Introduction

1. Scope and definition

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<th>Applied</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sprachwissenschaft</td>
<td>Linguistik</td>
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2. Areas of linguistics

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<td>sounds and their function</td>
<td>Phonetics and Phonology</td>
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<td>words and their constituents</td>
<td>Morphology and Wordformation</td>
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<tr>
<td>words forming sentences</td>
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<td>sentences forming texts</td>
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<td>Semantics</td>
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<td>variations of language</td>
<td>Sociolinguistics</td>
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<td>Psycholinguistics and Cognitive Linguistics</td>
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<td>origin and development of language</td>
<td>Historical Linguistics and Etymology</td>
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<td>comparing different languages</td>
<td>Contrastive Linguistics</td>
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<td>function and effects of language in use</td>
<td>Pragmatics</td>
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<th>Branch of Linguistics - Applied</th>
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<td>compiling dictionaries</td>
<td>Lexicography</td>
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<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
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<td>large amounts of authentic language</td>
<td>Corpus Linguistics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Basic notions and concepts

3.1 Model of the linguistic sign by **Ferdinand de Saussure** (1857-1913)

represents a binary, mentalistic, language-immanent approach

![Diagram](image)

Fig. 1

cf. Lipka (2002: 55)
later relabelled and now more common:

![Semiotic triangle](image)

**Fig. 2**

**Characteristics of the linguistic sign:**
- **arbitrary:** conventional, non-motivated (but: exceptions)
- **differential:** a sign is defined by the relations it has with other signs in the system
- **linear:** sequence of phonemes or graphemes

3.2 Other models of the linguistic sign
- **Semiotic triangle** by Ogden/Richards (1923)
- **Organon model** by Bühler (1934)

3.3 More principles of Structural Linguistics
- **diachronic vs. synchronic**
- **prescriptive/normative vs. descriptive**
- **langue vs. parole**
- **paradigmatic vs. syntagmatic**

- **spoken** language vs. **written** language (medium)
- **natural** language vs. **artificial** language
- **object** language vs. **meta**language

Herbst/Stoll/Westermayr (1991)
Kortmann (1999: 9-17)
Phonetics and Phonology

1. Difference between phonetics and phonology
   narrow vs. broad transcription = parole vs. langue

2. Aspects of phonetics
   - articulatory phonetics: concentrates on the speaker (production of speech)
   - acoustic phonetics: concentrates on the medium (physical properties of speech)
   - auditory phonetics: concentrates on the hearer (perception of speech)

2.1 Description of sounds
   speech sounds can be classified
   - on the basis of the relevant speech organs

1. lips
2. teeth
3. alveolar ridge (Zahndamm)
4. hard palate (harter Gaumen)
5. soft palate - velum (weicher Gaumen)
6. uvula (Zäpfchen)
7. pharynx (Rachenhöhle)
8. epiglottis (Kehldeckel)
9. glottis (Stimmritze)
10. larynx (Kehlkopf)
11. tip of the tongue
12. blade of the tongue
13. front of the tongue
14. back of the tongue

- in vowels
   they can be presented in a vowel grid or vowel chart/diagram
   criteria of classification:
   (1) part of the tongue that is raised (2) extent to which tongue is raised (3) length
   (4) shape of lips (5) intensity of articulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>front</th>
<th>central</th>
<th>back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Diagram" /></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mid</td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Diagram" /></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Diagram" /></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 3 cf. Kortmann (1999: inside front cover)

Fig. 4: tongue height

Fig. 5: position of vowel diagram
(Davis, John F. (1998), Phonetics and Phonology, Stuttgart, 33 and 35.)
Fig. 6: English vowel phonemes
cf. Scherer/Wollmann (1986: 130)

type of vowels: monophthong vs. diphthong

- in **consonants**

according to place (=1) and manner (=2) of articulation
and voice (=3) - additional criterion: intensity of articulation (fortis/lenis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(1) bilabial</th>
<th>labio-dental</th>
<th>dental</th>
<th>alveolar</th>
<th>post-alveolar</th>
<th>palato-alveolar</th>
<th>palatal</th>
<th>velar</th>
<th>glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plosive</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fricative</td>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>δ</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>z</td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affricate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tf</td>
<td>Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>m</td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frictionless continuant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semi-vowel</td>
<td></td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) voice</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 7: English consonant table

Fig. 8: horizontal section of larynx with **vocal folds** cf. Gimson (1996:11)
2.2 Phonetic Alphabet

developed by the International Phonetic Association (IPA)
relevant symbols for English with examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vowels</th>
<th>monophthongs</th>
<th>diphthongs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ɪ/</td>
<td>pit</td>
<td>/iː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>pet</td>
<td>/əː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>pat</td>
<td>/ɔː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʌ/</td>
<td>putt</td>
<td>/uː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>pot</td>
<td>/ɔː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʊ/</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>/iə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ə/</td>
<td>another</td>
<td>/uə/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| consonants     | /p/          | /m/        | /f/        | fine       |
|----------------|--------------|------------|------------|
| /b/            | bin          | /n/        | /v/        | vine       |
| /t/            | tin          | /ŋ/        | /θ/        | think      |
| /d/            | din          | /ð/        | /ð/        | this       |
| /k/            | kin          | /l/        | /s/        | seal       |
| /ɡ/            | gum          | /r/        | /z/        | zeal       |
| /ɻ/            | chain        | /j/        | /ʃ/        | sheep      |
| /dʒ/           | Jane         | /h/        |            | how        |

2.3 Important notions in phonology

- phone vs. phoneme
- allophone
- complementary distribution
- free variants vs. contextual variants
- minimalpair
- opposition
- distinctive vs. redundant features
- intonation
- phonotactics
- primary stress vs. secondary stress
- linking (liaison vs. juncture)

Scherer/Wollmann (1986: 16-54)
Kortmann (1999: 19-43)
THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2005)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Uvular</th>
<th>Pharyngeal</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>p b</td>
<td>t d</td>
<td>t k</td>
<td>t g</td>
<td>q g</td>
<td>q g</td>
<td>q g</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m n</td>
<td>n n</td>
<td>n n</td>
<td>n n</td>
<td>n N</td>
<td>n N</td>
<td>n N</td>
<td>n N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trill</td>
<td>B R</td>
<td>R R</td>
<td>R R</td>
<td>R R</td>
<td>R R</td>
<td>R R</td>
<td>R R</td>
<td>R R</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tap or Flap</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>θ θ</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
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<td>l l</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lateral approximant</td>
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<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td>l l</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

VOWELS

Front | Central | Back
---|---|---
Close | i Y | i u
Close-mid | e ø | e ø
Open-mid | æ æ | Æ Æ
Open | æ æ | Æ Æ

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

DIACRITICS

Voiced 
Aspirated 
More rounded 
Less rounded 
Advanced 
Retracted 
Centralised 
Mid-centralised 
Sylabic 
Non-syllabic 
Rhotic


Morphology and Wordformation

1. Basics in morphology

1.1 Definitions

**morpheme** = smallest linguistic unit that carries meaning

**allomorph** = the concrete realisation of a morpheme

1.2 Morphological analysis (allomorphs and distribution)

- The **aim** is to put up the inventory of the morphemes of a language and to describe the allomorphs of specific morphemes.
- The **steps** are ...
  - collecting, segmenting and comparing words, forms and meanings in order to determine the morphemes, analysing their concrete realisations and describing the conditions for these realisations (= distribution of allomorphs).

**Sample analysis for the morpheme {-S} 'plural'

set of lexemes: book, cliff, myth, pin, dog, apple, lemon, cherry, orange, tax, house, ox, child, wife, sheep, fish, mouse, foot

A. Realisation of the morpheme with the meaning ‘plural’:

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>books</td>
<td>/s/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>cliffs</td>
<td>/z/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>myths</td>
<td>/z/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>pins</td>
<td>/z/</td>
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<tr>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>dogs</td>
<td>/z/</td>
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<tr>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>apples</td>
<td>/z/</td>
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<tr>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>lemons</td>
<td>/z/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>cherries</td>
<td>/z/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

exceptions: oxen, children, wives, sheep, fish, mice, feet

B. Classification with distribution:

- /s/ after voiceless consonants except /s, f/,
- /z/ after vowels and voiced consonants except /z, ʒ/,
- /iz/ after sibilants /z, ʒ, f/,
- /en/ oxen
- /o/ sheep, fish
- /ran/ children
- /z/ + voicing of the preceding consonant wives
- / / vowel alteration (umlaut) mice, feet

The allomorphs in the white area are phonologically conditioned, the ones in the grey area are morphologically conditioned.
1.3 Specific types

**portemanteau-morph** = a morpheme that has several meanings simultaneously:

- e.g. \{his\} ‘poss. pron., masc., sg.’; \{took\} = \{TAKE\} + \{-ED\}

**suppletion** (= replacive allomorph) = morpheme appears in an alternative, not related form:

- e.g. \{was\} < \{BE\} + \{-ED\}; \{worse\} < \{BAD\} + \{-ER\}

**homonymous morphemes** = two unrelated meanings appear in the same form:

- e.g. \{-ER\} in \textit{worker} vs. \{-ER\} in \textit{harder}

1.4 Classification of morphemes

<table>
<thead>
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<th>TYPES OF MORPHEMES</th>
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<tr>
<td>lexical morphemes</td>
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<td>free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefixes</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>{WRITE}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{GREEN}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blocked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affixes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| free                | bound                |
| \{THE\}            | \{-S\}              |
| \{AND\}            | \{-S2\}             |
| \{TO\}             | \{-S3\}             |
| \{ER\}             | \{-ED\}             |
| \{-EST\}           | \{-ED1\}            |
| \{-TH\}            | \{-ED2\}            |
|                     | \textit{word formation} |
|                     | \textit{inflection}  |

cf. Lipka (2002: 87)

1.5 Distinction lexical vs. grammatical

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>criterion</th>
<th>lexical morpheme</th>
<th>grammatical morpheme</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>function</td>
<td>semantically autonomous; individual meaning; content words</td>
<td>relational; marks grammatical and syntactic information; function words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class</td>
<td>open set</td>
<td>closed inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position</td>
<td>more often at the beginning</td>
<td>always at the end</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>result</td>
<td>new words; bound suffixes change word class</td>
<td>new wordform with meaning unchanged; maintains word class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.6 The concept word

- orthographic word vs. phonologic word

- wordform (≠ word class)
  - \textit{work - works - worked}
  - \textit{worker - workers}

- lexeme ⇒ lexical unit
  - \textit{WORK} ⇒
    - (1) 'have a job'
    - (2) 'do a task'
  - \textit{WORKER}
2. Basics in Wordformation

2.1 Types of wordformation

= combination of lexical morphemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>type</th>
<th>modifier ((\text{Determinans}))</th>
<th>head ((\text{Determinatum}))</th>
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</thead>
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<td>free morpheme</td>
<td>free morpheme</td>
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<td>derivation</td>
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<td>free morpheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suffixation</td>
<td>free morpheme</td>
<td>bound morpheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero-derivation</td>
<td>free morpheme</td>
<td>zero morpheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 Types of compounds

- endocentric compounds (= determinative compounds):
  modifier determines the head

- exocentric compounds (= Bahuvrihi compounds/possessive compounds):
  describe something via its specific characteristics

- copulative compounds (Dvandva compounds):
  both characteristics hold simultaneously for the new referent

2.3 Non-morphemic wordformation

- reduplications
- blends
- clippings
- initialisms and acronyms

- backformation: „Wortbildung, bei der ein Wort, das aus einem Wortstamm und einem echten oder vermeintlichen Suffix besteht, um das Suffix gekürzt wird.” (Herbst et al. 1991: 81)

2.4 Phraseologisms (idioms, fixed expressions)

important defining features:
- they form a semantic unit
- they are larger than one word
- they consist of fixed constituents
- they are semantically opaque
2.5 Coinage as wordformation process

- eponyms (= word-from-names)
  New lexemes are created using proper names that have a specific relation to an extralinguistic referent. It can either be names of persons, products or companies.
  Examples: sandwich, watt, boycott, hoover, kleenex, xerox

- a rare case is wordformation ex nihilo
  New words are invented on purpose in order to be used for new referents.
  Examples: hobbit, muggle, skrewt, quidditch, quarks
  The new lexemes can then again be used as bases for derivation or other wordformation processes, e.g.:
    - zero-derivation: hoover (N) > to hoover
    - compounding: to lynch > lynch law
    - clipping: wellington boots > wellies

3. How to decide: backformation or regular derivation?

Kortmann (1999: 71f.) gives a number of examples for backformations, among them classic ones like edit (1792) < editor (1712), scavenge (1644) < scavenger (1503), burgle and peddle that can only be explained on the basis of their etymology (i.e. the date of their first appearance in the language as shown in the OED). There are also more recent examples like televize, intuit, enthuse und relatively obvious cases like contracept, cohese, self-destruct and pseudo-compounds such as babysit, window-shop, sleepwalk or lip-read.

Besides the criterion of etymology you can also use the criterion of paraphrasing to decide on the direction of a derivation. In a backformation you cannot paraphrase the meaning of the new lexeme simply by referring to the shorter form, as would be the case in a regular derivation (e.g. the noun could be explained via the verb in production = the quantity of goods that is produced).

This is a selection of entries from the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (CD-Rom) for some of the above mentioned lexemes that show how the criterion of paraphrasing can be helpful:

en-thuse verb
1 ~ (about / over sth/sb) to talk in an enthusiastic and excited way about sth:
[V] The article enthused about the benefits that the new system would bring. • [V speech] ‘It’s a wonderful idea’, he enthused. [also V that]
2 [VN] [usually passive] ~ sb (with sth) to make sb feel very interested and excited: Everyone present was enthused by the idea.
enthuziasm noun
1 [U] ~ (for sth / for doing sth) a strong feeling of excitement and interest in sth and a desire to become involved in it: I can’t say I share your enthusiasm for the idea. • She never lost her enthusiasm for teaching. • He had a real enthusiasm for the work. • The news was greeted with a lack of enthusiasm by those at the meeting. • ‘I don’t mind,’ she said, without much enthusiasm. • full of enthusiasm
2 [C] (formal) something that you are very interested in and spend a lot of time doing: Reading is one of her many enthusiasms.

self-destruct verb
[V] (especially of an explosive device, a machine, etc.) to destroy itself, usually by exploding: This tape will self-destruct in 30 seconds. • (figurative) In the last half-hour of the movie the plot rapidly self-destructs.

self-destruction noun
[U] the act of doing things to deliberately harm yourself: He wanted Jill to give up her life of alcohol and self-destruction.

babysit verb
(babysitting, babysat, babysat) (also sit) to take care of babies or children for a short time while their parents are out: [V] She regularly babysits for us. • [VN] He’s babysitting the neighbour’s children.

babysitter noun
a person who takes care of babies or children while their parents are away from home and is usually paid to do this: I can’t find a babysitter for tonight.

intuit verb
(formal) to know that sth is true based on your feelings rather than on facts, what sb tells you, etc: [V that] She intuited that something was badly wrong. [also VN, V wh-]

intuition noun
1 [U] the ability to know sth by using your feelings rather than considering the facts: Intuition told her that he had spoken the truth. • He was guided by intuition and personal judgement. • The answer came to me in a flash of intuition.
2 [C] ~ (that … ) an idea or a strong feeling that sth is true although you cannot explain why: I had an intuition that something awful was about to happen.

window-shop verb
to go window-shopping

window-shopping noun
[U] the activity of looking at the goods in shop/store windows, usually without intending to buy anything: to go window-shopping
4. A typology of languages

Besides classifying languages according to the assumption that they have diverged from a common ancestor (= genetic classification; cf. *The history of language*), it is possible to classify languages typologically, for instance on the basis of the quality and function of morphemes. The classification is thus based on the comparison of formal and structural similarities that exist between languages.

The earliest typologies for morphology were put up among others by Wilhelm von Humbolt (1762-1835) and August von Schlegel (1767-1845).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>analytic languages</strong></th>
<th><strong>synthetic languages</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>grammatical relationship is marked by word order, by combinations with function words, no inflection</td>
<td>grammatical relationship is marked by inflection, word order plays a minor role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>= isolating</td>
<td>agglutinating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>invariable words, no endings</td>
<td>1:1-relation between grammatical morpheme and meaning, linear sequence of units allows easy segmentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. Chinese Vietnamese Modern English</td>
<td>e.g. Turkish Japanese Swahili Finnish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chin. <em>Wo mai juzi chi</em> wo = 'I' mai = 'buy' juzi = 'orange' chi = 'eat' I bought some oranges to eat.</td>
<td>turk. <em>evlerinden</em> ev = 'house’ ler = ‘plural’ i = ‘possessive’ nden = ‘ablative’ ‘of his/her houses'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Most languages are mixed types. From a typological point of view Modern English is analytic, as it has a fixed word order and most words are invariable, still some inflectional endings have survived from Old English times, and some (now) irregular forms are portemanteau-morphemes.

Lipka (2002: chapter 2.3)  
Kortmann (1999: 49-77)  
Schmid (2005)
The history of language

1. The Indo-European family (genetic classification)

(cf. Sauer 2000)
Language in general is subject to change, differentiation and separation. Comparing different languages can lead to hypotheses about the evolution of one language into separate individual languages. For the languages in Europe and large part of Asia the discovery of Sanskrit (with a long written tradition) was essential: 1786 Sir William Jones (1746-1794), a British orientalist and jurist observed a clear affinity between the old Indian language Sanskrit and European languages (Greek, Latin, Gothic, Celtic). He claimed that those languages had a common origin, which probably no longer existed, i.e. Proto-Indo-European.

Sanskrit bhratar    English brother    Russian brat
Latin frater      Greek phrater

Comparative linguists as followers of Sir William Jones: Franz Bopp, Jacob Grimm (Grimm's law of sound change 1822), Rasmus Rask, August Schleicher
2. The history of English

2.1 Extralinguistic facts

2.1.1 The time before English

First inhabitants: Various races in the Stone Age came when England was connected to the continent (Paleolithic Man), around 5000 BC also races from the south came (the Mediterranean race, Neolithic Man)

4th century BC: Gaelic Celts came to Ireland, Scotland and Isle of Man

5th century BC: Britanic Celts came to the south of England and Wales.

their language was Insular Celtic (Gaelic and Britannic).

55 BC: Julius Caesar, after having conquered Gaul, invades the British Isles for the first time, but, although the following year he has some successful contact with the Celts, he again returns to Gaul.

43 AD: In the Roman Conquest Emperor Claudius subjugates the Celts in the central and southeastern regions. In the following 300 years the British Isles are gradually romanised, Roman culture and habits are introduced.

410 AD: The last Roman troops are withdrawn from the island and sent back to Rome. Picts and Scots attack the now unprotected British Celts, who ask Germanic tribes for help.

In 449 AD (according to Bede’s *Ecclesiastical History of the English People* from 730) the first ships arrived from the continent.

the language at that time: Celtic with Latin loanwords

e.g. Celtic place names: London, Dover, Thames, Kent, Avon

many Latin place names: lat. castra > ceaster > ne. Chester, Manchester

2.1.2 Old English

(Fischer, Roswitha (2003), *Tracing the history of English*, Darmstadt, 28)
This period begins in 449 AD, when Angles, Saxons and Jutes settle in England and drive the British Celts to the North and the West. Their language is Germanic.

- the language at that time: Celtic substratum with Anglo-Saxon superstratum

Old English: 4 dialects - Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish, Westsaxon

Anglo-Saxon heptarchy: The country has 7 kingdoms with constantly changing status.

7th century: Northumbria as the centre of culture and wealth
8th century: Mercia takes over the leadership
9th century: Wessex gains influence under Egbert (802-839) until 830 all England including Wales acknowledge Egbert as their leader.

- the language at that time: Westsaxon is the predominant dialect
  and becomes literary standard - first written traditions (Beowulf)

9th to 11th century:
Scandinavian invasion in three stages:

1. Period of early raids

2. Invasion of large armies + extensive settlement; establishment of the Danelaw in the Treaty of Wedmore between King Alfred and Guthrum from the Danes

3. Period of political adjustment and assimilation
1014 Aethelred, the English king, is driven into exile, the Dane, Cnut, is crowned and rules England until 1042

- the language at that time: Old English influenced by Old Norse
  e.g. Derby, Rugby, husband, fellow,
  wrong, sky, they, them

Map 1

After Barber 1993:129
2.1.3 Middle English

1066: William the Conqueror, duke of Normandy, claims the English throne; in the battle of Hastings the king of England, Harold, is killed. On Christmas day 1066 William is crowned king of England. The Normans introduce a new nobility, English aristocrats are gradually replaced by Normans and Norman prelates are introduced into all important positions in the church.

دى the language at that time:
first Old French (Norman) and Old English side by side
later also English influences on French (> Anglo-Norman) & bilingualism

around 1100/1150 the term Middle English can be used for the language

1204: king John loses Normandy to the French crown → French nobility begins to develop a national feeling towards England

دى the language at that time: English is re-established, French is no longer used

Middle English has become a mixed language with Romanic and Germanic elements. The French influence becomes especially apparent in various areas of vocabulary,

e.g. sovereign, crown, parliament, duke, council
judge, crime, prison, accuse
religion, trinity, prayer

2.1.4 Modern English

1500 to 1700 Early Modern English

1476: William Caxton introduces printing in England

for the language this meant that spelling conventions had to be adopted. Caxton chose the conventions used in the London area, which is more or less the spelling of today.

16th century: Renaissance: growing interest in ancient languages and promotion of arts and humanities

دى the language at that time: English is enriched by learned words from Latin, Greek and French (inkhorn terms)

e.g. science, philosophy, series, bizarre, detail, balcony, opera

1700 to 1900 Late Modern English

1900 to today Present-day English
### 2.2 Language contact terminology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>intimate borrowing</th>
<th>cultural borrowing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the incorporation of words from another language on the basis of close contact of many</td>
<td>the incorporation of words from a language that has the more advanced culture or imports new things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(for English: Old Norse: egg, fellow, take, sky, skin, skirt, window and even function words like they - them)</td>
<td>erguson, coffee, curry, tomato</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>superstratum</th>
<th>substratum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the more prestigious language influences the structure or use of a less prestigious language (dominance of one people)</td>
<td>elements of the less prestigious language influence the dominant language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esp. legal, military or administrative terms</td>
<td>celtic substratum in French</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.3 Linguistic change in the history of English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>449-1100</td>
<td>1. Full inflections (number, case, gender) for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- nouns: vowel- and consonant-stem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- adjectives and pronouns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- verb declension:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 strong classes with vowel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 weak classes (stem + -ede, -ode, -de for past tense and -ed, od, -d for past participle)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Free word order</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Transparent word-formation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1100-1500</td>
<td>1. Simplified inflection system, reduction and loss of unstressed syllables in nouns and verbs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Fixed word order S-V-O</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Great Vowel Shift began around the 15th century (completed in the 18th century): all long monophthongs raised or diphthongized - marks the end of the Middle English period</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500-1700</td>
<td>1. Loss of remaining noun inflection (except s-genitive and plural)</td>
<td>thou goest, he goes/goeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Verbal inflection reduced to -est, -s, -eth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1700-now</td>
<td>1. Regular use of do-forms, progressive form, present perfect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4 Periods of English and their authors and important texts


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Old English 700-1200</th>
<th>Middle English 1200-1500</th>
<th>Modern English 1500-present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frühaltenglisch</td>
<td>Frühmittelenglisch</td>
<td>Frühneuenglisch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>700-900</td>
<td>1200-1300</td>
<td>1500-1650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spätaltenglisch</td>
<td>Spätmittelenglisch</td>
<td>Frühneuenglisch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>900-1100</td>
<td>1300-1400</td>
<td>1650- now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Übergang Altenglisch</td>
<td>Übergang Mittelenglisch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1100-1200</td>
<td>1400-1500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vers-Chronik Layamons Brut</td>
<td>Geoffrey Chaucer</td>
<td>Shakespeare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alfred der Große</td>
<td>Anachoretinnenregel/Ancrene Riwle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4 Text sample from Old English

The Lord's Prayer

(cf. Baugh/Cable 1993: 61)

Fæder ùre,  
þu þe eart on heofonum,  
si þin nama gehâlgod.  
Tōbecume þin rice.  
Gewurþe þin willa on eordan swā swā on heofonum.  
Ûrne gedæghwāmlīcan hlāf syle ūs tō dæg.  
And forgýf ūs ûre gyltas, swā swā wē forgýfað ūrum gyltendum.  
And ne gelæð þu ûs on costnunge,  
ac álys ûs of yfele. Sōplīce.

2.5 Text sample from Middle English

(Chaucer's Canterbury Tales) Cx1: Folio 2r; General Prologue, Lines 1 - 29

Whan that Apprill with his shouris sote  
And the droughte of marche hath percid þe rote  
And badid euery veyne in suche licour  
Of whiche vertu engendrid is the flour  
Whanne zepherus eke with his sote breth  
Enspirid hath in euer holte and heth  
The tendir croppis / and the yong sonne  
Hath in the ram half his cours y ronne  
And smale foulis make melodie  
That slepyn al nyght with opyn ye  
So prikith hem nature in her corage  
Than longýng folk to gon on pilgremage  
And palmers to seche straunge londis  
To serue halowis couthe in sondry londis  
And specially fro euery shiris ende  
Of yngelond to Cauntirbury thy wende  
The holy blissful martir forto seke  
That them hath holpyn when they were seke
4. Important changes in phonology

4.1 Germanic sound shift (*Grimm’s Law*)
marks off Germanic languages from all other Indo-European languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>idg.</th>
<th>germ.</th>
<th>lat.</th>
<th>OE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>&gt; /f/</td>
<td>piscis</td>
<td>fisc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>&gt; /θ/</td>
<td>frater</td>
<td>broθer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>&gt; /χ/</td>
<td>pecus</td>
<td>feoh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>&gt; /p/</td>
<td>labium</td>
<td>lippa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>&gt; /t/</td>
<td>duo</td>
<td>twa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/g/</td>
<td>&gt; /k/</td>
<td>genu</td>
<td>cneo(w)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

completed by Verner’s Law: the changes in Grimm's Law only apply when the stem of the word is accented:

*idg. *pa’ter > ae. *fæder* (NE *father* and G *Vater* only develop later)

4.2 Great Vowel Shift

4.3 Survey on vowel change types
cf. Viereck (2001: 70)
5. Vocabulary

5.1 English has a mixed vocabulary from Germanic and Romanic sources

- pay, place, stay
- astrologers, discipline, marquis
- they, them, husband, anger, ill, take
- champagne, machine
- courtship, endearment
- botany, object, friction
- paternal, hostile, oral

5.2 Consequences of this mixed character:

- large and rich vocabulary
- many synonyms allow fine nuances in meaning
  - animal - beast
  - liberty - freedom
  - great - large - big
  - short - brief
- hard words
  - hippopotamus, ophthalmologist
- Consociation vs. dissociation

The English vocabulary is dissociated, i.e. the elements in a wordfamily are not derived from the same stem, as is the case in German.

- Mund - mündlich
- Fuß, drei - Dreifuß
- Nahrung - nahrhaft
- Schirm - Regenschirm - Sonnenschirm
- heilig - Heiliger
- mouth - oral
- stool - tripod
- food - nutritious, nourishing
- Ø - umbrella - parasol
- holy - saint
(cf. W.E. Lunt *History of England.*)
Syntax

1. Traditional syntax

1.1 Word classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nouns</th>
<th>Proper Nouns</th>
<th>London, the Thames, John Smith</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Common Nouns</td>
<td>Countable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Horse, bar, table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uncountable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Milk, sugar, freedom, disgust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>Attributive Function</td>
<td>The ugly duckling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predicative Function</td>
<td>The house is beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>Lexical or Full Verbs</td>
<td>Hit, kiss, think, argue, eat, sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Auxiliary Verbs</td>
<td>Do, be, have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modal Verbs</td>
<td>Need, shall, will, must, ought to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td></td>
<td>Really, well, afterwards, hardly, wisely, late</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Articles (Determiners)</th>
<th>Definite</th>
<th>The</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indefinite</td>
<td>A(n)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronouns</th>
<th>Personal Pronouns</th>
<th>I, you, she, he, it we, they</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possessive Pronouns</td>
<td>My, your, his, her, its, our,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflexive Pronouns</td>
<td>Myself, yourself, himself,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relative Pronouns</td>
<td>Which, who, whose, whom, what, that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interrogative Pronouns</td>
<td>Who, whose, whom, what, which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Demonstrative Pronouns</td>
<td>This, these, that, those</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indefinite Pronouns</td>
<td>Everyone, nothing, all, each both, any, few</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Coordinating</th>
<th>And, or, but</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subordinating</td>
<td>If, although, before, after, since</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prepositions</th>
<th>In, above, over, under, in front of, in spite of, after</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numerals</th>
<th>Cardinal Numbers</th>
<th>One, two, three</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ordinal Numbers</td>
<td>First, second, third, fourth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Interjections    | Goodness, ouch, yeah, ahit, damn, blimey, fuck |

1.2 Formal units in a sentence

1.2.1 Syntactic hierarchy

\[
\text{Sentences} \ (\text{simple, complex}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Clauses} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Phrases} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Words} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Morphemes}
\]

Sentences are made up of one or more clauses.
Clauses are made up of one or more phrases.
Phrases are made up of one or more words.
Words are made up of one or more morphemes.
1.2.2 Types of phrases

There are many different phrases that all can be put down to 5 major types:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrase Type</th>
<th>premodifier</th>
<th>head</th>
<th>postmodifier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun Phrase</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>on the road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective Phrase</td>
<td>very</td>
<td>anxious</td>
<td>to please everybody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb Phrase</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>stupidly</td>
<td>as one can imagine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb Phrase</td>
<td>has been</td>
<td>sleeping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional Phrase</td>
<td>preposition</td>
<td>on + the boat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3 Structural analysis in the simple sentence

- **Functional analysis**
  
  \[
  \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
  (S) subject & (V) verb phrase & (O) object (dir.) & (A) adverbial \\
  \hline
  The student & had seen & his green book & on the table \\
  \end{array}
  \]

- **Formal analysis**

1.4 Functional units in the sentence
1.4.1 Basic notions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>predicate/verb</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>complement</th>
<th>adverbial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>P/V</td>
<td>Odir</td>
<td>Os</td>
<td>Co</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.4.2 Clause types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SV</td>
<td><em>The sun</em> (S) <em>is shining</em> (V).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>SVO</td>
<td><em>Mary</em> (S) <em>enjoys</em> (V) <em>classical music</em> (O).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>SVC</td>
<td><em>Your dinner</em> (S) <em>seems</em> (V) <em>ready</em> (C).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>SVA</td>
<td><em>My sister</em> (S) <em>reads</em> (V) <em>in the library</em> (A).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>SVOO</td>
<td><em>I</em> (S) <em>must send</em> (V) <em>my parents</em> (O) <em>an anniversary card</em> (O).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>SVOC</td>
<td><em>The president</em> (S) <em>declared</em> (V) <em>the meeting</em> (O) <em>open</em> (C).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>SVOA</td>
<td><em>You</em> (S) <em>can take</em> (V) <em>that book</em> (O) <em>on the table</em> (A).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Immediate Constituent Analysis (IC analysis)

Method: Segment the sentence into Immediate Constituents (ICs) by substitution according to the principle of binarity and maximum independence of the ICs. Applying this method repeatedly leads to the minimal form of the sentence, which is in traditional terms subject + predicate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The old man who lives there has gone to his son's house.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>He went.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The survivor went there.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The greybeard surviving went to Boston.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The greybeard who survives went to that house.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The old man who lives there has gone to his son's house.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Criticism of IC-analysis: - binary principle cannot always be applied
- segmenting phrases with three elements is ambiguous
- analysis of active and passive sentences leads to different results

3. Generative Transformation Grammar (Noam Chomsky)

3.1 Aim
Generate an infinite number of grammatically correct sentences, beginning with the *deep structure*, then transforming the results into the *surface structure*.

3.2 Principles of GTG
- Sentence as the largest unit
- competence vs. performance
- introspection
- ideal speaker/hearer
- language acquisition device
3.3 Methods

- Phrase structure rules (rewrite rules):

\[
\begin{align*}
S & \Rightarrow NP + VP \\
NP & \Rightarrow \text{Det} + N \\
VP & \Rightarrow V + NP
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{Det} \Rightarrow \{\text{the}\}
\]

\[\text{N} \Rightarrow \{\text{boy, window}\}
\]

\[V \Rightarrow \{\text{broke}\}
\]

\[\textbf{\text{↪}}\quad \text{The boy broke the window.} = \text{deep structure}
\]

- Transformations:
  - Passive transformation: Permutation NP$_2 >$ NP$_1$, Insertion of be+PRES, -en
  - Negation transformation: Insertion of NOT

\[\textbf{\text{↪}}\quad \text{The window was not broken by the boy.} = \text{surface structure}
\]

4. Case Grammar - semantic roles (developed by Charles Fillmore 1968)

4.1 Definition

Theory of syntax that assigns a central role to the verb. Each verb in a sentence creates a case frame that is filled with a number of obligatory and optional cases.

4.2 Methods

Segment the sentence in: (1) **Modality** (e.g. Tense, Negation, Question, progressive form) and (2) **Proposition**, consisting of Predicate and a set of Arguments

4.3 Case frame for open:

\[
\begin{align*}
(1) & \quad \text{The door opens.} & \text{Objective} \\
(2) & \quad \text{The key opens the door.} & \text{O + Instrumental} \\
(3) & \quad \text{John opens the door.} & \text{O + Agentive} \\
(4) & \quad \text{John opens the door with the key.} & \text{O + A + I}
\end{align*}
\]

\[\textbf{\text{↪}}\quad \text{case frame: open} + [___ O (I) (A)]
\]

4.4 Semantic roles according to Cook (1979: 18f)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>abbr.</th>
<th>case</th>
<th>semantic role</th>
<th>feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Agentive</td>
<td>instigator of the action</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Experencer</td>
<td>affected by the action</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>force or object causing action</td>
<td>inanimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>semantically most neutral case</td>
<td>inanimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Source</td>
<td>the origin or starting point</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>the object or endpoint</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Locative</td>
<td>spatial orientation of the action</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>temporal orientation of the action</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Comitative</td>
<td>accompaniment role</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Benefactive</td>
<td>benefactive role</td>
<td>animate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. The linguistic sign and the extralinguistic world

1.1 The linguistic sign according to Ferdinand de Saussure (cf. page 1/2)

1.2 The **Semiotic Triangle** by Ogden and Richards (1923)

This is an extension of Saussure's model and integrates the extralinguistic referent. ⇒ Triadic model; referential model

The relation between symbol and referent is only an indirect one.

1.3 Categorization of the extralinguistic world

1.3.1 Universalistic or realistic point of view

There is a 1:1-relation between categories and words - language just gives names to predefined categories.

1.3.2 Relativistic or nominalistic point of view:

Language divides the world into categories, influences the knowledge and understanding of the world and determines perception.

(cf. Lipka 2002: 57)
1.4 Denotation vs. connotation
basic meaning of a lexeme vs. additional meaning (cultural/emotional/contextual)
definition of FOX, ROSE, SNAKE ⇔ associative meaning (‘clever’, ‘love’, ‘danger’)

2. Paradigmatic Semantics

2.1 Sense relations

2.1.1 Synonymy (total vs. partial)
= relation between signs with the same (denotative) meaning

- fatherly - paternal
  - einen Brief bekommen - einen Brief erhalten
- buy - purchase
  - einen Schnupfen bekommen - * einen Schnupfen erhalten
- truck - lorry
  - Geld - Moos - Zaster - Kies - Kohle etc.
  - Semmeln - Brötchen

2.1.2 Meaning contrasts

2.1.2.1 Antonymy
= different endpoints on a scale, gradable contrast

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{hot} & \text{very warm} & \text{warm} & \text{lukewarm} & \text{cold} \\
\downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow
\end{array}
\]

- big - small
- good - bad

Logical relation: Negation of one endpoint does not imply that the other endpoint applies.

2.1.2.2 Complementarity
= two lexemes exclude each other; either-or-relation

- alive - dead
- unmarried - married
- smoker - non-smoker

Logical relation: Negation of one lexeme implies the other one

2.1.2.3 Converness
= describes the same fact from two different points of view

- husband - wife
- younger - older
- buy - sell

Logical relation: e.g. X bought it from Y implies that Y sold it to X and vice versa
2.1.3 Homonymy
= two linguistic signs with a different meaning have the same form
ear\textsubscript{1} ‘Ohr’ < OE ēare
ear\textsubscript{2} ‘Ähre’ < OE ēar

Homonymy can be further subdivided into:
- **homography** (only the spelling is identical)
  \( 'record (N) - re' \textsubscript{1} 'cord (V) \quad 'conduct (N) - con' \textsubscript{2} 'duct (V) \)
- **homophony** (only the pronunciation is identical)
  write - right - rite
  brake - break
  here - hear

2.1.4 Polysemy
= one linguistic sign has two or more different meanings

beam ‘Balken’ + ‘Lichtstrahl’

It is difficult to draw a line between homonymy and polysemy, since from a synchronic point of view they just describe two sides of the same linguistic phenomenon.

Disambiguation is possible via the context and the specific sets of lexemes that the individual senses prefer.

2.1.5 Hyponymy
= relation between a superordinate (**hyperonym**, **archilexeme**) and its subordinate terms (**hyponyms**)

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \node {animal}
    child{node {bird}
      child{node {duck}}
      child{node {robin}}
      child{node {parrot}}
      child{node {peacock}}
    }
    child{node {dog}
      child{node {poodle}}
      child{node {Labrador retriever}}
    }
    child{node {cat}
      child{node {…}}
    }
  \end{tikzpicture}

\begin{tikzpicture}
  \node {bank}
    child{node {\texttt{‘side of a river’}}
      child{node {bank\textsubscript{1}}}
    }
    child{node {\texttt{‘financial institution’}}
      child{node {bank\textsubscript{2}}}
    }
  \end{tikzpicture}
2.2 Semantic features
Componential or analysis or Feature Semantics: The meaning of words is split up into smaller meaning units - the units in which the words differ are called distinctive semantic features.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{male’} & \text{female’} \\
\hline
\text{adult’} & \text{man} & \text{woman} \\
\text{non-adult’} & \text{boy} & \text{girl} \\
\hline
\text{human’}
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{man: [+HUMAN, +ADULT, +MALE] boy: [+HUMAN, -ADULT, +MALE]}\]

2.3 Generative Semantics
Decomposition of lexical items into atomic predicates
\[\text{kill: CAUSE + BECOME + NOT + ALIVE} \quad \quad \text{die: BECOME + NOT + ALIVE}\]

2.4 Lexical fields
(Semantic Fields)

I: conditions only acoustic, no specific cause
II: specific sound AND specific cause
III: specific cause, no specific sound = belongs to different lexical field

2.5 Referential theory of meaning according to Leisi (1985)

Meaning can be described as the **conditions of use** (Gebrauchsbedingungen): *Turm* vs. *tower*

2.6 Prototype Semantics

2.6.1 Forerunner: Labov (1978) with his study of container terms

*aim:* Analyse the boundaries between categories - emphasis on **fuzzy boundaries**

2.6.2 Classical Prototype Theory (Eleanor Rosch)

Categories are described via **a set of attributes**, which is established with the help of informants. The more attributes can be assigned to an exemplar, the nearer this exemplar gets to the prototype. The prototype is the best example of a category.

*aim:* Determine the prototype - emphasis on the **prototypical kernel** of the category.

Example: the category **BIRD**

Attributes:

1. Being able to fly  
2. Having feathers  
3. Being S-shaped  
4. Having wings  
5. Not domesticated  
6. Being born from eggs  
7. Having a beak or bill

other important notions
- Goodness-of-example ratings
- Basic-level categories
- Family resemblance (Ludwig Wittgenstein)
3. Syntagmatic Semantics

Meaning stretches across several units or is changed by the usage in a combination.

(cf. Leech 1981: 17)
different terms are used for this phenomenon:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>focus</th>
<th>term</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>syntactic-semantic</td>
<td>Selection Restrictions</td>
<td>murder + HUMAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexical-semantic</td>
<td>Lexical Solidarities</td>
<td>elapse + TIME; shrug + shoulders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexical-neutral</td>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>dark + night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexical-cognitive</td>
<td>Lexical Chunks</td>
<td>go astray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexical-cognitive</td>
<td>Prefabricated Units</td>
<td>sounds like + a lot of work/ a good idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cognitive-pragmatic</td>
<td>Formulaic Sequences</td>
<td>How do you do?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| general cover term       | multi-word units / phraseological units |

semantic prosody: connotations that influence the other element in the collocation

to commit + ___________________ , __________________ , __________________
to cause + __________________ , __________________ , __________________
to set in: bad weather sets in vs. ?good weather sets in

Basis: open-choice principle vs. idiom principle of language

according to John Sinclair (1991), Corpus, concordance, collocation, Oxford: OUP.

Results in mutual expectancy & predictability

4. Change of meaning

= through the periods of English the meaning of a word gradually changes

4.1 Extension of meaning (generalisation)
ME arriven < F arriver ‘am Ufer ankommen’ > ModE arrive ‘ankommen’
MHG frouwe ‘Herrin’ > NHG Frau

4.2 Narrowing of meaning
OE steorfan ‘sterben’ > ModE starve ‘(ver)hungern’

4.3 Meaning shift
town: ME town ‘Dorf, Weiler’
OE tūn ‘einzehlner Hof’
only in euphemisms instead of taboo words:

WC ⇒ toilet ⇒ lavatory ⇒ bathroom ⇒ restroom

4.4 Deterioration of meaning
OE cnafa ‘Knabe’ > ModE knave ‘Gauner’

4.5 Amelioration of meaning
OE cniht ‘young man’ > ModE knight ‘Ritter’

Kortmann (1999: 155-187)
Lipka (2002: Kap. 2.2)
Lipka (2002: Kap. 4.3)
Pragmatics

1. Pragmatics vs. Semantics

1.1 Meaning is understood differently

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>descriptive/referential meaning</th>
<th>situational/contextual meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>„What does X mean?”</td>
<td>„What do you mean by X?”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2 Definitions of Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of...

"... how utterances have meanings in situations." (Leech 1983:X)
"... the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding." (Levinson 1983: 21)
"... the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate." (Levinson 1983: 24)
"... deixis [...], implicature, presupposition, speech acts, and aspects of discourse structure." (Levinson 1983: 27)

2. The functions of language

2.1 The Organon model by Karl Bühler (1934; 1965)

2.2 Deixis

also: deictic expressions, indexical signs

2.2.1 Bühler's theory of two fields (Zweifeldertheorie)

- field of symbols: naming words, symbols
- field of pointing: pointer words, signals, deictic expressions

2.2.2 Deixis depends on context

A (on the phone): *Who’s calling?* - B: *It’s me.*
*He is there.*
*Over here!*
2.2.3 The deictic centre (Origo) of the field of pointing (Bühler 1934;1965: 102)

3. Basic notions
- situation > time, place, circumstances > context
- speaker/writer vs. hearer/reader
- sentence vs. utterance
- speech act
- aim and function of an utterance
- proposition

4. Speech Act Theory according to Austin und Searle

4.1 Speech Acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>locutionary act</th>
<th>illocutionary act</th>
<th>perlocutionary act</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>linguistic form of the utterance</td>
<td>intention of the speaker</td>
<td>effects of the utterance specific to the circumstances</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ʃəd/</th>
<th>/ˈʃuːt hə/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He said to me „Shoot her!”</td>
<td>He urged (advised, ordered) me to shoot her.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Explicitly performative utterances (Austin 1962: 5, 69)

I name this ship the Queen Elisabeth. (when christening a ship)
I bet you sixpence it will rain tomorrow.
I promise that I shall be there.
4.3 Classification of illocutionary acts


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>representatives</th>
<th>directives</th>
<th>commissives</th>
<th>expressives</th>
<th>declaratives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>assert, claim, state, predict, describe</td>
<td>order, ask, command, request</td>
<td>promise, vow, pledge</td>
<td>thank, welcome, congratulate, apologize</td>
<td>appoint, declare, excommunicate, resign</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

extension by Leech 1983: *rogatives* = question-introducing verbs like ask, inquire, query, etc.

4.4 Indirect Speech Acts

"... cases in which one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another"

(Searle (1979) *Expression and Meaning*, 31.)

The characteristic trait of indirect speech acts is their *dual illocution*:

literal illocution = sentence meaning
non-literal illocution = speaker meaning


Student X: *Let's go to the movies tonight.* 
Student Y: *I have to study for an exam.*

*Can you pass the salt?*  
*Pass the salt!* 
A: *Can you pass the salt?*  
B: *Yes, I can.*

A: *Why don’t you be quiet, Henry?*  
B: *Well, Sally, there are several reasons for not being quiet. First...*

4.5 Conventions of communication

4.5.1 The Cooperative Principle  

"make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of talk exchange in which you are engaged"

**Four maxims of conversation:**

**QUANTITY:**
1) Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).
2) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

**QUALITY:**
Try to make your contribution one that is true.
1) Do not say what you believe to be false.
2) Do not say for which you lack adequate evidence
RELEVANCE: Make your contributions relevant.

MANNER: Be perspicuous, and specifically ...
1) Avoid obscurity of expression.
2) Avoid ambiguity.
3) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
4) Be orderly.

extension: some violations of these maxims can be accounted for with the Politeness Principle introduced by Leech (1983)

4.5.2 Conversational implicatures
Re-interpretation of an utterance that violates the maxims of conversation in its literal meaning.

A: Can you tell me the time?
B: Well, the milkman has come.

A: Where's Bill?
B: There's a yellow VW outside Sue's house.

Can you pass the salt?

4.5.3 Entailments (= semantic implications)
can be seen as the logical consequences of the conventional meaning of words, phrases and sentences and their relations to one another

if There is a bobtail. is a true sentence,
then There is a dog. is also true

4.5.4 Presupposition
pragmatic assumptions that are part of linguistic expressions

John’s cat eats raw fish.
⇒ presupposition: John has a cat.

John’s cat does not eat raw fish.
⇒ same presupposition

John managed/failed to repair his computer.
⇒ presupposition 1: John tried to repair his computer.
⇒ presupposition 2: John has a computer.

Kortmann (1999: 189-217)
Levinson (1983: 61-85)
Leech (1983: 198-216)
Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the study of language in its social context, depending on a whole range of factors like ethnicity, social class, gender, geography, age, profession etc. Language varies according to the person or the speech community who uses it. Thus, it can be claimed that a function of language is to mark the identity of a person or group.


Language variety is the most general term used for any kind of language variation determined by aspects like region, social class, education, speech situation, medium etc.

Standard is the variety of a language that ...
- is used as an official language
- is used in the media (TV, radio, print)
- has a high level of prestige
- is used by educated speakers
- is described in grammars and dictionaries
- functions as the basis for foreign language education

Dialect is the variety of a language that ...
- is spoken in a certain region
- has specific characteristics in pronunciation, morphology, vocabulary, syntax etc.

Sociolect is the variety of a language that ...
- is spoken by a certain social group
- has specific characteristics in pronunciation, morphology, vocabulary, syntax etc.

Accent is the variety of a language that ...
- is spoken in a certain region
- has specific characteristics in pronunciation ONLY

Idiolect is the variety of a language that ...
- is spoken by an individual person
- has specific characteristics in pronunciation, morphology, vocabulary, syntax etc.

Register/Style is the variety of a language that ...
- is spoken or written in a certain speech situation
- has specific characteristics in pronunciation, morphology, vocabulary, syntax etc.
the choice of register depends on:
field of discourse: topic of a discourse (job, family life, personal things etc.)
mode of discourse: medium of communication (spoken, written, e-mail)
tenor of discourse: relationship between the persons in a communication (friendship, authority, professional etc.)

New Englishes are varieties of English used in the former colonies of the British Empire that are now considered as their own standard varieties because of an increase in national consciousness and political, cultural and economic independence of the countries.
2. Types of varieties (cf. Herbst et al. 1990: 196ff.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>von sozialen und situativen Faktoren abhängig</th>
<th>Typen von Varietäten abhängig vom soziologischen Hintergrund der Sprecher</th>
<th>abhängig von der Sprachsituation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>Dialekt</td>
<td>Soziolekt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jargon (Beruf, Hobby)</td>
<td>regional (diatopisch)</td>
<td>sozial (diastratisch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genderlect (Geschlecht)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(cf. Kortmann 1999: 224)

3. Regional varieties in British English

Survey on the most important accent features according to Hughes, A. & P. Trudgill (1987), *English accents and dialects*, London, 58ff.)

The north of England is distinguished by lacking the vowel /ɔ/ in *put*, having /ʊ/ in both *putt* and *put*. As can be seen from the map, the north of England area is divided up into nine sub-areas. These are characterized by the following features:

(a) /h/ is preserved in the north-east.
(b) Words such as *singer* are pronounced with /ŋɡ/ in central Lancashire, Merseyside, the north-west Midlands, and the west Midlands.
(c) Non-prevocalic /ʃ/ is preserved in central Lancashire.
(d) Words like *money* have final /ʃ/ in the north-east, Humberside, Merseyside, and west Midlands areas.
(e) Long Mid Diphthonging in *gate* and *coat* occurs in Merseyside, the north-west Midlands, the east Midlands and the west Midlands (just as it does in the south of England).
4. National Varieties: Major differences between British and American English

4.1 Phonology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GA - General American = AmE</th>
<th>RP - Received Pronunciation = BrE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>used by around 2/3 of the inhabitants of the US</td>
<td>used by very few people, mostly upper class, only 3-5% of the British population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can be defined as the variant that has no features of the southern nor of the eastern accent distribution via radio and TV, also called Network or Broadcast English</td>
<td>social, accent carrying high prestige, not belonging to any region, used especially in schools and universities, and for language teaching even in England only at public schools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

essential features:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GA</th>
<th>RP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>secondary stress: nécessàry</td>
<td>nécess’ry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-prevocalic /r/ is pronounced</td>
<td>non-prevocalic /r/ is NOT pronounced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retroflexive articulation of /t/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dark /l/ in all positions</td>
<td>clear /l/ and dark /l/ as allophones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æ/ as in new, neutral</td>
<td>/ɑ:/ as in new, neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æ/ before f, s, th, n as in dance, half</td>
<td>in these cases /ɑ:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in these cases /ɑ/</td>
<td>/ɑ/ as in hot, hover, possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʃəntoʊ/</td>
<td>/tʃəntoʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/klæk/</td>
<td>/klæk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tɔðər/</td>
<td>/tɔðər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/vɛrz/</td>
<td>/vɛrz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʃæntæ/</td>
<td>/tʃæntæ/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Orthography

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard American</th>
<th>Standard English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;-or&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;-our&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;-er&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;-re&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;-ense&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;-ense&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;-l&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;-ll&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;-ize&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;-ise/ize&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Grammar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard American</th>
<th>Standard English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She suggested that he go...</td>
<td>She suggested that he should go...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We should have gotten the tickets...</td>
<td>We should have got the tickets...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One should always do his/their best</td>
<td>One should always do one’s best</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4. Vocabulary

Most differences at this level exist in the domains: transport, public life, nature and landscape, clothes etc.

- truck - lorry
- elevator - lift
- mail - post
- give sb a ride - give sb a lift
5. Social varieties

5.1 Relation between regional and social variation in accent and dialect

In British English the accent with the highest social prestige is Received Pronunciation (RP). If someone speaks this accent, no regional variation is observable. The lower the social class, the more probable is a high degree of regional variation. For Standard English as a dialect, it is still possible to detect the region someone comes from.

5.2 Language and social status

The way someone speaks, i.e. their variety, reveals to which social class they belong. Thus, speakers can pretend to belong to another (mostly higher) social class by choosing phenomena of the standard variety that are considered to be prestige markers. A frequent result is hypercorrection.

William Labov conducted several experiments to find out if and when non-prevocalic /r/ is used in New York. Since American English is a rhotic accent, the pronunciation of /r/ in all positions in a word is the standard.

**Study 1:**
- Interviews in three department-stores with different social status
  - high: 38%
  - middle: 49%
  - low: 83%

  = percentage of the employees who did NOT pronounce non-prevocalic /r/, i.e. who used a non-standard variety of American English

**Study 2:**
- Interviews and experiments with informants, aiming at detecting the usage of non-prevocalic /r/ in different contexts.

  CS = casual speech
  FS = formal speech
  RPS = reading-passage style
  WLS = wordlist style
5.3 Language and Gender

Feminist linguistics as part of sociolinguistics considers *gender* as a social concept in society. It evolved in the women’s movement, first as a political statement.

**LANGUAGE ON WOMEN**
- aim was to avoid discrimination of women via language ⇒ avoid or change masculine expressions (e.g. in job titles; *man, mankind > person, humankind*), pronouns (generic *he/him/his > they/their*), *Mrs/Miss > Ms*), part of political correctness

**LANGUAGE OF WOMEN**
- focus on gender specific language usage (= *genderlect*) ⇒ aim was to describe and analyse differences in the language of men and women, and in their conversation styles; communication between the sexes is considered parallel to intercultural communication

comparison of styles and features:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>men</th>
<th>women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conflict oriented</td>
<td>consent oriented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrupt the other</td>
<td>are interrupted by others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more and longer turns</td>
<td>few and short turns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determine and control</td>
<td>work on the given topic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aim at defining status, get and keep the</td>
<td>aim at harmony, understanding and working together</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>power</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>competitive style</td>
<td>cooperative style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Social-class and style differentiation of non-prevocalic /r/ in New York City (after Labov)*

![Graph showing social-class and style differentiation of non-prevocalic /r/ in New York City (after Labov)](image-url)
6. Functional varieties

an important notion is slang:
- between informal language and cant (Gaunersprache, argot)
- typical vocabulary as markers of membership in a particular group, e.g. urban young people (general slang) or certain occupational groups > group identification
- many creative word formations and neologisms
- slang words often have short life span
- tendency towards euphemisms
- traditional „Rhyming Slang” in the London dialect Cockney (a regional and social variety used by people „born within the sound of Bow Bells”)

In Rhyming Slang, words are substituted by phrases, which leads to a secret code. In a more advanced stage, the second, rhyming elements of the phrases are deleted, so that it becomes impossible to understand for an outsider.

EXAMPLES:

http://www.phespirit.info/cockney/ (Englisch > Cockney)
Teeth ................................. Hampstead Heath
Telephone ............................. Dog And Bone
Telephone ............................. Strawberry Rhone
Telly (Television) ..................... Custard And Jelly
Telly (Television) ..................... Ned Kelly
Telly (Television) ..................... Wobbly Jelly
Ten ...................................... Big Ben
Ten ...................................... Cock And Hen
Tenner (Ten Pound Note) ........ Ayrton Senna
Thief .................................. Tea Leaf
Thirst .................................. Geoff Hurst
Throat .................................. Nanny Goat
Throne (Toilet) ...................... Rag And Bone
Ticket ................................. Bat And Wicket
Tie ...................................... Peckham Rye
Tights ................................... Fly-By-Nights

http://www.aldertons.com/ (Cockney > Englisch)

"Got to my mickey, found me way up the apples, put on me whistle and the bloody dog went. It was me trouble telling me to fetch the teapots."

translated into standard English:

"Got to my house (mickey mouse), found my way up the stairs (apples and pears), put on my suit (whistle and flute) when the phone (dog and bone) rang. It was my wife (trouble and strife) telling me to get the kids (teapot lids)."