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10. Intra-disciplinary Branches of Linguistics

@ Language is a complex phenomenon and most important activity of **human life**.

@ Linguistics deals with complex **nature, origin, evolution, history and** all other elements of it. So, it has become wide subject of **serious** contemplation.

@ The **rapid development** of linguistics has given birth to many branches.

@ An **ordinary** student of linguistics finds himself/herself into the troubled water as to how to deal with so many branches and ups and downs of the subject.

@ **Theoretical linguistics**: deals with concrete theories presented by scholars of language about various aspects concerning to linguistics.

@ **Applied linguist**: highlights the various processes of evolution and gradual development of linguistics, which have been taken from year to year.

@ **Historical linguistics**: is concerned with constructing theories of language or languages, or with developing linguistic theory.

@ **Descriptive Linguistics**: deals with description and elaboration of the theories presented by language scholars.

@ **Applied Linguistics**: Applied linguistics deals with application of some fundamental issues relating language. In this branch of linguistics, linguists after pain taking research apply some set **formulas** and these formulas pave the way for new researches, inquiries and discoveries in the subject.

@ **General linguistics** is the branch of linguistics that is devoted to the study of the **theoretical bases for** describing language and methods of investigating linguistic phenomena.

@ General linguistics also studies the connection between linguistics, and other fields of learning, including dialectical materialism, logic, and psychology.

@ In addition, it studies the connection between linguistics and **historical materialism, inasmuch as** the development of language is conditioned by the structure of **society and social processes**.

@ General linguistics also studies the relationship between linguistics and semiotics, as well as the connection among **linguistics, physiology, and acoustics**.

@ **Descriptive Linguistics** is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given set of speakers at a given time.

@ This time may be the **present or the past at a** given time.

@ The language is described what may **precede** it or follow it.

@ Descriptive linguistics emphasizes in modern linguistics as it is the **fundamental aspect** of the study of language.

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@ It is contrasted with **prescriptive linguistics** of earlier times because it deals with the description of how language actually works rather than how it should be used. In descriptive linguistics we describe the language systematically at all levels. We analyze and describe the structure of the language.

@ **Modern linguistics** is based on a structural approach to language, as exemplified in the work of Bloomfield and others.

@ The terms **synchronic and diachronic** given by Saussure are used to distinguish between the descriptions of a language at a given time.

@ 'A **synchronic description** is non-historic; a **diachronic description** traces the historical development of a language' (Lyons 1981).

@ If we study the changes that have taken place in English from Old English to Middle English, it is a **diachronic or historical study**. If we study the structure of English as it exists today and describe it without reference to how it was used in the **past, it is synchronic study**.

@ **Descriptivism is the belief that** description is more significant or important to teach, study, and practice than prescription.

@ **Comparative linguistics** is the study of similarities and differences between languages, in particular the comparison of related languages with a view to reconstructing forms in their lost parent languages.

@ **Comparative linguistics** (originally comparative philology) is a branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness.

@ **Genetic relatedness implies** a common origin or proto-language and comparative linguistics aims to construct language families, to reconstruct **proto-languages**, and specify the changes that have resulted

@ **Proto-Indo-European is** one out of many language families.

@ The **proto-languages** were reconstructed by the comparative method which is hypothetical.

@ A **reconstruction** may have predictive power.

@ **Saussure's proposal** was that the **Indo-European** consonant system contained laryngeals, a type of consonant attested in no Indo-European language known at the time.

@ We can find certain **Cognate** in sister languages of **Proto-Indo-European group**.

@ Common ancestor in the Italic branch of Indo-European: **Spanish: madre, padre, amigo Italian: madre, padre, amico Common ancestor in English and German English: mother, father and friend German: mutter, vater and freund**

@ **Comparative** linguistics like historical linguistics studies law operating in language change and in the formation and development of languages; hence this type of study is related to descriptive linguistics.

@ **Historical linguistics, also** called diachronic linguistics, is the scientific study of language change over time. Principal concerns of historical linguistics include to: describe and account for observed changes in particular languages reconstruct the pre-history of languages and to determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families develop general theories about how and why language changes

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describe the history of speech communities study the history of words i.e., etymology describe and account for observed changes in particular languages develop general theories about how and why language changes

11. Inter-disciplinary Branches of Linguistics

Sociolinguistics is generally used for the study of the relationship between language and society.

This is a broad area of investigation that developed through the interaction of linguistics with a number of other **academic** disciplines.

It has strong connections with **anthropology** through the study of language and culture, and with sociology through the investigation of the role 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** behaviours are identified.

We use all these connections when we try to analyze language from a **social perspective**.

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental aspects of language and speech.

It is primarily concerned with the ways in which language is represented and processed in the **brain**.

A branch of **linguistics and psychology**, psycholinguistics is part of the field of cognitive science.

American psychologist Jacob Robert Kantor in his book *An Objective Psychology of Grammar* (1936) introduced the term psycholinguistics.

'Psycholinguistics is the study of the **mental mechanisms** that make it possible for people to use language. It is a scientific discipline whose goal is a **coherent** theory of the way in which language is produced and understood.'

However, there are **two** key questions to answer.

The first theory states that all language must be learned by the **child**

The **second** view states that the abstract system of language cannot be learned, but that humans possess an innate language faculty, or an access to what has been called **universal grammar**.

The view that language must be learned was especially popular before **1960** and is well represented by the mentalistic theories of **Jean Piaget and the empiricist Rudolf Carnap**.

behaviourism (B.F. Skinner, 1957) puts forth the point of view that language is a behaviour shaped by conditioned response, hence it is learned.

Definition of **linguistic geography**: Local or regional variations of a language or dialect studied as a field of knowledge — also called dialect geography.

Language geography is the branch of human geography that studies the geographic distribution of language(s) or its constituent elements.

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There are **two** principal fields of study within the geography of language: 'geography of languages', which deals with the distribution through history and space of languages, and is concerned with the analysis of the distribution patterns and spatial structures of languages in contact.

Geolinguistics being the study of the political, economic and cultural processes that affect the status and distribution of languages or in other words, the study of languages and dialects in contact and in conflict with various **societal, economic, ideological, political, and o**ther contemporary trends with regard to a particular **geographic** location and on a planetary scale.

12. Linguistics vs Traditional Grammar

@ The terms '**article**', '**adjective**', and '**noun**' that we use to label the grammatical categories of the words in the phrase the lucky boys come from traditional grammar, which has its origins in the description of languages such as **Latin and greek**.

@ Since there were **well-established grammatical** descriptions of these languages, it seemed appropriate to adopt the existing categories from these descriptions and apply them in the analysis of '**newer**' languages such as English.

@ After all, **Latin and Greek** were the languages of **scholarship, religion, philosophy** and 'knowledge', so the grammar of these languages was taken to be the model for other grammars.

@ **Objectivity** No primitive, pure, beautiful, cultural, and sophisticated languages

@ **Empiricism** Not speculative or intuitive, observation, experiments, analyze the data and make generalization

@ **Rationalism** Role that mind plays in the acquisition of knowledge

@ **Exhaustiveness** Deals with all relevant data

@ **Consistency** Allows no contradictory statements

@ **Economy** Repetition is not allowed, economic statements, fewer concepts or symbols

@ **Linguistics is non-speculative.**

@ So, the main difference between scientific and **non-scientific study** of language is that linguistics is empirical rather than **speculative or intuitive.**

@ It operates with publically verifiable data obtained by means of **observation** and experiment.

@ **Speculative mood is an epistemic** grammatical mood found in some languages, which indicates that the utterance is based on speculation of the speaker, and not necessarily known to be the case.

@ For example, '**The butler could have been the killer.**'

13. Phonetics & its Branches

@ 1) **Articulatory phonetics** describes in detail how the speech organs, also called vocal organs or articulators, in the vocal tract are used in order to produce, or articulate, speech sounds.

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2) **Acoustic phonetics** studies the physical properties of speech sounds i.e., the way in which the air vibrates as sounds pass from speaker to listener.

A **spectrograph** is a machine that measures the sound waves and depicts them as images, called spectrograms or sonograms, showing the duration, frequency, intensity, and quality of the sounds.

3) **Auditory phonetics** investigates the perception of speech sounds by the listener i.e., how the sounds are transmitted from the ear to the brain, and how they are processed.

Phonetics is the scientific study of language. It does not study an individual language; rather it studies language in general.

It is concerned with the nature of **language and communication**.

Research for general properties common to all human language or group of languages is the main concern of linguistics.

Like human body, language is **very complex**.

Language system functions because of **words, structures, sounds**, etc.

Airstream: a stream of air coming from the lungs produces speech. The lungs act as a bellows, pushing air through the throat, nose, and mouth.

Ingressive Sounds: Speech sounds produced while inhaling are called ingressive sounds. English does not have any such sound but a few languages have.

Egressive Sounds: Sounds produced by expelling air are called egressive sounds. All languages produce sounds by expelling.

Organs of Speech or Articulators: The air is modified by the structures of the respiratory and digestive systems before it is released. These structures are **referred** to as the organs of speech or articulators.

In studying articulation, phoneticians explain how humans produce speech sounds via the interaction of **different physiological** structures.

Generally, **articulatory phonetics is concerned with the transformation of aerodynamic energy into acoustic energy**.

Amplitude refers to the magnitude of vibrations, with larger vibrations resulting in greater peaks of pressure (**greater amplitude**), which usually result in an increase in perceived loudness.

Unlike pure tones, which rarely occur in the environment, speech sounds are complex waves with combinations of different **frequencies and amplitudes**.

14. Phonology & its Branches

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized in individual languages.

On the other hand, phonetics is the study of the actual process of **sound making**.

Both are important areas of the study of linguistics. Phonetics and phonology are two subfields of **linguistics** dealing with speech sounds.

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Phonetics has been derived from the Greek word phone meaning sound/voice.

It is one of the important branches of linguistics, which deals with the study of **speech sounds**.

It covers the domain of speech production and its **transmission**.

It also covers the **reception** aspect of speech. The sounds made by us when we talk are studied through different branches of phonetics like **acoustic phonetics, auditory phonetics, and articulatory phonetics**.

On the other hand, phonology focuses on the organization of sounds by studying **speech patterns**.

The key words for describing phonology are distribution and **patterning** related to speech. It is aimed to determine the sound patterns of all the languages.

Phonologists may look into questions like

Phonetics can be considered a branch of linguistics as it deals with the study of the sounds of human speech. It also considers the function production and auditory qualities of human speeches.

Phonology is another branch of linguistics, which focuses on the organization of sounds by studying speech patterns. The key words for describing phonology are distribution and patterning related to speech.

Described as physics of sound Psychology of sound Focuses on theories of speech production and perception Rules or constraints to find out about the combinations of sounds of a language.

Acoustic phonetics is related to the study of physical attributes of sound produced by the vocal tract.

Auditory phonetics deals with understanding that how the ear perceives sound and how the brain recognizes different speech units.

Articulatory phonetics deals with studying the making of single sounds by the vocal tract. Branches

Segmental Phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds derived from phonetics.

Supra-segmental phonology deals with attributes (like rhythm, stress, etc.) of pronunciation which cannot be segmented.

15. Syllable

A **syllable** can be defined both phonetically and phonologically.

Phonetically it consists of a centre with no obstruction of air before and after there is greater obstruction to airflow, for example, **cat /kæt/**. Phonologically, it looks at the possible phoneme combination called phonotactics.

How a word begins: **Air Nice Smoke Spray**

Syllables are often considered the phonological 'building blocks' of words.

They can influence the **rhythm of a language, its** prosody, its poetic metre, and its stress patterns.

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@ **Zero Onset**: If the first syllable of a word begins with a vowel, it can be any vowel **except /ʊ/** which is rare. Initial consonant of a word may be any **except /h/**.

@ Every word is made from **syllables**.

@ An open syllable has **only one vowel**.

@ The vowel has a long sound and is the **last letter of** the syllable.

@ Open syllables have only **one consonant** between the open syllable and the next vowel **such as ba. by.**

@ A **closed** syllable has only one vowel.

@ The vowel has a **short sound** (like the 'i' in mill). If the word is only **2 letters**, it must end with a consonant, for example: in, on, of, at, and it. If the word is 3+ letters, a closed syllable has 1 consonant before and **1+ consonants after** the vowel.

@ For examples: **cat, catch, net, nest, web, man, roll, and bark. If a word has 2 closed syllables next to each other, there will be two consonants between the vowels, for example: win-ter, sum-mer, com-mon, and tem-per.**

@ An **r-controlled** syllable is a vowel, diphthong, or triphthong with an 'r' or a 're' after it. For example: deer, whisper, worth, care, and fire. er, ur, and ir vowels sound like the er in per, fur, her, birth, shirt, and hurt.

@ Some **ar vowels that** sound like the ar in 'far', for example, par, far, car, and star.

@ Other ar vowels sound like the ar in 'share', pair, hare, hair, and stare or vowels sound like the 'or' in for or, floor, and door.

@ A **vowel team syllable** is a group of 2-4 letters, usually vowels, which make a 1 **vowel sound**.

@ If a vowel team is made of **2 vowels**, usually only the **first** vowel is pronounced, for example: rain, fail, suit, and clean.

16. Stress

@ The **stress** tells the listener which words are important. Most unstressed words are ignored or **discarded**.

@ If English is spoken without rhythm, the native speaker is forced to listen to every word, which is **boring, difficult, and tiring**.

@ Thus, **rhythm** is essential for good spoken English. For rhythm, they use **stress**.

@ There are **two** types of syllables: Stressed vs. unstressed syllables

@ **Primary stress**: The syllable that is louder than the unstressed syllable has primary stress.

@ It is marked in **IPA by putting** a raised vertical line ['] at the beginning of the syllable.

@ In the word 'about' /ə'baʊt/ **second syllable** is stressed. The second syllable is prominent and said with great force, so, this is primary stress.

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@**Secondary stress**: The syllables having secondary stress are not completely unstressed, but are not as loud as the primary stress.

#Secondary stress is marked with a lowered vertical **line [] at the b**eginning of the syllable.

#In **'photographic' / fəʊ.tə'græf.ɪk/** we find **primary stress is on third syllable whereas secondary stress is on first syllable.**

#Besides, stress occurs on three types of **situations or syntactic** categories in English:

1. **Syllable stress**: In syllable stress, one syllable in a word is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent syllables.

2. **Word stress**: In word stress, one word is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent words in a sentence.

3. **Phrase, clause or sentence stress**:

#sentence in a **long paragraph.**

In a **stress-timed language**, syllables may last different amounts of time, but there is perceived to be a fairly constant amount of time (on average) between **consecutivestressed** syllables.

#Consequently, **unstressed** syllables between stressed syllables tend to be compressed to fit into the time interval. If two stressed syllables are separated by a single unstressed syllable, as in 'COME for TEA', the unstressed syllable will be relatively long, while if a larger number of unstressed syllables intervene, as in **'COME and have some TEA',** the unstressed syllables will be shorter.

Stress timing is sometimes called **Morse-code rhythm**, but any resemblance between the two is only superficial.

English, Thai, German, Russian, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Faroese, Dutch, Portuguese, and Persian are typical stress-timed languages.

#Some **stress-timed** languages, for example Arabic, retain unreduced vowels.

While giving stress it is important to see whether the word is **morphologically** simple or complex (one or more affixes) or a compound.

Besides, what **grammatical** category it belongs to, how many syllables the word has and what the **phonological** structure of the **syllables** is.

All these things matter while giving stress to a syllable in a word.

#Syllables can be divided into **strong and weak.**

#Strong syllable has a rhyme composed of: long vowel/diphthong or a vowel + coda (1 or more consonants) - /'dai/ /'hɑ:t/ /'bæt/

Weak syllable has a syllable peak which is a short vowel and Ø coda unless the peak is /ə/ or /ɪ/, e.g., /rɪ'dju:s/ /'əʊ pən/

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#We also find unstressed strong syllables e.g., in dialect both syllables are strong but the first one is stressed. Only strong syllables can be stressed.

Weak **syllables** are always unstressed.

Stress is on either the **1st or the 2nd syllable**.

In verbs, if the **2nd syllable** is strong, it is stressed.

#Apply / ə'plaɪ/ Arrive /ə'raɪv/ If the 2nd syllable is weak, the 1st syllable is stressed. Enter /'en.tə/ Envy /'en.vi/ The 1st syllable is also stressed in case the 2nd syllable contains /əv/. Follow /'fɒl.əv/ Borrow /'bɒr.əv/

Simple adjectives are stressed according to the same rule that if one syllable is weak, the other syllable is stressed. even /'i:v(ə)n/ correct /kə'rekt/

17. Morphology I

A **morpheme** is the **smallest** grammatical unit in a language. In other words, it is the smallest **meaningful** unit of a language.

#A **morpheme is not identical** to a word, and the principal difference between the **two** is that a morpheme may or may not stand alone, whereas a word, by definition, is freestanding.

When a **morpheme** stands by itself, it is considered a root because it has a meaning of its own (e.g., the **morpheme dog**) and when it depends on another morpheme to express an idea, it is an **affix** because it has a grammatical function (e.g., the -s in dogs to indicate that it is plural).

Every word comprises one or more **morphemes**. Talks, talker, talked, talking

#The **root** is talk where -s, -er, -ed and -ing are **affixes**.

#**Word forms** may consist of a number of elements. All these elements are described as morphemes.

#Therefore, a morpheme is 'a **minimal** unit of meaning or grammatical function.

Units of **grammatical function** include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, etc.

In the sentence 'the police reopened the investigation' contains three morphemes that **is, re-, open** and -ed.

A morpheme meets **three criteria**: it is a word or part of word that has a meaning.

#It recurs in differing **verbal** environments with a relatively stable meaning.

Unlikely un +like + ly Unkindly un +kind + ly The following words are single morphemes as if divided would lose the meaning they have as in the present words. Carpet Garbage

#The morpheme that can stand alone as a single word by itself is called **free morpheme**.

#The free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic **nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.**

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When they are used with **bound morphemes, the basic word** forms are technically known as stems.

Free Morphemes: Reopened: open Tourists: tour

#The following are bound **morphemes: re- -ed -ist -s**

The **description** is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English. receive, reduce and repeat, -ceive, -duce and -peat

#These are '**bound stems**' as they cannot stand alone as words.

#A **free morpheme** can occur in isolation and cannot be divided into **smaller meaning** units.

#'House' or 'dog' are '**free stems**' such as dress and care. The stem that cannot be **further split up is** also called root.

#**Segments or forms** that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form are called Bound Morphemes.

#**Bound morphemes** are also called **affixes** (prefixes and suffixes) in English. Reopened: re- -ed Environmentalist: -ist Schools: -s

#A **functional morpheme** simply modifies the meaning of the word, rather than supplying the root meaning of the word.

#It encodes **grammatical** meaning e.g., the girls entered the classroom.

In this sentence, 'the' is functional morpheme, which is specifying girl and classroom.

#**Functional morphemes belong to the 'closed' class of words. Normally, new functional morphemes cannot be coined.**

18. Morphology II

#The set of **affixes** that make up the category of bound morphemes can also be divided into two types.

Derivational Morpheme

Inflectional Morpheme Derivational morphemes change the **grammatical** categories of words.

#**Derivational morphemes can be added to free morphemes or to other derivational morphemes.**

#**Content** words add meaning but they are not words.

In English, all prefixes are **derivational**.

This contrasts with English suffixes, which may be either **derivational or inflectional**.

#The set of derivational affixes is **open-ended**; that is, there are a potentially infinite number of them.

#An **inflectional** morpheme is a suffix that is added to a word to assign a **particular grammatical** property to that word.

For example, **Play +ing = playing**

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They serve as **grammatical markers** that indicate tense, number, possession, or comparison.

Inflectional morphemes do not change the essential meaning or the grammatical category of a word.

Noun plural (-s) -s -es Book+s/ glass+es Books /glasses Possessive noun -'s Captain+'s Captain's Verb present tense -s start+s Starts Verb past tense -ed play+ed Played Verb present participle -ing Playing Playing

Verb past participle -en Eat+en Eaten Adjective comparative -er larg+er Larger Adjective superlative -est large+st Largest.

Only **lexical** words take inflectional affixes.

The **inflectional affixes** are few; there number is only eight in English.

Closed classes of words take no inflectional affixes in English. Inflectional affixes always follow derivational affixes.

An **inflectional morpheme** does not have the capacity to change the meaning or the syntactic class of the words it is bound to and will have a **predictable** meaning for all such words.

Inflectional morphemes never change the grammatical category e.g., Tall (adj.) Taller (adj.) Inflectional suffixes follow derivational suffixes. Workers Work -er (derivational suffix) -s (inflectional suffix)

Derivational morphemes often change the part of speech. read (verb) becomes reader (noun)

Derivational morphemes show the 'inner' layer of words. **Inflectional suffixes** mark the 'outer' layer of words.

Derivational morphemes are of a large number while inflectional are a few in number.

The difference between **derivational and inflectional morphemes is as follows.**

Old and **older are adjectives.-er inflection (from Old English -ra)** simply creates a different version of the adjective.

The **verb teach** becomes the noun teacher if we add the derivational morpheme -er (from Old English -ere).

The suffix -er in Modern English is as an **inflectional morpheme** as part of an adjective, as a distinct derivational morpheme as part of a noun.

Here is the **morphological description** of the sentence 'The child's simplicity impressed the teacher'.

Apparent description of morphological analysis is simple as it can be seen in the following example:
Cat + -s = cats

The relationship between law and legal is also of the **same problem.**

At best we can say that law (Old English (lagu) from a **Scandinavian** source) and legal **(Latin form legalis** ('of the law') have come into English from different languages and different periods.

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#We do not find any **derivational relationship** between the following: **noun adjective law legal mouth oral**

@As phone is actual realization of the phonemes, morphs are actual forms to realize morphemes. Cats cat+s(plural) Buses bus +es(plural) At least, there are two different morphs (-s,-es) /s/ and /ɪz/ to realize the inflectional morpheme 'plural'.

@ A group of different morphs, version of one morpheme, is called '**allomorphs**'.

19. Morphology III (Processes of word formation)

@**Coinage** is the word formation process in which a new word is created either deliberately or accidentally without using the other word formation processes, and often from seemingly nothing.

@ As **neologism or coinage**, we identify the word formation process of inventing entirely new words.

@This is **constant evolution** of new words and new uses.

@It is a sign of **vitality** and creativeness in the way a language is shaped by the needs of its users.

@These words are invented as trade names for **commercial products**, and soon they become general terms.

@Older examples are **aspirin, nylon, vaseline and zipper**; recent examples are **granola, kleenex, teflon, and Xerox**.

@They have become everyday words in the language; for example, the word Google from the word **Googleplex, which later became the name of a company (Google)**.

@ Similarly, for searching something online the word '**ebay**' is used.

@ New words are also made based on the name of a person or a place.

@**Hoover (after the person who marketed it) Spangle (after the person who invented it) Sandwich (after an Earl who would have two pieces of bread with meat while gambling) Jeans (after a city of Italy Genoa)**

@ **Some eponyms are technical terms, based on the names of those who first discovered or invented things such as:**

@ **Fahrenheit (from the German, Gabriel Fahrenheit) Volt (from the Italian, Alessandro Volta) Watt (from the Scottish inventor, James Watt)**

@ In linguistics, **borrowing** (also known as **lexical borrowing**) is the process by which a word from one language is adapted for use in another.

@ The word that is **borrowed** is called a borrowing, a borrowed word, or a **loanword**.

@A **borrowed word is never given back as the word indicates.**

@ It is the most common source of new words in **English**.

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@ Some common borrowed words and the languages that have been borrowed are mentioned below.

Croissant (French) Dope (Dutch) Lilac (Persian) Piano (Italian)

@ **Pretzel (German), Sofa (Arabic), Tattoo (Tahitian) Tycoon (Japanese) Yogurt (Turkish) Zebra (Bantu)**

@Joining of **two** separate words to produce a single form is a very common word formation process in languages.

@Examples of compounding using all nouns: **bookcase, doorknob, fingerprint, sunburn, textbook, wallpaper, wastebasket and waterbed** Using adjectives: **good-looking, low-paid**

@ **Compounds** of adjective: Fast **plus noun food=fast-food restaurant, a full-time job. It is a very common process in other languages too.**

@ **The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term: Smoke +fog = smog Smoke + haze= smaze Smoke + murk=smurk Bit() Brunch (breakfast + lunch) Motel (hotel + motor) Telecast () Infotainment (information + entertainment) Simulcast ()**

@The element of **reduction** that is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as **clipping**

@A particular type of **reduction**, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as **hypocorisms**.

@ In this process a longer word is reduced to a **single syllable**, then -y or -ie is added to the end.

@ **Movie ('moving pictures'), telly ('television'), Aussie ('Australian'), barbie ('barbecue'), brekky ('breakfast'), hankie ('handkerchief')**

@An **acronym** is a word or name formed as an abbreviation from the initial components in a phrase or a word, usually individual letters, and sometimes syllables **(as in Benelux).**

@ There **are no universal standards of the multiple names for such abbreviations and of their orthographic styling.**

@ **Words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.**

@ **CD ('compact disk'), VCR ('video cassette recorder') The initials are pronounced as new single words. NATO, NASA, UNESCO**

@ There are many every day terms such as: **laser ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), radar ('radio detecting and ranging'), scuba ('self-contained underwater breathing apparatus')** are examples of this process.

@ Names for organizations are often designed to have their **acronym** represent an appropriate term.

@ **ATM ('automatic teller machine'), PIN ('personal identification number') I sometimes forget my PIN number when I go to the ATM machine.**

@ A **derivational affix is an affix** by means of which one word is formed (derived) from another.

@ The **derived word** is often of a different word class from the original.

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@ In **contrast to an inflectional affix, a derivational affix: is not part of an obligatory set of affixes generally occurs closer to the root generally is more meaningful, and is more likely to result in a form that has a somewhat idiosyncratic meaning.**

@ Prefixes are the kind of affixes which are added to the beginning of the word: un-, mis- . Affixes added to the end of the word -less, -ish are suffixes.

@All **English words formed by this derivational** process have either prefixes or suffixes, or both.
Mislead Disrespectful Foolishness

@ A third type of affix not normally used in English is found in some other languages of the world. Infix

@However, there **are few example of infixes in English such as: Absogoddamlutely!, Fandamntastic.**

20. Grammar I

@ **Traditional grammatical** analysis has also given us a number of other categories, including 'number,' 'person,' 'tense,' 'voice' and 'gender.'

@**Agreement** is partially based on the category of number.

@The subject is **singular** so the verb is also singular. It is also based on the category of **'person'**.

@Similarly, in this sentence the **verb** is singular because their person takes a singular verb.

@The different forms of English **pronouns** can be described in terms of person and number. e.g., I , we, he, she, etc.

@**Gender** describes the agreement between Cathy and her.

@ A **distinction in English is made between reference to female entities, male entities, and things or creatures.**

@ The type of **biological** distinction used in English is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that use **grammatical gender.**

@**Natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminine), and is not tied to sex.**

@**Nouns are classified according to their gender class, and typically, articles and adjectives have different forms to 'agree with' the gender of the noun in many languages.**

@**Spanish**, for example, has two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine, illustrated by the expressions el sol 'the sun' and la luna 'the moon'.

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

@The different forms of the articles in both the Spanish (el or la) and German (der, die or das) examples correspond to differences in the **gender** class of the nouns.

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@ A young girl is **biologically** 'female' but the German noun das Mädchen used to talk about her is grammatically **neuter**.

@ The French noun in le livre ('the book') is grammatically masculine, but neither we nor the French people consider a book to be **biologically** male.

@ The grammatical category of **gender** is very usefully applied in describing a number of languages (including **Latin**), but may not be appropriate for describing forms in other languages such as English.

@ The notion of '**appropriateness**' of analytic categories for a particular language has not always been a consideration.

@ Each of the Latin verb forms is different, according to the categories of **person and number**.

@ The English verb forms are (**with one exception**) mostly the same.

@ In English, it makes more sense to say the categories describe different **pronouns**.

21. Grammar II

@ Using a **well-established** grammatical description of Latin is a useful guide for some European languages (e.g., **Italian or Spanish**), but is less useful for others (e.g., **English**).

@ This last point became clear to those linguists who were trying to describe the structure of the native languages of North America toward the end of the **nineteenth century**.

@ The categories and rules that were appropriate for **Latin grammar** just did not seem to fit these languages.

@ In **twentieth century**, a rather different approach was adopted. The linguists took the samples of the language they were interested in and attempted to describe the regular structures of the language. This is called the **descriptive approach**.

@ A **descriptive grammarian** would say that a sentence is '**grammatical**' if a native speaker of the language would produce that sentence in speaking.

@ So, all prescriptive or normative rules of **Latin grammar** were considered to be applicable to English.

@ One type of **descriptive approach** is called structural analysis and its main concern is to investigate the distribution of forms in a language.

@ The method involves the use of 'test-frames' that can be sentences with empty slots in them.

@ All the forms that fit in the same **test-frame** are the examples of the same **grammatical** category.

@ We can see that the **pronouns** fit in this second set of **test-frames**, and not in the first set (*The it makes a lot of noise).

@ In the older analysis, under the **influence** of Latin, pronouns were described as 'words used in place of nouns'

@ By developing a set of **test-frames of this type** and discovering which forms fit the slots in the test-frames, we can produce a **description** of aspects of the sentence structures of a language.

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@ **Constituent** analysis is an approach to describe language. It is designed to show how small constituents (or **components**) in sentences go together to form larger **constituents**.

@ One basic step is determining how words go together to form **phrases**

@ **The phrase-like constituents here are combinations of the following types: an old man a shotgun the wedding**

22. Syntax I

@ The word '**syntax**' comes originally from Greek and literally means 'a **putting together**' or arrangement.

@ There was an attempt to produce an accurate description of the **sequence or ordering** 'arrangement' of elements in the **linear** structure of the sentence.

@ In the more recent attempts to analyze **syntactic** structure, there has been a greater focus on the underlying rule system that we used to produce or '**generate**' sentences

@ A **prepositional phrase** in English consists of a preposition followed by a noun phrase and a noun phrase consists of an article and a noun.

@ A **small and finite (i.e., limited) set of rules that will be capable of producing a large and potentially infinite (i.e., unlimited) number of well-formed structures**.

@ The small and finite set of rules is sometimes described as a '**generative grammar**' because it can be **used to 'generate' or produce sentence structures and not just describe them**.

@ **Generative grammar** is a linguistic theory that regards grammar as a system of rules that generates exactly those combinations of words that form grammatical sentences in a given language.

@ The generative school has focused on the study of **syntax, but has also addressed other aspects of a language's structure, including morphology and phonology**.

@ Early versions of Chomsky's theory were called **transformational grammar**, which is still used as a general term that includes his subsequent theories.

@ **Generativists** have argued that many of the properties of a generative grammar arise from a universal grammar that is innate to the human brain, rather than being learned from the environment.

@ **Noam Chomsky** opposed the earlier theories of **structuralism** by rejecting the idea that each language is different from the other.

@ The basic concept sets forth the rules to recognize **grammatical sentences** in a language. These rules differentiate the correct structures from **improper** sequences of words or **ungrammatical** sentences in the same language.

@ The sentence is represented as a tree having branches denoting the **subordinate and superordinate** elements rather than just a sequence of words.

@ **Generative grammar** attempts to formalize the implicit rules that a person uses while speaking his native language.

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@ The rules of **generative grammar** may appear to be useful only in language studies.

@ **Noam Chomsky** has argued that many of the properties of a generative grammar arise from an **'innate' universal** grammar, which is common to all languages.

@The grammar must generate all the wellformed **syntactic structures (i.e.,** sentences) of the language and fails to generate any ill-formed structures.

@ The grammar will have a **finite (i.e., limited)** number of rules but will be capable of generating an infinite number of well-formed structures.

@The **productivity of language would be captured within the gram**mar.

@ Rules of this grammar also need the **crucial property** of recursion.

@ Grammar should also be capable of revealing the basis **of two other** phenomena:

@ **Well-formedness** is the quality of a clause, word, or other linguistic element that conforms to the grammar of the language of which it is a part.

@ **Well-formed** words or phrases are grammatical, meaning they obey all relevant rules of grammar.

@A form that **violates** some grammar rule **is ill-formed** and does not constitute part of the language.

@A word may be phonologically **well-formed**.

@ A **word, phrase, clause, or utterance may be grammatically well-formed.**

@A **semantically** well-formed utterance or sentence is one that is meaningful.

@ **Grammatical well-formedness and semantic well-formedness do not always coincide, e.g., colorless green ideas sleep furiously.**

@This sentence is grammatically correct but **semantically** incorrect.

@Sometimes, **native speakers** of a language do not agree whether a particular word, phrase, or clause is well-formed.

@The problem of **well-formedness** is a problem for generative linguistics.

@**Grammatical generator follows** some **universal patterns** that should not vary among speakers.

@'A **small set** of rules operating on a large but finite set of words generates an infinite number of sentences.'

@ The problem with this definition is that it assumes a very bound and discrete view of all elements: **rules, lexical items, and sentences.**

@ Language is **not organized** in sentences and the difference between words and rules is likely to be an **artifact** of dictionary making and grammar writing.

@Similarly, there **is no guarantee** that the actual number of possible sentences is infinite rather than just **unimaginably** and practically inexhaustibly large (as was argued by Pullum and Scholtz in 2010).

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@As a matter of practical fact, the set of possible **expressions** in a given language may or may not be infinite; the actual set of all expressions ever **uttered** is going to be finite.

@ The set of expressions actually produced by **humans (or even machines)** is going to be too large to enumerate practically by current **(and possibly any) technology but it is going to be finite.**

@Therefore, it really does not matter whether language is **infinite** or not. The thing that matters is that any language is going to allow a set of **expressions** that is sufficiently large for any purpose a human language can be put toward.

@**Recursive** ('repeatable any number of times') rules have the capacity to be applied more than once in generating a structure. For example, The gun was on the table.

@The above sentence has one **prepositional phrase** describing location i.e., 'on the table'.

@Principally, there is no end to **recursion**.

@**Grammar will have to capture the facts that: A sentence can have another sentence inside it. A phrase can be repeated as often as required. Recursion is a feature of grammar. It is an essential part of a theory of cosmic structure.**

Best of luck 😊