

Sapir-Whorf hypothesis
consists of two associated
principles:

Linguistic determinism:
our thinking is determined
by language

Linguistic relativism:
people who speak different
languages perceive and
think about the world
quite differently

1) linguistics - grammar - philology

linguistics - from Latin *lingua* = languages → study
of languages

- its object of investigation is language from the
point of view of its structure and function

Crystal - defines linguistics as the scientific study
of language, also called linguistic science

Widdowson - defines linguistics as the name given
to the discipline which studies human language

grammar - everything known about human language,
including its phonology, morphology, syntax,
semantics and lexicon

- the rules for constructing words and sentences
in a particular language, or the branch of
linguistics studying this

philology - study of language, but only in its written
form - it studies language texts

- its subject of study is the language and its
literature, so we can distinguish Slavic, English
philology

*2) The purpose of linguistics

- 1) to explain language
- 2) to provide some explanations of the complexity of language by abstracting from it what seems to be of essential importance/significance
- 3) to provide models of language which reveal features which are not immediately apparent
- 4) to discover universals concerning language

*3) Synchronic / diachronic linguistics

synchronic - presents an account of the language as it is at some particular point in time

diachronic - traces historical development of the language and records the changes that have taken place in it between successive points in time



Prescriptive / descriptive grammar

prescriptive - grammarians' attempt to prescribe

what speakers' grammatical rules should be, rather than what they are

- it has 2 features (typical):

- 1) It presents an oversimplification - a particular form is right or wrong
 - 2) it considers a very small part of the grammatical structure of English or any other language with a similar prescriptive tradition
- descriptive - a linguist's description or model of the mental grammar, the units, structures, and rules of speakers of a particular language
- the attempt to state what speakers universally know about their language

Universal grammars - the principles or properties which pertain to the grammars of all human languages

- universal in the sense, that it is available to all humans; grammar - it helps people acquire the specific grammar of the language they are to learn

* 4) Linguistics in the system of sciences

- Linguistics is a social science that shares common ground with other social sciences such as sociology, anthropology, psychology & archaeology. It also may influence other disciplines such as communication studies & computer science. Linguistics is ultimately concerned with how the human brain functions

* 5) Language

- Language is the basic means of human communication.

Chomsky - considers a language to be a set of sentences, each finite and constructed out of a finite set of elements.

Block and Trager - define language as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates

Hall - defines language as the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols.

F. de Saussure - according to his structuralist approach the term language can be interpreted in three ways:

la langue - a system of signs used by the members of a language community for communication and thought

la parole - the utilization of the means provided by the system of signs for the formation of concrete utterances and for conceptual thought

- An individual phenomenon; a concrete manifestation of langue uttered by an individual in a given moment

la langue - a complex linguistic entity, as well as the ability of the language user to use the language; to implement a certain system of signs for communication and thought

- it implies both - langue and parole

6) Sources of human language

divine source - a theory which says that language was given to humans by a divine source - god in Christianity etc

natural sounds source - there are 2 theories:

1) bow-wow theory - based on ~~the~~ suggestion, that primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds (onomatopoeic words) which early men & women heard around them (cuckoo, bang etc)

2) yo-he-ho theory - is based on the suggestion, that primitive the sounds of a person involved in physical effort could be the source of our language, especially when that phys. effort involved several people and had to be coordinated

- it places the development of human language in some social context

oral-gesture source - connection btw. physical & oral gesture

- first a set of physical gestures was developed, as means of communication → then imitating of motions of communication by human tongue, lips

4) Properties of language (human) * * *

Displacement - the ability of human language users to discuss topics remote in space/time

Arbitrariness - there is no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning, it is a matter of convention

Productivity - the potential number of utterances produced in any human language is infinite

Cultural transmission - language is passed on from one generation to the next so that we can build on knowledge of our ancestors

Duality - language is organised at 2 levels simultaneously - 1) physical level - individual sounds
2) level of meaning

Discreteness (Discontinuity) - we produce sounds * which are clearly separated from each other - each sound in the language is treated as discrete

Freedom from stimulus control - our ability to say anything, including nothing, in any situation

8) Spoken and written forms of language

- priorities of spoken lang. over written language:

1) Historical - spoken form was evolved first,
- there is no human society known to exist

without the capacity of speech

2) Biological - human beings are born with certain preconditions for acquiring language and to produce and recognize speech - sounds

3) Functional - important for communication, we rather speak than write during communication;
- wider range of purposes

4) Structural - structurally more basic - it only permits certain combinations of sounds, whereas there is a totally unpredictable potentiality of combining of letters

medium transferability - a property of language -
- language is independent of the medium in which language signals are realized

9) Competence and Performance

linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker - listener who knows the language perfectly

Chomsky separates competence (an ideal and capacity) from performance (production of actual utterances)

Competence - cognitive skills necessary for the construction and understanding of meaningful sequences of words, consisting of:

1) Grammatical competence - ability to recognize and use lexical and syntactic patterns

2) Communicative competence - ability to use gram. competence to communicate effectively

3) Strategic competence - ability to exploit the other competences creatively - uniquely

4) Textual competence - ability to join all 3 competences for the production and reception of language

10) The functions of language

Yule

- Interactional** - how humans use language to interact with each other, socially or emotionally
- Transactional** - humans use their linguistic abilities to communicate knowledge, skills & information

YAKOBSON

- Referential (denotative)** - to convey message or information
- Emotive (expressive)** - to express attitudes, feelings, emotions
- Connotative** - to persuade and influence others through commands
- Phatic** - to establish and maintain social relations
- Metalingual** - to clear up difficulties about intentions, meanings
- Poetic** - to indulge in language for its own sake

M.A.K. HALLIDAY

- Ideational** - to communicate ideas, to express the content of an utterance referring to people, places, actions, events, states, qualities, and circumstances

- Interpersonal** - to establish and maintain social relations, to influence people's behavior, and get things done, to express the speaker's feelings, attitudes, and opinions
- Textual (discourse)** - to create texts, to link ideas being expressed and to make them hang together - paragraphs to coherent messages

4) Micro and macro functions of language

Microfunctions:

- Physiological** - to release physical energy *
- Phatic** - for purposes of sociability *
- Referential** - to record things
- Identifying** - to identify & classify object, events
- Reasoning** - as an instrument of thought
- Communicating** - means of communicating ideas
- Pleasure** - to give delight *

Macro functions:

- Ideational** - see Halliday *
- Interpersonal** - -H-
- Poetic** - to indulge in language for its own sake
- Textual** - see Halliday

12) Language as a system of signs

- Language is a system of conventional signs, all aspects of whose structure - phonology, morphology etc. - exist ultimately to serve the sovereign function of conveying meaning

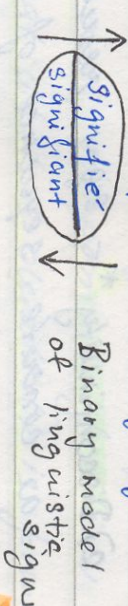
- Language is unique when compared e.g. to mathematics, in that it is able to express virtually anything that is conceivable - this extraordinary expressive power depends heavily on certain crucial properties of its constitutive signs, notably their arbitrariness, linearity and discreteness

F. de Saussure conceives the language as a system of signs. In addition it is the result of universal human ability of speech; it is arbitrary and socially conditioned. Therefore it is a supra-individual abstract and hierarchical system of signs, their inter-relations, values and combinatoric possibilities

F. de Saussure has developed his conception of a

linguistic sign within the general theory of Semiology (the theory of signs). He distinguishes btw. a concept and an acoustic image. They are components of mental nature associated in brain. The acoustic image is not conceived as a mere physical sound, but rather its trace, or reflection in our brain. The concept is even more abstract. Both components are mutually conditioned.

Later Saussure replaced the original terms with a new couple: **signifiant** for the **acoustic image** and (the signifying component), and **signifié** for the concept (the signified component).



Pierce - 3 types of signs:

- Icons** - depend on physical similarity (photos)
- Indices** - internal relations (smoke - fire)
- Symbols** - signs based on conventions

14) Linguistic sign, Saussure's approach, features:

* For Saussure, any linguistic sign is made up of a **signifiant / signifier** - it concentrates on common features, general realization - that is an acoustic image; and a **signifié / signified** or a concept - even more abstract, object that appears in our minds when we hear or read the signifier

Characteristic features of linguistic sign:

a) **Arbitrariness** - no natural connection between a linguistic form and its meaning - it is a matter of convention

* b) **Linearity** - linguistic signs cannot be at the same point on time axes - no words can be pronounced at the same time

c) **Discontinuity** * - sign results from connecting a concrete sequence of sounds of a particular language with a concrete and delimited segment of the nebula

* the sound material of language is amorphous (compared to an undifferentiated nebula)

Linguistic sign - a bilateral unit, having both -

form and meaning
According to Saussure, every linguistic object has two aspects:

a **linguistic form** (the signifiant, or 'signifier') and **meaning** (the signifié, or 'signified thing')
ie: the English word dog has a particular form (a sequence of three meaningless phonemes /dɒg/) and also a particular meaning (a specific kind of animal). The two together make up a single linguistic sign in English

15) Bilateral theory of linguistic sign

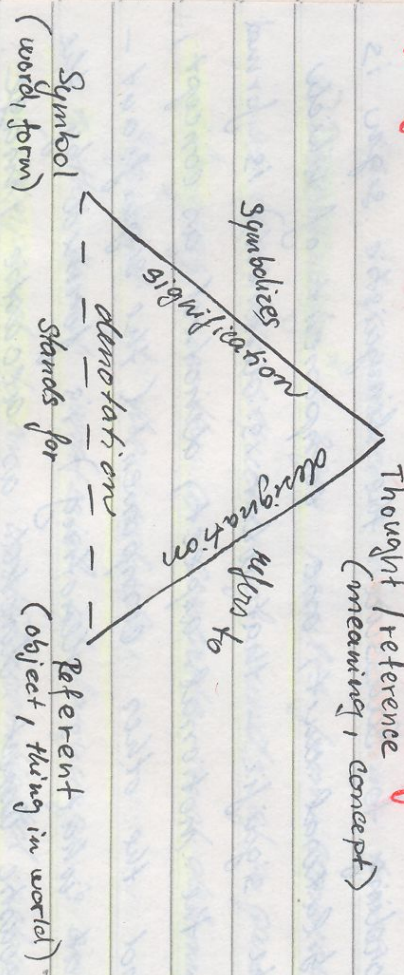
According to Saussure the linguistic sign is a **bilateral unit**, one component of which (the signifié - that what is denoted) is formed by the notional aspect, denoted as **concept**, and the other component (the signifiant - that what is denoting) is formed by the acoustic aspect denoted as **acoustic image**.

The linguistic sign in this sense is **bilateral** and not only as a whole, as a unity

of what is denoted and what is denoting, can it stand instead of the object of extralinguistic reality.

A bilateral linguistic sign, both components of which are ~~struct~~ ^{struct}, is an ideal object existing in language as a system serving not only for communication but also for denoting real objects, as well as for denoting thought values or in a wider ~~sense~~ ^{context} cultural values of mankind, and for storing them.

15) Ogden + Richard's semiotic triangle



Semiotic triangle is used to explain the relationship between concepts, symbols and objects.

The key point is that a symbolic representation of an object can never refer directly to object (referent), but only through concept (thought) within the mind → no direct relationship between the symbol and the referent, what is represented by dashed line

Relationships within the semiotic triangle:

- 1) Designation - relationship between referent (object) and reference (concept)
 - reference describes referent
- 2) Signification - relationship btw. sign form & concept
 - symbol symbolizes concept (reference)
- 3) Denotation - relationship btw. sign form / referent
 - sign form denotes the object

denotative versus connotative meaning

denotation - the central meaning of a linguistic form, regarded as the set of things it could possibly refer to - general (dictionary) meaning

connotation - a non-central word meaning acquired through frequent associations (additional, associative) factors affecting connotation:

1) **territorial** - dialectisms and regionalisms
national standards
ethnic variety

2) **social**

3) **stylistic** - may involve differences in origin:
domestic vs. loanword

4) **temporal** - dated or archaic vs. neologisms

16) Type and Token relation

- to identify an element as a token is to recognize it as a particular and actual instance of a general and abstract type

Type: is a class

Token: Representative of the given class

- a given class relates, to a type, of which the classified object is a token

17) Phonetics and Phonology

phonetics - the study of sounds which is concerned with the actual production ^{points} of speech sounds, as well as those of non-speech sounds, and their production, audition and perception

- it deals with the sounds themselves, rather than the contexts in which they are used in languages

- speech sounds are studied from three diff. ^{with the} event points of view, which correspond to three main branches of phonetics: acoustic, articulatory, auditory

phonology - is the science of language investigating the sounds of language from the point of view of their function in a language system

- it is concerned with how the sounds alternate, as well as issues like syllable, structure, stress, accent and intonation

18) Acoustic, Articulatory and Auditory Phonetics

Acoustics studies speech sounds from the point of view of the transmission of the speaker's output in terms of their psychical characteristics (wave form, intensity, periodicity, noise)

Articulatory studies speech sounds from the speaker's point of view in terms of the articulatory organs and processes involved

Auditory studies speech sounds from the point of view of the hearer in terms of the physiology and psychology of perception

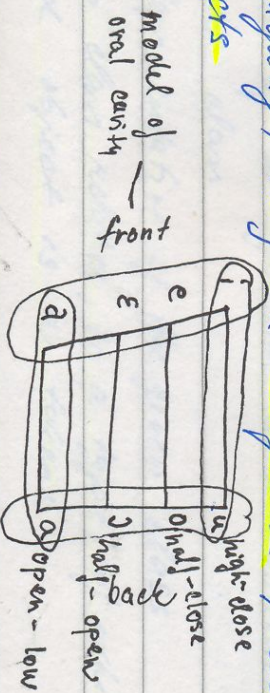
19) Cardinal vowel scheme

The system of cardinal vowels represents standard reference points for identifying vowels based on tongue position along three dimensions:

front vs. back and high vs. low

- cardinal vowels are not. Sounds of any particular language, they are artificial constructs

cardinal vowels



20) Phoneme, allophone, phone

phone - a sound - the basic unit of phonemes - a speech segment that possesses distinct physical or perceptual properties

phoneme - the basic unit of phonology

- it is a complex of phonetic features, i.e. articulatory, acoustic and auditory features, which enables the users to differentiate a certain sound from every other sound as an independent, noninterchangeable unit capable of meaningful distinction

- is not a bilateral unit, it has a form, but it doesn't have any meaning, it only has a distinctive function

There are four main approaches to Phonemes: *

- 1) **the mentalistic or psychological view** (V. Balle Courtenay)
 - phoneme is the ideal sound at which the speaker aims

2) the physical view (D. Jones)

- the phoneme is a family of sounds satisfying certain conditions:

a) the various members of one family must show phonetic similarities to one another

b) no member of one family may occur in the same phonetic context as any other

** 3) the functional view (Bloomfield, Trubetzkoy, Jakobson)

- phoneme is the minimal sound unit by which meaning may be differentiated

- meaning differentiation is taken to be a defining characteristic of phonemes - therefore the most important role is assigned to distinctive features

4) the abstract view (Sapir, Hjelmslev)

- phonemes are essentially independent from the phonetic properties associated with them for example [x] and [ei] as occurring in samity - some represent one phoneme because they are related by morphological alternation

allophone - a variation in the way any phoneme is realized in actual speech

- the different manipulations of one phoneme

2.1) Vowels, Consonants, Diphthongs

Vowel - a sound that is produced in such a way that the air stream can pass through the vocal tract without a noticeable obstruction

- all English vowels are voiced, they are characterized by:

- 1) the duration of sound: short - long
- 2) character of lip opening: spread - neutral - rounded
- 3) position of tongue during articulation: high - low - front - central - back

Semivowel - English has two sounds [j] and [w] which are phonetically vowels, but which in English function in a consonant-like way

Diphthong - a combination of 2 vowels produced one immediately after the other, with no intervening stopping of the air stream and the two sounds glide into each other closing / centring

Triphthong - a glide from one vowel into another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption

- closing diphthong + [ɪ] added at the end

Consonant - a speech sound produced by a partial or complete obstruction of the air stream by any of various constrictions of speech organs

English consonants are characterized by:

- 1) **manner of articulation** (the kind of structure)
 - plosives, affricates, nasals, fricatives, laterals, flap, roll, glottal stop
- 2) **place of articulation** (relative position of two movable parts or a movable and fixed part)
 - bilabial, labial-dental, dental, alveolar, post-alveolar, palatal, velar, glottal
- 3) **opposition voiced-voiceless** (depending on the vibration of vocal cord)
- 4) **position of the soft palate** - oral, nasal

Aspiration - modification of consonants

- the delay of vibration of the vocal cords after the production of a voiceless consonant
- there is a short period of air stream heard as a 'h', e.g. pin - [p^hɪn]

2) **Distinctive features, complementary distribution, minimal pairs**

Distinctive features - the features which are common for allophones of one phoneme, which allow to distinguish it from all other phonemes

they may be - **relevant** (necessary for evocation of sound) **irrelevant** (unnecessary, e.g. aspiration)

Complementary distribution

- two phonetically similar sounds cannot occur in the same environment, that is why they cannot contrast in the same environment → so they are not separate phonemes, but allophones of one phoneme
- if we replaced one allophone with another allophone of the same phoneme, the meaning of the particular word would not change → **not distinctive**

minimal pairs - minimally different pairs of words, such as pet and bet, that differ by only one element

- if we can replace one sound of the word with another sound to form a different word - we have found two phonemes of the language - commutation test

Trubetzkoy phonology - theory of oppositions

3 rules:

- 1) If two sounds of the same language in the same context can't be replaced without the change of the meaning, they are different phonemes
- 2) If such a replacement is possible without interrupting the meaning of the word, these sounds are facultative variants of a single phoneme
- 3) If two articulatory and acoustically related sounds can never occur in the same environment, they are combinatorial variants of a single phoneme

The theory of distinctive features is based on a binary principle (absence vs. presence of a distinctive feature). The contrast between the presence and absence of a feature, or between two distinctive features is called opposition. One of the pair of opposition is always marked, the other being unmarked

oppositions in regard to the whole system:

- 1) unidimensional oppositions - the base common for both phonemes in opposition does not occur in other pairs of phonemes (t-d - the only alveolar ^{proximal})
 - 2) multidimensional op. - the base common occurs in more than two phonemes (p-t-k - voiceless ^{oral plosives})
 - 3) proportional op. - the relation between two phonemes occurs in several pairs of phonemes (p-b, t-d, k-g)
 - 4) isolated op. - the given relation between two phonemes does not occur elsewhere (r-l)
- oppositions can be constant or neutralizable

1) as to mutual relations between the members of the opposition:

- 1) privative oppositions - the difference between the phenomena is based on the presence vs. absence of a particular distinctive feature
 - marked member (presence) and unmarked member (absence of the part. feature)
 - e.g. voiced and voiceless consonants having all other features in common (d-t, s-z, v-f)
- 2) gradual op. - the members differ by a different degree of a feature (e.g. closed-half-closed - half-open - open / vowels)
- 3) equipollent op. - the members of the pair differ in several features (e.g. the difference between p and f)

4.3) Morphology - morpheme, morph

Morphology - a subbranch of linguistics which deals with the internal structure of words (word-forms) and meanings of units of which words are constructed

Inflectional morphology - deals with inflectional operations which leave syntactic category of the base untouched but add extra elements of grammatical meaning and grammatical function

derivational morphology - deals with derivational operations (word-formation processes) which typically create a word of a syntactic class different from that of the base (e.g. affixes or /-ation forms verbs into nouns)

Morphemes - the smallest linguistic sign, the smallest bilateral unit, so it is the smallest linguistic unit that has both-form and meaning

- the meaning of morpheme - sememe
- the form of morpheme - formeme

Morph - concrete realizations of morphemes

e.g. - /s, z, t, d/ are morphs of the same morpheme "plural of nouns" because of their phonetic realization

* we speak about **allomorphs** of a morpheme if:

- 1) They have the same meaning
- 2) They are in relationship of complementary distribution, i.e. they occur in mutually excluding contexts
- 3) They are used in parallel constructions
- 4) They feature a certain degree of phonetic immutability admitting only regular changes

There are 2 types of morphemes:

1) **Free** - they can function independently - stay by themselves as single words:

- a) **Lexical morphemes** - words which carry the content of the message we convey
- b) **functional m.** - functional words of language

2) **Bound** - they cannot occur independently:

- a) **derivational m.** - to make new words - diff. gram. cat.
- b) **inflectional m.** - to indicate aspects of the gram. function of the word - same gram. cat.

24) Inflection, declension, conjugation

Inflection - the combination of lexical and grammatical morphemes

- a change made in the form of a word to express its relation to other words in the sentence
- it includes the declension of nouns, adjectives and pronouns, and the conjugation of verbs according to paradigms

declension - occurs in nouns, adjectives & pronouns - indicates such features as number, syntactic category, case, gender

conjugation - the modification of a verb from its basic form using inflections

- it may be affected by person, mood, tense, aspect, number or other grammatical categories

25) Word-formation, its position in the system, its

methods - semasiological, onomasiological, morpheme

Word-formation - the branch of linguistics

which studies the patterns on which new

lexical units (words) are coined

- there is no agreement among linguists

whether WF is included in morphology:

morphology deals with morphemes as compo-

nent parts of word-forms; word-formation

focuses on morphemes that generate new

naming units (lexemes)

Semasiological method - it proceeds in general

* from the form of naming units to their meaning

- it concentrates on the question concerning

the meanings (semantic structure) of WF types

- it focuses on the analysis of WF units,

the specification of the individual components

and morphological structures of naming units

- it specifies analysable naming units (morpho-

logically motivated & correspond to the particu-

lar WF type

Onomasiological method - It focuses on the process

of coining new naming units, starting point

is the concept or conceptual meaning on it

may be set into the extralinguistic reality

as an object of the process of denomination

- the particular object of denomination is

conceptually processed in human consci-

ousness and classified according to the

principles of syntax in the given language

- it is usually distinguished between

the onomasiological basis (determined

component) that classifies the object

within a certain conceptual group/class

and then, within that group it is

specified by means of an O. marks (deter-

mining component). These two polar

members of the O. structure are connected

by logical and semantic relations sub-

sumed under the notion of O. connective

units of word-formation:

moneme - minimal linguistic sign →

unanalyzable in smaller bilateral units

e.g. receive, decline, cransberry

- ~~before~~ ~~words~~ ~~the~~ ~~place~~ ~~for~~ ~~them~~ ~~in~~ ~~the~~ ~~WF~~

naming unit - if WF is considered a branch of

linguistics - naming unit is the basic unit of

- a lexeme that is synchronically related

to the word from which it was coined

immediate constituents of naming units:

word-formation base (stem) - the part of the

motivating word which enters the naming unit

word-formation element - the derivative element (suffix)

root - part of a word-form that remains

when all inflectional and derivational

morphemes have been removed

26) Determinant - determinatum

Syntagma - **Fde** Saussure's terms

- a combination of morphemes the relationship

between them being that between the determini-

nant (determining element - modifier) and

determinatum (determined element - head)

→ each naming unit falling within the scope

of word-formation is a syntagma consisting

of determinant and determinatum

determinatum identifies the object to be

named with other similar objects,

determinant specifies its typical features

by which it differs from all the other

objects of its class

27) Word-formation processes

1) **Compounds** - combination of WF basis of two

or more originally independent words

- the individual compound constituents do

not contain any inflectional morphemes - only

compound as a whole is inflected

- can be written as single unit, separate units

or connected by a hyphen

2) **Affixation** - attaching an affix morpheme to the beginning (prefix) or to the end (suffix) of a W-F base
- includes **suffixation** and **prefixation**

3) **Conversion** (Functional shift) - the process of coin-ing new naming units consisting in words of a different word class though having the same phonological shape of the fundamental grammatical forms

4) **Back-formation** - formation of a new word by deletion of a suffix-like element from a complex form by analogy of with other complex words
- a word of one type is retrieved to form another word of a different type

5) **Blending** - the process of combining new naming units by merging ~~the~~ parts of originally independent words
- joining of the beginning of one word to the end of another word

6) **Shortening of complex words**
clipping - an existing word is shortened while still retaining its original meaning
acronyms - when initial letters are taken to stand for the whole compound

28) **Lexicon** - lexical entries above words, or lexemes of a language
- words, units smaller than words and larger than words have to be stored in a mental lexicon, which is structured by psycholinguistics

- words which are derived by common rules (e.g. [V+ion]_N → transmission - noun denotes the act) don't need to be stored - we understand them
- all words which are not derived by such rules have to be stored, as well as many unpredictable words (affairs, idioms, say)
- rules are not stored

29, Lexicology, semantics, lexical semantics, w-formation

Lexicology - a branch of linguistics concerned with the lexicon

- it deals with the structures existing in the system of lexemes; also with such issues as the size and structure of vocabulary, the link with extra-linguistic knowledge etc.

Semantics - the branch of linguistics which studies meaning

pragmatics - the branch of linguistics which studies how utterances communicate meaning in context

lexical semantics - the study of meaning of

~~lexemes~~ ^{on words}; deals predominantly with paradigmatic relations among lexemes (homonymy)

word-formation - branch of linguistics which studies the patterns on which a language forms new lexical units (words)

30, lexeme, lexical unit, sememe, seme, naming unit

Cruse

- defines the **lexical unit** as a union of a lexical form and a single sense, and the **lexeme** as a family of lexical units
e.g. the lexeme for includes two lexical units: for (animal) + for (person)

- this distinction refers to polysemantic words; the lexeme covers a polysemantic word with all its individual meanings - it is a combination of one signifiant with all encompassed significs; while the lexical unit refers to one particular meaning of a polysemantic word - it is a combination of a signifiant with one signific; writing such a polysemantic word

The meaning of a lexical unit is termed **sememe**. A Sememe can be decomposed into semantic components, also called **semes**. Hence, sememe is a complex or hierarchical configuration

of senses, which corresponds ^{to a single} ~~meanings~~ meaning of a lexeme. The method used in this connection is called componential analysis.

* Di Scallio and Williams' 4 notions of words:

- 1) morphological object - constructed out of morphological "atoms", i.e. morphemes, by processes of affixation and compounding
- 2) syntactic atom - invisible building block of syntax. Syntactic words are considered to be "atomic" units of syntax, and thus they are treated as invisible into morphemes. They represent one whole.
- 3) listed object (listeme) - listemes are linguistic expressions memorized and stored by speakers
- 4) phonological word - i.e. word consisting of sounds or letters. Thus, words, written, mean are four different words

Mathews distinguishes 3 kinds of words:

- 1) phonological (orthographic) - word consisting of sounds & letters
- 2) dictionary word - lexeme
- 3) grammatical - a unit fulfilling particular grammatical function

Potential vs. actual words:

- ~~potential~~ ^{actual} - any word that is used by the speech community
- potential - reflect the unlimited human capacity to coin new naming units

Sense vs. meaning:

- meaning - the characteristic of a linguistic form which allows it to be used to pick out some aspect of the non-linguistic world
- sense - the central meaning of a linguistic form, regarded from the point of view of the way it relates to other linguistic items

3) Paradigmatic relations between lexical units -

antonymy, synonymy, homonymy, polysemy, hyper-

Syntagmatic vs. paradigmatic relations:

Syntagmatic - the relation between any linguistic elements which are simultaneously present in a structure; e.g. the lexeme 'old' is syntagmatically related with the definite article 'the' and the noun 'man' in the expression 'the old man'

paradigmatic - the relation between a set of linguistic items, which in some sense constitute choices, so that only one of them may be present at a time in a given position

5 types of paradigmatic relations:

Homonymy - two or more words are identical in

form (significant) but different in meaning (signifié); unrelated meaning

a) **homophones** - identical sound form of the lexemes, different spelling (sell-cell)

b) **homographs** - identical spelling but different pronunciation (lead: [li:d], [led])

c) **full homonyms** - identical sound form and spelling (lie, bank)

1) **Polysemy** - words with one form and several meanings, which are semantically related - relations among different meanings of one lexeme (fox)

3) **Synonymy** - words or phrases with the same or nearly the same meaning (refuse, reject)

4) **Antonymy** - a relation between signs whose content is different (opposite) but undoubtably in a way related

3 types:

a) **complementary** - (male vs. female, dead vs. alive) - the denial of one implies the assertion of the other one and vice versa

b) **antonymy in narrow sense** (good-bad) - gradable; 3rd possib.

c) **converseness** - they imply each other mutually (husband - wife)

5) Hyponymy / hyperonymy (flower - tulip, violet, rose)

- paradigmatic relation between the constants of a linguistic sign finding themselves in a hierarchical relationship
- the subordinate lexical item (the one with a narrower, more specified meaning) is called hyponym, the superordinate one, concerning the meanings of all its hyponyms, is called hyperonym (Architerme)
- hyponyms which are on the same level of the hierarchical structure are called co-hyponyms

32) Multi-word units, lexical fields, metaphor, metonymy
lipka distinguishes between lexical fields (consisting of simple and complex terms) and word-fields (exclusively containing morphologically simple items - monemes)

Hygans defines the lexical field as a paradigmatically and syntagmatically structured subset of the vocabulary (lexicon)
- it is a set of lexemes that cover the

conceptual area in any - one language system and by means of the relations of sense which hold between them give structure to it

- lexical fields can be either linear or hierarchical

metaphor - a semantic change based on the association of similarity between two referents

- they can be objective or emotive

8. Ullman recognizes 4 major groups:

- 1) anthropomorphic - based on similarities of parts of human body and inanimate objects
- 2) animal - based on the denomination of objects after their resemblance to some aspects of animal world
- 3) from concrete to abstract - (to throw light on)
- 4) synaesthetic - a transposition from one sense to another (sound to sight etc)

Metonymy ^(evidence) - the transfer of meaning is based on the association of contiguity ^{SINONYM}
- it is a semantic shift reflecting some kind of inherent relationship of referents

33) Syntax - sentence, clause, phrase

Syntax - a subbranch of linguistics that deals with the analysis of structures and regular patterns of sentences → it studies the principles and rules for constructing sentences in natural languages
- 5 units of grammatical description:
morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence

Sentence

Halliday's - defines the sentence as an elementary speech utterance through which the speaker (writer) reacts to some reality, concrete or abstract, and which in its formal character appears to realize grammatical possibilities of the respective language, and to be subjectively, that is, from the point of view of the speaker, complete

Bloomfield defines sentence as an independent linguistic form, not included ~~to~~ by virtue of any larger grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form → it means that the sentence is the largest unit of grammatical description

- he explains that in any utterance, a linguistic form appears either as constituent of some larger form (John in the utterance John ran away), or else as an independent form, not included in any larger linguistic form (John in the exclamation 'John!')
→ when a linguistic form occurs as a part of a larger form, it is said to be included in absolute position, otherwise it is said to be in absolute position and to constitute a sentence

Sentence types:

Classification according to sentence functions:

- 1) statements
- 2) questions
- 3) exclamations
- 4) commands

Classification according to sentence structure

Complexity:

- 1) **simple** - consists of a single independent clause
- 2) **multiple** - contains one or more clauses as its immediate constituents

compound - the immediate constituents are two or more coordinate clauses (equiv. conj.)

complex - one or more of its elements are realized by subordinate clause which modifies the main clause

Classification worked out by Partridge:

- he distinguishes 5 sentence types in English based on different syntagmatic relations

among: **subject (S)**, **complement (C)**, **object (O)**, **indirect object (O₂)**, **intransitive verb (I)**, **transitive verb (T)**, **adverbial group (A)**

basic sentence types:

- 1) **SI** (the sun shines) intransitive sentences
- 2) **SIC** (the sun is a star) transitive sentences
- 3) **STO** (the sun melts the ice)
- 4) **STO₂O** (the sun gives us warmth)
- 5) **STOC** (the people elected him president)

Clause

- a sentence-like segment of a sentence
- it can be structurally exactly the same as a sentence of any type

There are 3 main types in English:

- 1) **nominal clause** - it functions as subject, complement, object, indirect object, apposition
- 2) **adjectival clause** - functions mostly as post-modifier of the head
- 3) **adverbial clause** - functions as adjunct to verbs, can function as sentence adverb &

- 2 main functions:

- 1) to restrict the area of reference of verbs as to time, place, manner, conditions
- 2) to indicate comparisons

Phrase

- a word or a group of words which is grammatically equivalent to a single word and which does not have its own subject and predicate

- the dominant word of the phrase is called the **head**

- elements which precede the head - **modifiers** (premodifiers, postmodifiers) and those which follow the head - **qualifiers**

- according to the dominant word, the phrases are distinguished as: **noun phrases, verb phrases, adverbs, adjective**

Construction

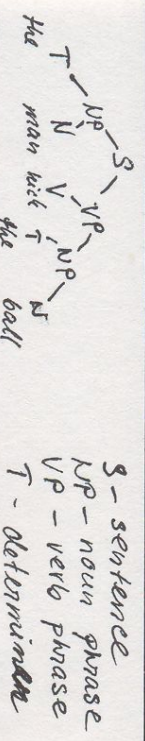
- the grouping and combining of words in a sentence, and their resulting relationship to each other

- they can be either **endocentric** (syntactically equivalent) or **exocentric** (basic sentence, further irreducible)

Syntactic vs. lexical category

syntactic - any of the types of gram. unit from which sentences of language are constructed

lexical - any of the gram. characteristics which are grouped into words of a language (noun, verb, adj.)



34) Phrase structure grammar (PSG)

PSG is a type of generative grammar, which represents constituents structure directly.

The idea of PSG is that we first note what syntactic categories appear to exist in a given language and what different internal structures each of these have.

Then for each structure we write a rule that describes its structure.

→ so e.g. an English sentence typically consists of a NP followed by a VP (my sister bought a car) and we therefore write a phrase structure rule: $S \rightarrow NP + VP$

- we continue this way until we have a rule for every structure in the language

→ Now the set of rules can be used for generating sentences → starting with S, we apply suitable rules to tell us what units the sentence consists of → until we reach the level of individual words → we simply insert words belonging to the appropriate parts of speech. The result is usually displayed out graphically in a tree

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35) Functional Sentence Perspective; Theme, Rheme,

the role of context

FSP combines in itself a syntactic and semantic approach to the organization of the sentence and makes it possible to understand how the semantic and grammatical structures function in the very act of communication - according to FSP, the sentence can be divided into two parts:

Theme represents the basis, the part about which something is stated. It does not bring new information and usually represents a link to the previous part of the text

Rheme is the nucleus of the utterance representing the new information. It is the part of the sentence with the highest degree of communicative dynamism

Objective ordering - focuses on the hearer - theme-rheme
Subjective ordering - emotionally coloured - reverse
Passive construction - used to follow fixed word-order and place the theme at the beginning

The role of context

- those elements of the sentence which are context-independent have generally the highest degree of communicative dynamism compared to context-dependent elements

36) The development of English language, analytic/synthetic

According to Edward Sapir there are 4 basic types of languages:

1) Analytic (isolating) - a language that uses separate grammatical words or particles, rather than inflection, to express syntactic relations within sentences

2) Synthetic type - language in which syntactic relations are expressed by inflection

a) agglutinating - 1-1 correspondence in meaning (Hungary)

b) inflectional - homonymy, synonymy in grammar (Slavic languages)

3) Polysynthetic - language in which all derivational categories & grammar are packed into one word - compound words

- they can express in one word what is expressed in more words in other lang.

4) Inflecting - internal inflections

- there is a consonantal skeleton, usually 3 consonants, which carry a very general meaning and by inserting vowels between them you can express meaning - create words

38) Development of the English grammar system:

analytic trends, word-order, Possessive case, adjectival

- development of English language reflects a complex reshaping of once synthetic type into an analytic type of language
- general tendency of the development is the tendency towards an overall simplification of the morphological systems
- Old English was a complex system of distinct word endings (inflections)

over time the distinction between them was lost → the word-order became more and more important in conveying meaning → grammaticalization of word-order - the fixed position of subject, predicate and object in a sentence

- the only remaining variations in the standard language are plural (e)s, possessive apostrophe s, and third-person singular s on verbs

39) language and culture: linguistic determinism

Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, linguistic relativism

linguistic determinism - it is the idea, that language shapes thoughts → we can only think in the categories which our language allows us to think in

linguistic relativism (Sapir-Whorf hypothesis)

- it is the idea that differences in language are related to the differences in cognition of the language users
- there is no limit to the structural diversity of languages