

AADHITHYA TET- TRB COACHING CENTRE – KANCHEEPURAM

LINGUISTICS

Definition of Linguistics

Fundamentally, it is concerned with the nature of language and communication. Linguistics is the scientific study of language. By this we mean language in general, not a particular language. Linguistics is scientific in nature and it approaches language scientifically. So Victoria and Fromkin rightly say:

Some of the definitions of linguistics are as under:

1. “Linguistics observes language in action as a means for determining how language has developed, how it functions today, and how it is currently evolving.” (G. Duffy)
2. “Linguistics is concerned with the nature of human language, how it is learned and what part it plays in the life of the individual and the community.” (S. Pit Corder)
3. “Linguistics tries to answer two basic questions:
4. What is language? How does language work?” (Jean Aitchison)
5. “The scientific study of human language is called linguistics”. (Victoria A. Fromkin)

But linguistics does not study an individual language, it studies ‘language’ in general. That is, linguistics, according to **Robins (1985)**:

6. is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and of the human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential to human life as we know it, and one of the most far-reaching of human capabilities in relation to the whole span of mankind’s achievements.
7. **Linguistics** is the scientific study of language, specifically language form, language meaning, and language in context. The earliest activities in the description of language have been attributed to the 4th century BCE Indian grammarian Pānini, who was an early student of linguistics and wrote a formal description of the Sanskrit language in his *Aṣṭādhyāyī*.

SCOPE OF LINGUISTICS

- ❖ Linguistics analyses human language as a system for relating sounds (or signs in signed languages) and meaning. Phonetics studies acoustic and articulatory properties of the production and perception of speech sounds and non-speech sounds. The study of language meaning, on the other hand, deals with how languages encode relations between entities, properties, and other aspects of the world to convey, process, and assign meaning, as well as to manage and resolve ambiguity. While the study of semantics typically concerns itself with truth conditions, pragmatics deals with how context influences meanings.
- ❖ Grammar is a system of rules which govern the form of the utterances in a given language. It encompasses both sound and meaning, and includes phonology (how sounds or gestures function

together), morphology (the formation and composition of words), and syntax (the formation and composition of phrases and sentences from words).

- ❖ In the early 20th century, Ferdinand de Saussure distinguished between the notions of langue and parole in his formulation of structural linguistics. According to him, parole is the specific utterance of speech, whereas langue refers to an abstract phenomenon that theoretically defines the principles and system of rules that govern a language. This distinction resembles the one made by Noam Chomsky between competence and performance, where competence is individual's ideal knowledge of a language, while performance is the specific way in which it is used.
 - ❖ The formal study of language has also led to the growth of fields like psycholinguistics, which explores the representation and function of language in the mind; neurolinguistics, which studies language processing in the brain; and language acquisition, which investigates how children and adults acquire a particular language.
 - ❖ Linguistics also includes non-formal approaches to the study of other aspects of human language, such as social, cultural, historical and political factors. The study of cultural discourses and dialects is the domain of sociolinguistics, which looks at the relation between linguistic variation and social structures, as well as that of discourse analysis, which examines the structure of texts and conversations.^[14] Research on language through historical and evolutionary linguistics focuses on how languages change, and on the origin and growth of languages, particularly over an extended period of time.
 - ❖ Corpus linguistics takes naturally occurring texts and studies the variation of grammatical and other features based on such corpora. Stylistics involves the study of patterns of style: within written, signed, or spoken discourse. Language documentation combines anthropological inquiry with linguistic inquiry to describe languages and their grammars. Lexicography covers the study and construction of dictionaries. Computational linguistics applies computer technology to address questions in theoretical linguistics, as well as to create applications for use in parsing, data retrieval, machine translation, and other areas. People can apply actual knowledge of a language in translation and interpreting, as well as in language education – the teaching of a second or foreign language. Policy makers work with governments to implement new plans in education and teaching which are based on linguistic research.
8. Areas of study related to linguistics include semiotics (the study of signs and symbols both within language and without), literary criticism, translation, and speech-language pathology.

Sub-fields that focus on a structure-focused study of language:

- Phonetics, the study of the physical properties of speech sound production and perception
- Phonology, the study of sounds as abstract elements in the speaker's mind that distinguish meaning (phonemes)

- **Morphology**, the study of **morphemes**, or the internal structures of words and how they can be modified
- **Syntax**, the study of how words combine to form grammatical phrases and **sentences**
- **Semantics**, the study of the meaning of words (**lexical semantics**) and fixed word combinations (**phraseology**), and how these combine to form the **meanings** of sentences
- **Pragmatics**, the study of how **utterances** are used in **communicative acts**, and the role played by context and non-linguistic knowledge in the transmission of meaning
- **Discourse analysis**, the analysis of language use in **texts** (spoken, written, or signed)
- **Stylistics**, the study of linguistic factors (rhetoric, diction, stress) that place a discourse in context
- **Semiotics**, the study of signs and sign processes (semiosis), indication, designation, likeness, analogy, metaphor, symbolism, signification, and communication.
- ❖ **PHONETICS** studies speech sounds, including the production of speech, that is how speech sounds are actually made, transmitted and received, the sounds of speech, the description and classification of speech sounds, words and connected speech, etc.
- ❖ **PHONOLOGY** studies the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing of speech sounds and the shape of syllables.
- ❖ **MORPHOLOGY** is concerned with the internal organization of words. The study of the way in which words is constructed out of smaller units which have a meaning or grammatical function, for example the word friendly is constructed from friend and the adjective-forming -ly.
- ❖ **LEXICOGRAPHY**: The compiling of dictionaries. Lexicography could be seen as a branch of applied linguistics
- ❖ **SYNTAX** is about principles of forming and understanding correct English sentences. The study of how words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences.
- ❖ **SEMANTICS** examines how meaning is encoded in a language. The study of meaning; how words and sentences are related to the real or imaginary objects they refer to and the situations they describe.
- ❖ **PRAGMATICS** is the study of meaning in context. The study of the use of language in communication, particularly the relationships between sentences and the contexts and situations in which they are used such as time, place, social relationship between speaker and hearer, and speaker's assumptions about the hearer's belief.
- ❖ **SOCIOLINGUISTICS**: The study of language in relation to social factors such as social class, educational level, age, sex and ethnic origin. Such areas as the study of language choice in bilingual or multilingual communities, language planning or language attitudes can also be included.
- ❖ **DISCOURSE ANALYSIS**: The study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews etc.

- ❖ **STYLISTICS:** The study of that variation in language which is dependent on the situation in which the language is used and also on the effect the writer/speaker wishes to create on the reader/hearer. Stylistics tries to establish principles capable of explaining the particular choices made by individuals and social groups in their use of language.
- ❖ **LITERARY STYLISTICS:** The analysis of literary texts applying linguistic methods and theories (phonetics, morphology, syntax, discourse analysis, pragmatics, etc.) with the aim of providing retrievable interpretations which allow comparisons of different texts, genres (fiction, drama and poetry) etc.
- ❖ **PSYCHOLINGUISTICS:** The study of the mental processes underlying the planning, production, perception and comprehension of speech, for example how memory limitations affect speech production and comprehension. The best developed branch of psycholinguistics is the study of language acquisition.
- ❖ **APPLIED LINGUISTICS:** The application of the methods and results of linguistics to such areas as language teaching; national language policies; translation; language in politics, advertising, classrooms and courts (forensic linguistics).
- ❖ **COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS:** Computational linguists study natural languages, such as English and Japanese, rather than computer languages, such as Fortran, or Java. The field of computational linguistics has two aims: the technological aim to enable computers to be used as aids in analysing and processing natural language and the psychological aim to understand, by analogy with computers, more about how people process natural languages. It also includes research on automatic translation, electronic production of artificial speech and the automatic recognition of human speech.

PHONOLOGY

- ❖ A branch of linguistics
- ❖ Study of the sound structure of languages
- ❖ How speech sounds are used to convey meaning.
- ❖ **Phonemes** are the meaningfully different sound units in a certain language (the smallest units of sound). For example, 'pat' and 'bat' differ in their first phoneme.
- ❖ **Allophones** are the various ways in which the phonemes can be realized as actual phonetic speech sounds, and can give rise to different pronunciations of the same word.
- ❖ **Minimal pairs** are pairs of words or phrases in a particular language, which differ in only one phonological element, such as a phoneme, toneme or chroneme and have distinct meanings. They are used to demonstrate that two phones constitute two separate phonemes in the language.
- ❖ **Open syllable** a syllable that ends with a vowel.
- ❖ **Closed Syllable** a syllable that ends with a consonant.

- ❖ **Elision** or deletion is the omission of one or more sounds (such as a vowel, a consonant, or a whole syllable) in a word or phrase, producing a result that is easier for the speaker to pronounce. Sometimes, sounds may be elided for euphonic effect. Verb: elide.
- ❖ **Assimilation** the process by which a speech sound becomes similar or identical to a neighboring sound.eg. Handbag.

MORPHOLOGY

- ❖ The study of the internal structure of words
- ❖ Morpheme: minimal meaningful unit
- ❖ Free morpheme: Free morphemes can function independently as words (e.g. town, dog) and can appear with other lexemes (e.g. town hall, doghouse)
- ❖ Bound Morphemes: Bound morphemes appear only as parts of words, always in conjunction with a root and sometimes with other bound morphemes. For example, un- appears only accompanied by other morphemes to form a word. Most bound morphemes in English are affixes, particularly prefixes and suffixes, examples of suffixes are: tion, ation, ible, ing, etc. Bound morphemes that are not affixes are called cranberry morphemes.
- ❖ Bound morphemes can be further classified as derivational or inflectional.
- ❖ Derivational morphemes, when combined with a root, change either the semantic meaning or part of speech of the affected word. For example, in the word happiness, the addition of the bound morpheme -ness to the root happy changes the word from an adjective (happy) to a noun (happiness). In the word unkind, un- functions as a derivational morpheme, for it inverts the meaning of the word formed by the root kind.
- ❖ Inflectional morphemes modify a verb's tense or a noun's number without affecting the word's meaning or class. Examples of applying inflectional morphemes to words are adding -s to the root dog to form dogs and adding -ed to wait to form waited. In English, there are eight inflections.
- ❖ Allomorphs : Allomorphs are variants of a morpheme that differ in pronunciation but are semantically identical. For example, in English, the plural marker -(e)s of regular nouns can be pronounced /-z/, /-s/, or /-iz/, depending on the final sound of the noun's singular form.

IDIOLECT

- ❖ In linguistics, an idiolect is an individual's distinctive and unique use of language, including speech. This unique usage encompasses vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Idiolect is the variety of language unique to an individual.

DIALECT

- ❖ A variety of a language that signals where a person comes from. The notion is usually interpreted geographically (regional dialect), in relation to a person's social background (class dialect) or occupation (occupational dialect). The word dialect comes from the Ancient Greek *dialektos* "discourse, language, dialect," which is derived from *dialegesthai* "to discourse, talk." A dialect is chiefly distinguished from other dialects of the same language by features of linguistic structure—i.e., grammar (specifically morphology and syntax) and vocabulary.

TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

- ❖ A theory of grammar that accounts for the constructions of a language by linguistic transformations and phrase structures.
- ❖ Following the publication of Noam Chomsky's book *Syntactic Structures* in 1957, transformational grammar (also known as transformational-generative grammar) dominated the field of linguistics for the next three decades.
- ❖ "The new linguistics, which began in 1957 with the publication of Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures*, deserves the label 'revolutionary.' After 1957, the study of grammar would no longer be limited to what is said and how it is interpreted. In fact, the word grammar itself took on a new meaning. The new linguistics defined grammar as our innate, subconscious ability to generate language, an internal system of rules that constitutes our human language capacity. The goal of the new linguistics was to describe this internal grammar.
- ❖ Unlike the structuralists, whose goal was to examine the sentences we actually speak and to describe their systemic nature, the transformationalists wanted to unlock the secrets of language: to build a model of our internal rules, a model that would produce all of the grammatical--and no ungrammatical--sentences.
- ❖ When it comes to syntax, [Noam] Chomsky is famous for proposing that beneath every sentence in the mind of a speaker is an invisible, inaudible deep structure, the interface to the mental lexicon. The deep structure is converted by transformational rules into a surface structure that corresponds more closely to what is pronounced and heard. The rationale is that certain constructions, if they were listed in the mind as surface structures, would have to be multiplied out in thousands of redundant variations that would have to have been learned one by one, whereas if the constructions were listed as deep structures, they would be simple, few in number, and economically learned.
- ❖ **Transformational Grammar and the Teaching of Writing**
Though it is certainly true, as many writers have pointed out, that sentence-combining exercises existed before the advent of transformational grammar, it should be evident that the transformational concept of embedding gave sentence combining a theoretical foundation upon which to build. By the time Chomsky and his followers moved away from this concept, sentence combining had enough momentum to sustain itself.

❖ The Transformation of Transformational Grammar

Chomsky initially justified replacing phrase-structure grammar by arguing that it was awkward, complex, and incapable of providing adequate accounts of language. Transformational grammar offered a simple and elegant way to understand language, and it offered new insights into the underlying psychological mechanisms.

The tinkering failed to solve most of the problems because Chomsky refused to abandon the idea of deep structure, which is at the heart of T-G grammar but which also underlies nearly all of its problems. Such complaints have fueled the paradigm shift to cognitive grammar.

One of the greatest figures in modern linguistics, Noam Chomsky, has called these two modes of language Externalised Language (E-language) and Internalised Language (I-language), respectively.

Linguistics, or its product, a grammar, has branches corresponding to the central components of language. Phonology is the study of the phonemes and their combinations in words and morphemes, and also of the discrete suprasegmental elements in words and sentences. Morphology is the study of word derivation and word inflection in terms of constituent morphemes. Syntax is the study of sentence formation. Semantics is the study of the meaning of words and sentences. Lexicology is the study of the lexicon, i.e. the phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic properties of vocabulary items. All these are summed up in.

(1) The central branches of linguistics/grammar

phonology	morphology	syntax	semantics
lexicology			

Moreover, all these can be studied from a synchronic point of view (how they constitute a particular state of language at a particular point of time), or from a diachronic (historical) point of view (how they change through time).

The first great figure of modern linguistics in Europe, Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss scholar, was a comparative philologist himself (a professor of Sanskrit at the University of Geneva), but his ideas about language and language study went far beyond the limitations of Comparative Philology.

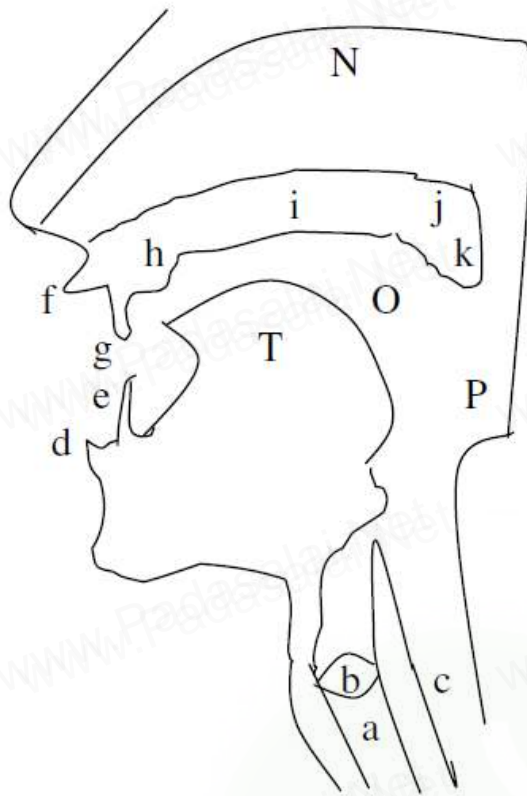
He was the first to emphasise the difference between (a) language as an abstract system, residing in the collective consciousness of the community (which he called *la langue*) and (b) language as the realisation of that system (which he called *la parole*).

Leonard Bloomfield, and his followers, the Bloomfieldians, thought that a linguist should collect observable data, i.e. real utterances, and analyse these data, i.e. segment and classify the physical features of the utterances collected. A body of such data (a set of observed and collected utterances) is a corpus. Using a corpus for linguistic investigation is called the “corpus-based” or inductive procedure. In Chomsky’s terminology this means that American structuralism was preoccupied with discovering and describing the E-language aspect of natural languages. The Bloomfieldians dealt with phonetics, phonology, morphology, and syntax, but rejected semantics, thinking that the study of meaning would only be possible when human knowledge had become far more advanced.

The founder and most influential representative to this day of generative linguistics has been the American linguist Noam Chomsky, whose works have found a great many followers all over the world. Since its appearance the theory has been modified and remodified several times and several new proposals have been made and are still being made by Chomsky himself and by others.

According to Chomsky, a generative grammar is a model for the native speaker’s intuitive knowledge of the language (i.e. his internal grammar), a decisive part of which is Universal Grammar and is genetically inherited. Chomsky calls the native speaker’s language-knowledge competence (or – to use his more recent term – I-language). But the knowledge of language, competence, has to be distinguished from the actual use of that knowledge in real-life situations, i.e. from performance. Performance is the actual use of competence and it involves individual and situational features, imperfections, errors, memory limitations, time limitations on the length of sentences, life-span limitations on the number of sentences actually produced by the individual, etc. Chomsky’s distinction between competence and performance reminds us of Saussure’s distinction between langue and parole. But while Chomsky uses the term performance in very much the same sense as Saussure used the term parole, there is considerable difference between competence and langue. Saussure’s langue was static: it was the system of linguistic signs. Chomsky’s competence is dynamic: it puts the generation of sentences in the centre of attention. Another difference is that Saussure thought of langue as being in the collective consciousness of a community. Chomsky thinks of competence as knowledge whose basis is given to every normal human being by birth, in the sense that its structure is related to the structure of the human mind and so the basis of competence is a universal characteristic of the human species.

(1)



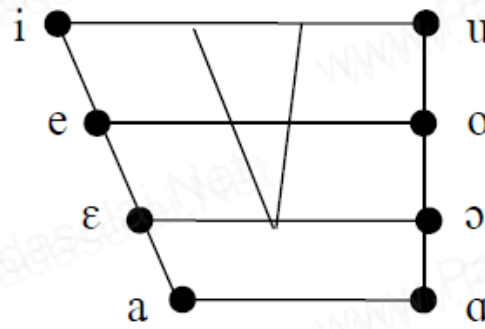
- a. wind-pipe = trachea
 b. larynx, with the glottis
 c. food-pipe = oesophagus
 d. lower lip
 e. lower teeth
 f. upper lip
 g. upper teeth
 h. alveolar ridge
 i. palate = hard palate
 j. velum = soft palate
 k. uvula
 P. pharynx
 O. oral cavity
 N. nasal cavity
 T. tongue

¹ This was devised in 1888 by the International Phonetic Association and has been widely used ever since.

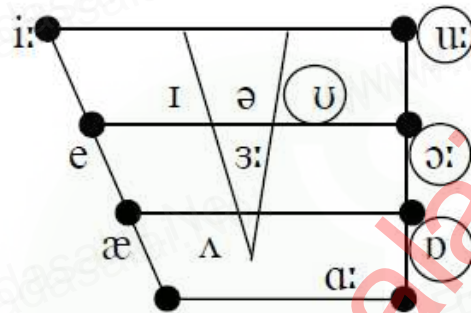
(2) English Consonants

		Bi-labials	Labio-dentals	Dentals	Alveolars	Palatoalveolars	Palatals	Velars	Glottals
Obstruents	Plosives	p b			t d			k g	ʔ
	Fricatives		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
	Affricates					tʃ dʒ			
Sonorants	Nasals	m			n			ŋ	
	Liquids				l r				
	Glides	w					j		

(3) Cardinal Vowel Chart



(4) English Simple Vowels



- i: long high front unrounded monophthong
- ɪ short high front unrounded monophthong
- e short mid front unrounded monophthong
- æ short low front unrounded monophthong
- ʌ short low central unrounded monophthong
- ɑ: long low back unrounded monophthong
- ɒ short low back rounded monophthong
- ɔ: long mid back rounded monophthong
- ʊ short high back rounded monophthong
- u: long high back rounded monophthong
- ɜ: long mid central unrounded monophthong
- ə short mid central unrounded monophthong

eɪ	diphthong moving from mid front unrounded to high front unrounded
aɪ	diphthong low central unrounded to high front unrounded
ɔɪ	diphthong low back rounded to high front unrounded
əʊ	diphthong mid central unrounded to high back rounded
aʊ	diphthong low central unrounded to high back rounded
ɪə	diphthong high front unrounded to mid central unrounded
eə	diphthong mid front unrounded to mid central unrounded
ʊə	diphthong high back unrounded to mid central unrounded

User-related variation: dialect, sociolect, pidgin, creole, child language, gender differences:

The most obvious user-related language varieties involve the user's geographical and social position.

- That variety of a language which is used in a certain geographical area is called regional dialect or just dialect, for short. Dialects may differ in vocabulary, pronunciation and even morphology and syntax. The boundaries between dialects are not as clearcut as political boundaries or topographical features. They can be established by collecting linguistic features characteristic of the area. The line marking the limit of the distribution of a linguistic feature on a map is called an **isogloss**. For instance, in a particular area within the state of Pennsylvania (USA), the local word for 'drought' is drooth. The line drawn around this area on the map is an isogloss. Other language features observed in this area may have slightly different geographical distributions, so the isoglosses based on these other features will not necessarily perfectly coincide with the isogloss for drooth but there will be considerable overlap between them. A dialect is a more or less congruent bundle of isoglosses.

- It often happens that one of the regional varieties gains socialpolitical priority over the others and becomes the standard variety (or prestige variety), which is used for education, scholarship and state administration all over the country. The standard variety is no longer restricted to the geographical area where it was originally used but is associated with people who are educated, who are at the top of the socio-cultural scale, no matter where they live. The standard is no longer a regional dialect, it is rather a social dialect, or sociolect. A sociolect is a variety of language used by people in the same sociocultural position.

A third type of user-related language variation is pidgin. A pidgin is usually the simplified version of a European language, containing features of one or more local languages, used for occasional communication between people with no common language, in West Africa or in the Far East. For example, Melanesian Pidgin English (called Tok Pisin) is used in Australian New Guinea and the nearby islands. While a pidgin is not a native language, it can become the native language of a community (e.g. through intermarriage between people who have been brought together on a plantation from different linguistic backgrounds, and

who have the pidgin as the only common language they can use for communication with one another). When a pidgin becomes the native language of a community, it is called a creole. For instance, in Jamaica, in addition to Standard English, there exist several kinds of Creole English.

The total of all the varieties of a language that a person knows is the person's idiolect. An idiolect, then, is the amount of a language that an individual possesses. The ability to change from one variant to another is code switching. For instance, a doctor switches codes when he speaks of a bone as tibia to his colleagues in the hospital and as shinbone to his family at home.

It can happen that two distinct varieties of a language co-occur in a speech community, one with a high social prestige (such as e.g. Standard English, learnt at school, used in church, on radio programmes, in serious literature, and generally on formal occasions), and one with a low social prestige (e.g. a local dialect, used in family conversations and other informal situations). The sociolinguistic term for this situation is diglossia, and an individual having diglossia is a diglossic. (These terms are not to be confused with bilingualism and bilingual, which mean 'knowledge of two languages' and 'person knowing two languages', respectively.)

