**CHAPTER 1**

 **INTRODUCTION**
   **What is language?**

   Put at its simplest, a language is a set of signals by which we communicate. Human beings are not the only species to have an elaborate communication system. Bees communicate about honey and about the siting of a new hive; chimpanzees can use vocalisations to warn of danger, to signal the finding of food or to indicate attitudes to mating; and dolphins can communicate information on food and danger by means of whistles and clickcs. It is not possible in a short book to illustrate all the similarities and differences between human and animal communication. It would prove fruitful to discuss whether human languages developed from earlier, simpler signalling systems. The evidence is just not available. Language seems to be as old as our species. It is not so much that we have missing links in a chain from simple communication system to complex human language. It is the chain that is missing and all we have are a few intriguing links. What we can say with confidence is that even if human languages do not differ in *essence* from animal communication, they certainly differ in *degree*. Nothing in the animal kingdom even approximates to human language for flexibility, complexity, precision, productivity and sheer quantity. Humans have learnt to make infinite use of finite means.

   There are a number of other general points that are worth making about language. First, human language is not only a vocal system of communication. It can be expressed in writing, with the result that it is not limited in time or space. Secondly, each language is both arbitrary and systematic. By this we mean that no two languages behave in exactly the same way yet each language has its own set of rules. Again, a number of examples will clarify this point. The word for 'water' is 'eau' in French, 'uisce' in Gaelic. There is no intrinsic relationship between any of these words and the chemical Compound $H_2O$ which we know as water. The choice of word is arbitrary, that is non-predictable, but speakers of French and Gaelic regularly and habitually use the word from their language to refer to $H_2O$.  The same is true with regard to sentences. In English, we say:

   I am hungry.

   in French:

   J'ai faim.

   and in Gaelic and Russian:

   Ta ocras orm.

Я голодный (Ya golodnıy)

There is no way in which we could say that one is more 'natural' or more 'appropriate' than either of the others. Languages are arbitrary in their selection and combination of items but systematic in that similar ideas are expressed in similar ways, thus:

English: I am safe and sound

Russian: я жив и здоров (ya jiv i zdorov)

And finally, there are no primitive or inferior languages. People may live in the most primitive conditions but all languages appear to be equally complex and all are absolutely adequate to the needs of their users. It used to be believed that somewhere in the world would be found a simple language, a sort of linguistic missing link between animal communication and the language of technologically advanced societies. People have been found in remote parts of Papua New Guinea and in the Amazon Basin whose way of life has not changed for thousands of years and yet their languages are as subtle, as highly organised, as flexible and as useful as those found in any other part of the world.

**Language and Community**

A language is an abstraction based on the linguistic behaviour of its users. It is not to be equated precisely with speech because no speaker has total mastery of the entire system and every speaker is capable of using the language inadequately through tiredness, illness or inattention. All normal children of all races learn to speak the language of their Community, so speech has often been seen as the primary medium of language. The abstract system which is language can also be realised as writing, and although speech and writing have much in common, they are not to be equated or hierarchically ordered. Many books will claim that speech is 'primary' and this is true in a number of ways:

(a) writing is a relatively recent development in human societies
(b) thousands of speech communities rely solely on speech
(c) all of us speak a great deal more than we write
(d) although we acquire speech without conscious effort, learning to read and write is usually less spontaneous and less automatic

It is not, however, 'primary' if we interpret 'primary' to mean 'more important'. Speech and writing are not in competition. They are complementary and both are necessary in a technologically advanced society. We can sum up the relationship between language and its mediums in a diagram as shown in Fig. 1:

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│         language(abstraction)        │
│                                      │
│                 ↓                    │
│                                      │
│          mediums(concrete)           │
│                                      │
│            ↙         ↘               │
│                                      │
│     speech  ─────────  writing       │
│                                      │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
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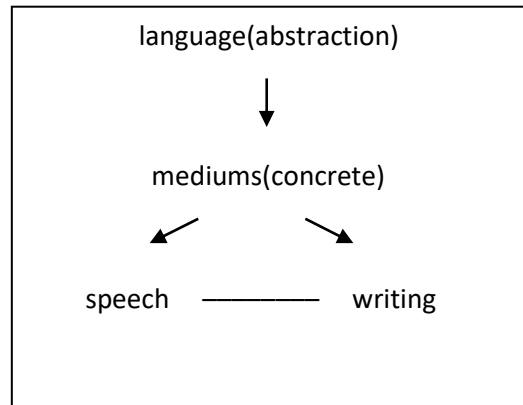
Fig. 1: The relationship between language and its mediums.

The diagram indicates that, although speech and writing are in theory distinct, they can and do influence each other. A simple example of this is that pronunciation is often affected by spelling. A word like 'often', for example, is now frequently pronounced with a 't' because of influence from the written medium.

Consider briefly the main differences between speech and writing, the two main mediums in which language is realised:

| *Speech* | Writing |
|---|---|
| Composed of sounds | Composed of letters/signs |
| Makes use of intonation, pitch, and rhythm, tempo | Makes use of punctuation other graphological devices like italics |
| Produced effortlessly - no tools required | Produced with effort - tools required |
| Transitory | Relatively permanent |
| Perceived by the ear | Perceived by the eye |
| Addressee present | Addressee absent |

| Immediate feedback | Feedback delayed |
|---|---|
| Meaning helped by context, body movement, gestures | Meaning must be made clear within the context |
| Spontaneous | Not spontaneous |
| Associative | Logical |

Such a list is sufficient to indicate that speech and writing are very different mediums. Furthermore, they can function independently of each other. We do not have to speak a language in order to read and write it. Nor does an ability to speak a language give a person automatic access to writing. Yet there are links between the mediums. Most writing systems are based on speech. As far as English is concerned, there is a *rough* equivalence between sounds and letters. Thus, most people can distinguish three sounds in the composition of the word that is written 'bat' and a different three in the word that is written 'pen'.The equivalence between sounds and letters is not, however, very close in English. We find, for example, only three sounds in the following words of five letters:

knead

rough

In addition, the sounds of these words can be represented in more than one way, so that 'need' is pronounced in exactly the same way as 'knead' and 'ruff' sounds exactly the same as 'rough'. Nor are these the only mismatches that occur between English sounds and letters. The 'ee' sound can be represented in at least six different ways:

beef

chief

deceive

even

machine

meat

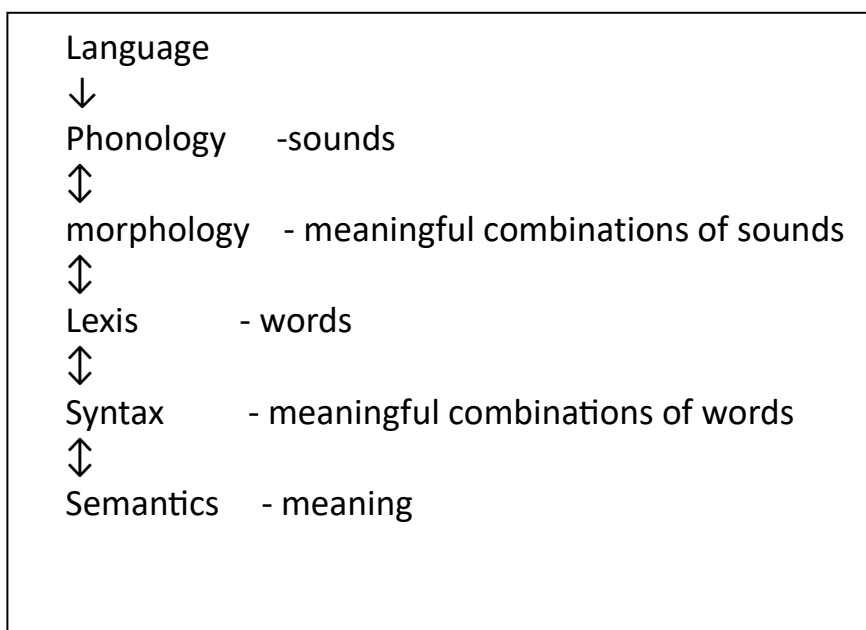and the 's' sound of 'sand' can be represented by both 's 'and 'c':

ceiling
sealing

Most European languages are 'alphabetic', that is, there is a link between sounds and letters, but other links are possible. In Chinese the link is between a unit of meaning and a character:

Chinese speakers from different parts of China may pronounce these characters differently but the written character always has the same meaning. A comparison with European languages may be helpful here. Although English, French and Gaelic are all alphabetic languages, they have all borrowed the numerical symbols 1,2,3 ... from Arabic. The English write them 'one, two, three', the French 'un, deux, trois' and the Irish 'aon, dâ, tri' and each group pronounces them differently. Yet all users interpret the symbols 1,2,3 ... in the same way.

**The components of language**

When a parrot ***utters words*** or phrases in our language, we understand them although it is reasonably safe to assume that the parrot does not. The parrot may be able to reproduce intelligible units from the spoken medium but has no awareness of the abstract system behind the medium. Similarly, if we hear a stream of sounds in a language we do not know, we may recognise by the tone of voice whether the person is angry or annoyed but the exact meaning eludes us. To have mastery of a language, therefore, means being able to produce an infinite number of language patterns which are comprehensible to other users of the language, and in addition, being able to decipher the infinity of language patterns produced by other users of the language. It is thus a two-way process involving both production and reception. As far as speech is concerned, the process involves associating sounds with meaning and meaning with sounds. With writing, on the other hand, language competence involves the association of a meaning (and sometimes sounds) with a sign, a Visual symbol. Thus, our study of language will involve us in an appraisal of all of the following levels of language:

Language
↓
Phonology      -sounds
⇕
morphology    - meaningful combinations of sounds
⇕
Lexis          - words
⇕
Syntax        - meaningful combinations of words
⇕
Semantics    - meaning

When we have examined these levels and the way they interact, we will have acquired the necessary tools to study languages in general (linguistics), the variety in language and the uses to which people put languages (sociolinguistics), the ways in which people teach and learn languages (applied linguistics) and the value of the study of language in understanding the human mind (psycholinguistics).

## HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF A LANGUAGE

The historical development of language is a continuous uninterrupted process without sudden breaks or transformations. Therefore only periods imposed on language history by linguists, with precise dates, might appear artificial. Yet in all language histories divisions into periods and crossections of a certain length, are used for teaching and research purposes. The commonly accepted, traditional period divisions English history into some periods: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME) and New English (NE) Modern English (Mod.E) with boundaries attached to define dates and historical events affecting the language.

It had been noticed that although language history is a slow uninterrupted chain of events, changes are not evenly distributed in time: periods of intensive and vast changes at one or many levels may be followed by periods of relative stability. It seems quite probable that the differences in the rate of changes are largely conditioned by the linguistic situation, which also accounts for many other features of language evolution. Therefore division into chronological periods should take into accounts both aspects: external and internal (extra- and intralinguistics). The following period of English history is partly based on the conventional periods; it subdivides the history of the English language into seven periods differing in linguistic situation and the nature of linguistic changes.

### OLD ENGLISH

The number of words borrowed from Latin and French, which now form so important part of English. Vocabulary would be somewhat limited in resources, and that while possessing adequate means of expression for the affairs of simple everyday life would find it embarrassed when it came to making the nice distinctions, which a literary language is called upon to express.

In a language, as in other things, necessity is the mother of invention and our means are limited. We often develop unusual resourcefulness in utilizing those means to the full. Such resourcefulness is a characteristic of Old English. The language in this stage shows great flexibility, a capacity for bending old words into new uses.

According to the estimates made by modern philologists, in the course of thousand years -from Old English to modern times-the English vocabulary has multiplied. Perhaps, if it were possible to count all the meanings expressed by lexical items in different historical periods, the figure would be much higher.

Among the changes in the vocabulary we distinguish losses of words or their meanings, replacements and additions.

Like many other lexical changes losses were connected with events in external history: with the changing conditions of life and obsolescence of many medieval

concepts and customs. Some regulations and institutions of OE kingdoms were cancelled forgotten in the ME period.

Some rituals of the religion were abandoned-after **of** introduction of Christianity, and their names dropped out **of** use, e.g. OE BLOT which meant 'sacrifice'.

It has been calculated that from 80% of the OE words went out **of** use in the succeeding periods. Most of these words were not simply lost; they were replaced by other words of the same or similar meanings.

### MIDDLE ENGLISH

Before the Middle English there was a period known as Early Middle English, starts after 1066, the year **of** Norman conquest, and covers the 12, 13th and half of the 14th c.

It was the stage of the greatest dialectal divergence caused by the feudal system and by foreign influences -Scandinavian French. The dialectal divisions of present-day English owes its origin this period of history.

Under Norman rule the official language in England was French rather its variety called Anglo-French or Anglo-Norman; it was also dominant language of literature. There is an obvious gap in the **English** literary tradition in the 12th c. The local dialects were mainly used **for oral** communication and were but little employed in writing.

### NEW ENGLISH

Before the NE period there was a period, as some linguists consider, of Early New English that lasted from the introduction of printing to the age of Shakespeare that is from 1475 to 1660. William Caxton published the first printed book in English in 1475.

This period is a sort of transition between the outstanding epochs of literary effloresces: the age of Chaucer and the age of Shakespeare (also known as the *Literary Renaissance*).

It was a time of great historical consequence under the growing capitalist system the country became economically and politically unified; the changes in the political and social structure, the progress of culture, education and literature favoured linguistic unity. The national English language accompanied the growth of the English nation.

Caxton's English of the printed books was a short bridge between the London literary English of the ME period and the language of the literary Renaissance. The London dialect had risen to prominence as a comprise between the various types of speech prevailing in the country and formed in the basis of the growing national literary language.

The early N.E period was a time of sweeping changes at all levels, in the first place lexical, the growth of the vocabulary was a natural reflection of the progress of culture in the new bourgeois society, and of the wider horizons of man's activity. New words and new meanings from internal and external sources enriched the vocabulary.

The other period of New English extends from the middle of 17 c. to the close of the 18th c. In the history of the language it is often called 'the age of normalization', in the

history of literature-the 'neoclassical age'. This age witnessed the establishment of 'norms', which can be defined as received standards recognized as correct at the given period. The norms were fixed as rules and prescriptions of correct usage in the numerous dictionaries and grammar books published at the time and were spread through education and writing.

Unlike the age of Shakespeare, the neoclassical period discouraged variety and free choice in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar.

The 12th c. has been called the period of fixing the pronunciation.

The great sounds shift was over and the pronunciation was being established. Word usage and grammatical construction were subjected to restriction and normalization. The morphological system, particularly the verb system, acquired a stricter symmetrical pattern. The formation of the new verbal grammatical categories was completed.

Modern English, from about 1500 to the present, has been a period of even wider borrowing. English still derives much of learned vocabulary from Latin and Greek. And the English word stock has also borrowed words from nearly all of the languages in Europe. From the period of the Renaissance voyages of discovery through the days when the sun never set up upon the British Empire and up to the present, a steady stream of new meanings has flowed into the language to match new objects.

In conclusion, it is to say, that the phonetical structure doesn't influence on the meaning of words, but as for grammatical structure, we can not deny, that it has an important influence on the semantic of vocabulary from stylistically point of view.

## CHAPTER 2
## Lexicology

Lexicology is the study of words and, whereas many readers will be new to the study of sounds or word segments, most of us feel that we are very familiar with words. Indeed, when we think of language we tend to think about words. We often ask: 'What's the word for a stamp-collector?' or say: 'I just can't think of the right word.' As we have already seen, words are only one of the strands in language, a strand that has, in the past, been given too much attention and a strand that, because of our familiarity with it, we have often failed to study as rigorously and as objectively as other aspects of language. In this chapter, we shall try, first of all, to say what a word is. We shall then consider word-formation and word classes. Other questions relating to words - their meaning and organisation - will be dealt with when we discuss semantics.

### What do we mean by 'word'?
In spite of our familiarity with 'words', it is not always easy to say what a word is. Certain scholars have suggested that a word can occur in isolation. This claim has some validity,

but would 'a' or 'my' or 'if' normally occur in isolation? They would not and yet we would like to think of such items as words. Others have suggested that a word contains one unit of meaning. This is perhaps true if we think of words like 'car' or 'snow', but when we think of sets of words like 'cow', 'bull' and 'calf ' or 'ewe', 'ram' and 'lamb', we become aware that the first set might be regarded as follows:

| cow => + noun<br>+ bovine<br>+ female | bull => + noun<br>+ bovine<br>+ male | calf => + noun<br>+ bovine<br>+ unmarked<br>sex |
|---|---|---|

and we could establish similar patterns for the second set. It would be hard to say, looking at our patterns, that the word 'cow' contains only one unit of meaning.

A better approach to defining words is to acknowledge that there is no one totally satisfactory definition, but that we can isolate four of the most frequently implied meanings of 'word': the **orthographic** word, the **morphological** word , the **lexical** word and the **semantic** word.

1. An **orthographic** word is one which has a space on either side of it. Thus, in the previous sentence, we have fourteen orthographic words. This definition applies only to the written medium, however, because in normal speech we rarely pause between words. Nevertheless, even in speech it is possible to isolate words by pausing between them.

2. A **morphological** word is a unique form. It considere form only and not meaning. 'Ball', for example, is one morphological word, even though it can refer to both a bouncing object and a dance. 'Ball' and 'balls' would be two morphological words because they are not identical in form.

3. A **lexical** word comprehends the various forms of items which are closely related by meaning. Thus, 'chair' and 'chairs' are two morphological words, but one lexical word. Similarly, 'take', 'takes', 'taking', 'taken' and 'took' are five morphological words but only one lexical word. Often in linguistics, when capital letters are used for a word, for example *take*, it implies that we are dealing with a lexical word and so *take* comprehends all the various forms, that is, 'take', 'takes', 'taking', taken' and 'took'.

4. A **semantic** word involves distinguishing between items which may be morphologically identical but differ in meaning We have seen above that 'ball' can have two distinct meanings. This phenomenon of 'polysemy' is common in English. Thus, 'table' can refer to a piece of furniture or to a diagram. The diagram and the piece of furniture are the same morphological word but they are two semantic words because they are not closely related in meaning.

**Word-formation**

We have already looked at some of the methods of word-formation in English. These can be summarised as follows:

| Suffixation: | man + ly > manly |
|---|---|
| Prefixation: | un + true > untrue |
| Affixation: | dis + taste + ful > distasteful |

As well as the above techniques of derivation, the commonest type of word-formation in English is called 'compounding', that is, joining two words together to form a third. Compounding frequently involves two nouns:

    book + case   >         bookcase

    sea + man    >         seaman

Occasionally, the possessive form of the first noun is used although apostrophes are not FOUND in the COMPOUND:

bull's + eye              > bullseye

lamb's + wool          > lambswool

Other parts of speech can, of course, combine to form new words and we provide selective examples of these below:

| *noun+verb* | |
|---|---|
| hair + do | hairdo |
| blood + shed | bloodshed |
| *adjective + noun* | |
| blue + bell | bluebell |

| | |
|---|---|
| hot + house | hothouse |
| *adjective + verb*  easy + going  wide + spread | easygoing  widespread |
| *verb + noun*  lock + jaw  scare + crow | lockjaw  scarecrow |
| *verb + adverb*  come + back  take + away | comeback  takeaway |
| *adverb + verb*  down + fall  out + cry | downfall  outcry |

Often, when the compound is new, whether it involves a prefix and a word or two words, a hyphen is used between the parts:

come-back

dis-inter

but, as the compound becomes more familiar, the hyphen is dropped. The main exception to this rule is that the hyphen is often retained when two vowels come together:

co-operation

multi-ethnic

take-off

New words are formed in English by four other processes: coinages, backformations, blends and acronyms. Words can be coined from existing material to represent a new invention or development:

wireless

television

hypermarket

Often, when the coinages refer to trade-names, untraditional spellings are used:

kleenex (tissues)

sqezy (washing-up liquid)

Backformations involve the use of analogy to create forms that are familar to ones already in existence in the language. Thus, recently we have derived:

gatecrash    **from**    gatecrasher

globetrot    **from**    globetrotter

pop    **from**    popular

Blends involve joining two words together by taking parts of both words and welding the parts into a new whole:

breakfast +lunch > brunch

chuckle + snort > chortle

motor + hotel > motel

*The* fourth technique involves creating words out of the initial letters of well-known organisations:

UNESCO *from* United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation

Laser *from*    Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation

**Word classes**

We have looked at the **form** of some English words and we shall now sort these words into classes according to the way they **function.** One crucial generalisation has to be made first, however. Words in English an function in many different ways. Thus 'round' can be a noun in:

He won the first round.

an adjective in:

She bought a round table for the dining room.

a verb in:

They rounded the corner at eighty miles an hour.

an adverb in:

The doctor will come round this evening.

and a preposition in:

He went round the track in four minutes.

In English, it is always essential to see how a word functions in a particular example before assigning it to a word class.

In spite of the flexibility of English words, we can use test frames to distinguish a number of word classes which we shall list and then describe:

nouns
determiners
pronouns
adjectives
verbs
adverbs
prepositions
conjunctions
exclamations/interjections

A **noun** has often been defined as the name of a person, animal, place, concept or thing. Thus **Michael, tiger, Leeds, grace** and **grass** are nouns. If you wish to test an item to see if it is a noun, you can use such test frames as:

(The) ……….seemed nice.

(This/these) ………..is/are good.

little……….

lovely……….

ancient……….

A **determiner** is an adjective-like word which precedes both adjectives and nouns and can fit into such frames as the following:

Have you……….wool?

I don't want……….cheese.

……….cat sat on……….woollen gloves.

*There are five main  kinds of determiners: articles such as a/an and* the *demonstratives; this, that, these, those; possessives my, your, his, her, its, our, their, numbers when they precede nouns as in 'one girl', 'first degree', 'seven hills'; indefinite determiners such as some, any,all, enough, no, both, each, every,few, much, more, most, fewer, less, either, neither.*

Determiners always indicate that a noun follows. Many indefinite determiners can function as other parts of speech. The words in italics below are used as determiners in column A and as pronouns in column B:

| A | B |
|---|---|
| I ate **some** bread | Give me **some.** |
| I haven't **any** money. | I don't want **any.** |

**Both** parents were late.       I saw **both.**

 *A pronoun* is, as its name suggests, similar to a noun in that it can take the place of a noun or a noun phrase:

John met his future wife on a train.

**He** met **her** on **it/one.**

Pronouns can fit into such test frames as:

………..don't know your name.

Give………..t o ………..

but the simplest test for a pronoun is to check if it can replace a noun or a noun phrase.

Pronouns in English can reflect number, case and person:

| *Person* | *Singular* | | Plural | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Nominative* | *Accusative* | *Nominative* | *Accusative* |
| first | I | me | we | us |
| second | You | you | you | you |
| third | He<br>She<br>It | him<br>her<br>it | they | them |

As well as reflecting nominative and accusative cases with all personal pronouns except **you** and **it,** English also has a set of seven possessive pronouns:

| *Person* | *Singular* | Plural |
|---|---|---|
| first | Mine | ours |
| second | Yours | yours |

| third | *His* | theirs |
|-------|-------|--------|
|       | hers  |        |
|       | its   |        |

As is clear from the two tables, natural gender is marked in the third person singular:

**He** lost his wallet. (that is, the man)

**She** lost her purse. (that is, the woman) *It* lost its railway link.
(that is, the city)

English has six other types of pronoun: reflexives such as **myself, themselves,** demonstratives **this, that, these, those-,** interrogatives **what?, which?, who?, whom?, whose?;** relatives **that, which, who, whom, whose-,** distributive pronouns which are often followed by 'of you': **all** (of you), **both** (of you), **each** (of you), **either** (of you), **neither** (of you); and a set of indefinite pronouns such as **some, any** and occasionally **so** and **such** in sentences like:

Who said **so?**

**Such** is the way of the world.

An **adjective** is a descriptive word that qualifies and describes nouns as in:

a **cold** day

a **heavy** shower

Adjectives occur in two main positions in a sentence, before nouns as in the above examples and after verbs like *be, become, grow, seem*

He is **tall.**

He became **angry.**

He grew **fiercer.**

He seems **content.** Adjectives can thus fill such frames as:

(The) …………men seemed very…………

(The) …………bread is not very………… .

A verb is often defined as a 'doing' word, a word that expresses an action:

John climbed a tree.

a process:

John turned green.

or a state:

John resembles his mother.

Verbs fit into such frames as:

They………… .
Did he…………that?
We might…………
She is…………ing.

There are two main types of verbs in English, headverbs and auxiliaries. A few examples will illustrate this. In sentences such as:

He hasn't seen me.

He was seen.

He didn't see me.

He might see me tomorrow.

The various forms of see are known as the headverb whereas **has, was, did** and **might** are called auxiliary verbs because they help to make more precise the information carried by the headverb. In English it is possible to have a maximum of four auxiliaires in the one verb phrase:

He may have been being followed.

Verbs that can replace 'may' are called 'modals'; *have*, in this context, is the 'perfective auxiliary'; the first *be* is the ' continuative' or progressive auxiliary'; and the second *be* is used to form 'passives', There is one other auxiliary in English, often called the 'dummy auxiliary' because it has little meaning but a great deal of structural significance. In the absence of other auxiliaries, *do* is used to turn positive statements into negatives or to create questions:

I like him.

I do not (don't) like him.

Do you like him?

Do you not (Don't you) like him?

An adverb is used to modify a verb, an adjective, a sentence or other adverb:

*John talked strangely.*
*He is dangerously ill.*
He was, **however,** the best person for the job.

He talked **very** strangely.

Adverbs fit into such test frames as:

He ran very…………

He is…………intelligent.

A preposition is a function word, such as **all, by, for, from, to** and **with.** Prepositions are always followed by a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun.

He talked **to** John.

He arrived **with** another man.

He did it **for** me.

Prepositions fit into such test frames as:

Who went………….John.

Do it…………me.

A **conjunction** is, as its name suggests, a 'joining' word. There are two types of conjunctions: co-ordinating conjunctions such as **and, but, so,** which join units of equal significance in a sentence:

John **and** Mary ran upstairs.

Give the parcel to John **but** give the money to Mary.

and subordinating conjunctions which join subordinate clauses to a main clause:

He wouldn't tell me **why** he did it.

He said **that** he was tired.

An **exclamation** may be described as an involuntary utterance expressing fear, pain, surprise:

Good lord!

Heavens above!

Oh dear!

The term 'interjection' is often reserved for monosyllabic utterances such as: Oh! Wow! Ouch!

In the written medium, both exclamations and interjections are marked by exclamation marks.

**Summary**

The foregoing survey is a superficial account of how words function in English. It will guide the Student in making decisions about word classes as long as it is remembered that each word must be judged in a specific context. Only context tells us that **any** is a determiner in the first sentence and a pronoun in the second:

Have you any **wool?**
Have you any?

that **up** is a preposition in the first sentence below, an adverb in the second and a verb in the third:
It ran up the clock.
I can't get up.
He has decided to up his prices.

**Exercises**

1. How many (a) Orthographic, **(b)** morphological, (c) lexical and (d) semantic words have we in each of the following lists?
   1.make, makes, making, made, maiden
   2.fire, fires, fir, firs, fur
   3.take, taken, took, taking, takings
   4.bass (fish), bass (singing voice), bass (tree bark)
   5.royal, regal, kingly (in the context 'royal/regal/kingly bearing')

2.Expand the following *compounds* by showing how the two parts are connected. (For example an 'applepie' can be expanded into 'a pie made from apples' and a 'bookcase' can be expanded into 'a case/container for books'.)

1.farmyard
2.fieldmouse
3.girlfriend
4.hothouse
5.playhouse
6.postman
7.raincoat
8.silkworm
9.steamboat
10. treehouse

3.Expand the following Compounds in the same way as in Exercise 2 and, where possible, say which parts of speech are involved in the Compound.

1.football
2.greenhouse
3.handsaw
4.highlife
5.lambswool
6.income
7.milkman
8.outlook
9.scarecrow
10.takeaway

4. Decide what part of speech each of the underlined words is.

1.<u>Come</u> <u>round</u> to see <u>us</u>.
2.<u>All</u> <u>fighting</u> stopped <u>immediately</u>.
3.<u>Did</u> you <u>hear</u> what your father said?
4.<u>To</u> <u>whom</u> did you give <u>that</u>?
5.John <u>and</u> Mary came <u>with</u> <u>their</u> parents.
6.<u>Hey</u>! Who told you to <u>do</u> that?
7.<u>Seeing</u> <u>is</u> believing<u>.</u>
8.He is <u>too</u> <u>happy</u> to go <u>out</u>.
9.I'm <u>terribly</u> <u>sorry</u> I took <u>yours</u>.
10.<u>What</u>  <u>can</u> you see <u>with</u> that?

# CHAPTER 3

## 1. WHAT IS SEMANTICS ?

Semantics is the study of linguistic meaning of words, phrases and sentences.

(In Turkish, it is called "anlambilim")

Subfields of semantics are;

1. lexical semantics (the meaning of words)
2. phrasal – sentential semantics (the meaning of phrases and sentences)

Another field of study which is closely related to semantics is pragmatics. It can be regarded as another subfield of semantics. Pragmatics is the study of context's contribution to the meaning. It analyzes how context affects meaning.

- Semantics analyzes the meaning of morphemes, words, phrases and sentences **in grammatical structures**.
- Semantics is a **part of grammar**. It analyzes the internal structures.
- The difference between semantics and pragmatics is that, semantics is a part of grammar but pragmatics does **NOT** analyze grammar. It analyzes context.

## 2. LEXICAL SEMANTICS

Lexical semantics analyzes the meanings of words and the meaning relationships between words. Words have meanings and their meanings are stored in our lexicon (our mental dictionary). We also have the knowledge of semantic properties of words helping to know the meaning of words. Those semantic properties are common for some words and help us to define the meaning of the words.

**For example :**

Take **"female"** and **"human**" as semantic properties.

When we analyze the meanings of words "man, woman, boy, girl", those properties will help us to understand the meanings of the words above.

**More Examples :**

The meanings of words have a great number of properties. Let's give some other examples of semantic properties.

- "niece, daughter, woman, girl"

Let's look at the semantic properties that the words share :

|  | niece | daughter | woman | girl |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| [female] | + | + | + | + |
| [adult] | - | - | + | - |

Find the words sharing the property of "animal".

The words " horse" and "cat" share the semantic property "animal".
These are some semantic properties for verbs as an example for semantic properties :

| Semantic Property | Verbs Having It |
|---|---|
| motion | bring, fall, plod, walk, run . . . |
| contact | hit, kiss, touch . . . |
| creation | build, imagine, make . . . |
| sense | see, hear, feel . . . |

*OVERLAP*

 If two words share **the same semantic properties**, these words overlaps

**Example** :  Let's analyze some words according to those semantic properties : *"human, female, adult"*
Here, the words "niece", "daughter" and "girl" share all the semantic properties. These three words overlap.

|  | niece | daughter | woman | girl | boy | man |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [human] | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| [female] | + | + | + | + | - | - |
| [adult] | - | - | + | - | - | + |

**SOME SEMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS :**

Words are related to each other in a number of ways. Those ways are called with words ending with the morpheme "-nym".

- ➢ Homonyms  (eş sesli), Polysemy (çokanlamlılık, yan anlam)
- ➢ Synonyms (eş anlamlı)
- ➢ Antonyms (zıt anlamlı)
- ➢ Hyponyms (alt anlamlılık)

**HOMONYMS :**

Words which have the same pronounciation but different meanings are called **homonyms (eşsesli).**

tale – tail          These words are pronounced in the same way.
                     However, their meanings are  different.
to – two – too       Their pronounciation is same.
                     Their meanings are different.

Homonyms must be pronounced in the same way. However, they may  or may not be spelled or written differently.  (Kelime farklı ya da aynı şekilde yazılabilir, telaffuzunun aynı olması önemlidir.)

Sometimes, homonyms can create **ambiguity.** If a word or sentence is understood in more than one way, it is **ambiguous.**

I will meet you by the **bank.**

 The word **bank** can be interpreted in 2 ways.

1) I will meet you by the bank which is a financial institution
2) I will meet you by the bank which means riverside.

*The word bank is ambiguous because it has two different meanings and we don't know which meaning is mentioned in the sentence.*

**POLYSEMY :**

When a word has multiple meanings that are related conceptually or historically **related,** it is **polysemous. (birden fazla ve birbiriyle alakalı anlamlara sahip kelime, yan anlamlı)**

bear : This word has more than one meaning. The meanings are related.
The meanings of the word **"bear"** :
1) to tolerate,
 2) to carry,
 3) to support

**SYNONYMS :**

The words which have different spelling and pronounciation but the same meaning are called **synonyms. (eş anlamlı kelime)**
**Examples :**
couch – sofa

yaşlı – ihtiyar

## ANTONYMS
The words which are opposite in meaning are called **antonyms. (zıt anlamlı kelime)**
**There are 3 types of antonyms :**
1. Complementary  (Binary) Antonyms
2. Gradable Antonyms
3. Relational (Converse) Antonyms

**1.      Complementary  (Binary) Antonyms**
There is no middle ground for complementary antonmys.
Dead / Alive
Someone is either alive or that. There is no middle ground.

Present / Absent
absent = not present
Someone is either absent or present. There is no middle ground.
*(Bunlar birbirini anlam oalrak tamamlayan ve tamamen zıtlık olan kelimelerdir. Örneğin, "var - yok "  Bir şey vardır ya da yoktur.)*

**2.      Gradable Antonyms**
They are not like binary antonyms. They are gradable pairs. There is middle ground.
Hot / Cold , Fast / Slow,  (something can be between hot and cold)
**(Bu tür zıt anlamlı kelimeler belli bir ölçüyü belirtir.  Arada bu ölçüleri, miktarları belirten başka kelimeler de olabilir.  )**

**3.      Relational (Converse) Antonyms**
These antonyms display a symmetry in their meaning.  They express the relationship from opposite perspective.
Buy / Sell, Give / Receive
If  X buys a pencils from Y, it means that Y sells the pencil to X.
*(Farklı bakış açılarından görülen, simetrik kelimelerdir. Örneğin, almak – satmak. X bir seyi alıyorsa, Y satıyor demektir.)*

## HYPONYMS :
We all know that red is a "color" word. Similarly, dog, cat and bird are animals.  Such words are called **hyponyms (alt anlam).**

"red" is the hyponym of color, "dog, cat, bird" are the hyponyms of animal.

## B) PHRASAL AND SENTENTIAL SEMANTICS
Phrasal and sentential semantics analyzes the units which are more than word, that is, meanings of phrases and sentences.  In other words, phrasal and sentential semantics examines the sentence and phrase meanings and the relationship among sentences and phrases.

There are some important concepts to be analyzed to learn phrase and sentence meaning. These are;

- Sense – Reference
- The "Truth" Condition

**1. Sense – Reference :**
**Sense :** Linguistic **sense** is the literal meaning of words and phrases. (anlam, tanım).

**For example :**

the president of the United States

the sense of this phrase : "head of state of USA"

**Reference :**

**That house is beautiful.**

In this sentence, if you see the noun phrase "that house" and refer to that specific house, the house that you see is the **referent**; and the noun phrase "that house" in the sentence has **reference**.

In other words, if the noun or noun phrase points to a **definite object,** that noun / noun phrase has **reference.**

**For Example :**

the president of the United States

the sense of this noun phrase : "head of state of USA" (the meaning)

the reference of this noun phrase : Barack Obama (the specific object)

**2. Truth :**
**"Truth"** is generally the concept showing if a sentence is true or not.

The **"truth conditions"** are the conditions showing under what circumstances the sentence is true.

There are 3 main types of sentences including 3 different types of "truth". These sentences are :

a. Analytic Sentences (true by definition)
   A bachelor is an unmarried man.

b. Contradictory Sentences (false sentences by virtue of language itself)
   A square is five – sided.

c. Synthetic Sentences (true or false sentences which requires verification by analyzing the world or situation.)
My neighbour is married. (You need to check your neigbour's marital status.)

**Some Related Terms :**

a) **Coreference :** If two phrases refer to the same thing, they are coreferential .
**For Example :**

1) The President of Turkey

2) Recep Tayyip Erdoğan

These two phrases refer to the same thing, they are **coreferantial**.

1) The President of Turkey

2) Recep Tayyip Erdoğan These two phrases **were** coreferential **5 years ago**, but now they are not coreferential.

b) **Referent:** If we refer to an object or show an object, that object becomes **referent.**

**For Example :**

**Look at that bird ! (There is a bird on the tree and the boy shows it.)**

In this sence **"that bird"** is referent.

c) **Extension :** Extension is the all referents for an expression. It is a general expression. It can be used as **sense.**

**For Example :** " I love birds"

In this sentence, bird is a general expression and identifies the whole birds, includes each types of birds. (Tek bir özel referent yok, daha cok kelimenin anlamı ön planda,)

d) **Prototype:** A typical member of the extension is called prototype.

**For Example :**

**A bluebird or a robin,** is the prototype of bird.

e) **Stereotype:** The list of characteristics describing a prototype is stereotype.

**For Example :**

- **They have two legs and two wings.**
- **They have feathers**

These characteristics are stereotypes of birds.

**f) Entailment :**

In some sentences, knowing the truth of a sentence entails or implies the truth of another sentence.

**Example :**

*Jack killed Mary.*

If we know that this sentence is true, then the sentence below is also true;

*Mary is dead.*

*"Martina passed chemistry course. "*

*If this sentence is true, "martina took chemistry" should also be true. The first sentence entails the second one.*

# PRAGMATICS

- ➢ **Types of Contexts**
- a) Linguistic Context
- b) Situational Context
- ➢ **Maxims of Conversation**
- ➢ **Speech Acts**
- ➢ **Presuppositions**
- ➢ **Deixis**

## WHAT IS PRAGMATICS?

A field of study which is closely related to semantics is **pragmatics.** It can be regarded as a subfield of semantics. Pragmatics is the study of **context**'s contribution to the meaning. It analyzes how **context** affects meaning.

While semantics is a part of grammar and deals with the internal structure of language, pragmatics is concerned with the interpretation of discourse in **context.**

There are 2 types of context :

1. **Linguistic Context:**
2. **Situational Context**

To understand linguistic and situational context, we need to understand the meaning of discourse :

*Discourse*

When we know a language, we are able to combine sentences to express our complex feelings, thoughts and ideas. These larger linguistic units are called **discourse.**

The study of discourse or discourse analysis deals with how speakers combine sentences into broader speech units.

Discourse  analysis involves :

- **questions of style**
- **appropriateness**
- **cohesiveness**
- **rhetorical force,**
- **topic / subtopic structure**
- **Differences between written and spoken discourse**


### 1.  Linguistic Context:

Linguistic context is **the discourse** that precedes  the phrase / sentence to be interpreted.

In other words; for some sentences, we need to know the previous  sentences to understand the meaning of that sentence. It is called linguisctic context.

*Amazingly, that surprised her.*

When we analyze this sentence, we don't exactly know what "that" or "her" refers to. We need to see the previous sentence to understand the meaning completely.

*Jack came to visit Mary. Amazingly, that surprised her.*

Now, the meaning of sentence is clear.

➢ While we are using "pronouns", linguistic context helps us to understand the references of those pronouns.

Look at the following discourse :

- It seems that the man loves Jenny.
- Many people thinks he loves her.
         Her = Jenny

In this discourse, the **previous** sentence helps us to understand to whom "her" refers.

Look at the following discourse :

- Jan saw **the boy with the telescope.**  Dan also saw **him.**
         him = the boy with the telescope

In this discourse, the **previous** sentence helps us to understand  that "him" refers to "the boy with the telescope"


### 2.  Situational Context

Situational Context is our knowledge about the **world.**

Situational context includes :

- ✓ the knowledge of who is speaking,
- ✓ the knowledge of who is listening,
- ✓ the knowledge of what objects are being discussed
- ✓ general facts about the world we live in.

Situational context requires the knowledge of the world. To understand some sentences, we need to know the real-world situations. For example :

Think that you saw a beggar on the street. The beggar asked you that question:
"Do you have any spare change ?"

With our real-world knowledge, we understand that the beggar does not wonder if we have any money, he requests for money. This is situational context which helped us to understand the meaning of the world.

**CHAPTER 3**

**General Introduction: Branches of Linguistics**

**Introduction**

Linguistics, which is commonly defined as the scientific study of language, is divided into a number of subfields according to the view that is adopted or the angle from which language study is approached. For instance, linguistics can offer the study of languages in general as well as that of a given language. It can trace the
development of a language in history or just make an account of it at a given point in time. It can focus its investigation on language as a system in itself and for itself as it can study how language operates in relation to other variables. It can be approached as purely theoretical or as applied in a particular field. Accordingly, Lyons (1981) distinguishes the field of linguistics into general vs. descriptive, diachronic vs. synchronic, micro vs. macro, and theoretical vs. applied.

**Features Common to All Languages**
There are a lot of questions that can be asked about language, some scientific, some not. One such question is: Which is the oldest language in the world? Several centuries ago,

researchers were much concerned with this question, however, it does not have a reliable answer, simply because we cannot go so far into the history of humanity.

Another often asked question is about the features that all natural human languages share. The American linguist Charles Hockett has pointed out a number of such properties.

Here are **7 properties** about the features common to all languages:
a) all languages have vowels and consonants;
b) all languages have words;
c) all languages can create new words when required and modify their meanings;
d) all languages are open-ended in the sense that they can produce totally new utterances which are understood by the users of the language;
e) all languages can form questions;
f) in all languages it is possible to talk about things and situations that are removed from the immediate situation of the speaker (this is called displacement);
g) in all languages we can use hypothetical, unreal, and fictional utterances.

## 1. General vs. Descriptive Linguistics
The distinction between general and descriptive linguistics "corresponds to the distinction between studying language in general and describing particular languages" (Lyons, 1981, p. 34). This, however, does not imply that the two branches are completely unrelated. Lyons (1981) emphasizes that general and descriptive linguistics depend on each other. While the former provides concepts and categories for languages to be analyzed on their bases, the latter works to provide data to confirm or refute the proposed theories and assumptions. For instance, it might be put forward by general linguistics that all languages have nouns and verbs.

Descriptive linguistics may reject this hypothesis with empirical evidence that in some languages there is no distinction between verbs and nouns. In the process of hypothesis confirming or refuting, the descriptive linguist operates using concepts provided by the general linguist, in this case the concepts of 'verbs' and 'nouns'.

## 2. Diachronic vs. Synchronic Linguistics
The terms 'diachronic' and 'synchronic' have first been coined by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure in the early twentieth century as technical terms to
stand for 'historical' and 'non-historical'. Diachronic has the literal meaning of across-time or what relates "to the changes in something, especially a language, that happen over time" (Diachronic, n.d.). Eventually, diachronic linguistics is the approach studying the change of languages over time (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). On the other hand, synchronic literally means with-time and generally relates to "a language at a particular point in time, without considering how it developed to that point" (Synchronic, n.d.). Synchronic linguistics therefore refers to the approach studying language at a particular period of time with no reference to its history or

development. In other words, "in a synchronic approach to describing a language, we focus on that language at one moment in time and describe it as we find it at that moment" (Trask, 2007, p. 287). Lyons (1981) summarizes the diachronic-synchronic distinction of linguistics as follows:

"A diachronic description of a language traces the historical development of the language and records the changes that have taken place in it between successive points in time: 'diachronic' is equivalent, therefore, to 'historical'. A synchronic description of a language is non-historical: it presents an account of the language as it is at some particular point in time. (p. 35)"

## 3. Microlinguistics vs. Macrolinguistics

Microlinguistics and macrolinguistics are terms given by Lyons (1981) to stand for the narrower and the broader scopes of linguistics respectively. In this regard, microlinguistics is devoted to the study of language structure without taking anything else into consideration. In short, it is the study of language system in itself and for itself. Macrolinguistics, on the other hand, is concerned with everything pertaining in any way at all to language use in the real world. Typical areas of microlinguistics investigation include the following:

• Phonetics: the study of speech sounds and how they are articulated, transmitted, and received.
• Phonology: the branch of linguistics which studies the sound systems of languages. While phonetics is chiefly concerned with the physical nature of speech sounds, phonology deals with the ways in which sounds behave in languages.

• Morphology: the branch of linguistics which studies word structure. It is the study of morphemes, their different forms, and the ways they combine in word formation.

• Syntax: the branch of linguistics studying sentence structure. Syntax is concerned with the ways in which words combine to form sentences and the rules governing the formation of sentences.

• Semantics: the branch of linguistics interested in meaning. Semantics studies how meaning is structured, and investigates the relation between linguistic expressions or words of a language and what they refer to in the real world (persons, things, events, etc.).

• Pragmatics: the study of language use in communication, particularly the relationships between sentences and the contexts in which they are used.

In macrolinguistics, interest is always placed on the study of language in relation to something in the real world, like 'socioliguistics' which refers to the

study of 'language' and 'society'. The following are some macrolinguistics areas of investigation as defined by Richards & Schmidt (2010):

• Sociolinguistics: the study of language in relation to social factors, that is social class, type and level of education, ethnic origin, etc.

• Psycholinguistics: the study of (a) the mental processes that a person uses in producing and understanding language, and (b) how humans learn language. Psycholinguistics includes the study of speech perception in addition to the role of memory, and other factors (social, psychological, etc.) in language use.

• Neurolinguistics: the study of the brain functions in language learning/use. Neurolinguistics includes research into how the structure of the brain influences language learning, how and in which parts of the brain language is stored, and how brain damage affects the ability to use language.

• Discourse Analysis or Text Linguistics: the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc.

• Forensic Linguistics: a branch that investigates issues of language in relation to the law. Issues of concern include forensic identification (speaker identification in legal cases through handwriting analysis or speech analysis); interpretation for the police and courts; the semantics of legal terminology (e.g. the legal meanings of murder, manslaughter, homicide); the discourse of police interrogations and legal proceedings; etc.

• Computational Linguistics: the scientific study of language from a computational perspective. Computational linguists are interested in providing computational models of natural language processing (both production and comprehension) and various kinds of linguistic phenomena. The work of computational linguists is incorporated into such practical applications as speech recognition systems, speech synthesis, automated voice response systems, web search engines, text editors, and language instruction materials.

• Anthropological Linguistics: a branch of linguistics which studies the relationship between language and culture in a community, e.g., its traditions, beliefs, and family structure. Sometimes anthropological linguistics investigations interfere with sociolinguistics and the ethnography of communication.

• Cognitive Linguistics: an approach to linguistics which stresses the interaction between language and cognition focusing on language as an instrument for organizing, processing, and conveying information.

## 4. Theoretical vs. Applied Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics aims through studying language and languages to construct "a theory of their structure and functions . . . without regard to any practical applications that the investigation of language and languages might have" (Lyons, 1981, p. 35). Applied linguistics, on the other hand, entails the "study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 29).

Applied linguistics uses information from a variety of disciplines in addition to linguistics (for instance, sociology, anthropology and information theory) to first develop theoretical models regarding language and language use and then use them in practical areas.

**Putting it together**
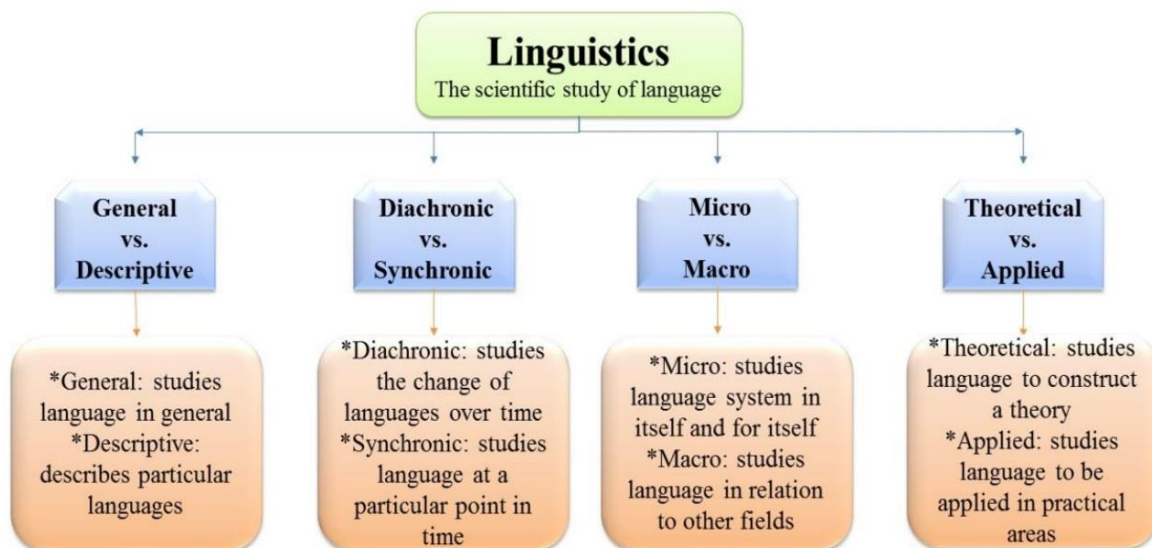


Figure 1 : Branches of Linguistics Summarized

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, it worth stressing that the aforementioned taxonomies may overlap. Applied linguistics, for instance, is commonly used as opposed to theoretical linguistics. Yet, in any applied linguistics practical investigation, there is always a theoretical model to start from. Some may consider applied linguistics a subfield of macrolinguistics, others see it the other way around. For diachronic, as in synchronic, interest can be placed on language in general (general linguistics) or on particular languages (descriptive linguistics) ending up with labels such as descriptive synchronic and general diachronic.

# CHAPTER 4

## History of linguistics and Applied Linguistics

Many "histories" of linguistics have been written over the last two hundred years, and since the 1970s linguistic historiography has become a specialized subfield, with conferences, professional organizations, and journals of its own. Works on the history of linguistics often had such goals as defending a particular school of thought or focusing on a particular topic or subfield, for example on the history of phonetics. Histories of linguistics often copied from one another, uncritically repeating popular but inaccurate interpretations; they also tended to see the history of linguistics as continuous and cumulative, though more recently some scholars have stressed the discontinuities. Also, the history of linguistics has had to deal with the vastness of the subject matter. Early developments in linguistics were considered part of philosophy, rhetoric, logic, psychology, biology, pedagogy, poetics, and religion, making it difficult to separate the history of linguistics from intellectual history in general, and, as a consequence, work in the history of linguistics has contributed also to the general history of ideas. Still, scholars have often interpreted the past based on modern linguistic thought, distorting how matters were seen in their own time. It is not possible to understand developments in linguistics without taking into account their historical and cultural contexts.

A number of linguistic traditions arose in antiquity, most as responses to linguistic change and religious concerns. For example, in the case of the Old-Babylonian tradition, when the first linguistic texts were composed, Sumerian, which was the language of religious and legal texts, was being replaced by Akkadian. This grammatical tradition emerged, by about 1900 BC and lasted 2,500 years, so that Sumerian could be learned and these texts could continue to be read. Most of the texts were administrative lists: inventories, receipts, and rosters. Some early texts for use in the scribal school were inventories (lists) of Sumerian nouns and their Akkadian equivalents. From this, grammatical analysis evolved in the sixth and fifth centuries BC; different forms of the same word, especially of verbs, were listed in a way that represented grammatical paradigms and matched them between the two languages (Gragg 1995, Hovdhaugen 1982).

## Applied Linguistics Defined

In their everyday practice, professionals whose work involves language may find themselves in difficult or problematic situations with no evident standard measures to take. In the course of employing linguistics insights to find solutions to problems of language use in a diversity of contexts, one becomes involved in what is known as an 'applied linguistics' research.

According to the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA), applied linguistics "is an interdisciplinary field of research and  practice dealing with

practical problems of language and communication that can be identified, analysed or solved by applying available theories, methods and results of Linguistics." The American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) maintains that the area of applied linguistics develops its own knowledge about language based on various disciplines, from humanities to social sciences, to address language-related issues and understand the roles for individuals and societies.

According to Widdowson (1984), the term applied linguistics implies that the "concern is with the use of findings from theoretical studies of language for the solution of problems of one sort or another arising in a different domain" (p. 7).

Brumfit (2018), for instance, sees that applied linguistics main quest is to offer solutions to "real-world problems in which language is a central issue" (cited in McCarthy, 2001, p. 1). Groom and Littlemore (2017) describe applied linguistics as "a subject with a potentially very wide appeal" because it is "a highly accessible field of academic study [that] focus[s] on practical problems, questions and issues in which language plays a central role" (p. 1). For McCarthy, it is a 'problem-driven discipline' that makes recourse to the 'theory-driven discipline' of linguistics striving for potential solutions. Similarly, Cook (2003) sustains that applied linguistics is the "academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the real world' (p. 5).

In the same vein, Schmitt and Celce-Muricia (2010) perceive the discipline as "using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world" (p. 1). Wilkins (1999) emphasizes that applied linguistics is about adding to our knowledge concerning the roles of language in human affairs to eventually provide "knowledge necessary for those who are responsible for taking language-related decisions whether the need for these arises in the classroom, the workplace, the law court, or the laboratory" (cited in Schmitt & Celce-Muricia, 2010, p. 1). Hrehovcik (2005), for his part, defines applied linguistics as

"an interdisciplinary field of research for the study of all aspects of language use. Being a non-language-specific field, it primarily deals with mother, foreign and second language acquisition but also examines the relationship between language and such areas as the media, law, or communication. It draws on such well established disciplines as linguistics, social and educational psychology, sociology, anthropology, and education. (Original emphasis, p. 217)"

In short, applied linguistics is not an easy discipline to define. In Davies's (2007) words, it "does not lend itself to an easy definition" (p. 1); in Widdowson's (2000), it is devoid of a "stable definition" (p. 3). One of the reasons behind this is the wide scope applied linguistics sets for its investigation, as well as the growing and everyday expanding uses of language with all the problems this may lead to. It is generally viewed, though, as the subject that draws from linguistics, psychology,

sociology, education and so on to address language-related problems in the real world.  Typically, any applied linguistics endeavour ends up with recommendations and suggestions for decision makers concerning the use of language in a given field.

**The Need for  Applied Linguistics**

Applied linguistics as a problem-driven area of investigation seeks to find to any of the following  **7 situations**:

1.  A speech therapist sets out to investigate why a four-year-old child has failed to develop normal linguistics skills for a child of that age.

2.  A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not.

3.  An expert witness in a criminal case tries to solve the problem of who exactly instigated a crime, working only with statements made to the police.

4.  An advertising copy writer searches for what would be the most effective use of language to target a particular social group in order to sell a product.

5.  A mother-tongue teacher needs to know what potential employers consider important in terms of a school-leaver's ability to  write  reports  or other business documents.

6.  A literary scholar suspects that an  anonymous work was in fact written by a very famous writer and looks for methods of investigating the hypothesis.

7.  A group of civil servants are tasked with standardizing language usage in their country, or deciding major aspects of language planning policy  that  will affect millions of people

The problems cited above are just examples of many others  that  fall within the scope of applied linguistics investigation. As it can be noticed, these problems are not exclusive to language teaching and learning,  but include other areas of interest where language is a central issue.

 On the other hand  McCarthy's **8  'situations'** in applied linguistics, are presented as follows:

1.  What language skills should children attain beyond basic literacy? (And what is basic literacy anyway? Reading and writing, or something more?)

2. Should children speaking a dialect be encouraged to maintain it or steered towards the standard form of a language? (And, if so, how is that standard form decided and by whom?)

3. Should the growth of English as  the international lingua franca be welcomed or deplored?

4. In communities with more than one language which ones should be used in schools? (And does every child have a right to be educated in the language they use at home?)

5. Is it better for people to learn each other's languages or use translations? (And what is accurate or 'good' translation? Could it ever be done by computer?)

6. Should deaf children learn a sign language, or a combination of lip reading and speaking? (And are sign languages as complex as spoken ones?)
7. Which languages should be used in law courts and official documents?
8. Should everyone learn foreign languages and, if so, which one or ones?

In order to approach such problems and questions from an applied linguistics' perspective, the right theoretical framework needs to be located first. In other words, what theoretical aspect of language study (or linguistics branch) is the most relevant to my area of concern? Then, a number of other questions need to be asked for the appropriate methods to be selected.

The following examples by McCarthy (2001) illustrate some potential linguistic questions for the solution of two different problematic situations: one related to teaching a target language's grammar, the other to dictionary making.
Example 1:
- A teacher trying to understand why learners from the same background are having difficulty with a particular grammatical structure in English.
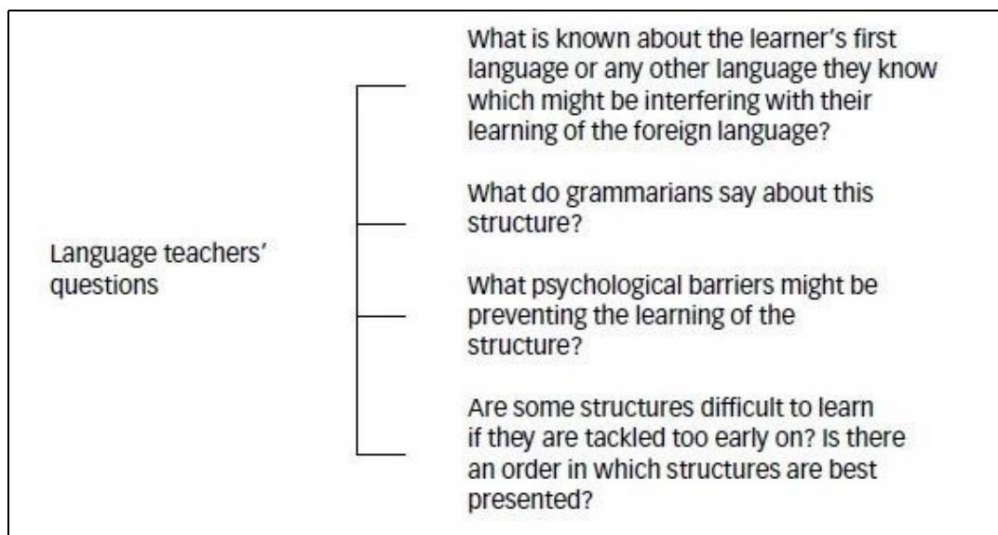


Figure 2: Potential linguistic questions for the solution of a grammatical problem (McCarthy, 2001, p. 8)

Example 2:
- A dictionary writer looking for alternatives to the alphabetical dictionary.
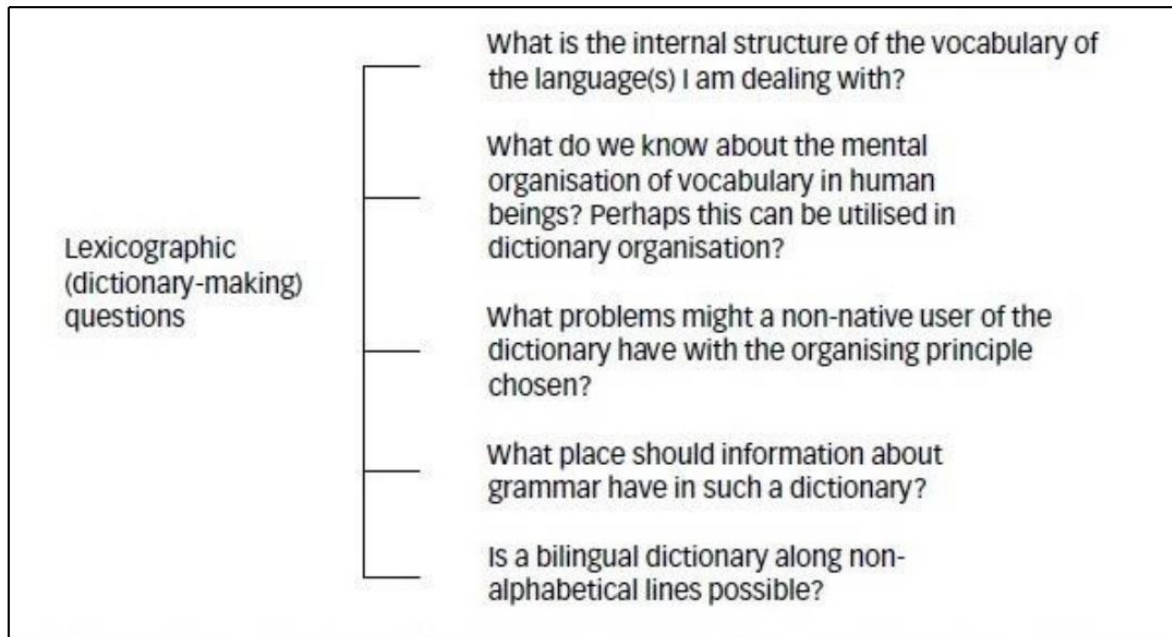
Figure 3 : Potential linguistic questions for the solution of a lexicographic problem (McCarthy, 2001, p. 8)

Though applied linguistics is "still a comparatively young subject" and establishing some boundaries of it is a difficult task (Groom & Littlemore, 2011, p. 7), some attempts have been made to identify an evident and independent scope for the discipline. Based on

The scope of applied linguistics **has 3 main** subclasses.

1. **Language and education**
   It includes:.
- First language education: the study of one's home language or languages
- Additional language education: generally divided into second and foreign language education. In second language education, one studies a society's majority or official language which is not a home language. In a foreign language education, the language studied is of another country.-
Clinical linguistics: the application of linguistic sciences and theories to the study of language disabilities and speech pathologies.
- Language testing: the assessment of the achievement and proficiency in both first and additional languages.

2. **Language, work and law**

It contains:
- Workplace communication: the study of the power and use of language in the workplace.
- Language planning: the process of making decisions about the way language is used officially in a given country and what language or languages are used in educational and other institutions.

- Forensic linguistics: the application of linguistics research and methods to the law and criminal investigations.

**3. Language, information and effect** includes;
- Literary stylistics: the analysis of linguistic choices and their effects in literature.
- Critical discourse analysis: studies the relationship between linguistic choices and their effects in persuasive uses of language. It investigates how language is used and analyzes texts and other discourse types in order to identify the ideology and values underlying them.
- Translation and interpretation: on the surface, the difference between interpreting and translation is the mode of expression. Interpreters deal with spoken language and translate orally, while translators deal with written text, transforming the source text into a comprehensible and equivalent target text.
- Information design: it has to do with the arrangement and presentation of written language. It is the practice of presenting information in a way that fosters efficient and effective understanding (e.g. advertisements, technical documentation, websites, product user interfaces, etc.).
- Lexicography: designing monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, and other language reference works such as thesauri (Cook, 2003, pp. 7-8).

**Applied linguistics has addressed THE FOLLOWING issues since its early beginnings**

1. Language teaching methodology: applied linguistics seeks to uncover the best teaching methods and techniques using classroom research.
2. Syllabus and materials design: researchers in this field are concerned with the order and the way in which learning material is presented to learners. Research in this area is also interested in what type of syllabus to be adopted depending on one's understanding of how language is structured and how it is learned.
3. Language testing: it is an important area of research into language teaching and learning where focus is placed on how learners' ability is assessed.
4. Language for specific purposes: it examines the characteristics of the different types of language with a view of how to teach learners/discourse communities to use these specific types in everyday communicative situations.
5. Second language acquisition: areas of interest here make for instance whether or not there is a natural constant order of acquisition across all language learning situations; the extent to which the acquisition of a second language resemble that of a first language; how language is organized in the minds of those who speak more than one language; etc.
6. Language policy and planning: the way language is controlled at international, national and local levels; the role of official languages in national identity; and what language(s) should be used as vehicle(s) of instruction at schools make examples of research interests for language planners and policy makers.

7. Forensic linguistics: it studies the relationship between language and the law, i.e., it looks at the use of language in the legal process like in the discourse of police, judges and lawyers as well as in courtroom discourse and legal documents.

8. Sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis: sociolinguistics investigates the relationship between language and society through variables such as accent, dialect and gender. Critical discourse analysts, on the other hand, adopt an explicitly political stance towards the analysis of that language-society relationship hoping to ameliorate social inequality and promote social justice.

9. Translation studies: as one of the topics that fall under the general rubric of applied linguistics, translation studies focus on the choices that people make when translating from one language to the other. These choices may vary between achieving loyalty to the original text and achieving naturalness in the target language.

10. Lexicography: research in lexicography, as the practice of compiling dictionaries, is focused on helping lexicographers in making decisions and on the look-up strategies deployed by dictionary users while consulting them(Groom & Littlemore, 2011, pp. 15-24).


**Linguistics and Applied Linguistics connection**

For applied linguistics to approach 'real-world problems in which language is a central issue', those problems must be related to relevant linguistics literature. Therefore, one way of looking at the linguistics-applied linguistics relationship is the first being that academic discipline interested in studying generalities of language and looking for abstract idealization, and the second as the practical discipline that bases on that theoretical knowledge to address language-related problems as experienced in the real world (Cook, 2003). This considered, it sounds like applied linguistics is a branch of linguistics, or at best a dependent area of study that is powerless and ineffective on its own.

It is true that linguistics is probably the nearest neighbor of applied linguistics and its main source of inspiration; however, applied linguists may find their quests in other disciplines without drawing on linguistics at all (Groom & Littlemore, 2011). Furthermore, applied linguistics may end up with it is own theories when no possible relation could be made between linguistics theories and the needs of people involved in the problem itself (Cook, 2003).

Eventually, applied linguistics uses but has never been completely dependent on linguistics theory as it can extend it, develop alternatives to it and even challenge dominant ideas within it. Groom and Littlemore (2011) summarize that relationship as follows:

"although applied linguistics enjoys a strong and productive working relationship with linguistics … [it] is not a branch of linguistics, or of any other academic discipline, for that matter. It is an academic subject area in its own right, with its own set of concerns, its own academic journals, its own professional associations, its own academic qualifications, and its own professional pathways. (p. 7).",

**Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition**

**Introduction**
By far, second language acquisition is one of the very pertinent areas for applied linguistics investigations. "Traditionally, the primary concern of applied linguistics has been second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two" (Schmitt, & Celce-Muricia, 2010, p. 2). In the early 1970s, contrastive linguistics was considered the most efficient approach to facilitate the process of second language education. Therefore, a number of subdisciplines have emerged under the umbrella of contrastive linguistics which still until today contribute to our understanding of the process of second language acquisition, and provide us with knowledge to enhance the practice of additional language education.

**1. Contrastive Analysis**
The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (henceforth CAH) came to existence when structural linguistics and behavioural psychology were very influential in the sixties as regards language teaching/learning. "Structuralism assumes that there is finite structure of a given language that can be documented and compared with another language" (Yang, 1992, p. 134). On the other hand, language under behaviourism is viewed as a system of habits where learning proceeds by producing a response to a stimulus and receiving either positive or negative reinforcement. As a consequence; while learning an additional language, the first language habits will interfere in the process and the focus of teaching should be on where the first and target languages differ.

The CAH originated from Lado's (1957) Linguistics across cultures where he made one of the strongest claims of the hypothesis: "we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student" (Lado, 1957: vii). He adds:

*In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the*
*key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning....We assume*
*that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will*
*find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult.*
*Those elements that are similar to his native language will be easy*
*for him and those elements that are different will be difficult. (pp. 1-2)*

Contrastive analysis (henceforth CA) entails the examination of similarities and differences between languages seeking to provide material for applied disciplines (such as translation or TEFL) as well as predicting possible areas of difficulty and error for second/foreign language learners. The analysis and comparison of languages entailed by contrastive analysis takes place at different levels (phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis, etc.). Focus is always placed on areas of

difference -which equals difficulty- to provide solutions for second/foreign language learning problems and adopt adequate instructional contents (Johansson, 2000). According to Fries (1945), the most efficient materials for teaching are based on a systematic analysis of the target language features and comparing them to those of the first language.

There are **three main assumptions** underlying the strong version of contrastive analysis
a) The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language,
b) These difficulties can be predicted by contrastive analysis,
c) Teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to reduce the effects of interference (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 119).

The premise of contrastive analysis is simple: through the process of learning an additional language, learners will unavoidably make recourse to their first language. If the two languages are similar, learning becomes easier or what is known as 'positive transfer' takes place; if they are different, transfer will occur negatively. Furthermore, it is believed that "the greater the difference between them, the more difficult they would be to acquire, whereas the more similar, the easier they would be to learn" (Lightbound, 2005, p. 66).

**At the operational level**, contrastive analysis goes through **four main** steps:
1) writing formal descriptions of the two languages, L1 and L2
2) picking forms from the descriptions for contrast,
3) making a contrast of the forms chosen, and
4) making a prediction of difficulty through the contrast.

Though contrastive analysis has achieved a great success in explaining language learners' difficulties, it has been subject to criticism regarding its foundations, assumptions and procedures. What comes is a summary of the main criticism addressed to contrastive analysis.

• The foundation of the CAH (Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis ) itself, behaviourism, was criticized. Language is not a collection of reinforced habits. Children learning an L1 may very often use the language creatively, not merely reproduce what they have heard.

Eventually, they come up with producing and understanding things they have never heard before. Evidence of internalized rules is shown in the production of forms like

*He goed. Similarly, second language learners do a lot of the same things (e.g., over-regularization of forms, like He comed).
• Many errors that second language learners make cannot be traced to influence of their L1.

• Transfer of habits or transfer from the first language does not seem to be consistent across languages. For instance, Zobl (1980) has found out that French learners of English failed to show evidence of a predicted error, but English learners of French did. In French, object pronouns generally come before the verb: Je les vois 'I see them (lit. I them see)'. In English object pronouns come after the verb: I see them. French learners of English never produced *I them see; however, English learners of French did produce things like *Je vois elle ('I see her' cf. Je la vois).

## 2. Error Analysis

Error analysis (henceforth EA) was developed in the 1960s to provide an alternative to CA in transfer research as the latter started to decline. Unlike CA which tries to predict learners' difficulty in learning an additional language based on how it is different from the first language, EA investigates their errors after being committed and considers them not only as an important, but also as a necessary part of language learning. According to Khansir (2012), EA emerged "to reveal that learner errors were not only because of the learner's native language but also they reflected some universal strategies" (p. 1027).Contrastive analysis considers interference from the first language as the major cause of errors. Error analysis, on the other hand, identifies other complex factors affecting the learning process and leading to some errors which are not due to negative transfer such as the target language itself, the communicative strategies used as well as the type and quality of instruction.

The errors encountered by learners are classified into **7 items**

1. Overgeneralizations: errors caused by extension of target language rules to inappropriate contexts.
2. Simplifications: errors resulting from learners producing simpler linguistic rules than those found in the target language.
3. Developmental errors: those reflecting natural stages of development.
4. Communication-based errors: errors resulting from strategies of communication.
5. Induced errors: those resulting from transfer of training.
6. Errors of avoidance: resulting from failure to use certain target language structures because they are thought to be too difficult.
7. Errors of overproduction: structures being used too frequently

## 3. Interlanguage Analysis

The term "interlanguage" was originally proposed by Selinker (1972) who defines it as "a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm" (p. 214). Interlanguage analysis is based on the principle that during the process of learning a second or a foreign language, learners might develop a system for themselves which is to some extent different from their first and target languages, but based on them at the same time.

In a related matter, Hakuta and Cancino (1977) maintain that "an interlanguage incorporates characteristics of both the native and the target language of the learner" (p. 297). This interlanguage, even if it takes place before the learner attains a good proficiency level in the target language, consists of a set of systematic rules that can be understood and described. Therefore, interlanguage analysis implies a continuum analysis of language learners' linguistic development with reference to L1 and L2 linguistic systems and the transitional competence of second language learners (Connor, 1996).

## 4. Contrastive Rhetoric

Contrastive rhetoric is an area of research that studies discourse differences between different languages and cultures as reflected in the writing of second/foreign language students (Xing et. al., 2008). The emergence of this field of study is attributed to the work of one man, the American applied linguist Robert Kaplan. Since Kaplan's (1966) seminal study, the field of contrastive rhetoric has come a long way from the analysis of international students' paragraphs in the late 1960s to the intercultural discipline it is today.

Kaplan based his work on the assumption that logic and rhetoric are interdependent and culture specific as well. Accordingly, different cultures impose different perspectives of the world, and different languages have different rhetorical patterns. In relation to this, Kaplan (1966) illustrates:
Logic (in the popular, rather than the logician's sense of the word),
which is the basis of rhetoric, is evolved out of a culture; it is not
universal. Rhetoric, then, is not universal either, but varies from
culture to culture and even from time to time within a given
culture. It is affected by canons of taste within a given culture a
given time. (p. 2)

Connor (1996) maintains that each language has its unique rhetorical conventions and that some of those conventions interfere in foreign language writing. Even if they use the correct grammar and the relevant vocabulary, non-native students' target language writing exhibits foreign-sounding structures that belong to the first language where many of their "sentences make more sense in the students' native language than in English…" (Bennui, 2008, p. 73). This weirdness in students' foreign language composition could be attributed to their unawareness of the target audience perceptions and expectations, as well as the organizational modes and the sociocultural context of their target language writing since "conventions of written discourse are shaped by culture, and thus differ cross-culturally…every culture defines its 'genres' by specifying their form, content, language, audience in a way that is not necessarily shared by other cultures" (Merrouche, 2006, p. 193).

Kaplan's (1966) article "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education" was the first in an ESL setting that was devoted to the study of rhetorics in writing, thus, extending the analysis beyond the sentence level. Kaplan's (1966) pioneering study analyzed the organization of paragraphs in ESL students' essays and indicated

that L1 rhetorical structures were evident in their L2 writing. Starting from a holistic analysis of more than 500 international students' English essays and on the basis of Aristotelian rhetoric and logic, Kaplan (1966) identified five types of paragraph development each reflecting different rhetorical tendencies and came to the conclusion that: "each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself, and that part of the learning of the particular language is the mastering of its logical system" (p. 14). The five original paragraph development types are described by Connor (2002) as follows:

"Anglo-European expository essays are developed linearly whereas
essays in Semitic languages use parallel coordinate clauses; those
in Oriental languages prefer an indirect approach, coming to the
point in the end; and those in Romance languages and in Russian
include material that, from a linear point of view, is irrelevant. (p. 494)"

Contrastive rhetoric emerged in the first place as a result to the growing number of international students enrolling in American universities which made American writing teachers and researchers interested in the distinct rhetorical styles exhibited in the writing of non-native students. Therefore; in orientation, contrastive rhetoric is fundamentally pedagogical and has "a significant impact on the teaching of writing in both ESL and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes" (Connor et al., 2008, p. 1).

Contrastive rhetoric, asserts Connor (1996), was originally developed to identify problems faced by non-native learners and try to explain them. It attempts to provide teachers and students with knowledge of the language-culture relationship and how written products by language learners reflect their discourse textual features and patterns of organization. However; According to Wang (2006), when reviewing his original study, Kaplan found that contrastive rhetoric can offer more than the analysis of rhetorical differences between languages. It can provide a cultural understanding as well as the right mechanisms that help students overcome their difficulties and produce effective L2 texts. Moreover, he acknowledged that its aim goes beyond pedagogy "to describe ways in which written texts operate in larger cultural contexts" (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; cited in Wang, 2006, p. 22).

After being limited in its early years of development to the study of students' essays, today after the increase in the types of written texts within second/foreign language education around the world, contrastive rhetoric's field of study has expanded to include writing in many EAP/ESP situations and continues to contribute in understanding cultural differences and in the teaching of ESL/EFL writing. Other important genres relevant to contrastive rhetoric field of study are the academic research articles, research reports and proposals in addition to writing for professional purposes, such as business.

In 2004 and after reviewing the goals, methods and achievements of research in contrastive rhetoric; Connor (2004) suggested a new umbrella term to stand for the

contemporary scope of cultural influences in second/foreign language writing. The term "intercultural rhetoric" was proposed by Connor after she came to realize the dynamic nature of writing and culture, and how writing in a given culture is closely attached to the intellectual history and the social structures of that specific culture. Connor (2004) points out:

"Changing definitions of written discourse analysis – from text based
 to context sensitive – and of culture – from static to dynamic
– contribute to the changing focus of intercultural rhetoric research,
a new term that better reflects the dynamic nature of the area of
study. (p. 302)"

The concept "intercultural rhetoric" came out to include cross-cultural studies as well as the interactive situations in which writers with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds negotiate L2 writing for varied purposes (Connor, 2008). Suggesting the term intercultural rhetoric instead of contrastive rhetoric was because the examination of differences between languages done by the latter is most likely to demonstrate one's language as inferior to another language (U. Connor, personal communication, May, 2005). Intercultural, on the other hand, emphasizes that international communication (speaking or writing) requires both parties to be involved, where the accommodation to each other's styles is necessary and goes both ways (ibid.). Intercultural rhetoric is a better term because it shifts attention from the pure contrast and possible stereotyping and encourages the examination of communication in action by studying how texts are created and how they are consumed i.e., focusing "on the social contexts of discourse" as well as the "processes that lead to the products" (Connor, 2004, p. 292).

**Conclusion**
Contrastive analysis, error analysis and interlanguage analysis rely in their inquiry on the structural approach of the studies in Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching. They operate through classifying utterances at their different linguistic levels regarding phonology, syntax, morphology and semantics. Contrastive rhetoric, on the other hand, compares discourse structures across cultures and genres to improve research in second/foreign language writing and to promote students' consciousness of the native culture/language and their effects on the target language composition.

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