible.*

2) **Dissimilation**: A rule in which a segment becomes less similar to another segment rather than more similar; e.g., in the word *diphthong* we change *f* to *p* and pronounce it as [dipθɔːŋ].

In assimilation we want to make two sounds similar but in dissimilation we want to make two sounds different. Another difference is that assimilation takes place from the point of view of speakers but dissimilation takes place from the point of view of hearers.

When assimilation involves vowels which are not adjacent, the special terms **umlaut** (the vowel of a root assimilates to the vowel of a suffix) and **vowel harmony** (certain features of the root vowel determine features in the suffix) are used to describe the phonological phenomena.

3) **Elision**: The omission of a sound segment, which would be present in the deliberate pronunciation of a word in isolation; e.g. the word *aspects* is pronounced as [æspɛks].

4) **Liaison**: The linking of words in speech, in particular when the second word starts with a vowel; e.g. *an egg* is pronounced [ə 'neg].

Phonotactics tells us that there are definite patterns to the types of sound combinations permitted in a language; e.g. *lig* or *vig* is possible in English but *fslg* and *rnlg* are not.

In Persian we have **CV(C)(C)** like the word *mast* [mast] but in English we can have **(C)(C)(C)V(C)(C)(C)(C)** like the word *strengths* [streŋθs]. These words include **consonant clusters,** combination of consonants with no vowels in between.

Syllabic sounds refers to any sound which can take the position of a vowel in peak. A syllable may have three parts: **onset, peak,** and **coda.** The peak is the obligatory element whereas the other parts may or may not be present in a syllable.

Table 2.3 Onset, Peak, and Coda

examples	onset	peak	coda
Cat	k	æ	t
I	—	aɪ	—
or	—	ɔː	(r)
tea	t	iː	—

A syllable with onset and peak is called **open** syllable; e.g. *tea*. A syllable with a coda present is called **closed** syllable; e.g. *cat*. Both the onset and the coda can consist of more than one consonant, which is called **consonant cluster**.

Among the consonants, just nasals and liquids can be syllabic if they occur in *unaccented final syllable in final position*. Vowels carry stress and intonation but syllabic consonants do not.

CHAPTER THREE
WORD FORMATION PROCESSES AND MORPHOLOGY

3.1 Word Formation Processes

There are different word formation processes. They consist of coinage, borrowing, compounding, blending, abbreviation or clipping, back-formation, conversion, acronymy, and derivation (Yule, 1996; Fromkin & Rodman, 1988; Falk, 1978; Richards *et al.*, 1992).

Coinage, one of the least common processes of word formation, is the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company's product, which become general terms for any version of the product; e.g. *aspirin* and *kleenex.*

Borrowing is taking over of words from other languages. A type of borrowing in which each morpheme or word is translated into the equivalent morpheme or word in another language is called **loan translation** or **calque**; e.g. Latin→ amni + potnes → English → almighty (all + mighty).

Compounding is joining of two separate words to produce a single form. Compound words are written as a single word (*headache*), as a hyphenated word (*self-government*) or as two separate words (*police station*).

Blending (portmanteau word) is combining two separate forms to produce a single new term. In other words, blends are compounds that are "less than" compounds. Blending is accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of another word; e.g. gasoline + alcohol → gasohol, or breakfast + lunch → brunch.

Abbreviation or **clipping** happens when a word of more than one syllable such as *facsimile* is reduced to a short form, *fax*, often in casual speech. Another type of abbreviation is pronounced letter by letter; e.g. U.S.A. and D.N.A.

Back-formation takes place when a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually a verb); e.g. television → televise. A particular type of back-formation is **hypocorism** in which first a longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then *y* or *ie* is added to its end; e.g. television → tele → telly.

Conversion is a change in the function of a word as when a noun comes to be a verb (without any reduction). It is also called **category shift** or **func-**

tional shift; e.g. paper (noun) → paper (verb) → He is papering the bedroom walls.

Acronyms are formed from the initial letters of a set of words. They remain essentially alphabeticism; that is, they are pronounced as the spelling indicates; e.g. NATO in English, or in Persian:

<div dir="rtl">ناجا = نیروی انتظامی جمهوری اسلامی</div>

Derivation is the most common word formation process. It is accomplished by means of a large number of small *bits* of the language, which are not usually given separate listings in dictionaries. These small bits are called **affixes**. Affixes consist of:

1) **Prefixes** which are added to the beginning of words; e.g. un+happy → unhappy.

2) **Suffixes** which are added to the end of the words; e.g. child + ish → childish.

3) **Infixes** which are incorporated inside another words and are rare in English; e.g. goddam in abso*goddam*lutely.

3.2 Morphology

According to Yule, 1996 (Fromkin & Rodman, 1988; Falk, 1978; Richards *et al.*, 1992) **morphology** is the study of word formation or the study of internal structure of words and the rules by which they are formed. **Morpheme** is the smallest meaningful unit in a language. For example, the word *tourists* is made of three morphemes: *tour + ist + s*. Morphemes are of **bound** and **free** types:

Free morphemes can stand by themselves as a single word; e.g. *open* and *tour*. But those which can not normally stand alone and which are typically attracted to another form are called **bound** morphemes; e.g. *-ist* in 'tourist' and *re-* in 'rewrite'. All affixes are bound. When free morphemes are used with bound ones, the basic form of the word-form is called **stem**; e.g. in the word *undressed* the part *dress* is the stem. Some of the free morphemes such as *care* and *dress* are productive and stand alone. These are called **free stems**. But stems such as *ceive* and *duce* are not productive and can not stand alone. These are called **bound** stems.

Free stems are either **lexical** or **functional**:

1) **Lexical** morphemes are those set of ordinary words (content words) such as nouns, adjectives, and verbs which we think of as carrying the content of messages we convey. Because we can add new lexical morphemes to the language, they are called **open class**.

2) **Functional** morphemes consist of the function words such as conjunctions, articles, prepositions and pronouns. Because we can not add new

functional words to the language, they are called **closed class**. It is improbable to borrow functional morphemes.

Bound morphemes are either: 1) **derivational** or 2) **inflectional**:

1) **Derivational** morphemes are used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. For example, *good* is an adjective. If we add the suffix *-ness* to it, the result is a noun (goodness).

2) **Inflectional** morphemes are not used to produce new words in the language, but rather to indicate aspects of grammatical function of a word; e.g. *old* is a simple adjective. If we add *-er*, it becomes *older* which is a comparative adjective.

Different types of inflectional morphemes:

a) **Tense**: past tense (*talk + ed*) or third person singular (*talk +s*),

b) **Number**: plurals (*pen + s = pens*),

c) **Gender**: in English *actor → actress*; and in French *blond → blonde*,

d) **Progressive aspect**: *ing* in *walking*,

e) **Perfect aspect**: *ed* (as in he had *walked*); and *en* (as in he has *taken* a gift),

f) **Possessive aspect**: *'s* in *Caroline's cat*; or *s'* in *students' books*,

g) **Comparative** and **superlative adjectives**: as in 'young*er*' and 'young*est*' respectively.

There are some differences between inflectional and derivational morphemes. 1) In English, there is usually one inflectional affix in each word (except the plural and possessive because we can say the *cats'cheese*); but in many words there is more than one derivational affix (e.g. *carelessness*). 2) Inflectional affixes occur in English at the end of the word following any derivational affixes that may be present; e.g. the word *nationalities*. 3) The number of derivational affixes tends to be much larger than the number of inflectional affixes but any particular inflectional affix will be used much more frequently than any particular derivational affix. For example, inflectional morphemes of plural occur more than the derivational morpheme *-ness*. 4) Inflectional morphemes are suffixes but derivational morphemes are both prefixes and suffixes.

If we consider **phones** as the actual realization of **phonemes,** then we can propose **morphs** as the actual forms used to realize **morphemes**. As there are **allophones** of a particular **phoneme**, then we can recognize **allomorphs** of a particular **morpheme**.

The **morphophonemic** rule determines the phonetic form of the plural morpheme, because its application is determined by both the morphology and phonology. A morpheme has alternate phonetic forms, which are called allomorphs. [s], [z] and [iz] would be the allomorphs of the plural morpheme "s".

CHAPTER FOUR

TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR

We need to study grammar in order to describe the structure of phrases and sentences, which will account for all grammatical sequences and to rule out all ungrammatical sentences.

According to Yule (1996) there are three types of grammar:

1) Each adult speaker of a language has some type of 'mental grammar'; i.e. a form of internal linguistic knowledge which operates in the production and recognition of appropriately structured expressions in that language. This 'grammar' is subconscious and is not the result of teaching. It is of most interest to **psychologists**, since it deals with what goes on in the people's mind.

2) The second type involves what might be considered 'linguistic etiquette'; that is, the identification of the 'proper' or 'best' structure to be used in a language. This is of most interest to **sociologists**, since it deals with people's social attitudes and values.

3) The third type of 'grammar' deals with the study and analysis of the structures found in a language. It is of interest to **linguists**, since it deals with the nature of language, often independently of the users of the language. Cook & Newson (1997) and Radford (1981) state that any linguistic theory should be able to meet three levels of adequacy:

1) **Observational adequacy**: A theory is observationally adequate if it can deal with the basic facts observed in the language.

2) **Descriptive adequacy**: A theory achieves descriptive adequacy if it deals properly with linguistic competence of the native speakers.

3) **Explanatory adequacy**: A theory is explanatorily adequate if the linguistics theory can provide a principled reason why linguistic competence takes the form it does.

4.1 Approaches to Grammar

1) **Prescriptive approach**: It was used by the 18th century grammarians who set out rules for the correct or 'proper' use of English. Two of their famous slogans are: a) *You should not split an infinitive.* b) *You must not end a sentence with a preposition* (Yule, 1996).

2) **Descriptive approach**: Analysts collect samples of the language they are interested in and attempt to describe the regular structures of the language as it is used, not according to some view of how it should be used. One type of descriptive approach is called **structural analysis**. The main concern of structural analysis is to investigate the distribution of forms (e.g. morphemes) in a language. Test frames which can be sentences with empty slots in them are used; e.g. *The .... makes a lot of noise*. An approach with the same descriptive aims is called **immediate constituent analysis** which shows how small constituents or components in sentences go together to form larger constituents (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Representation of small constituents or components

S→	Her father	bought	a present	for her birthday.
	NP	V	NP	PP

4.2 Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)

TGG has rules similar to the rules in mathematics. Chomsky (1975b) states "I will consider a language to be a set of finite rules or infinite sentences." This grammar has a number of properties: a) *It will generate all well-formed structures of language and fail to generate any ill-formed structures*; b) *It has a finite number of rules but produces an infinite number of well-formed structures*; c) *It also handles recursion; that is, the capacity of a rule to be applied more than once in generating a structure*; e.g. *this is the dog that chased the cat that killed the rat ... .*

This section will be concerned with the birth and development of **transformational generative grammar**. **Structuralists** and **behaviorists** take language as a habit structure. For them, language is a behavior that can be learned through conditioning and through practice and repetition. Furthermore, the stimulus-response processes are extended to cover the area of language learning as well. But there is evidence that normal language use is free from the control of detectable stimuli, either external or internal. According to Ckomsky (1968) the creativity involved in the use of language and the stimulus-free expression of thought cannot be explained in terms of **stimulus-response** conditioning.

Most of what we hear and say in everyday life is completely new. Very rarely we repeat the sentences that we have already heard, and most of the utterances we hear are novel, so we are not likely to have encountered them before. Yet, we have no difficulty in understanding them. This shows the limi-

tation of the **behavioral approach** to language. In fact the number of possible sentences of every language is so great that it is not imaginable for a person to be able to memorize them all. The TGG models are as follows (the following sections are taken from Yamini, 1996-8; Steinberg, 1991).

4.3 The First TGG Model

Chomsky's *Syntactic Structure* is devoted to syntax and no serious discussion of semantics, morphology or phonology can be found in it. Based on this model, language is taken to be a set of unlimited number of sentences formed out of a limited number of linguistic elements according to a limited number of rules. A grammar is like a machine that generates only well-formed structures and no ill-formed structures. It must be mentioned that for Chomsky **linguistic knowledge**, **competence** and **grammar** are synonymous.

Chomsky mentioned two points about grammar. First, he claimed that the set of grammatical sentences can not be identified with any particular corpus of utterances obtained by the linguist who works in the field. Second, he suggested that syntax should be **autonomous** of semantics, that is, syntactic problems should be solved only through syntax.

Later on, Chomsky introduced the **phrase structure grammar (PSG)** instead of the **immediate constituent analysis** used by structuralists and stated that there are certain phrase structure rules that make up the phrase structure grammar. For example, S→NP+ VP.

Phrase structure grammar is linear and hierarchical. The main problem with **PSG** is that it does not reveal the highly systematic relationship that exists between structures such as *active* and *passive* sentences. We know that the direct object of an active sentence is the subject of the passive. Also the subject of the active sentence is associated with the *by-phrase* in the passive, and the active verb is preceded by the auxiliary *be* and changed into *past participle* in the passive. This systematicity exists between all active and passive sentences in English and we should not generate them separately. To capture this systematicity, Chomsky introduced **transformational rules**. These rules take structure as an input (**structural description =SD**) and generate a different structure as an output (**structural change =SC**). For example, the active and passive relationship can be shown as follows (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 SD & SC

	NP	V	NP
SD	1	2	3
SC	3	Be + pp of 2	By +1

The conclusion is that these two structures have the same **deep structure** (the abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are present) but different **surface structures** (the syntactic forms they take as actual English sentences). So the grammar explains how a single underlying abstract representation can manifest different surface structures. The above two structures are **paraphrase**. Paraphrase is the converse of **ambiguity**. In ambiguity, one sentence has more than one meaning; in paraphrase, two or more sentences have the same meaning. For example the sentence *John was too far away to see* can be understood in more than one way; that is, either *John cannot see* or *someone cannot see John*, so it is ambiguous..

Generally speaking, there are two kinds of transformations: 1) **obligatory** and 2) **optional**. Obligatory rules are those that have to be applied to the SD, or the resulting structure will be ill-formed. However, there are some rules that may apply or may not apply, and in either case the resulting structure is well-formed. These are called optional transformational rules. When a sentence is formed out of the application of only obligatory transformations, that sentence is said to be **kernel**. The kernel sentences are basically declareative, positive and active. Here we deal with different **transformational rules** one by one (Varzegar *et al.*, 1997).

1) **Particle movement** is a transformation in which the particle of the phrasal verb is put after the object. This is an optional transformation. However, if the object is pronominalized, i.e. becomes a pronoun, particle movement will become obligatory: *He put on his hat* or *He put his hat on* but only *He put it on* and not * *He put on it*.

2) **Reflexivization** refers to using reflexive pronouns. When the subject and the object of a sentence refer to the same person or thing, it is obligatory: *Earnest Hemingway killed Earnest Hemingway → Earnest Hemingway killed himself*. In other cases it is an optional element, which is added for emphasis and can be deleted without ruining the grammaticality status of a sentence: *I told him the news myself* or *I myself told him the news*.

3) **Extraposition** is moving a word, phrase or a clause to a position in a sentence, which is different from its usual position: *Eating hamburgers is a great fun → It is great to eat hamburgers.*

4) **That insertion** is adding the word *that* before an embedded sentence: *It surprised everyone that he answered the question correctly.*

5) **It deletion** is a transformation in which the word *it* is deleted: *Martin saw Bob cheat in the test,* which has the deep structure *Martin saw it Bob cheat in the test.*

6) **Relativization** is the set of transformations involved in inserting a relative clause in a sentence: *Sarah is six feet and Sarah is a basketball champion.*

Stage 1: Sarah — Sarah is a basketball champion — is six feet tall.
Stage 2: Sarah who is a basketball champion is six feet tall.

7) **Whiz-deletion** or **relative reduction** is the deletion of the relative pronoun and the verb to be. *The rat in the middle of the street frightened many children.* This sentence was originally: *The rat which was in the middle of the street frightened many children.* So it is an optional transformation. Consider the sentence: *My classmate who is German loves his father.* If it undergoes relative reduction transformation, the result will be **My classmate German loves his father.* We see that the sentence is ungrammatical and we should apply another transformation called **adjective inversion transformation** through which the adjective is moved before the noun: *My German classmate loves his father.*

8) **The equi-NP deletion** is an obligatory transformation which under certain conditions the second occurrence of a noun phrase (NP) in a sentence containing two verbs which have the same subject is avoided. Consider this example: *Mary expects Ran to find the passport.* Now suppose that the subject of the second clause becomes the same as the first one:

*Mary expects Mary to find the passport. In this case the second *Mary* must be obligatorily deleted.

9) **Pro-form deletion** is an optional process through which a pronoun may be deleted: *John is too far away to see any one* → *John is too far away to see.*

4.4 Standard Theory

The first complete generative transformational model is known as the **standard theory**. This model is complete because all components of language such as **deep** and **surface** structures, **competence** and **performance** are included in it. The standard model includes a **lexicon**, which is a morphological component of the language. The information about pronunciation of lexical entries (**phonology**), their syntactic categories and subcategories (**syntax**) and their meaning (**semantics**) exists in the lexicon. It also includes **word formation rules, lexical insertion rules** (*choosing the appropriate lexical entries to be added under the tree generated by phrase structure rules*) and **strict subcategorization frame** (*checking to see that there is a match between subcategorization features of the lexical item and the*

tree). The strict subcategorization indicates the type and number of the complements a verb should have. Violation of subcategorization features will produce ill-formed structures.

1. *He put.
2. *He put the book.
3. *He put on the table.
4. He put the book on the table.

Only sentence number 4 is well-formed, because it includes all the arguments (names and entities that accompany the main verb in a sentence) of the verb *put*.

Figure 4.1 Chomsky' Standard Theory Grammar

(taken from Steinberg, 1991)

Base rules	Lexicon

Deep Structure

| Transformational rules | | Semantic rules |

Surface Structure   Semantic Representation

| Phonological rules |

Phonetic Representation
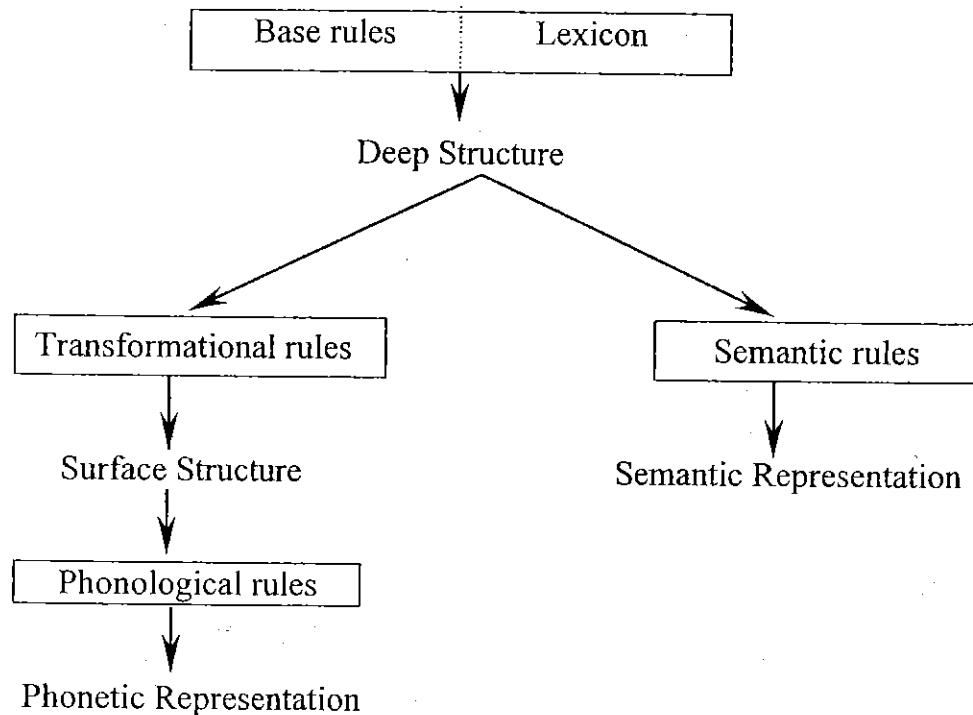
So, the standard theory of interpretive semantics hypothesizes that semantic interpretation takes place at the level of *deep structure* not *the surface structure*, and the analysis of semantics must be done through syntactic rules, because, the syntactic component is prior to the semantic component. According to this theory, the deep structure of a sentence contains elements that may be deleted through the application of different transformations without altering the original meaning of the sentence.

4.5 Extended Standard Theory (Interpretive Semantics)

The standard theory was later changed to **extended standard theory** because of the decisive rule of actual intonation of a sentence in determining the meaning. Based on this theory both deep and surface structures determine the meaning of a sentence.

Figure 4.2 Chomsky' Interpretive Semantics Grammar

(taken from Steinberg, 1991)

Base rules	Lexicon

Deep Structure

Transformational rule		Semantic rules

Surface Structure   Semantic Representation

Phonological rules

Phonetic Representation
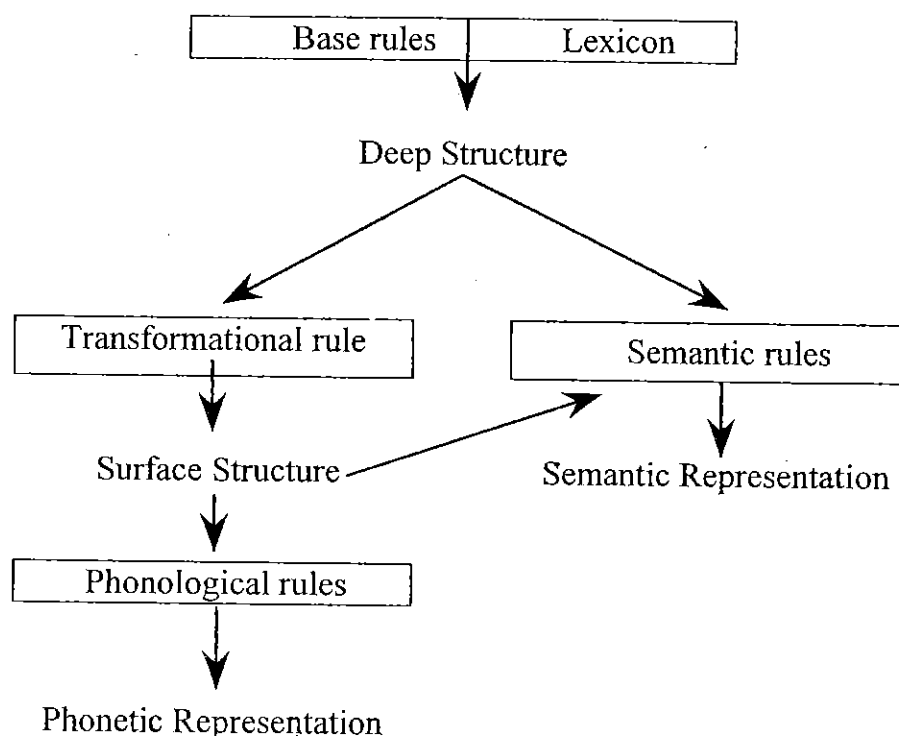
4. 6 Revised Extended Standard Theory (Trace Grammar)

Chomsky's most recent theorizing abolishes the connection between deep structure and the semantic component. Instead, surface structure determines the meaning of a sentence. As Chomsky (1975b: 82) puts it, "all semantic information is determined by a somewhat enriched notion of surface structure". A schema of Chomsky's Trace grammar follows:

Figure 4.3 Chomsky' Trace Grammar

(taken from Steinberg, 1991)

```
┌──────────────┬──────────────┐
│  Base rules  │   Lexicon    │
└──────────────┴──────────────┘
               ↓
       Initial phrase marker
        (Deep Structure)
               ↓
      ┌─────────────────────┐
      │ Transformational rules │
      └─────────────────────┘
               ↓
        Final phrase marker
         (Surface Structure)
          ↙            ↘
┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│ Phonological rules │   │  Semantic rules 1  │
└──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘
         ↓                      ↓
Phonetic Representation      Logical form
                                ↓
                    ┌──────────────────────────┐
                    │ Semantic rules 2 & rules of │
                    │  other cognitive systems    │
                    └──────────────────────────┘
                                ↓
                    Semantic Representation
```
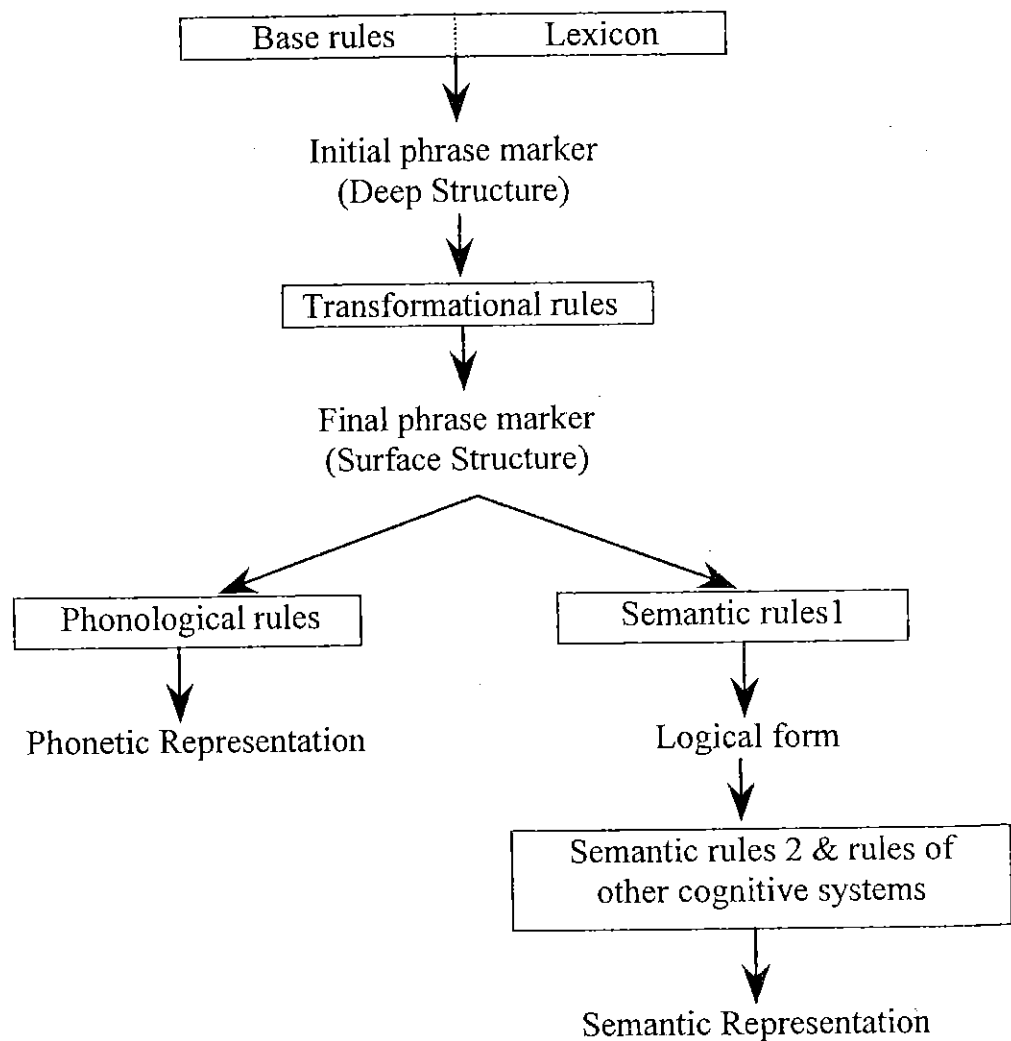
The revised extended standard theory (also known as **Government and Binding**) includes certain components that are mentioned in the following pages (Yamini, 1996-8).

1) **X-bar Theory**: It is concerned with different levels of lexical categories, each of which is represented by different number of bars such as N, N-bar and N-double-bar. Proponents of **X-bar syntax** voice two types of objections to Phrase Structure Syntax:

A) Phrase Structure Syntax is too restricted in the number of types of categories it permits, B) Phrase Structure Syntax is too unconstrained in the sets of possible phrase structure rules it permits.

The need for the adaptation of a bar system like this arose from the fact that certain intermediate structures were noticed that did not belong to the phrasal level or lexical categories; for example, *beautiful girl* in *a beautiful girl*.

```
                          NP
                        /    \
                      /        \
                    /            \
                  Det             ?
                   |             /  \
                   |           /      \
                   |         /          \
                   |       Adj           N
                   |        |            |
                   |        |            |
                   A     beautiful      girl
```
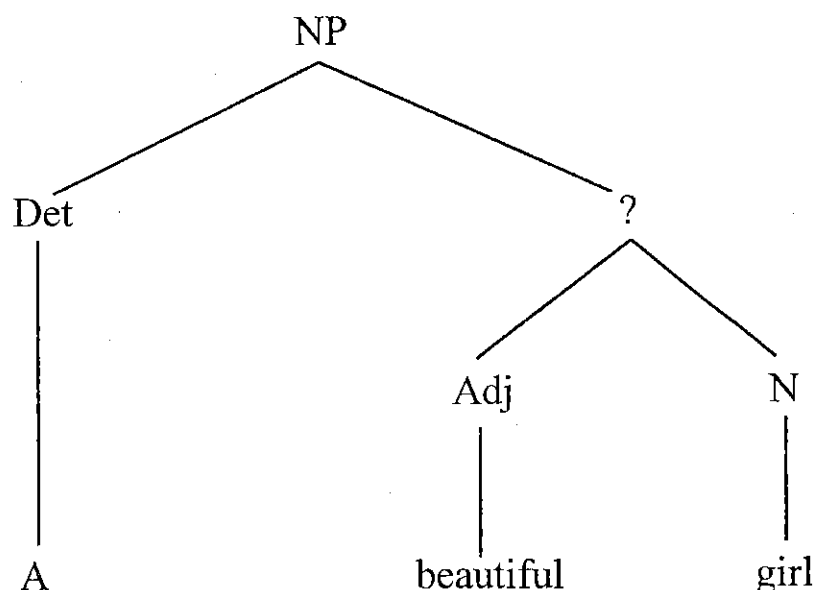
A careful study of the above structure makes it clear that ? is higher in level than lexical categories and lower than phrases. Therefore, if an NP is taken to be an N-double-bar and a noun as an N, then the structure in question (*beautiful girl*) will be an N-bar.

2) **Theta Theory**: It refers to functional relationships between the parts of the sentences. They determine *who* does *what* to *whom* or to *what*. For example, in *John opened the door with the key*, 'John' is the **agent**, 'the door' is the **patient** and 'the key' is the **instrument**.

3) **Move Alpha and Bounding Theory**: Move Alpha states that everything can be moved anywhere. Move Alpha is controlled by bounding theory. That is why we say Move Alpha is like a passport department and bounding theory is like the visa section. If no visa is issued from the visa section, no element can be moved. In English no element can pass more than one bounding node. The bounding nodes are NP and S in English. Thus if an element moves out of two NP nodes or two S nodes or one NP and one S nodes, the structure is ungrammatical.

4) **Case Theory**: It deals with the assignments of cases to noun phrases (NP). Any noun phrase that does not have a case is ill-formed and any structure that includes this ill-formed element is ungrammatical. The NP that is immediately dominated by S structure carries the subject case and the other cases are either assigned by verbs or prepositions; e.g. *John gave a book to Mary*. In this sentence 'John' receives case from S, 'a book' receives case from the verb and 'Mary' receives case from the preposition.

5) **Binding Theory**: It deals with the reference of the expressions in the sentences. Especially, it deals with the pronouns, anaphors and nouns. First of all we should know what **indexing** is.

The indexing rule indicates that every NP in the sentence should have an index (the index is a random number). Co-referential NP's should be co-indexed, that is, they should have the same index. And if two nouns are assigned the same index, they must match in features (*number, gender, person,* etc.). In order to know how indexing operates, we need to know the operation of government. Three definitions are in order here:

First, X c-commands Y iff the first branching node dominating X dominates Y, and X does not dominate Y nor Y dominates X.

Second, X is the governing category for Y iff X is the minimal NP or S, which contains the constituent which governs Y.

Finally, X governs Y iff X is the minimal potential governor (= V, A, N, P, and Tense) c-commanding Y, and there is no intervening S-bar or NP barrier between X and Y.
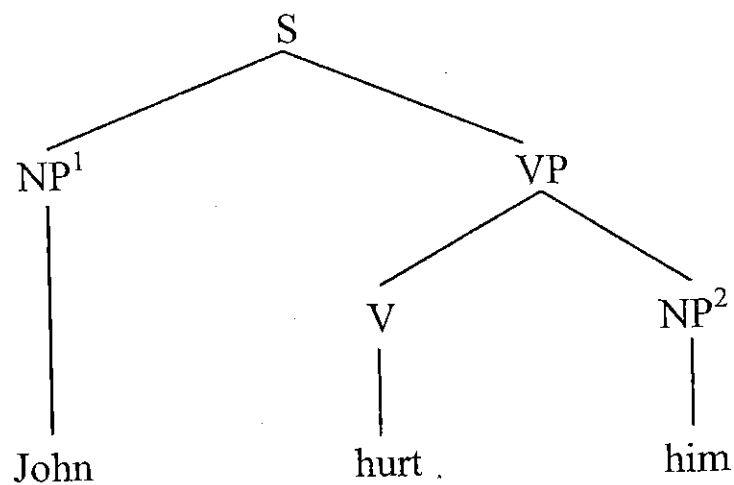
In the preceding tree diagram, NP^1 c-commands V, but V does not c-command NP^1, because the first branching node that dominates NP^1 is S and it also dominates V, but the first branching node that dominates V is VP which does not dominate NP^1. However, V c-commands NP^2 and is the minimal potential governor with no intervening NP or S-bar and NP^2 c-commands V. The minimal NP or S-bar that contains V is the S. This S is the governing category for the NP^2. So:

a) NP^1 c-commands V   b) V c-commands NP^2

c) NP^2 c-commands V   d) V is the governor

e) S is the governing category for the NP^2

As mentioned before, NP's are of three kinds. First, there are the **reflexive pronouns** (*himself, herself,* etc.) and the **reciprocal expression** (*each other*). These are called **anaphors**. Anaphors should be bound in their governing category. That is, in that category there must be a c-commanding NP co-indexed with the anaphor. Otherwise, the structure is ungrammatical.

1. *I_1 like yourself$_1$.

2. *He$_2$ likes him$_2$.

In sentence (1) the reflexive pronoun can not be co-indexed with 'I' as they do not match in features. In sentence (2) the two pronouns are co-indexed, that is, the second pronoun is bound but it is not in the reflexive form.

Second, there are **pronouns**, which are referred to as **pronominal NP's**. Pronouns should be free in their governing category; that is, there should be no c-commanding NP co-indexed with them. In sentence (2) above *him* is not free and this makes the structure ill-formed. However, sentence (3) is grammatical.

3. He$_1$ likes him$_2$.

Finally, there are **nouns**, which are called **nominal NP's**. Nouns should be free everywhere.

The adequacy of Chomsky's grammar, whether Standard Theory, Interpretive Semantics or Trace, has been questioned from two main groups both of which are semantically oriented. One is the **Generative Semanticists** whose main objection is that a primary role is assigned to syntax while a secondary or dependent one is assigned to semantics, i.e. *syntactic form determines semantic representation* (Steinberg, 1991). They state that the roles should be completely reversed, with semantics playing the primary role and syntax the secondary. In addition, they advocate abandonment of deep structure and base rules, holding that what a grammar must do is to relate the semantic level of structure (semantic representation) to a syntactic level of structure (surface structure). The Generative Semantics schema for a grammar is as follows:

Figure 4.4 Generative Semantics Grammar

(taken from Steinberg, 1991)

Semantic Representation

↓

| Transformational rules & Lexicon |

↓

Surface Structure

↓

| Phonological rules |

↓

Phonetic Representation
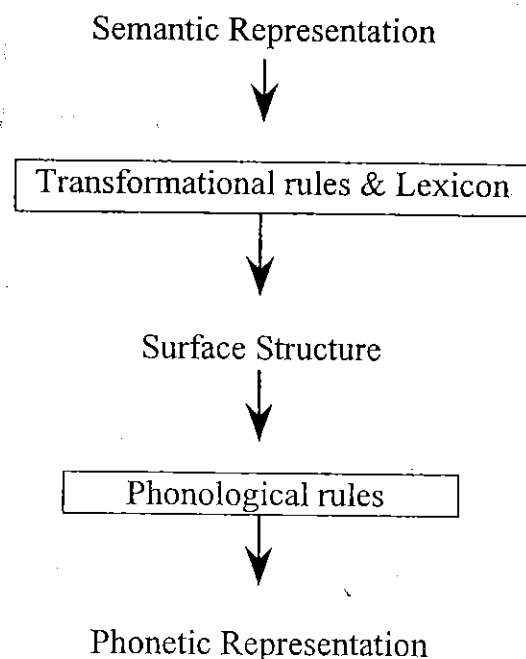
The other group who advocates the semantic notions or cases (such as AGENT & PATIENT) introduced by Fillmore, is known as **Case Grammarians**.

In addition, **Relational Grammarians** as the third group raise their most serious objections against Chomsky's theory as follow:

1) Superfluousness of verb phrase (VP) in a VSO (Verb + Subject + Object) language,
2) Failure to define *indirect object* in English and Japanese,
3) Subordination of *direct* and *Indirect objects* to the **subject**.

Chomsky's dominant role in the study of language and language acquisition was also challenged by psychologists such as Steinberg (1991) who have argued that despite Chomsky' adherence to the psychologization of grammar, "he did not change the essential organization of his grammar" (p. 82). They believe that the **syntactic-based** grammar of Chomsky does not correspond to any of the two **modes of speaker-performance**, i.e. the **production** mode which starts with the semantic representation on the part of the speaker, and the **comprehension** level which starts with the phonetic representation on the part of the hearer (Sadighi, 1998). Because of so many objections, Chomsky introduced **Minimalist Program**.

4.7 Minimalist Program

In the minimalist framework, only LF (logical form) and PF (phonetic form) are really necessary and there is a possibility of doing away with D-structure and S-structure (Cook & Newson, 1997). Hence the ideal minimalist design would be something like Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5 The language components on the basis of Minimalist Program (taken from Cook & Newson, 1997)

Lexicon

————— PF – [phonetic component]

LF

[Semantic component]
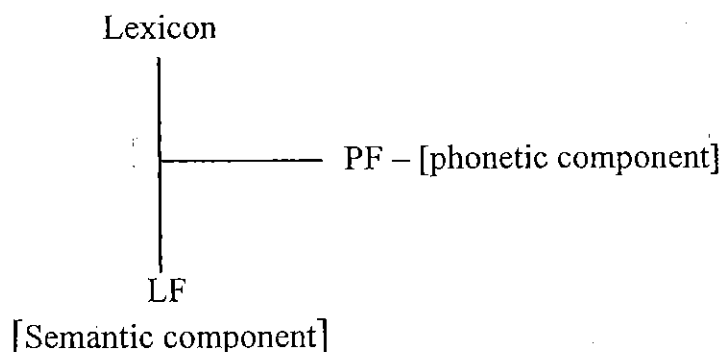
The thrust of the program is to reduce the grammar down to its bar essentials, with no more stipulation than absolutely necessary.

4.8 Systemic Linguistics

In contrast with Chomsky's models, **systemic linguistics** is an approach to linguistics developed by Halliday, which sees language in a social context. This functional theory discards the notion that language is a set of rules. All the elements are analyzed with reference to meaning and function and not the kind of linguistic analyses common in Chomskyan linguistics. Therefore, according to Halliday (1985; 1978) and Halliday & Hasan (1989), the social context of language can be analyzed in terms of three factors:

1) The **field of discourse** refers to what is happening, including what is being talked about.

2) The **tenor of discourse** refers to the participants who are taking part in this exchange of meaning, who they are and what kind of relationship they have to one another.

3) The **mode of discourse** refers to what part the language is playing in this particular situation, for example, in what way the language is organized to convey meaning, and what channel is used (written or spoken or a combination of the two).

Furthermore, Halliday (1978) states that there are seven elementary functions of language which a child is able to master in the early stages of language development:

1) **Instrumental** ('I want') = satisfying material needs,

2) **Regulatory** ('do as I tell you') = controlling the behavior of others,

3) **Interactional** ('me and you') = getting along with other people,

4) **Personal** ('here I come') = identifying and expressing the self,

5) **Heuristic** ('tell me why') = exploring the world around and inside one,

6) **Imaginative** ('let's pretend') = creating a world of one's own,

7) **Informative** ('I've got something to tell you') = communicating new information.

He also considers language as having three main functions:

a) The **ideational function** is to organize the speaker's or writer's experience of the real world or imaginary world,

b) The **interpersonal function** is to indicate, establish, or maintain social relationships between people,

c) The **textual function** is to create written or spoken texts which cohere within themselves and which fit the particular situation in which they are used (Richards *et al.*, 1996).

CHAPTER FIVE
SEMANTICS

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. It attempts to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what a speaker might want the words to mean on a particular occasion. This technical approach to meaning emphasizes the objective and the general. It avoids the subjective and the local. Linguistic semantics deals with the conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words and sentences of a language (Yule, 1996).

Conceptual and **associative meaning**: Conceptual meaning covers basic, essential components of words meaning, which are conveyed by the literal use of a word; eg. the basic components of the word *needle* include: 'thin, sharp, steel, instrument'. Linguists are interested in conceptual meaning. The associative, stylistic or connotative meanings are the same and for the word *needle* include 'painful'. Poets and advertisers are interested in associative meaning (Yule, 1996).

The sentence *The hamburger ate the man* is syntactically well-formed but semantically odd. The subject used for the verb ate must be capable of eating. By means of **semantic features** such as +animate, -animate; +human, -human; and +male, -male, we can supplement the syntactic analysis with semantic features.

5.1 Semantic Roles

Agent: The entity that performs the action.

Theme: The entity that is involved in or affected by the action.

Instrument: If an agent uses another entity in performing an action, that other entity takes the role of instrument. For example, consider the followings:

The boy kicked the ball. The man opened the door with a key.
agent   theme   agent   theme   Instrument

The theme can also be an entity that is simply being described.

The ball was red.
theme

Although agents are typically human, they can also be non-human forces, machines, or creatures.

The wind blew the ball away.
   agent

The car ran over the ball.
   agent

The dog caught the ball.
   agent

The theme can also be human.
The boy kicked *himself*.
            theme

Benefactive: The noun or noun phrase that refers to the person or animal who benefits, or is meant to benefit, from the action of the verb. For example in the sentence *John baked a cake for Louise, Louise* is in the benefactive case.

Experiencer: When a NP designates an entity as the person who has a feeling, a perception or a state, it fills the role of experiencer. If we see, know or enjoy something, we don't perform an action, but we are experiencers.
Did *you* hear that noise?
experiencer

Location: It explains where an entity is.
Source: From where an entity moves.
Goal: Where an entity moves to.
She borrowed a magazine *from George*.
                    source

She handed the magazine back *to George*.
                    goal

Lexical Relations: Not only words can be treated as 'containers' or as fullfiling 'roles', they can also have 'relationships'. The types of lexical relations are as follows:

Synonymy: Two or more forms with very closely related meanings, which are often, but not always, intersubstitutable in sentences. For example, *Broad = wide*. It should be noted that the idea of 'sameness of meaning' in synonymy is not necessarily 'total sameness'.

Antonymy: Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms. Antonyms are usually of two main kinds:

1) **Gradeable**: They can be used in comparative constructions. The negative of one member does not necessarily imply the other; e.g. *not old* doesn't mean *young*.

2) **Non-Gradeable (complementary pairs)**: They are not normally used in comparative constructions and the negative of one member does imply the other; e.g. *not dead* means *alive*. But it is important to avoid describing

most antonym pairs as one word meaning the negative of another. Consider the opposites *tie-untie*. The word *untie* doesn't mean *not tie*. It means 'do the reverse of tie'. Such pairs are called **reversives**. *Pack–unpack; raise–lower; dress–undress; and lengthen–shorten.*

Hyponymy: When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is called hyponymy. In this category, we are looking at the meaning of words in some type of hierarchical relationship e.g. *animal-horse, animal-dog*. We can say that two or more terms which share the same superordinate (higher-up) term are called **co-hyponyms**. So, *dog* and *horse* are co-hyponyms, and *animal* is superordinate. The Hyponymy captures the idea of '*is a kind of*' e.g. Asp is a kind of *snake*.

Terms for actions can also be hyponyms; e.g. *cut, punch, shoot,* and *stab* can all be found as co-hyponyms of the superordinate term *injure*.

Prototypes: It explains the meaning of certain words like *bird* not in terms of component feature (e.g. 'has wings') but in terms of resemblance to the clearest examplar; e.g. native speakers of English might wonder if *ostrich* or *penguin* should be hyponyms of *bird*, but have no trouble deciding about *sparrow* or *pigeon*. The last two are prototypes.

Homophony: When two or more differently written forms have the same pronunciation but different meaning; e.g. *sea-see.*

Homography: When two or more forms are the same only in writing but different in pronunciation and meaning they are described as homographs such as *lead* ([lid]) and *lead* ([led]).

Homonymy: It is when one form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings, but have the same pronunciation and spelling; e.g. *bank* (of a river) and *bank* (financial institution). They have quite different meanings but accidentally have the same form.

Polysemy: It can be defined as one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings which are all related by extension. e.g. *head* refers to top of your body, top of a glass of beer, top of a company. If two words are treated as homonyms, they will typically have two separate entries.

Metonymy: This relationship is essentially based on a close connection in everyday experience. It may be container-content relation (*can–juice*); a whole-part relation (*car–wheels*); or a representative-symbol relation (*king-crown*). Sometimes making sense of many expressions depends on context, background knowledge and inference.

Collocation: Those words which tend to occur with other words; e.g. *hammer* collocates with *nail*; *wife* with *husband* and *knife* with *fork*.

CHAPTER SIX
PRAGMATICS

The study of the speaker's or writer's intended meaning is called **pragmatics** (Yule, 1996). It is "the study of 'invisible' meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said (or written)." (Yule, 1996: 127). Speakers and writers must depend on a lot of shared assumptions and expectations so that they can communicate more than what they really say or write.

Leech (1983 a) makes a distinction between two branches of pragmatics: 1) **pragmalinguistics** and 2) **sociopragmatics**. Pragmalinguistics refers to "the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions" (Leech, 1983:11). Sociopragmatics is described by Leech as "the sociological interface of pragmatics" (1983:10). In pragmalinguistics we move from language to function, that is, one form might have different functions whereas in sociopragmatics we move from function to language, that is, the same function may have different forms.

Linguistic context or co-text refers to the set of words used in the same phrase or sentence. This surrounding co-text has a strong effect on what we think the word means.

Physical context: If we see the word *BANK* on the wall of a building in a city, the 'physical' context especially time and place influence our interpretation.

Deixis: Deixis cannot be interpreted at all unless the physical context, especially the physical context of the speaker, is known. Words like *this, that, here, there, tomorrow, you, I* etc. are impossible to be understood if we do not exactly know who is speaking, to/ about whom, where and when. Deixis is a Greek word which means 'pointing' via language. We have **person deixis** (*him, her*); **place deixis** (*here, there*); **time deixis** (*now, then*).

Reference: An act by which a speaker or writer uses language to enable a listener or reader to identify something; e.g. *Mr. Kawasaki* refers to a person who rides a motorcycle.

Inference: Inference is any additional meaning or information used by the listener to connect what is said to what must be meant; e.g. "*We saw Shakespeare in London.*" When we hear this sentence, we infer that the name of the writer of a book is used to refer to a play written by him.

Anaphora: Anaphora is a reference to an entity mentioned in the text or understood from the context. We use anaphora in texts to maintain reference. For example, consider the following dialogue:

A: Can I borrow your book?

B: It's on the table.

The term *book* is the **antecedent**, and the pronoun *it* is the anaphora.

Cataphora: The use of a word or phrase which refers forward to another word or phrase which will be used later in the text or conversation is called cataphora. For example, in the sentence: *When I met her, Mary looked ill* the word *her* refers forward to *Mary*.

Presupposition: What a speaker or writer assumes is true or is known by the hearer or reader. Consider this sentence: *Your brother is there*. There is a presupposition that you have a brother. Presuppositions are useful for interrogators or trial lawyers. For checking presuppositions, we negate the sentence with a particular presupposition and see whether the presupposition remains true or not; e.g. *My car is a wreck. → My car is not a wreck.* In both of them the presupposition "I have a car", remains true. This is called **constancy under negation** test for presupposition. The difference between presupposition and inference can be recognized in this way: The term inference has been used to describe what the listener or reader does. But the assumption made by speaker or writer is called presupposition.

Speech acts: In dealing with speech acts we are concerned with how speakers intend us to interpret the function of what they say. Speech acts cover 'actions' such as 'requesting', 'commanding', 'questioning' and 'informing'. We use the following forms with the following functions.

Table 6.1 Forms and Functions of Sentences

(taken from Yule, 1996)

Sentence	Form	Function
Did you eat food?	Interrogative	Question
Eat the food (please).	Imperative	Command (request)
You ate the food.	Declarative	Statement

All of these are direct **speech acts**.

When one of the forms in the set above is used to perform a function other than the one listed here, the result is an indirect **speech act**; e.g. *Can you pass the salt?* is not a question at all. It is a request. Indirect speech acts are more gentle or polite in all societies.

A distinction is made by Austin in the theory of speech acts between three different types of act involved in or caused by the utterance of a sentence:

Locution: The actual words uttered.

Illocution: The force or intention behind the words.

Perlocution: The effect of illocution on the hearer.

Searle's classification for speech acts are as follows (Thomas, 1995):

1) **Propositional act**: Speaker predicts a future act of himself/herself.

2) **Preparatory condition**: Speaker believes that doing the act is in hearer's best interest and that speaker can do it.

3) **Sincerity condition**: Speaker intends to do the act.

4) **Essential condition**: Speaker undertakes an obligation to do the act.

Holmes (1990) believes that there are a number of ways of categorizing the functions of speech. The following list has proved useful in sociolinguistic research.

1) **Expressive**: utterances express the speaker's feeling; e.g. *I'm feeling great today.*

2) **Directive**: utterances attempt to get someone to do something; e.g. *Clear the table.*

3) **Referential**: utterances provide information; e.g. *At the third stroke it will be three o'clock precisely.*

4) **Metaliguistic**: utterances comment on language itself; e.g. *'Hegemony' is not a common word.*

5) **Poetic**: utterances focus on aesthetic features of language; e.g. A poem, an ear-catching motto, a rhythm: *Peter Piper picked a peck of picked peppers.*

6) **Phatic:** utterances express solidarity and empathy with others; e.g. *Hi, how are you, lovely day isn't it!*

Politeness: is showing awareness of another person's face (Yule, 1996; Thomas, 1995).

Face: in pragmatics is your public self-image. This is the emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize. If we say something that represents a threat to another person's self-image, it is called a **face-threatening act**. Whenever we say something that lessens the possible threat to another's face, it is called a **face-saving act**.

Negative face: is the need to be independent and to have freedom from imposition.

Positive face: is your need to be connected, to belong to, to be a member of the group.

CHAPTER SEVEN
DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

In pragmatics, we were asking how it is that language-users interpret what other language-users intend to convey. When we carry this investigation further and ask how it is that language-users make sense of what they read in texts, understand what speakers mean despite what they say, recognize connected as opposed to jumbled or incoherent discourse and successfully take part in conversation, we are undertaking what is known as **discourse analysis** (Yule, 1996).

    Cohesion: refers to the ties and connections which exists within texts.

    Halliday (1989) states that cohesive relations may be **grammatical** or **lexical**. Grammatical cohesion can be of four types: 1**) reference**, 2**) substitution**, 3**) ellipsis**, 4**) conjunction**. Lexical cohesion is not further classified into types.

    Coherence: The key to the concept of coherence is not something which exists in the language, but something which exists in people. It is people who 'make sense' of what they read and hear. This interpretation should be in line with what their experience of the world is.

    Speech events: There is enormous variation in what people say and do in different circumstances. We have to specify the roles of speaker and hearer (hearers), and their relationships. We also have to describe the topic of conversation and in what setting or context it takes place.

    Conversational interaction: Conversation is an activity in which two or more people take **turns** at speaking. For the most part, participants wait until one speaker indicates that he or she has finished, usually by signalling a **completion point**. We can mark our turns complete by asking a question, or by pausing at the end of a completed syntactic sentence. Other participants can indicate that they want to take the speaking turn. They can start to make short sounds, usually repeated, and often use body shifts or facial expressions to signal that they have something to say.

    If the normal expectation is that completion points are marked by the end of a sentence and a pause, then one way to 'keep the turn' is to avoid having those two indicators occur together. That is, don't pause at the end of sentences; make your sentences run on by using connectors (*and, so, but, ...*); place your pauses at points where the message is incomplete; and 'fill' the pauses with hesitation makers such as *er, em, uh, ah*.

Cooperative principle: Participants cooperate with each other in conversational exchanges. This principle was first set out by Grice (1975). The principle says: *"Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged."* Four maxims support this principle, and they are:

1) **Quantity**: Make your contribution as informative as is required, but not more, or less, than is required. Expressions such as *well, to make a long story short* and *I won't bore you with all the details* are indicators of quantity maxim.

2) **Quality**: Do not say that which you believe to be false or for which you lack evidence. Expressions like *As far as I know...; Now correct me if I'm wrong, but ...;* and *I'm not absolutely sure but ...* are indicators of quality maxim. We also indicate that what we report is something we *think* and *feel* (not *know*), is *possible* or *likely*, (not *certain*), *may* or *could* (not *must*) happen.

3) **Relation**: Be relevant.

4) **Manner**: Be clear, brief and orderly. Ambiguous sentences do not observe this maxim.

Leech (1983a) introduces a number of maxims which, he claims, stand in the same relationship to the Politeness Principles as Grice's maxims stand to the Cooperative Principle. They are as follow:

1) **Tact Maxim**: "Minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other; maximize the expression of beliefs which benefit to other."

2) **Generosity Maxim**: "Minimize benefit to self; maximize cost to self."

3) **Approbation Maxim**: "Minimize the expression of beliefs which expresses dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which expresses praise of other."

4) **Modesty Maxim**: "Minimize praise of self; maximize dispraise of self."

5) **Agreement Maxim**: "Minimize disagreement between self and other; maximize agreement between self and other."

6) **Sympathy Maxim**: "Minimize lack of sympathy (= antipathy) between self and other; maximize sympathy between self and other."

Implicature: is an additional conveyed meaning. In order to describe the conversational implicature, we have to appeal to some background knowledge shared by the conversational participants. For instance in the sentence *Rita was on time this morning* it could imply that *Rita* was usually late.

Entailment: It deals with the relationship between two or more sentences. If knowing that one sentence is true gives us certain knowledge of the truth of the second sentence, then the first sentence entails the second.

Schema: is the conventional knowledge structure which exists in the memory. One particular kind of schema is a **script**.

Script: is a dynamic schema, in which a series of conventional actions take place; e.g. the scripts of 'going to the dentist' or 'going to the movies'. This explains that our understanding of what we read doesn't come directly from the words and sentences that are on the page but from the interpretations we create (in our minds) of what we read (Yule, 1996).

CHAPTER EIGHT

LANGUAGE AND MIND

Artificial intelligence: is defined as the science of making machines do things that would require intelligence if done by men (Yule, 1996; Carroll, 1999).

Speech synthesis: is the electronic production of the acoustic properties of speech sounds.

Top-down parsing: is one of the processes used in parsers. First it is decided what constituent (e.g. NP) should be present in the structure and then the words in the sentence are considered to see if the prediction is confirmed. In a different approach which is **bottom-up parsing**, the process is reversed. We start with a word like "the" at the bottom of a structure, and work our way up to create a whole noun phrase constituent, so that the whole sentence is formed.. An effective system uses both top-down and bottom-up processes.

Synthetic speech: is a model of speech articulation, and not speaking. Because speaking involves having something to say which is a **mental process** but articulation is the activity of saying which is a **physical process**.

Neurolinguistics: is the study of the relationship between language and the brain.

Parts of the brain: The brain or **cerebrum** is connected to the spinal cord by means of the brain stem and divided into two parts. The two hemispheres of the brain are connected together by corpus callosum. The left hemisphere which is mostly concerned with language production and understanding includes parts such as:

1) **Broca's area,** also called anterior speech cortex is located in the front part and is involved in producing speech. Damage to this part causes Broca's aphasia which is characterized by disorder in the production of language especially grammar.

2) **Wernicke's area,** also called posterior speech cortex, is located in the back part and involves the understanding of speech. Wernicke's aphasia is characterized by disorder in meaning. Patients speak fluently but little meaning is conveyed.

3) **Motor cortex**: It controls the articulatory muscles of the face, jaw, tongue and larynx. It is involved in the actual physical articulation of speech.

Arcuate fasciculus: is a bundle of nerve fibers that connect Wernicke's and Broca's areas.

Localization view: Specific aspects of language ability can be accorded specific locations in the brain. Brain activity involved in hearing a word, understanding it, then saying it, would follow a definite pattern: hearing and understanding a word via Wernicke's area, transferring it via arcuate fasciculus to Broca's area for preparing for producing, and in order to physically articulate the word, a signal is sent to motor cortex.

Tongue tips and slips: All of us have occasionally difficulty in getting the brain and speech production to work together smoothly.

The **tip-of-the-tongue** phenomenon refers to a circumstance in which you feel that some word is just eluding you, that you know the word, but it just won't come to the surface. Studies show that speakers have an accurate phonological outline of the word, can get the initial sound correct and mostly know the number of syllables in the word.

Malapropisms: Malapropism refers to mistakes we produce in the retrieval of words. The result is the confusion of the meaning of two learned words, e.g. using the word *execute* instead of *extricate*. There is a strong phonological similarity between the target word and the mistake. The term is coined after Mrs. Malaprop, a character in a play by Sheridan, who consistently produced 'near-misses' for words, with great comic effect; e.g. *We need a few laughs to break up the monogamy.* (instead of *monotony*).

Slip-of-the-tongue (spoonerism): It results in tangled expressions (*a long shory stort* instead of *a long story short*) or word reversals (*use the door to open the key*) and also induce the interchange of two initial sounds (*You have hissed all my mystery lectures* instead of *You have missed all my history lectures.*)

Preservation error: The result of using a sound in one word in anticipation of its occurrence in the next word; e.g. *no man numeral* instead of *Roman numeral.*

According to Carroll (1999), the major types of slips of the tongue are as follows:

Table 8. 1 Major Types of Slips of the Tongue

Type	Example
Shift	That's so she'll be ready in case she decide to hits it (decides to hit it).
Exchange	Fancy getting your model renosed (getting your nose remodeled).
Anticipation	Bake my bike (take my bike).
Preservation	He pulled a pantrum (tantrum).

Addition	I didn't explain this clarefully enough (carefully enough).
Deletion	I'll just get up and mutter intelligently (unintelligently).
Substitution	At low speeds it's too light (heavy).
Blend	That child is looking to be spaddled (spanked/paddled).

Slips of the ear: It provides some clues to how the brain tries to make sense of auditory signal it receives; e.g. hearing *great ape* instead of *gray tape*.

Aphasia: aphasia is an impairment of language function due to localized brain damage which leads to difficulty in understanding and/or producing linguistic forms. Different types of Aphasia are as follows:

1) **Broca's (motor) aphasia** is characterized by a substantially reduced amount of speech, distorted articulation and slow, often effortful speech. What is said is mostly made up of lexical morphemes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.). Because of the frequent omission of functional morphemes (e.g. articles, prepositions) this kind of aphasia is agrammatic. The grammatical markers are missing.

2) **Wernicke's (sensory) aphasia**: It results in difficulties in auditory comprehension. People suffering from this kind of aphasia can produce very fluent speech, which is often difficult to make sense of. **Anomia** which is difficulty in finding correct words, is also very common among these patients.

3) **Conduction aphasia**: It is identified with damage to the arcuate fasciculus. People suffering from this disorder typically do not have articulation problems, but have disrupted rhythm because of pauses and hesitations. They are fluent and comprehension of spoken words is normally good.

Dichotic listening: The language functions is located in the left hemisphere. It uses the fact that anything experienced on the right-hand side of the body is processed in the left hemisphere of the brain and anything on the left side is processed in the right hemisphere. The assumption is that a signal coming in the right ear will go to the left hemisphere and a signal coming in the left ear will go to the right hemisphere. In dichotic listening test two signals with exactly the same duration of time are simultaneously sent into the ears, one through the right ear and the other through the left ear. Then the subject is asked what he/she heard. Based on the results it is concluded that linguistic signals are processed in the left hemisphere (**right ear advantage**) and nonlinguistic sounds are processed in the right hemisphere (**left ear advantage**).

Analytic processing: is carried out in the left brain while **holistic processing** is done in the right brain.

Lateralization: The apparent specialization of the left hemisphere for language is often described as lateralization (**one-sidedness**).

Critical period: There is a period, during childhood, when the human brain is most ready to 'receive' and learn a particular language. If the child does not acquire the language during this period, then she or he will have difficulty learning language later on. In Genie's case, a girl whose parent forbid her using language until 13 years, she was using the right hemisphere of her brain for language function. She had strong left-ear advantage for verbal and non-verbal signals. The conclusion was that there is no exclusive brain location for language abilities.

Agraphia: Difficulty in writing.

Anomia: Difficulty in using proper nouns.

Alexia: Difficulty in reading.

Agrammatic: Difficulty in using grammatical words like prepositions and articles.

CHAPTER NINE

FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

First language acquisition is remarkable for the speed with which it takes place. The fact that all children learn a language without overt instruction at a relatively short period of time makes us believe that there is some 'innate' predisposition in the human infant to acquire language. This can be thought of as 'language-faculty' of the human. In order for the 'language-faculty' to be brought into operation, the child needs to be involved in interaction with others and has to be able to send and receive sound signals in a language.

All infants make **cooing** and **babbling** noises but congenitally deaf infants stop after 6 months. This means that the innate faculty will not operate unless the child hears a language and uses it to interact with others. All normal children, regardless of culture, develop language at roughly the same time, along the same schedule (Yule, 1996; Fromkin & Rodman, 1988; Falk, 1978).

Caretaker speech: Caretaker speech refers to the characteristically simplified speech style adopted by someone who spends a lot of time interacting with a young child. At home, it is called **motherese**; at school, it is called **teacher talk**; with non-native speakers it is called **foreigner talk**.

Pre-language stages: Child language is believed to start with cooing around the age of three months. The first recognizable sounds are *velar* consonants such as [k] and [g] and the *high* vowels [I] and [u]. By six months, the child is able to sit up and can produce a number of different vowels and consonants such as *fricatives* and *nasals*. This stage is called **babbling** and may include syllable-type sounds as well. In the later babbling stage, around nine months, there are recognizable intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced. By the ten and eleven months, they are capable of using their vocalizations to express emotions and emphasis. In this later babbling stage, there is a lot of 'sound-play' and attempted imitations. These give children some experience of the social role of speech.

Between twelve and eighteen months, children begin to produce a variety of recognizable single unit utterances, which are usually nouns referring to concrete objects they can observe around themselves. This stage is variably called **holophrastic stage (one word stage, single unit** and **single form stage)**. By eighteen to twenty months, two-word combinations are produced,

and this stage is called **two-word stage**. The adult interpretation of such combinations in this stage depends on the *context* of the utterance. For example, the phrase *baby chair* may have different interpretations such as: a) *this is baby's chair*, b) *put baby in chair*, and c) *baby is in the chair*. In this stage communication takes place; that is, the child not only produces speech, but also receives feedback.

Between two and three years of age, the child goes through the **telegraphic stage** in which s/he produces multiple-word utterances, which are not complete grammatical sentences. The salient feature of these utterances is the variation in word forms. The sequence of inflectional morphemes produced at this stage is interesting. First *ing-* form appears. Then *plural* forms occur. *Possessive form* and different forms of *be (am, is, are etc.)* appear later on. At last comes the regular *past* tense (ed) and *irregular* forms. By the age of three, adults usually admit that the child can really talk although his/her language acquisition process still has a long way to go.

If we assume that the child is, in some sense, being 'taught' the language he is speaking, we underestimate what the child actually does. It is not possible to say that a child acquires the language through a process of constant imitation of adult speech. Nor does adult 'correction' seem to be a very effective determiner of how the child speaks. A much more realistic view would be that children actively try possible ways of using the language and construct their own rules of the system. The child's linguistic production is a matter of trying out constructions and testing whether they work or not.

Syntax in children: In the formation of questions and negatives there are three stages:

Questions: The first stage (between 18 and 26 months) has two procedures: a) Simply add a wh-form (*where, who*) to the beginning of expression or b) Utter the expression with a rise in intonation towards the end. In stage 2 (between 22 and 30 months), more complex expressions can be formed, but the rising intonation continues to be used. In stage 3 (between 29 and 40 months), the required inversion of subject and verb in English questions appears.

Negatives: At stage 1, *no* or *not* is placed at the beginning of any expressions. In the second stage, *don't* and *can't* are used and together with *no* and *not* they are placed in front of the verb rather than the beginning of the sentence. In stage 3, *didn't* and *won't* are used and stage 1 forms disappear. The form *isn't* appears very late in the development of the child's language.

Semantics in children: **Overextension** is a very common pattern in children's interlanguage. The child extends the meaning of a word to different objects on the basis of similarities of shape, sound and size and, to a lesser extent, of movement and texture. For example, the word *ball* may be used to refer to anything round in shape or the word *dog* may refer to any

four-legged creature. Although overextension is used in children's **speech** production, it is not necessarily used in speech comprehension. For example, a child who referred to round objects such as 'tomato' and 'potato' as *apple*, had no difficulty in choosing an apple out of similar round objects, when he was asked to do so.

In terms of hyponymy, the child will always use the 'middle' level term in a **hyponymous set** such as *animal–dog–poodle*. The child may use *dog* with overextended meaning in the sense of animal. It also seems that antonymous relations appear fairly late.

At the age of five, the child is in a good position to start learning a second or foreign language.

Intellectual Development: According to Piaget (1968, in Sadighi 1998), a person's intellectual development from birth to the age of 15 can be seen in four stages as follows:

1) **Sensorimotor Stage** (from birth to about 2 years): At this stage the child begins to feel and perceive the existence of things.

2) **Preoperational Thinking** (about 2 to 7 years): During this stage, the child starts to understand the relations existing between objects and symbols. The preoperational stage has two subdivisions; the first is **preconceptual thinking** (about 2 to 4 years) in which the child begins rudimentary concept formation and the second is **intuitive thinking** (about 4 to 7 years) in which the child engages in problem-solving intuitively rather than using rules of logic.

3) **Concrete Operations** (about 7 to 11 or 12 years): This stage refers to the time when the child is able to solve some simple problems, but not very complicated ones.

4) **Formal Operations** (about 11 or 12 to 14 or 15 years): During this stage, the child has the mental ability to do abstract thinking and analyze different hypotheses.

Acquisition barriers: Most people attempt to learn another language during their teenage or adult years in a few hours each week of school time. They already know a language which they can use for their everyday interaction with others. Moreover, they have many other things to do as well, whereas the child does not have much to do. These facts make the acquisition of a second language very difficult.

Acquisition and Learning: The term **acquisition**, when used of language, refers to the gradual, unconscious development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations. The term **learning** applies to a conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of a language. Activities associated with learning is used in language teaching in schools and results in knowledge 'about' the language studied, while acquisition activities are those experienced by the young child

and by those who 'pick up' another language from long periods spent in social interaction in another country. However, even in ideal acquisition situations, very few adults seem to reach native-like proficiency in using a second language. Joseph Conrad was a great expertise in writing but not in speaking; this means that some features (e.g. vocabulary, grammar) of a second language are easier to acquire than others (e.g. phonology) (Yule, 1996:189).

Affective Filter: Affective filter is described as a kind of barrier to acquisition that results from negative feelings or experiences. Basically, if you are stressed, uncomfortable, self-conscious or unmotivated, you are unlikely to learn anything.

Focus on the learner: In recent years, there has been a shift from the teacher, the textbook and the method to an interest in the learner and the acquisition process. One manifestation of this shift is the toleration of learners' *errors*. Errors are no longer considered as something which hinders students' progress but as a natural outcome of the active learning process in which the learner is involved and tries out different ways of communicating in the new language. When learners say *womans* instead of *women*, this is a kind of **creative construction** based on general way of making plural forms in English.

Transfer is carrying-over of learned expression and structure from previous learning to new learning situations. It may be positive or negative (Richards *et al.*, 1992). In **positive transfer** previous learning helps or facilitates later learning. **Negative transfer** takes place when learning in one situation is erroneously transferred into a new situation which requires something completely different from what is already learned. For example, when L1 features are transferred into the L2 which makes use of different features from the L1, the result is an incorrect structure. This negative transfer is also referred to as **interference**. L1 features interfere with learning L2 features.

Interlanguage: It seems that the language produced by learners contains a large number of errors, which have no connection to the forms of either L1 or L2. Evidence of this sort suggests that there is a system in between, used in L2 acquisition which certainly contains aspects of L1 and L2, but which is an inherently variable system with rules of its own. This system is called **interlanguage**. If some learners develop a fairly fixed repertoire of L2 forms, containing many features which do not match the target language, and they do not progress any further, their interlanguage is said to have 'fossilized'. The process of **fossilization** in L2 pronunciation is one of the causes of a foreign accent.

Input: The term input is used to describe language that the learner is exposed to. It has to be comprehensible, as in the variety of speech known as foreigner talk (frequent questions often using exaggerated intonation are

the main features of foreigner talk).**Negotiated input**, as one type of input, is L2 material that the learner can acquire in interaction through requests for clarification and active attention being focused on what is said.

Output: Output means the opportunity to produce comprehensible information. We can increase the amount of comprehensible output and input by using **task-based learning** in our classroom.

Communicative competence: Communicative competence is described as the ability to use the L2 accurately, appropriately, and flexibly. According to Yule (1996) it consists of three sub-parts.

A) **Grammatical competence** which involves the accurate use of words and structures in the L2.

B) **Sociolinguistic competence** is the ability to interpret or produce language appropriately according to the social context.

C) **Strategic competence** is the ability to organize a message effectively and to compensate, via strategies, for any difficulties. When there is a gap in communication, it is a good idea to express oneself via **communication strategy** and not stop talking. Strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problems in interaction.

Furthermore, Hymes (1977) introduces a more comprehensive classification of communicative competence:

A) **Phonological competence** is the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive meaningful sounds of a language, including: a) consonants, b) vowels, c) tone patterns, d) intonation patterns, e) rhythm patterns, f) stress patterns, and g) any other suprasegmental features that carry meaning. Related to phonological competence is **orthographic competence**, or the ability to decipher and write the writing system of a language.

B) **Grammatical competence** is the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and to use them effectively in communication.

C) **Lexical competence** is the ability to recognize and use words in a language in such a way that speakers of the language use them. Lexical competence includes understanding the different relationships among families of words and the common collocations of words.

D) **Discourse competence** is used to refer to two related, but distinct abilities. **Textual discourse competence** refers to the ability to understand and construct monologues or written texts of different genres, such as narratives, procedural texts, expository texts, persuasive (hortatory) texts, descriptions and others. These discourse genres have different characteristics, but in each genre there are some elements that help make the text coherent, and other elements which are used to make important points distinctive or prominent. The **pragmatic aspects of communicative competence** are

those that have to do with how language is used in communication situations to achieve the speaker's purposes (Hymes, 1977).

A) **Functional competence** refers to the ability to accomplish communication purposes in a language. There are a number of different kinds of purposes for which people commonly use language.

B) **Sociolinguistic competence** is the ability to interpret the social meaning of the choice of linguistic varieties and to use language with the appropriate social meaning for the communication situation.

C) **Interactional competence** involves knowing and using the mostly unwritten rules for interaction in various communication situations within a given speech community and culture. It includes, among other things, knowing how to initiate and manage conversations and negotiate meaning with other people. It also includes knowing what sorts of body language, eye contact, and proximity to other people are appropriate, and acting accordingly.

D) **Cultural competence** is the ability to understand behavior from the standpoint of the members of a culture and to behave in a way that would be understood by the members of the culture in the intended way. Cultural competence, therefore, involves understanding all aspects of a culture, but particularly the social structure, the values and beliefs of the people, and the way things are assumed to be done.

Applied linguistic: In attempting to investigate the complex nature of L2 learning, we use ideas not only from linguistic analysis, but from fields such as communication studies, education, psychology and sociology. This large endeavor is often called **applied linguistics**.

CHAPTER TEN

LANGUAGE HISTORY AND CHANGE

10.1 History

Linguistic investigation about the common ancestor of human languages started from Sir William Jones's time (eighteenth century). It still continues and focuses on the historical development of languages and attempts to characterize the regular processes which are involved in language change. In the 19th century, the historical study of languages, which is called **philolo-gy**, was the major concern of linguists. They used a term to describe that common ancestor. It says that this was the original form (*proto*) of language which was the source of modern languages in the Indian sub-continent (*Indo*) and in Europe (*European*). With **Proto-Indo-European** as the 'great-grandmother', scholars set out to show the lineage of many modern languages.

In terms of the number of speakers, Chinese is the first, then comes English, Spanish, Hindi, and finally Arabic and Russian are among the languages that have many native-speakers. (Yule, 1996).

Family relationships: Within groups of related languages, we often find close similarities in particular sets of terms which we call **cognates**. A **cognate** of a word in one language is a similar word in form and meaning in another language; e.g. *brother* in English and *Bruder* in German.

Using information from these cognate sets, we can embark on a procedure called **comparative construction**, whose aim is to reconstruct what must have been the original, or 'proto' form in the common ancestral language. In this regard, two general principles are utilized: a) the **majority principle** and b) the **most natural development principle**. The majority principle says if in a cognate set, three forms begin with a [p] sound and one form with a [b] sound, then our best guess is that the majority have retained the original sound (i.e. [p]) and the minority has changed through time. The most natural development principle is based on the fact that certain types of sound-changes are very common whereas others are unlikely. Examples:

a) *Final vowels often disappear.*

b) *Voiceless sounds become voiced between vowels.*

c) *Stops become fricatives under certain conditions.*

d) *Consonants become voiceless at the end of words.*

e.g. L1 = *agana*   L2 = *akana*   L3 = *akan*

Based on the majority principle the basic forms are languages 2 and 3. If this is indeed the case, then the consonant change must have been of the type [k] → [g]. There is a definite pattern of 'most natural development principle'; i.e. the voiceless consonants become voiced between vowels. [k] is between two vowels and changes to [g]. There is another example of 'most natural development principle' and it refers to the fact that final vowels disappear. So *akana* becomes *akan* and language number 2 must be said to have retained the original proto-form.

10.2 Change

The historical development of English is usually divided into three major periods (Yule, 1996; Rodman & Fromkin, 1988):

1) **Old English**: This period lasts from the seventh century to the end of eleventh century. The primary sources for what developed as the English language were the Germanic languages spoken by a group of tribes from northern Europe who invaded the British Isles in the fifth century AD. These tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes were described as "God's wrath toward Britain". It is from the names of the first two that we have the term 'Anglo-Saxons' to describe these people and from the name of the first tribe, the Angles, that we get the word for their language, *Englisc* (*English*), and for their new home, *Engla-land* (*England*).

2) **Middle English**: It refers to the period from the eleventh to fifteenth century. The arrival of the Norman French in England marks the end of the Old English and the beginning of the Middle English. These French-speaking invaders became the ruling class and as a result the language of nobility, the government, the law and civilized behavior in England for the next two hundred years was French, but the language of peasants remained English.

There are external and internal changes within the historical development of English:

Sound changes: The changing of vowel sounds is one of the differences between Modern English and Old English; e.g.

hu:s (Old English) → *haws* (Modern English),

wi:f (Old English) → *wayf* (Modern English).

Some sounds disappeared from the general pronunciation of English. Voiceless velar fricative /x/ was used in Old English but is absent in the present-day form. Old English *nicht* [nɪxt] → Modern English *night* [nayt].

Metathesis: The change known as metathesis involves a reversal in position of two adjoining sounds, e.g. *aks* as in *I aksed him* instead of *I*

asked him or *frist* instead of *first*. It may also occur between non-adjoining sounds. e.g. *parabola* → *palabra*.

Epenthesis: Another change involves the addition of a sound to the middle of a word. This is known as epenthesis.

e.g. *timr* → *timber* or *spinel* → *spindle*.

Prothesis: This change involves the addition of a sound to the beginning of a word. e.g. *schola* → *escuela*. (It is very common in Spanish.)

Syntactic changes: In relation to word order, in Old English there were many forms of flexibility, but in Modern English the most common ordering is subject +verb + object.

	1. V+S	2. S+O+V	3. O+S+V
Old E	fērde he	hē hine geseah	him man ne sealde
	(traveled he)	*(he him saw)*	*(him man not gave)*
Modern E	*He traveled*	*He saw him*	*No man gave [any] to him*

Double negative construction was also possible, as in the following example, with both 'not' and 'never':

and	ne	sealdest	þū	mē	næfre	ān	ticcen
(and)	(not)	(gave)	(you)	(me)	(never)	(a)	(kid)

  and you never gave me a kid

The loss of a large number of inflectional affixes from many parts of speech is another difference between Old and Modern English; e.g. *sealde* (he gave) *sealdest* (you gave). Nouns, adjectives, articles and pronouns all took different inflectional forms according to their grammatical function in the sentence.

Lexical changes: Lexical changes are concerned with the changes that take place in the words of a language. There are three kinds of lexical change:

1) **Addition of words**: Some words are added to the language through coinage. That is, new words are made and used by the speakers.

2) **Borrowing**: Some words are borrowed from other languages either directly or indirectly. This also adds to the vocabulary of the language.

3) **Loss of words**: Some words are completely lost as they are no longer used by the speakers. For example, in Shakespeare's time the word *wot* ('to know') existed but it does not any longer.

Semantic changes: These changes are concerned with the changes that occur in the meaning of words. There are three kinds of semantic changes:

1) **Broadening**: When a word with a specific meaning is used in a broader sense to refer to something more general we say that the meaning is broadened. The change from *holy day* as a religious feast to the very general break from work called a *holiday* can be given as an example.

2) **Narrowing**: Narrowing is the reverse of broadening; that is, a word with a general meaning is narrowed down to a specific meaning. For example,

mete was once used for any kind of food but in its modern form, *meat*, is restricted to only some of specific types.

3) **Meaning shift**: The meaning of words may change partially or completely; e.g. *silly* → *happy* in Old English → *naïve* in Middle English → *foolish* in Modern English.

The process of change: None of the changes have happened overnight. They have occurred gradually. Some of the changes can be linked to major social changes such as invasions and other upheavals, but the most important source of change in language is the continual process of cultural transmission which is the main concern of *diachronic* linguistics.

Ferdinand de Saussure (1875-1913) makes a major distinction between **synchronic** and **diachronic linguistics**. Synchronic linguistics refers to the study of language at a given period of time but diachronic linguistics is concerned with the study of language system from the viewpoint of its development through time (Yamini, 1998). In other words, diachronic linguistics is an approach to linguistics which studies how a language changes over a period of time whereas synchronic linguistics is the study of a language system at one particular point in time. (Richards *et al.*, 1992).

Table 10.1 Synchronic and Diachronic Linguistics

Time 1	Description of the sound system of Early English	Synchronic study
	Description of changes between the two systems — **Diachronic study**	
Time 2	Description of the sound system of Modern British English	Synchronic study

Saussure also makes a distinction between language (**langue**) and speech (**parole**). Langue refers to the language system shared by a community of speakers, which they have in connection with the arrangement of sounds and words in their language. Langue is the 'ideal' form of a language and is the subject of study for linguistics; whereas parole is the act of speaking or writing in actual situations by an individual. Parole falls behind linguistics scope (Yule, 1996; Sadighi, 1998; Yamini, 1998).

Saussure's distinction between 'langue' and 'parole' is to some extent similar to Chomsky's distinction between 'competence' and 'performance'. Although for Saussure the repository of 'langue' is the 'speech community'; i.e. sociolinguistics, for Chomsky the repository of 'competence' is the ideal speaker or hearer; i.e. psycholinguistics.

Moreover, Ferdinand de Saussure (1875-1913) makes a distinction between **form** and **substance**. The materials of a language are not important.

What is important is the function (form) and the value they have according to rules of the language. So language is the system of values not a collection of elements. What makes *lead* and *read* different is not the difference in the articulation but the fact that *l* and *r* have different values in the system.

In the structural school of linguistics, language units have either **syntagmatic** or **paradigmatic** relations to each other. The syntagmatic relation refers to the arrangement of units in sequence, but the paradigmatic (**taxonomic**) relation concerns those units that can be substituted for each other in the stream of speech or those units that can hold the same position in the sentence. In the following example, the horizontal line represents syntagmatic relations while the vertical line depicts paradigmatic relations.

Figure 11.1 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic relations

I ↔ gave ↔ Ali ↔ the ↔ book

↕

passed   ↔ = syntagmatic relations

↕   ↕ = paradigmatic relations

handed

↕

threw
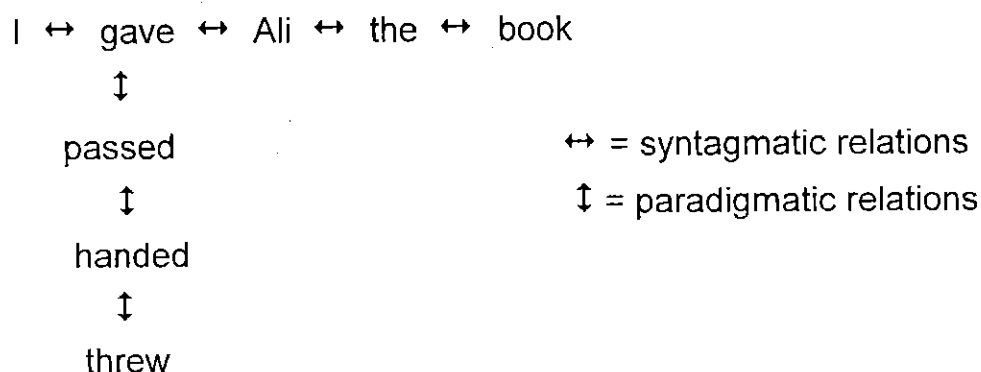
3) **Modern English**: It is considered to last from 1500 to the present. All of the following chapters are discussed based on the Modern period.

CHAPTER ELEVEN
LANGUAGE VARIETIES

In the previous sections, it was largely ignored that every language has more than one variety, especially in the way in which it is spoken. Yet, this variation in speech is an important aspect of our daily lives as language-users in different regional and social communities. In this section, we shall consider 'linguistic geography', concentrating on regional varieties and in the next section we shall consider the factors involved in social variation in language use (the following sections are taken from Yule, 1996; Holmes, 1990).

11.1 The standard Language

In describing the sounds, words and sentences of English, we concentrated on the features of only **Standard English**. This variety forms the basis of printed English in newspapers and books, is used in mass media and is taught in schools. It is the variety we normally try to teach to those who want to learn English as a second language. It is associated with education and broadcasting in public contexts and is more easily described in terms of written language (vocabulary, spelling, grammar) than the spoken language. In the United States we call it **Standard American English** and in Britain it is called **Standard British English**.

Accent and dialect: The term accent, when used technically, is restricted to the description of aspects of pronunciation which identify where an individual speaker is from, regionally or socially. It is to be distinguished from the term **dialect**, which describes features of grammar and vocabulary, as well as aspects of pronunciation. For example, the sentence, *You don't know what you're talking about*, is the same whether spoken with an American or a Scottish accent. Both speakers will be using Standard English forms but have different pronunciations. However, in this sentence, *Ye dinnae ken whit yer haverin' aboot*, there are differences in pronunciation (*whit, aboot*), vocabulary (*ken, haverin'*) and grammatical form (*dinnae*).

Despite occasional difficulties, there is a general impression of **mutual intelligibility** among many speakers of different dialects or varieties. From a linguistic point of view, no one variety is 'better' than another, but from a social viewpoint some varieties do become more prestigious.

Regional dialects: The existence of different regional dialects is widely recognized and often the source of some humor for those living in different regions. Some regional dialects clearly have stereotyped pronunciation associated with them. Those involved in the serious investigation of regional dialects, however, are not interested in such stereotypes. They have devoted a lot of research to the identification of consistent features of speech found in one geographical area rather than another. They tape-recorded some native speakers' speech and tried to choose their informants in such a way that their speech could really represent the dialect of the region. Thus the informants tended to be NORMS, or non-mobile, older, rural, male speakers. Such speakers were believed to be less likely to have influences from outside the region in their speech.

11.2 Isoglosses and Dialect Boundaries

If it is found that the vast majority of informants in one area say they take their groceries home in a *paper bag*, whereas the majority in another area say they use a *paper sack*, then it is usually possible to draw a line across a map separating the two areas. This line is called an **isogloss** and represents a boundary between the areas with regard to that one particular linguistic item. If a very similar distribution is found for another two items, then another isogloss, probably overlapping, can be drawn in. When a number of isoglosses come together in this way, a more solid line, indicating **dialect boundary**, can be drawn.

11.3 The Dialect Continuum

We can view regional variation as existing along a **continuum**, and not as having sharp breaks from one region to the next. Speakers who move back and forth across this border, using different varieties with some ease, may be described as **bidialectal** (speaking two dialects). Most of us are bidialectals, speaking one dialect 'in the street' and having to learn another dialect 'in the school'. However, if we want to talk about people knowing two distinct languages, we describe them as **bilinguals**. Individual bilingualism can simply be the result of two parents speaking different languages. However, even in this type of bilingualism, one language tends to become the dominant one, with the other assuming a subordinate role.

11.4 Language Planning

Government, legal and educational bodies in many countries have to plan which varieties of the languages spoken in the country are to be used for

official purposes. Yule (1996) introduces the following processes in this respect:

a) **Selection**: In this process an official language is chosen.

b) **Codification**: This process involves selection and in it basic grammars, dictionaries and written models are used to establish the standard variety.

c) **Elaboration**: The standard variety is developed for use in all aspects of social life and the appearance of a body of literary work written in the standard language.

d) **Implementation**: In this process the governments attempt to encourage the use of the standard language.

e) **Acceptance**: A substantial majority of the population have come to use the standard and to think of it as the national language, playing a part in not only social, but also national identity.

11.5 Pidgins, Creoles and Lingua franca

A language that is used for communication between different groups of people, each speaking a different language is called **lingua franca**. Lingua franca could be an internationally used language of communication. It could be a native language of one of the groups, or it could be a language, which is not spoken natively by any of the groups. It is also called the **auxiliary language**.

A **Pidgin** is a variety of a language which develops for some practical purpose, such as trading, among groups of people who have a lot of contact, but who do not know each other's languages. As such, it would have no native speakers. The word 'Pidgin' originally meant business.

Pidgins are characterized by an absence of any complex grammatical morphology and a limited vocabulary. Inflectional suffixes such as -s (plural) and -'s (possessive) on nouns in Standard English are rare in Pidgins. Functional morphemes often take the place of inflectional morphemes found in the source language. For example, instead of changing the form of *you* to *your*, as in *your book*, English-based Pidgins use a form like *bilong* and change the word order to produce phrases like *buk bilong yu*.

There are considered to be between six and twelve million people still using Pidgin languages and between ten and seventeen million using descendants from Pidgins called **Creoles**. When a Pidgin develops beyond its role as a trade language and becomes the first language of a social community, it is described as a Creole. A Creole develops as the first language of the children of Pidgin speakers. Therefore, unlike Pidgins, Creoles have large numbers of native speakers and are not restricted at all in their uses. The separate vocabulary elements of a Pidgin can become grammatical elements in a Creole.

13.6 The Post-Creole Continuum

When people in a Creole-speaking community are taught in the standard language to which the Creole is related, they form a post-Creole continuum. Just as there was development from a Pidgin to a Creole known as **Creolization**, there is a retreat from the use of the Creole by those who have greater contact with a standard variety of the language. This process is referred to as **decreolization** (Richards *et al.*, 1992). For example, in Jamaica and Guyana, an English-based Creole is spoken and the Standard English is taught in schools. Those with higher levels of education speak something close to Standard English, which is called the **acrolect**. Those with little or no education speak the Creole or something close to it, which is called the **basilect**, and the rest speak a range of varieties in between known as **mesolects**.

Table 11.1 The Post-Creole Continuum

(Taken from Richards *et al.*, 1992)

Speech varieties	Speakers	Examples
acrolect	higher education and social status	*it's my book*
mesolect		*iz mi buk*
basilect	little or no education, low social status	a fi mi buk dat

CHAPTER TWELVE

LANGUAGE, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

In the previous section, we noted that the way you speak provides clues, in terms of regional accent or dialect, to where you spent most of your early life. Moreover, there are certain social factors that can affect a person's speech. These social factors can play a very important role in our speech and, in many ways, our speech serves as a form of social identity and is used consciously or unconsciously to indicate membership of different social groups or different speech communities. A speech community is a group of people who share a set of norms, rules and expectations regarding the use of language. Investigating language from this perspective is known as **sociolinguistics** (Holmes, 1990; Yule, 1996).

Sociolinguistics deals with the inter-relationships between language and society. It has strong connections to anthropology (through the investigation of language and culture) and to sociology (through the crucial role that language plays in the organization of social groups and institutions). It is also tied to social psychology, particularly with regard to how attitudes and perceptions are expressed and how in-group and out-group behaviors are identified.

12.1 Social Dialects

Social dialects are varieties of language used by groups defined according to *class, education, age, sex* and a number of other *social parameters.* Before describing these factors, we explain one particular interaction between social values and language use. The concept of 'prestige' is typically understood in terms of **overt prestige**: that is, the generally recognized 'better' or positively valued ways of speaking in social communities. There is another phenomenon called **covert prestige**. This 'hidden' type of positive value is attached to non-standard forms and expressions by certain sub-groups. For example, schoolboys everywhere seem to attach covert prestige to forms of 'bad' language (swearing and 'tough' talk) that are not similarly valued in the larger community.

12.2 Social Class and Education

It seems to be the case that a person who spends a long time going through college or university will tend to use forms which are not used by those who leave education system earlier. These features derive from a lot of time spent working with the written language and it seems they 'talk like a book'.

The **socio-economic** status also influences one's speech. The occurrence of [n] instead of [ŋ] in 'sitting' is associated with lower social class. Similarly, the absence of [h] sound in words like 'house' and 'hello' is indicative of lower social class.

12.3 Age and Gender

Variation according to age is most noticeable across the *grandparent-grandchild* time span. Variation according to gender of the speaker has been the subject of a lot of recent research. It is observed that female speakers tend to use more prestigious forms than male speakers with the same general social background. Women generally discuss their personal feelings more than men. Men appear to prefer non-personal topics such as sport and news. Men respond to an expressions of feeling by giving advice on solutions, while women are likely to mention personal experiences that match with the other woman's. Women are cooperative and seek connection via language, whereas men are more competitive and concerned with power via language. The rate of men interrupting women is greater than the reverse. Women use more expressions associated with tentativeness when expressing an opinion. Holmes (1990) defines the features of women's language as follows:

1) Lexical hedges or fillers (like *You know, kind of, sort of, well*).
2) Tag questions (like *isn't it?, don't you?*).
3) Rising intonation on declaratives.
4) 'Empty' adjectives; e.g. *diving, charming, cute*.
5) Precise color terms.
6) Intensifiers such as *just* and *so*; e.g. *I like it so much*.
7) 'Hypercorrect' grammar (For example, consistent use of standard **verb** forms).
8) 'Superpolite' forms; e.g. *Indirect requests, euphemisms*.
9) Avoidance of strong swear words; e.g. *Fudge, my goodness*.
10) Emphatic stress; e.g. It was a BRILLIANT performance.

12.4 Ethnic Background

Within any society, differences in speech may come about because of different **ethnic backgrounds**. The speech of many African-Americans, known as **Black English Vernacular (BEV)**, is a widespread social dialect, often cutting across regional differences. When a group within a society undergoes some form of social isolation, such as the discrimination or segregation experienced by African-Americans, then social dialect differences become more marked and the resulting variety of speech may be stigmatized as "bad speech". One example is the frequent absence of the copula (forms of the verb 'to be'). However, there are languages such as Arabic and Russian that do not use copula. So BEV cannot be 'bad' any more than Russian or Arabic is 'bad'. Another example is the use of double negatives in BEV. But we see that French and Old English use double negatives, too. So, it is not illogical to use double negatives in BEV. This feature is basically a dialect feature, which is present in one social dialect of English, sometimes found in other dialects, but not in the Standard Language.

12. 5 Idiolect

The term **idiolect** is used for the personal dialect of each individual speaker of a language. Each one of us uses his/her mother tongue in a certain way. You can learn a lot about the personality and background of a speaker from his idiolect. From the viewpoint of the social study of language, you are in many respects what you say. Idiolect differences do not cause complete lack of comprehension. A collection of different idiolects constitutes a dialect and a collection of dialects constitutes a language.

12.6 Style, Register and Jargon

All the social factors mentioned up to here are related to variation according to the user of the language. There is another source of variation in an individual's speech which is conditioned by the situation of use. We can assume a gradation of **style** of speech, from the very informal (causal) to the very formal according to the type of situation, the person(s) addressed, the location of speech, and the topic of discussion. This type of variation is more formally encoded in some languages than others.

Differences in style can also be found in written language, with business letters versus letters to friends as good illustrations. The general pattern is that a written form of a message is inevitably more formal in style than its spoken form.

Variation according to use in specific situations is also studied in terms of **register**. There are linguistic register (such as the morphology of this dialect contains fewer inflectional suffixes), religious register, legal register and so on.

One of the key features of a register is the use of special **jargon**, which can be defined as technical vocabulary associated with a special activity or group. In social terms, jargon helps to connect those who see themselves as 'insiders' in some way and to exclude 'outsiders'.

12.7 Diglossia

Managing to say the right thing to the right person at the right time is a monumental social accomplishment. It is a major skill which language-users must acquire over and above other linguistic skills such as grammar and pronunciation. When two languages or language varieties exist side by side in a community and each one is used for different purposes, this is called **diglossia**. Usually, one is a more standard variety called the **High variety** or **H-variety**, which is used in government, the media, education, and for religious services. The other one is usually a non-prestige variety called the **Low variety** or **L-variety**, which is used in the family, with friends, when shopping etc. A form of diglossia exists in the German-speaking part of Switzerland, where the H-variety is a form of standard German (Hochdeutsch) and the L-variety is called Schwyzertüütsch, which is a range of regional Swiss dialects. In some situations, the high variety may be a quite separate language (Holmes, 1990 ; Richards *et al.*, 1992; Yule, 1996).

12.8 Language and Culture

Anthropologists tend to treat language as one element among others, such as beliefs, within the definition of **culture** as 'socially acquired knowledge'. Through the process of cultural transmission, it makes sense to emphasize the fact that linguistic variation is tied very much to the existence of different cultures.

12.9 Linguistic Determinism

Your language gives you a ready-made system of categorizing what you perceive, and as a result, you are led to perceive the world around you only in those categories. This is a theory of language called **linguistic determinism**, which holds that "language determines thought." In other words, you can only think in the categories which your language allows you to think in.

This is part of the **Sapir-Whorf hypothesis**. The works of Sapir and Whorf in 1930s in the USA led to this hypothesis, which states that "the way people view the world is determined by the structure of their native language".

A weaker version of this hypothesis is named **linguistic relativity** which proposes that human languages are highly variable and that this variability will be reflected in non-linguistic knowledge and behavior but it will not necessarily determine human thought.

The notion of linguistic determinism may be partially correct, in some extremely limited ways, but it fails to take into account the fact that language-users of a language do not inherit a fixed set of patterns to use. They inherit the ability to manipulate and create with a language, in order to express their perceptions. If thinking and perceptions were totally determined by language, then the concept of language change would be impossible. The human manipulates the language, not the other way around.

12.10 Language Universals

While languages are subject to variation, they have certain common properties. Those common properties are called **language universals** or **principles**. It is claimed that every speaker knows a set of **principles** which applies to all languages and also a set of **parameters** that can vary from one language to another, but only within certain limits. Every human language can be learned by children, employs an arbitrary symbol system, and can be used to send and receive messages by its users. Every language has noun-like and verb-like components, which are organized within a limited set of patterns to produce complex utterances. By discovering these universal patterns, it may be possible to describe not just the grammar of all languages, but the single grammar of human language.

According to Chomsky, humans are born with minds that contain the innate language knowledge called, **language acquisition device (LAD)**. According to Steinberg (1991), Chomsky incorporates three classes of innate ideas into LAD as follow:

1) **Substantive ideas** are those ideas, which appear in relations or are manipulated by operations.

2) **Formal ideas** are those which express relations or manipulations.

3) **Constructive ideas** are those ideas, which enable the mind to construct a particular grammar using the substantive and formal innate ideas, given particular language data as input.

In addition, Steinberg (1991) states that Chomsky (1967 b: 6) presents four major arguments in support of his LAD theory:

1) **Peculiarity of grammar**: Because the grammar of every language is so peculiar, so un-simple, so un-logical, and yet so similar in the same aspects, Chomsky believes that it is necessary to postulate innate language knowledge in order to account for these facts.

2) **Imperfect input data**: Chomsky (1967b) states that children learn the grammar of their language despite having received language data that are 'meager in scope' and 'degenerate in quality' and despite those data being a 'minute sample of the linguistic material that has been thoroughly mastered'.

3) **The irrelevance of intelligence**: Chomsky's contention that language learning is essentially independent of intelligence.

4) **Ease and speed of child language acquisition**: "A young child is able to gain perfect mastery of a language with incomparably greater ease [than an adult], extraordinary speed and without any explicit instruction" (Chomsky 1962: 529).

As such, Chomsky came to this conclusion that 'the child must have had the assistance of innate language knowledge'.

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MA EXAMINATION TESTS IN TEFL
(1374-1383)

CHAPTER ONE

PERSPECTIVES ON THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE

1. The existence of onomatopoeic words supports the origin of human speech based on ----------. (1383)
   a. natural sounds
   b. sounds and gestures
   c. physical adaptation
   d. divine-source experiments

2. All of the following are among the unique features of human language EXCEPT ----------. (1383)
   a. discreteness and duality
   b. displacement and arbitrariness
   c. critical period and communication
   d. cultural transmission and productivity

3. The fact that linguistic signals do not normally serve non-linguistic functions is called ----------. (1383)
   a. reciprocity
   b. vocal-auditory channel
   c. specialization
   d. non-directionality

4. Pictograms and ideograms are types of ----------. (1383)
   a. cuneiform
   b. orientation
   c. iconic representation
   d. non-linguistic systems

5. Mary, a little girl, painted a picture, a house, a river flowing by the house. Her painting looks real. Her painting is ----------. (1382)
   a. interpretive
   b. symbolic
   c. lexical
   d. iconic

6. The following symbols are used in a/an ---------- writing system. (1381)
   a. ideogram
   b. cuneiform
   c. pictograph
   d. heliograph

7. The following are instances of ---------- . (1380)
   Bar-B-Q   koffee kake   kwik-fit

a. abbreviations   b. deviant spellings
c. graphic contrasts   d. symbolizations

8. Animal communication is generally considered to lack the property of ------
because animals can not talk about things and event in past and future
time. (1379)
a. arbitrariness   b. displacement
c. discreteness   d. productivity

9. Human language can be used to talk about things and events not present
in the immediate environment. This property is called ----------. (1377)
a. arbitrariness   b. discreteness
c. displacement   d. productivity

10. Which one of the following properties paves the way for the creation of
science fictions? (1376)
a. arbitrariness   b. discreteness
c. displacement   d. open-endedness

11. That users of the system are able to refer to events remote in space and
time refers to a feature of human language known as ----------. (1375)
a. discreteness   b. displacement
c. duality   d. productivity

12. Among the properties of language, the one which relates to the fact that
language must be acquired or learned by each new generation is ---------.
(1374)
a. arbitrariness   b. cultural transmission
c. discreteness   d. productivity

CHAPTER TWO

PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

13. The five features of articulation position in systematic phonetics are ------.
(1383)
a. anterior, coronal, high, low, back
b. labial, dental, alveolar, palatal, glide
c. vocalic, consonantal, continuant, nasal, lateral
d. abrupt release, strident, round, aspiration, tense

14. The sound segments [h, w, y] are ----------. (1383)
a. [+high, +round]   b. [-tense, -low]
c. [+continuant, +voice]   d. [-consonantal, -vocalic]

15. The assimilation of a root to the vowel of a suffix is called ----------. (1383)

    a. umlaut
                               b. redundancy

    c. vowel harmony
                        d. segment insertion

16. If there is a [-consonantal, +high +back], then it will predictably be -------. (1383)

    a. [+tense]
                               b. [+round]

    c. [-tense]
                               d. [-continuant]

17. Which of the following sound groups has the [+anterior, -coronal] feature? (1382)

    a. [p, m, b]
                               b. [k, g, h]

    c. [l, z, r]
                               d. [t, d, n]

18. A rule such as: "Nasal consonants are voiced" is a --------- rule. (1382, 1381)

    a. distinctive
                               b. constitutive

    c. phonological
                        d. redundant

19. The muscles of the vocal tract are tense in the articulation of all the following sounds except for ----------. (1382)

    a. [z]
                                 b. [p]

    c. [f]
                                 d. [h]

20. Which one of the following sound segments would have the features [-vocalic, -consonantal]? (1382)

    a. [l, e, o]
                               b. [l, r]

    c. [h, w, y]
                            d. [p, b, t]

21. The final sound of <u>drags</u> is ----------. (1381)

    a. voiced alveolar fricative
           b. voiceless alveolar fricative

    c. voiced alveolar affricate
           d. voiceless palatal affricate

22. Consider the English word button [bʌtn]. /n/ is an instance of ----------. (1381)

    a. assimilation
                               b. nasalization

    c. a syllabic segment
                        d. a continuant segment

23. The phonetic realization of words such as "writer" and "rider" as [raiDər] is the result of the application of -------------. (1381)

    a. flap rule
                               b. neutralization

    c. assimilation
                        d. velarization rule

24. If the vocal cords are kept wide apart, air expelled with energy will pro-
    duce audible ----------, an effect that is often used as an [h] sound in
    languages. (1380)
    a. affricate   b. glottal friction
    c. palatal sound   d. plosive

25. The sound representing the features [+consonantal, -vocalic, +tense,
    -nasal, -coronal, +anterior, -voice] is ----------. (1380)
    a. [b]   b. [d]
    c. [p]   d. [t]

26. The phrase "an egg" is often pronounced as [ənég] in English. The pho-
    nological process involved is -------------. (1380)
    a. deletion   b. deixis
    c. ellipsis   d. liaison

27. The phonemic representation needs only include ------------- of the string
    of phonemes that represent the word. (1380)
    a. nonpredictable distinctive features
    b. nondistinctive physical properties
    c. predictable redundant features
    d. variant phonetic aspects

28. Which one of the following pairs would be treated as a minimal pair?
    (1379)
    a. fail-fake   b. lose-lost
    c. made-mat   d. strong-strange

29. The phoneme /s/ in "book", "bags" and "boxes" has phonetic variants [S],
    [Z], and [ɪZ] respectively. These phonetic variants are said to be the ------
    ----- of /s/ in English. (1379)
    a. allophones   b. phones
    c. allomorphs   d. minimal set

30. The rule: if: <+nasal>, then: <+voice> is a -------------. (1379)
    a. distinctive rule   b. phonological rule
    c. redundancy rule   d. transformational rule

31. The speech sound produced with lowered velum or soft palate is called
    ----------. (1379)
    a. nasal   b. palatal
    c. velar   d. uvular

32. In British English, the consonant ---------- appears both at the beginning
    and at the end of words. (1379)

a. [r]	b. [ŋ]
c. [t]	d. [h]

33. Which of the following words has an aspirated plosive sound? (1379)

a. asphalt	b. kick
c. physics	d. risk

34. The word ---------- contains the aspirated consonant [pʰ]. (1379)

a. play	b. pound
c. shape	d. spider

35. Identify the phonetic feature or features in the distinctions which are operative in the minimal pair "weed" vs. "heed". (1378)

a. anterior, tense, high	b. coronal, voice
c. voice, aspiration	d. voice, tense, high

36. The words "improper" in English and "ambor" in Farsi indicate a phonological process called -------------. (1378)

a. assimilation	b. dissimilation
c. elision	d. insertion

37. Which of the following plural forms is phonologically conditioned? (1378)

a. dogs	b. men
c. sheep	d. wives

38. Which of the following sets lack a voiced bilabial sound? (1378)

a. [d, s, b]	b. [d, m, t]
c. [z, r, p]	d. [g, s, b]

39. Which of the following words does NOT end in a voiced sound? (1378)

a. begged	b. lathe
c. maze	d. touched

40. Which one of the given systematic phonetic feature descriptions would be the traditional label "voiced alveolar nasal" correspond to? (1378)

a. +anterior, – coronal	b. –anterior, +coronal
c. +anterior, +coronal	d. –anterior, -coronal

41. Liquids such as "l" and "r" are sometimes called syllabic because they ----------. (1378)

a. are +voiced sounds
b. are +consonantal and –vocalic
c. are produced like vowels
d. function like vowels

42. A common phonological process is -------------. (1377)

a. assimilation   b. articulation
c. distinction   d. digression

43. Which one of the following represents assimilation? (1377)
  a. vowel harmony   b. nasalization
  c. consonant-cluster reduction   d. approximation

44. Since the vocal tract of every human being is the same as that of other human beings, -------------. (1377)
  a. all people are capable of producing any sound in any language
  b. all people can produce a limited number of sound segments
  c. we imitate the communicative competence of others
  d. we can distinguish the sounds produced by speakers of any language

45. When linguists study speech sound, they are concerned with ----------- phonetics. (1377)
  a. articulatory   b. acoustic
  c. international   d. systematic

46. According to systematic phonetics, the segments [p and b] can be described as [---------]. (1377)
  a. [+consonantal, -abrupt release, +anterior, -continuant]
  b. [+consonantal, +abrupt release, -anterior, +continuant]
  c. [+consonantal, -abrupt release, +anterior, +continuant]
  d. [+consonantal, +abrupt release, +anterior, -continuant]

47. Which one of the following groups of sound segments share the phonetic features [-anterior, -coronal]? (1377)
  a. [ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ]   b [θ, ð, t, d, n]
  c. [p, b, m, f, v]   d. [k, g, ŋ]

48. /p/ in English can be characterized as -----------. (1377)
  a. [+bilabial, +voice, +stop]
  b. [-voice, +labiodental, +fricative]
  c. [-voice, +velar, +stop]
  d. [-voice, +bilabial, +stop]

49. In systematic phonetics, the feature -------- accounts for the friction noise in fricatives and affricates. (1377)
  a. <+anterior>   b. <+continuant>
  c. <+strident>   d. <+voice>

50. The feature that distinguishes [d] from [b] is ---------. (1377)
  a. < anterior>   b. <coronal>
  c. <consonantal>   d. <vocalic>

51. In <+consonantal> sounds an obstruction is created by moving a (n)
--------. (1377)
   a. articulator   b. place of articulation
   c. prespeech position   d. abrupt release

52. Those sounds which are both consonantal and vocalic are called -------.
(1377)
   a. coronals   b. glides
   c. liquids   d. syllabics

53. Which of the following clusters do not appear in the final position in Farsi
and English? (1376)
   a. [dt]   b. [gz]
   c. [rd]   d. [ts]

54. Which of the following segments has the features [+anterior, +coronal,
+voice, +stop]? (1376)
   a. /d/   b. /b/
   c. /g/   d. /?/

55. What feature do [b] and [g] have in common? (1376)
   a. [anterior]   b. [back]
   c. [coronal]   d. [voice]

56. The friction noise in fricatives and affricates is accounted for in the sys-
tematic phonetics by the feature ----------. (1376)
   a. [anterior]   b. [coronal]
   c. [nasal]   d. [strident]

57. The phoneme /p/ in English can be characterized as ----------. (1376)
   a. [-voice, +bilabial, +stop]
   b. [-voice, +velar, +stop]
   c. [-voice, +labiodental, +fricative]
   d. [+bilabial, +voice, +stop]

58. Which one of the following sound segments would have the features
[-vocalic, -consonantal]? (1376, 1373)
   a. [h. w, y]   b. [I, e, o]
   c. [l, r]   d. [p, b, t]

59. The sound /r/ can be said to have the following phonetic features ------.
(1376)
   a. [+consonantal, +continuant, +strident, -lateral]
   b. [+consonantal, +continuant, -strident, -lateral]
   c. [+consonantal, -continuant, +strident, -lateral]
   d. [-consonantal, +continuant, -strident, -lateral]

60. [-sonorant] sounds are ----------. (1375)
    a. nasals and laterals
    b. nasals, laterals, and vowels
    c. stops, fricatives, and affricates
    d. stops, affricates, and nasals

61. The phrase "last year" is often pronounced "las year". What phonological process is that? (1375)
    a. assimilation   b. insertion
    c. dissimilation   d. elision

62. The phonological generalizations that convert the phonemic representations into phonetic representations are often referred to as --------- rules. (1375)
    a. assimilation   b. dissimilation
    c. phonetic   d. redundancy

63. The relative pitch at which a syllable is produced is described as ----------. (1375)
    a. intonation   b. length
    c. register   d. tone

64. The suprasegmental feature which describes the relative pitch at which a syllable is produced is called -------------. (1374)
    a. tone   b. stress
    c. length   d. juncture

65. Persian learners of English have difficulty in pronouncing the sound [m] in the word <u>bottom</u> mainly because ---------. (1374)
    a. both Persian and English lack syllabicity feature
    b. syllabic consonants are not favored in English
    c. the feature of consonant syllabicity is non-existent in Persian
    d. syllabic consonants occur only in final positions in Persian

66. Which of the following pairs would be treated as minimal pairs? (1374)
    a. bell-heel   b. bun-pen
    c. fat-pat   d. pat-ban

CHAPTER THREE

WORD FORMATION PROCESSES AND MORPHOLOGY

67. The formation of *urinalysis* from *urine* and *analysis* is an example of -----.
(1383)
    a. blending   b. abbreviation
    c. compounding   d. back-formation

68. Which word is not the result of compounding? (1382)
    a. takeover   b. greenhouse
    c. earthquake   d. politeness

69. The word "televise" is an example of ---------- process. (1382)
    a. conversion   b. back-formation
    c. derivation   d. clipping

70. The word "motel" is a relatively new word in English taken from "motor +
hotel". Which kind of new word formation has been applied to produce
this word? (1382)
    a. Clipping   b. Invention
    c. Blending   d. Acronyming

71. From the pairs of antonyms such as "high/low" and "tall/ short", the one
which is used in questions of degree, "How high is it?", for instance, is
referred to as the ----------. (1381)
    a. marked   b. gradable
    c. relational   d. unmarked

72. Which of the following pairs of adjectives are NOT complementary anto-
nyms? (1381)
    a. alive/dead   b. happy/sad
    c. present/absent   d. awake/asleep

73. Which of the following words does NOT contain an inflectional suffix?
(1381)
    a. taken   b. quickly
    c. pieces   d. John's

74. When ------------- morphemes are attached to words, the derived word will
have a different word-class than the root. (1381)
    a. free   b. bound
    c. inflectional   d. derivational

75. Which of these sets of lexical items represents a derivational process? (1381)

    a. red, redden   b. big, bigger

    c. work, working   d. child, children

76. With regards to the process of word formation, "Math" is an example of ----------. (1381)

    a. clipping   b. acronomy

    c. blending   d. extension

77. The term "Kleenex" was originally created as a trade name for a product, but has become an ordinary English word. The technical term used to describe this process is "-------------". (1381)

    a. clipping   b. blending

    c. coinage   d. back-formation

78. The variant forms of the morpheme "-al" in the words "intentional-intentionality" are an example of -------------. (1381)

    a. blending   b. total suppletion

    c. compounding   d. phonological conditioning

79. Which of the following is true? (1379)

    a. Morphologically complex linguistic units are always semantically complex.

    b. Morphological units are identical to semantic units.

    c. Simple linguistic units may not be abstracted.

    d. Simple words may be semantically complex.

80. The rule that determines the phonetic form of the plural morpheme has traditionally been called a ------------- rule. (1379)

    a. phonetic   b. phonological

    c. morphological   d. morphophonemic

81. The expression "mouth (of a river vs. of an animal)" is a case of -------. (1379)

    a. homophony   b. homonymy

    c. polysemy   d. synonymy

82. The word "mouth" in "mouth of the river" and "Ali's mouth" would constitute an instance of -------------. (1378, 1377)

    a. homophony   b. homonymy

    c. hyponymy   d. polysemy

83. Which of the following statements is not true? (1378)

    a. Inflectional affixes tend to be fully productive.

b. Inflectional affixes are less productive than derivational ones.
c. Derivational affixes are partially productive.
d. Derivational affixes always precede inflectional affixes.

84. The sense-relation between "single-married" is similar to the one between----------. (1378)
   a. animal-elephant   b. big-small
   c. cold-hot   d. pass-fail

85. Which one of the following sense-relations is <u>NOT</u> similar to the one between "dinner-meal?" (1378)
   a. steal-take   b. sardine-fish
   c. yellow-color   d. carrot-vegetable

86. Which of the following pairs is called hyponymy? (1378)
   a. dead-live   b. daffodil-flower
   c. liberty-freedom   d. big-small

87. "Summer means picnics by the lake."
   The type of meaning involved is -------------. (1378)
   a. conventional meaning   b. associative meaning
   c. conceptual meaning   d. intended meaning

88. When a lexical item takes on a new special meaning in addition to its original meaning, this process is referred to as -------------. (1378)
   a. blending   b. borrowing
   c. coining   d. narrowing

89. The terms "banyan" and "pine" which share the same higher-up term such as "tree" in a hierarchical diagram are -------------. (1377)
   a. co-references   b. co-hyponyms
   c. co-texts   d. synonyms

90. There is an inflectional morpheme in the word "-------------". (1377)
   a. communication   c. fewer
   b. developmental   d. studies

91. The reduction of long words to shorter ones is carried out in the process of ----------. (1377)
   a. clipping   b. calque
   c. coinage   d. compounding

92. A morpheme which is capable of being used independently but cannot be separated into smaller forms that also occur independently is called a -------------. (1376)

a. bound morpheme   b. free morpheme
c. prefix   d. suffix

93. The English phrase "the boy's selfishness" consists of ------------. (1376)
    a. two lexical and two grammatical morphemes and three suffixes
    b. two lexical and one functional morphemes and two suffixes
    c. three free morphemes and three bound morphemes
    d. three free morphemes, two suffixes and an infix

94. The new English words "smog" and "gasoline" are instances of the word-formation process of -------------. (1376)
    a. blending   b. borrowing
    c. compounding   d. coinage

95. Which of the following does NOT belong to the basic processes of word formation? (1376)
    a. Assimilation   b. Compounding
    c. Derivation   d. Inflection

96. The forms "know" and "no" are examples of ----------. (1376)
    a. allophones   b. homophones
    c. homographs   d. homonyms

97. The lexical relationship between "furniture" and "chair" is similar to the one between ----------. (1376)
    a. "carrot" and "plant"
    b. "college" and "educational establishment"
    c. "fruit" and "banana"
    d. "potato" and "vegetable"

98. The relationship between "melted" and "melt" is similar to the one between ---------- and -----------. (1375)
    a. darken and dark   b. flatten and flattened
    c. frozen and freeze   d. redden and red

99. The semantic relationship between "educational establishment" and "primary school" is not dissimilar from the relationship between --------. (1375)
    a. "color" and "brown"   b. "football" and "game"
    c. "idea" and "conception"   d. "rose" and "flower"

100. In the sentence "He expressed his views on the issues involved", ------. (1374)
    a. "expressed" and "view" consist of three morphemes
    b. "he", "his" and "on" are deicties
    c. "on" "views" and "his" are functional morphemes
    d. there are only four lexical morphemes

101. The word "spring" besides meaning, "the first season of the year", means "beautiful flowers and rains". This type of meaning is called ------------ . (1374)
    a. ambiguity
    b. associative meaning
    c. conceptual meaning
    d. paraphrasing

102. Which of the given pairs of words is identical to the pair, "single-married" in terms of the lexical relation between them? (1374)
    a. "dead-alive"
    b. "shallow-deep"
    c. "small-large"
    d. "young-old"

103. The relationship between "advise" and "advisor" is -------------. (1374)
    a. a derivation with only a phonological change
    b. a derivation with semantic and grammatical changes
    c. an inflection with both grammatical and phonological changes
    d. a derivation with phonological, grammatical and semantic changes

CHAPTER FOUR

TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR

104. In a tree diagram, a node is a ----------. (1383)
    a. transformational rule
    b. syntactic category
    c. transformation movement
    d. branching point

105. The ungrammaticality of the sentence "John put the meat," can be explained on the basis of ----------. (1383)
    a. postposing
    b. semantic anomaly
    c. subcategorization
    d. selection restriction

106. The revised extended standard theory suggests that all semantic interpretation occurs in ----------. (1383)
    a. surface structure
    b. deep structure
    c. both surface and deep structures
    d. neither deep nor surface structures

107. As one of the characteristics of languages, "recursion" is the one which ----------. (1382)
    a. allows the repetition of morphemes to form new words
    b. states that the meaningful whole is made of meaningful parts
    c. allows phrases to expand by the expansion of phrases within themselves

       d. enables languages to come up with morphemes to express new ideas and new things in the world

108. Computing and contrasting parts of language in isolation is technically asserted to be the concern of ----------. (1382)
    - **a. psycholinguistics**
    - **b. macrolinguistics**
    - **c. microlinguistics**
    - **d. metalinguistics**

109. The function of language used to serve social maintenance is known as ----------. (1382)
    - **a. regulatory function**
    - **b. heuristic function**
    - **c. interactional function**
    - **d. representational function**

110. Generative semantics accounts for meaning through -----------. (1382)
    - **a. syntactic structure**
    - **b. syntactic deep structure**
    - **c. the deep logical structure directly**
    - **d. converting semantic deep structure into a syntactic one**

111. The use of fillers, restarts, etc in an attempt to make repairs in conversation is possible via -------------- competence. (1381)
    - **a. strategic**
    - **b. discourse**
    - **c. grammatical**
    - **d. sociolinguistic**

112. Alongside comprehension and production of grammatical sentences, native speakers are able to ------------. (1381)
    - **a. comprehensively justify their linguistic intuitions**
    - **b. formulate the grammar of their language explicitly**
    - **c. describe the body of linguistic knowledge in their minds**
    - **d. make judgments about grammaticality of different sentences**

113. The set of sentences:
    She likes books.
    You know that she likes books.
    He told me that you know that she likes books.
    is an example of ------------. (1381)
    - **a. derivation**
    - **b. recursion**
    - **c. transformation**
    - **d. subcategorization**

114. Which of the following sentences are both lexically and structurally ambiguous? (1381)
    - **a. I saw him walking by the bank.**
    - **b. Visiting professors might be boring.**
    - **c. Dick finally decided on the boat.**
    - **d. Old men and women are hard to live with.**

115. Which sentence is <u>True</u> about transformations? (1381)
    a. Some transformations are obligatory.
    b. Transformations generate lexical items.
    c. Transformations can generate sentences.
    d. All transformations should be ordered with respect to one
       another.

116. Which of the following sets of lexical items indicate the distribution of
    "case forms" in English? (1381)
    a. he - his - him   b. mine - yours - ours
    c. give - gave - given   d. works - working - worked

117. Which of the following sentences is ambiguous? (1380)
    a. Jim loves his son more that his wife.
    b. Nobody can find you here.
    c. John is too angry to talk.
    d. Who did you say arrived late?

118. Which of the following accounts for linear order of words in a language?
    (1380)
    a. Grammatical relations   b. Old versus new information
    c. Phrase structure rules   d. Subcategorization frames

119. Studies that follow the progress of a set of variables over time in the
    same set of cases are known as -------------- studies. (1380)
    a. cross-sectional   b. longitudinal
    c. naturalistic   d. prescriptive

       Structuralism paid little attention in its analyses to the role of the human
mind or social reality. A poem, for example, was to be understood not by
studying the experience of the poet, the reader, or the world, but by studying
the text. The author was no longer the authority for interpretation; the mean-
ing of a text was to be found in its individual use of language. This meaning
was accessible to the critic because author and critic both belonged to the
same community language system (or langue). Language had been handed
down to an author, who used it to construct a text. In this view, language did
not reflect reality, but created it.
       Structuralism brought a valuable objectivity into literary analysis, but at
the expense of the total neglect of an author's individuality, the social con-
text, and the varying historical situation. In the late 1960s, accordingly, there
developed a reaction to this 'logocentric' view, which came to be known as
'post-structuralism' a set of ideas whose implications have still to be fully ex-
plored. Here, language is seen not as a static structure, existing regardless
of social, historical, or personal considerations, but as a system whose

values shift in response to these factors, and whose meaning is too complex to be demonstrable by structuralist techniques. A range of post-structuralist view points has developed which emphasize the limitations of binary analyses, draw attention to the multiple and overlapping meanings of words, and stress the role of mental processes in interpreting linguistic relationships. The approach is highly critical of the scientific aims of structuralism, denying the possibility of objectivity in textual interpretation. (1380)

120. The text implies that ----------------.
   a. literature is to be studied in context
   b. meaning is accessible if it is studied within the text limit
   c. meaning is a reflection of reality
   d. the meaning of a text is what the text means

121. According to the text, structuralism ---------------.
   a. created a reality with no reality whatsoever
   b. dealt with language as it is used in context
   c. had many shortcomings and thus not constructive
   d. ignored the author-community interactions

122. Which one of the following rules abbreviates the following phrase structure rules? (1379)
   (i) N' → AP N'   (ii) N' → N   (iii) N' → N PP

   a. $N' \rightarrow N \begin{Bmatrix} APN' \\ N(PP) \end{Bmatrix}$ b. $N' \rightarrow N\ (AP)\ (PP)$

   c. $N' \rightarrow \begin{Bmatrix} APN' \\ N(PP) \end{Bmatrix}$ d. $N' \begin{Bmatrix} (AP)N' \\ NPP \end{Bmatrix}$

123. The projection rules of the semantic component use ------------ to derive the meaning of the sentence. (1379)
   a. both lexical and structural information
   b. both lexical and transformational information
   c. only lexical information
   d. only structural information

124. Any approach which attempts to lay down rules of correctness as to how language should be used is called --------------. (1379)
   a. descriptive   b. generative
   c. prescriptive   d. transformational

125. The constituent structure like "**NP → Det (Adj) N**" for NP can generate the following noun phrases except: (1378)

a. a young lady   b. young boys
c. the boy   d. the red apple

126. Which one of the following sentences can NOT be generated by the constituent rules? (1378)

S → NP VP   NP → (Art) (Adj) N VP → V (NP)

a. The counselor referred the best students to Harward.
b. The man opened the door.
c. The teacher accepted the clever student.
d. A woman answered the call.

127. Which one of the following binary distinctions is <u>NOT</u> Saussurean in nature? (1378)

a. Competence vs. performance
b. Language vs. parole
c. Substance vs. form
d. Synchronic vs. diachronic

128. Which one of the following sentences is ambiguous? (1378)

a. Growling lions can be frightening.
b. Jumping horses can be frightening.
c. That vegetable is too hot to eat.
d. The pilot decided on a procedure.

129. The sentence "Mary lost her red purse." can be brought to the surface by transformations such as ----------------, respectively. (1378)

a. adjective inversion, relative reduction, and relativization
b. adjective inversion, relativization, and relative reduction
c. relativization, relative reduction, and adjective reduction
d. relative reduction, relativization, and adjective inversion

130. If you want to speak or write proper Farsi, you have to follow the best writers in the language. This property is attributed to ------------- grammarians. (1378)

a. functionalist   b. traditionalist
c. transformationalist   d. structuralist

131. "The complain is trivial." The syntactic factor leading to the ungrammaticality of the above sentence is word ------------. (1377)

a. order   b. category
d. function   d. structure

132. Which of the following expressions would not be generated by this phrase structure rule? (1377)

NP → (Art) Adj N (S)

a. long ruler   b. small girl who came
c. the boy who came   d. the tall boy

133. The constituent structures and the constituent types of which a sentence is composed of are referred to as ------------. (1377, 1376)
    a. generalizations
    b. phrase structure
    c. redundancy rules
    d. structural description

134. According to Generative Grammar, there are four types of transformational rules. Identify the choice which can be excluded from the set of rules given below. (1377)
    a. categorization rules
    b. deletion rules
    c. movement rules
    d. substitution rules

135. The sentence "I know Joe will arrive by midnight." includes ------------ transformation. (1376)
    a. a conjoining
    b. a complementizing
    c. an embedding
    d. a relativizing

136. The sentences "It is rainig." and "باران می‌آید." are different in their ------. (1376)
    a. functional load
    b. pragmatics and perlocution
    c. subjects and predicates
    d. semantic content

137. Which of the following requires a different structure if translated into English? (1376)
    a. امروز جمعه است
    b. عروسی پنجشنبه است
    c. حالا زود است
    d. هوا سرد است

138. Which one of the following sentences provides evidence for the rule that a noun phrase can also consist of a noun plus a sentence at the deep structure level? (1376)
    a. Ali, please listen to me.
    b. Did the patient follow his diet?
    c. Is John really too far away to see?
    d. That he is fond of music is not surprising.

139. Human beings must know some finite set of principles or rules which produce the infinite number of --------------. (1376)
    a. functions in a society
    b. ideas in their communication
    c. sentences in their languages
    d. words in all languages

140. The ------------ attempts to account for the data by establishing semantic interpretation rules to apply both to deep and surface structures. (1375)

a. standard theory
b. interpretive semantics
c. extended standard theory
d. revised extended standard theory

141. The word "that" in "That John passed the test surprised me," is a ------. (1375)

a. complementizer
b. demonstrative pronoun
c. demonstrative article
d. relative pronoun

142. The following sentences are ungrammatical:
* I am knowing him.
* He is concerning my case.
The reason is that the verbs involved are ------------. (1375)

a. dynamic
b. ergative
c. intensive
d. static

143. Which of the following sentences are <u>not</u> generated by the following rules: (1374)

$$1. S \rightarrow NP\ VP \qquad 2. VP \rightarrow V\ (NP)\ (PP)$$

a. Mehdi wrote a letter to his father.
b. My brother cries.
c. My sister is clever.
d. Your father bought a present.

144. The following expressions are all meant to have the same deep structure. Which one is the closest to the deep structure? (1374)

a. My old professor is going to Tehran tomorrow.
b. My professor is old is going to Tehran tomorrow.
c. My professor old is going to Tehran tomorrow.
d. My professor who is old is going to Tehran tomorrow.

145. Which of the following does not belong to Chomskyan linguistic principles? (1374)

a. competence vs. performance
b. deep vs. surface structure
c. parole vs. langue
d. phrase structure vs. transformational rules

146. The rules of grammar need ---------------, which is the capacity to be applied more than once in generating a structure. (1374)

a. generalization
b. innateness
c. maximization
d. recursiveness

CHAPTERS FIVE & SIX

SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

147. Using the words "I hereby ..." is an informal test to see whether a sentence contains a ---------. (1383)
   a. presupposition
   b. performative verb
   c. deictic expression
   d. conceptual meaning

148. In the sentence "The mason built them a new house", the role of **"them"** is ----------. (1382)
   a. instrumental
   b. agentive
   c. experiencer
   d. benfactitive

149. If, in answer to the question "Do you have a watch?" the person asked says "yes, It's Seiko", we would conclude that s/he has not understand the ----------- of our utterance. (1382)
   a. entailment
   b. implication
   c. presupposition pool
   d. illocutionary force

150. Specify which statement is contradictory due to circumstance. (1381)
   a. Queens are males.
   b. Dogs are human.
   c. Babies are adults.
   d. My bachelor friend is lonely.

151. Which presupposition is NOT relevant to the sentence? (1381)
   a. Mary is better than Jim. Presupposition: Jim is good.
   b. Why don't pigs have wings? Presupposition: Pigs are animals.
   c. Please, give me some food again. Presupposition: She /He has been given food before.
   d. Who discovered America in 1492? Presupposition: America was discovered in 1492.

152. Assumptions about the knowledge that we share with our listeners are called -------. (1381, 1377, 1375)
   a. speech acts
   b. presuppositions
   c. generative semantics
   d. conversational principles

153. A- I hear John didn't do too well in his final exam.
   B- Yeah, it turned out to be his Waterloo.
   What kind of knowledge would allow for a correct interpretation of this dialog? (1380)
   a. inferential
   b. referential
   c. pragmatic
   d. paradigmatic

154. Ferdinand de Saussure recognized two sides to the study of meaning, but emphasized that the relationship is arbitrary: the sound image (----) and the concept (---------). The two brackets can be filled by ---------- respectively. (1380)

    a. significant- signifie
    b. the thing signified-the thing that signifies
    c. language- langue
    d. langue- language

155. The teacher does not like apples. "The teacher" in this sentence is the ----------. (1380)

    a. agent   b. experiencer
    c. instrument   d. theme

156. The following utterance produced by a student addressing his teacher is ------------- ill-formed. "Post the letter for me, will you?" (1379)

    a. textually   b. pragmatically
    c. syntactically   d. semantically

157. The following piece of language is -------------- ill-formed: "Mina is my friend. He is a nice man." (1379)

    a. discoursally   b. syntactically
    c. pragmatically   d. semantically

158. Every language has a set of lexemes or ---------------- which can be interpreted only with reference to the speaker's position in space or time. (1379)

    a. acronyms   b. calques
    c. deictic forms   d. lexical morphemes

159. In the following sentence:
    "My father gave me a pen."
    The expression "my father" is logically ---------------. (1379)

    a. rheme   b. subject
    c. an instrument   d. an agent

160. What is the participant role of the wind in "The wind opened the door"? (1378)

    a. ACTOR   b. AGENT
    c. INSTRUMENT   d. SUBJECT

161. In the sentence "John opened the door with a key", "the door" is ---------- and "John" is ---------------. (1377)

    a. agent; patient   b. object; goal
    c. patient; agent   d. subject; instrument
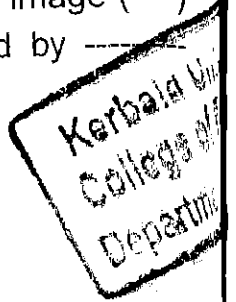
162. People <u>pass away</u> rather than <u>die</u> and are attended by <u>a mortician</u> rather than by <u>an undertaker.</u> Such use of language is referred to as -------. (1377)

    a. borrowing
                          b. euphemism
    c. spoonerism
                          d. widening

163. Linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic variables that can affect actual language use are called ------------------. (1377)

    a. abstract interpretations
              b. interpretive semantics
    c. pragmatic factors
              d. universal grammar

164. What are the deictic expressions in the following sentence: "They will talk to me about this when it's too late."? (1376)

    a. they, will, to, me
              b. they, me, this, it
    c. will, me, about, too
              d. will, to, me, is

165. The two sentences which have exactly the same set of entailments may be said to be -------------- of each other. (1375)

    a. antonyms
              b. hyponyms
    c. paraphrases
              d. synonyms

166. If a predicate describes a relationship between two things or people and some other predicate describes the same relationship when the two things or people are mentioned in the opposite order, the two predicates are --------------. (1375)

    a. contradictions
              b. converses
    c. hyponyms
              d. opposites

167. Identify the case relations of the underlined NPs in the following sentence: "<u>The key</u> opened <u>the door</u>". (1375)

    a. Agent / Experiencer
             b. Agent / Patient
    c. Experiencer / Patient
             d. Instrument / Patient

168. In the expression "The salvation of God," the ------------- case is implicit. (1375)

    a. affected
              b. agent
    c. causer
              d. goal

169. "I promise to do whatever I can." is a case of -------------- sentences. (1375)

    a. constative
              b. desiderative
    c. iterative
              d. performative

170. ------------ is a term used to subsume those features of languages which refer to the personal, temporal or locational characteristics of the situation. (1375)

a. Denotics
b. Deixis
c. Diacritic
d. Diglossia

171. What is the word which is NOT a deictic expression in the following statement? "Now he is writing a letter to his mother here in this room." (1375)

a. he
b. here
c. letter
d. now

172. Which of the following contains two deictic expressions? (1374)

a. In completing linguist's grammar collection of language.
b. In this university exams will be given two weeks from now.
c. To provide an accurate description of the language.
d. To serve as a basis for the study of Persian grammar.

173. "Pragmatics" is a branch of linguistic device which studies ------------. (1374)

a. the meaning of sentence in relation to its logical presupposition
b. the meaning of relations holding among the lexical items of a language
c. the meaning a sentence may assume in relation to another sentence
d. language meanings in relation to the contextual factors

174. A speech act is an action ------------. (1374)

a. referred to by the utterance
b. performed in using the language
c. performed along with uttering words
d. which is presupposed by an utterance

175. Which of the following sentences does NOT contain a performative verb? (1374)

a. I ask you whether you are going to Shiraz.
b. I command you to salute.
c. I promise to arrive on time.
d. I try to arrive on time before you leave.

176. Ali said to Mohammad, "I wish somebody would fetch me a glass of water". Mohammad fetched him a glass of water. The above sentence represents a (n) ----------. (1374)

a. direct speech act
b. indirect speech act
c. proposition
d. presupposition

177. Which one of the statements can explain the anomaly in the following utterance? Ali to Ahmad (who is known for his hatred of cats): *"I promise to bring you a cat."* (1374)

    a. It is an infelicitous utterance.
    b. It is a semantically ill-formed sentence.
    c. It is a linguistically ill-formed sentence.
    d. It is an unhelpful utterance.

178. Which of the given statements is a correct characterization of the following interaction between two passengers who are traveling by a train compartment and who have never met before? (1374)

    A: Nice weather, isn't it?   *B: No, it isn't so good.*

    a. A is giving information about the weather.
    b. B attends to A's indirect illocution.
    c. B attends only to the literal reading of A's statement.
    d. B is being helpful to A.

179. The sentences A and B below, (1374)

    A. Ahmad answered the questions.

    B. The questions were answered by Ahmad.

    a. are identical in terms of their interpersonal meanings.
    b. are different in their logical meanings.
    c. are identical in terms of their optional transformational rules.
    d. are identical in terms of their propositional meanings.

180. The utterance: "Could you please pass the salt?" uttered at a lunch table -----------. (1374)

    a. is a direct directive utterance
    b. is a direct commisive utterance
    c. is an indirect directive utterance
    d. is an indirect commisive utterance

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

181. All of the following belong to the maxims of conversation EXCEPT --------. (1383)

    a. be relevant
    b. be clear, brief, and orderly
    c. use body shifts and facial expressions
    d. do not say that which you believe to be false

182. The assumption that in most conversational exchanges, the participants try to provide relevant, sufficient and clear information required by the purpose of the talk in which they are engaged, is known in discourse analysis as ------------. (1381)
    a. coherence
    b. speech acts
    c. speech events
    d. co-operative principle

183. Studying the way we use language to get the meanings beyond those given form by language is termed ---------------- and studying how sentences are fitted to longer stretches of language is termed -----------. (1381)
    a. semantics-orthography form analysis
    b. pragmatics-phonetic form
    c. pragmatics-discourse analysis
    d. orthography-discourse analysis

184. "Jack had a coke. I had one too."
    In the sentence "one" ------------- to the "coke" in the first sentence. (1379)
    a. has an anaphoric relation
    b. is semantically identical
    c. has a deictic relation
    d. is syntactically identical

185. The type of knowledge existing in memory to be activated in due time is referred to as -------------. (1378)
    a. cooperative principle
    b. conversational interaction
    c. schemata
    d. implicature

186. Those who speak ambiguously violate the ------------ maxim of cooperative principles. (1377)
    a. manner
    b. quality
    c. quantity
    d. relevance

187. The utterance "What a nice student!" uttered by a teacher addressing a student who arrives quite late one morning, violates the maxim of ----- (1377)
    a. quantity
    b. quality
    c. relation
    d. manner

188. The speaker who produces, "Well, to make a story short -----------" seems to be particularly careful about the Grecian------- maxim. (1376)
    a. manner
    b. quantity
    c. quality
    d. relation

189. Expressions that attribute qualities to an object not normally associated with those qualities are called ------------. (1376)

a. complements

b. homonyms

c. metaphors

d. proverbs

190. Any string of words for which the meaning of the whole expression can-not be determined from the meaning of the individual morphemes that make up the string is called ---------. (1376)

a. a lexicon

b. an entry

c. a collocation

d. an idiom

191. Which of the following statements is NOT acceptable in linguistics? (1375)

a. The illocutionary act inherent in an utterance in intended by the speaker.

b. The perlocutionary act performed through an utterance is evident before the utterance is made.

c. The perlocutionary act performed through an utterance is not always intended by the speaker.

d. The perlocutionary act performed through an utterance is not under his full control.

192. The co-text of a word is the --------------. (1375)

a. set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence

b. word that can be used instead of that word

c. set of words that have the opposite meaning

d. physical context in which the word is used

193. Coherence exists as a property of --------------. (1375)

a. people, not of texts

b. people and words

c. texts, not of people

d. grammar and vocabulary

194. Mina picked a lot of flowers. She arranged the flowers in a beautiful pot. In this sentence, there are --------------- grammatical and ----------lexical cohesive devices. (1374)

a. one/ one

b. one/ two

c. two/ one

d. two/ two

CHAPTER EIGHT

LANGUAGE AND MIND

195. Lateralization refers to ----------. (1383)

a. L2 acquisition during adult years

b. brain readiness to learn a particular language

c. the use of language to interact with each other

d. the specialization of the left hemisphere for language

196. The dichotic listening test is used to show that ---------. (1383)
    a. there are slips-of-the-ear
    b. auditory comprehension is very difficult
    c. there is the left ear advantage for linguistic sounds
    d. the language functions are located in the left hemisphere

197. Agrammatism is due to injury in --------- area and it is typically charac-
    terized by ----------. (1382)
    a. Motor cortex – difficulty in accessing lexical morphemes
    b. Wernicke's – ability to name things seen and inability to read
    c. Broca's – effortful speech and absence of grammatical
        morphemes
    d. Corpus collasum – absence of grammatical morphemes and
        inability to read

198. Which on of the following utterances is produced by an aphasic whose
    Broca's area is damaged? (1382)
    a. The book on the table
    b. I'm a male demaploze on my own
    c. I can no longer keep in mind to minds keep me from
    d. Bus---- um ---- going ---- yes ----- going down ----- and hospital -----
        um ---Monday

199. "I surprise no new glamour". This sentence, spoken by an aphasic per-
    son, is an example of -------------. (1380)
    a. agrammatism   b. anomia
    c. neologism   d. paraphasia

200. Language is characterized as fluent, often excessively so, with no artic-
    ulatory difficulty, though there may be several erratic pauses. There are
    many stereotyped patterns, circumlocutions, unintelligible sequences
    and errors in choosing words and phonemes, which are symptoms of --
    --------------. (1380)
    a. Agrammatics   b. Broca's aphasia
    c. Euphemism   d. Wernicke's aphasia

201. Anomia is defined as a state in which a patient has --------------. (1379,
    1374)
    a. transferred the passive words into his /her active mind
    b. transferred the active words into his /her passive mind
    c. difficulty in finding the correct words
    d. difficulty in remembering cardinal numbers

202. Which statement is NOT valid? (1378)
    a. Aphasia is simply defined as language disorder due to cerebral damage.
    b. Broca's aphasia results in fluent speech production.
    c. Wernicke's aphasia results in impairment of auditory comprehension.
    d. Wernicke's area in the brain is mainly involved in speech understanding.

203. The erroneous production of an utterance such as, "I'll sow you to your sheet" instead of "I'll show you to your seat," is a typical example of --------------. (1376)
    a. epenthesis   b. epithesis
    c. liaison   d. spoonerism

204. In ---------------, the patient has difficulty finding words, both during the flow of speech and in naming. (1375)
    a. aphasia   b. anaphora
    c. cataphora   d. anomia

205. The interdisciplinary field which deals with the study of the relations between language and the brain is called --------------. (1374)
    a. glossematics   b. neurolinguistics
    c. psycholinguistics   d. sociolinguistics

CHAPTER NINE

FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

206. The holophrastic stage is one in which ---------. (1383)
    a. a single form functions as a phrase
    b. velar consonants such as [k] and [g] are present
    c. the child produces a string of lexical morphemes
    d. the sound production contains syllable-type sounds

207. In the process of child language acquisition, children produce only content words and miss function words at ---------- stage. (1382)
    a. telegraphic   b. holophrastic
    c. two-word   d. babbling

208. The main characteristics of telegraphic speech is the -----------. (1382)
    a. use of closed syllables
    b. use of novel utterances
    c. lack of grammatical morphemes

d. overextension of vocabulary items

209. Correction of child language by others is an example of ---------- evidence. (1382)
    a. distributional   b. syntactic
    c. positive   d. negative

210. In what order do English children acquire the grammatical morphemes of their mother tongue? (1381)
    a. s (plural) –ing –ed- 's   b. ed-s (plural) –ing –'s
    c. ing- s (plural) –'s- ed   d. ing- ed- 's- s (plural)

211. The word "fly" was first used by a child for the insect, and then came to be used for specks of dirt and even crumbs of bread. This process is known as ----------. (1381)
    a. interference   b. hypercorrection
    c. overextension   d. overgeneralization

        CHILD: Go car.
        MOTHER: Yes, Daddy's going in his car.
212. In this dialog, the mother provides a gloss for her child's utterance. This is an instance of -----------. (1380)
    a. intrusion   b. modification
    c. explanation   d. expansion

213. What kind of error does the following exchange have? (1379)
        Adult: What's daddy doing?
        Child: Him this (closing his eyes, gesturing "sleep")
    a. Achiform   b. Omission
    c. Reduction   d. Regularization

214. Very low incidence of interlingual errors indicates that observed errors are mostly ---------- errors. (1378)
    a. developmental   b. environmental
    c. global   d. local

215. To the rationalist, the function of the child's exposure to a language is to ------------. (1374)
    a. activate his linguistic capacity
    b. reduce the peripheral structural features
    c. increase universal tendencies
    d. shape his capacity for language

CHAPTER TEN

LANGUAGE HISTORY AND CHANGE

216. The two changes film → filum and schola → escuela are called -------
and ---------, respectively. (1383)
a. prothesis – metathesis   b. epenthesis – prothesis
c. metathesis – epenthesis   d. reduplication – allophone

217. When a number of distinct languages can be traced back to a common
source, they are said to belong to the same -------------. (1381)
a. dialect   b. speech
c. language family   d. language relation

218. In some hypothetical genetically-related languages, the following forms
and their corresponding meanings do exist:

L1	L2	L3	glossary
haplala	haplal	aplala	book
tutmānā	tutmān	utmānā	birds
rokoya	rokoy	okoya	lions

The proto-form for "birds" was -----------------. (1380)
a. tutmānā   b. tutmān
c. utmānā   d. utmān

219. The chief rationale behind "typological linguistics" is to find out about ---
------. (1379)
a. changes in language in relation to society
b. type of stylistic evolution in a language
c. the problems students have in learning a foreign language
d. the common features found in all language of the world

220. A feature of language claimed to be common to all possible languages
is called----------. (1379)
a. linguistic determinism   b. linguistic universal
c. phonological feature   d. semantic feature

221. Languages belonging to the same family are divergent variants, des-
cendants, of a common ancestral language or ----- language. (1379)
a. artificial   b. foreign
c. proto   d. sign

222. What kind of change occurred in the following word? (1379)
        arjmand > arjomand
a. broadening   b. epenthesis
c. narrowing   d. prothesis

223. Which one of the following distinctions belongs to Saussurean linguistics? (1376)

    a. **Competence vs. Performance**
    b. **Diachronic vs. Synchronic**
    c. **Deep Structure vs. Surface Structure**
    d. **Pragmatics vs. Semantics**

224. Which of the following constituents is one of the Saussurean binary distinctions? (1374)

    a. **allophone vs. allomorph**
    b. **deep structure vs. surface structure**
    c. **form vs. substance**
    d. **performance vs. competence**

CHAPTERS ELEVEN & TWELVE

LANGUAGE, LANGUAGE VARIETIES,

SOCIETY AND CULTURE

225. As far as diglossia is concerned, it is NOT true that ---------. (1383)

    a. **there are High and Low varieties**
    b. **all varieties have an overlapping range of functions**
    c. **two different varieties co-exist in a speech community**
    d. **there are linguistics forms for formal and informal uses**

226. The Standard variety is developed for use in all aspects of social life in the ---------- process of language planning.

    a. **codification**   b. **elaboration**
    c. **standardization**   d. **implementation**

227. In every recognized profession, a special or technical vocabulary evolves which is known as ----------. (1382)

    a. **jargon**   b. **pidgin**
    c. **register**   d. **style**

228. If we hear one person says "He done it", and another say "He did it", we would refer to them as using different ----------------. (1381)

    a. **styles**   b. **accents**
    c. **dialects**   d. **isoglosses**

229. In areas where divergent languages are spoken, the language used for social and commercial communication is called -----------. (1381)

    a. **idiolect**   b. **creole**
    c. **diglossia**   d. **lingua franca**

230. The speech of an individual person is called ----------. (1381)
   a. an accent   b. an idiolect
   c. a dialect   d. a language

231. The use of two distinct varieties of a language with separate social functions is called ---------------. (1381)
   a. diglossia   b. dichotic
   c. diachronic   d. dissimilation

232. In communication, the distance people stand from each other, and the way they hold their bodies when interacting, are important facets of ---------------. (1380)
   a. bilingualism   b. lingua franca
   c. nonverbal behavior   d. proxemic behavior

233. A system of communication which has grown up among people who do not share a common language, but who want to talk to each other, for trading or other reasons is called --------------. (1380)
   a. creole   b. pidgin
   c. register   d. style

234. In Arabic, there are two syles of spoken language: a high variation ('al-fushā) and a lower one ('al-āmmiyyah). Thus, this language is a good example for "--------------". (1380)
   a. Conventions   b. Diglossia
   c. Phobia   d. Registers

   It comes near to stating the obvious that all languages have developed to express the needs of their users, and that in a sense all languages are equal. But this tenet of modern linguistics has often been denied, and still needs to be defended. (1380)

235. The best title for the above text is most probably "-------------."
   a. A Linguistic Myth   b. Languages of Excellence
   c. The Equality of Languages   d. What Needs to Be Denied

236. The text implies that the author -------------.
   a. believes that no two languages are similar
   b. denies the fact that all languages are equal
   c. has reservations about what the public think of different languages
   d. makes no objections to what the users think of their languages

The recognition and analysis of all forms of linguistic variation depends on the making of comparisons. We intuitively sense that individuals and groups differ and develop, and we seek to explain our intuition by systematically comparing the way in which they make use of specific linguistic features. If we wish to make our account objective, sooner or later we need to count the frequency of these features, plot their distribution in controlled samples, and quantify the extent of the difference, at which point, we would be engaging in *stylostatistics*, or *stylometrics*. Such studies comprise a major part of the field of *statistical linguistics* - a field which investigates not only the differences between samples or texts, but also the properties that samples (and, ultimately, whole languages, and all languages) have in common, as part of the search for linguistic universals. (1380)

237. The text implies that forms are meaningful --------------.
>   a. through recognition
>   b. if the features can be quantified
>   c. if they represent objects
>   d. in contrast

238. Stylostatistics and stylometrics ------------------.
>   a. deal with how texts are formed
>   b. deal with styles and registers respectively
>   c. are subfields of statistical linguistics
>   d. are two different subfields of linguistics

239. In statistical linguistics, --------------------.
>   a. universals are checked against specific languages
>   b. specific languages are studied in detail
>   c. samples are collected from texts with different styles
>   d. pluses and minuses of properties are evaluated in contrast

240. Language was seen as a dynamic structure with all social, historical or personal considerations. This is a view developed by -------------. (1380)
>   a. analysts   b. Bloomfieldians
>   c. Post Structuralists   d. Structuralists

241. -------------- refers only to distinctive pronunciation, whereas -----------
refers to grammar and vocabulary as well. (1380)
>   a. Accent-dialect   b. Dialect-accent
>   c. Dialect-register   d. Register-accent

242. A variety of a language which grew for such practical purposes as trading among people who did not speak the same language, is called ---------. (1379)

  a. creole   b. diglossia
  c. isogloss   d. pidgin

243. An example of two words which are similar in meaning but with restrictions in geographical distribution is "----------" and "--------" in American English and British English respectively. (1379)
  a. gas / petrol   b. fight / battle
  c. center / theatre   d. batter/ butter

244. A common language that can be used by members of a community who do not share a native language in common is referred to as their --------. (1379)
  a. foreign language   b. vernacular
  c. creole language   d. lingua franca

245. A (n) ------------ situation exists in a society when it has two distinct codes which show clear functional separation. (1379)
  a. bilingual   b. bidialectal
  c. diglossic   d. honorific

246. The speech of every particular individual speaker is referred to as -----------. (1378, 1377)
  a. accent   b. dialect
  c. idiolect   d. sociolect

247. The part of linguistics which deals with sociology of a language is called ----------. (1377)
  a. anthropolinguistics   b. macrolinguistics
  c. microlinguistics   d. neurolinguistics

248. The relationship between people's feelings of personal identity, individual uniqueness and value is called --------------. (1377)
  a. aptitude   b. dominance
  c. efficiency   d. ego

249. The main belief held by Sapir-Whorf's linguistic relativity hypothesis is that ----------. (1376)
  a. people possess the capacity to acquire their first language in a predetermined way
  b. there is a relationship between people's ego and aspects of their first language acquisition
  c. people may experience a feeling of insecurity about some aspects of their language use
  d. the way people view the world is determined by the structure of their native language

250. In its most general sense, "----------------" refers to anything in the world in relation to which language is used. (1375)
    a. extraposition
    b. extralingusitic
    c. intralinguistic
    d. idealization

THE KEY TO MA TESTS
(1374-1383)

**CHAPTER ONE
PERSPECTIVES
ON THE STUDY
OF LANGUAGE**

1. ❶②③④
2. ①②❸④
3. ①②❸④
4. ①②❸④
5. ①②③❹
6. ❶②③④
7. ①❷③④
8. ①❷③④
9. ①②❸④
10. ①②❸④
11. ①❷③④
12. ①❷③④

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PHONOLOGY**

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15. ❶②③④
16. ①❷③④
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24. ①❷③④
25. ①②❸④

26. ①②③❹
27. ❶②③④
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56. ①②③❹
57. ❶②③④
58. ❶②③④

59.	① ❷ ③ ④
60.	① ② ❸ ④
61.	① ② ③ ❹
62.	① ② ③ ❹
63.	① ② ③ ❹
64.	❶ ② ③ ④
65.	① ② ❸ ④
66.	① ② ❸ ④

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70.	① ② ❸ ④
71.	① ② ③ ❹
72.	① ❷ ③ ④
73.	① ❷ ③ ④
74.	① ② ③ ❹
75.	❶ ② ③ ④
76.	❶ ② ③ ④
77.	① ② ❸ ④
78.	① ② ③ ❹
79.	① ② ③ ❹
80.	① ② ③ ❹
81.	① ② ❸ ④
82.	① ② ③ ❹
83.	① ❷ ③ ④
84.	① ② ③ ❹
85.	❶ ② ③ ④
86.	① ❷ ③ ④
87.	① ❷ ③ ④
88.	① ② ③ ❹
89.	① ❷ ③ ④
90.	① ② ③ ❹
91.	❶ ② ③ ④
92.	① ❷ ③ ④
93.	① ② ❸ ④
94.	❶ ② ③ ④
95.	❶ ② ③ ④
96.	① ❷ ③ ④

97.	① ② ❸ ④
98.	① ② ❸ ④
99.	❶ ② ③ ④
100.	① ② ③ ❹
101.	① ❷ ③ ④
102.	❶ ② ③ ④
103.	① ② ③ ❹

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106.	❶ ② ③ ④
107.	① ② ❸ ④
108.	① ② ❸ ④
109.	① ② ❸ ④
110.	① ② ❸ ④
111.	❶ ② ③ ④
112.	① ② ③ ❹
113.	① ❷ ③ ④
114.	❶ ② ③ ④
115.	❶ ② ③ ④
116.	① ❷ ③ ④
117.	❶ ② ③ ④
118.	① ② ❸ ④
119.	① ❷ ③ ④
120.	① ② ❸ ④
121.	① ❷ ③ ④
122.	① ② ❸ ④
123.	❶ ② ③ ④
124.	① ② ❸ ④
125.	① ❷ ③ ④
126.	❶ ② ③ ④
127.	❶ ② ③ ④
128.	① ❷ ③ ④
129.	① ② ❸ ④
130.	① ❷ ③ ④
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