Introduction

1. Scope and definition

linguistics	
general/theoretical	applied
Sprachwissenschaft vs. *Linguistik*	

2. Areas of linguistics

research target	branch of linguistics - theoretical
sounds and their function	Phonetics and Phonology
words and their constitutents	Morphology and Wordformation
words forming sentences	Syntax and Grammar
sentences forming texts	Textlinguistics and Discourse Analysis
meaning of words and sentences	Semantics
vocabulary structure	Lexicology
variations of language	Sociolinguistics
psychological aspects of language	Psycholinguistics and Cognitive Linguistics
origin and development of language	Historical Linguistics and Etymology
comparing different languages	Contrastive Linguistics
function and effects of language in use	Pragmatics
practical aims	**branch of linguistics - applied**
compiling dictionaries	Lexicography
language teaching	Second LanguageAcquisition
translating	Translation theory
language processing	Computerlinguistics
research methods	**branch of linguistics - methodological**
large amounts of authentic language	Corpus Linguistics

3. Basic notions and concepts

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

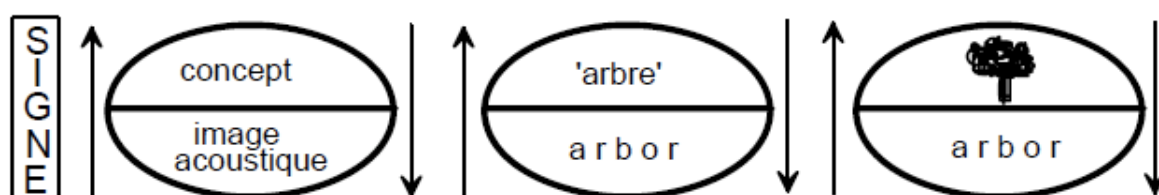> represents a binary, mentalistic, language-immanent approach

Fig. 1   cf. Lipka (2002: 55)
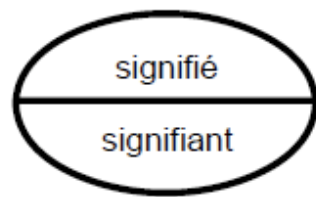
↳ later relabelled and now more common:

signifié
―――――
signifiant

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
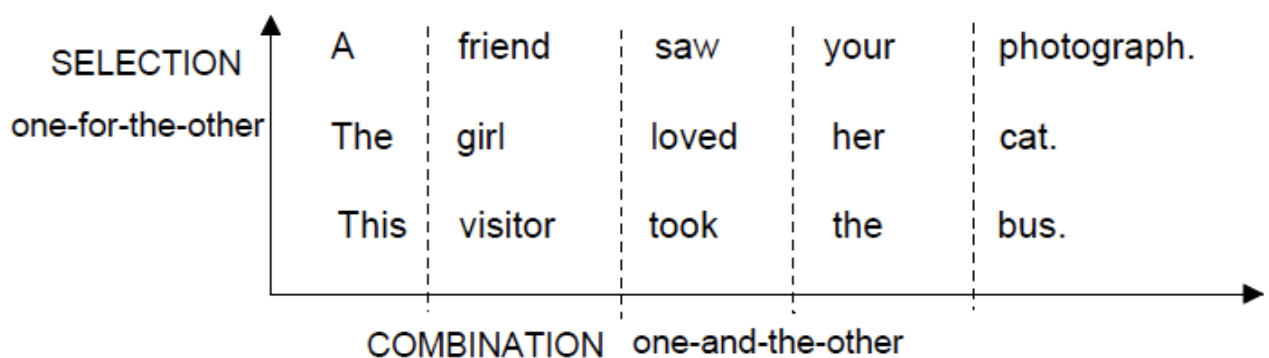
linear: sequence of phonemes or graphemes

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**

SELECTION one-for-the-other	A	friend	saw	your	photograph.
	The	girl	loved	her	cat.
	This	visitor	took	the	bus.

COMBINATION   one-and-the-other

◉ **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
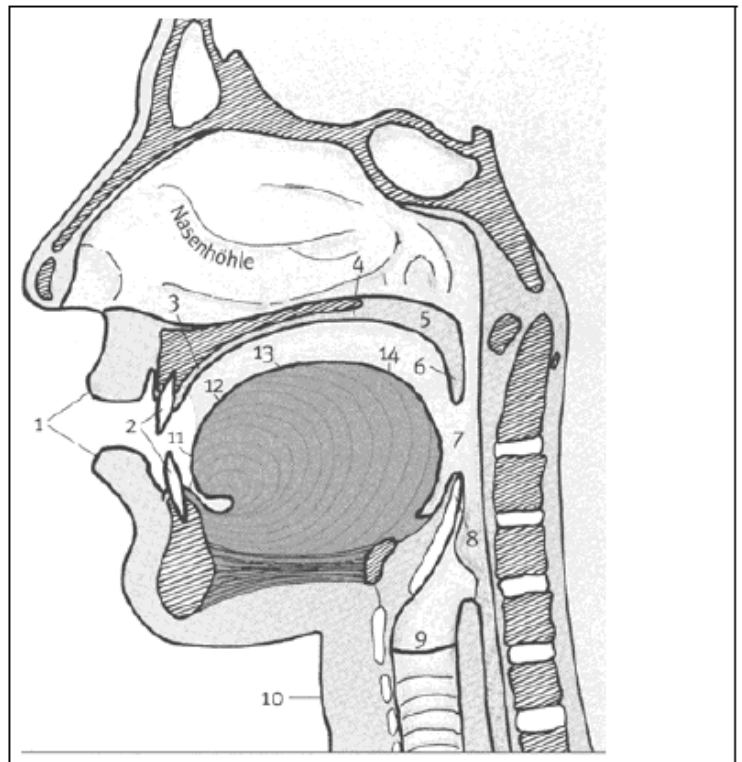14 back of the tongue

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

- 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

	front	central	back
high			
mid			
low			

Fig. 4: tongue height

Fig. 5: position of vowel diagram
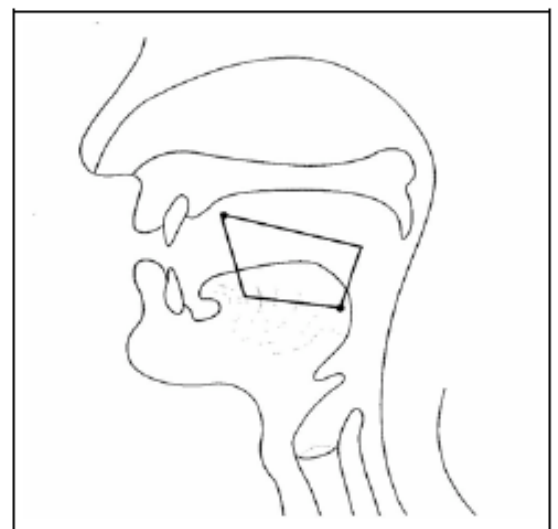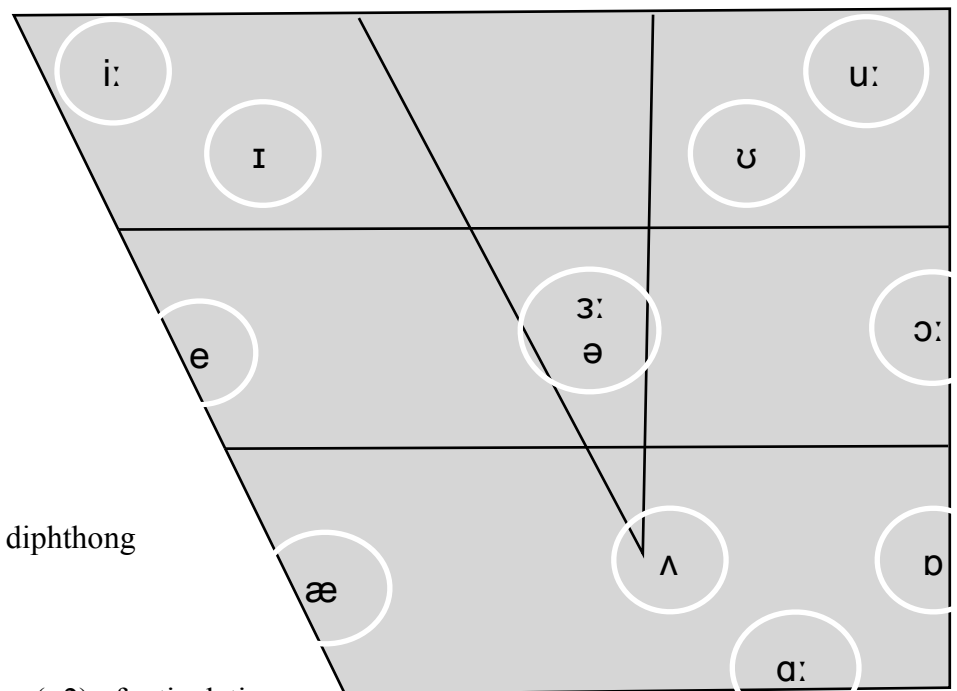(Davis, John F. (1998), *Phonetics and Phonology*, Stuttgart, 33 and 35.)

Fig. 6: English vowel
phonemes
cf. Scherer/Wollmann (₃1986: 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)

(1) (2)	bilabial	labio- dental	dental	alveolar	post- alveolar	palato- alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
plosive	p b			t d				k g	
fricative		f v	θ ð	s z		ʃ ʒ			h
affricate						tʃ dʒ			
nasal	m			n				ŋ	
lateral				l					
frictionless continuant				r					
semi-vowel	w						j		
(3) voice	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +	- +

Fig. 7: English consonant table

closed position   voicing position   breathing position
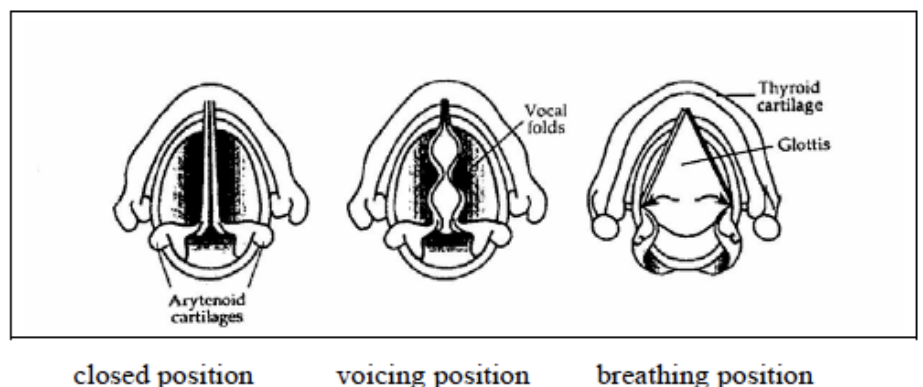
Fig. 8: horizontal section of
larynx with **vocal folds** cf. Gimson (1996:11)

2.2 Phonetic Alphabet

developed by the International Phonetic Association (IPA)

relevant symbols for English with examples

vowels

monophthongs				diphthongs	
/ɪ/	pit	/iː/	bean	/eɪ/	bay
/e/	pet	/ɑː/	barn	/aɪ/	buy
/æ/	pat	/ɔː/	born	/ɔɪ/	boy
/ʌ/	putt	/uː/	boon	/əʊ/	no
/ɒ/	pot	/ɜː/	burn	/aʊ/	now
/ʊ/	put			/ɪə/	peer
/ə/	another			/eə/	pair
				/ʊə/	poor

consonants

/p/	pin	/m/	sum	/f/	fine
/b/	bin	/n/	sun	/v/	vine
/t/	tin	/ŋ/	sung	/θ/	think
/d/	din			/ð/	this
/k/	kin	/l/	light	/s/	seal
/g/	gum	/r/	right	/z/	zeal
		/w/	wet	/ʃ/	sheep
/tʃ/	chain	/j/	yet	/ʒ/	measure
/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)

Sauer (2000: 102-108)
Scherer/Wollmann (1986: 16-54)
Kortmann (1999: 19-43)

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2005)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

© 2005 IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	N		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

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

VOWELS

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

DIACRITICS

Diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ŋ̊

̥	Voiceless	n̥ d̥	̤	Breathy voiced	b̤ a̤	̪	Dental	t̪ d̪
̬	Voiced	s̬ t̬	̰	Creaky voiced	b̰ a̰	̺	Apical	t̺ d̺
ʰ	Aspirated	tʰ dʰ	̼	Linguolabial	t̼ d̼	̻	Laminal	t̻ d̻
̹	More rounded	ɔ̹	ʷ	Labialized	tʷ dʷ	̃	Nasalized	ẽ
̜	Less rounded	ɔ̜	ʲ	Palatalized	tʲ dʲ	ⁿ	Nasal release	dⁿ
̟	Advanced	u̟	ˠ	Velarized	tˠ dˠ	ˡ	Lateral release	dˡ
̠	Retracted	e̠	ˤ	Pharyngealized	tˤ dˤ	̚	No audible release	d̚
̈	Centralized	ë	̴	Velarized or pharyngealized	ɫ			
̽	Mid-centralized	e̽	̝	Raised	e̝ (ɹ̝ = voiced alveolar fricative)			
̩	Syllabic	n̩	̞	Lowered	e̞ (β̞ = voiced bilabial approximant)			
̯	Non-syllabic	e̯	̘	Advanced Tongue Root	e̘			
˞	Rhoticity	ɚ a˞	̙	Retracted Tongue Root	e̙			

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 <u>aim</u> is to put up the inventory of the morphemes of a language and to describe the allomorphs of specific morphemes.
- The <u>steps</u> 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':

/s/	*books*	/z/	*pins /*	/ɪz/	*oranges*
	cliffs		*dogs*		*taxes*
	myths		*apples*		*houses*
			lemons		
			cherries		

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

B. Classification with distribution:

		/s/	after voiceless consonants except /s, ʃ, tʃ/
		/z/	after vowels and voiced consonants except /z, ʒ, dʒ/
		/ɪz/	after sibilants /z, s, ʒ, ʃ, dʒ, tʃ/
{S}		/ən/	*oxen*
'Plural'		/ø/	*sheep, fish*
		/rən/	*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 *worker* vs. {-ER} in *harder*

1.4 Classification of morphemes

TYPES OF MORPHEMES					
lexical morphemes				grammatical morphemes	
free	bound			free	bound
	prefixes	suffixes	blocked		
{TABLE} {WRITE} {GREEN} ...	{RE-} {DIS-} {UN-} ...	{-ISH} {-LY} {-MENT} ...	{FRI}*day* {CRAN}*berry* ...	{THE} {AND} {TO} ...	{-S$_1$} {-S$_2$} {-S$_3$} {-ED$_1$} {-ED$_2$} {-ING} {-ER} {-EST} {-TH}
	affixes				
word formation				inflection	

cf. Lipka (2002: 87)

1.5 Distinction lexical vs. grammatical

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

1.6 The concept *word*

- orthographic word vs. phonologic word

- wordform (≠ word class)   *work - works - worked*   *worker - workers*

 - lexeme ⇨ lexical unit   WORK ⇨   (1) 'have a job'   WORKER

                                                                   (2) 'do a task'

2. Basics in Wordformation

2.1 Types of wordformation

= combination of lexical morphemes

type		modifier (*Determinans*)	head (*Determinatum*)
compounding		free morpheme	free morpheme
derivation	prefixation	bound morpheme	free morpheme
	suffixation	free morpheme	bound morpheme
	zero-derivation	free morpheme	zero morpheme

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.*

en·thu·si·asm 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.*

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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-destruc·tion noun

[U] the act of doing things to deliberately harm yourself:

He wanted Jill to give up her life of alcohol and self-destruction.

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baby·sit verb

(baby·sit·ting, baby·sat, baby·sat) (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.*

baby·sit·ter 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.*

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in·tuit 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-]

in·tu·ition 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.*

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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).

analytic languages	synthetic languages	
grammatical relationship is marked by word order, by combinations with function words, no inflection	grammatical relationship is marked by inflection, word order plays a minor role	
= isolating	**agglutinating**	**inflecting**
invariable words, no endings	1:1-relation between grammatical morpheme and meaning, linear sequence of units allows easy segmentation	one morpheme has a whole set of meanings = Portemanteau-Morpheme, segmentation is difficult

e.g. Chinese
       Vietnamese
       Modern English
	e.g. Turkish
	        Japanese
	        Swahili
	        Finnish
		Bsp: Latin
		       Greek
		       Old English
		       German
		       Arabic

chin. *Wo mai juzi chi* wo = 'I' mai = 'buy' juzi = 'orange' chi = 'eat' I bought some oranges to eat.	turk. *evlerinden* ev = 'house' ler = 'plural' i = 'possessive' nden = 'ablative' 'of his/her houses'	lat. *am-o* '1. Person sg. Present tense, active, indicative'

cf. Herbst et al. (1990: 24f.) and Crystal (1997: 295)

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.
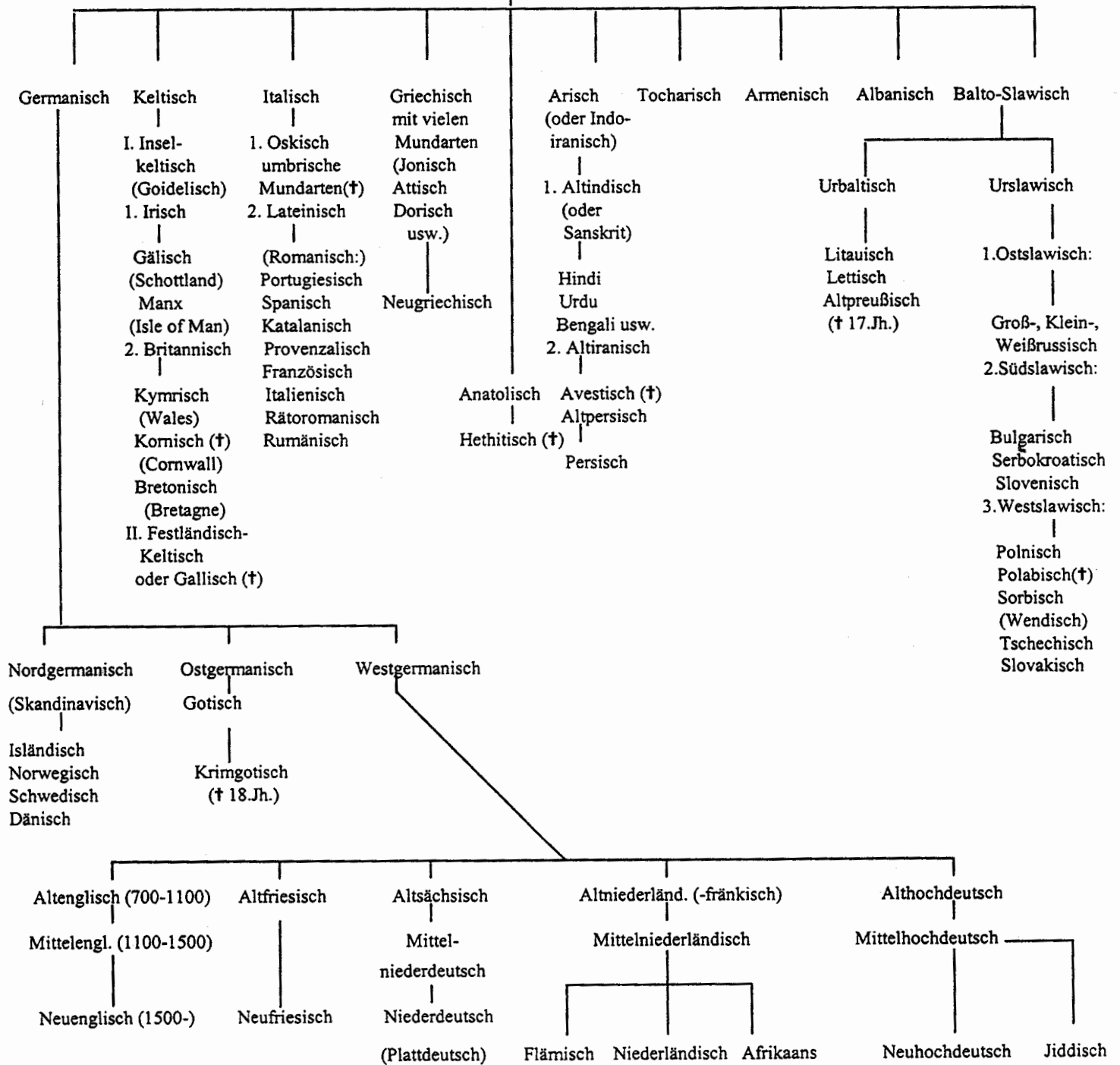
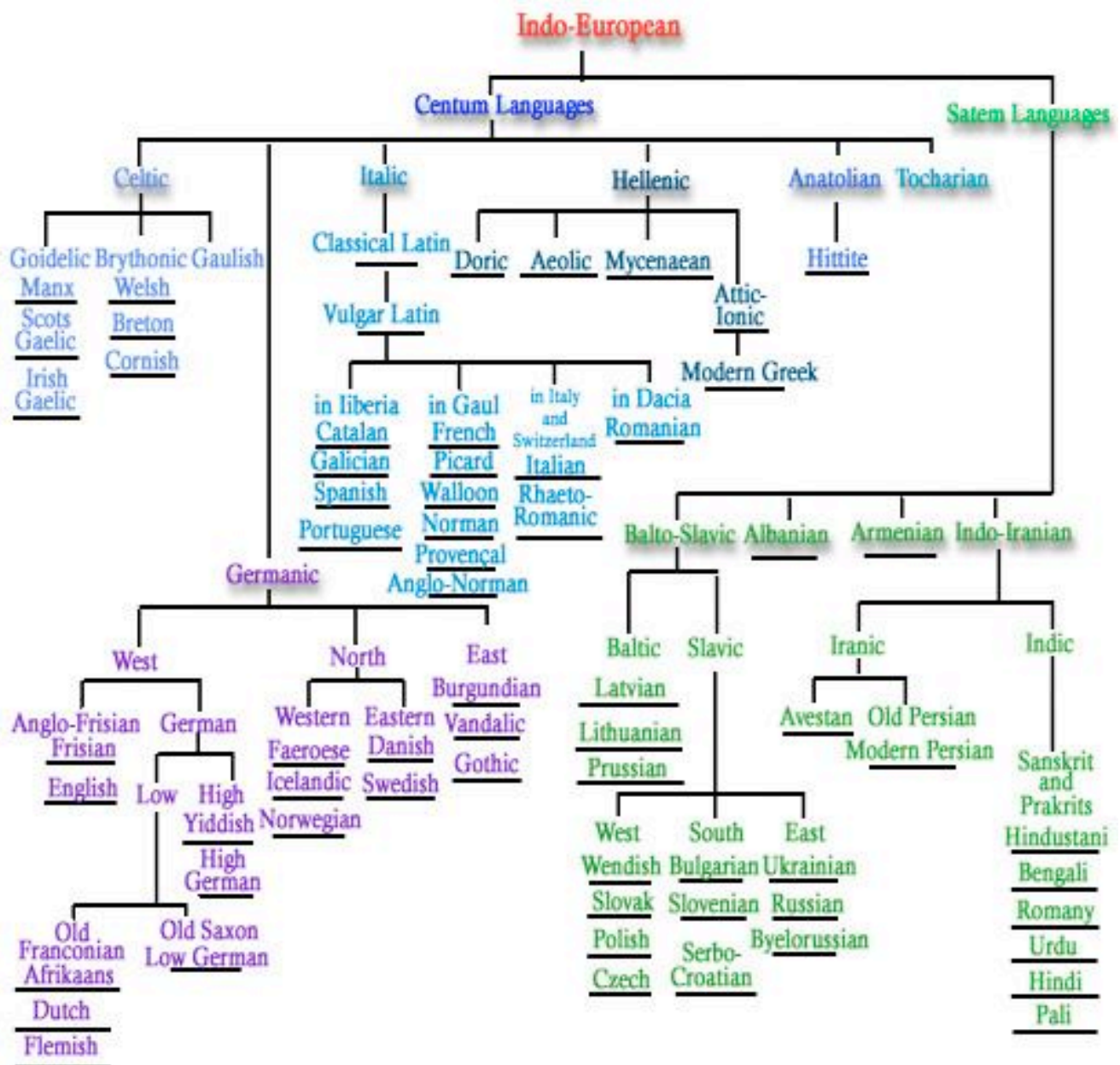|	Lipka (2002: chapter 2.3) Kortmann (1999: 49-77) Schmid (2005)

The history of language

1. The Indo-European family (genetic classification)

(cf. Sauer 2000)

Indogermanisch (Indoeuropäisch)

Germanisch | Keltisch | Italisch | Griechisch mit vielen Mundarten (Jonisch Attisch Dorisch usw.) | Arisch (oder Indo-iranisch) | Tocharisch | Armenisch | Albanisch | Balto-Slawisch

Keltisch:
I. Insel-keltisch (Goidelisch)
1. Irisch
Gälisch (Schottland)
Manx (Isle of Man)
2. Britannisch
Kymrisch (Wales)
Kornisch (†) (Cornwall)
Bretonisch (Bretagne)
II. Festländisch-Keltisch oder Gallisch (†)

Italisch:
1. Oskisch umbrische Mundarten(†)
2. Lateinisch
(Romanisch:)
Portugiesisch
Spanisch
Katalanisch
Provenzalisch
Französisch
Italienisch
Rätoromanisch
Rumänisch

Griechisch:
Neugriechisch

Arisch:
1. Altindisch (oder Sanskrit)
Hindi
Urdu
Bengali usw.
2. Altiranisch
Avestisch (†)
Altpersisch
Persisch

Anatolisch
Hethitisch (†)

Balto-Slawisch:
Urbaltisch
Litauisch
Lettisch
Altpreußisch († 17.Jh.)

Urslawisch
1.Ostslawisch:
Groß-, Klein-, Weißrussisch
2.Südslawisch:
Bulgarisch
Serbokroatisch
Slovenisch
3.Westslawisch:
Polnisch
Polabisch(†)
Sorbisch (Wendisch)
Tschechisch
Slovakisch

Germanisch:
Nordgermanisch (Skandinavisch)
Isländisch
Norwegisch
Schwedisch
Dänisch

Ostgermanisch
Gotisch
Krimgotisch († 18.Jh.)

Westgermanisch

Altenglisch (700-1100)
Mittelengl. (1100-1500)
Neuenglisch (1500-)

Altfriesisch
Neufriesisch

Altsächsisch
Mittel-niederdeutsch
Niederdeutsch (Plattdeutsch)

Altniederländ. (-fränkisch)
Mittelniederländisch
Flämisch Niederländisch Afrikaans

Althochdeutsch
Mittelhochdeutsch
Neuhochdeutsch Jiddisch

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 tradititon) was essential: 1786 **Sir William Jones** (1746-1794), a British orientalist and jurist observerd 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: Brittanic 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)

Celtic-speaking areas

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 - Northhumbrian, 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

Map 1

After Barber 1993:129

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

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.

⇨ **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
⇨ **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
⇨ **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

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

superstratum	*substratum*
the more prestigious language influences the structure or use of a less prestigious language (dominance of one people)	elements of the less prestigious language influence the dominant language
esp. legal, military or administrative terms	celtic substratum in French

2.3 Linguistic change in the history of English

		characteristics	examples

449-1100	O L D E N G L I S H	1. Full inflections (number, case, gender) for
		- nouns: vowel- and consonant-stem
		- adjectives and pronouns
		- verb declension:
		7 strong classes with vowel
		3 weak classes (stem + *-ede, -ode, -de* for past tense and *-ed, od, -d* for past participle)
		2. Free word order
		3. Transparent word-formation
			sg. N *stan* pl. N. *stanas*
			   G. *stanes* G. *stana*
			   D. *stane* D. *stanum*
			   A. *stan* A. *stanas*
			
			inf. - pret.sg/pret.pl - past part.
			drifan - draf/drifon - (ge)drifen
			helpan - healp/hulpon - (ge)holpen
			fremman - fremede/fremedon - fremed
			lufian - lufode/lufodon - lufod

1100 - 1500	M I D D L E E N G	1. Simplified inflectional system, reduction and loss of unstressed syllables in nouns and verbs
		2. Fixed word order S-V-O
		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
			sg. N *ston* pl. *stones*
			   G. *stones*
			   D. *ston(e)*
			   A. *ston*

1500 - 1700	EAR LY MOD ERN	1. Loss of remaining noun inflection (except s-genitive and plural) 2. Verbal inflection reduced to *-est, -s, -eth*	*thou goest, he goes/goeth*
1700 - now	MOD ERN	1. Regular use of do-forms, progressive form, present perfect	

2.4 Periods of English and their authors and important texts

(cf. Viereck/Viereck/Ramisch (2001), *dtv-Atlas Englische Sprache*, München: dtv, 70.

Old English 700 - 1200	Frühaltenglisch	700-900	Alfred der Große
	Spätaltenglisch	900-1100	Abt Aelfric
	Übergang Altenglisch	1100-1200	Vers-Chronik Layamons Brut
Middle English 1200-1500	Frühmittelenglisch	1200-1300	Anachoretinnenregel/*Ancrene Riwle*
	Spätmittelenglisch	1300-1400	Geoffrey Chaucer
	Übergang Mittelenglisch	1400-1500	William Caxton
Modern English 1500 - present	Frühneuenglisch	1500-1650	Shakespeare
	Spätneuenglisch	1650- now	

2.4 Text sample from Old English

The Lord's Prayer   (cf. Baugh/Cable 1993: 61)

Fæder ūre,
þū þe eart on heofonum,
sī þīn nama gehālgod.
Tōbecume þin rīce.
Gewurþe ðīn willa on eorðan swā swā on heofonum.
Ūrne gedæghwāmlīcan hlāf syle ūs tō dæg.
And forgyf ūs ūre gyltas, swā swā wē forgyfað ūrum gyltendum.
And ne gelæd þū ūs on costnunge,
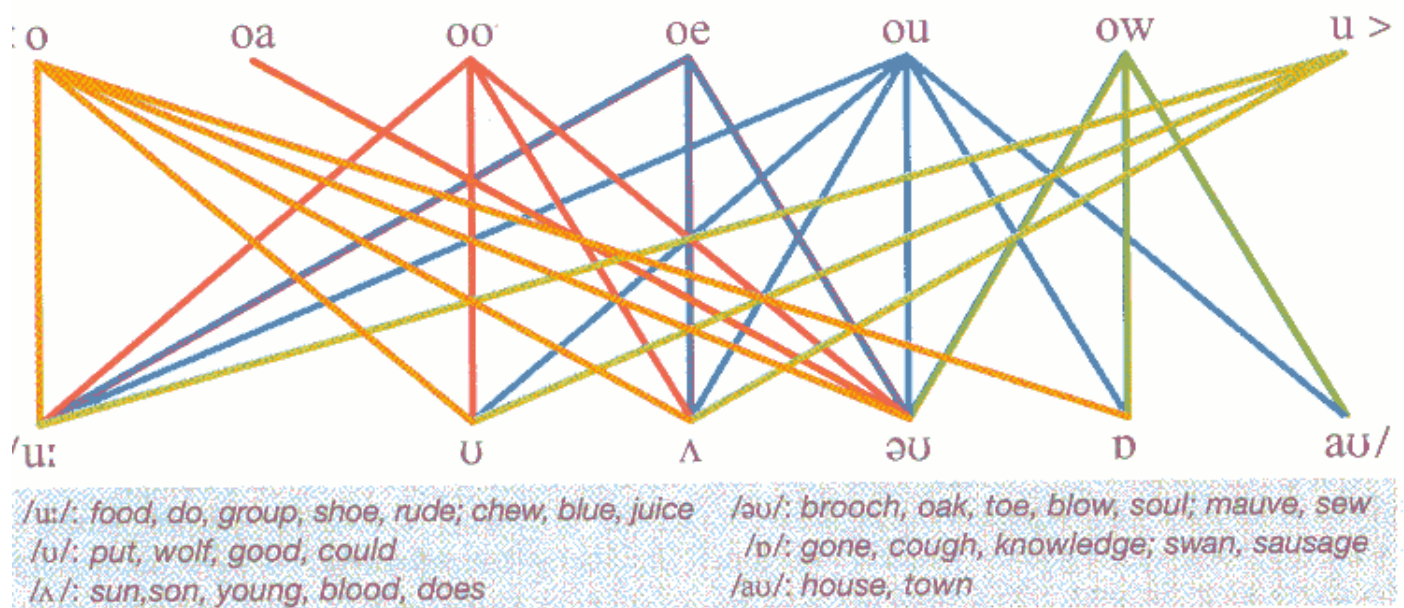ac ālȳs ūs of yfele. Sōþlīce.

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
5   Whanne zepherus eke with his sote breth
Enspirid hath in euery holte and heth
The tendir croppis / and the yong sonne
Hath in the ram half his cours y ronne
And smale foulis make melodie
10   That slepyn al nyght with opyn ye

So prikith hem nature in her corage
Than longyng folk to gon on pilgremage
And palmers to seche straunge londis
To serue halowis couthe in sondry londis
15   And specially fro euery shiris ende
Of yngelond to Cauntirbury thy wende
The holy blisful 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

idg.		germ.	lat.		OE
/p/	>	/f/	piscis	>	fisc
/t/	>	/θ/	frater	>	broθer
/k/	>	/χ/	pecus	>	feoh
/b/	>	/p/	labium	>	lippa
/d/	>	/t/	duo	>	twa
/g/	>	/k/	genu > cneo(w)		

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
cf. Sauer (2000: 156)

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

4.4 Grapheme-Phoneme-relations in present-day English   cf. Viereck (2001: 70)

/uː/: food, do, group, shoe, rude; chew, blue, juice   /əʊ/: brooch, oak, toe, blow, soul; mauve, sew
/ʊ/: put, wolf, good, could   /ɒ/: gone, cough, knowledge; swan, sausage
/ʌ/: sun, son, young, blood, does   /aʊ/: house, town

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   *great - large - big*
liberty - freedom   *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   *mouth - oral*
Fuß, drei - Dreifuß   *stool - tripod*
Nahrung - nahrhaft   *food - nutritious, nourishing*
Schirm - Regenschirm - Sonnenschirm *Ø - umbrella - parasol*
heilig - Heiliger   *holy - saint*

(cf- W.E. Lunt *History of England.)*
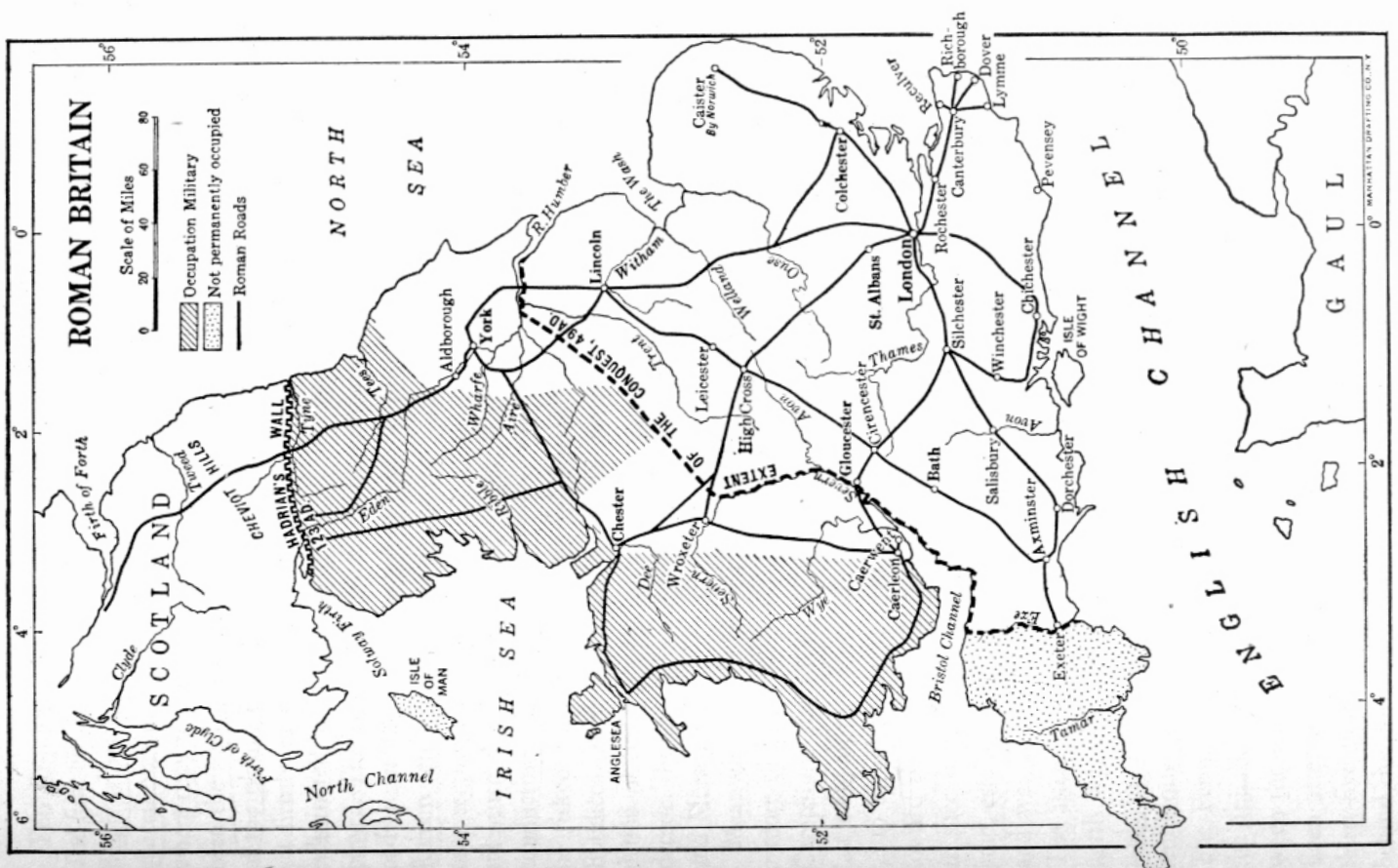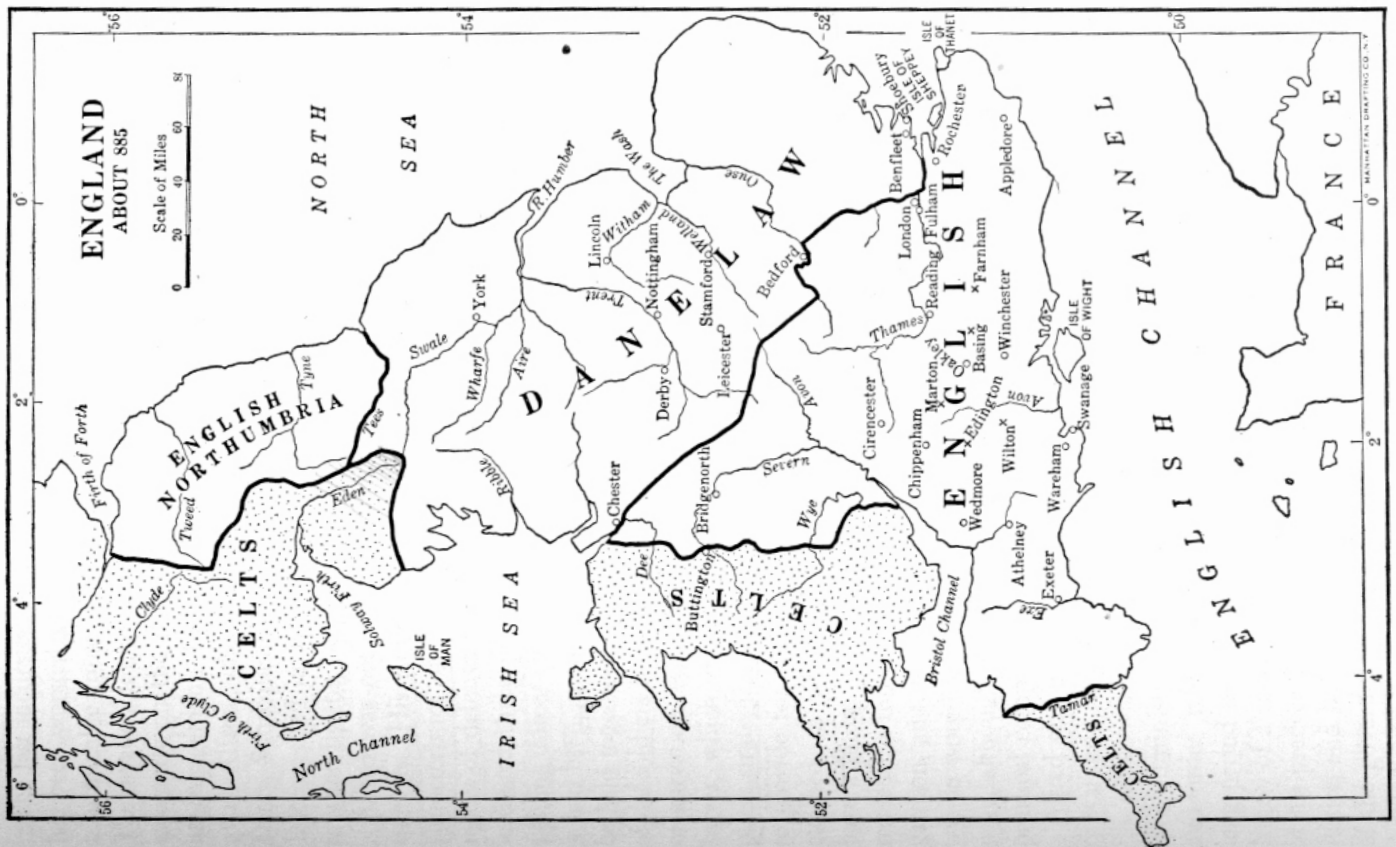
Syntax

1. Traditional syntax

1.1 Word classes

nouns	proper nouns		*London, the Thames, John Smith*
	common nouns	countable	*horse, bar, table*
		uncountable	*milk, sugar, freedom, disgust*
adjectives	attributive function		*the ugly duckling*
	predicative function		*the house is beautiful*
verbs	lexical or full verbs		*hit, kiss, think, argue, eat, sleep*
	auxiliary verbs	primary verbs	*do, be, have*
		modal verbs	*need, shall, will, must, ought to*
adverbs			*really, well, afterwards, hardly, wisely, late*

articles (determiners)	definite	*the*
	indefinite	*a(n)*
pronouns	personal pronouns	*I, you, she, he, it we, they*
	possessive pronouns	*my, your, his, her ,its, our,*
	reflexive pronouns	*myself, yourself, himself,*
	relative pronouns	*which, who, whose, whom, what, that*
	interrogative pronouns	*who, whose, whom, what, which*
	demonstrative pronouns	*this, these, that, those*
	indefinite pronouns	*everyone, nothing, all, each both, any, few*
conjunctions	coordinating	*and, or, but*
	subordinating	*if, although, before, after,since*
prepositions		*in, above, over, under, in front of, in spite of, after*
numerals	cardinal numbers	*one, two, three*
	ordinal numbers	*first, second, third, fourth*
interjections		*goodness, ouch, yeah, ahit, damn, blimey, fuck*

1.2 Formal units in a sentence

1.2.1 Syntactic hierarchy

SENTENCES (*simple, complex*)   are made up of one or more

↳**CLAUSES**   are made up of one or more

  ↳**PHRASES**   are made up of one or more

    ↳**WORDS**   are made up of one or more

      ↳**MORPHEMES**

1.2.2 Types of phrases

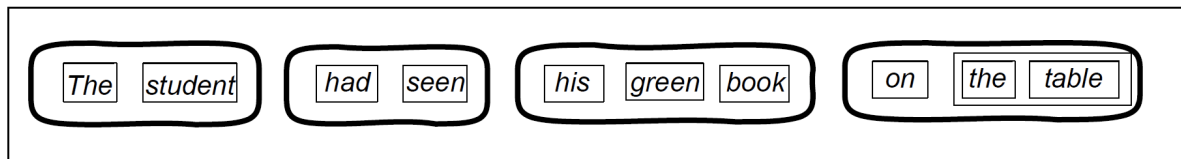There are many different phrases that all can be put down to 5 major types:

	premodifier	head	postmodifier
Noun **P**hrase	*the*	*man*	*on the road*
Adjective **P**hrase	*very*	*anxious*	*to please everybody*
Adverb **P**hrase	*as*	*stupidly*	*as one can imagine*
Verb **P**hrase	*has been*	*sleeping*	
Prepositional **P**hrase	preposition (= head) + noun phrase		*on + the boat*

1.3 Structural analysis in the simple sentence

⇩   Functional analysis

(S) *subject*	(V) *verb phrase*	(O) *object (dir.)*	(A) *adverbial*
The student	had seen	his green book	on the table
NP	VP	NP	PP
noun phrase	*verb phrase*	*noun phrase*	*prepositional phrase*
art. noun	aux. verb lex. verb	poss. pron adj. noun	prep. prep. art. noun

⇧   Formal analysis

1.4 Functional units in the sentence
1.4.1 Basic notions

subject	predicate/verb	object		complement		adverbial
		direct	indirect	subject C	object C	place, time, etc.
S	**P/V**	**Odir**	**Oind**	**Cs**	**Co**	**A**

1.4.2 Clause types

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

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.

The	old	man	who	lives there	has	gone	to	his	son's	house.
He					*went.*					
The	*survivor*				*went*		*there.*			
The	*greybeard*		*surviving*		*went*		*to*	*Boston.*		
The	*greybeard*		*who*	*survives*	*went*		*to*	*that*		*house.*
The	*old*	*man*	*who*	*lives there*	*has*	*gone*	*to*	*his*	*son's*	*house.*

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):

S	$\Rightarrow$ NP + VP		Det	$\Rightarrow$ {the}
NP	$\Rightarrow$ Det + N		N	$\Rightarrow$ {boy, window}
VP	$\Rightarrow$ V + NP		V	$\Rightarrow$ {broke}

↪ *The boy broke the window.* = deep structure

- Transformations: Passive transformation: Permutation $NP_2 > NP_1$, Insertion of *be*+PRES, *-en*

Negation transformation: Insertion of NOT

↪ *The window was not broken by the boy.* = 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:*

(1) *The door opens.*   Objective
(2) *The key opens the door.*   O + Instrumental
(3) *John opens the door.*   O + Agentive
(4) *John opens the door with the key.* O + A + I

↪ case frame: *open* + [___O (I) (A)]

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

abbr.	case	semantic role	feature
A	Agentive	instigator of the action	animate
E	Experiencer	affected by the action	animate
I	Instrumental	force or object causing action or state	inanimate
O	Objective	semantically most neutral case	inanimate
S	Source	the origin or starting point	--
G	Goal	the object or endpoint	--
L	Locative	spatial orientation of the action	--
T	Time	temporal orientation of the action	--
C	Comitative	accompaniment role	animate
B	Benefactive	benefactive role	animate

Semantics and Lexicology

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

THOUGHT OR REFERENCE

symbolises

refers to

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

SYMBOL   stands for   REFERENT
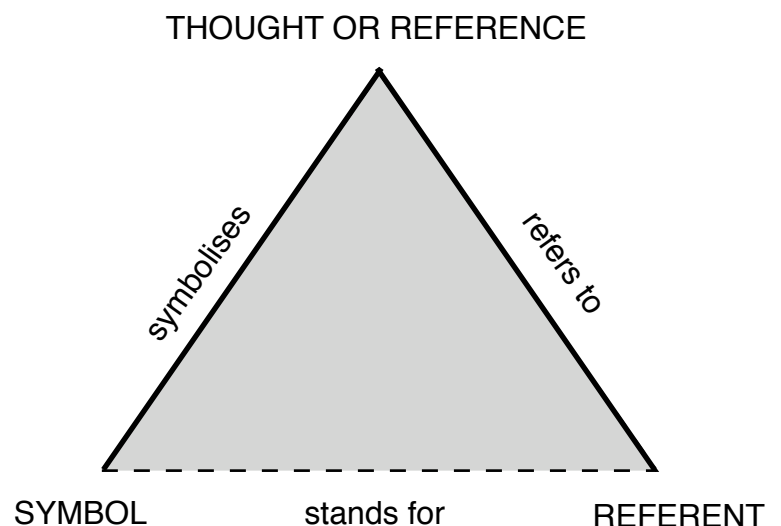
1.3 Categorization of the extralinguistic world
1.3.1 Universalistic or realistic point of view
There is a 1:1-relation between categories and words - language just gives names to predefined categories.

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.

| language A | Morgen | Vormittag | Mittag | Nachmittag | Abend | Nacht |

extra-linguistic world

| language B | morning | noon | afternoon | evening | night |
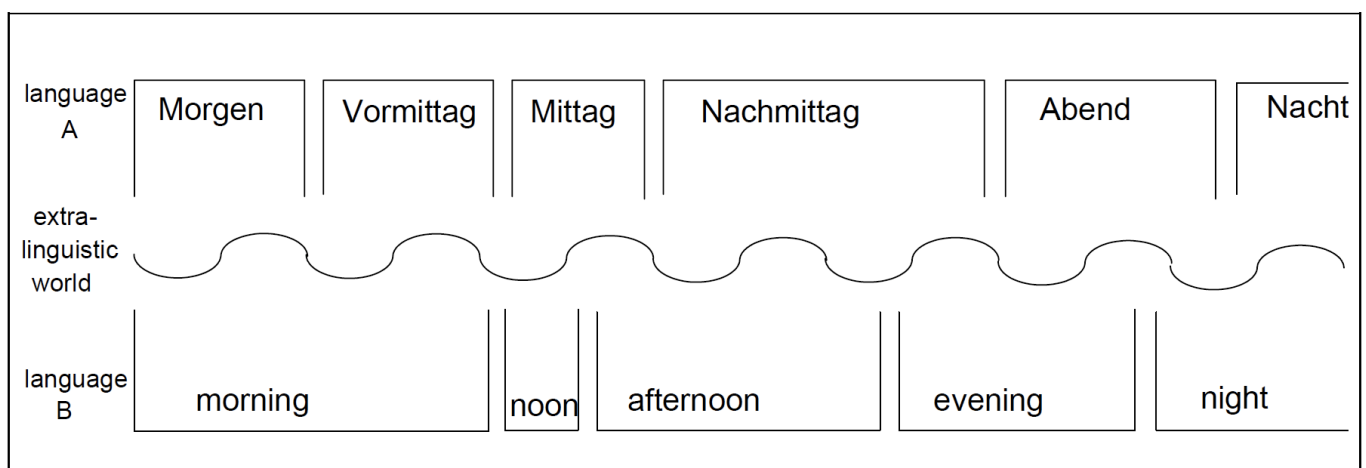
(cf. Lipka 2002: 57)

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
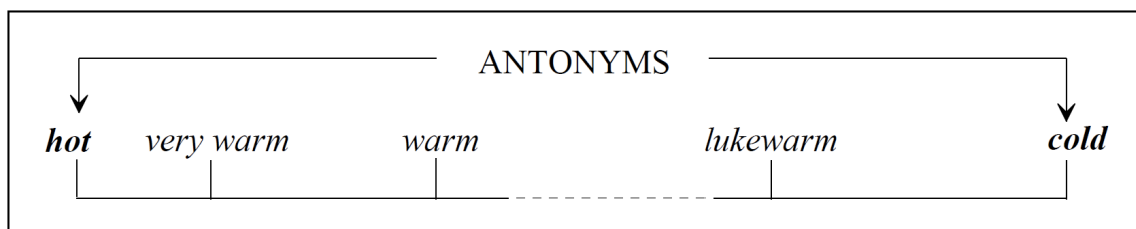
big - small   *good - bad*

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 Converseness

= 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*₁ 'Ohr' < OE ēare
>
> *ear*₂ 'Ähre' < OE ēar

homonymy can be further subdivided into:

- **homography** (only the spelling is identical)

> ' *record* (N) - re ' *cord* (V)   ' *conduct* (N) - con ' *duct* (V)

- **homophony** (only the pronunciation is identical)
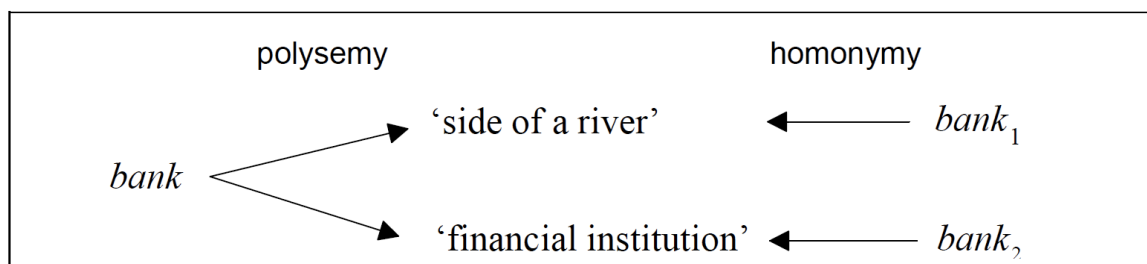
> *write - right - rite*
>
> *brake - break*
>
> *here - hear*

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.
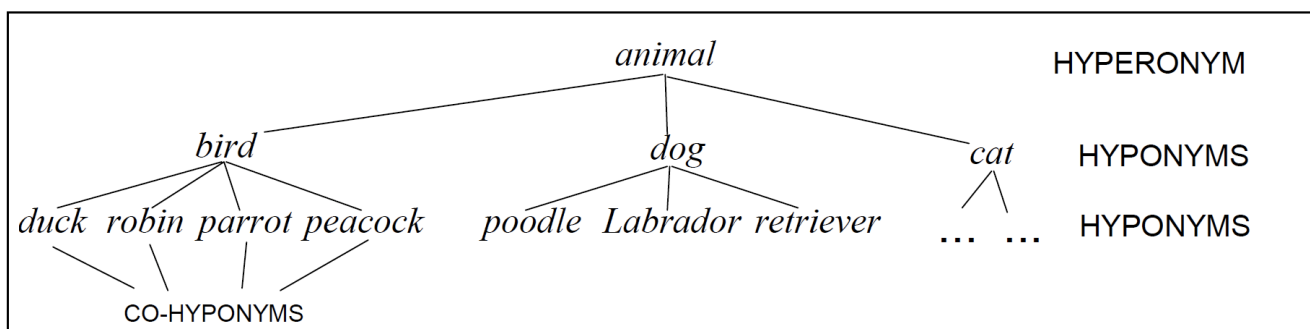

Disambiguation is possible via the context and the specific sets of lexemes that the individual senses prefer.

2.1.5 Hyponymy

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

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.

	male'	female'
adult'	**man**	**woman**
non-adult'	**boy**	**girl**
	human'	

man: [+HUMAN, **+ADULT**, + MALE] *boy*: [+HUMAN, **-ADULT**, + MALE]

2.3 Generative Semantics

Decomposition of lexical items into atomic predicates

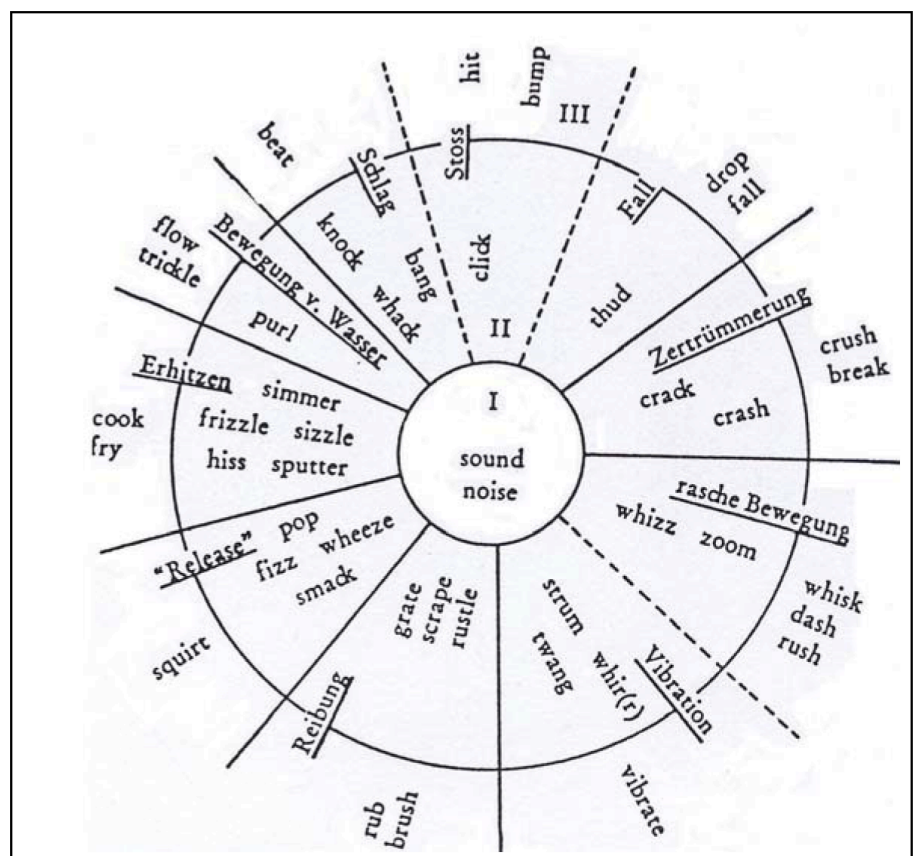*kill*: CAUSE + BECOME + NOT + ALIVE   *die*: BECOME + NOT + ALIVE

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

- in a matrix (cf. Lehrer, A. (1974), *Semantic fields and lexical structure*, 31)

|										bake[1]
			cook[1]							
			cook[2]							
steam		boil[1]		fry		broil		roast	bake[2]	
		simmer	boil[2]	sauté	deep-fry french-fry	grill	barbecue charcoal			
	poach	stew	braise							

2.5 Referential theory of meaning according to Leisi (1985)
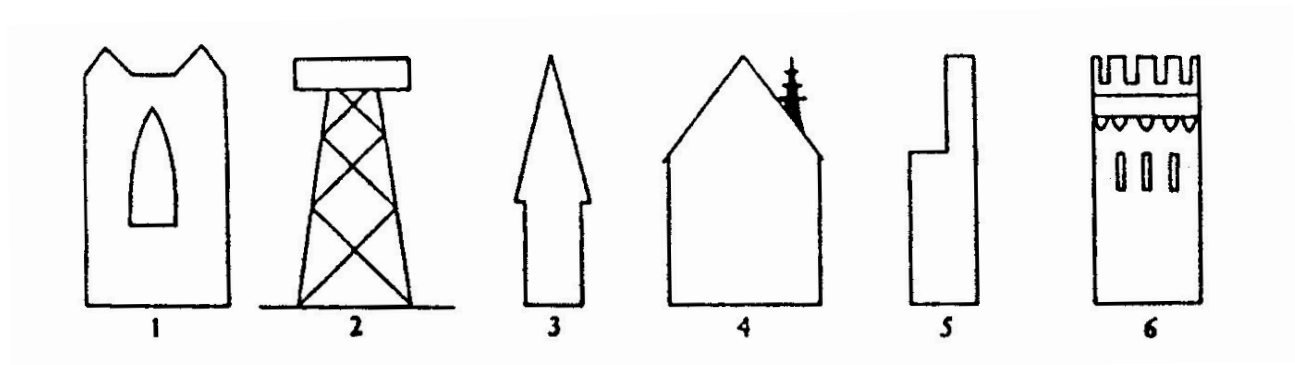
Meaning can be described as the **conditions of use** (Gebrauchsbedingungen): *Turm* vs. *tower*

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

a)   b)   c)   d)
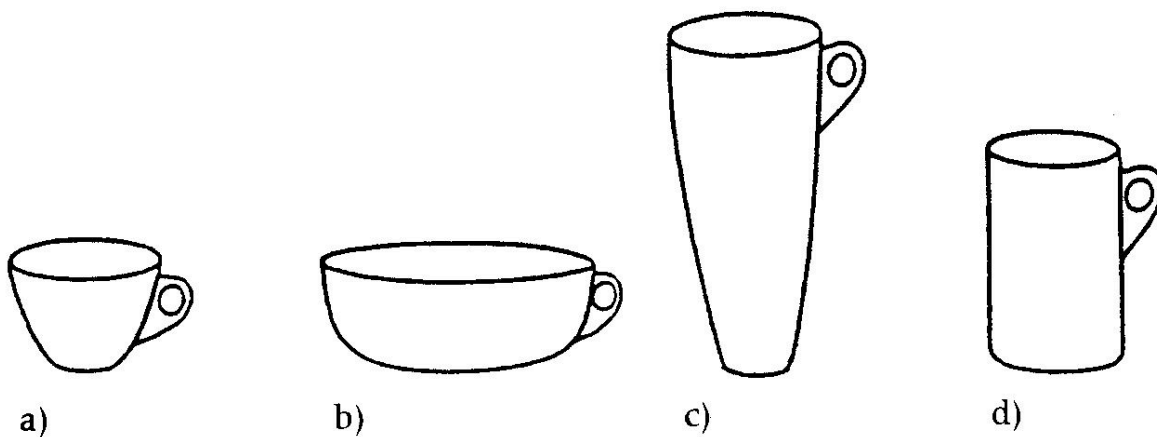
<u>aim</u>: Analyse the boundaries between categories - emphasis on **fuzzy boundaries**

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.

<u>aim</u>: Determine the prototype - emphasis on the **prototypical kernel** of the category.

Example: the category BIRD
Attributes:

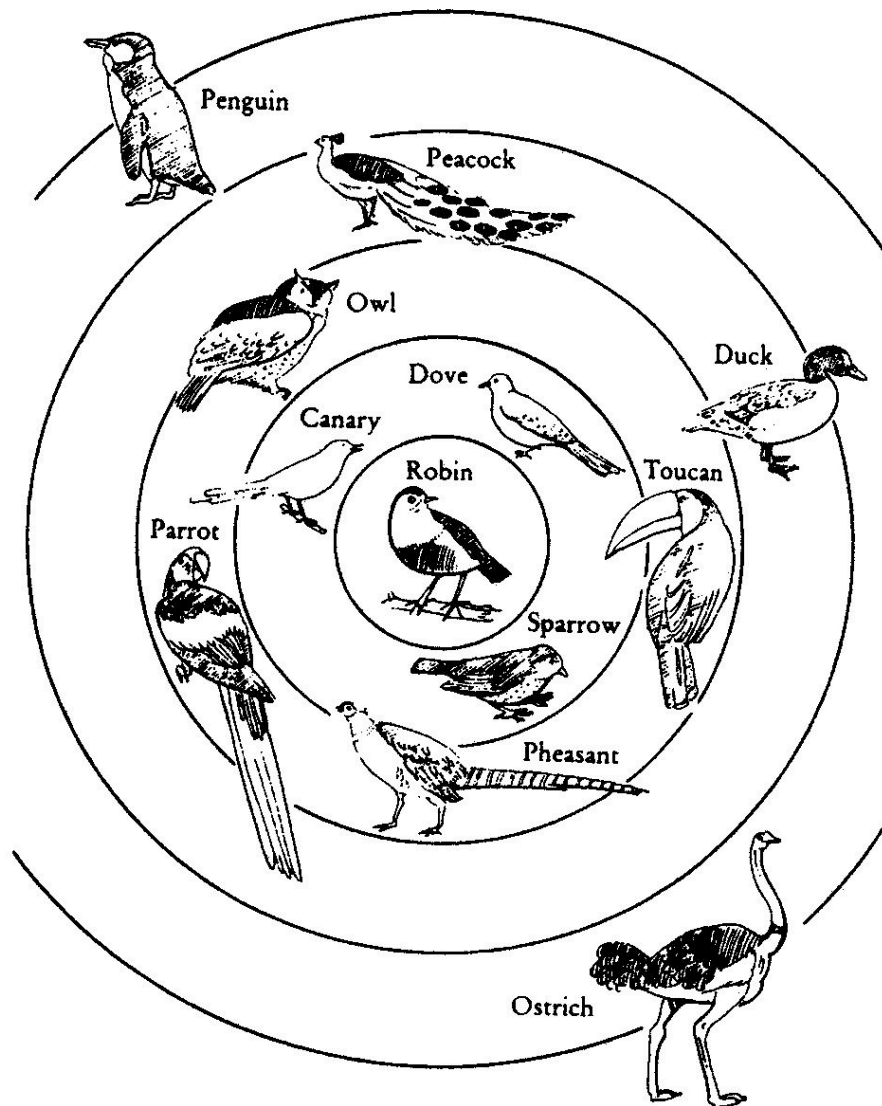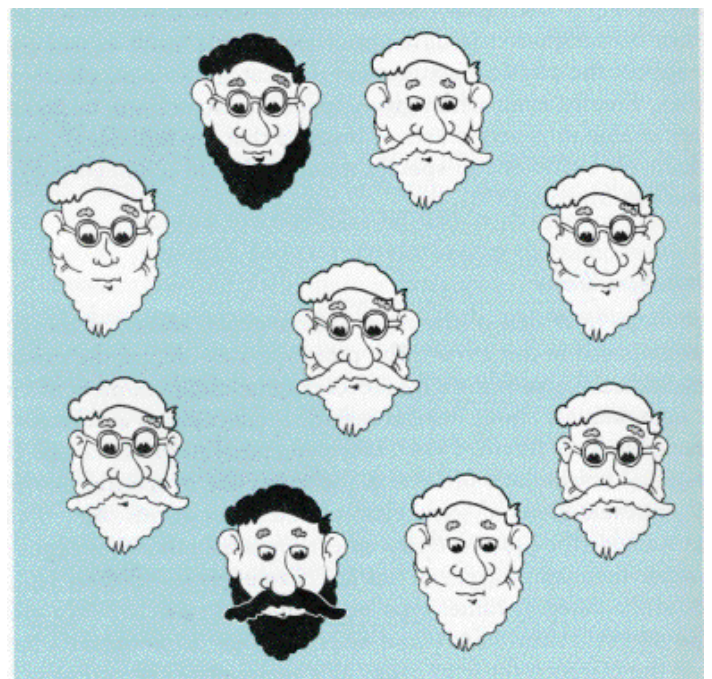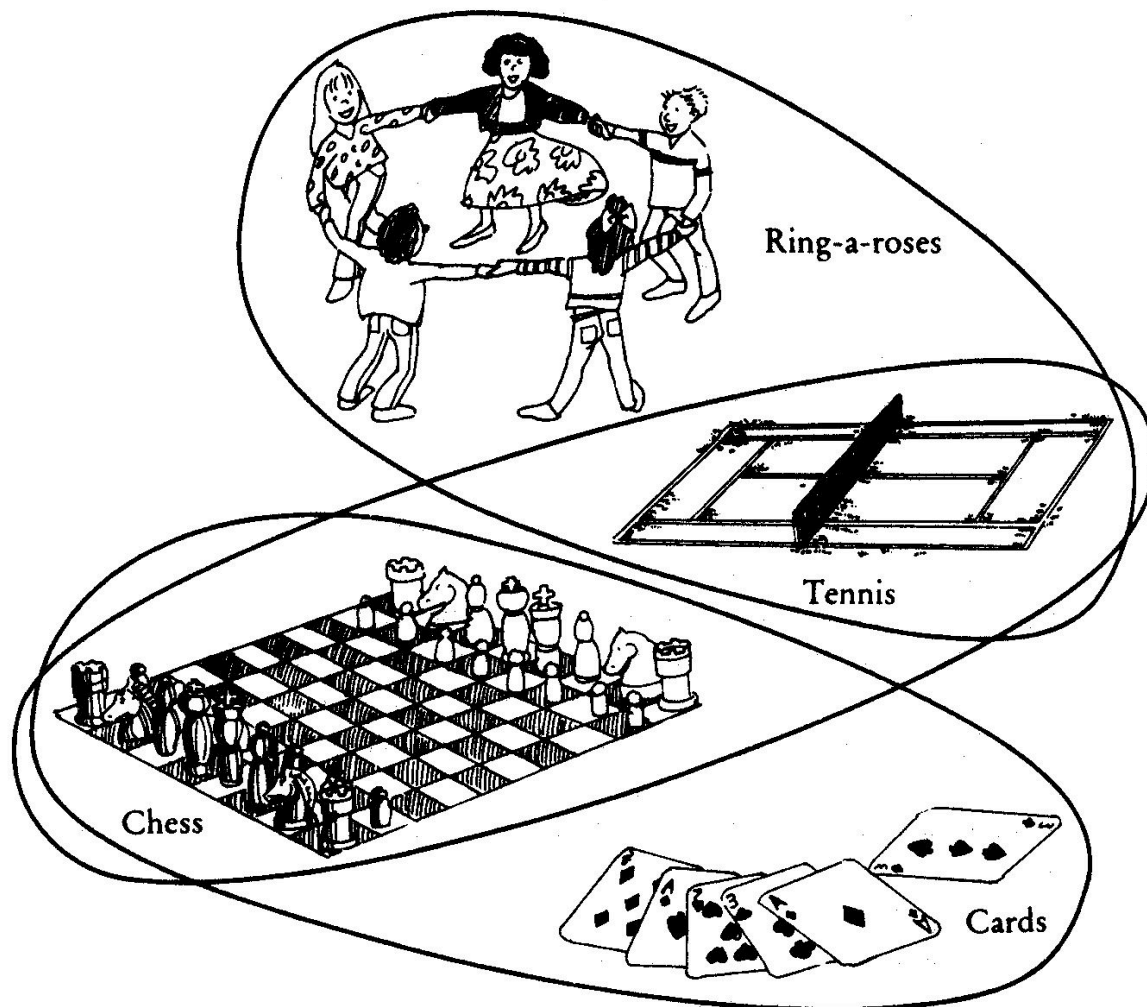|		
1 Being able to fly	2 Having feathers	3 Being S-shaped
4 Having wings	5 Not domesticated	6 Being born from eggs
7 Having a beak or bill		

cf. Aitchison (2003), *Words in the mind*, Oxford: 56.

other important notions

◉ Goodness-of-example ratings

◉ Basic-level categories

◉ Family resemblance (Ludwig Wittgenstein)

Aitchison (2003: 50)

3. Syntagmatic Semantics

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

pretty	*girl*
	boy
	woman
	flower
	garden
	colour
	village
	etc.

handsome	*boy*
	man
	car
	vessel
	overcoat
	airliner
	typewriter
	etc.

(cf. Leech 1981: 17)

different terms are used for this phenomenon:

focus	term	examples
syntactic-semantic	**Selection Restrictions**	*murder* + HUMAN
lexical-semantic	**Lexical Solidarities**	*elapse* + TIME; *shrug + shoulders*
lexical-neutral	**Collocation**	*dark + night*
lexical-cognitive	**Lexical Chunks**	*go astray*
lexical-cognitive	**Prefabricated Units**	*sounds like + a lot of work/a good idea*
cognitive-pragmatic	**Formulaic Sequences**	*How do you do?*
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* 'einzelner Hof'

often 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

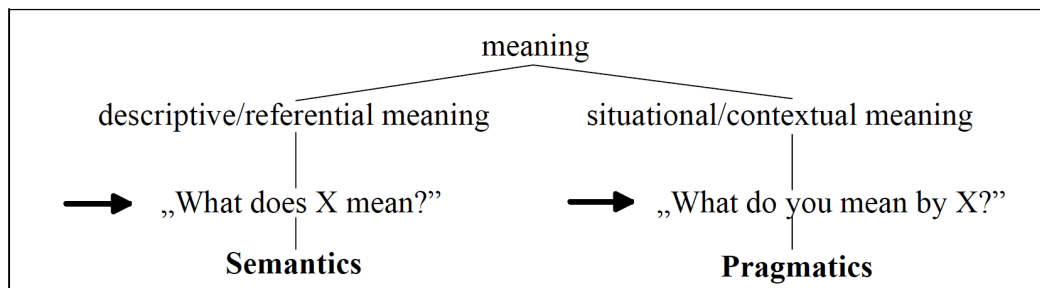OE *cniht* 'young man' > ModE *knight* 'Ritter'

	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

meaning

descriptive/referential meaning   situational/contextual meaning

⟶ „What does X mean?"   ⟶ „What do you mean by X?"

Semantics   **Pragmatics**

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)

objects / relations

REPRESENTATION

EXPRESSION   sign

sender   addressee

APPEAL
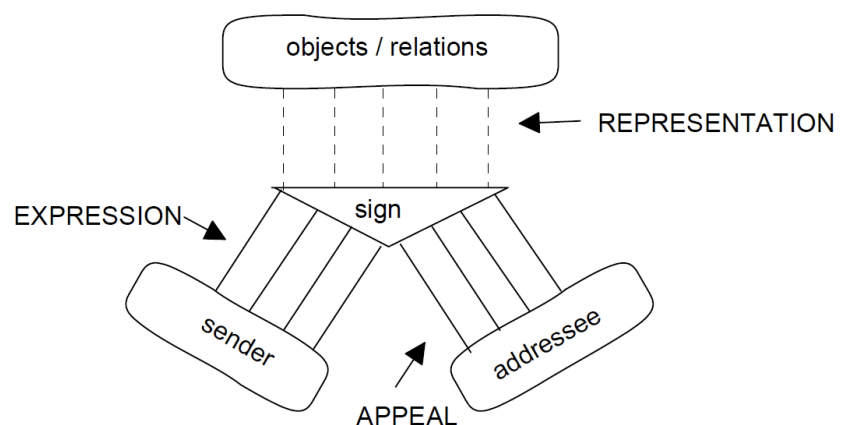
2.2 Deixis

also: deictic expressions,

        indexical signs

2.2.1 Bühler's theory of two fields (*Zweifeldertheorie*)

•   field of symbols: naming words, symbols

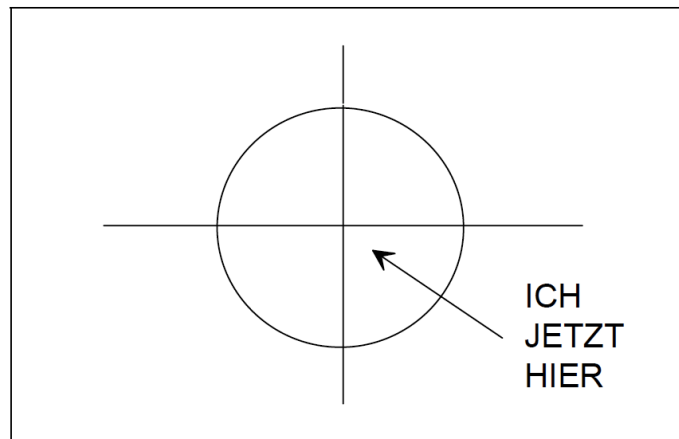•   field of pointing: pointer words, signals, deictic expressions

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)

ICH
JETZT
HIER

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

	speech act	
locutionary act	*illocutionary act*	*perlocutionary act*
linguistic form of the utterance	intention of the speaker	effects of the utterance specific to the circumstances
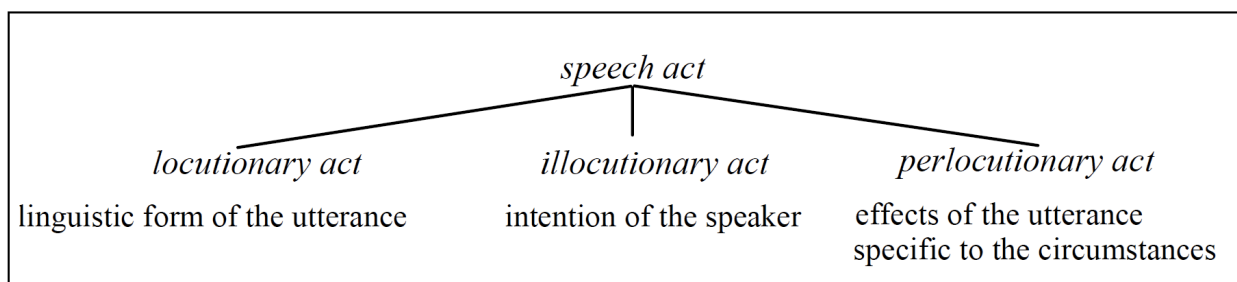
/ˈʃuːt hə/		
He **said** to me „Shoot her!”	He **urged** (**advised**, **ordered**) me to shoot her.	He **made** me shoot her.

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

cf. Searle, J. R. (1976), "The classification of illocutionary acts", *Language in Society, 5*, 1-24.

representatives	directives	commissives	expressives	declaratives
assert, claim, state, predict, describe	*order, ask, command, request*	*promise, vow, pledge*	*thank, welcome, congratulate, apologize*	*appoint, declare, excommunicate, resign*

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

4.4 Indirect Speech Acts

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

<div align="right">(Searle (1979) Expression and Meaning, 31.)</div>

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

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

Examples (Searle (1975), "Indirect Speech Acts", in Cole/Morgan 1975: 59-82):

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

Can you pass the salt?   A: *Can you pass the salt?*
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 (cf. Grice, H. P (1975), "Logic and conversation", in: Cole, P. & J. L. Morgan, eds. (1975), *Syntax and Semantics 3: Speech Acts*, New York: Academic Press, 45f.)

"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 excange).

      2) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

QUALITY: Try to make qour contribution one that is true.

      1) Do not say what you believe to be false.

      2) Do not say for which you lack adeqate evidence

RELEVANCE: Make your contributions relevant.

MANNER: Be perspicious, 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)
Bublitz, Wolfram (2001), *Englische Pragmatik. Eine Einführung*, ESV: Berlin.

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.

1. Terminology (cf. Herbst et al. 1990: 196ff.)

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.
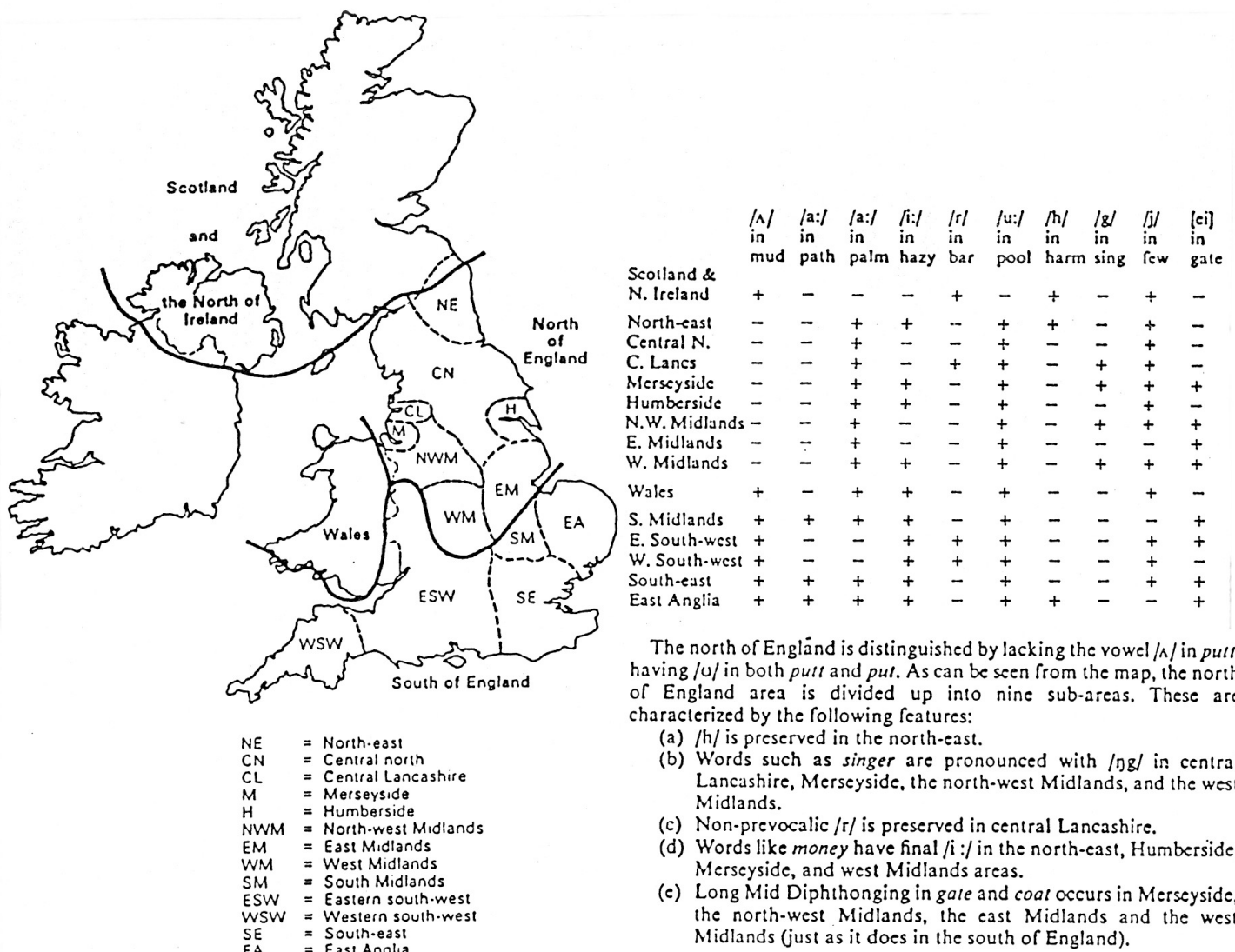
2. Types of varieties (cf. Herbst et al. 1990: 196ff.)

von sozialen und situativen Faktoren abhängig	Typen von Varietäten			
	abhängig vom soziologischen Hintergrund der Sprecher		abhängig von der Sprachsituation	
	regional (diatopisch)	sozial (diastratisch)	funktional (diaphasisch)	
Standard	**Dialekt**	**Soziolekt**	**Register / Stil**	
		Jargon (Beruf, Hobby	Genderlect (Geschlecht)	etc.	formell	informell	etc.

(cf. Kortmann 1999: 224)

3. Regional varieties in British English

Survey on the most important accent features according to Hughes, A. & P. Trudgill (2 1987),
English accents and dialects, London, 58ff.)

	/ʌ/ in mud	/a:/ in path	/a:/ in palm	/i:/ in hazy	/r/ in bar	/u:/ in pool	/h/ in harm	/g/ in sing	/ʃ/ in few	[ei] in gate
Scotland & N. Ireland	+	−	−	−	+	−	+	−	+	−
North-east	−	−	+	+	−	+	+	−	+	−
Central N.	−	−	+	−	−	+	−	−	+	−
C. Lancs	−	−	+	−	+	+	−	+	+	−
Merseyside	−	−	+	+	−	+	−	+	+	+
Humberside	−	−	+	+	−	+	−	−	+	+
N.W. Midlands	−	−	+	−	−	+	−	+	+	+
E. Midlands	−	−	+	−	−	+	−	−	+	+
W. Midlands	−	−	+	+	−	+	−	+	+	+
Wales	+	−	+	+	−	+	−	−	+	+
S. Midlands	+	+	+	+	−	+	−	−	−	+
E. South-west	+	−	−	+	+	+	−	−	+	+
W. South-west	+	−	+	+	+	+	−	−	+	−
South-east	+	+	+	+	−	+	−	−	+	+
East Anglia	+	+	+	+	−	+	+	−	−	+

The north of England is distinguished by lacking the vowel /ʌ/ in *putt*, 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 /ŋg/ in central Lancashire, Merseyside, the north-west Midlands, and the west Midlands.
(c) Non-prevocalic /r/ is preserved in central Lancashire.
(d) Words like *money* have final /i :/ 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).

NE = North-east
CN = Central north
CL = Central Lancashire
M = Merseyside
H = Humberside
NWM = North-west Midlands
EM = East Midlands
WM = West Midlands
SM = South Midlands
ESW = Eastern south-west
WSW = Western south-west
SE = South-east
EA = East Anglia

4. National Varieties: Major differences between British and American English

4.1 Phonology

GA - *General American* = AmE	RP - *Received Pronounciation* = BrE
used by around 2/3 of the inhabitants of the US	used by very few people, mostly upper class, only 3-5% of the British population
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*	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*

essential features:

GA	RP
secondary stress: *nécessàry*	*nécess'ry*
non-prevocalic /r/ is pronounced	non-prevocalic /r/ is NOT pronounced
retroflexive articulation of /r/	
dark /l/ in all positions	clear /l/ and dark /l/ as allophones
/uː/ as in *new, neutral*	/juː/ as in *new, neutral*
/æ/ before f, s, th, n as in *dance, half*	in these cases /aː/
in these cases /ɑ/	/ɒ/ as in *hot, hover, possible*
/təˈmeɪtoʊ/	/təˈmɑːtəʊ/
/kɫɜːk/	/klɑːk/
/iːðər/	/aɪðə/
/veɪz/	/vɑːz/
/æntæɪ/	/æntɪ/

4.2 Orthography

Standard American	Standard English
‹-or›	‹-our›
‹-er›	‹-re›
‹-ense›	‹-ence›
‹-l-›	‹-ll-›
‹-ize›	‹-ise/ize›

4.3 Grammar

Standard American	Standard English
She suggested that he go...	*She suggested that he should go...*
We should have gotten the tickets...	*We should have got the tickets...*
One should always do his/their best	*One should always do one's best*

4.4. Vocabulary

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

> *truck - lorry*
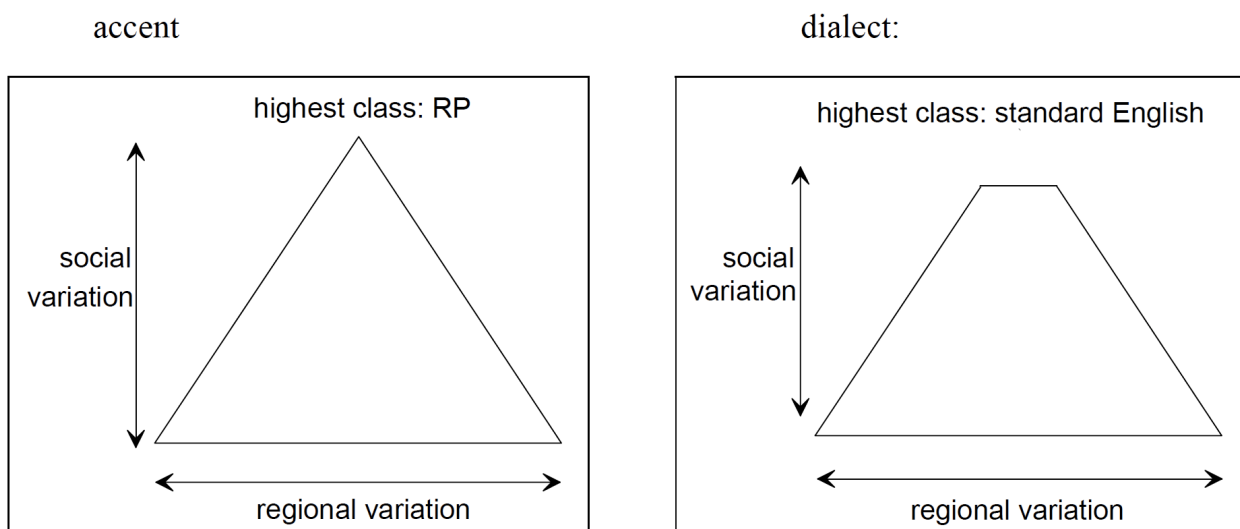> *elevator - lift*
> *mail - post*
> *give sb a ride - give sb a lift*

5. Social varieties

5.1 Relation between regional and social variation in accent and dialect

accent	dialect:

cf. Trudgill (1983: 41f.)

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
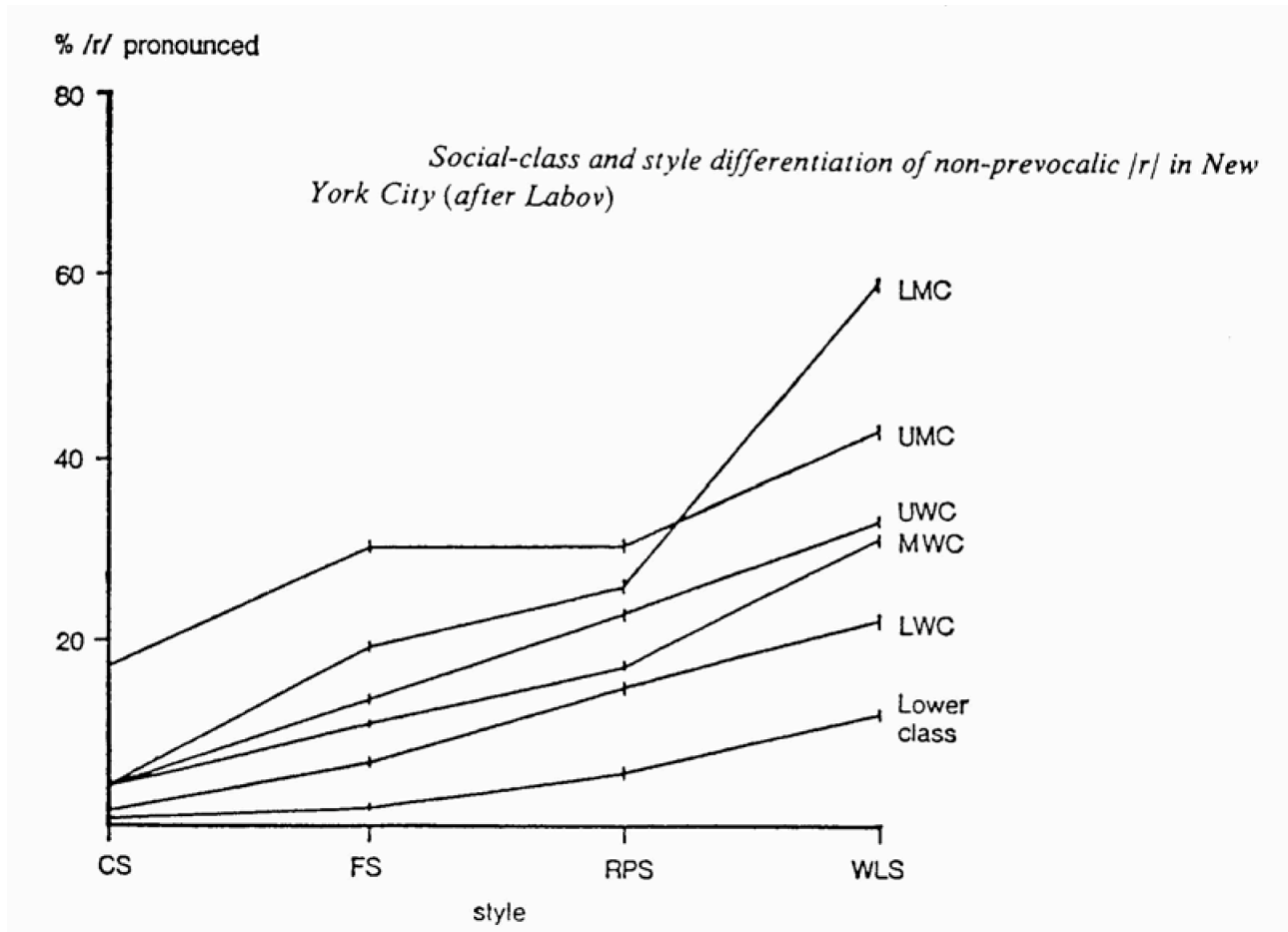
Study 2:

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

CS= casusal speech	FS= formal speech
RPS = reading-passage style	WLS = wordlist style

% /r/ pronounced

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

LMC
UMC
UWC
MWC
LWC
Lower class

CS   FS   RPS   WLS

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 statment

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:

men	women
conflict oriented	consent oriented
interrupt the other person	are interrupted by others
more and longer turns	few and short turns
determine and control the topics	work on the given topic
aim at defining status, get and keep the power	aim at harmony, understanding and working together
competitive style	cooperative style

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)."

Leisi/Mair (1999: Kap. 5 Die Schichtung des Englischen)
Kortmann (1999:219-256)