An Introduction to Linguistics

Olá!

Salut!

您好

Hi!

ПРИВЕТ!

Ciao!

Hei!

Hallo!

नमस्ते

Bonjour!

Γεια σου

An Introduction to Linguistics

Siti Ithriyah, M. Hum

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**PENERBIT
LIMA AKSARA**

Kata Pengantar

Praise and gratitude I pray to the presence of Allah SWT for all the gifts and favors given in this life. Thank you to my parents who always support and wish the best for me. I am grateful to have someone who always supports, prays for, and he is always the best partner in my daily life, thank you Aa. And then, for my little angel, Fardhan thank you for coming into my life and teaching me many things, especially how to be a mother. I love you, babang.

Author

Siti Ithriyah, M.Hum

Daftar Isi

THEORY 1
LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTIC
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What is language? Language is commonly defined (simply) as a "a means of communication" but if it is defined so, there will be no differences between human communication and animal communication. The reason is because both animal and human do have means communicate. To be more scientific a language can be defined as:

"An arbitrary system of creative vocal symbols used as a means of communication among human beings"

Let us see what is meant by arbitrary system, vocal symbols, creative and means of communication as a characteristic of properties as a human language.

A. Language is Arbitrary

A language is arbitrary because the relationship between a vocal symbol (in form in the sense of linguistics) and the entity, state event or action (meaning) of the vocal symbol cannot be proved logically.

For example, the question of why the following entity is called "birds" in English and not "monkey" or "money" for instance cannot be answered.

B. Language Is Vocal Symbols

Considering a language as a construction of vocal symbols we actually want to distinguish oral from written language. A language is originally oral or spoken (vocal symbols). In other words, we can say that spoken language is the origin of a language.

See this fact:

Children grow up learning and speaking a language (orally) before learning to write. Even in this modern age some people still cannot write but they can communicate with a language. On the other hand writing or written language is the best thought of as written representation of language. One of the differences in characteristics between oral and written language is that written language tends to be prescriptive which means what one thinks it/the language ought to be/ but oral or spoken language is not prescriptive.

C. Language Is Creative

No matter how well a dictionary of a language is designed and written it will never contain all possible sentences that a human being the speaker of a language can make and use for communication. Once we speak a language (say, out mother tongue/native language) the components and rules of the language enables us to create infinite number/unlimited numbers of sentences. It enables us to put words together to make phrases and put phrases together to make sentences and so forth.

As illustration the same word can be employed in so many different infinite numbers of sentences as exemplified with the following phrases:
1. I eat rice. You eat bread
2. The goat eat bread and cheese (have you ever created or heard this possible sentence before?)
3. They eat grass.
4. I eat rice you eat bread, the goat eat cheese, they eat grass…eat…eat and so on.

How many times can you repeat the word "eat" in the last sentence? How long can you make the sentence? The answer is, it is infinite.

Indeed, we created and heard new sentences in our language all the time in our everyday communication. Even we may have created and heard a sentence that had never been spoken or heard before but we did not realize it. This is because a language is creative.

D. Language Is A Means Of Communication

Language is only one among another means of communication possessed by human beings. The use of a language as a means of communication is what distinguished animal communication from the communication among human beings. In most societies or cultures there are fables, legends, myth and etc where we are told that animals do play speaking role not only among themselves but also with human beings. But can the fables or legend provide evidence that animals do speak and have language?

While human being communicates with language it is believed that animals simply communicate with their instinct but this belief has not been proved empirically. Because language is a system of communication, it is useful to compare it with other systems of communication. For instance, humans communicate not just through language but through such means as gesture, art, dress, and music. Although some argue that higher primates such as chimpanzees possess the equivalent of human language, most animals have their own systems of communication: dogs exhibit submission by lowering their heads and tails; bees, in contrast, dance. The

study of communication systems has its origins in semiotics, a field of inquiry that originated in the work of Ferdinand De Saussure in a series of lectures published in *A Course in General Linguistics* (1916).

What is Linguistics?

Linguistics is the study of language. The subject matter of linguistic is language. Traditionally linguistics studies a language as a formal system consisting of four main branches known as micro linguistics. Besides, the linguistic studies which are supposed as the interdisciplinary field of studies that identify, investigate and offer solutions to language-related in real life problems called macro linguistics or applied linguistics.

Furthermore, we will merely discuss about micro linguistics which are related to pure language studies such as:

1. Phonology is the study of speech sound and their patterns.
2. Morphology is the study of words and word formation.
3. Syntax is the study of sentence structure.
4. Semantics is the study of meanings.

A language is described as an abstraction based on the linguistic behavior of its users. All normal children of all races learn to speak the language of their community, so speech has often been seen as the primary medium of language. The abstract system which is language can also be realized as writing.

However, although speech and writing have much in commonly they are not to be equated or hierarchically ordered. Between language and its mediums can see:

Language (Abstraction)

Medium (concrete)
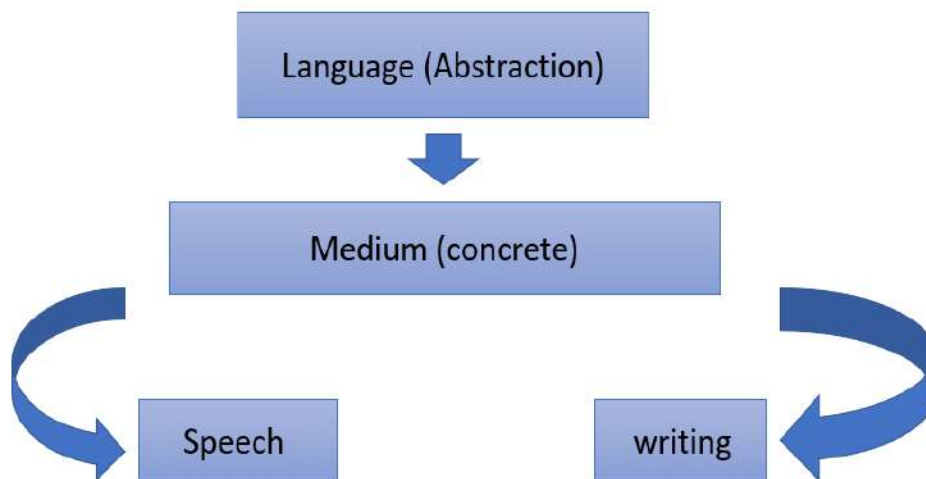
Speech

writing

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

Differences between language and linguistic.

Linguistics is the scientific study of language - the structure, the development, the meanings of each individual aspect of the language. Many people assume that to study linguistics you must learn many languages which is not true.

Language learning is the process of learning to speak/communicate in a language. Not all language learning is scientific - often it is not, as in the case of children who learn/acquire language by exposure rather than formal education. For example, difference between a botanist and gardener. One is interested in the scientific study of the plants, the other is enjoying beautiful flowers

Linguistics is a noun and refers to an academic field that studies language. Linguistic is an adjective that is ambiguous and has two possible meanings:

1. "related to language"
2. "related to linguistics"
   Therefore, an utterance like "I have some linguistic problems" has two possible interpretations:
3. "I have some problems with using language" (for instance I don't know how to phrase something or I misunderstand someone for reasons related to language or I have problems with learning a foreign language)
4. "I have some problems with doing linguistics" (for instance I don't know how to draw the syntax tree for the homework assignment of my linguistics class).
5. There is also the word *linguist*, which is a noun and refers to a scholar in the academic field of linguistics, although many people also use it to refer to someone who speaks a lot of languages (a polyglot), to the dismay of actual linguists who do actual linguistics.

So, What is a language? The complicated mechanism in your brain that helps you to encounter with other persons who have a similar mechanism in their brains. If not, you feel both non-understood as well as unable to follow these foreigner people.

Well, and what is linguistics? Every systematic (or scientific) endeavour to understand or to clarify what a language is, how it is learned, how it is represented in our brains, how it has evolved, and what a large diversity of different languages exists.

THEORY 2
HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS (PROTO INDO-EUROPEAN)
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A proto-language, in the tree model of historical linguistics, is a language, usually hypothetical or reconstructed, and usually unattested, from which a number of attested known languages are believed to have descended by evolution, forming a language family. In the family tree metaphor, a proto-language can be called a mother language.

It should be clear from the preceding lines that a language family is a group of languages with a common ancestor. This common ancestor is referred to as a proto language. The proto-language split up into two or more dialects, which gradually became more and more different from each other—for example, because the speakers lived far from each other and had little or no mutual contact—until the speakers of one dialect could not understand the speakers of the other dialects any longer, and the different dialects had to be regarded as separate languages. When this scenario is repeated over and over again through centuries and millennia, large language families develop. Of course, the protolanguages of different families also had ancestors, which must have been members of older language families. Many of the branches of these older families may still exist, but they have separated so much that we are not able any longer to discover the family ties. In other cases most or all branches of an ancient language family may be extinct.
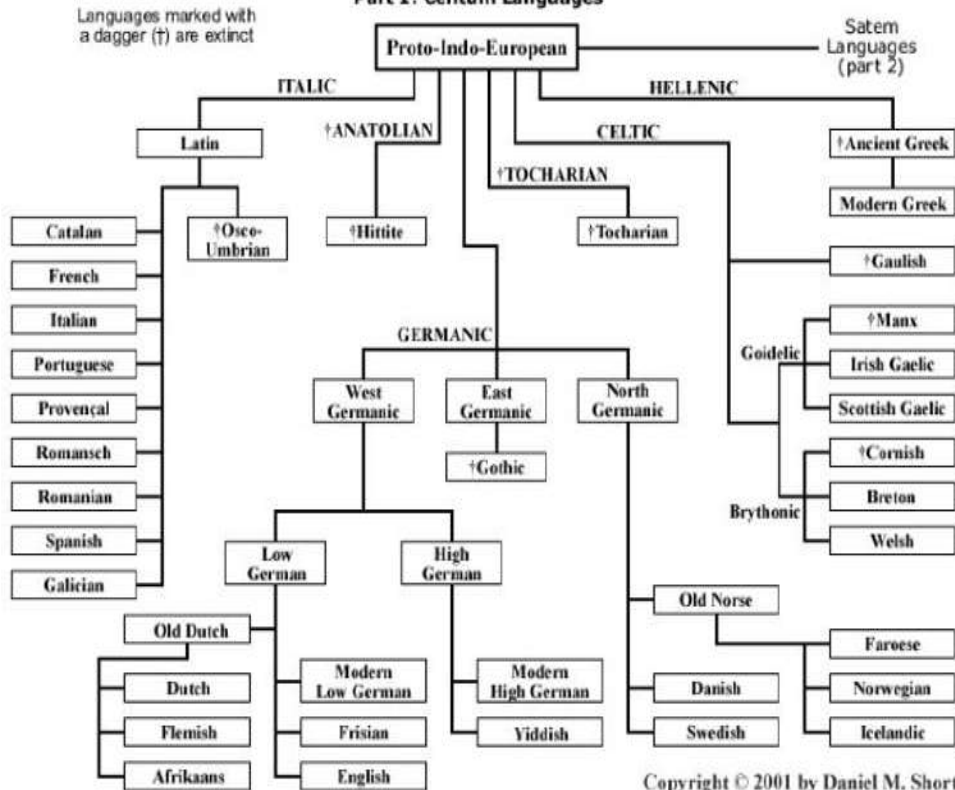
Typically, the proto-language is not known directly. It is by definition a linguistic reconstruction formulated by applying the comparative method to a group of languages featuring similar characteristics. The tree is a statement of similarity and a hypothesis that the similarity results from descent from a common language. The comparative method, a

process of deduction, begins from a set of characteristics, or characters, found in the attested languages. If the entire set can be accounted for by descent from the proto-language, which must contain the proto-forms of them all, the tree, or phylogeny, is regarded as a complete explanation and by Occam's razor, is given credibility. More recently such a tree has been termed "perfect" and the characters labeled "compatible".

No trees but the smallest branches are ever found to be perfect, in part because languages also evolve through horizontal transfer with their neighbours. Typically, credibility is given to the hypotheses of highest compatibility. The differences in compatibility must be explained by various applications of the wave model. The level of completeness of the reconstruction achieved varies, depending on how complete the evidence is from the descendant languages and on the formulation of the characters by the linguists working on it. Not all characters are suitable for the comparative method. For example, lexical items that are loans from a different language do not reflect the phylogeny to be tested, and if used will detract from the compatibility. Getting the right dataset for the comparative method is a major task in historical linguistics. Some universally accepted proto-languages are Proto-Indo-European, Proto-Uralic, and Proto-Dravidian.

Indo-European Language Tree
Part 1: Centum Languages

Languages marked with a dagger (†) are extinct

Satem Languages (part 2)

Proto-Indo-European

ITALIC

HELLENIC

†ANATOLIAN

CELTIC

Latin

†TOCHARIAN

†Ancient Greek

Modern Greek

Catalan

†Osco-Umbrian

†Hittite

†Tocharian

†Gaulish

French

Italian

†Manx

Portuguese

GERMANIC

Goidelic

Irish Gaelic

Provençal

West Germanic

East Germanic

North Germanic

Scottish Gaelic

Romansch

†Cornish

Romanian

†Gothic

Breton

Spanish

Brythonic

Welsh

Galician

Low German

High German

Old Norse

Old Dutch

Faroese

Dutch

Modern Low German

Modern High German

Danish

Norwegian

Flemish

Frisian

Yiddish

Swedish

Icelandic

Afrikaans

English

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The Parent Language: <u>Proto-Indo-European</u>

Every language has a history, and, as in the rest of human culture, changes are constantly taking place in the course of the learned transmission of a language from one generation to another. This is just part of the difference between human culture and animal behavior. Languages change in all their aspects, in their pronunciation, word forms, syntax, and word meanings (semantic change). These changes are mostly very gradual in their operation, becoming noticeable only cumulatively over the course of several generations. But, in some areas of vocabulary, particular words closely related to rapid cultural change are subject to equally rapid and therefore noticeable changes within a generation or even within a decade. In the 20th century the vocabulary of science and technology was an outstanding example. The

same is also true of those parts of vocabulary that are involved in fashionable slangs and jargons, particularly age-group, solidarity depends on their being always fresh and distinctive. Old slangs date, as any novel or film more than 10 years old is apt to show.

Diversification of languages: Changes through time

In the structural aspects of spoken language, their pronunciation and grammar, and in vocabulary less closely involved in rapid cultural movement, the processes of linguistic change are best observed by comparing written records of a language over extended periods. This is most readily seen by English speakers through setting side by side present-day English texts with 18th-century English, the English of the Authorized Version of the Bible, Shakespearean English, Chaucer's English, and the varieties of Old English (Anglo-Saxon) that survive in written form. Noticeably, as one goes back in time, the effort required in understanding increases, and, while people do not hesitate to speak of "Shakespearean English," they are more doubtful about Chaucer, and for the most part Old English texts are as unintelligible to a modern English speaker as, for example, texts in German. It is clear that the differences involved include word meanings, grammar, and, so far as this can be reconstructed, pronunciation.

Old English dialects: distribution
The distribution of Old English dialects.
Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc.

Similar evidence, together with what is known of the cultural history of the peoples concerned, makes clear the continuous historical connections linking French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Romanian with the spoken Latin of the western Roman Empire. This group constitutes the Romance subfamily of languages and is an example of how, as the result of linguistic change over a wide area, a group of distinct, though historically related, languages comes into being.

In the transmission of a language from parent to child, slight deviations in all aspects of language use occur all the time, and, as children's communication contacts widen, they confront a growing range of slight differences in personal language use, some of them correlating with social or regional

differences within a community, these differences themselves being the results of the transmission process. As a consequence, children's language comes to differ slightly from that of their parents' generation. In urbanized communities an additional factor is involved: children have been shown to be effectively influenced by the language habits of their peer groups once they have made contacts with them in and out of school.

Such changes, though slight at the time, are progressively cumulative. Since ready intercommunication is a primary purpose of language, as long as a community remains unitary, with strong central direction and a central cultural focus, such changes will not go beyond the limits of inter-comprehensibility. But in more-scattered communities and in larger language areas, especially when cultural and administrative ties are weakened and broken, these cumulative deviations in the course of generations give rise to wider regional differences. Such differences take the form of dialectal differentiation as long as there is some degree of mutual comprehension but eventually result in the emergence of distinct languages. This is what happened in the history of the colloquial Latin of the western Roman Empire, and it can be assumed that a similar course of events gave rise to the separate Germanic languages (English, German, Dutch, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, and some others), though in this family the original unitary language is not known historically but inferred as "Common Germanic" or "Proto-Germanic" and tentatively assigned to early in the 1st millennium BCE as the period before separation began.

Proto-Germanic

West Germanic   North Germanic   East Germanic

Anglo-Frisian   Netherlandic-German   West Scandinavian   East Scandinavian   Gothic

English   Frisian   Netherlandic   German   Icelandic   Faroese   Norwegian   Danish   Swedish
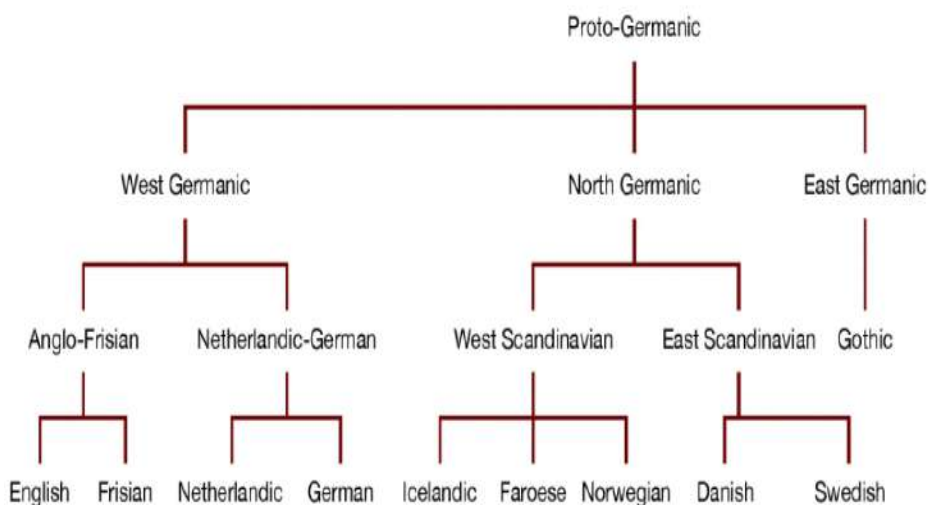
Germanic languages

This is how language families have developed. Most but not all of the languages of Europe belong to the Indo-European family, so-called because in addition it includes the classical Indian language Sanskrit and most of the modern languages of northern India and Pakistan. It includes as subfamilies the two families just mentioned, Romance and Germanic, and several others. It is assumed that the subfamilies, and from them the individual languages of the Indo-European family, are ultimately derived from a unitary language spoken somewhere in eastern Europe or western Asia (its exact location is still under debate), perhaps 5,000 years ago. This unitary language has itself been referred to as "Indo-European," "Proto-Indo-European," the "common parent language," or the "original language" (*Ursprache*) of the family. But it must be emphasized that, whatever it may have been like, it was just one language among many and of no special status in itself. It was certainly in no way the original language of humankind or anything like it. It had its own earlier history, of which virtually nothing can be inferred, and it was, of course, very recent in relation to the time span of human language itself. What is really special about such "parent" or "proto-" languages is that they represent the

farthest point to which available techniques and resources enable linguists to reconstruct the prehistory of attested and living languages. Similarly constituted families of languages derived from inferred common sources have been established for other parts of the world—for example, Altaic, covering Turkish and several languages of Central Asia, and Bantu, containing many of the languages of central and southern Africa.

If enough material in the form of written records from past ages were available, it would be possible to group all the world's languages into historically related families. In addition, an answer could perhaps be posited to the question of whether all languages are descended from a single original language or whether languages emerged independently among several groups of early peoples (the rival theories of monogenesis and polygenesis, a controversy more confidently disputed in the 19th century than today). In actual fact, written records, when they are available, go back only a fraction of the time in which human language has been developed and used, and over much of the globe written records are nonexistent. In addition, there are few linguistically relevant fossils comparable to the fossils of geological prehistory, though a certain amount of information about the early development of the vocal tract can be deduced from skeletal remains. This means that the history and prehistory of languages will not be able to go back more than to a few thousand years BCE and will be much more-restricted in language areas in which few or no written records are available, as in much of Africa and in South America. Many languages will remain not related with certainty to any family.

Nevertheless, the methods of historical linguistics, involving the precise and systematic comparison of word forms and word meanings, have produced remarkable results in establishing language families on the same basis as Indo-European was established, in far less-favorable fields. But any attempt by these means to get back to "the origin of language"

or to reconstruct the original language of the human race, if indeed there was one, has so far been beyond the reach of science. However, hypotheses based on large-scale comparative studies using statistical methods continue to be proposed. For example, in 2011 a study of 504 languages by New Zealand biologist Quentin D. Atkinson suggested that the number of phonemes a language contains may be an index of evolutionary diversity. In this sample, the languages of southwest Africa had the largest phoneme inventories, and the number of phonemes declined the farther away from this area humans settled, showing an interesting parallel with the reduction in human genetic diversity seen over increasing distance from Africa already noted by biologists. The findings are suggestive, but they need to be tested against a much larger sample of languages.

Changes through geographical movement

The fundamental cause of linguistic change and hence of linguistic diversification is the minute deviations occurring in the transmission of language from one generation to another. But other factors contribute to the historical development of languages and determine the spread of a language family over the world's surface. Population movements naturally play a large part, and movements of peoples in prehistoric times carried the Indo-European languages from a relatively restricted area into most of Europe and into northern India, Persia, and Armenia. The spread of the Indo-European languages resulted, in the main, from the imposition of the languages on the earlier populations of the territories occupied. In the historical period, within Indo-European, the same process can be seen at work in the Western Roman Empire. Latin superseded the earlier, largely Celtic languages of the Iberian Peninsula and of Gaul (France) not through population replacement (the number of Roman soldiers and settlers in the empire was never large) but through the

abandonment of these languages by the inhabitants over the generations as they found in Latin the language of commerce, civilization, law, literature, and social prestige

Proto-Indo-European probably had 15 stop consonants. In the following grid these sounds are arranged according to the place in the mouth where the stoppage was made and the activity of the vocal cords during and immediately after the stoppage:

	labial	dental	palatal	velar	labiovelar
Voiceless	p	t	$\acute{k}$	k	k^w
Voiced	b	d	$\acute{g}$	g	g^w
Voiced aspirated (?)	bh	dh	$\acute{g}h$	gh	g^wh

It is generally agreed that the most outstanding achievement of linguistic scholarship in the 19th century was the development of the comparative method, which comprised a set of principles whereby languages could be systematically compared with respect to their sound systems, grammatical structure, and vocabulary and shown to be "genealogically" related. As French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, and the other Romance languages had evolved from Latin, so Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit as well as the Celtic, Germanic, and Slavic languages and many other languages of Europe and Asia had evolved from some earlier language, to which the name Indo-European or Proto-Indo-European is now customarily applied. That all the Romance languages were descended from Latin and thus constituted one "family" had been known for centuries; but the existence of the Indo-European family of languages and the nature of their genealogical relationship was first demonstrated by the 19th-century comparative philologists. (The term philology in this context is not restricted to the study of literary languages.)

The main impetus for the development of comparative philology came toward the end of the 18th century, when it

was discovered that Sanskrit bore a number of striking resemblances to Greek and Latin. An English orientalist, Sir William Jones, though he was not the first to observe these resemblances, is generally given the credit for bringing them to the attention of the scholarly world and putting forward the hypothesis, in 1786, that all three languages must have "sprung from some common source, which perhaps no longer exists." By this time, a number of texts and glossaries of the older Germanic languages (Gothic, Old High German, and Old Norse) had been published, and Jones realized that Germanic as well as Old Persian and perhaps Celtic had evolved from the same "common source." The next important step came in 1822, when the German scholar Jacob Grimm, following the Danish linguist Rasmus Rask (whose work, being written in Danish, was less accessible to most European scholars), pointed out in the second edition of his comparative grammar of Germanic that there were a number of systematic correspondences between the sounds of Germanic and the sounds of Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit in related words. Grimm noted, for example, that where Gothic (the oldest surviving Germanic language) had an *f*, Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit frequently had a *p* (e.g., Gothic *fotus*, Latin *pedis*, Greek *podós*, Sanskrit *padás*, all meaning "foot"); when Gothic had a *p*, the non-Germanic languages had a *b*; when Gothic had a *b*, the non-Germanic languages had what Grimm called an "aspirate" (Latin *f*, Greek p^h, Sanskrit b^h). In order to account for these correspondences he postulated a cyclical "soundshift" (*Lautverschiebung*) in the prehistory of Germanic, in which the original "aspirates" became voiced unaspirated stops (*bh* became *b*, etc.), the original voiced unaspirated stops became voiceless (*b* became *p*, etc.), and the original voiceless (unaspirated) stops became "aspirates" (*p* became *f*). Grimm's term, "aspirate," it will be noted, covered such phonetically distinct categories as aspirated stops (b^h, p^h), produced with an accompanying audible puff of breath, and fricatives (*f*),

produced with audible friction as a result of incomplete closure in the vocal tract.

In the work of the next 50 years the idea of sound change was made more precise, and, in the 1870s, a group of scholars known collectively as the *Junggrammatiker* ("young grammarians," or Neogrammarians) put forward the thesis that all changes in the sound system of a language as it developed through time were subject to the operation of regular sound laws. Though the thesis that sound laws were absolutely regular in their operation (unless they were inhibited in particular instances by the influence of analogy) was at first regarded as most controversial, by the end of the 19th century it was quite generally accepted and had become the cornerstone of the comparative method. Using the principle of regular sound change, scholars were able to reconstruct "ancestral" common forms from which the later forms found in particular languages could be derived. By convention, such reconstructed forms are marked in the literature with an asterisk. Thus, from the reconstructed Proto-Indo-European word for "ten," *dekm*, it was possible to derive Sanskrit *daśa*, Greek *déka*, Latin *decem*, and Gothic *taihun* by postulating a number of different sound laws that operated independently in the different branches of the Indo-European family. The question of sound change is dealt with in greater detail in the section entitled Historical (diachronic) linguistics.

THEORY 3
PHONOLOGY
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Phonology is the study of the patterns of sounds in a language and across languages. Put more formally, phonology is the study of the categorical organization of speech sounds in languages; how speech sounds are organized in the mind and used to convey meaning. In this section of the website, we will describe the most common phonological processes and introduce the concepts of underlying representations for sounds versus what is actually produced, the surface form. Phonology can be related to many linguistic disciplines, including psycholinguistics, cognitive science, sociolinguistics and language acquisition.

Whereas phonetics is the study of sounds and is concerned with the production, audition and perception of speech sounds (called phones), phonology describes the way sounds function within a given language and operates at the level of sound systems and abstract sound units. Knowing the sounds of a language is only a small part of phonology. This importance is shown by the fact that you can change one word into another by simply changing one sound. Consider the differences between the words time and dime. The words are identical except for the first sound. [t] and [d] can therefore distinguish words, and are called contrasting sounds. They are distinctive sounds in English, and all distinctive sounds are classified as phonemes.

Phonological rules

Phonological rules are part of communication through language, whether spoken or written, and knowing what they are and why they exist can help us better understand our world. Understanding phonological rules is considered an important

aspect in teaching English or working with people who have speech problems. In order to understand the purpose of phonological rules, we need to understand what a phoneme is. According to the traditional phonological theories a phoneme is the minimal unit in the sound system of a language (Crystal,1997:287). Phonological rules are the rules whether written or spoken that control how sounds change during vocal communication.

Phonetics

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that focuses on the production and classification of the world's speech sounds. The production of speech looks at the interaction of different vocal organs, for example the lips, tongue and teeth, to produce particular sounds. By classification of speech, we focus on the sorting of speech sounds into categories which can be seen in what is called the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). There are three types of the study of the sounds of language:

- **Acoustic Phonetics** is the study of the physical properties of sounds.
- **Auditory Phonetics** is the study of the way listeners perceive sounds.
- **Articulatory Phonetics** is the study of how the vocal tracts producing the sounds.

Phonetics Vs. Phonology

Phonetics looks at the physical production of sounds, focusing on which vocal organs are interacting with each other and how close these vocal organs are in relation to one another. Phonetics also looks at the concept of voicing, occurring at the pair of muscles found in your voice box, also known as the Adam's apple. If the vocal folds are vibrating, this creates voicing and any sound made in this way are called voiced sounds, for example "z". If the vocal folds are not vibrating, this does not lead to voicing and creates a voiceless sound e.g. "s".

You can observe this yourself by placing two fingers upon your voice box and saying "z" and "s" repeatedly. You should feel vibrations against your finger when saying "z" but no vibrations when saying "s".

Phonology however is associated more with the abstract properties of sounds, as it is about how these categories are stored in the mind. Phonetics also describes certain properties as being gradient such as voicing where we can compare the length of voicing between two sounds. For example, in French, [b] is voiced for longer than English [b]. In Phonology, these segments are simply defined categorically as being voiced or voiceless, regardless of these subtle differences.

THEORY 4
MORPHOLOGY
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The term morphology is generally attributed to the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832), who coined it early in the nineteenth century in a biological context. Its etymology is Greek: morph- means 'shape, form', and morphology is the study of form or forms. In biology morphology refers to the study of the form and structure of organisms, and in geology it refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms. In linguistics morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed (Parker, 1878). So, morphology is the study of word that consist its internal structure and how it's made.

Morphological fact

These are the kind of morphological facts that you don't notice every day. They are so embedded in your language that you don't even think about them. They are more common than the ones we have just looked at, but at the same time deeper and more complex.

If you speak English and are concerned about your health, you might say:

(2) I eat one melon a day.

Let's imagine that we are even more concerned about our health than you are. We don't just eat one melon a day, rather:

(3) We eat two melons a day.

It is a fact about standard American or British English that we cannot say:

(4) We eat two melon a day.

However, if we were speaking Indonesian or Japanese, we would say the equivalent of two melon (three melon, four melon, etc.) because these languages don't use morphological plurals in sentences like this.

(5) Indonesian:
Saya makan dua buah semangka (se) tiap hari
I eat two fruit melon every day
"I eat two melons every day."

(6) Japanese: mainichi futatsu-no meron-o tabemasu
every.day two- gen melon-obj eat.imperf
'I eat two melons every day.'

The morphological grammar of English tells us that we have to put an -s on melon whenever we are talking about more than one. This fact of English is so transparent that native speakers don't notice it (Parker, 1878).

Lexemes and word-forms

The lexeme is the word which the phonological unit is a realization of the form – e.g. the past participle of the lexeme which is called grammatical word. For examples the word: "go" and "went" are different word forms which realize a single lexeme, "GO". Another example: cook and cooks are different word-forms which belong to the same lexeme (Dr. Leany Nani Harsa, 2014).

As we have just seen above, sometimes, when we use the term 'word', it is not the abstract vocabulary item with a common core of meaning, the lexeme, that we want to refer to. Rather, we may use the term 'word' to refer to a particular physical realization of that lexeme in speech or writing, i.e. a particular word – form. Thus, we refer "to see, sees, seeing, saw and seen" as five different words. In this sense, three different occurrences of any one of these word-form "see" has three letters and the word-form "seeing" has six. And, if we were counting the number of words in a passage, we would gladly

count see, sees, seeing, saw and seen as five different word-forms but belonging to the same lexeme.

Affixes, bases, and roots

Root words come from Latin or Greek words. They can also be known as a "word root" or just a "root." While these may have been whole words in Latin and Greek, root words can't be used alone in English. For example, *aud* is a Latin root word that has to do with hearing. This is the root of common English words like *auditorium, audio*, and *audition* - all of which have to do with hearing someone or something. *Aud* doesn't mean anything on its own in English - that is, you can't use it as a stand-alone word - but understanding the meaning of the root makes it easier to figure out what the English words that use it mean.

Base words, on the other hand, are always words that can stand alone in English. These words have meaning on their own, but they can also have prefixes and suffixes added to them to make new words. For example, *cycle* is a full word in English, but it can also be added to, to make words like *bicycle* and *cyclist*. *Cycle* is the base word, or the simplest form of the word without any prefixes or suffixes added.

When dealing with root and base words, things get tricky when the base word also has a Greek or Latin root. For example, civil is a base word that describes someone courteous, or something related to ordinary citizens. This base word stands alone, but it can also be added to, to create words like civilization, civility, and civilian.

Thought civil stands alone as a base word in English, it comes from the Latin root civ (from the Latin word civis), which relates to citizens. You can't use civ on its own in English, but it's still part of the base word civil. Note that civ is also a root in words that are not connected to the base word civil, including the word civics.

Occasionally, a base word in English is the same as a Latin root. For example, the word act stands alone in English, making it a base word. Act is also a Latin root that comes from the Latin word actum. In this case, a root word and base word are the same, and both can be added on to to make words like action, reaction and actual.

Base words and root words are not the same, even if in a few cases a word can be labeled as both. Understanding root words will help you learn more words in English more quickly. As you begin to understand the Greek and Latin roots of common words, you'll notice them in more places, and this will give you a clue to the meaning of an unfamiliar word.

Likewise, knowing base words will also help you understand new words as well as how prefixes and suffixes can change a word's meaning. When you see how all the pieces of a word work together, you'll have a greater appreciation for English and how its vast vocabulary came to be.

Affix is a compound for a root or base who can stand alone. In Indonesia, we called affixes as a *"imbuhan"*. Affixes separated into two types; prefixes and suffixes. Prefixes are affixes who stand in front of the word, such as re-, un-, de, etc. In the other hand, suffix is a affix who stand behind the word, such as -able, -ing, etc.

Morphemes and allomorphs

A morpheme is a minimal unit of meaning in a language. It can be defined as the smallest, meaningful, morphological unit in a language that cannot be further divided or analyzed. In linguistics, morphemes are classified into two categories. They are free morpheme and bound morpheme. A free morpheme is a word, that is, a free morpheme is a meaningful unit. Some examples of free morphemes include, *hat, believe, cheap, talk, red, new, cow, deliver, legal, etc.*

Note that all free morphemes are words, but not all words are morphemes. Bound morphemes are the units that

cannot stand alone. On their own, they have no meaning. It always has to be added to other morphemes to give a meaning. The underlined parts in the following words are bound morphemes.

- Hat<u>s</u>
- <u>Dis</u>believe
- Cheap<u>ly</u>
- Talk<u>ed</u>
- Red<u>dish</u>

Bound Morphemes can be further divided into two categories called derivational and inflectional morphemes. Derivational morpheme is a morpheme that is added to the (the base form) of the word to derive a new word.

Example 1:
- Danger ⇒ Danger<u>ous</u>
- Beauty ⇒ Beauti<u>ful</u>

Example 2:
- Visible ⇒ <u>in</u>visible
- Believe ⇒ <u>Dis</u>believe

Derivational morphemes often change the word class of a word. (as in example 1). Even if the word class remains unchanged, the meaning of the word will undergo a significant difference. (as in example 2)

In contrast, inflectional morphemes do not cause a change in the meaning or word class, they merely serve as grammatical markers. They indicate some grammatical information about a word.

- Danc<u>ed</u> –Past Tense
- Van<u>s</u> – Plural

Allomorph is a variant form of a morpheme. It can be simply described as a unit of meaning that varies in sound without changing its meaning. Allomorph is an alternative pronunciation of a morpheme in a particular context.

For instance, the plural morpheme in English, generally written as {s} has 3 allomorphs.

- /s/ as in *cats*
- /z/ as in *dogs*
- /ɪz/ as in *boxes*

The past form morphemes also have three allomorphs.

- /d/ as in *slammed*
- /t/as in *slipped*
- /ɪd/ as in *stilted*

Difference Between Morpheme and Allomorph
Definition

- Morpheme is the minimal unit of meaning in a language.
- Allomorph is a unit of meaning that varies in sound without changing its meaning.

Nature :

Morphemes can be a word or part of a word.

Allomorph are often a part of a word.

Area :

Morphemes are concerned with the structure and meaning of words.

Allomorph are concerned with the sound of words.

THEORY 5
DEFINITION OF SYNTAX
****

In linguistics, "syntax" refers to the rules that govern how words combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. The term "syntax" comes from the Greek, meaning "arrange together." The term is also used to mean the study of the syntactic properties of a language. In computer contexts, the term refers to the proper ordering of symbols and codes so that the computer can understand what instructions are telling it to do. Linguistics takes a different approach to these categories and separates words into morphological and syntactic groups. Linguistics analyzes words according to their affixes and the words that follow or precede them. Hopefully, the following definitions of the parts of speech will make more sense and be more useful than the old definitions of grammar school books.

HEARING AND SPEAKING SYNTAX

The syntax is one of the major components of grammar. It's the concept that enables people to know how to start a question with a question word ("What is that?"), or that adjectives generally come before the nouns they describe ("green chair"), subjects often come before verbs in non-question sentences ("She jogged"), prepositional phrases start with prepositions ("to the store"), helping verbs come before main verbs ("can go" or "will do"), and so on.

In a language such as English, the main device for showing the relationship among words is word order; e.g., in "The girl loves the boy," the subject is in the initial position, and the object follows the verb. Transposing them changes the meaning. In many other languages, case markers indicate grammatical relationships. In Latin, for example, "The girl loves the boy" may be puella puerum amat with "the girl" in the

initial position, or puerum puella amat with "the boy" in the initial position, or amat puella puerum, amat puerum puella, or puella amat puerum. The meaning remains constant because the -um ending on the form for "boy" indicates the object of the verb, regardless of its position in the sentence. The study of syntax also includes the investigation of the relations among sentences that are similar, such as "John saw Mary" and "Mary was seen by John."

For native speakers, using correct syntax is something that comes naturally, as word order is learned as soon as an infant starts absorbing the language. Native speakers can tell something isn't said quite right because it "sounds weird," even if they can't detail the exact grammar rule that makes something sound "off" to the ear.

"It is syntax that gives the words the power to relate to each other in a sequence...to carry meaning—of whatever kind—as well as glow individually in just the right place" (Burgess 1968)

SYNTATIC RULES

English parts of speech often follow ordering patterns in sentences and clauses, such as compound sentences are joined by conjunctions (and, but, or) or that multiple adjectives modifying the same noun follow a particular order according to their class (such as number-size-color, as in "six small green chairs"). The rules of how to order words help the language parts make sense.

Sentences often start with a subject, followed by a predicate (or just a verb in the simplest sentences) and contain an object or a complement (or both), which shows, for example, what's being acted upon. Take the sentence "Beth slowly ran the race in wild, multicolored flip-flops." The sentence follows a subject-verb-object pattern ("Beth ran the race"). Adverbs and adjectives take their places in front of what they're modifying ("slowly ran"; "wild, multicolored flip-flops"). The

object ("the race") follows the verb "ran", and the prepositional phrase ("in wild, multicolored flip-flops") starts with the preposition "in".

In the English language, there are some specific rules writers must follow for proper syntax. Below are some of the most important syntactic rules that form the basis for proper English writing.

The SVO Pattern

The SVO pattern (Subject-Verb-Object) is the most common syntactic structure in written English. However, there are many ways to add variety to the pattern and make sentences more interesting.

Example:

I like chocolate : SVO

The professor I told you about rejected my research proposal :

            S   V   O

The woman next door sells her homemade cupcakes

        S   V   O

I like chocolate.
S V O

The professor I told you about   rejected   my research proposal.
S   V   O

The woman next door   sells   her homemade cupcakes.
S   V   O

All Syntactic Patterns

In total, there are 7 syntactic patterns, but all must contain at least a subject (S) and a verb (V). Other elements

include a direct object (O), indirect object (IO), complement (C), and adverbial (A).

S + V: Alicia laughed.

S + V + O: Alicia caught the ball.

S + V + C: Alicia is happy.

S + V + C: Alicia plays well.

S + V + IO + O: Alicia passed Mark the ball.

S + V + O + C: Alicia got her shoes muddy.

S + V + O + A: Alicia wrote her number on the card.

Statements

The majority of sentences are statements that carry a declarative structure. In most of these sentences, the clause contains a subject, and the subject precedes a verb.

Example:

Mark caught the ball.

In the sentence above, "Mark" is the subject, and it precedes the verb "caught."

Questions

Questions are used to elicit information. They carry an interrogative structure and usually begin with a question word (who, what where, when, why, how).

There are 3 main types of questions:

Yes/No questions

Who/what/where/when/why/how   questions Alternative questions (prompting a response related to options).

Questions with Inflection

Some questions take the structure of a declarative sentence. They still end with a question mark, and one's tone usually rises at the end to indicate that the statement is a question.

Example:

You're going to Italy next month?

Tag Questions

In tag questions, the interrogative inversion appears at the end of the statement.

Example:

You studied for the exam, didn't you?

Exclamatory Questions

With exclamatory questions, the interrogative structure is present, but one's tone usually falls at the end.

Example:

How great is this!

Directives

Directives, also known as imperatives or commands, are sentences that instruct others to do something.

Examples:

Do your homework!

Put the keys on the table.

Don't do that!

Parallel Structure

A parallel structure is also important for proper syntax. This is most often an issue when expressing a series of items or verbs.

For example:

I like running, swimming, and skiing. (Correct)

I like running, swim, and skiing. (Incorrect)

When forming a list such as the one above, it is important to choose either an infinitive or a gerund (verbs ending in "–ing") and stick with it for the entirety of your list.

SYNTAX vs. DICTION and FORMAL vs. INFORMAL

Diction refers to the style of writing or speaking that someone uses, brought about by their choice of words, whereas syntax is the order in which they're arranged in the spoken or written sentence. Something written using a very high level of diction, like a paper published in an academic journal or a lecture given in a college classroom, is written very formally.

Speaking to friends or texting is informal, meaning they have a low level of diction.

"It is essential to understand that the differences exist not because the spoken language is a degradation of written language but because any written language, whether English or Chinese, results from centuries of development and elaboration by a small number of users."Jim Miller.

Formal written works or presentations would likely also have more complex sentences or industry-specific jargon. They are directed to a more narrow audience than something meant to be read or heard by the general public, where the audience members' backgrounds will be more diverse.

Precision in word choice is less exacting in informal contexts than formal ones, and grammar rules are more flexible in spoken language than in formal written language. Understandable English syntax is more flexible than most.
"...the odd thing about English is that no matter how much you screw sequences word up, you understood, still, like Yoda, will be. Other languages don't work that way. French? Dieu! Misplace a single le or la and an idea vaporizes into a sonic puff. English is flexible: you can jam it into a Cuisinart for an hour, remove it, and meaning will still emerge."

SYNTAX VARIATIONS AND DISTINCTIONS

Syntax has changed some over the development of English through the centuries. "The proverb Whoever loved that loved not at first sight? indicates that English negatives could once be placed after main verbs" (Aitchison, 2001). And not all people speak English in exactly the same way. Social dialects learned by people with common backgrounds—such as a social class, profession, age group, or ethnic group—also may influence the speakers' syntax. Think of the differences between teenagers' slang and more fluid word order and grammar vs. research scientists' technical vocabulary and manner of speaking to each other. Social dialects are also called "social varieties."

BEYOND SYNTAX

Following proper syntax doesn't guarantee that a sentence will have meaning, though. Linguist Noam Chomsky created the sentence "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously," which is syntactically and grammatically correct because it has the words in the correct order and verbs that agree with subjects, but it's still nonsense. With it, Chomsky showed that rules governing syntax are distinct from meanings that words convey.

The distinction between grammar and syntax has been somewhat disrupted by recent research in lexicogrammar, which takes the words into account in grammar rules: For example, some verbs (transitive ones, that perform an action on something) always take direct objects.

A transitive (action) verb example:

"She removed the index card from the old recipe box."

The verb is "removed" and the object is "index card." Another example includes a transitive phrasal verb:

"Please look over my report before I turn it in."

"Look over" is the phrasal verb and "report" is the direct object. To be a complete thought, you need to include what's being looked over. Thus, it has to have a direct object.

THEORY 6
ENGLISH MORPHO-SYNTAX
****

Morphosyntax is another word for grammar. Grammar can be divided into morphology and syntax. As we know, morphology is the study of words and their rules of formation. And syntax is the study of sentences of their rules of formation. Essentially, morphology and syntax are studies of the same thing, formation rules of the language. But at different "levels". by calling it by the transparent term morphosyntax we are highlighting this dualism. When we talk about word-formation (morphology) we use terms like:
1. Noun
2. Verb
3. Adjective
4. Adverb
5. Pronoun
6. Determiner
7. Preposition
8. Conjunction
And when we talk about sentence-formation (syntax) we use terms like:
1. Subject
2. Verb
3. Object
4. Complement
5. Adverbial

The term verb unfortunately has "double duty" for word-forming and sentence-forming. So, when using the term be careful and clear to your reader/listener as to which meaning of the verb you are trying to convey. Note also that the sentence-formation terms do not appear in dictionary

definitions, indicating most clearly the idea that dictionaries are about words and not sentences.

So, morphosyntax is the study of grammatical categories or linguistic units that have both morphological and syntactical properties. The set of rules that govern linguistic units whose properties are definable by both morphological and syntactic criteria. The number category in nouns for example may be expressed morphologically (through inflectional endings) and syntactically (through agreement with verb). Tense, person, and voice are examples of other morphosyntactic categories.
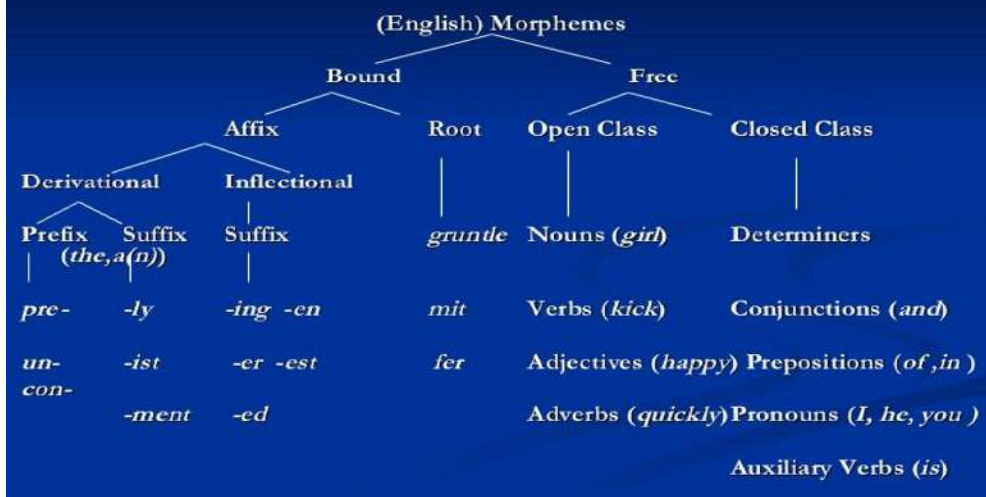
Morphology VS Lexicology

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that study the structure of words in a particular language and their classification. Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit grammar. Lexicology is the study of vocabulary of a language. Lexeme is the smallest unit in the meaning system of a language that can be distinguished from other similar unit. Morpheme is a short segment of language that meets three criteria:

1. It is word or part of a word that has meaning.
2. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of it's meaning or without meaningless remainders.
3. It recurs in differing verbal environment with relatively stable meaning.

There are some classifications of morpheme:
1. Free morpheme is a morpheme that can be uttered alone with meaning (stand by itself).
2. Bound morpheme is a morpheme cannot be uttered with meaning. It is always annexed to one or other morphemes to form a word. Example : re-, un-, -ly, etc
3. Base morpheme is a part of word that has principle meaning. Most of the bases are free but some are bound. Example : **deni**al, **lov**able, etc

Classification of some (English) morphemes

(English) Morphemes

- Bound
  - Affix
    - Derivational
      - Prefix
        - pre-
        - un-
        - con-
      - Suffix (the, a(n))
        - -ly
        - -ist
        - -ment
    - Inflectional
      - Suffix
        - -ing -en
        - -er -est
        - -ed
  - Root
    - gruntle
    - mit
    - fer
- Free
  - Open Class
    - Nouns (girl)
    - Verbs (kick)
    - Adjectives (happy)
    - Adverbs (quickly)
  - Closed Class
    - Determiners
    - Conjunctions (and)
    - Prepositions (of, in)
    - Pronouns (I, he, you)
    - Auxiliary Verbs (is)

Word-Formation

In linguistics, word formation is the creation of a new word. Word formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word's meaning. The boundary between word formation and semantic change can be difficult to define as a new use of an old word can be seen as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form. See 'conversion'. There are a number of methods of word formation:

1. Borrowing is a word or phrase borrowed form another form language by literal word-for-word or root-for-root translation. The English language has been borrowing words from "nearly a hundred languages in the last hundred years". Most of the loan words are noun only some of them are verbs or adjective. Example : memorandum, agenda, sponsor (Latin); panorama, python, pneumonia (Greek); chakra, mahatma, nirvana (Sanskrit).

2. Coinage is the word formation process of inventing entirely new words. Example : robotic (1941), black hole (1968) and so on.

3. Calque is direct translation of the element of a word into the borrowing language. Word-for-word translation of a phrase borrowed from another language. Example: Spanish-English: perros calientes-hot dog.

4. Compounding words are formed when two or more lexemes combine into a single new word. Compound words may be written as one word or as two words joined with a hyphen. For example:

- noun-noun compound: note + book → notebook
- adjective-noun compound: blue + berry → blueberry
- verb-noun compound: work + room → workroom
- noun-verb compound: breast + feed → breastfeed
- verb-verb compound: stir + fry → stir-fry
- adjective-verb compound: high + light → highlight
- verb-preposition compound: break + up → breakup
- preposition-verb compound: out + run → outrun
- adjective-adjective compound: bitter + sweet → bittersweet
- preposition-preposition compound: in + to → into

5. Derivation is the process of forming a new word on the basis of an existing word. Example: happiness and unhappy from happy. It often involves the addition of a morpheme in the form of an affix such as: -ness, un-, and -ation

6. Blending is the word formation process in which parts of two or more words combine to create a new word whose meaning is often a combination of the original words. Below are examples of blending words.

- advertisement + entertainment → advertainment
- biographical + picture → biopic
- breakfast + lunch → brunch
- chuckle + snort → chortle
- cybernetic + organism → cyborg
- guess + estimate → guesstimate
- hazardous + material → hazmat
- motor + hotel → motel

- prim + sissy → prissy
- simultaneous + broadcast → simulcast
- smoke + fog → smog
- Spanish + English → Spanglish
- spoon + fork → spork
- telephone + marathon → telethon
- web + seminar → webinar

Blended words are also referred to as portmanteaus.

7. In linguistics, back-formation is the process of forming a new word (a **neologism**) by removing actual or supposed affixes from another word. Put simply, a back-formation is a shortened word (such as edit) created from a longer word (editor). Verb: back-form (which is itself a back-formation). Example : donation - donate, emotion - emote, editor- edit.

8. Conversion is the word formation process in which a word of one grammatical form becomes a word of another grammatical form without any changes to spelling or pronunciation. For example, the noun email appeared in English before the verb: a decade ago I would have sent you an email (noun) whereas now I can either send you an email (noun) or simply email (verb) you. The original noun email experienced conversion, thus resulting in the new verb email. Conversion is also referred to as zero derivation or null derivation with the assumption that the formal change between words results in the addition of an invisible morpheme. However, many linguistics argue for a clear distinction between the word formation processes of derivation and conversion.

9. An acronym is a pronounceable word formed from the first letter (or first few letters) of each word in a phrase or title. The newly combined letters create a new word that becomes a part of everyday language. Using shortened forms of words or phrases can speed up communication. Explore this useful shorthand with these examples of acronyms. Example :

LASER - Light Amplification by the Stimulated Emission of Radiation
Our cat loves to chase a little red LASER beam.
RADAR - Radio Detection and Ranging
The police officer used RADAR to catch them speeding
ASAP - As Soon As Possible
We have to get to the hospital ASAP!

10. Initialism are pronounced as a sequence of a letters. Example : DNA and USA

11. Onomatopoeia The word onomatopoeia comes from the combination of two Greek words, *onoma* meaning "name" and *poiein* meaning "to make," so onomatopoeia literally means "to make a name (or sound)." That is to say that the word means nothing more than the sound it makes. The word **boing**, for example, is simply a sound effect, but one that is very useful in making writing or storytelling more expressive and vivid.

Many onomatopoeic words can be verbs as well as nouns. **Slap**, for instance, is not only the sound that is made by skin hitting skin but also the action of hitting someone (usually on the face) with an open hand. **Rustle** is the sound of something dry, like paper, brushing together, but it can also indicate the action of someone moving papers around and causing them to brush together, thus making this noise. Example : buzz, hush, tick-tack, ect.

12. Clipping is the word formation process in which a word is reduced or shortened without changing the meaning of the word. Clipping differs from back-formation in that the new word retains the meaning of the original word. For example:

- advertisement – ad
- alligator – gator
- examination – exam
- gasoline – gas
- gymnasium – gym

- influenza – flu
- laboratory – lab
- mathematics – math
- memorandum – memo
- photograph – photo
- public house – pub
- raccoon – coon
- reputation – rep
- situation comedy – sitcom
- telephone – phone

The four types of clipping are back clipping, fore-clipping, middle clipping, and complex clipping. Back clipping is removing the end of a word as in gas from gasoline. Fore-clipping is removing the beginning of a word as in gator from alligator. Middle clipping is retaining only the middle of a word as in flu from influenza. Complex clipping is removing multiple parts from multiple words as in sitcom from situation comedy.

THEORY 7
DEFINITION OF SEMANTICS
****

Semantics term in a programming language is used to figure out the relationship among the syntax and the model of computation. It emphasizes the interpretation of a program so that the programmer could understand it in an easy way or predict the outcome of program execution. An approach known as **syntax-directed semantics** is used to map syntactical constructs to the computational model with the help of a function.

The programming language semantics can be described by the various techniques – Algebraic semantics, Axiomatic semantics, Operational semantics, Denotational semantics, and Translation semantics.

- **Algebraic semantics** interprets the program by defining an algebra.
- **Axiomatic semantics** determine the meaning of a program by building assertions about an association that detain at each point in the execution of the program (i.e. implicitly).
- **Operational semantics** compares the languages to the abstract machine, and the program is then evaluated as a sequence of the state transitions.
- **Denotational semantics** expresses the meaning of the program in the form of a set of functions operating on the program state.
- **Translational semantics** focuses on the methods used for translating a program into another language.

Since meaning in language is so complex, there are actually different theories used within semantics, such as formal semantics, lexical semantics, and conceptual semantics.

● **Formal Semantics** - Formal semantics uses techniques from math, philosophy, and logic to analyze the broader relationship between language and reality, truth and possibility. Has your teacher ever asked you to use an "if... then" question? It breaks apart lines of information to detect the underlying meaning or consequence of events.

● **Lexical Semantics** - Lexical semantics deconstruct words and phrases within a line of text to understand the meaning in terms of context. This can include a study of individual nouns, verbs, adjectives, prefixes, root words, suffixes, or longer phrases or idioms.

● **Conceptual Semantics** - Conceptual semantics deals with the most basic concept and form of a word before our thoughts and feelings added context to it. For example, at its most basic we know a cougar to be a large wild cat. But, the word cougar has also come to indicate an older woman who's dating a younger man. This is where context is important.

SCOPE OF SEMANTICS

The answer of the scope of Semantics should relate to all meaningful utterance of language and the relationship of meaning, which is contained by the utterance. In other words, the scope of Semantics is the characterization of meaning and its relation. There are at least two major approaches to know how the way meaning in a language is studied. The first is linguistics approach, the second is philosophical approach. Philosophers have investigated the relation between linguistic expression, such as the words of language and the persons, things and events in the world to which these words refer.

There are three basic terms have been widely used in each of these approaches, i.e. (1) meaning, (2) sense, and (3) reference. The term 'meaning' is simply derived from the word 'mean'. The notion of sense and reference are central to the study of meaning. Reference is not only meant the words which

refs to something but also to the words which can not be brought forward for the existence of something but have lexical items referring to it, while the sense is a relation which occur between two lexical items

FUNCTION OF SEMANTICS

The purpose of semantics is to propose exact meanings of words and phrases, and remove confusion, which might lead the readers to believe a word has many possible meanings. It makes a relationship between a word and the sentence through their meanings. Besides, semantics enable the readers to explore a sense of the meaning because, if we remove or change the place of a single word from the sentence, it will change the entire meaning, or else the sentence will become anomalous. Hence, the sense relation inside a sentence is very important, as a single word does not carry any sense or meaning.

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LEXICAL AND PHRASAL SEMANTICS

Lexical semantics is concerned with the meanings of words and the meaning of relationships among words, while phrasal semantics is concerned with the meaning of syntactic units larger than the word. Semantic properties are the components of meanings of words. For example, the semantic property "human" can be found in many words such as parent, doctor, baby, professor, widow, and aunt. Other semantic properties include animate objects, male, female, countable items and non-countable items.

THE "NYMS"

Homonyms: different words that are pronounced the same, but may or may not be spelled the same (to, two, and too)

Polysemous: word that has multiple meanings that are related conceptually or historically (bear can mean to tolerate or to carry or to support)

Homograph: different words that are spelled identically and possibly pronounced the same; if they are pronounced the same, they are also homonyms (pen can mean writing utensil or cage)

Heteronym: homographs that are pronounced differently (dove the bird and dove the past tense of dive)

Synonym: words that mean the same but sound different (couch and sofa)

Antonym: words that are opposite in meaning

Complementary pairs: alive and dead

Gradable pairs: big and small (no absolute scale)

Hyponym: set of related words (red, white, yellow, blue are all hyponyms of "color")

Metonym: word used in place of another to convey the same meaning (jock used for athlete, Washington used for American government, crown used for monarcy)

Retronym: expressions that are no longer redundant (silent movie used to be redundant because a long time ago, all movies were silent, but this is no longer true or redundant)

THE MATIC ROLES

Thematic roles are the semantic relationships between the verbs and noun phrases of sentences. The following chart shows the thematic roles in relationship to verbs of sentences:

Thematic role	Description	Example
Agent	the one who performs an action	Maria ran
Theme	the person or thing that undergoes an action	Marry called John
Location	the place where an action takes place	It rains in spain
Goal	the place to which an action is directed	Put the cat on the porch
Source	the place from which an action originates	He flew from Chicago to LA
Instruments	the means by which an action is performed	He cuts his hair with scissors
Experiencer	one who perceives something	She heard Bob play the piano
Causative	a natural force that causes a change	The wind destroyed the house
Possessor	one who has something	The tail of the cat got caught
Recipient	one who receives something	I gave it to the girl

THE GOALS OF SEMANTICS THEORY

Semantics can be limited both in theory and in practice, to sense relations. One example is to be found in a well known article by J.J Katz and J.A Fodor entitled, "the structure of semantic theory". In this article, they talk about sentence and their theory is based upon word meaning. They states: "A semantic theory describes and explains the interpretive ability of speakers: by accounting for their performance in determining the number of reading of a sentence; by detecting semantic anomalies: by deciding upon paraphrase relations between sentences; and by marking every other semantic property or relation that plays a role in this ability". (Katz and Fodor in Palmer). It means that a semantic theory must account for ambiguity, anomaly, redundancy, paraphrase, etc. In studying about semantics theory, they are two goals (Akmajian, 1979:240):

1. A semantic theory should attribute to reach expression in the language the semantic properties and relations it has and it should define those properties and relations. This means that if an expression is meaningful, the semantic theory should say so. If the expression is ambiguous, the semantic theory should record that fact, and so on. Moreover, if two expressions are synonymous, or on entails the other, the semantic theory should mark these semantic relations.

2. A semantic theory should have at least two kinds of contains:
   a. A semantic theory of a natural language should be finite; people are capable of storing only a finite amount of information but they nevertheless learn the semantics of natural languages.
   b. A semantic theory of a natural language should reflect the fact, except for the idioms, expressions are compositional. This means that the meaning of a syntactically complex expression is determined by the

meaning of its constituent and their grammatical relations.

Examples of Semantics:

A toy block could be called a block, a cube, a toy.

A child could be called a child, kid, boy, girl, son, daughter.

The word "run" has many meanings-physically running, depart or go (I have to run, spent (it has run its course), or even a snag in a pair of hose (a run in my hose).

Examples of Semantics in Literature:

#Example 1. In Romeo and Juliet, Juliet refers to the abstract concept of the meaning of a name by comparing Romeo to a flower:

O, be some other name!

What's in a name? That which we call a rose

by any other name would smell as sweet;

So Romeo would, were he not Romeo called.

#Example 2. William Wordsworth seeks to describe how he feels when reflecting on a beautiful image of daffodils, even after the fact. He uses metaphorical language to figuratively describe how his heart "dances":

For oft, when on my couch I lie

In vacant or in pensive mood,

They flash upon that inward eye

is the bliss of solitude;

then my heart with pleasure fills,

And dances with the daffodils.

#Example 3. Walt Whitman refers to Abraham Lincoln as a "captain" and America as a "ship" in his famous poem after Lincoln's death:

Captain! my Captain! our fearful trip is done,

The ship has weather'd every rack, the prize we sought is won,

The port is near, the bells I hear, the people all exulting,

While follow eyes the steady keel, the vessel grim and daring;

But O heart! heart! heart!

O the bleeding drops of red,

Where on the deck my Captain lies,
Fallen cold and dead.

#Example 4: A Portrait of An Artist As a Young Man (By James Joyce)

The use of denotation or general meaning can be seen in the very first chapter of James Joyce's A Portrait of An Artist As a Young Man, when Stephen expresses his feelings for his mother and father saying:

"His mother had a nicer smell than his father."

This sentence is conveying a denotative or general meaning that he likes his mother more than his father. Thus the meaning is understandable and acceptable for all types of readers around the world. Hence, the general acceptability for all people is the major factor for communicating with people successfully.

#Example 5 Hamlet (By William Shakespeare)

In the famous soliloquy of Prince Hamlet, "To be or not to be," William Shakespeare has used a word that we use quite differently these days. Hamlet says:

"When we have shuffled off this mortal coil …"

Here, "mortal coil" carries a connotative meaning that suggests life, as Hamlet compares death to sleep. However, we are using coils in different connection today, which means a series of spirals tightly joined together.

THEORY 8
WHAT IS PRAGMATICS
****

What is pragmatic language? Pragmatic language is the use of appropriate communication in social situations (knowing what to say, how to say it, and when to say it). Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that investigates the ways language is tied to the contexts in which it is used. Pragmatics thus coalesces as a distinct and coherent domain of inquiry only in relation to the study of language abstracted from its use in context, which has been the prime focus of both twentieth century linguistics and philosophy of language. Investigation of standard pragmatic issues such as deixis, presupposition, speech acts, implicatures, politeness, and information structure has been motivated by a variety of difficulties and impasses encountered in the analysis of language in a significantly de-contextualized form.

This entry focuses on the ways such pragmatic phenomena have complicated propositional and lexical-grammatical abstractions of language, and some of the prominent pragmatic frameworks developed to address these complications.

Pragmatic language involves three major skills: Using language for different purposes such as:

• Greeting (Hello. Goodbye. How are you?)
• Informing (I am leaving.)
• Demanding (Say "Good-bye." Pick up the toy.)
• Stating (I am going to the playground.)
• Requesting (Do you want to go along?)

Changing language according to the listener or the situation, such as:

• Talking to a teacher versus talking to a baby
• Speaking in a classroom versus talking in the cafeteria

rules for conversation, such as:
•Taking turns while talking
• Introducing new topics
• Staying on topic
• Continuing the same topic as the other speaker
• Re-wording when misunderstood
• Using and understanding nonverbal signals (facial expression, eye contact, etc.)
• Respecting personal space
The autonomy of pragmatic meaning
Reference (deixis/anaphora)
• I am here now.
• We tried to buy the text, but they were out of them.
Implicature
• It is better to meet the love of your life and get married than get married and meet the love of your life.
• I have $4.37 on me. vs. I have $100 on me.
    For Levinson (1983), pragmatics is: "the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticized, or encoded in the structure of the language", i.e. those conventional aspects of non-literal meaning.
Some examples of pragmatic phenomena
• Metaphor He's a weed in our flower bed.
• Sarcasm Some friend you are.
• Litotes/understatement Gold medal gymnast: I did ok.
• Indirectness
Got a quarter?
Can you pass the salt?
• Tautology
If I lose, I lose.
• Contradiction [ad for cough drop] It's gone, but it isn't.
Relevance
What do you do? (walk, talk) [cocktail party vs. job counselor]
What are you doing? (breathing)
Any questions? (tennis balls)

Many choices regarding linguistic form are made on the basis of S's assumptions about H's knowledge and attention states with respect to a given context. A sentence grammar contains no mention of context, or speakers and hearers.

The pragmatic model of language is different. It requires a notion of speaker and hearer, and of the context of speaking and hearing. Therefore the basic units of analysis are different. For syntax and semantics, the focus is on the structure and meaning of individual sentences.

A sentence is:
• what conveys meaning.
• what expresses a proposition.
• what can be grammatical or ungrammatical (*).
• what can be meaningful or anomalous (?).

For pragmatics, the utterance is basic. An utterance is a sentence uttered by a particular speaker to a particular hearer at a particular time in a particular place for a particular purpose. It need not be oral. An utterance can be pragmatically felicitous or infelicitous (#), while a sentence can be syntactically grammatical or not (*). (n.b. we can't rely solely on our intuitions to distinguish between them!)

THEORY 9
PHILOLOGY
****

Philology is the study of changes over time in a particular language or language family. (A person who conducts such studies is known as a *philologist.*) Now more commonly known as historical linguistics.

In his book *Philology: The Forgotten Origins of the Modern Humanities* (2014), James Turner defines the term more broadly as "the multifaceted study of texts, languages, and the phenomenon of language itself." See the observations below.
Etymology: From the Greek, "fond of learning or of words"
Observations.

David Crystal: Hardly any academic research was taking place into grammar in the early decades of the [twentieth] century in Britain. And the academic work which *was* being done--the historical study of the language, or *philology*--was considered to be irrelevant to children whose primary need was literacy. Philology was particularly repugnant to teachers of English literature, who found it a dry and dusty subject.

James Turner: Philology has fallen on hard times in the English-speaking world (much less so in continental Europe). Many college-educated Americans no longer recognize the word. Those who do often thinks it means no more than scrutiny of ancient Greek or Roman texts by a nit-picking classicist.

"It used to be chic, dashing, and much ampler in girth. Philology reigned as king of the sciences, the pride of the first great modern universities--those that grew up in Germany in the eighteenth and earlier nineteenth centuries. Philology inspired the most advanced humanistic studies in the United States and the United Kingdom in the decades before 1850 and sent its generative currents through the intellectual life of

Europe and America... The word *philology* in the nineteenth century covered three distinct modes of research: (1) textual philology (including classical and biblical studies, 'oriental' literatures such as those in Sanskrit and Arabic, and medieval and modern European writings); (2) theories of the origin and nature of language; and (3) comparative study of the structure and historical evolution of languages and language families.

Top Shippey: What was happening from about 1800 on was the coming of 'comparative philology,' best described as the Darwinian event for the humanities as a whole. Like *The Origin of Species*, it was powered by wider horizons and new knowledge. By the late 18th century, conscientious British colonial administrators, who had had Latin and Greek drummed into them at school, found that they needed classical Persian, and even Sanskrit, to do their jobs properly. They could not help noticing the similarities between the Eastern languages and their classical counterparts. But what did these mean, and what was the origin, not of species, but of language differentiation? Comparative philology, tracing the history and development of especially the Indo-European languages, rapidly gained immense prestige, most of all in Germany. No discipline, declared Jacob Grimm, doyen of philologists and fairy-tale collector, 'is haughtier, more disputatious, or more merciless to error.' It was a hard science in every sense, like math or physics, with a ruthless ethic of finicky detail.

Henry Wyld: The public is extraordinarily interested in all sorts of questions connected with **English Philology**; in etymology, in varieties of pronunciation and grammatical usage, in the sources of the Cockney dialect, in vocabulary, in the origin of place and personal names, in the pronunciation of Chaucer and Shakespeare. You may hear these matters discussed in railway carriages and smoking-rooms; you may read long letters about them in the press, adorned sometimes with a display of curious information, collected at random, misunderstood, wrongly interpreted, and

used in an absurd way to bolster up preposterous theories. No, the subject-matter of English Philology possesses a strange fascination for the man in the street, but almost everything that he thinks and says about it is incredibly and hopelessly wrong. There is no subject which attracts a larger number of cranks and quacks than English Philology. In no subject, probably, is the knowledge of the educated public at a lower ebb.

W.F. Bolton: If the nineteenth was the century in which language was 'discovered,' the twentieth is the century in which language was enthroned. The nineteenth century took language apart in several senses: it learned how to look at language as an amalgam of sounds and hence how to study sounds; it came to understand the significance of variety in language; and it established language as a separate study, not part of history or of literature. **Philology** was called 'the nourishing parent of other studies' at best. It was when the other studies, notably new ones like anthropology, began in their turn to nourish philology that linguistics emerged. The new study became unlike its origins: as the century wore on, linguistics began to put language back together again. It became interested in the way sounds amalgamate to form words and words combine into sentences; it came to understand the universals beyond the apparent variety in language; and it reintegrated language with other studies, notably philosophy and psychology.

Comparative

The comparative linguistics branch of philology studies the relationship between languages. Similarities between Sanskrit and European languages were first noted in the early 16th century and led to speculation of a common ancestor language from which all these descended. It is now named Proto-Indo-European. Philology's interest in ancient languages led to the study of what were, in the 18th century,

"exotic" languages, for the light they could cast on problems in understanding and deciphering the origins of older texts.

Textual

Philology also includes the study of texts and their history. It includes elements of textual criticism, trying to reconstruct an author's original text based on variant copies of manuscripts. This branch of research arose among ancient scholars in the Greek-speaking world of the 4th century BC, who desired to establish a standard text of popular authors for the purposes of both sound interpretation and secure transmission. Since that time, the original principles of textual criticism have been improved and applied to other widely distributed texts such as the Bible. Scholars have tried to reconstruct the original readings of the Bible from the manuscript variants. This method was applied to Classical Studies and to medieval texts as a way to reconstruct the author's original work. The method produced so-called "critical editions", which provided a reconstructed text accompanied by a "critical apparatus", i.e., footnotes that listed the various manuscript variants available, enabling scholars to gain insight into the entire manuscript tradition and argue about the variants.

A related study method known as higher criticism studies the authorship, date, and provenance of text to place such text in historical context. As these philological issues are often inseparable from issues of interpretation, there is no clear-cut boundary between philology and hermeneutics. When text has a significant political or religious influence (such as the reconstruction of Biblical texts), scholars have difficulty reaching objective conclusions.

Some scholars avoid all critical methods of textual philology, especially in historical linguistics, where it is important to study the actual recorded materials. The movement known as New Philology has rejected textual

criticism because it injects editorial interpretations into the text and destroys the integrity of the individual manuscript, hence damaging the reliability of the data. Supporters of New Philology insist on a strict "diplomatic" approach: a faithful rendering of the text exactly as found in the manuscript, without emendations.

THEORY 10
STYLISTICS
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In recognition of the difficulties in defining precisely what constitutes stylistics, many textbooks in the field begin with an attempt at definition (e.g., Short, 1988). One such definition (Thornborrow & Wareing, 1998, p. 4) identifies three key aspects of stylistics. These are:

1. The use of linguistics (the study of language) to approach literary texts;
2. The discussion of texts according to objective criteria rather than according to purely subjective and impressionistic values;
3. An emphasis on the aesthetic properties of language (for example, the way rhyme can give pleasure).

Even so, Thornborrow and Wareing proceed immediately to qualify their definition, as the remainder of this section demonstrates. Concerning the first key aspect, the use of linguistics in approaching the study of literary texts, Thornborrow and Wareing note that although initially stylistics may have concerned itself with the analysis of literary texts, it has become clear that the kinds of texts which lend themselves to stylistic analysis exceed the boundaries of what is commonly taken to be "literary." Furthermore, as Thornborrow and Wareing point out, stylistics may have begun as a way of explaining how "meaning" in a text was created through a writer's linguistic choices, but in recent years this position has shifted somewhat. Thanks to research in the field of pragmatics, even linguists have come to realize that meaning is not stable and absolute, but depends as much upon the processes of interpretation undertaken by a reader or listener as upon the actual linguistic structures that are used. Consequently, account has to be taken of contextual factors,

which had been ignored in the past, such as the cultural background of the reader, the circumstances in which the particular text is read, etc. Rather than concern themselves exclusively with finding out "what a text means," stylisticians have become "more interested in the systematic ways language is used to create texts which are similar or different from one another, and . . . [to] link choices in texts to social and cultural context" (Thornborrow & Wareing, 1998, p. 5).

This is not to say that stylisticians are no longer concerned with discovering meanings in a text, but that they have begun to take greater account of the relationship between the text and the context in which it is both produced and received, and to consider the text as a part of discourse, rather than apart from it (e.g., Carter & McCarthy, 1994). In this way, stylistics has shifted away from the Saussurian structuralism with which it was once commonly associated, and which saw the text as predominantly monologic, stable, and self-referential, toward a more Bakhtinian notion of dialogism and the recognition that artistic form and meaning emerge from the exchange of ideas between people (Carter & McCarthy, 1994, p. 10). Widdowson (1975) was among the first to examine such textual features as the speaker's role in shaping meaning (the "I" of the text), point of view, and reader response, all of which have become focal points of later stylistic analysis, while issues of "literariness" and the place of imagination in text production and reception have become major areas of study.

Text, Context, and Interpretation

Several other scholars have tried to define the term "stylistics," though it is not surprising that an agreed definition remains elusive. Wales, in the first edition of her Dictionary of Stylistics (2001, pp. 437– 8), offers the following attempt: STYLISTICS: *The study of style . . . Just as style can be viewed in several ways, so*

there are several stylistic approaches. This variety in stylistics is due to the main

influences of linguistics and literary criticism . . . By far the most common kind of

material studied is literary; and attention is largely text-center . . . The goal of

most stylistics is not simply to describe the formal features of texts for their own

sake, but in order to show their functional significance for the interpretation of

text; or in order to relate literary effects to linguistic "causes" where these are felt

to be relevant . . .

In the second edition of the text, Wales (2001) reiterates her definition of stylistics as being a discipline principally concerned with describing the formal features of texts and the functional significance of these features in relation to the interpretation of the text. As such, it continues to have as much in common with literary criticism, especially practical criticism, as it does with linguistics. She points out that "Intuition and interpretative skills are just as important in stylistics as in literary criticism; however, Stylisticians want to avoid vague and impressionistic judgement about the way formal features are manipulated (not that good literary criticism is necessarily vague or impressionistic" (2001, p. 373).

As a branch of applied linguistics, then, stylistics drew upon developments in descriptive linguistics (especially in its earlier stages), and particularly so in relation to grammar, through which it developed many of its models and "tools" for analysis. Throughout the latter half of the twentieth century and now into the twenty-first, it has also drawn upon developments in literary theory, and has been particularly indebted to reception theory for its shift in focus to include not only considerations thrown up by the text, but also to recognize how we as readers shape a text and in turn are shaped by it.

Added to this have been developments in cognitive linguistics, which draws upon psychological theories of processing. Similarly, the study of pragmatics demands that the act of interpretation takes into account the structures of language actually in use. These issues are particularly important for an analysis of the language of drama, and also when considering interactional and contextual aspects of linguistic behavior, including speech act theory and conversational analysis. A further aspect of textual analysis with which some Stylisticians concern themselves, and which others oppose, is the study of the extent to which interpretation is influenced by the perceived existence of tensions between the text and its reception in the wider context of social relations and sociopolitical structures in general: i.e., the ideology underlying the text (see: Fairclough, 1989; Kress, 1989; Mills, 1995). Stylistic analysis thus becomes embedded within a framework of critical discourse analysis (CDA). In this way, explorations of authority, power, and inequality feature as part of stylistic analysis, which pays attention to the formal features of the text and its reception within a reading community in relation to ideology. Haynes' Introducing Stylistics (1992) and Mills' Feminist Stylistics (1995) are two examples of such an approach. However, this development has been the subject of much controversy, not least because all texts chosen for analysis are generally selected in ways which inevitably throw up ideological considerations: e.g., newspaper reports, doctor–patient conversations, etc. (Fairclough, 1996; Toolan, 1997; Widdowson, 1995). Furthermore, the framework for textual analysis at an ideological level is nowhere near as fully developed as those which deal with its more formal, linguistic levels, and with which stylistics is more usually associated.

Nevertheless, despite such criticisms, CDA has been the first attempt so far to   formalize a methodology, which seeks to articulate the relationship between a text and the context in

which it is produced and received. From its earlier formalist and structuralist beginnings, then, stylistics has broadened to include three distinct but interrelated strands, any of which can independently form the primary focus of study, or lend themselves to viable combination with either or both of their alternatives. These strands are:

1. That which is concerned with the recognizably formal and linguistic properties of a text existing as an isolated item in the world;
2. That which refers to the points of contact between a text, other texts, and their readers/listeners;
3. That which positions the text and the consideration of its formal and psychological elements within a sociocultural context.

Stylistics and Pedagogy

The pedagogic value of stylistics in terms of the teaching of representational language and how this works within a text, in both native speaker and non-native speaker contexts, has been defined by Short in these terms.

Stylistic analysis, unlike more traditional forms of practical criticism, is not interested primarily in coming up with new and startling interpretations of the texts it examines. Rather, its main aim is to explicate how our understanding of a text is achieved, by examining in detail the linguistic organization of a text and how a reader needs to interact with that linguistic organization to make sense of it. Often, such a detailed examination of a text does reveal new aspects of interpretation or helps us to see more clearly how a text achieves what it does. But the main purpose of stylistics is to show how interpretation is achieved, and hence provide support for a particular view of the work under discussion. (Short, 1995, p. 53) Style in any context but more particularly in the verbal, linguistic and literary context has generally been

defined rather vaguely and subjectively, so Short's practical way of looking at the issue is salutary.

In an L2 context, a first-year EFL class of near-beginners obviously has fewer linguistic tools than an advanced learners, but that should not preclude them from using stylistic approaches when reading texts. The use of stylistic approaches in a non-native speaker context is not vastly different from the approaches to reading and analysis in the native speaker context. One of the first things often demonstrated in a non-native speaker context is how very little should ever be taken for granted by either instructor or student. For example, readers in Bangladesh interpreted the poem by Wordsworth commonly known as "Daffodils" without knowing what daffodils were, and read them as possibly being beautiful birds, "fluttering and dancing in the breeze" and "tossing their heads in sprightly dance" (see Appendix 1, lines 6, 12; also McRae, 1998, pp. 33–5.) This is simply a question of unfamiliar lexis, but the reading serves in a connotational sense to show how over-familiarity with predetermined lexical meaning can deny the reader the potential of meanings beyond lexical definitions.

A closer look quickly reveals that the poem contains many words even pairs of words and longer phrases – which are highly charged: "golden," "dancing," "bliss," and "pleasure" represent only a few. Productive analysis can result from allowing a class to discuss the differences between words like "crowd" (line 3) and "host" (line 4); between "host" and "company" (line 16). Students could be invited to consider the contrast between the actions performed by the speaker (the aimless "wandering" of line 1 and the recumbent position described in lines 19–20) and the "fluttering" and "tossing" of the daffodils' "sprightly dance" (lines 6, 12). Similarly, they might reflect upon the inherent tensions between phrases like "little thought" and "pensive mood"
(lines 17 and 20). How would they account for the contradiction between the "lonely" mood of the speaker in line

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1 and "the bliss of solitude" in line 22? (Indeed, the students could eventually be asked to evaluate the assertion that the whole text should be read as charting a movement from that psychological state of loneliness to the appreciation of the bliss of solitude.) And of course, the students engaged in such an exercise would be encouraged to find other lexical tensions/binary oppositions of their own.

The poem's syntax, too, can be a useful tool, as demonstrated to give but one example – in line 11 ("Ten thousand saw I at a glance") with its shift from the traditional subject-verb-object relationship. This is known as foregrounding, in that more emphasis is placed upon the word that should be the object – the daffodils in this case, "present" here in the elliptical omission. The reader must also ask the obvious question here: how many daffodils did the speaker see? The figure of "Ten thousand" does not represent the literal number (and indicates still less that the speaker actually counted them!), but rather serves to confirm the word "host" in line 4. What matters most linguistically is that the daffodils are now in "subject position" within the reader's consciousness, and the "I" of the speaker is relegated to the less important "object position."

Attention could also be paid to Wordsworth's use in stanzas 2– 4 of the cohesive pronouns "them" and "they," which take the place of the noun "daffodils." The "I" disappears, too, becoming "a poet" in line 15: a less personal, more general referent. Line 15 ("A poet could not but be gay") is in many ways one of the most significant lines in the whole text. The word "gay" here means joyful or happy (a synonym for "jocund" in the next line), but the syntax suggests ambiguity: is the poet gay or isn't he? The answer, of course, is "yes" – the positive meaning emerges despite the negative-seeming construction: he could not be anything but gay. It should, however, be noted how static the text has become by the end of this stanza with any verbs of movement firmly associated with the daffodils.

The fact that the speaker only "gazes" is stated twice in one line (17), along with the suggestion that at this point in the account he is not even thinking. Another important development in this third stanza is the change in verb tense in line 18 with "had brought" – a time shift which bridges the narrative past tense of the first three stanzas and the present tense we will find in the final stanza. The word "For" (line 19) opening stanza 4 is also vital here; as is so often the case, this connector carries the thrust of the text's movement forward, underscoring the contrast between "little thought" and what has actually happened after the speaker saw the daffodils (and still continues to happen for him).

As the paragraphs above suggest, by the time the reader reaches the last stanza she or he has encountered several sets of linguistic signals which have worked together to communicate a sense of movement that is occurring on many levels within the poem: the change in nature of the physical motions described by the speaker; the shift in focus from the passivity of the speaker to vibrant activity of the flowers; the shift in time from past to present; the fluctuation in the speaker's emotional barometer from sadness, through a kind of cautious cheerfulness to outright blissful serenity, etc.

This process reaches its culmination in stanza 4, as the daffodils become unmistakable as the active subject of the text, as "they flash upon that inward eye" of the speaker (line 21). The "I" is in a completely passive, Zen-like state, ready to receive whatever might happen. The daffodils have taken him over: this happens "oft," and the connectors of time tell us the sequence, with "oft" (line 19) leading directly to "when" in the same line, which in turn leads to the main verb "flash" in line 21. Line 22 ("Which is the bliss of solitude") takes us inward and ends with a semi-colon, leading on to a "then" in line 23, thus completing a sequence through which the reader has traveled from the past tense of narrative preceding line 18, into the speaker's present experience (and presumably onward

into his expectations for the future). Likewise, the reference to "that inward eye" represents the end of another journey initiated at the opening of the text when the speaker's eye looked outward, thus confirming the shift in focus already noted from outer- to inner-self. The movement is completed only in the last line of the poem, where the climax of pleasure and harmony is reached – indicating the speaker's arrival at a "place" about as far away as it is possible to get from the lonely wandering of line 1.

This type of analysis reveals how much more than a mere description of natural beauty the poem "Daffodils" really is, making as it does significant points in the final stanza about the nature of human perception and the importance of remaining open to our impressions, for the sake of both our general happiness and ongoing spiritual development. But as highly worthy as that achievement is, that result represents a secondary objective for the exercise.

The primary purpose of stylistics is to improve students' sensitivities toward language usage through the analysis of specific texts: a goal that would yield enormous benefits in both L1 and L2 contexts. To return to the case of Bangladeshi students, readers who do not know what daffodils are will undoubtedly have a very different experience of the Wordsworth text. But through the type of analysis outlined above, they would also receive a number of fundamental tools which would prove invaluable for unlocking the meanings of linguistic codes of all sorts, and which by doing so would also place in its true perspective their initial mistake of interpreting "daffodils" to mean "beautiful birds." And that lexical error, of course, raises another question which all future students of the poem.

THEORY 11
WHAT IS NEUROLINGUISTICS?
****

Neurolinguistics is the branch of linguistics that analyzes the language impairments that follow brain damage in terms of the principles of language structure. The term "neurolinguistic" is neutral about the linguistic theory it refers to, but any linguistically based approach to aphasia therapy is based on the principle that language has an internal organization that can be described by a system of rules. The neurolinguistic approach stresses the role of language in aphasia and analyzes it according to principles of theoretical linguistics.

The first linguistically based typology of aphasic impairments is probably that of Roman Jakobson (1964), although Alajouanine and colleagues (1939, 1964) had already stressed the role of some linguistic phenomena in aphasia. Many authors have underlined the importance of linguistic theory for aphasia therapy (Hatfield, 1972; MacMahon, 1972; Hatfield and Shewell, 1983; Lesser, 1989; Miller, 1989), but linguistic analyses were not carried out in great detail until interest in aphasia expanded beyond the field of neurology to disciplines such as linguistics, speech–language pathology, and psychology.

Neurolinguistic factors explain the probable link between eye movement and the brain's language processing mechanisms. This explanation distinguishes among the idea and information processing modes through which we function and suggests that each of us has preferences in the way in which we process information. The three primary modes of processing information are:
- Visual
- Auditory
- Kinesthetic

For example, when a person attempts to discern a faint sound, he generally looks toward the ear closest to the sound. After engaging in this movement a few hundred thousand times, over many years of development, the individual's brain becomes "hard-wired," or programmed, to reflexively look toward his ear when trying to hear or remember a sound. The same thing occurs with vision and kinesics. A person will survey a picture by moving his eyes up and across the picture to register its composition, colors, and size. Again, once the individual does this a few hundred thousand times, it too becomes programmed into the individual's psychomotor pathways. Kinesis thinkers are programmed by looking down to their abdomens when the butterflies of nervousness and fear are present.

Neurolinguistics has had a substantial history of computational modeling. Most traditional models have used static, symbolic data structures on which functions act to produce linguistic output. An alternative paradigm, the connectionist approach, uses graded, dynamic representations that are processed by simple mechanisms. It has provided sufficient accounts of high-level behaviors using distributed networks of simple processing units.

While providing demonstrations of higher-level cognitive capacities, connectionist models have also been used to model aspects of primary motor and sensory systems. Thus, by providing a single framework, they have given some insight into how functional cognitive capacities may arise from neural hardware. Although connectionist models have had much success, there are still several problems in bridging the gap between cognition and brain. Although connectionist units are "neuron-like" elements, they are still abstract entities that only approximate real neurons. For example, although the activation levels are often taken to represent the average firing rate of a small group of real neurons, it may be that the temporal characteristics of neuronal spike trains encode

information, which would make a single real activation value insufficient to model real neurons' representations. In addition, connectionist models still show some deficiency in moving "up a level" to the computational capacities of symbolic models. In particular, issues such as generativity, systematicity, and productivity are all rather awkwardly handled by connectionist models

The main features of connectionist networks are multiple, simple processing units computing in parallel. Different types of networks include hard-wired networks and adaptive networks, in which connection strengths automatically adjust in response to the environment. Another breakdown can be made on the direction of information flow, with either feedforward or recurrent architectures. Finally, adaptive networks can be characterized according to the type of learning they perform. One class is supervised networks, in which an explicit teaching signal is used to map inputs to outputs. Another is unsupervised learning, in which no teacher is present, and the network learns interesting representations based purely on the statistics of the inputs.

In addition to providing plausible models of normal linguistic functions, these models have provided accounts for linguistic deficits. Models of deep dysphasia, deep dyslexia, developmental dyslexia, and category-specific aphasias have been presented, as well as others. In all of these, accounts of complicated syndromes have been presented without invoking simultaneous damage to modular subsystems. The ability of connectionist models to suggest parsimonious accounts provides support for these models.

Although connectionist models cannot currently account for all aspects of higher-level cognition, they have accounted for many features of language processing. They have done so while maintaining a link to how real structures in the brain behave. Although these models are not strictly biologically

plausible, they have suggested means by which neural structures may compute cognitive functions.

Neuro-Linguistic Programming

Neuro-linguistic Programming or NLP is a collection of very powerful tools and skills for change and communication that assists people in a wide range of professional areas including: counselling, psychotherapy, education, health, creativity, leadership and parenting.

NLP was found by John Grinder, an expert in linguistics and Richard Bandler, whose background was in mathematics and gestalt therapy, for the purpose of identifying specific models of human excellence. They studied the verbal and behavioural patterns of famous therapists, such as Fritz Perls (the creator of gestalt therapy), Virginia Satir (an internationally renowned family therapist) and Milton Erickson (one of the most widely acknowledged psychiatrists and hypnotherapists). Grinder and Bandler found, that by accurately modelling the patterns and techniques of these therapists they could replicate their results. Based on these findings, they developed specific modelling techniques, which they summarized as Neuro-Linguistic Programming. Neuro refers to the nervous system, Linguistic to language, and Programming to the repeated patterns and sequences of thought and behaviour.

In essence, all of NLP is founded on the three fundamental presuppositions: The Map is Not the Territory. As human beings, we are not able to know is *reality*. All we perceive has been filtered by the subconscious mind, which results in distortion, deletion and generalization of the information. It is the internal representation of reality that determines how we feel and behave, not reality itself. Therefore, it is generally not reality that limits us or empowers us, but rather our perception of it. Everything is connected within a complex system. Our bodies, our societies, and our

universe form an ecology of complex systems and sub-systems all of which interact with and mutually effect each other. It is not possible to completely isolate any part of the system from the rest of the system. These systems are based on certain 'self-organizing' principles and naturally seek optimal states of balance.

Everyone is doing their best with the resources they have available. We always make the best choices available to us, given our current model of the world and of the situation. In addition to that, NLP also presupposes that we can all find the resources we need inside; we just need to find a way or learn how to access and utilize them.

NLP works with the conscious and the subconscious mind. In contrast to psychotherapy, NLP does not focus on content and why we have a specific problem, but more on process and how do we do what we do – and how can we change it. NLP is a very practical approach and is comprised of a set of models, skills and techniques for thinking and acting effectively in the world. The purpose of NLP is to be able to eliminate unwanted behaviours and increase the ability to choose mental, emotional and physical states of well-being.

NLP offers some of the most powerful techniques to help us get clear about our goals and become highly motivated to achieve them. NLP teaches us to become more aware of our own feelings and emotions and to realize that we actually are in charge of them. We don't have to feel anxious, angry, sad or lonely – we can do something about it, if we choose to. Through NLP we learn how create congruency in our thinking, emotions and actions, and thus establish good rapport with ourselves and consequently with the world around us. It also provides effective tools to assist us to identify and change the patterns and strategies that no longer work for us. NLP opens our mind to new ways of thinking, being and behaving, thus enhancing our ability to choose how we respond to any given situation.

The 4 main legs of NLP:

1. **Outcome orientation** – be clear on your goals.
2. **Sensory acuity** – use your senses to notice the current situation and how it changes as you use an NLP exercise.
3. **Behavioral flexibility** – being willing to change your behavior, and using NLP techniques to influence your mind or emotions to influence your behavior, or else influence your behavior directly.
4. **Building rapport.** Notice the way someone speaks and their body language. Allow them to feel relaxed with you by speaking in the same way and using some of the same body language. Sometimes this one of the legs or pillars of NLP is missed out.

THEORY 12
WHAT IS PSYCHOLINGUISTICS
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Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the study of the interrelation between linguistic factors and psychological aspects. Psycholinguistics is the branch of study which combines the discipline or psychology and linguistics. It is concerned with the relationship between human mind and language as it examined the process that occur in brain while producing and receiving both spoken and written discourse. The discipline is mainly concerned with the mechanisms by which language is processed and represented in the mind and brain human; the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend, and produce language.

Psycholinguistics is concerned with the cognitive faculties and processes that are necessary to produce the grammatical constructions of language. It is also concerned with the perception of these constructions by a listener.

Initial forays into psycholinguistics were in the philosophical and educational fields, due mainly to their location in departments other than applied sciences (e.g., cohesive data on how the human brain functioned). Modern research makes use of biology, neuroscience, cognitive science, linguistics, and information science to study how the mind-brain processes language, and less so the known processes of social sciences, human development, communication theories, and infant development, among others.

There are several sub disciplines with non-invasive techniques for studying the neurological workings of the brain. For example: neurolinguistics has become a field in its own right; and developmental psycholinguistics, as a branch of

psycholinguistics, concerns itself with a child's ability to learn language.

The Domain of Psycholinguistics Inquiry Linguistics is the discipline that describes the structure of language, including its grammar, sound system, and vocabulary. The field of psycholinguistics, or the psychology of language, is concerned with discovering the psychological processes by which humans acquire and use language. Conventionally, psycholinguistics addresses three major concerns (Clark & Clark, 1977; Tanenhaus, 1989):

1. Comprehension: How people understand spoken and written language. This is a broad area of investigation that involves scrutiny of the comprehension process at many levels, including investigation of how speech signals are interpreted by listeners (speech perception), how the meanings of words are determined (lexical access), how the grammatical structure of sentences is analyzed to obtain larger units of meaning (sentence Processing), and how longer conversations or texts are appropriately formulated and evaluated (discourse). Concerns specifically relevant to how written language is processed are also part of this domain.

2. Speech production: How people produce language. The chapters that follow suggest that it is somewhat easier to study comprehension than production; we can use controlled language stimuli and then analyze patterns of accuracy and error, response time, and other behaviors to arrive at an estimate of how listeners process language. However, it is more difficult to gain insight into how concepts are put into linguistic form; the process is largely hidden from observation, and speakers' verbal expressions, even in response to rather controlled eliciting stimuli, vary considerably. We learn most about the probable nature of the speech production process from speakers' mistakes (speech errors or false starts)

and from breaks in the ongoing rhythm of connected speech (hesitation and pausal phenomena, or speech disfluencies).

3. Acquisition: How people learn language. The major focus in this domain has been on how children acquire a first language (developmental psycholinguistics). First language acquisition is cover of this volume, what we know about the process of acquiring subsequent languages (foreign language learning). Developmental psycholinguistics has become, by itself, a formidably large discipline with a wide array of journals, texts, and monographs specifically addressed to this issue.

The ultimate goal of psycholinguistics inquiry is, of course, to develop an integrated account of how competent language understanding and use occur and how young children acquire these abilities so rapidly. There are many reasons why understanding this process is a goal still to be met: Language is one of our most complex systems of behavior. Additionally, the research tools and techniques best used to study particular language skills do not lend themselves readily to the full array of skills found in communicative interactions. For example, methods that work well to investigate the comprehension of certain syntactic structures by mature adult listeners often don't work well or at all for the study of language understanding in young children or the process of speech production by either adults or children. The best models of human language capacity make use of converging evidence from adult comprehension and production and from child language acquisition.

Psycholinguistics is an interdisciplinary field that consists of researchers from a variety of different backgrounds, including psychology, cognitive science, linguistics, speech and language pathology, and discourse analysis. Psycholinguists study how people acquire and use language, according to the following main areas:

1. language acquisition: how do children acquire language?
2. language comprehension: how do people comprehend language?
3. language production: how do people produce language?
4. second language acquisition: how do people who already know one language acquire another one?

A researcher interested in language comprehension may study word recognition during reading, to examine the processes involved in the extraction on language such as of orthographic, morphological, phonological, syntax, and semantic information from patterns in printed text. A researcher interested in language production might study how words are prepared to be spoken starting from the conceptual or semantic level (this concerns connotation, and possibly can be examined through the conceptual framework concerned with the semantic differential). Developmental psycholinguists study infants' and children's ability to learn and process language.

Psycholinguistics further divide their studies according to the different components that make up human language.

Linguistics-related areas include:

● Phonetics and phonology are the study of speech sounds. Within psycholinguistics, research focuses on how the brain processes and understands these sounds.
● Morphology is the study of word structures, especially between related words (such as *dog* and *dogs*) and the formation of words based on rules (such as plural formation).
● Syntax is the study of how words are combined to form sentences.
● Semantics deals with the meaning of words and sentences. Where syntax is concerned with the formal structure of sentences, semantics deals with the actual meaning of sentences.

- Pragmatics is concerned with the role of context in the interpretation of meaning.

Origin of "psycholinguistics"

The theoretical framework for psycholinguistics began to be developed before the end of the 19th century as the "Psychology of Language". The science of psycholinguistics, so called, began in 1936 when Jacob Kantor, a prominent psychologist at the time, used the term "psycholinguistics" as a description within his book *An Objective Psychology of Grammar*.

However, the term "psycholinguistics" only came into widespread usage in 1946 when Kantor's student Nicholas Pronko published an article entitled "Psycholinguistics: A Review". Pronko's desire was to unify myriad related theoretical approaches under a single name. Psycholinguistics was used for the first time to talk about an interdisciplinary science "that could be coherent", as well as being the title of *Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems*, a 1954 book by Charles E. Osgood and Thomas A. Sebeok.

Language acquisition

Though there is still much debate, there are two primary theories on childhood language acquisition:
- The behaviorist perspective, whereby all language must be learned by the child; and
- The innatist perspective, which believes that the abstract system of language cannot be learned, but that humans possess an innate language faculty or an access to what has been called "universal grammar".

The innatist perspective began in 1959 with Noam Chomsky's highly critical review of B.F. Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* (1957). This review helped start what has been called the *cognitive revolution* in psychology. Chomsky posited that humans possess a special, innate ability for language, and

that complex syntactic features, such as recursion, are "hard-wired" in the brain. These abilities are thought to be beyond the grasp of even the most intelligent and social non-humans. When Chomsky asserted that children acquiring a language have a vast search space to explore among all possible human grammars, there was no evidence that children received sufficient input to learn all the rules of their language. Hence, there must be some other innate mechanism that endows humans with the ability to learn language. According to the "innateness hypothesis", such a language faculty is what defines human language and makes that faculty different from even the most sophisticated forms of animal communication.

The field of linguistics and psycholinguistics has since been defined by pro-and-con reactions to Chomsky. The view in favor of Chomsky still holds that the human ability to use language (specifically the ability to use recursion) is qualitatively different from any sort of animal ability. This ability may have resulted from a favorable mutation or from an adaptation of skills that originally evolved for other purposes.

The view that language must be learned was especially popular before 1960 and is well represented by the mentalistic theories of Jean Piaget and the empiricist Rudolf Carnap. Likewise, the behaviorist school of psychology puts forth the point of view that language is a behavior shaped by conditioned response; hence it is learned. The view that language can be learned has had a recent resurgence inspired by emergentism. This view challenges the "innate" view as scientifically unfalsifiable; that is to say, it cannot be tested. With the increase in computer technology since the 1980s, researchers have been able to simulate language acquisition using neural network models. These models provide evidence that there may be sufficient information contained in the input to learn language, even syntax. If this is true, then an innate mechanism is no longer necessary to explain language acquisition.

Language Comprehension

Language comprehension is one of the most automatic tasks that humans perform. Yet it is one of the complex, requiring the simultaneous integration of many different types of information such as knowledge about letters and their sounds, spelling, grammar, word meanings, and general world knowledge. In addition, general cognitive abilities such as attention monitoring, inference, and memory retrieval are used in order to organized this information into a single meaningful representation.

Particularly speaking from psycholinguistics perspective, in language comprehension and speech perception many factors are at work. First of all, we have to identify single sounds that make up recognizable words, then retrieve from our mental lexicon the meaning of these words, which in their turn form meaningful sentences in a given situation. If split up into these „logical" steps, however, the process of speech perception is inconceivable. Strictly speaking, our short-term memory is not able to store that much information at once. To give an example: If we had to decode every single sound when listening to somebody, we would already have forgotten the first sound of a long word once we had identified the last one (let alone the word boundaries). The same holds true for the decoding of the smallest text units, i.e. letters. This is why we can only explain the phenomenon of speech perception if we take the following assumptions as a basis:

a) As experienced listeners we have at our disposal a large amount of previous information as well as specific expectations as to what we are about to hear. Consequently, we just have to check whether our expectations are confirmed by what we have actually heard. To put it crudely, in many cases we do not necessarily hear what our interlocutor says but what we expect to hear. This is the reason why many nonsense errors or mispronounced words

in speech go unnoticed or are easily forgotten, whereas meaningful errors can often be remembered.

b) Apart from this, we are constantly building up new hypotheses on what will come next while listening. Similarly to the role of our pre-expectations, we compare these hypotheses with what we have just heard. Since we often know, or at least think we know, what our interlocutors are about to say next, we sometimes tend to interrupt them or add to their utterance.

c) Finally, every word that has been recognized and every sentence that has been understood are instantly transferred to different, „higher" forms of representation in our memory and are integrated into our dynamic horizon of expectations and stock of knowledge. This means that we rarely store individual words or the wording of sentences but rather the rough meaning of what has been said. As a result, our memory is rather unreliable as far as details are concerned, and we often add things to our stock of knowledge that have never been actually said. The processing of words, i.e. their location and the attribution of meaning within the networks of the mental lexicon, is usually done within milliseconds. However, the exact strategies, which even allow for an efficient categorization of non-words, appear to be individual and thus are not general. What we can record in this regard is the following: Words are primarily, but not necessarily, stored as wholes. There is also the possibility of splitting them up if required (e.g. into morphemes). Further, words can be connected within the mind via their (initial and final) sounds and rhythm as well as via their syntactic relations. What is more, semantic networks may very probably be activated, including relations such as synonymy, antonymy, hypernymy, hyponymy etc. Mental processes with respect to language may be neither definable nor common to all. However, different psycholinguistics models exist that try to elucidate word recognition. On the one hand, words are said to be

processed linearly, i.e. one after the other, while frequent words are recognized more easily and thus faster. On the other hand, and this might be the option which comes closer to reality, words are said to be processed in parallel. In the latter view, possible meanings are weighed against each other, resulting in an interpretation that suits the context best. In fact, we are linguistic puzzle-solvers from early childhood on. The storage of linguistic structures and functions in the mind, i.e. knowledge, is directly linked to comprehension.

Language production

Language production is the production of spoken or written language. In psycholinguistics, it describes all of the stages between having a concept to express and translating that concept into linguistic form. These stages have been described in two types of processing models: the lexical access models and the serial models. Through these models, psycholinguists can look into how speech is produced in different ways, such as when the speaker is bilingual. Psycholinguists learn more about these models and different kinds of speech by using language production research methods that include collecting speech errors and elicited production tasks.

Language production consists of several interdependent processes which transform a non-linguistic message into a spoken, signed, or written linguistic signal. Though the following steps proceed in this approximate order, there is plenty of interaction and communication between them. The process of message planning is an active area of psycholinguistics research, but researchers have found that it is an ongoing process throughout language production. Research suggests that messages are planned in roughly the same order that they are in an utterance. But, there is also evidence that suggests the verbs that give case may be

planned earlier than objects, even when the object is said first. After identifying a message, or part of a message, to be linguistically encoded, a speaker must select the individual words—also known as lexical items—to represent that message. This process is called lexical selection. The words are selected based on their meaning, which in linguistics is called semantic information. Lexical selection activates the word's lemma, which contains both semantic and grammatical information about the word.

This grammatical information is then used in the next step of language production, grammatical encoding. Critical grammatical information includes characteristics such as the word's syntactic category (noun, verb, etc.), what objects it takes, and grammatical gender if it is present in the language. Using some of these characteristics as well as information about the thematic roles of each word in the intended message, each word is then assigned the grammatical and thematic role it will have in the sentence. Function morphemes, like the plural /s/ or the past tense /ɪd/, are added in this stage as well. After an utterance, or part of one, has been formed, it then goes through phonological encoding. In this stage of language production, the mental representation of the words to be spoken is transformed into a sequence of speech sounds to be pronounced. The speech sounds are assembled in the order they are to be produced. The basic loop occurring in the creation of language consists of the following stages:
- Intended message
- Encode message into linguistic form
- Encode linguistic form into speech motor system
- Sound goes from speaker's mouth to hearer's ear auditory system
- Speech is decoded into linguistic form
- Linguistic form is decoded into meaning

According to the lexical access model, in terms of lexical access, two different stages of cognition are employed; thus, this concept is known as the two-stage theory of lexical access. The first stage, lexical selection provides information about lexical items required to construct the functional level representation. These items are retrieved according to their specific semantic and syntactic properties, but phonological forms are not yet made available at this stage. The second stage, retrieval of word forms, provides information required for building the positional level representation.

THEORY 13
SOCIOLINGUISTICS
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Sociolinguistics is the study of the relationship between language use and the structure of society. It takes into account such factors as the social backgrounds of both the speaker and the addressee (i.e. their age, sex, social class, ethnic background, degree of integration into their neighborhood, etc.), the relationship between speaker and addressee (good friends, employer–employee, teacher–pupil, grandmother–grandchild, etc.) and the context and manner of the interaction (in bed, in the supermarket, in a TV studio, in church, loudly, whispering, over the phone, by fax, etc.), maintaining that they are crucial to an understanding of both the structure and function of the language used in a situation. Because of the emphasis placed on language use, a sociolinguistically adequate analysis of language is typically based on (sound or video) recordings of everyday interactions (e.g. dinner-time conversations with friends, doctor–patient consultations, TV discussion program, etc.).

Recordings of language use, as described above, can be analyzed in a number of different ways depending on the aims of the research. For instance, the sociolinguist may be interested in producing an analysis of regional or social dialects in order to investigate whether different social groups speak differently and to discover whether language change is in progress. Rather different is research into the form and function of politeness in everyday interaction, an interest which will lead to a search for markers of politeness in conversations and how these are related to social dimensions such as those enumerated above. Alternatively, the focus may be on so-called minimal responses (such as

mmm, yeah and right) or discourse markers (such as well, you know and actually).

In addition to phenomena which arise in interactions between individuals or small groups, sociolinguistics is concerned with larger-scale interactions between language and society as a whole. One such interaction is language shift. Here, in a multilingual setting, one language becomes increasingly dominant over the other languages, taking over more and more of the domains in which these other languages were once used. Understanding the conditions which facilitate language shift and the dynamics of the process itself is properly viewed as a sociolinguistics task. It would, of course, be possible to raise many other research topics in the study of language which share a social focus, but because it will play a central role in much of our subsequent discussion, we shall close this introduction by going into a little more detail on the contemporary study of language variation and change.

The views of lay people about language are often quite simplistic. One illustration of this concerns the relationship between the so-called standard languages and the non-standard dialects associated with those languages. Standard French and Standard English, for example, are varieties of French and English that have written grammar books, pronunciation and spelling conventions, are promoted by the media and other public institutions such as the education system and are considered by a majority of people to be the 'correct' way to speak these two languages. Non-standard varieties (sometimes called 'dialects') are often considered to be lazy, ungrammatical forms, which betray a lack of both educational training and discipline in learning. Linguists strongly disagree with this view. The study of language use has shown not only that non-standard varieties exhibit grammatical regularity and consistent pronunciation patterns in the same way that standard varieties do, but also

that a vast majority of people will use non-standard features at least some of the time in their speech. Sociolinguistic research has demonstrated that the speech of most people is, at least in some respects, variable, combining, for example, both standard and non-standard sounds, words or grammatical structures. The study of language variation involves the search for consistent patterns in such variable linguistic behavior.

Another area where language variation plays a crucial role is in the study of language change. It is the principal concern of historical linguistics to investigate how languages change over time, and until recently, historical linguists have studied language change by relying exclusively on diachronic methods. These involve analyzing the structure of language from a succession of dates in the past and highlighting those structural features (phonological, morphological or syntactic) that appear to have changed over that period of time. For obvious reasons, if we are considering a form of a language from many years ago, we do not have access to native speakers of the language; as a consequence, historical linguists have had to rely largely on manuscripts from the past as evidence of how languages may once have been spoken, but such evidence is of variable quality, particularly when we take account of the fact that very few people were able to write in the pre-modern era. In these circumstances, it is difficult to judge just how representative surviving manuscripts are of the way ordinary people actually spoke.

As an alternative to diachronic methods and aided by the invention of the tape recorder allowing the collection of a permanent record of someone's speech, William Labov has pioneered a synchronic approach to studying language change. Whereas diachronic techniques demand language data from different periods in time, Labov's synchronic, so-called apparent-time, approach requires data to be collected at only one point in time. Crucially, the data collected within

the same community are from people of different ages and social groups. Labov reasoned that if the speech of young people within a particular social group is different from that of old people in the same group, then it is very likely that language change is taking place. This technique has a number of advantages over the traditional historical method. Firstly, the recorded language data constitute a considerably more representative sample of the speech patterns of a community than do the manuscript data of traditional historical linguistics. Secondly, it allows the linguist to study language change as it is actually taking place – traditionally, historical linguists had believed this to be impossible. Finally, it allows the linguist to study how language changes spread through society, answering questions such as, Which social groups tend to lead language changes?

Labov's apparent-time model assumes that a difference between young and old with respect to a certain linguistic feature may be due to linguistic change. Not all variable linguistic features that are sensitive to age variation are necessarily indicative of language changes in progress, however. Slang words, for example, are often adopted by youngsters, but then abandoned when middle age is reached. Similarly, some phonological and grammatical features, such as the use of multiple negation (e.g. I haven't got none nowhere), seem to be stable yet age-graded, i.e. not undergoing change, but associated with a particular age group, generation after generation.

This brief introduction to the methods and concerns of sociolinguistics may seem to suggest that these are far removed from those of other types of linguists. However, in studying variable patterns of language behavior and the language change that this variation may reveal, the sociolinguist seeks to uncover universal properties of language, attempting to address questions such as, Do all languages change in the same way? We have already met this

preoccupation with universals in our earlier discussion, so we can see that at this level, sociolinguistics exhibits important affinities with other approaches to the study of language. However, a fundamental difference remains: the sociolinguist's questions about universals require answers in which the structure of society plays an integral part. In this regard, they differ from the questions with which we opened this introduction, but there is no conflict here.

THEORY 14
A BRIEF HISTORY COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS
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Although Delcloque (2000) has embarked on an ongoing project to detail the history of CALL, sections of three books (Ahmad et al., 1985, pp. 27–44; Chapelle, 2001, pp. 1–26; Levy, 1997, pp. 13–46) provide extensive accounts of developments in the area. Ahmad et al. (1985) consider the work conducted in the United States and Britain in the years 1965–85. In one early project carried out at Stanford University, instructors created self-instructional materials for Slavic language learning and delivered them via a mainframe computer. Another group at the University of Illinois developed a system named Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations (PLATO), in which teachers were able to write a Russian-English translation course. The computer program was able to provide both drills and marking for student work as well as an authoring component for instructors. The PLATO system later expanded to include a number of foreign languages and offered them in increasingly technically sophisticated ways. Although high costs prohibited their widespread use, mainframe computer applications throughout the 1960s and 1970s were developed to the point of interactive features to help students read specialist scientific texts. With the arrival of the "microcomputer boom" in the late 1970s, however, expensive mainframe computer usage was phased out. Developers and instructors alike began to shift their attention to personal Computers.

From the early 1980s, increased computer availability fuel a growing interest in CALL. Teachers were able to write or modify computer applications to suit specific language learning situations; as a result, more and more students were

exposed to them both at home and on campus. In his review, Levy (1997) highlights the Time-Shared, Interactive, Computer Controlled Information Television (TICCIT) project initiated at Brigham Young University in 1971 as one of the first examples of multimedia-based instruction. Here, computers had the capacity to integrate text, audio, and video that could be controlled by the learner. The TICCIT system was based on an explicit theory of instructional design that allowed instructors to add content but, unfortunately, not to decide how to teach with the now programmed materials.

As personal computers became easier to use, Storyboard and HyperCard became influential authoring programs during the early 1980s. Levy pays particular attention to teacher-programmers as they began to work out their own CALL practices. Materials were often designed as single activities and included simulation, text reconstruction, gap-filling, speed-reading, and vocabulary games (Levy, 1997, p. 23). By the end of the 1980s, CALL practitioners had produced a substantial body of work that focused mainly on pedagogical computer use. Critics at the time, however, began to question the effectiveness of such practices and suggested a much deeper examination of CALL activities and materials (Dunkel, 1991, pp. 24–5).

From the start of the 1990s, teachers began to make greater use of networked computers, and by mid-decade the explosive growth of the Internet prompted CALL educators to increasingly adopt socio-collaborative modes of learning. In her recent overview, Chapelle (2001) notes that Internet usage prompted not only a much greater access to resources, but also provided the motivation for developers to create sophisticated materials that would hopefully attract large audiences. Classroom-based CALL activities could include learner communities throughout the world through email, virtual environments, and shared domains. Pedagogical discussions of CALL have thus shifted to exploration of such

communities and their use of collaborative activities (e.g., Debski & Levy, 1999; Warschauer & Kern, 1999) but, once again, research in this era was critiqued for its absence of a focused agenda (Chapelle, 1997).

In the mid-1990s, an Australian national report found that "With minor exceptions, the application of technology in language teaching and learning has been fragmented, frequently idiosyncratic, topic oriented and largely based on distributive technologies" (Australian National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1996, p. 195). On a similar note, Chapelle (2001, p. 175) concluded with that the twentieth century was "a time of idiosyncratic learning, quirky software development, and naive experimentation" for second language learning and computers.

In practice, however, the realization of integrative CALL may lie beyond the realm of language learning institutions constrained by a lack of resources, embedded teaching practices, and large class sizes. Such is the case in adult migrant education centers in Australia, for example (Taylor & Corbel, 1998) or in educational centers in South Africa (Oberprieler, 1999). At such sites, students are generally directed to access online materials alone, teachers are not free to alter a syllabus based on established curriculum guidelines. Students may not have the means to make use of the Internet outside limited class times.

Major theoretical perspectives

Trends in CALL roughly parallel those in other areas of applied linguistics. Starting with the structural and behaviorist models that manifested in audio-lingual approaches to language learning, CALL educators then explored aspects of communicative approaches to language learning. Socio-cognitive theories of instruction are now an integral part of CALL. The table summarizes key aspects of CALL over 30 years. This table provides a way to organize the

rather fluid categories that characterize the development of CALL.

	Structural CALL (1970s–1980s)	Communicative CALL (1980s–1990s)	Integrative CALL (twenty-first century)
Role of the computer	Information carrier; as a "tutor"	Workstation; as a "pupil"	Unified information management system; as a "toolbox"
Technology focus	Materials delivery	Cognitive argumentation	Group orchestration
Theory of learning	Behaviorist	Information processing theory; cognitive constructivist learning	Sociocultural theories of learning
Model and process of instruction	Program instruction Assimilation	Interactive, discovery-based learning, interaction	Collaborative learning "intra-action"
View of second language acquisition	Structural (a formal system)	Cognitive (a mentally constructed system)	Socio-cognitive (developed in social interaction)
Dominant approaches to second	Grammar-translation and	Communicative language	Content-based and specific

language teaching	audiolingual	teaching	purposes
Learner status	Dependent	Independent	Collaborative
Principal use of computer in CALL	Drill and practice	Communicative exercises	Authentic discourse
Principal learning objective of CALL	Accuracy	Accuracy and fluency	Accuracy and agency
Primary research concern	Instructional Efficacy, instructional competence	Instructional transfer, learner proficiency	Instruction as enacted practice, team "coficiency"

Practitioners in the era of structural CALL placed a strong emphasis on grammar and they employed the use of mainframe computers to help students gain accuracy in their language usage. Grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods grounded in behaviorism, went hand in hand with programmed instruction. Students were able to repeat drills with the seemingly tireless and patient computer-as-tutor, and instruction appeared to be at an upmost efficiency.

Crook (1994, p. 12-16) sees the tutorial metaphor as a central preoccupation in the "computer-assisted instruction" (CAI) tradition of educational technologies. The goals of CAI developers were centered on making responses uniquely fitted to individual learner needs and delivering helpful, customized feedback through "intelligent tutorial systems. He examines the tutorial role of computers and the popularity of drill exercises. First, he notes, computers never truly became "intelligent" because of the inherent difficulties in constructing

algorithms that could sensitively respond to learner profiles. At the time, the sophisticated hardware needed to attempt this goal was available almost exclusively in military and industrial training contexts. Nonetheless, Crook writes, tutorial drills have a continued appeal to educators for two reasons: (1) teachers uncomfortable with innovative uses in technology "may well adopt the comparatively easy solution of focusing their commitment on straightforward, self contained programs" (p. 14); and (2) many instructors feel that repeated exposures to certain practices and structures are beneficial to students.

Richmond (1999) argues that a true picture of CALL resembles a split between "dedicated" and "integrated" streams. Much more widely practiced, "dedicated CALL" largely consists of using stand-alone programs to drill and practice items of grammar, vocabulary, and syntax. Richmond argues that the complexity and costs of software, as well as a host of technical problems, has shied teachers and students away from more integrated uses of the computer. The popularity of "dedicated CALL" has prompted researchers to continue to develop increasingly sophisticated tutorial applications that aid vocabulary acquisition, improve the writing in character-based languages, and build sustained interactions with target materials (e.g., Hamburger, Schoelles, & Reeder, 1999). Over the long term, Richmond predicts, the increased ease of software use and greater access to networks will bring the "dedicated" practices closer to "integrated" ones.

Following an overall shift in teaching methods aligned with cognitive constructivist theories of learning, practices in communicative CALL sought to help students develop their own mental models through use of the target language. Exercises were designed to guide meaningful peer interactions and promote fluency. Esling (1991), created a series of task-based CALL activities to promote productive email exchanges between ESL students at two Canadian

universities. In these activities, for example, students were directed to describe photographs, give directions, or express an opinion. The role of computer software was to help deliver visual materials for description, process word documents, or provide interactive simulations. In another project, Abraham and Liou (1991) studied the spoken language of learners at workstations to compare the talk elicited by different types of computer applications and to see if the talk was more useful and productive than would otherwise be the case in non-computer situations. In their conclusion, they report that the talk elicited by the different programs did not vary widely, nor was it significantly different than in non-computer situations.

Integrative CALL seeks to make full use of networked computers as a means to engage learners in meaningful, large-scale collaborative activities (Debski, 2000; Warschauer & Kern, 2000). Instructors promote close ties between learning processes, objectives, and a student ownership of the outcomes. As with mainstream computer-supported collaborative learning (e.g., Bonk & King, 1998; Koschmann, 1996; Land & Hannafin, 2000), meaningful interaction and authentic project work are highlighted. Authentic discourse provides the basis for learning material. Students are taught techniques in online publishing, and are urged to produce their own texts. Fostering learner agency, or "the satisfying power to take meaningful action and see the results of our own decisions and choices" (Murray, 1997, p. 126 cited in Warschauer, 2000b, p. 524), is a primary goal of integrative CALL. The key distinction between communicative CALL and integrative CALL is that, in the former, learner choice and self-management of activity are driven by task-based approaches to syllabus design. At its most liberal interpretation, a syllabus in integrative CALL simply represents a "dynamic blueprint" where learning occurs through "accidents" generated by projects (Barson, 1999). In contrast, a syllabus in communicative CALL is likely to be discrete and related to a

set of curricular guidelines that have been defined in advance of learner needs (Corbel, 1999).

In practice, however, the realization of integrative CALL may lie beyond the realm of language learning institutions constrained by a lack of resources, embedded teaching practices, and large class sizes. Such is the case in adult migrant education centers in Australia, for example (Taylor & Corbel, 1998) or in educational centers in South Africa (Oberprieler, 1999). At such sites, students are generally directed to access online materials alone, teachers are not free to alter a syllabus based on established curriculum guidelines. Students may not have the means to make use of the Internet outside limited class times.

Discussion

Because of large-scale computer-based tests, student work styles and the increasingly commonplace use of information technologies, Chapelle (2001) predicts "anyone concerned with second language teaching and learning in the 21st century needs to grasp the nature of the unique technology-mediated tasks learners can engage in for language acquisition and how such tasks can be used for assessment" (p. 2). Interpreted broadly, Chapelle's comment foreshadows a time in the near future when computers will occupy a much more central position in applied linguistics.

Clearly, the networked-based and socio-cognitive approaches that mark integrative CALL are here to stay. Mainstream educators have widely examined such learning environments (Jonassen & Land, 2000); CALL specialists need to draw from these experiences and make them relevant to second language contexts. Although the interdisciplinary nature of CALL makes it an unwieldy area of research on occasion, a wider exploration of related literature should nonetheless be encouraged. The journal Computer Supported Cooperative Work, for example, contains a number of articles salient to those interested in socio-cognitive aspects of CALL;

other journals of interest include Journal of the Learning Sciences, Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks, Journal of Educational Computing Research, Journal of Computing in Higher Education, and Educational Technology. For those interested in online writing instruction, the journal Computers and Composition is a valuable forum of discussion on issues.

THEORY 15
THE NATIVE SPEAKER IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS
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Native speaker as identity, the concept of native speaker occupies a curious position in applied linguistics. On the one hand it is widely used as a benchmark for knowledge of a language (and as such attracts opposition because it excludes those who are not native speakers), and as a criterion for employment; on the other hand a definition of the native speaker is elusive. How useful is the concept of native speaker to applied linguistics? That is the theme of this module. Ferguson comments: "Linguists . . . have long given a special place to the native speaker as the only true and reliable source of language data" (Ferguson, 1983, p. vii). He continues: much of the world's verbal communication takes place by means of languages which are not the users' mother tongue, but their second, third or nth language, acquired one way or another and used when appropriate. This kind of language use merits the attention of linguists as much as do the more traditional objects of their research.

This is a plea from sociolinguistics. But is Ferguson right to conclude as follows: "In fact the whole mystique of native speaker and mother tongue should preferably be quietly dropped from the linguist's set of professional myths about language" (p. vii). As my discussion shows, there is no doubt about the myth-like properties of the native speaker idea. The question remains, however, of whether it is also a reality. I attempt to answer that question.

Theoretically, as we shall see, the native speaker concept is rich in ambiguity. It raises, quite centrally, the issue of the relation between the particular and the universal. Chomsky, as a protagonist of the universalist position, conveys to Paikeday's questioning approach about the status of the native

speaker (Paikeday, 1985) the strongest possible sense of the genetic determinants of speech acquisition which, as he sees it, must mean that to be human is to be a native speaker.

What Chomsky does is to equate language development with other normal human development, finding no value in questions about developmental states or stages which he regards as contingent and essentially of no theoretical interest. In the same vein Chomsky finds distinctions between synchronic states of language or languages and dialects uninteresting, "the question of what are the 'languages' or 'dialects' attained, and what is the difference between 'native' and 'non-native' is just pointless" (Chomsky quoted in Paikeday, 1985,p. 57). Chomsky's whole argument depends on a rationalist opposition to "incorrect metaphysical assumptions: in particular the assumption that among the things in the world there are languages or dialects, and that individuals come to acquire them" (Paikeday, 1985, p. 49). This is the argument from psycholinguistics (or cognitive linguistics).

And so Chomsky must conclude that "everyone is a Native Speaker of the particular language states that the person has 'grown' in his/her mind/brain." In the real world, that is all there is to say" (p. 58). Chomsky's view is uninfluenced by any social factor or contextual constraint. Variety and context, he seems to argue, are trivial. This is a thoroughgoing unitary competence view of language in which language use is contingent and the native speaker is only a realization of that competence at a linguistic and not a languagespecific level. For Chomsky, like many theoretical linguists, is not interested in languages: what he studies is language.

For our present purpose, however, we note that Chomsky does in fact acknowledge the real individual, living, as he says, in the real world, whose speech repertoire is multiple. His view may take no account of social or sociolinguistics analysis or parameters, but he is not unaware that the real word

consists of complex variation. Our concern in this chapter is to explore the real-world parameters of the native speaker since it is there that applied linguistics has its role.

The native speaker/non-native speaker distinction is hardly as dramatic as the difference between the sexes; and it does not contain the crucial genetic difference. If we accept the model of Universal Grammar (UG), different languages are the same language (or set of principles) but with different parameter settings. From this point of view it has been maintained that languages differ essentially in terms of vocabulary. It can express the argument as follows. A child draws on UG to construct his/her first language (L1) on the basis of input from parents or other caretakers using their L1. The child is then in time socialized into a standard language. Parameters are set and reset at all points. The same procedure is said to apply to the second language (L2) learner, who first regresses to UG and then adds or exchanges one L1 for another L1 through resetting of parameters.

The native speaker, who remains a learner of new words and new registers (not to mention additional languages) and who is able to balance that role with the proper authority role necessarily attained, can only be a valued resource for others. McCawley (1986) notes the difference between the native and the non-native speaker as learner since the native speaker has to combine being also the authority. Indeed, we might hazard that a non-native speaker can claim that they have achieved the steady state of being a native speaker in the second language when they are prepared to accept the fragility of the knowledge they have so carefully acquired, acknowledging that there is always more to learn. Adulthood as a native speaker is no different from being an adult in any other field.

By remaining a learner, the native speaker gains access to the standard language. Note that it is membership of the group of native speakers that determines behavior, in this case, adoption of the standard language, rather than the other way

round of behavior determining membership. And it is membership as a native speaker that determines the choice of the code to be used in an encounter, including the standard language.

Definitions of the Native Speaker

Let us rehearse what seems to be agreed about the native speaker:

• Everyone is a native speaker of his/her own unique code: this allows us to reject as illogical the notion of semi-lingualism (Martin-Jones & Romaine, 1986).

• Everyone accepts and adheres to the norms of a standard language, either an informal (standard) language, which might be a dialect, or a codified standard (typically called a language). The relation between informal (standard) language(s) and a codified standard is that the codified standard is flexible enough to permit a good deal of tolerance to the informal (standard) language(s), except in situations where for extraneous cultural or political or religious reasons there is norm conflict leading to misunderstandings and refusal to communicate. Examples of informal (standard) languages might be Singapore English and Newfoundland English.

• Those near what Bartsch (1988) called the "point" that is the center or model of the standard language, are favored and advantaged. They suffer less from insecurity, are less likely to practice hypercorrection, and above all have less of a learning problem in using the standard language for public purposes (for example in education) because their home language use is nearer to the standard language. Meanwhile those near the extremes are disfavored and disadvantaged, they are more likely to feel insecure and to have their version of the standard language stigmatized, as well as to stigmatize it themselves. In public uses (such as education) they have more of a learning problem. It is possible (though this is quite

unclear) that they may also have a cognitive problem because they have learnt to think in their own variety of the standard language, a difficulty compounded by possible lack of intelligibility of input by teachers whose standard language may be nearer the point. Nevertheless, this is the situation of social life and of a non-homogeneous community and it is possible, if difficult, for those disadvantaged initially by their own L1 to accumulate and later gain full access to a more central version.

• Native speakers all do indeed have intuitions about their standard language, but in those cases where there is tolerance but flexibility it is likely that their knowledge of and performance in those norms will be shaky. And where they are uncertain they will guess, or admit ignorance, or fall back on some basic UG principle. What this means is that intuitions are learnt not innate: the grammar of the standard language is not built into the head of the child any more than is the grammar of his/her own individual idiolect version of the standard language.

• All native speakers have access to some kind of language faculty, which may be called UG (Universal Grammar) and which has to operate at a very high level of abstraction. The apparent polar arguments seeking to explain acquisition, whereby the learner moves across from an L1 (some version of the old contrastive analysis model) or regresses to the primary UG state and then moves forward again into an L2, are in a serious sense non-arguments since both must be true. Since the L1 grammar is a version of UG and underlying it is UG, then it is a matter of generative arrangement how I draw the connection between L1 and L2 since UG must occur there somewhere.

The native speaker (and this means all native speakers) may be defined in the following six ways (Davies, 1991, 2003):

1. The native speaker acquires the L1 of which she/he is a native speaker in childhood.
2. The native speaker has intuitions (in terms of acceptability and productiveness) about his/her idiolect grammar.
3. The native speaker has intuitions about those features of the standard language grammar which are distinct from his/her idiolect grammar.
4. The native speaker has a unique capacity to produce fluent spontaneous discourse, which exhibits pauses mainly at clause boundaries (the "one clause at a time" facility) and which is facilitated by a huge memory stock of complete lexical items (Pawley & Syder, 1983). In both production and comprehension the native speaker exhibits a wide range of communicative competence.
5. The native speaker has a unique capacity to write creatively (and this includes, of course, literature at all levels from jokes to epics, metaphor to novels.
6. The native speaker has a unique capacity to interpret and translate into the L1 of which she/he is a native speaker. Disagreements about the deployment of an individual's capacity are likely to stem from a dispute about the standard or (standard) language.

The differing positions of the psycholinguistics and the sociolinguistics are probably irreconcilable. For the psycholinguist no test is ever sufficient to demonstrate conclusively that native speakers and non-native speakers are distinct: once non-native speakers have been shown to perform as well as native speakers on a test, the cry goes up for yet another test. For the sociolinguist there is always another (more) exceptional learner who will, when found, demonstrate that (exceptional) non-native speakers can be equated to native speakers on ultimate attainment. The problem is that we cannot finally and absolutely distinguish non-native speakers from native speakers except by autobiography.

So, Cook (1999) is right to make a strong case for the native/non-native speaker distinction being one above all of biography. However, making the cut by biography shows only some problems and hides away the exceptions, the bilinguals, the movers away, the disabled intellectually, the exceptional learners. The fact is that mother tongue is not gender, it is not a given from the womb. It is, classically, social, just as culture is. We cannot distinguish between native speakers and non-native speakers because our premises are inherently flawed, as Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2000) point out, since there are different views of what being a native speaker means. They include:

1. native speaker by birth (that is by early childhood exposure),
2. native speaker by virtue of being a native user,
3. native speaker (or native speaker-like) by being an exceptional learner,
4. native speaker through education in the target language medium,
5. native speaker through long residence in the adopted country.

What is at issue is whether claiming to be a native speaker, to "own" the language, requires early childhood exposure. Let us consider this issue of ownership with regard to English.

International English

Three ways of coping with the sense of losing one's identity as a native speaker – the traditional foreigner, the revisionist foreigner, and the other native. There is a fourth way, that of a globalized international Language. One approach would be via an artificial language such as Esperanto or Idaho, where everyone gives up their national identity (or adds to it) for the sake of an international ideal of community. The other approach is via an existing lingua franca, such as English, and

here we are close to the revisionist foreigner position where we discussed the proposal of Seidlhofer. The difference between that and what has come to be known as International English is that International English is not just for L2 users, but for all. The question which arises for applied linguistics is whether International English (Smith, 1983; Kachru, 1985; Davies, 1989) means a special variety of English with its own norms which are distinct from any national official standard English, or whether it means a use of English in international conferences and settings, for example the United Nations, academic conferences, trade missions, business negotiations.

If the latter, then International English becomes like EliF. The view is that International English usually means using one or the other standard English in international settings. Therefore, from an applied linguistic point of view, it is more appropriate to designate the activity as English as an International Language rather than as International English. The emphasis is then firmly put on the use of English and not on a separate language.

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