Abbess Laghrour university of Khenchela
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Module: Linguistics **Dept. of Letters and Foreign Languages** **Level: First Year LMD**
English Division

Major Objectives of Linguistics

Modern linguists concern themselves with many different facets of language: how languages are structured, how languages are used, and how they change.

1. Language Structure

Perhaps the most important fundamental assumption is that human language at all levels is rule-governed. Every known language has systematic rules governing pronunciation, word formation, and grammatical construction. Furthermore, the way in which meanings are associated with words, phrases, and sentences of a language is characterized by regular rules. Rules of language structure operate at various levels:

Language Levels	Category of Rules
Phonological level	Linguistic rules at this level describe how sounds are pronounced in various positions.
Morphological level	Rules of morphology focus on how words (and parts of words) are structured.
Syntactic level	Rules of language structure at this level deal extensively with how phrases, clauses, and sentences are structured.
Semantic level	Linguistic rules at this level specify precisely what words mean and how they combine into sentence meanings.
Pragmatic level	Linguistic rules at this level specify how the meaning of an utterance is interpreted differently according to situation.

For example, at the level of syntax, one common way languages are classified is to group them according to the dominant word orders that they exhibit:

Word order	Examples of languages
Subject Object Verb	Hindi, Japanese, Kurdish, Latin, Persian, Turkish
Subject Verb Object	English, French, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Mandarin, Vietnamese
Verb Subject Object	Arabic, Aramaic, Hebrew, Irish
Verb Object Subject	Aneityan (Austronesia), Baure (Bolivia)
Object Verb Subject	Apalai (ancient Indo-European language of northwest Anatolia)

At the beginning of the 20th century, the attention of the world's linguists turned more and more to the study of grammar—in the technical sense of the term grammar includes the study of the organization of the sound system of a language and the internal structure of its words and sentences. By the 1920s, the programme of 'structural linguistics', inspired in large part by the ideas of the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, was developing sophisticated methods of grammatical analysis.

2. Language Use

Linguistics concerns itself with all the different aspects of how people use language. How you speak depends on such factors as ***where*** you grew up, your ***racial*** and ***ethnic*** identity, whether you are a ***woman*** or ***man***, ***whom*** you are ***addressing***, your ***job***, and your ***education***. That is, you use the variation in language as a creative means of expressing who you are (and who you are not). Technical terms such as ***standard language***, ***dialect***, ***accent***, ***register***, ***Jargon***, and ***Slang*** are used by linguists to refer to different variations of language use.

a. standard language: a variety of a language considered by its speakers to be most appropriate in formal and educational contexts. For example, the sentence "Many students are ill" is written in Standard English whereas the sentence "Lots of students are ill" is not.

b. dialect: a regional or social variety of a language in terms of grammar and vocabulary. For example, the English of London is noticeably different from the English of Birmingham, Liverpool, Glasgow, New York, New Orleans, or Sydney. For example,

British English	American English
elevator	lift
flat	apartment
first floor	ground floor
He **dived** into the pool	He **dove** into the pool
We should leave by ten **to/past** eight	We should leave by ten **of/after** eight

c. accent: a regional or social variety of a language in terms of pronunciation, a particular way of pronouncing a language. As far as English is concerned, we can cite many examples of accents: American accent, Scottish accent, working-class London accent, French accent, Indian accent, Spanish accent, etc.

e. register: a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific context, which may be identified as situational (e.g. in church), occupational (e.g. among lawyers) or topical (e.g. talking about language). We can recognize specific features that occur in the religious register (*Ye shall be blessed by Him in times of tribulation*), the legal register (*The plaintiff is ready to take the witness stand*) and even the linguistics register (*In the morphology of this dialect there are fewer inflectional suffixes*).

g. Jargon: special technical vocabulary associated with a specific area of work or interest. For instance, the underlined words in the sentence *Zanoxyn is a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug for arthritis, bursitis and tendonitis* are an example of medical jargon.

f. Slang: slang is more typically used among those who are outside established higher-status groups. Slang, or "colloquial speech," describes words or phrases that are used instead of more everyday terms among younger speakers and other groups with special interests. The word 'bucks' (for dollars or money) has been a slang expression for more than a hundred years, but the addition of 'mega-' ('a lot of') in 'megabucks' is amore recent innovation, and 'benjamins' (from Benjamin Franklin, on $100 bills).

3. Language Change

Language change is both obvious and rather mysterious. Historical linguistics is concerned with both the description and explanation of language change. All languages undergo change over time. Linguists study language change by addressing the following questions: Can we trace the evolutionary path of a language? How do language changes spread through communities? How do historical circumstances influence language change?

a. The Historical Evolution of English

English has undergone continuous and dramatic change throughout its four major periods: Old English (roughly from 450 to 1100), Middle English (from 1100 to 1500), Early Modern English (from 1500 to 1700) and Modern English (from 1700 to the present). While Chaucer's Middle English is at least partially comprehensible today, Old English looks like a completely foreign language.

Old English	Modern English
Alegdon tha tomiddes maerne theoden Haeleth hiofende hlaford leofne Ongunnon tha on beorge bael-fyra maest Wigend weccan wudu-rec astah Sweart ofer swiothole swogende leg Wope bewunden ***(Beowulf,* 7th century)**	The sorrowing soldiers then laid the glorious prince, their dear lord, in the middle. Then on the hill the war-men began to light the greast of funeral fires. The wood-smoke rose black above the flames, the noisy fire, mixed with sorrowful cries.

Middle English	Modern English
—Lo, which a great thing is affeccioun! Men may die of imaginacioun, **(Geoffrey Chaucer, *The Canterbury Tales*, about 1387)**	—Lo, which a great thing is affection! Men may die of imagination,

Early Modern English	Modern English
DUNCAN: Whence cam'st thou, worthy thane? **(William Shakespeare, *Macbeth*, about 1606-7)**	**DUNCAN:** Where did you come from, worthy Lord?

The Existence of such differences between early and later variants of the same language raises questions as to how and why such languages change over time. Language change occurs mainly as a result of events that are related to political, economic, social, religious, educational, and technological factors such as wars, invasions, the spread of education, new inventions, immigration, new religions, etc.

b. Aspects of Language Change

- **Sound Change:** Changes in sound are somewhat harder to document, but at least as interesting. In a number of changes from Middle to Modern English, some sounds disappeared from the pronunciation of certain words, in a process simply described as ***sound loss***. The initial [h] of many Old English words was lost, as in ***h****lud→loud* and ***h****laford→lord*. Some words lost sounds, but kept the spelling, resulting in the "silent letters" of contemporary written English. Word-initial velar stops [k] and [g] are no longer pronounced before nasals [n], but we still write the words ***k****nee* and ***g****naw* with the remnants of earlier pronunciations. During the so-called "Great Vowel Shift" 500 years ago, English speakers modified their vowel pronunciation dramatically. This shift represents the biggest difference between the pronunciations of so called Middle and Modern English. For example, the word *house* was pronouced /h**u:**s/ by Middle-English speakers, /h**əu**s/ by Early Modern-English speakers, and /h**au**s/ by Modern-English speakers.

- **Semantic Change:** Semantic change occurs through three main processes: borrowing, broadening, and narrowing. ***Borrowing*** means copying words used in other languages. For example, the following words, whose meanings underwent semantic change, were borrowed from French: café, chef, chauffeur, rouge, phrase, sensible, journal, journey, lecture, petrol, actual, and ignore. Another process is the ***broadening*** of meaning. An example of broadening of meaning is the change from "holy day" as a religious feast to the very general break from work called a "holiday". Another example is the modern use of the word "dog". We use it very generally to refer to all breeds, but in its older form (Old English "docga"), it was only used for one particular breed. The reverse process is called ***narrowing***. For example, The Old English version of the word *wife* could be used to refer to any woman, but has narrowed in its application nowadays to only married women.

- **Syntactic Change:** While vocabulary can change quickly, sentence structure—the order of words in a sentence—changes more slowly. Some noticeable differences between the structure of sentences in Old and Modern English involve word order. In Old English texts, we find the Subject-Verb-Object order most common in Modern English, but we can also find a number of different orders that are no longer used. For example, the subject could follow the verb, as in "ferde he" ("he traveled"), and the object could be placed before the verb, as in "he hine geseah" ("he saw him"), or at the beginning of the sentence, as in "him man ne sealde" ("no man gave [any] to him").

c. Language Families

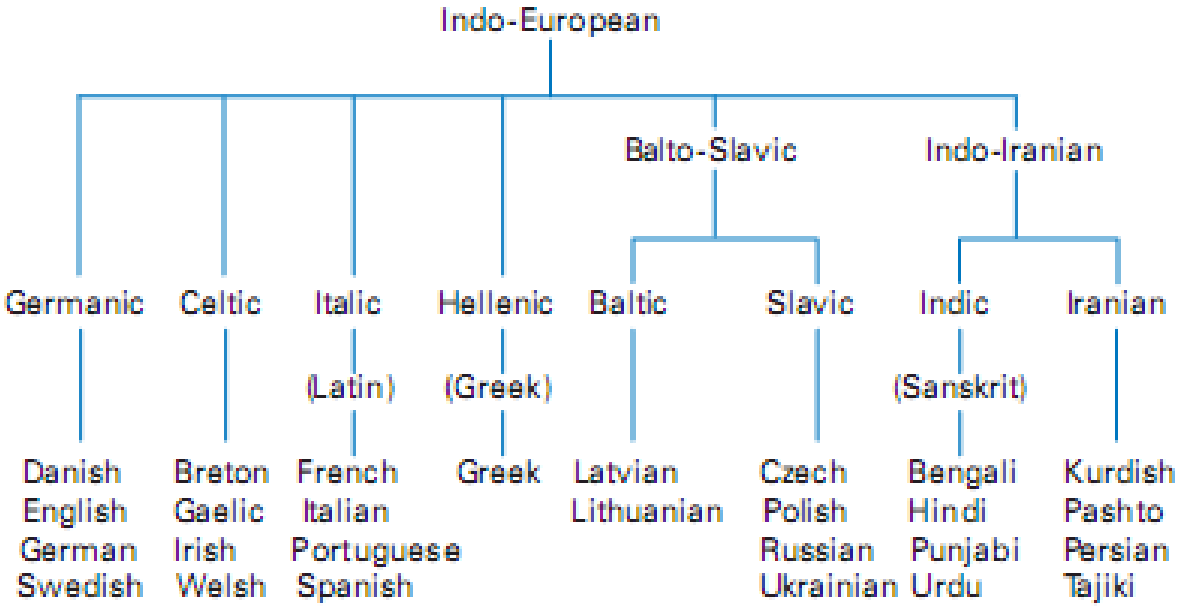
Languages change very slowly. But once they do, we end up with a family of languages. A language family is a group of languages with a common origin. Linguists have given a name to the family. For instance, the Romance family consists of the parent language (Latin) and the daughter languages (French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese). We also say that French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian are sister languages. Some samples from European languages will illustrate this:

English	German	French	Italian	Spanish
hand	hand	main	mano	mano
life	leben	vie	vita	vida
summer	sommer	été	estate	estio

Thus, it could be seen from these examples that English and German constitute one group, and French, Italian, and Spanish another group.
Proto-language refers to the ancestor of a language family. The common origin of Sanskrit, Ancient Greek, and Latin is postulated to have been a single language, referred to as **Indo-European**, which was spoken at a certain time in the past.

Sanskrit	Latin	Ancient Greek	
pitar	patēr	pater	("father")
bhrātar	frāter	phrāter	("brother")

Through the ages that proto-language broke up into dialects. As time went by, these dialects become increasingly more different from each other, ending up as different languages, primarily due to geographical distance. These languages developed dialectal differences, and the whole cycle was repeated, many times. The major language families in the world are ***Afro-Asiatic*** (353 languages spoken in Africa and Asia), ***Austronesian*** (1 246 languages spoken in Asia and Oceania), ***Indo-European*** (430 languages spoken in Asia and Europe, and in European settlements in other parts of the world), ***Niger-Congo*** (1 495 languages spoken in Africa), ***Sino-Tibetan*** (399 languages spoken in Asia), and ***Trans-New Guinea*** (561 languages spoken in New Guinea and adjacent islands). The branches of the Indo-European language family are illustrated in diagram below:



4. Microlinguistics and Macrolinguistics

In Microlinguistics, the linguist adopts a narrower view of language whereas in macrolinguistics s/he adopts a broader view of language.

a. Microlinguistics

Microlinguistics deals with the description and explanation of the structure of a language system, without regard to any extralinguistic factors such as the social, cultural, psychological, and biological factors that are involved in language behaviour. In short, microlinguistics is concerned with language 'in itself and for itself'.

b. Macrolinguistics

Macrolinguistics is the scientific investigation of language in the context of extralinguistic factors. For example, language could be dealt with from a psychological, a sociological, an ethnological, a philosophical, and a neurological point of view. Hence, we can identify combinatory disciplines like psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, philosophy of language, and neurolinguistics.

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Domains of Linguistics

I. Phonetics and Phonology

A. phonetics

1. definition

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that studies the material aspects of speech sounds. Material aspects of sounds are those aspects that make for the *physical production*, *transportation*, and *comprehension* of the sound. Individuals who conduct research on speech sounds are known as ***phoneticians***.

2. vowels and consonants

Phonetics is the study of the sounds that we produce when we engage in spoken communication. In contrast with other mammals, the human body contains a complex set of equipment, commonly known as ***the organs of speech***, which enables us to produce spoken language. The power for all speech sounds emanates from the lungs, travels up the windpipe, past the vocal cords and then into and out of the mouth or nose.

Sounds can be divided into two main types. A vowel is a sound that needs an open air passage in the mouth. The air passage can be modified in terms of shape with different mouth and tongue shapes producing different vowels. A consonant is formed when the air stream is restricted or stopped at some point between the vocal cords and the lips.

3. the modern alphabet and IPA

The modern alphabet does not suffice to transcribe all sounds on a one-to-one basis. Therefore, A *special alphabet* was devised by the International Phonetic Association (IPA). The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) shows the means and place of articulation of consonants and vowels that users of English as a mother tongue use. Phonetic characters refer to the actual utterance of a sound. In phonetic writing, the symbols for these sounds are put within brackets, such as: [θ], [ə], and [ð].

4. branches of phonetics

Phoneticians investigate speech sounds in one of three ways: ***articulatory phonetics***, ***acoustic phonetics***, and ***auditory phonetics***.

a. articulatory phonetics: it researches where and how sounds are originated and thus carries out physiological studies of the respiratory tract, trying to locate precisely at which location and in which manner a sound is produced.

b. acoustic phonetics: it examines the length, frequency and pitch of sounds. Special instruments are required to measure and analyze the sounds while they travel via the channel.

c. auditory phonetics: it studies what happens inside the ear and brain when sounds are finally received. It also interested in our ability to identify and differentiate sounds.

B. Phonology

1. definition

Another key area of study in the investigation of sounds is ***phonology***, which is a very closely related discipline to phonetics. Individuals who specialise in the study of phonology are known as ***phonologists***. As a general way of distinguishing between the two disciplinary areas, phonology can be

perceived as investigating sounds as an abstract system, whereas phonetics focuses on the actual sounds as they are spoken by specific individuals during particular speech events.

2. phoneme and phone

Within phonology, the term ***phoneme*** refers to a set of abstract units which together form the sound system of a language. Contrasts in meaning are produced through directly contrasting phonemes. For example, if we compare /p/ with /b/ as in the words *pin* and *bin*, which differ only by one sound, then a different meaning is created by the contrast. By replacing the beginning consonants, the meaning of the word changes. Phonemes of the English language, or any other language for that matter, can only exist as abstract entities. They can never be literally produced by speakers.

While the phoneme is the abstract unit or sound-type ("in the mind"), there are many different versions of that sound-type regularly produced in actual speech ("in the mouth"). We can describe those different versions as phones. Phones are phonetic units and appear in ***square brackets*** **[ ]**; however, phonemes are put within ***slashes*** **/ /**, such as /p/ and /b/ for phonological transcription. These are, of course, ideal units of the sound system of a language. They should not be confused with the sounds of actual utterances examined by phonetics.

3. free variation and complementary distribution

Not all sounds of a language are necessarily distinctive sounds. Compare the English and American pronunciations of "dance": [da:ns] versus [dæns]. Although there are different sounds in the pair, the meaning does not change. Thus, [æ] and [a:] are not phonemes in this case. We call this phenomenon ***free variation***. The two sounds can be referred to as ***allophones***. When we have a set of phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, we add the prefix "allo-" (=one of a closely related set) and refer to them as allophones of that phoneme. These sounds are merely variations in pronunciation of the same phoneme and do not change the meaning of the word. Free variation can be found in various accents of the same language. In this case, the different pronunciations of words throughout a country do not change the meaning of those words.

Another example of sounds which are not phonemes are those which occur in ***complementary distribution***. This means that where one sound of the pair occurs, the other does not. An example for complementary distribution are the aspirated and unaspirated allophones of /p/. The initial consonant as in "pill" is aspirated. The consonant after /s/ in "sprint" is unaspirated. The respective transcriptions would be [p^{h}il] and [sprint], where [^{h}] indicates aspiration. Aspirated [p^{h}], as you can see in this example, occurs only at the beginning of words. [p^{h}] and [p] are only allophones of the same phoneme /p/.

4. syllables and clusters

The analysis of the possible sequences of phonemes is focuses not only on phonemes themselves, but also on syllables and clusters. A syllable must comprise a vowel, but usually there is also a consonant (C) before the vowel (V). ***Syllables*** are frequently described as consisting of an ***onset***, which is a consonant, or a few consonants, and a ***rhyme***, often subdivided into a ***nucleus*** (a vowel), and ***coda*** (any following consonants). In the English language coda does not always have to occur in a syllable, like for instance in the words: he (CV), or too (CV). Clusters, or consonant clusters are simply two or more consonants one after another. Clusters, like other phonotactic rules, are characteristic of a given language, for instance the /st/ cluster in English can be an onset: street, or a coda: highest, however it is impossible in Japanese.

5. Coarticulation effects

The most frequent processes that can be observed in casual speech are **assimilation** and **elision**. Assimilation is a process in which certain sounds copy the characteristics of another, adjacent sound (e.g. I have to go [aihæftəgəu]). Elision is a process in which some sounds, or even syllables are omitted and not pronounced at all, although in other situations they are normally uttered (e.g. you and me [juənmi]). Elision occurs in order to make the pronunciation more fluent.

Take note of the fact that Americans use the term "phonology" to refer to both phonetics and phonology. They refer to what we call 'phonetics' also as 'phonetics', but refer to what Europeans call

‘phonology’ as ‘phonemics’. So if you ever come across the American terminology, do not be confused. In any way, in this lecture we will stick to the European terms.

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Domains of Linguistics

II. Morphology and Syntax

A. Morphology

1. definition

Morphology is the part of linguistics that deals with the study of words, their internal structure and partially their meanings. It is also interested in how the users of a given language understand complex words and invent new lexical items.

2. morpheme, morph, and allomorph

a. morpheme

Morphemes in morphology are the smallest units that carry meaning or fulfill some grammatical function. The word *house* itself consists of one morpheme, and because it can stand by itself it can be called a ***free morpheme***. In the word *houses* there are two morphemes *house*, which is free morpheme, and *s*, which is a ***bound morpheme***, because it cannot stand by itself as it would have no meaning. In the second example above the bound morpheme *s* was attached to *house* – a free morpheme, which in this case can be also called a ***stem***. Stem is what a bound morpheme is attached to.

What is more, free morphemes can be subdivided into two categories: ***lexical morphemes*** and ***Functional morphemes***. ***Lexical morphemes*** are words that have some meaning – verbs, adjectives, nouns, like, for example, *print, house, pretty, fire, go, girl*. We can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they are treated as an ***open class*** of words. On the other hand, ***Functional morphemes*** such as articles, prepositions, and pronouns which do not carry any meaning on their own, but only fulfill a grammatical function. Because we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language, they are described as a ***closed class*** of words.

Not only free morphemes are subdivided, there is a similar situation with bound morphemes which are subdivided into derivational and inflectional morphemes. ***Derivational morphemes*** are those morphemes which produce new words, or change the function of a word. It is achieved by means of prefixes or suffixes in case of English and infixes in other languages, like Arabic. ***Inflectional morphemes*** do not create new words, but only show grammatical functions of a word such as keep**s**, marsh**es**, giv**en**, sing**ing**, and high**er**. A good example of an inflectional language could be Latin which has numerous case endings for nouns, as well as endings for verbs and adjectives.

b. zero morphemes

There do exist meaningful grammatical features that are not materialized, neither in writing nor in pronunciation. The plural of a noun, for instance, is not always formed by adding a bound morpheme ‘s’ to the word. Some words are not changed at all when meaning the plural. We usually simply understand which case the speaker meant from the context of the conversation. One such example is the word ‘sheep’, designating singular as well as plural sheep. The zero morpheme ‘plural’ would, in

this case, designate the abstract concept of the plurality. It then means the plural sheep as opposed to the singular sheep.

b. morph
While morphemes remain ideal ***abstract*** units, the physical realizations of which are called morphs. The corresponding morphs may show some variation. In the case of the plural morpheme, various realizations are possible. For instance in the word 'dogs', the morph ***s*** represents the morpheme 'plural' and in the word 'oxen' the morph is ***en***.

c. allomorph
Several morphs that belong to the same morpheme are also called allomorphs: variants of one morpheme.
For example, all three morphs /z/ (in 'dogs' and 'beds'), /s/ (in 'cats'), /iz/ (in 'garages') are different representations of the same morpheme of plurality.

B. Syntax
1. definition
We have studied the phonological and morphological structures of the English language. But to know a language and to speak it correctly also involves being able to articulate complete sentences. The study of the syntax of a language is the study of its sentence structure as well as the linguistic knowledge necessary to form sentences.

2. definitions of sentence
a. Aristotelian Definition
Aristotelian logic claims that a sentence is an utterance consisting of *subject* and *predicate*.
Example:
1. Susie smokes.
2. Alexander is clever.
3. Elizabeth believes that astrology is garbage.

b. logical definition
A logical definition claims that a sentence is the expression of one single, complete thought. However, complex sentences may consist of several thoughts which are interwoven. Thus, this definition does not apply to all sentences. One example of a complex thought structure are complex, compound, and compound-complex sentences.
Example: Albert enlisted in the Army, and **Robert**, *who was his older brother*, **joined him a day later**.

c. Structuralist definition (Bloomfield)
A sentence is independent of any other linguistic form because it can stand alone, other than a single word, which represents no independent syntactic unit. According to this definition, subordinate clauses are not sentences of their own because of their dependence on the main clause.

3. Grammaticality and Acceptability
Sentences can also be categorized under the aspects of grammaticality and acceptability. Sentences of a language can be grammatically correct or not. In the latter case, we call them ungrammatical sentences. This term may sound contradictory, since a sentence is, per definition, grammatically correct and complete. Sentences can, nevertheless, lack correct grammaticality,
e.g.: *I wakened was with thundering noise.*
Ungrammatical sentences appear in everyday language and literary language. When you observe your own language, you should find plenty of them.
Also, sentences may be grammatically correct, but still make no sense at all. In this case, they lack acceptability. An example from English is the senstence *Colorless green ideas sleep furiously*.

Acceptability hence means that the meaning content of the sentence must be clear, understandable or acceptable to the reader.

4. Major and Minor Sentences

A ***major sentence*** is a *regular* sentence; it has a *subject* and a *predicate*. For example: *I have a ball*. In this sentence one can change the persons (e.g.: *We have a ball*). However, a minor sentence is an irregular type of sentence. It does not contain a finite verb. For example, *Mary!*, *Yes*, *Coffee*, etc. Other examples of ***minor sentences*** are headings (e.g. ***Major and Minor Sentences***), stereotyped expressions (*Hello!*), interjections (*Wow!*), phrasal questions (*tea or coffee?*), signs (*No Smoking*), proverbs (*Better an open enemy than a false friend*), etc. This can also include nominal sentences like *The more, the merrier*.

5. Generative Grammar

An American linguist Noam Chomsky came up with an idea of generative grammar, which was supposed to look at the grammar of language from the mathematical point of view, constructing a limited number of rules describing all the possible patterns of forming correct sentences. For example, *John runs*.

Sentence	*consists of*	noun-phrase	*plus*	verb-phrase	
S	→	NP	+	VP	"John runs"

Moreover, what Chomsky showed was the difference between the ***deep*** and ***surface*** structure of a sentence. What he called the surface structure of a sentence was its grammatical form, and the deep structure was understood as the meaning of sentence. For example, the two sentences: "Mary opened the door" and "The door was opened by Mary" differ in their surface structure, but not in their deep structure. Still, it is the deep structure that might cause the biggest problems. Certain sentences, although easily understood, can be ambiguous because of their structure, like for instance *He hit a guy with a car*. This sentence can mean that he was driving a car and hit someone, or that he hit somebody who had a car. Here are other ambiguous sentences in terms of their structure:

1. Visiting neighbours could be a nuisance.
2. Anne likes horses more than Mark.
3. The Shooting of hunters was appaling.
4. Small boys and girls are easily frightened.
5. Yesterday, I met our English history teacher.

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Domains of Linguistics

III. Semantics and Pragmatics

A. Semantics

1. definition:

Semantics is a branch of linguistics dealing with the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. In principle, all words in the lexicon of a language are lexemes. Examining the meaning of words in the lexicon is called ***lexical semantics***.

2. conceptual/denotative and associative/connotative meaning

There are two aspects to the meaning of a word: conceptual/denotative and associative/connotative meaning. The conceptual/denotative meaning is the meaning of a word in its literal sense. The associative/connotative meaning is what we add according to our feelings about the term. A good example is the disease called cancer. The denotation of "cancer" is the mere disease that can be described by growing tumors, malfunctioning organs, etc. The connotation of cancer is all the emotional additions, as "cruel", "frightening", "hard to heal", etc. While the denotation of a lexeme is subject to language change in the broad sense, the ***association/connotation*** may change according to the taste en vogue. A few decades ago, "fur coat" had a connotation of value and high social status. Nowadays, "fur coat" evinces a connotation of "animal murder", "cruelty", "ignorance", and so on. In short, the wearer of such a coat might find that people judge her (or him) differently.

3. The most Relevant Semantic Relations between Lexemes

a. synonymy

Two or more words with very closely related meanings are called synonyms. They can often, though not always, be substituted for each other in sentences. Common examples of synonyms are the pairs: *almost*/*nearly*, *big*/*large*, *broad*/*wide*, *buy*/*purchase*, *cab*/*taxi*, *car*/*automobile*, *couch*/*sofa*, *freedom*/*liberty*. We should keep in mind that the idea of "sameness" of meaning used in discussing synonymy is not necessarily "total sameness." For example, whereas the word ***answer*** fits in the sentence *Sandy had only one answer correct on the test*, the word ***reply*** would sound odd.

b. antonymy

Apart from equality in meaning, as with synonyms, there is also the opposite. Opposition in meaning is known as antonymy. *Large-small*, *wide-narrow*, *white-black*, *fat-slim* are some examples for antonyms. All classes of words can have antonyms. Antonyms are usually divided into two main types, ***gradable*** (opposites along a scale) and ***non-gradable*** (direct opposites). Gradable antonyms, such as the pair *big*/*small*, can be used in comparative constructions like *I'm bigger than you* and *A pony is smaller than a horse*. Also, the negative of one member of a gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example, the sentence *My car isn't old*, doesn't necessarily mean *My car is new*.

c. hyponymy

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. Examples are the pairs: *animal*/*dog*, *dog*/*poodle*, *vegetable*/*carrot*, *flower*/*rose*, *tree*/*banyan*. The concept of "inclusion" involved in this relationship is the idea that if an object is a *rose*, then it is necessarily a *flower*, so the meaning of *flower* is included in the meaning of *rose*. Or, *rose* is a hyponym of *flower*.

d. polysemy

When we encounter two or more words with the same form and related meanings, we have what is technically known as polysemy. Polysemy can be defined as one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings that are all related by extension. Example is the word ***head***, used to refer to the object on top of your body, froth on top of a glass of beer, person at the top of a company or department, and many other things. Other examples of polysemy are *foot* (of person, of bed, of mountain) or *run* (person does, water does, colours do).

e. homonymy

Two lexemes that look or sound the same may mean something different. Hence, there are two types of homonymy:

- **homophony:** These lexemes sound the same, such as "whether-weather" and "meet-meat".
- **homography:** These lexemes look the same, as "read", meaning as well /ri:d/ as /red/ in the past tense.

B. Pragmatics

1. definition: Pragmatics is the study of the ***invisible*** or ***intended*** meaning of words, phrases and full sentences. Unlike semantics which deals with the denotative and connotative meanings of linguistic expressions that can be found in dictionaries, pragmatics is more concerned with the meanings that these expressions convey when they are used, or with the speaker's intended meaning even when it isn't actually said or written.

Example:

Consider the sentence *Susie is a heavy smoker*. In all circumstances, this sentence carries with it its intrinsic meaning: Susie smokes a large quantity of tobacco every day. This meaning is intrinsic and inseparable. But now consider what happens when this sentence is uttered as a response to two different utterances produced by Jessica in two different contexts.

1. **first** [Jessica is trying to have smoking banned in offices]: *Can you ask Susie to sign this petition?*
2. **second** [Jessica, a medical researcher, is looking for smokers to take part in some medical tests]: *Do you know of anybody I could ask?*

In each case, something very different is being communicated. In the first case, Susie is unlikely to sign the petition, so there's no point in asking her. In the second, Susie will be a suitable person for your study. Thus, every time the context changes, what is communicated changes as well.

2. context

The interpretation of what meanings the speaker wanted to convey using particular words is often influenced by the context. In pragmatics, two types of context can be differentiated: ***linguistic context*** and ***physical context***.

1. *Linguistic context*, sometimes called co-text is the set of words that surround the lexical item in question in the same phrase, or sentence. For example, if the word bank is used in a sentence together with words like *steep* or *overgrown*, we have no problem deciding which type of bank is meant. Or, if we hear someone say *I have to get to the bank to withdraw some cash*, we know from this linguistic context, i.e. *withdraw* and *cash*, which type of bank is intended.

2. *The physical context* is the location of a given word, the situation in which it is used, as well as timing, all of which aid proper understating of the words. For instance, if we see the word BANK on the wall of a building in a city, the physical location will influence our interpretation.

3. deixis

There are numerous frequently used words which depend on the physical context for their correct understanding, such as: *there*, *that*, *it*, or *tomorrow*. Terms like that are known as ***deictic expressions***. Depending on what such words refer to they can be classified as ***person deixis***: *him*, *they*, *you*, *etc*;

spatial deixis: *there, here, etc.*; and ***temporal deixis***: *then, in an hour, tomorrow, etc*. However, in pragmatics it is assumed that words do not refer to anything by themselves and it is people who in order to grasp the communicated idea perform an act of identifying what the speaker meant. This act is called ***reference***.

4. Speech acts

In addition to that, pragmatics is also concerned with the functions of utterances such as promising, requesting, informing which are referred to as ***speech acts***. Certain grammatical structures are associated with corresponding functions, as in the interrogative structure '*Do you drink tea?'* the functions is questioning. Such a case can be described as a ***direct speech act***. However, when the interrogative structure is used to fulfill a different purpose as in *'Can you close the window?'* where it clearly is not a question about ability, but a polite request, such a situation is described as an ***indirect speech act***.

Examples:

sentence	structure	function
It's cold outside.	declarative	requesting (I request that you shut the door)
Do you have to stand in front of TV?	interrogative	commanding (move out of the way!)
Could you pass the salt?	interrogative	requesting (I am asking you to pass the salt)
Do you know that we are selling meet at 1000 dinars?	interrogative	informing (I am informing you that we have increased the price of meat.)
I always pay off my debts in a very short time.	declarative	Promising (I promise you to pay off my debt in a very short time)

Indirect speech acts are generally associated with greater politeness in English than direct speech acts.