



European Languages and Cultures  
Year 1  
Summary : Language and Society  
Made by Mark van Huizen

This summary was based on the course provided in 2017/2018. Readings and details might have changed. Use this summary as a reference but don't rely on it fully.

# Lecture 12/09

12 September 2017 08:54

## **Communicative competence:**

**Competence** -> the underlying knowledge of a language's structure

**Performance** -> the actual use of a language

**communicative competence** -> knowledge beyond grammar, knowing the socially appropriate rules for using a language.

## **Language:**

**Prescriptive grammar** -> rules about how you should speak

**Descriptive grammar** -> Rules about how people actually speak the language.

## **Language ideologies:**

Ideas about how and which language we speak, make us judge other people (Hierarchy)

### - **Standard language ideology:**

One dialect is superior to others. -> the standard is often thought about as more easily understood. (social reason not linguistic reason, more contact with the standard language).

There is nothing linguistically superior about the standard variety. It is considered better because people with power speak that way -> low dialects are dismissed as linguistically inferior, when they not. But they are spoken by people with low social status

**Hypercorrection:** people who don't speak the standard language (properly), monitor their speech and correct features they perceive as non-standard. -> overshooting these corrections is called **hypercorrection**. (For example, between you and I -> people avoid using me altogether)

### - **Normative Monolingualism**

There should be one language to create unity -> multilingualism disrupts this.

People who are multilingual should keep their languages separated. (Elite bilingualism)

## **Hegemony**

A language ideology is hegemonic when it is dominant through general consensus. This often involves naturalization: ideology is seen as part of the natural order of things, not as a cultural viewpoint -> hegemony is never complete, always competing ideologies.

## **Language vs dialect**

Mutual intelligibility: when we can understand each other. Not a good criterion. Depends on the individual speakers' background. (Danish, Norwegian and Swedish). There are also dialects that are not mutually unintelligible. Distinction not linguistic but social. -> a language is dialect with an army and a navy (aka socio-political status). The concept of a language is ideological and not linguistic.

## **Variation**

In languages there are multiple ways of expressing the same things. These different forms (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar) are called **variants**. Variants are often linked to social factors as region, age, gender, social class etc.

**Phonology** -> phonological variants are differences in pronunciation. (For example, Ich/Ech vs. Ik/Ek)

**Morphology** -> variants in morphology. (For example, -s marking on other forms than 3rd person singular -> It all depends how I get**S** on when I get**S** older.)

**Syntax** -> variations in word order in a sentence (For example -> Da hätte ich drehen können, changes to Da hätte ich können drehen)

### **Society**

**Speech community** -> people who share a way of speaking. A speech community has **shared norms** -> member of a speech community do not necessarily speak the same, but share norms about how they evaluate different ways of speaking (Labov 1972).

**Social networks** -> focus on links between people; who actually has contact with whom.

- **Dense** social networks, every member knows all the others
- **Low density** networks, one person knows everyone but they don't know each other

- **Multiplex** - multiple relation with one person (best friend AND neighbour)

### Community of practice

Defined in terms of practice: a group of people who engage in a common endeavour. -> develop their own 'language' (inside jokes and such).

### Speech community vs. Community of practice

☞ Bucholtz (1999, 207) critiques the speech community and advocates for the community of practice for the following reasons: ☞

- (a) the speech community take language as central; the community of practice focuses on contact between people as defining a community ☞
- (b) the speech community emphasis on consensus as the organizing principle of community; communities often contain different values CoP, continued ☞
- (c) the speech community contains a preference for studying central members of the community over those at the margins; the margins are important to define the center ☞
- (d) the speech community focuses on the group at the expense of individuals; the community of practice allows focus on individuals ☞
- (e) the speech community framework views identity as a set of static categories; identities are considered fluid and multiple in contemporary social theory ☞
- (f) Its valorization of researchers' interpretations over participants' own understandings of their practices.

### Relation between Language and Culture:

- No relationship?
- Language influences culture -> **Whorfian Hypothesis**: we do not perceive distinctions we do not have words for.
- Culture influences language -> Age-grading and heritage language use (going back to the language you learned when you were young)
- Bi-directional -> Linguistic distinctions can make us focus on social distinctions. Culturally important concepts are given names. Language changes to reflect changes in culture, but also plays a role in shaping society. For example, Politically correct language.

### Social Categories

Current social theory: **Social constructoinism** -> social categories are not fixed, but are socially constructed. **Social identities** are also viewed as socially constructed. -> Who I am is about me in relation to the people I interact with.

### Studying Language and society

- **Data collection** -> sociolinguistic interviews -> **observers paradox** we want to study people speech when they are not being observed, but we can only study speech by observing it.

### Seminar notes

#### Sapir and Whorf hypothesis:

- **Weak version**: linguistic categories and usage influence thought and certain kinds on non-linguistic behavior. (**linguistic relativity**)
- **Strong version**: language determines thought and linguistic categories limit and determine cognitive categories (**linguistic determinism**)

Language is not a prison of our minds

#### Politically correct (PC) language

People against PC language are not only insensitive, but they also deny the relationship between language and society.

# Lecture 19/09 - Multilingualism, Minority languages and Nations

19 September 2017 13:16

## Language policy and planning (LPP), two types:

1. Status planning: changes the function of a language -> making a minority language into an official one. May influence how the language is used in institutional contexts.  
Types of language status:
  - A promoted language = not official but used in various institutions f.i. English in higher education
  - A tolerated language = not promoted but also not discouraged
  - Proscribed language = A discouraged/prohibited language
2. Corpus planning: develops a variety of the language (this language is usually the standard language) -> development of an orthography, new sources of vocab or dictionaries/grammar books (these are descriptive because they reflect on common usage).

Example of status planning: **Russification** -> elevation of regional dialect to languages forced the need of Russian as a lingua franca. Led to flourishing of minority languages. Goal was not to eradicate minority languages, but to spread Russian. Ideologies in Russification: Common language as promoting unity. In this case multilingualism was tolerated, but usually it is banned and people are only allowed to use the nation language.

Example of corpus planning: Turkey -> Atatürk adopted roman script for Turkish (served to separate Turkey from their Islamic past). Was accompanied by a type of status planning -> Turkish was promoted as pure language, as mother tongue of all languages.

Ideologies in Turkish reform: Language purity -> one language is perceived as the best and therefore languages shouldn't be mixed. -> this is an illogical static view on languages, as languages are always changing.

**Normative monolingualism:** A single language is associated with national identity and minority languages are devalued.

**Monoglossic ideology:** one language is seen as dominant and monolingual discourse as normative (denying multilingualism)

## Minority languages in Europe

Definitions of Minority Language: numerically inferior groups of people who speak a language different from that of the majority. Are in a non dominant political position.

**Ideologies:** Minority languages are devalued through two ideologies: The monoglossic ideology and the standard language ideology, if the minority is not the standard. To some extent, seek to preserve their language.

**Language maintenance:** when minority languages continue to be spoken. Often, a minority language is spoken only in certain **Domains:** area of social life where a language is spoken.

**Language shift:** when members of a minority language begin speaking the majority language in all domains. (usually over several generations). Three sets of factors:

- Status factors: economic, social and historical status of the language
- Demographic factors: Population demographics, territorial distribution, birth rates, migrations
- Institutional support: Formally in media, education government services, informally in the workplace and religious activities.

**Lingua franca:** language used for communication for speakers of varied linguistic backgrounds.

## English as a:

- **Resource:** Learning English increases opportunities for employment and gives professional advancement. It can also provide personal advantages for travel and learning new cultural perspectives
- **Barrier:** through **Elite closure** -> when the elite successfully establish an official language that only they understand and use this to limit access of non-elite groups.
- **Threat:** English replaces the local languages in more domains. Cultural imperialism -> not only is the language taking over also cultural, political and economic ideas or taking over.

## What types of situations lead to multilingualism

1. Adjacent language regions: may or may not involve national boundaries
2. Movement of speakers from one area to another area where another language is spoken (Migration or colonialization)
3. Globalization: speakers learn languages through education, media, travel etc.

## Diglossia

A situation with 2 different codes (a High and a Low language), with clear functional separation. These codes are used in separate **domains** and there is **NO OVERLAP, NO MIXING!!!**

		DIGLOSSIA	
		+	-
BILINGUALISM	+	1. Both Diglossia and bilingualism	2. Bilingualism without diglossia
	-	3. Diglossia without bilingualism	4. Neither diglossia nor bilingualism

*Kinds of Extended Diglossia*

## Theories and concepts about multilingual discourse

- **Accommodation theory:** Speakers try to accommodate to the expectations others have of them (unconscious or deliberate). **Convergence** -> speaking MORE like the person your talking to. (can be seen as solidarity but also as mocking) **Divergence** -> speaking LESS like the person your talking to, through switching to another language or using a different vocabulary. (as a way of distancing yourself) Example: Study in Alsace (with the different shops)
- **Markedness model:** There are two different codes. The **unmarked** code which is the way you are expected to speak in a situation, and the **marked** code which is used to purposely challenge the situation your in and the way you speak. Markedness-distinction is not the same as diglossic distinction -> because the code can switch but that isn't possible with diglossia
- **Social identities:** We use language to construct our social identities, our identities are not the source but the outcome of how we use language. Different levels of social identities:
  - **Macro-level:** gender, sexuality, age. Ethnicity etc.
  - **Personal identities:** Being a parent, a linguist, a dog owner etc.
  - **Relational aspects of identities:** way of speaking may construct friendship, flirtation, any other form of relationship

# Lecture 26/09 - Semantics and pragmatics

26 September 2017 11:23

**Semantics:** Theories about meaning, how meanings are related to each other and meaning change.

**Pragmatics:** The cooperative principle and implicature, speech acts and politeness

**Lexical semantics:** The study of words and other lexical expressions (E.g. Different meanings of 'dog') **Compositional semantics:** How phrasal meanings are assembled (E.g. Combination of two words can totally change the meaning 'top dog' doesn't have anything to do with dogs).

## Aspects of meaning

**Sense:** Concept or mental picture as a word or expression. **Reference:** what is referred to by a word or expression.

## What is meaning?

The meaning of a word can be sought in **dictionary definitions**, however this uses words to describe words -> never-ending process.

Also through **Mental images** but these are inadequate to deal with complexities of meaning.

**Usage based definitions:** WE know the meaning of a word when we know how to use the word.

## Word reference

The actual person, object, event etc. that a word or sentence refers to. Problems: not everything has a real referent (unicorns/ a good comedy to watch). The same referent can be referred to in ways that mean different things.

## Denotation vs. Connotation

Nouns with the same **denotation** refer to the same thing. Also, the actual description of a word -> first entry in the dictionary.

**Connotation:** different ways to interpret the meaning of a word -> nouns with the same denotation can have different connotations aka showing a different attitude towards the referent.

## Deixis

Deictic expressions: words that have a different meaning depending on the situation in which they are produced. Reference depends on point of view.

- **Temporal** deixis: Now, yesterday or tomorrow -> dependent on the time of utterance
- **Spatial** deixis: here, there -> dependent on where the speaker is
- **Personal** deixis: me, you, we, they -> Dependent on who is speaking
- **Textual** deixis: dependent on what came before in a string of utterances.

## Relationships between words:

- **Hyponymy:** refers to something that refers to a bigger set (category: birds - hyponyms are dove, parrot etc.) Classifications differ across languages
- **Synonyms:** two words are synonyms when they have the same meaning/referent. However there are few true synonyms, because most synonyms are used at different times or by different people.
- **Antonymy:** two words with the opposite meanings. -> **gradable** words which can be placed a continuum a scale (large - small ca be kind of large/ kind of small). **Complementary:** mutually exclusive opposite (you can't be both) that are nongradable
- **Homophones:** words with the same pronunciation but with different spellings. (sea-see, too- two etc.)

## Compositional semantics

**Principle of compositionality:** the meaning of a sentence consists of the meaning of that words in that sentence and how they are combined. Idioms (he kicked the bucket) are phrases in which this principle fails -> the mean cannot be understood through the meaning of the parts of the

sentence.

### Semantic change:

- **Semantic Extensions:** words gain a larger set referents (OE *docga* was a particular kind of dog - ME *dog* is now the general class)
- **Semantic reduction:** Set of contexts or referents of a word decreases (MidE *girls* was a young person - ME *girl* is a FEMALE young person)
- **Semantic Elevation:** words gain a more positive meaning over time
- **Semantic degradations:** words gain a more negative meaning over time

### Pragmatics:

Pragmatics is the study of language in context. Utterances may have different meanings in different contexts. Types of context:

- **Linguistic context:** what has been said previously
- **Situational context:** the physical environment in which and utterance is made (where speakers are)
- **Social context:** the relationship between speakers.

### The cooperative principle

Conversation works because we understand some basic rules. We interpret utterances based on the assumption that we adhere to conversational **maxims**. Maxims can also be **flouted** -> purposely not adhering to the maxim -> results in **implicature** meaning something different than what your actually saying.

- **Maxim of quality:** Do not make utterances you believe are false (don't lie). Standardly we interpret utterances as being true. Flouting -> 'I love taking tests, I'm so excited.'
- **Maxim of quantity:** Provide all the information that is required, not too much not too little. Flouting -> not providing enough, or providing too much information.
- **Maxim of relevance:** Be relevant, and if utterances don't appear to be relevant we seek interpretations to make them relevant. Flouting: Are you coming to the party? I work the evening shift that night?
- **Maxim of manner:** Be brief and clear. Flouting: being unclear and langdradig

DON'T CONFUSE MAXIM OF QUANTITY WITH MAXIM OF MANNER.

### Speech acts

Basic idea: speaking is doing, language performance make things happen. Speech acts are categorized by function not by form. The same form can have many functions, and the same function can be fulfilled with different forms. Common speech acts:

- Assertion: conveys information
- Question: Asks for information
- Request: elicits (asks for) an action or information
- Promise: commits the speaker to an action
- Threat: commits the speaker to an action the hearer does not want

**Direct speech acts:** include a declaration of what they are. **Felicity conditions:** conditions that must be met for a speech act to be correctly (and honestly) performed.

**Promise:** The speaker must intend to do something, the speaker must believe the addressee wants them to do this. (If the addressee doesn't want it, it's a threat). **Request:** The speakers must want something from the addressee, and the speaker must believe the addressee is able to perform the action.

**Indirect speech acts:** give rise to implicature. Express desire and aske about ability but are meant as direct speech acts (requests). 'Could you pass the water'

### Politeness

Role of politeness is to avoid conflict and build rapport. Knowing a languages is knowing when to use what politeness strategies (communicative competence).

- **Indirectness:** Conversational implicatures for requests are considered to be more polite.
- **Pronouns:** Formal (T) vs. Informal (V). T creates solidarity while V creates difference in power. Symmetrical V -> most polite, symmetrical T -> most solidarity and asymmetrical use -> shows a power asymmetry. Usage of prounce is language and culturally specific and

depends heavily

on the context as well as other factors (Catrin Norrby, readings week 4)

- **Face theory**

### **Face theory**

The concept of face is having a positive self image. **Positive face:** the desire to be appreciated. Insults are a threat, and expressions of gratitude appeal to the positive face. **Negative face:** the desire to be left alone (not have demands made of you). Requests threaten the negative face, apologies recognize it.

**Positive politeness:** Giving a compliment and then making a request 'You're such an excellent financial planner, I bet you have some extra cash on hand'.

**Negative politeness:** Making an apology and then making a request 'I'm sorry to bother you, but could I lend some money?'

**Off record Face threatening acts (FTAs):** I don't know how I'm going to pay for this, I have a cash problem. Implicature that you want to lend money but this can always be denied, saying that is was just a statement and not a request

**Bald on-record FTA, unmitigated:** Lend me some money

How do we decide what strategies to use?

- **Social distance:** Generally we can be more face-threatening with people we know.
- **Power:** We are generally less face threatening with those who have power over us.
- **Ranking of the FTA:** we are more polite if something is a big imposition and the other way around.

# Lecture 03/10 - History of European language families

03 October 2017 11:12

## Comparative Indo-European linguistics

Very early linguistics (Ancient Greece/India), only had knowledge about their own language -> no comparative linguistics. Because of the spread of Christianity and the need to make the Bible understandable for as many people as possible, many languages were first written down. In the 16th and 17th centuries the search for the mother of all languages began (conclusion: usually Hebrew). There also was a movement for defending the vernacular version of the language (spoken by the people as opposed to the language spoken by the leaders). 18th century: discovery of Sanskrit, with sources from before 1000 before Christ. With a transparent morphological (how they formed words) structure. **Sir William Jones** studied Sanskrit, Latin and Greek -> starting point for Indo-European linguistics.

"The Sanscrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a **stronger affinity**, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, **than could possibly have been produced by accident**; so strong, indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from **some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists.**"

	Sanskrit	Latin
1 sin	Asmi	Sum
2 sin	Asi	Es
3 sin	Asti	Est
1 plu	Smas	Sumus
2 plu	Stha	Estis
3 plu	Santi	sunt

Example of this: the conjugation of to be in Sanskrit & Latin -> the consonants don't change, which is statistically unlikely -> therefore can't be chance so there must be a relationship.

## How do we compare languages?

There are three things you can compare when looking for languages similarities:

### 1. Comparing **Lexicon** (words)

When comparing words we look words with a similar origin -> **Cognates**. The problems with this kind of comparison are, **loan words** -> which are not proof of a common ancestor, **chance similarities** -> sound imitations (onomatopoeia), and **False cognates** words that are similar by chance and don't have a common ancestor.

The solution to these problems is specifying the words you are comparing to basic vocabulary, a.k.a. words that have always existed (water, rock, food etc.). Using this basic vocab gives the highest chance or reliable cognates.

### 2. Comparing **Phonology** (sounds)

When comparing sounds we look for regular sound correspondences in cognates within language families. F.I. centum languages vs. satem languages. Because of this difference in pronunciation we can distinguish a **isogloss** (language barrier or frontier) in Europe.

**Grimm's law**: I: unvoiced plosives -> unvoiced fricative. II: voiced plosives -> unvoiced plosives. III: voiced aspirated plosives -> voiced fricatives.

Why would language change: 1) ease of pronunciation -> relaxed plosive or because of the complexity of the sound. 2) Voice onset -> when you 'turn on' you vocal chords after a consonant

### 3. Comparing **Morphology and Syntax** (Grammar)

Comparing grammar is difficult because grammar changes a lot. **Morphology** -> endings are often reduced or disappear entirely and can be borrowed. **Syntax** -> limited options, parallel development in less-rated languages (F.I. some languages develop a case system but that doesn't mean that they are connected) and grammatical replication (**calquing**) -> Copying grammatical structures from other languages. (F.I. genitives in Dutch are only used in combinations with proper names or kinship terms. However in English, inanimate objects and animals can also have a genitive. -> Dutch is starting to copy this -> Mijn honds foto staat op andermans website

Before the Indo-European languages -> Germanic tribes settled in Northern Germany and Southern Scandinavia -> not the first inhabitants. Words of the language used by these older inhabitants were adopted into Proto-Germanic (**substrate influence**).

## Summary

Proto-Indo-European split up into subfamilies (Germanic, Slavic, Romance etc.).

The discovery of Sanskrit led to a golden age in linguistics including the reconstruction of Proto-Indo-European.

Non-Indo-European were and are spoken in Europe (F.I. Basque and languages from substrate influence)

## Grouping languages

Three major language groups in Europe:

- Germanic

Important shared characteristics:

- Word accents on the first syllable
- Strong and weak verbs (just like in Dutch, Strong verbs have sound change in the past tense)
- Strong verbs are often frequent -> else they wouldn't be strong verbs but just regular ones.

- Slavic

Important shared characteristics:

- Palatal and palatalised consonants (F.I. Za ža Z<sup>ʲ</sup>a Z<sup>ʲ</sup>ja)
- Extensive inflection systems (nouns and verbs) -> lots of cases like Slovenian -> 6 cases and 3 persons
- Complicated rules for word stress

- Romance

Relationship between Romance languages and Latin. Important changes:

- From synthetic to analytic constructions (mostly)

**Synthetic:** expresses grammatical relations by different word form (CASES)

**Analytic:** expresses grammatical relations without **inflection** -> process or word forming in which items are added to the end of the base to express grammatical meaning. (prepositions)

Classical Latin was synthetic and therefore had cases (nominative, genitive, dative etc.) F.I. *Mittere aliquid (accusative) alicui (dative)* -> Send something someone. However, vulgar Latin was more analytic. F.I. *Mittere aliquid (accusative) ad (PREPOSITION) aliquem (accusative)* -> Send something to someone.

- From analytic to synthetic constructions (sometimes)

	Classical Latin	Vulgar Latin	Old Spanish	Spanish
1 sg	Cantare habeo	*cantar ábeo	Cantar he	Cantaré
2 sg	Cantare habes	*cantár abes	Cantar has	Cantaras
3 sg	Cantare habet	*cantár abet	Cantar ha	Cantará
1 pl	Cantare habemus	*cantar abémus	Cantar hemos	Cataremos
2 pl	Cantare habetis	*cantar abétis	Cantar heis	Cantaréis
3 pl	Cantare habent	*cantár abunt	Cantar han	Cantarán

- Other changes in nouns: loss of neuter gender & development of definite article (bepaald lidwoord)
- Changes in verbs: Development of **periphrastic tense** -> usually addition of an auxiliary.
  - Classical Latin: *Audivi* 'I have heard'. -> Vulgar Latin: *audi(v)i*. -> Modern French: *J'ai entendu*.

▪ Classical Latin: <i>audior</i> 'I am heard' -> vulgar Latin: <i>auditus sum</i> -> Modern French: <i>Je suis entendu</i> .	
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- How do the Romance languages descend from Latin?

300-600 AD	600-700 AD	700-1000 AD	1100-1500 AD
<b>written / ecclesiastical / official language</b>			
Late Latin	Medieval Latin	Proto-Romance	<b>Old French Old Spanish Old Italian</b>
<b>vernacular language</b>			
Vulgar Latin →		Gallo-Romance Ibero-Romance Italo-Romance	

## From Latin to vernaculars

From the 15th century: major shift from Latin to Vernacular writing -> defence of the vernacular because it's just as good as Latin -> standardization of vernaculars -> What should the standard look like?

- Outcome 1: one dialect wins
- Outcome 2: dialect mixture

# Lecture 10/10 - Phonology

10 October 2017 11:00

## International phonetic Alphabet

IPA allows us to talk unambiguously about sounds and to read things that we wouldn't be able to read otherwise. -> it is used to give pronunciation guidance in f.i. dictionaries.

## Voicing

Airstreams are created by breathing out using the diaphragm and the intercostal muscles. -> air pressure is needed to create vibration with the vocal folds.

To produce sound we need air pressure not muscles, but to create different frequencies we do need to use our muscles.

## Articulation

We use articulation to shape the airstream and make different sounds -> **Vowels**: relatively unobstructed airstream.

**Consonants**: airstream is obstructed somewhere. -> obstructions are created with **articulators**:

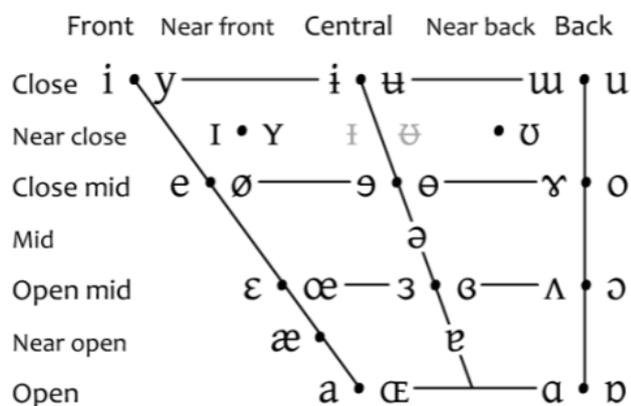
- **Active articulators** are things that move (Lips (labial) or the Tongue (tip = apex, back = dorsum)).
- **Passive articulators** are things that don't move. (teeth or the roof of the mouth aka palate)

## Articulation of vowels

Vowels are made with little obstruction in the airstream. We use our tongue and lips to shape the airstream creating different resonance chambers in our mouth and thus creating different sounds/vowels.

Vowels work as chords on a key guitar -> they consist of different sounds (notes) that produces the vowel (chord)

Screen clipping taken: 11/10/2017 14:26



Vowels at right & left of bullets are rounded & unrounded.

- Different levels of **Height**: High, mid- High, mid-Low and Low
- Different levels of **frontness**: front, central and back
- Different levels of **roundedness**: rounded and unrounded

## Articulation of consonants

1. We can use active articulators to completely block the airflow at the place of a particular passive articulator and create a **stop** aka **plosive**. Difference between [p] and [b] is voicing. -> unvoiced and voiced plosives.
2. By moving the active articulators very close to a particular passive articulator, and leaving a narrow opening for the air, we create a **fricative**. When fricatives and plosives are combined we create **affricatives**.
3. If you make a stop but simultaneously lower your velum so that air can pass through your nose, you make a **nasal**.
4. If you only move the active articulators a little bit, so that airflow is relatively unobstructed, we have **approximants** (vowel like sounds)

Nasals resemble vowels because there is free airflow but they are still considered as consonants -> there is no clear distinction between vowels and consonants.

Stops, fricatives and approximants are all **manner of articulation**

In principle the number of consonants and vowels is infinite -> languages only use a limited number because of distinctiveness. Using multiple consonants that sound almost the same would be too complicated. Languages also have more consonants than vowels because consonants are easier to differentiate.

## Categories of sounds

**Minimal pair test:** find words that differ only in the sound you're testing. If you change the sound you are testing and

the meaning of the word changes, they belong to different categories. For example: *seem* and *seen* differ in one consonant 'm' and 'n'. If you change one for the other the meaning changes -> different categories.

**Phonemes** -> the different categories of sounds. Phonemes distinguish meaning and are indicated with slash brackets. -> The 'm' and 'n' mentioned above are phonemes and should therefore be marked as /m/ and /n/. Different members of a phoneme category are called **allophones** (do not distinguish meaning). Allophones are indicated with square brackets -> [ʔ] is an allophone of /t/. When not referring to a system, sounds can also be called **phones**.

### Phonemic systems

Phonemic categories are created during first-language acquisition. Children learn to distinguish difference and they learn which differences matter and which don't. When learning a new categories your original categories might get in the way -> F.I. *bet* and *bat* for Dutch speakers because they are not trained to make those differences.

### Allophonic variation

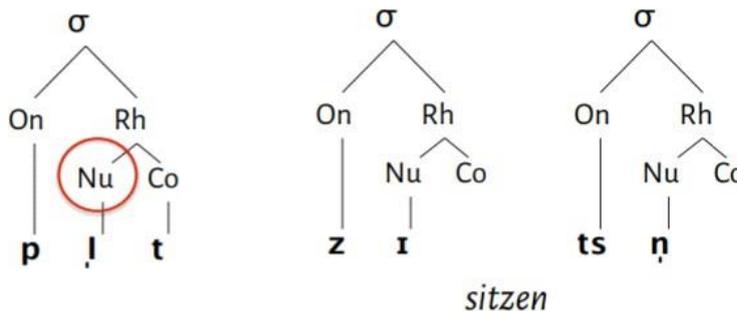
#### Assimilation

A phonological process that makes a sound similar to a neighbouring sound with regard to one or more characteristics. Two types: **regressive** assimilation: during the articulation of a particular sound, the speech organs anticipate some characteristic of a following sound. **Progressive** assimilation: during the articulation of a particular sound, the speech organs continue some characteristic of a preceding sound.

**Communicative trade-off**: phonological processes like assimilation are the result of ease of articulation for the speaker, but they make it difficult for the listener to understand. -> balance between minimising the amount of effort, but maximising efficiency. When the balance tips one way or the other the result is language change.

#### Syllable

A syllable is a phonological unit consisting of one or more sounds. A syllable is subdivided into an **onset**, **nucleus** and **coda** (nucleus + coda = **rhyme**). In every language a nucleus is compulsory, but it doesn't always have to be a vowel.



The most frequent syllable consists of Consonant - Vowel (CV). This is the most efficient structure for speech production because you use the consonant to build up airpressure to produce the vowel.

**Open syllables** don't have a coda, **closed syllables** do have a coda.

If CV syllables are ideal why do we have **consonant clusters**? -> possible explanation is the deletion of vowels from unstressed syllables (syncope) to maximize speech efficiency and minimize effort.

**Maximum onset principle**: in order to determine the border of a syllable, you set the consonant in the onset of the following, but you avoid impossible combinations. -> thumb rule: in most languages, syllables can begin and end with sounds words can begin and end with.

# Lecture 17/10 -Morphology

19 October 2017 16:49

## Morphemes

The smallest units of a language that carry meaning. Difference between phoneme and morpheme: morphemes **carry** meaning, phonemes **distinguish** meaning.

Example: Renationalisations -> you can't put the morphemes in any order, there are rules.

**Allomorphs**: different physical realisation (**morph**) of morphemes. For example: Cat**S**, dog**Z**, hors**I**Z (same morpheme 'plural' -s). Same place of articulation makes pronunciation easier. -> there is phonology present in morphology.

Allomorphs are often phonologically conditioned, but they can also be lexically determined (Oxen and Sheep).

## Free and bound morphemes

**Free** morphemes can stand alone. **Bound** morphemes cannot stand alone and must be attached to a free morpheme.

Bound morphemes are often **affixes**. Two types of affixes:

- **Lexical affixes** form separate 'dictionary entries' by being attached to bases (**derivation** -> also changes the word class)
- **Grammatical affixes** add grammatical meanings to the meaning of their bases (**inflection**).

They do not require a separate dictionary entry.

Difference: **Derivation** changes the meaning of the word, while **Inflection** only **ADDS** to the meaning of the word

## Inflectional morphology

Inflectional morphology add grammatical information to the meaning of the lexical base.

1. What is expressed on Indo-European nouns, pronouns and adjectives?
  - o Number (singular, plural, dual)
  - o Gender (masculine, feminine, neuter)
  - o Case (nominative, accusative etc.)
  - o Definiteness (in Scandinavian and Baltic languages)
2. **Portmanteau / interlock morpheme** are morphemes that express number, gender and case together in a single morpheme.
3. What is expressed on Indo-European verbs?
  - o Tense (past, present, future)
  - o Person (first, second, third)
  - o Number (plural, singular, dual)
  - o Mood (indicative, subjunctive)
4. Vowel mutations (umlaut)
5. Regular vowel alteration. For example, strong verbs in Germanic languages.
6. **Suppletion**: using etymologically unrelated forms in the same paradigm (F.I. *ben, is, was, zijn*). These 'irregular' forms probably were separate verbs in the past, but influential people decided how we should use them.

## Derivational morphology

Derivational morphemes turn a word into a different, often changing the word class of that word. The word gets a new meaning -> new dictionary entry. Always a bound + free morpheme. Words formed with derivational morphology have internal structure and cannot be made in any order.

## Compounding

A compound is a word containing two or more roots. The **head** of the compound determines word class and meaning. Compounds have internal structure too.

Most compounds are **endocentric**: the meaning is determined by the head. Different types of endocentric compounds:

- **Determinative**: one part semantically modifies the other. (school girl, rock star)

- **Copulative:** two semantic heads (blue-green, Dutch-American)

Other compounds are **exocentric:** the meaning is not (clearly) determined by the head:

- Often these exocentric compounds use a particular characteristic to denote the whole entity. (For example: roodborstje) -> these are called **bahivrihi-compounds**
- Other exocentric compounds describe the entity by what they do. (for example: dishwasher, lavaplatos, vaatwasser)

Other word formation strategies

- **Conversion (zero-derivation):** changes the word class without changing the form. For example, verbing -> just facebook me.
- **Back-formation:** incorrectly analyses a word as consisting of a base and an ending, and creates the supposed base as a new word. When a new word is formed by removing a morpheme. (raven (SG.) -> raaf + en (PL) -> raaf (SG))
- **Clipping (shortening):** deleting usually unstressed material from the word -> telephone -> phone. Sometimes involves adding some extra material. Communist -> commie.
- **Acronyms:** abbreviation pronounced as one word.
- **Initialisms:** abbreviations spelled out
- **Blending:** combining one part of one word with another part of another word to form a new word -> Hollywood + Zwolle = Zwollywood.
- **Reduplication:** repeating (part of) a word. In word formation: taaitaai. In inflection orang (person) orang-orang (people) to indicate plural.

# Lecture24/10 - Syntax

06 November 2017 10:59

## Human language faculty

The capabilities we have to use language. Theories:

- **Innate** -> there is something like a language organ that permits human beings to learn languages.
- **By product of other human characteristics** -> association faculty, imitation faculty, problem-resolving faculty and social behaviour (communication is necessary to make cooperation and social behaviour happen smoothly -> importance of a language).

## Language structure

Could be the result of:

- **Human behaviour** -> we try to communicate as best as we can with the lowest possible effort. Communication: maximum efficiency, Economy: minimum effort
- **Physical limitations** -> There are certain sounds that are impossible to pronounce, and we prefer easier sounds. We also need to breathe to stay alive -> limits our ability to speak.

## Double articulation of language

A fundamental characteristic of human communication and implies that human languages consists of two levels:

1. Meaningless sound units (**phonemes**) -> they do however **DISTINGUISH** meaning.
2. Meaningful sound units (**Morphemes**) -> they **CARRY** meaning.

As opposed to animal languages, which are less elaborate.

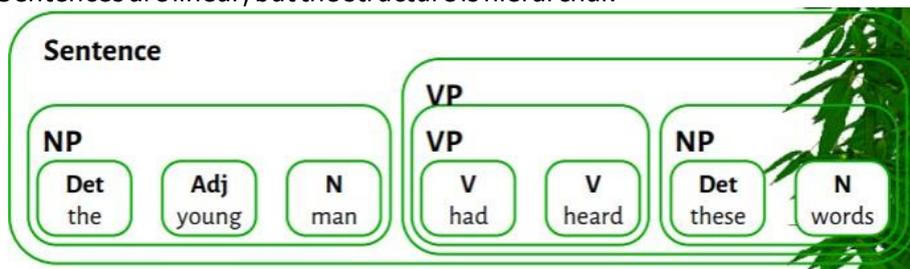
## Structure and meaning

Based on human behaviour and the **Economy principle** -> minimum effort, maximum efficiency.

- Why do some languages have case? Case provides information on the role of entities in a sentence (nominative: entity executes an action, accusative: entity undergoes an action, etc.). -> word order is not necessary to indicate the roles of entities -> **free word order** (to some extent). Languages that don't have case, provide information on the role of entities through word order -> **fixed word order**.
- Why do some languages have **agreement** (matching the gender/quantity of the adjective to the noun -> la casa roja). Has the communicative function of indicating what belongs to what. Language without agreement indicate what belongs together by marking beginning and end.
- Economy principle applied to structures without cases: Inflected verb is central and surrounded by participants, suggested by the meaning of the verb as satellites. Central entities do not need a prepositions (**economical reason**), peripheral entities do need a prepositions (**communicative reason**).

## Sentence structure

Sentences are linear, but the structure is hierarchal.



The different **phrases** form the **constituents** of the sentence. -> these are **recursive**: phrases contain other phrases, which can contain other phrases etc.

### Different phrases:

- Noun phrase (**NP**): the head of the phrase is a noun or a pronoun
- Verb phrase (**VP**): the head of the phrase is verb. May contain more than one verb (incl.

auxiliaries) and, in some languages objects and particles. (For example: Las gisteren de krant uit. 'de krant' = object and 'uit' = particle)

- Prepositions phrase (**PP**): always contains two parts: the prepositions and its **complement**. (op het dak). Some languages have postpositions (het dak op) or prepositions stranding (het dak komt hij niet meer op)
- Adjective phrases (**AdjP**). Can have an adverb with it. For example, Very nice.
- Adverbial phrases (**AdvP**). Head is an adverb

### Predicates and arguments

A predicate is a verb, noun or adjective. Each predicate has a set of arguments, the number of required arguments is called **valency**.

- **Avalent** (0)
- **Monovalent** (1)
- **Divalent** (2)
- **Trivalent** (3)

### Typological harmony

Typological harmony means that there are patterns across different phrase structures and sentence structure.: **SOV** (head final) or **SVO** (had initial).

Experiment to find out which structure is used throughout all languages: describe events in speech in gestures. -> when the participants were asked to describe an event in gestures, they all used the same structure, regardless of the language they spoke. (**SOV**). Evidence that SOV is the basic word order.

Statistical condition universal: 'if X, then often also Y'

HEAD-INITIAL LANGUAGES	HEAD-FINAL LANGUAGES
Verb - Object	Object - Verb
Noun - Adjective	Adjective - Noun
Noun - Possessive	Possessive - Noun
Preposition - Complement	Complement - Postposition
no cases	cases

### Universalism

Types of universals:

- **Unconditional, absolute**: All languages have X
- **Unconditional, statistical**: Most languages have X
- **Conditional, absolute**: If a language has X, then also Y
- **Conditional, statistical**: If a language has X, then often also Y.

# Language history, Language change

29 September 2017 18:12

## Language relationship

**Sir William Jones:** similarities between certain languages of India and Europe were too great to be attributed to chance and can only be explained by assuming there was common ancestor. This idea, primarily announced by **Dante**, already had a precedent -> Romance languages being derived from Latin. Similar with Indian languages being derived from Sanskrit.

Attempts at making longer-range comparisons were less successful. European language were assumed to be derived from Hebrew and Indian languages from Sanskrit -> not true.

During the Renaissance scholars like **Dante** attempted to reform Latin to make it more like the Latin from the Antiquity -> realized there were vast differences in Latin languages learned in Spain, Italy, France etc. -> they began advocating use of these vernaculars.

Religious reformers translated the bible into these vernacular languages -> cultivation of these languages expanded even further.

Furthermore, Greek was added as a scholarly language due to the Ottoman Turks conquering the Byzantine Empire and Greek scholars fleeing to the west. Another consequence of the Ottoman conquering, was a blockade of trade routes -> looking for other routes -> sea routes -> discovery of the Americas and colonialism. A result of this was an attempt at establishing families on basis of vocabulary similarities. Some attempts were naïve, but some attempts were remarkably mature.

## Proto-Indo-European

Because of Sir William Jones' discovery comparative linguistics research went beyond the stage of superficial comparison of individual words -> instead started comparing hundreds/thousands of words.

One of the most important developments was **Grimm's Law** -> consonant system of the Germanic languages differed from the other European languages in a systematic way. -> encouraged scholars to look for similar regularities in other European languages. As a result of this work linguists were able to reconstruct **Proto-Indo-European**.

## Indo-European languages

Sir William Jones was a judge in the East India Company and was therefore educated in Latin and Greek. Because of the law system in India, the laws were written in two different languages (Sanskrit and Persian) he started to study Sanskrit and also Persian. -> that was when he found out about the similarities and made the conclusion about the common ancestor.

# Address practices

29 September 2017 18:15

## Introduction

How we address each other is key to expressing social relationships. Address practices are closely linked to cultural values and what is considered the correct address varies not only across cultures but also depends on contextual factors.

## Overview of address research

**Brown and Gilman** -> made a distinction between polite pronouns (V-pronouns) and familiar pronouns (T-pronouns). Reciprocal (weerderzijds) use of the T-/V-pronouns was seen as showing solidarity while non-reciprocal use was seen as showing a difference in power.

**Braun** -> question the universal validity of the system mentioned above. She argued that speakers' characteristics should be taken into account.

Brown and Gilman also predicted that the T-pronoun would take over -> broad generalization reality much more complicated (f.i. Spanish showing variation in national varieties in terms of number of pronouns and when they are used).

Research by Clyne et al. Shows a cyclical development and not a linear development towards the taking over of T. -> when T takes over V will reappear after some time.

**Conclusion:** these examples demonstrate the importance of social stratification when it comes to choice of pronoun. Instead, people operate according to a range of personal opinions -> different usage in different groups of society.

## From uniformity and static categories to diversity and negotiation of meaning

The arrival of sociolinguistics sparked an interest in the variation of address patterns between social groups within a speech community.

Traditionally V was default for speaking to strangers and T was default while speaking with family and friends. -> however due to the sociopolitical changes during the '60's this system was challenged -> However, recently the spread of T has halted and V reappeared.

Recent work has identified a range of factors that influence the choice of pronouns -> Age of speakers, whether they know each other, the type of interaction, and the degree of mutual empathy. **Morford** -> not only depends on the relationships but also the setting.

Manifestation of identity and self-presentation through use of address pronouns. -> the view that pronoun choices can exclude people from a group and create social distance and can even be used as an insult (**Hickey**) He argues **that choices of pronouns is a conscious act.**

## Common ground and social distance

Common ground is useful for determining the role of shared assumptions, beliefs and knowledge in social interactions. It can be established at a personal or at a communal level. Common ground can help us understand how interactions between strangers work. (useful for exploring **sameness**)

Social distance (**difference**) can be seen as the overarching principle that guides the pronoun choice.

Multiple dimensions:

- **Affective dimension:** can range from emotional closeness to rejection
- **Solidarity:** perceived or real similarities or dissimilarities
- **Familiarity:** extent of shared knowledge (friends or complete strangers)

Both are relational categories (not stable but varying in the interactional context). -> address practices or about inclusion AND exclusion.

## Important factors in address choice

Importance of social distance and common ground in understanding address practices, but also traditional social categories are fundamental. For example **age**.

In **Clyne et al.** They found out that in French and German the onset of mature adulthood triggered the shift from T to V. But the age reports very significantly. It is also clear the identity of the interlocutor, the way they present themselves and the situation will have an influence on the address choice.

### **Perceived commonalities**

For French and German, when meeting people for the first time, sameness is the salient category that promotes use of T. Physical appearance, clothing and behaviour can also play a role in establishing common ground. In Sweden the lack of similarities leads to use of V -> Here difference is the salient factor, because T is the standard pronoun.

### **Institution, domain and medium**

Another area examined by **Clyne et al.** is the importance of institution, domain and medium (family, school, workplace etc.) For example, the use of T with one's parents or within a family is dominant.

### **Emerging areas of Address research**

New area is computer-mediated communication. For example, address choice in chatrooms and forums, in which the rules for address pronouns can be established by the community or by moderators.

Another new area is cross-cultural variation in address practices. Firstly, the address use in pluricentric languages (languages with more than one national centre, f.i. German in Germany and Austria) Example: **Havu:** difference in address choice in different francophone cities by students, which could be explained by geographic location and the size of the city.

Secondly, cross-cultural variation in address discussed in light of transnational communication in a globalized economy. F.I. **Norrby and Hajek** -> H&M and IKEA websites address visitors with T, also in countries where this isn't standard.

Thirdly, as a topic in studies of language acquisition and bilingualism. F.I. **Belz and Kiringer** examining the use of T/V by people how learn French and German through computer. -> learning the appropriate patterns is not just about learning the rules but also about being corrected by native speakers.

### **Conclusion**

Read the entire conclusion in the text -> everything in there is important.

# Models of linguistic change

03 October 2017 18:31

Two traditional models of linguistic change:

1. **Family-tree Model:** this model is used to show how languages, which belong to the same language family, are connected. This model represents the diversification of languages over the years. It's a classification of the languages belonging to a certain family and how closely they are related. The Family-tree Model is linked to the comparative method and with the Neogrammarian notion of regularity of sound change. Two basic assumptions of this model:

- 1) Sound change is regular (**Neogrammarian hypothesis**)
- 2) There is no subsequent contact between the sister languages after they separated from the proto-language.

Genetic relationship, the one shown by the Family-tree Model, is not the only relationship that exists between languages - F.I. languages can also borrow from each other.

2. **Wave theory:** intended to deal with changes due to contact among languages and dialects. Linguistic changes spread outwards concentrically like waves, which become weaker the further they travel from the centre. Later changes may not cover the same area -> overlap and unclear boundaries. Opposite of Neogrammarian hypothesis. **Dialectologists:** *each word has its own history*. A word's history might be the result of the various influences from various directions, and this can be different for every word. (**Dialectologists findings**)

Neither model is sufficient for explaining all linguistic change and all sorts of relationships that can exist between language. Both are needed.

**Dialectology:** deals with regional variation in a language. Basic concepts of dialectology:

- **Isogloss:** a line on a map which represents a geographical boundary/limit of regional linguistic variants.
- **Bundles of isoglosses:** several isoglosses whose reaches coincide at the same geographical boundary -> such boundaries constitute the boundaries or the area of a certain dialect.
- **Focal area:** zone of prestige from which innovations spread outwards (Paris in France, at least, in the past)
- **Relic (residual) area:** a usually small area where these innovations have not yet taken place and thus preserve older forms -> usually difficult to access
- **Lect:** a term that serves to include any linguistic variety, no matter what they are defined by (Geographical distribution, social classes etc.)
- **Mutual intelligibility:** when speakers of different linguistic entities can understand one another. Criterion for distinguishing dialects from other languages. -> not a straight forward criterion because of
  - Non-reciprocal intelligibility (Spanish and Portuguese)
  - Non-immediate intelligibility -> after some time intelligibility grows
- **Language:** definition not strictly linguistic but also determined by political or social factors. (Max Weinreich: *A language is a dialect with an army and a navy*)

Dialectology is often linked with making of the wave theory with the 'every word has its own history' slogan. It also significantly influenced Neogrammarians' slogan. Although both orientations contradict each other they were both influenced by dialectology.

## Framework for investigating the cause of language change

The framework for investigating the cause of language change provided by **Weinreich** poses several problems that must be solved by any theory that wants to explain language change:

1. **The constraints problem:** what are the general constraints on change that determine possible and impossible changes and directions of change? -> leads to a search on what kinds of linguistic change is not possible
2. **The transition problem:** How (what route/routes) does language change? What is the process/What steps were taken?
3. **The embedding problem:** How is a language change embedded in the surrounding systems? How does the environment influence the linguistic change?

4. **The evaluation problem:** How do the members of the speech community evaluate the change,

and how does the evaluation influence that change.

5. **The actuation problem:** Why does a linguistic change happen at the particular time and place it happens. This question is the most central, because all the other questions are connected to this one.

### **Sociolinguistics and language change**

Change typically starts with a variation, an alternate way of saying the same thing, entering a language. -> sociolinguistics is relevant to understanding how and why languages change. -> Variation in language can be conditioned by social categories as age, gender, social status etc. Two types of sociolinguistic investigation of change: 1) **Apparent-time studies** -> a **variable** (A linguistic trait which is subject to change) is investigated at one particular point in time. 2)

**Real-time studies** -> compare samples of language from different times.

Claims about of linguistic change which have been made based on large-scale sociolinguistic investigations:

1. Linguistic change originates from the intermediate class, not the highest of the lowest class.
2. The innovators of a change are usually the people with the highest local status
3. These innovators have the highest number of social interactions inside and outside their speech community
4. Women lead most linguistic changes, because they accept it sooner than men.
5. Different ethnic groups that enter a speech community can only influence or start a linguistic change when they are accepted and have a rightful place in said speech community.

A number of linguists claim that it is the speakers that change and not so much the language itself -> makes linguistic change social change. -> most linguists disagree because some aspects of linguistic change require non-social factors as explanation.

### **The issue of lexical diffusion**

**Lexical diffusion** -> sound change is not implemented by mechanically affecting every instance of a sound regardless of the particular words in which instances of the sound are found (= Neogrammarian position), but rather as change affecting the sound in certain words and this change gradually diffusing to other words. -> very few cases have been reported.

# The sound patterns of a Language

10 October 2017 16:22

**Phonology** -> is the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language. Is about the underlying design of each sound type (Not about how the sound types are actually used -> phonology is **prescriptive**). Phonology is concerned with the abstract representation of sounds in our minds that enables us to recognize and interpret the meaning of words on the basis of actual physical sounds we say and hear.

**Phonemes** -> meaning-distinguishing sounds in a language. (the letters in the alphabet) -> phoneme /t/ is described as a sound type of which different spoken versions of [t] are tokens. Essential property of a phoneme is its **contrastive** function -> if we substitute one sound for another and the meaning of the word changes, the sound is a phoneme.

Phonemes that share same features (f.i. both are unvoiced and stops) are members of a **natural class** of phonemes. -> phonemes in the same natural class tend to behave similarly.

**Phones** -> different versions of phonemes that are produced in actual speech.

**Allophone** -> a set of phones all of which are versions of the same phoneme.

Difference between phonemes and allophones -> when you substitute a phoneme for another will result in a different meaning of the word, but substituting allophones will only change the pronunciation and not the meaning.

**Minimal pair** -> two words identical in form except for a contrast in one phoneme, occurring in the same position.

**Minimal set** -> a set of words that can be differentiated, each one from the others, by changing one phoneme (big, rig, pig, wig, dig)

**Phonotactics** -> constraints on the sequence or position of English phonemes. (or permitted arrangements of sounds)

**Syllable**-> syllables consist of an **onset** (one or more consonants) followed by the **Rhyme**. The rhyme consists of a vowel (**nucleus**) and any following consonant(s) (the **coda**). So: Onset, nucleus, coda. **Open syllables** have no coda, **closed syllables** do have a coda. Consonant clusters

**Coarticulation** (the process of making one sound almost at the same time as the next sound) **effects:**

- **Assimilation:** when two sound segments occur in sequence and some aspect of one segment is copied by the other. (Have to go -> hafta go)
- **Nasalization:** the anticipation of forming the final nasal consonant (*pin* or *pan*) will make it easier to go into the nasalized articulation in advance.
- **Elision:** the process of not pronouncing a sound segment that might be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word (interest -> intrest)

# Phonetics - Peter Roach

12 October 2017 21:29

## Speech chain

We produce speech -> speech travels through the air in waves -> sounds are received by the ear of the listener. One very important part missing: **the Brain**: sends out the commands necessary for producing speech and constantly receives feedback in the form of sounds of the speech that is being produced.

## Phonetics

**Ideographic writing system**: an alphabet where symbols represent ideas, not sounds (For example, our numeric symbols).

**Phonemes**: the distinctive sounds of a language.

**Allophones**: a sound which is a special way of pronouncing a phoneme.

## The larynx (strottehoofd)

**The larynx** is an important part in speech production because it contains the **vocal folds**. If we use them to let the air vibrate, we call that **voicing** or **phonation**. If we close the vocal folds and prevent air from escaping, we call that a **glottal stop**.

# Forming new words - Sam Goldwyn

18 October 2017 14:23

**Morphology** -> the study of how words can be broken down into meaningful constituents (bestanddelen)

## The word and its parts

**Compounding:** a process of forming new words.

**Morphemes:** smallest constituents of a word that carry meaning (Unhelpful -> Un-help-ful)

- **Free morphemes:** are morphemes that can exist on their own (Help)
- **Bound morphemes:** are morphemes that cannot exist on their own ('Un' and 'Ful')

**Morph:** a physical realization of a morpheme

**Allomorphs:** variations in realizations of one morpheme (for example, plural -s or -es has three allomorphs in Speech: cat**S**, dog**Z** and church**IZ**)

**Prefixes** are added in front of the root or stem (**UN**helpful)

**Suffixes** are added at the end of a root or stem (unhelp**FUL**)

With the word 'unhelpful' 'ful' can be added to the **root** to form 'helpful' but 'un' can only be added to the **stem** 'helpful' to form 'unhelpful' ('Unhelp' doesn't exist)

**Infixes:** bound morphemes that are inserted into another morpheme (fan-fucking-tastic)

**Derivational morphemes.:** are used to form new words, but can also change the word class of a word turning a noun into a verb for example. Irregular in distribution and often irregular in meaning. (arrival (the act of arriving) vs. recital (music performance). The same suffix but different meaning)

**Inflectional morphemes:** variation of the word to indicate a grammatical notion such as plural or past tense. General in distribution (for example, the past tense can be added to any verb and always means the same)

Difference between **derivational and inflectional:** derivational needs multiple dictionary entries because words have different meanings (helpful -> unhelpful). Inflectional doesn't need multiple dictionary entries (book -> books)

**Portmanteau morph:** holds more than one morpheme (two meanings pack in one. Took: verb, past tense) and we cannot find evidence of separate morphs.

## Compounds

Compounds are distinguishable by the fact that the compound bears a strong stress on the first word of the compound, whereas phrases stress the last word.

The connection between the different parts of a compound is not always clear (For example, bookmaker. It would seem a bookmaker is someone who makes books, but a bookmaker is someone who takes bets and gambles at sports events)

Some words originated as compounds but through subsequent reduction, they don't look like compounds anymore (daisy -> day's eye)

## Prefixes and suffixes

**Diminutive suffix:** makes something small (libro -> libretto). Often changes the meaning of the words in other ways than just making it smaller (Cigarette -> small cigar, but no means a different sort of smoke-thing). Words with diminutive suffixes also tend to get overtone of affection (Dog -> doggy makes it cuter)

**Combining forms:** words where we aren't sure if they contain a prefix or suffix, but they have no root if we say they have both. ( For example, telephone, telescope, telegraph)

## Back formation

A word that seems to contain an affix, but historically speaking doesn't contain one. Babysitter -> babysit + er, but babysitter existed before the verb to babysit, so there is no suffix.

## Zero derivation

Zero derivation is derivation without changing the word. The word class changes (noun -> verb) but the word itself doesn't (text and to text).

Derivation often changes the meaning of the word (Ghost and to ghost have different meanings)

**Blending**

The process of taking one part from one word and another part of another word and putting them together to form a new word (Smoke + fog = smog)

**Shortening**

Abbreviating a word. This process can change the meaning of a word (fan - fanatic, you can be a fan without being fanatic), this is one of the reasons why shortening is considered a process of forming new words.

**Alphabetism and acronyms**

**Alphabetisms or initialisms** are compounds abbreviated into letters of which you pronounce every letter separately (C.I.A.). **Acronyms** are abbreviations of which you pronounce the letters as one word (NATO).

**Reduplication**

Is the use of duplicating a word, or part of a word, to form new words or as means of inflection. It can make a noun into plural (kuda-Kuda - horses) or change a verb.

**From proper name to common**

Quite a number of nouns derive their name from the names of people or objects. These trade names are often perceived as generic -> people don't think about where the word comes from.

**Taboo and euphemism**

The main significance of taboo in the context of creating new words is that it give rise to euphemism, nice-sounding alternatives.

# The simple sentence (Syntax)

01 November 2017 13:16

**Syntax** -> A set of rules used to combine words into phrases and sentences

## **Predicate and Argument**

**Predicate**-> expresses a property of an entity or a relationship between entities. These entities are the **arguments** of the predicate:

- 1-place predicates: Sleep, yawn, cough, etc. These predicates have only one argument
- 2-place predicates: See, like, hit, bite, etc. These predicates have two arguments
- 3-place predicates: Give. These predicates have three arguments.

Predicates are not necessarily verbs, they can also be prepositions, adjectives or nouns. The essential feature of a sentence is that it contains a predication.

In English, a valid sentence must also contain a finite verb, For example, to be. When the verb is used to link the subject and the predicate, it is referred to as the **Copula**.

## **Phrase structure**

A sentence consists of a hierarchy of phrases, with each phrase being a constituent of a larger one. There are different phrases: **Noun phrases** (the head is a noun or a pronoun), **prepositional phrases** (the head is preposition), **adjective phrases** (the head is an adjective), **adverbial phrases** (the head is an adverb) and **verb phrases** (the head is a verb).

## **Grammatical relations**

**Complements** are obligatory arguments that belong to a predicate.

**Adjuncts** are optional arguments that belong to a predicate -> *Sneeze* (to sneeze / to sneeze on something)

**Grammatical relations: Subject, object and indirect object.**

**Transitive verbs** are verbs that, in active tense, always require a direct object (for example, *to close* -> *to close something. This something is obligatory.*

**Intransitive verbs** are verb that don't need a direct object.

# The great Eskimo vocabulary hoax - Pulliam

02 November 2017 20:28

Eskimos have hundreds of different words for snow -> **not true**. **Laura Martin** tried to combat this myth by writing a paper, but she failed. Because we know so little about this group of nomads we are prepared to believe almost anything, according to Martin. The myth is based on almost nothing at all. It has been developed due to scholarly sloppiness and popular eagerness to embrace facts about exotic communities.

First introduced by **Franz Boas**. He stated that English expresses different sorts of snow with phrases involving the root snow (falling snow, drifting snow, etc.), but things could have been different, just as the words regarding water in English don't have the root water (liquid, river, sea, lake, etc.). -> After that, **Whorf** stated that there were even more different words for snow -> after that we have **Brown** continuing on Whorf's statement, but saying there are only three words for snow -> we even have fourth-hand accounts based on Brown.

**Key point:** the Eskimo vocabulary hoax serves to remind us of the intellectual protection to be found in the careful use of sources, the clear presentation of evidence and the constant evaluation of our assumptions.