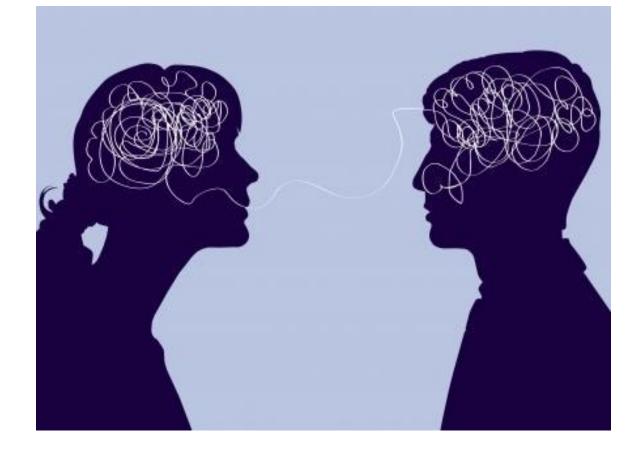z

University of Global Village(UGV)
Department of English
Introduction to Linguistics
Course Outline

Lamiya Akter
Teaching Assistant
Department of English

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Teaching Assistant
Department of English

Serial no	Name of the content	Content details
1	Course Code	ENG 0232-2109
2	Course Title	Introduction to Linguistics
3	Semester	3rd
4	Course Type	Theory
5	Academic Session	Summer-2025
6	Course Teacher	Lamiya Akter
7	Prerequisite	N/A
8	Credit value	3
9	Contact hours	42 Hours
10	Total marks	150

Completing this course, students will be able to

CLO 1	Develop a foundational knowledge of key linguistic components such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics.	Remember
CLO 2	Understand the role of linguistics in preserving and documenting languages.	Understand
CLO 3	Apply linguistic concepts to real-world issues such as language education, translation, speech technology, and communication challenges.	Apply
CLO 4	Analyze and compare different languages' sound systems (phonetics/phonology) and grammar structures (morphology/syntax).	Analyze
CLO 5	Evaluation of historical and ongoing changes in language (historical linguistics).	Evaluate
CLO 6	Prepare themselves with knowledge of a system of writing and speaking and reflect on the practical applications of linguistics in fields like computational linguistics, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics.	Create

Assessment Pattern

Total Marks	Per Credit 50 Marks
3 Credits Course	150 Marks
2 Credits Course	100 Marks
CIE	60%
SEE	40%

Assignment:

The topic or case studies will be given as assignments during the class which they have to prepare at home and will submit on or before the due date. No late submission of assignments will be accepted. Students will have to do a presentation on the given topic.

Quizzes:

One Quiz Test will be taken during the semester; this test will be taken after midterm. No makeup quiz test will be taken. Students are strongly recommended not to miss that test.

Viva-Voce:

At the end of the semester, the students must appear before a board of faculty from their course, who will assess them on topics they have covered. The department may invite external faculty to assess the students.

CIE- Continuous Internal Evaluation (90 Marks-60%)

Bloom's Category Marks (Out of 90)	Test (105)	Assignment (15)	Quizzes (15)	**External Participation in Curricular/Co-Curricular Activities (20)**
Remember	10		5	Attendance: 10 Viva-Voce : 10
Understand	10	5	5	
Apply	5	5		
Analyze	10			
Evaluate	5			
Create	5			

SEE- Semester End Examination (60 marks-40%)

Bloom's Category	Tests
Remember	15
Understand	5
Apply	10
Analyze	10
Evaluate	5
Create	10

Evaluation:

Grades will be calculated as per the university grading structure and individual students will be evaluated based on the following criteria with respective weights.

	1. Quizzes	10%
	2. Group Assignments	10%
	3. Class Participation	10%
	4. Term Examination	70%

Textbook & Learning Resources

1. Introduction to Linguistics--Dr. M Moniruzzaman
2. The study of Language--George Yule
3. An Introductory Text Book Linguistics & Phonetics
Dr. R L Varshney

iStock
Credit: Tatyana Davydova

Content of the course-

Time Frame	Topics	Teaching Strategies	Assessment Strategy	Alignment to CLO
Week 1	Language and its feature: Definition, examples & characteristics of language, Human language versus animal language. Language as a science, Language as a means of communication	Lecture, Students' feedback	Oral Question-answer	CLO-1
Week 2	Linguistics, Branches, level: Definition, Function & characteristics, Branches of linguistics, Levels of linguistics, Scope of linguistics	Group Discussion, Open Peer Work.	Individual short presentation	CLO-1
Week 3	School of Linguistics: Ferdinand de Saussure, Noam Chomsky	Lecture, discussion	Group Assignment and presentation	CLO-3
Week 4	Phonetics and phonology: Defining, differences and types	PPT, Showing Diagram.	Quiz Test	CLO-2
Week 5	Morphology: Defining and features	Lecture, Pair work	Oral Presentation	CLO-4

Week 6	Morphology: Types of morphemes, analysis and examples	Lecture	Asked to explain in class	CLO-4
Week-7	Class Test	Quiz	Presentation	
Week 8	Syntax: Types of syntax, Features of syntax, Syntactic Process	Lecture, Students will analyze sentences according to the syntactic process	Quiz test: MCQ	CLO-3
Week 9	Syntax: Types of syntax, Features of syntax, Syntactic Process	Lecture, Students' feedback	Oral Question-answer	
Week 10	Pragmatics: Definition, importance, and features	Group Discussion, Peer Work.	Open Individual short presentation	CLO-4
Week 11	Discourse analysis: Features and Types of Discourse	Lecture, Group discussion	Assignment and presentation	CLO-6

Week 12	Semantics: Definition, Types of meaning, Conceptual analysis	PPT, Showing Diagram.	Quiz Test	CLO-6
Week 13	Semantics: Difficulties of studying meaning, Meaning Relation	Lecture, Pair work	Oral Presentation	
Week 14	Sociolinguistics: Relation between language and society, Language Variety: dialects & register, Pidgin & creole, Scope of sociolinguistics	Lecture, Students will create a model or diagram	Asked to explain in class	CLO-5
Week 15	Psycholinguistics: Relation between language & human psychology, Child language acquisition, Second language acquisition, Scope of psycholinguistics	Lecture, Students will analyze sentences	Quiz test	CLO-5
Week 16	Revision Classes	Question Answer	Discussion	·········
Week 17	Class Test/ Viva	Quiz	············	········

Introduction to Linguistics

Course Code: ENG-0232-2109

3rd Semester

Lamiya Akter

Teaching Assistant

Department of English, UGV

Week-1   Slide: 14-21

Language
Characteristics of
Language
Human Language Vs
Animal Language
Difference between verbal and
non-verbal communication n

Language

In linguistics, language is a system of sounds, words, and rules that people use to communicate with each other. It helps us share ideas, feelings, and information, and it is an important part of human society and culture. Language can be spoken, written, or signed, and it changes over time. Language is the con-ventional speaking system through which we can communicate with others and express our ideas, feelings, and information. Language is the most important aspect of our life because it allows us to create cultural ties, friendships, and relationships by spreading our thoughts and ideas.

Characteristics of language

Arbitrariness: No inherent connection exists between words and their meanings (e.g., the word "tree" has no natural link to the object it represents).

Productivity: Infinite possibilities for creating new sentences and expressions.

Duality of Structure: Language operates at two levels – sounds (phonemes) and meanings (morphemes, words, sentences).

Displacement: The ability to talk about things beyond the present moment, such as the past, future, or hypothetical situations.

Characteristics of language

Cultural Transmission: Language is learned and passed down through social interaction rather than inherited biologically.

Systematic Structure: Language has rules governing syntax, morphology, phonology, and semantics.

Symbolism: Words and symbols stand for objects, actions, or concepts.

Mutability and Stability: Language evolves over time but retains consistent features within a given period.

Interchangeability: Speakers can both send and receive messages.

Prevarication: Language allows for lying or creating fictional scenarios.

Reflexivity: Language can be used to talk about itself (metalinguistic capability).

HUMAN LANGUAGE VS. ANIMAL COMMUNICATION

Difference Between Human Language and Animal Language

Difference	Human	Animal
Duality of Patterning	Distinctive sounds, called phonemes, are arbitrary and have no meaning. But humans can string these sounds in an infinite number of ways to create meaning via words and sentences.	Other animals do not communicate by arranging arbitrary sounds, which limits the number of messages they can create.
Creativity	New words can be invented easily.	Animals have to evolve in order for their signs to change.
Displacement	Humans can talk about remote, abstract, or imaginary things that aren't happening in their immediate environments.	Animal communication is context driven—they react to stimuli, or indexes.
Interchangeability	Any gender of human can use the same languages.	Certain animal communications in the animal world can only be used by one gender of that animal.

Diferrence	Human	Animal
Cultural Transmission	Humans acquire language culturally— words must be learned.	The way that animals communicate are biological, or inborn.
Arbitrariness	Human language is symbolic, using a set number of sounds (phonemes) and characters (alphabet), Which allows ideas to be recorded and preserved.	Animal communication is not symbolic, so it cannot preserve ideas of the past.
Biology	On a purely biological level, the human voice box and tongue are very unique, and are required to make the sounds we recognize as language.	Other animals have different biological structures, which impact the way they make sounds.
Ambiguity	A word, or sign, can have several meanings.	Every sign has only one meaning.
Variety	Human language can arrange words into an infinite number of ideas, sometimes referred to as discrete infinity.	Animals only have a limited number of combinations they can use

Difference between verbal and non-verbal communication

	VERBAL COMMUNICATION	NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION
DEFINITION	Everything we express in words	Everything we are able to transmit through gestures and body language.
LANGUAGE	Uses words and linguistic signs	Based on body language and paralinguistic features
CHANNELS	Spoken or written	Expression, gestures and body language, covering from facial expressions and movements of the extremities to posture
ADDRESSEE	Can be present or not	Must be paying visual attention
ADVANTAGES	• Fast and the message always tends to be clear • Offers the chance for correction • Conscious and reasoned • Improves attention	• Conveys emotions and feelings • Complements verbal communication as it helps to better connect with addressees and display other characteristics and qualities of the speaker
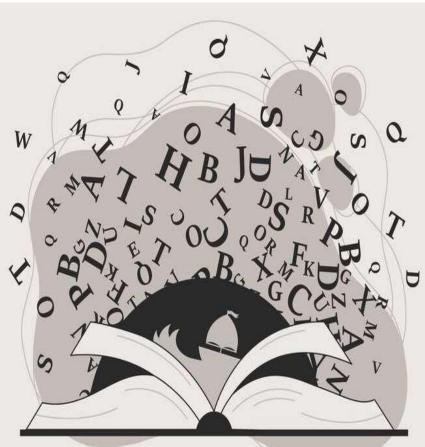
Introduction to Linguistics
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3rd Semester

Week-2 **Slide-23-28**

Linguistics

Level of Linguistics

Branches of Linguistics

Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. The areas of linguistic analysis are syntax (rules governing the structure of sentences), semantics (meaning), morphology (structure of words), phonetics (speech sounds and equivalent gestures in sign languages), phonology (the abstract sound system of a particular language), and pragmatics (how the context of use contributes to meaning). Sub disciplines such as bio linguistics (the study of the biological variables and evolution of language) and psycholinguistics (the study of psychological factors in human language) bridge many of these divisions.
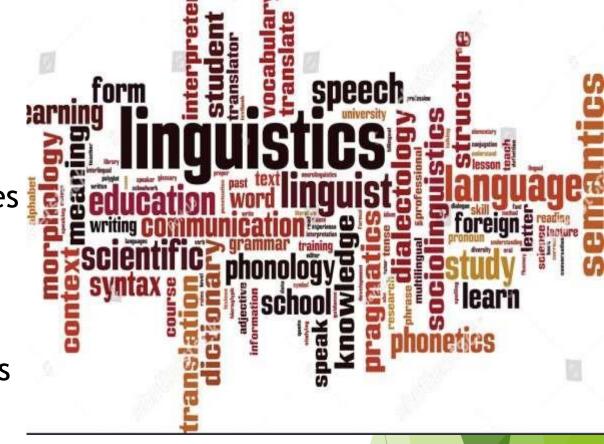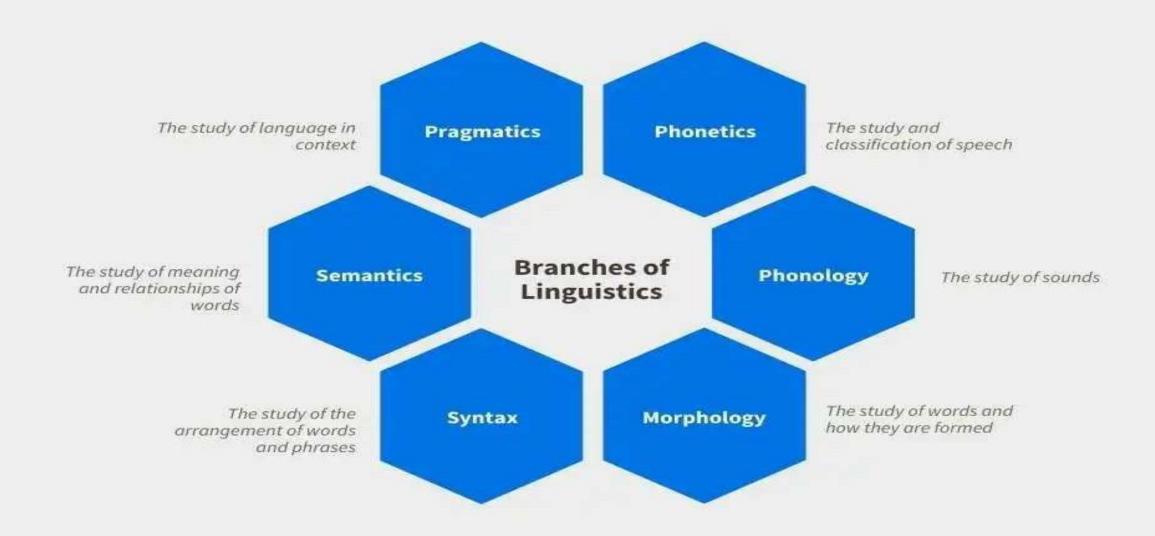
Level of Linguistics

- **Phonetics and Phonology**: The study of sounds in language.

- **Morphology**: The study of the structure and formation of words.

- **Syntax**: The study of sentence structure and the rules for combining words.

- **Semantics**: The study of meaning in language.

- **Pragmatics**: The study of language use in context.

- **Sociolinguistics**: The study of how language varies and changes in social groups.

- **Psycholinguistics**: The study of how language is processed in the brain.

What is Linguistics?

Alethes.net

Pragmatics — The study of language in context

Phonetics — The study and classification of speech

Semantics — The study of meaning and relationships of words

Branches of Linguistics

Phonology — The study of sounds

Syntax — The study of the arrangement of words and phrases

Morphology — The study of words and how they are formed

Branches of Linguistics

Sociolinguistics: The study of language in relation to social factors, such as gender, class, and regional variation.

Psycholinguistics: The study of the relationship between language and the human mind, including how language is acquired and processed.

Historical Linguistics: The study of how languages change over time and their historical relationships.

Applied Linguistics: The application of linguistic theories to solve real-world problems, such as language teaching and translation.

Branches of Linguistics

Computational Linguistics: The study of language using computational methods, often for natural language processing and machine learning.

Neurolinguistics: The study of how language is represented and processed in the brain.

Anthropological Linguistics: The study of language in the context of culture and human behavior.

Descriptive Linguistics: The study of documenting and describing languages as they are used.

Introduction to Linguistics

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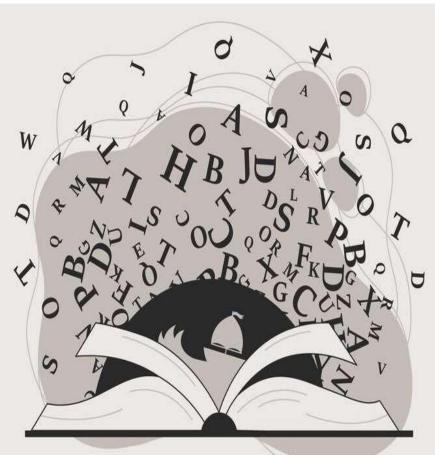
3rd Semester

Week- 3   Slide-30-35

School of Linguistics

Ferdinand De Saussure

Noam Chomsky

Leonard Bloomfield

Schools of linguistics

Structuralism: Focuses on analyzing the structure of language (phonology, morphology, syntax) as a system of interconnected elements (Ferdinand de Saussure).

Generative Grammar: Emphasizes the innate rules and structures in the human mind that govern language (Noam Chomsky).

Functionalism: Examines how language is shaped by its communicative functions and social use.
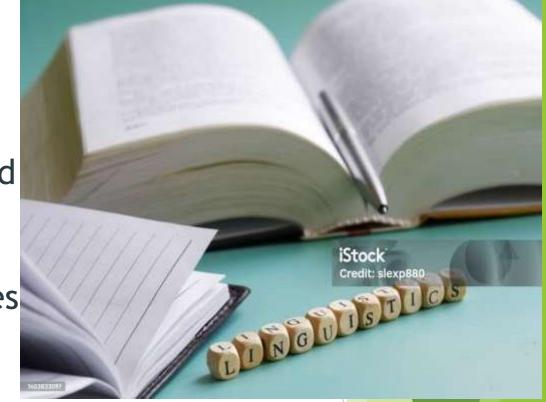
Schools of linguistics

Cognitive Linguistics: Studies how language reflects and is shaped by human cognition and conceptualization.

Sociolinguistics: Explores how language varies and evolves in social and cultural contexts.

Historical Linguistics: Investigates the evolution and historical relationships of languages over time.

Pragmatics: Focuses on language use in context and the interpretation of meaning beyond literal expressions.

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857 - 1913)

Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure is widely considered to be one of the forefathers of both linguistics and semi-ology, which is the philosophical study of the interpretation- ion of signs and symbols. Most notably, Saussure introduce-ed the idea that every word is a *linguistic sign.*
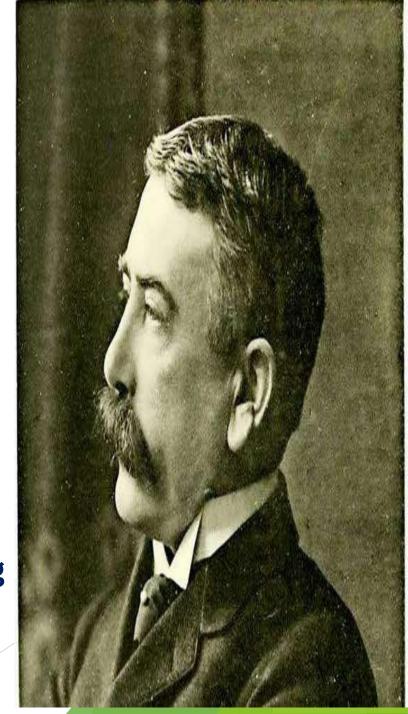
linguistic sign

The *signifier*

The *signified*

***Phonetic* form of a word**

The conceptual meaning underlying the sign

Noam Chomsky (1928 -)

Noam Chomsky (born December 7, 1928) is an American linguist, philosopher, and political activist. His theories made the modern scientific study of linguistics.

Full Name: Avram Noam Chomsky

Occupation: Linguistics theorist and political writer

Born: December 7, 1928 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Education: University of Pennsylvania and Harvard

Selected Works: "Syntactic Structures" (1957), "Fateful Triangle" (1983), "Manufacturing Consent" (1988), "Understanding Power" (2002)

Leonard Bloomfield (1887 – 1949)

He is an American Linguistics.

He developed of Structural Linguistics in USA during the 1930s and the 1940s. He is considered to be the father of American distributionist. His influential textbook *Language* published in 1933. His approach to linguistics was characterized by its emphasis on the scientific basis of linguistics data.

Introduction to Linguistics

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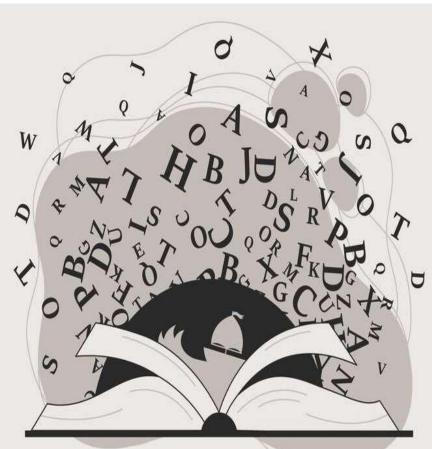
3rd Semester

Week-4   **Slide-37-42**

Phonetics

Phonetics is the study and classification of speech sounds. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds, including their physiological production, acoustic properties, and auditory perception.

Basically, phonetics studies how sounds are produced, transmitted and received.

VOCAL CORDS

CLOSED

OPEN
- Tongue
- Epiglottis
- False vocal cords
- VOCAL CORDS
- Trachea
- Corniculate cartilages
- Cuneiform cartilages

- NASAL CAVITY
- ORAL CAVITY
- PHARYNX
- TONGUE
- EPIGLOTTIS
- VOCAL CORDS
- ESOPHAGUS
- TRACHEA

Phonology

Study of the sound patterns that occur within language
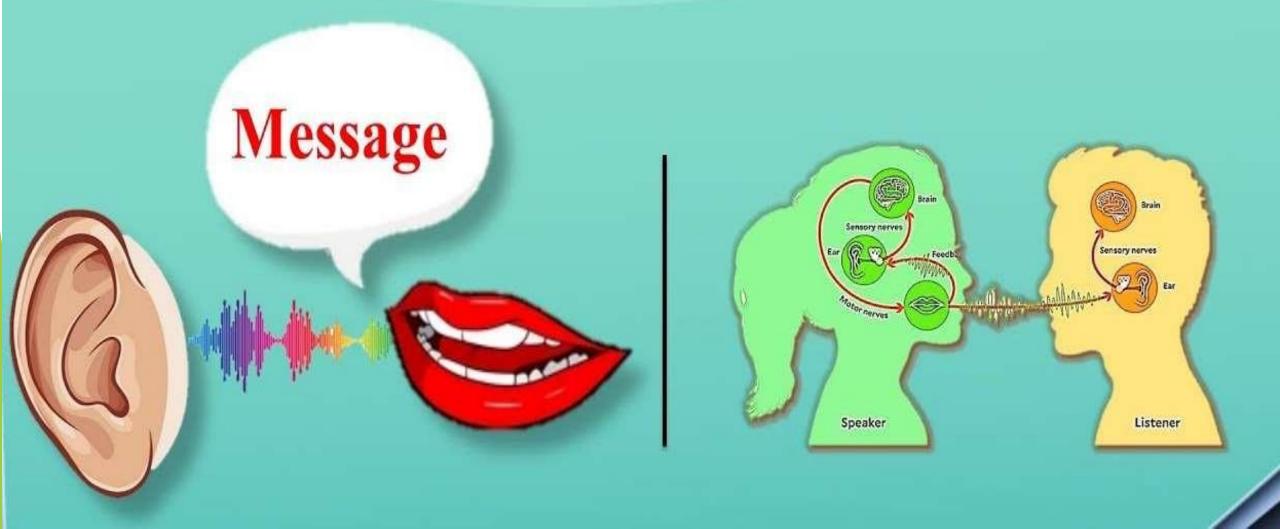
Phonology is the system of contrastive relationships among the speech sounds that constitute the fundamental components of a language. In simple words, phonology is the study of sounds, especially different patterns of sounds in different languages. It studies:

How sounds are combined together to form words?
How sounds alternate in different languages?
The inventory of sounds and their features in a language.

Phonetics VS Phonology

Message

Speaker

Listener

Brain

Sensory nerves

Ear

Feedback

Motor nerves

Brain

Sensory nerves

Ear

Difference between Phonetics and Phonology

Phonetics	Phonology
Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that deals with how to human speech sounds are made.	In contrast to phonetics, phonology is the study of significant speech sounds.
It describes how physical expressions of human speech sounds are produced.	On the other hand, phonology deals with the mental aspects of sounds in a language.
Phonetical units are called phones.	Phonological units are called phonemes.
It deals with a large number of speech sounds.	It deals with a limited number of speech sounds.
As we know that phonetic symbols are enclosed in square brackets	On the other hand, phonemic symbols are enclosed in the slashed bracket.
Phonological units are formed contrastively.	Whereas, phonetical units may not form contrastively.

Branches of Phonetics
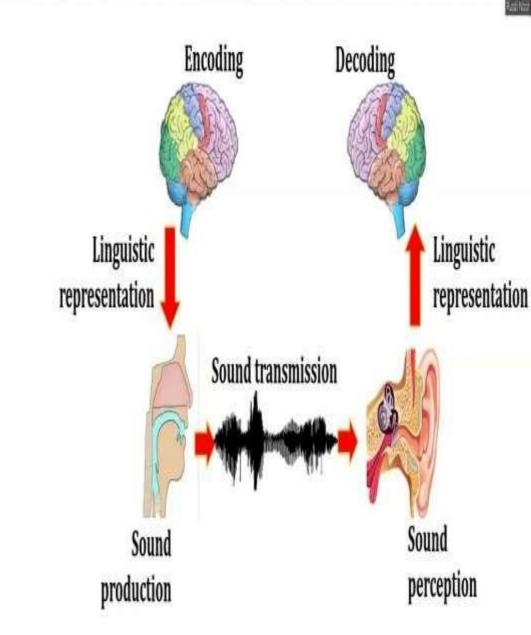
i) **Articulatory Phonetics**– Production of speech sounds.
ii) **Acoustic Phonetics** – Transmission of speech sounds.
iii) **Auditory Phonetics** – Perception of speech sounds.

Articulatory Phonetics: Articulatory Phonetics is the study of movement of the speech organs in the articula -tion of speech. It deals with production and descriptio of speech sounds.

Acoustic Phonetics: Acoustic Phonetics is the study of the physical properties of speech sounds. It deals with the transmission of speech sounds.

Auditory Phonetics: Auditory Phonetics is the study of hearing and perception of speech sounds. From inner ear, message is sent to central nervous system and ther we understand the quality of sound.

Three Branches of Phonetics

Encoding   Decoding

Linguistic representation   Linguistic representation

Sound transmission

Sound production   Sound perception

Introduction to Linguistics

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3rd Semester

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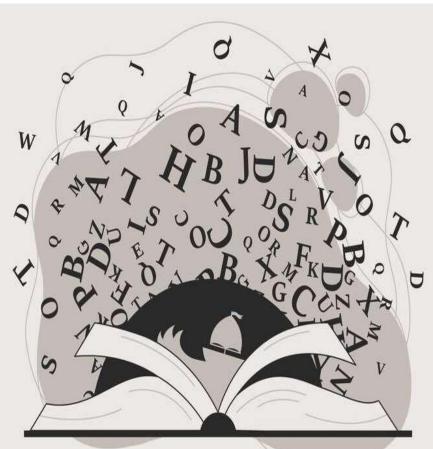
Week-5   **Slide-44-48**

Morphology

Classification of Morpheme

Morphology

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies the structure and formation of words. It focuses on how smaller units of meaning (morphemes) combine to create words and how word forms change to convey grammatical information (e.g., tense, number, gender).

Morpheme

A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a language. It cannot be broken down into smaller meaningful parts. For example:
"Cat" (a single morpheme with meaning).
"Cats" (two morphemes: *cat* (root) + *-s* (plural marker)).

Classification of Morpheme:

Free morphemes: Can stand alone as words (e.g., "book," "run").
Bound morphemes: Cannot stand alone and must attach to other morphemes (e.g., prefixes like *un-*, suffixes like *-ed*).

Classification of Morpheme

1. Based on Independence

Free Morphemes:
Can stand alone as independent
words. Examples: *book, run, happy.*

Bound Morphemes:
Cannot stand alone and must be
attached to another morpheme.
Examples: *-s (plural),*
-ed (past tense), un- (prefix).

2. Based on Function

Lexical Morphemes:
Carry the core meaning of a word
Examples: *house, quick, run.*

Grammatical (Functional) Morphemes: Provide grammatical relationships between
words.Examples: *and, but, in, of, -s (plural), -ed (past tense).ral).*

Mind map

English morphemes

Free morphemes

Bound morphemes

Lexical Morphemes

Functional Morphemes

Derivational Morphemes

Inflectional Morphemes

3. Based on Position in a Word

Root Morphemes:
The base or core of a word, carrying the primary meaning.
Example: *read* in *rereading*.

Affix Morphemes:
Attached to roots to modify their meaning or function.
Types:

Prefix: Added before the root (*un-* in *undo*).
Suffix: Added after the root (*-ly* in *quickly*).
Infix: Inserted within a word (rare in English, e.g., *fan-bloody-tastic*).

4. Based on Meaning

Derivational Morphemes:
Create new words or change the word class/meaning.
Examples: *happy → happiness (adjective to noun), act → actor (verb to noun).*

Inflectional Morphemes:
Modify words to express grammatical features like tense, number, case, etc., without changing the word class.
Examples: *walk → walked (past tense), dog → dogs (plu*

Introduction to Linguistics

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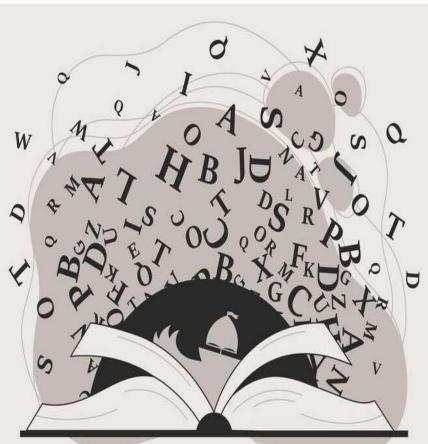
3rd Semester

Week-6   Slide-50-55

Morphology

Word formation process
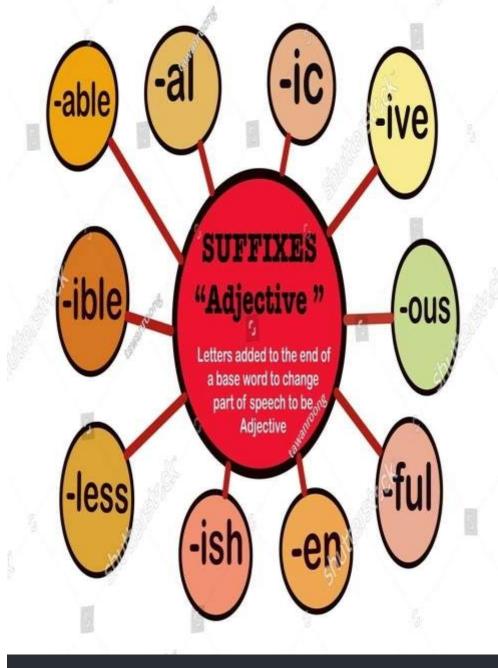
What is word Formation?

Word formation is the process of creating new words or modifying existing ones in a language. It involves applying specific linguistic rules to form words that are meaningful and usable in communication.

Key Aspects of Word Formation:
- It creates new words from existing ones (*e.g.,*
- *happy → happiness*).

- It allows the combination of words or morphemes (*e.g., notebook*).
- It modifies word forms to suit grammatical or
- contextual needs (*e.g., run → running*).

Word formation is essential for the growth and adaptability of any language.

SUFFIXES
"Adjective"

Letters added to the end of a base word to change part of speech to be Adjective

-able, -al, -ic, -ive, -ible, -ous, -less, -ish, -en, -ful

Word formation rules

1. Derivation

Adding prefixes or suffixes to a root word to create new words.

Example: *happy → unhappiness* (prefix *un-* and suffix *-ness*).

2. Compounding: Combining two or more independent words to form a new word.

Example: *notebook, toothpaste*.

3. Conversion (Zero Derivation)

Changing the grammatical category of a word without altering its form.

Example: *to drink (verb) → a drink (noun)*.

Word formation rules

4. Clipping

Shortening a longer word by removing parts of it.

Example: *advertisement → ad, laboratory → lab.*

5. Blending

Combining parts of two words to create a new one.

Example: *breakfast + lunch → brunch, smoke + fog → smog.*

6. Acronyms

Forming a word from the initial letters of a phrase.

Example: *NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration).*

7. Abbreviation

Shortening a phrase by using its initial letters, but the letters are pronounced individually.
Example: *FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation).*

8. Back-formation
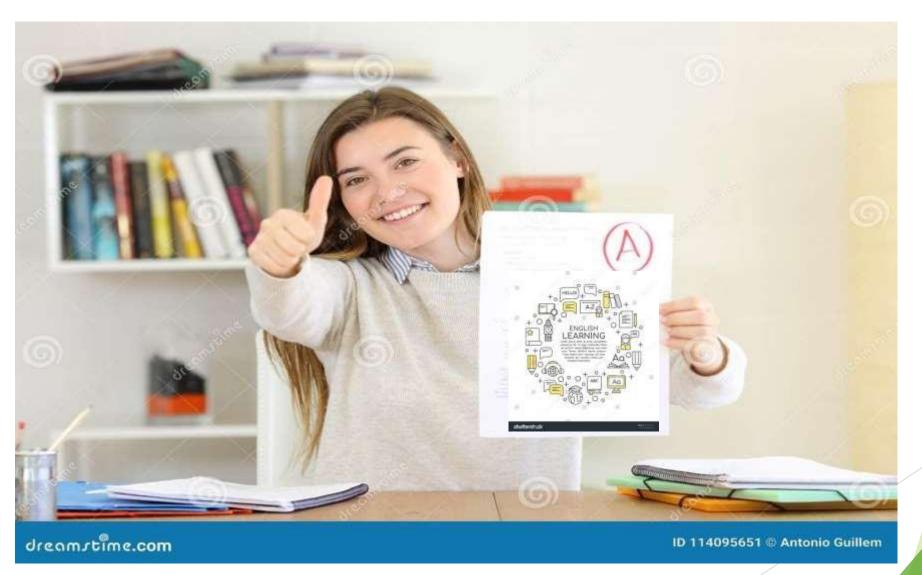
Creating a new word by removing what is thought to be a suffix.
Example: *editor → edit, television → televise.*

9. Borrowing: Taking words from other languages and incorporating them into the language. Example: *piano (Italian), karaoke (Japanese).*

Word formation rules

10. Reduplication: Repeating all or part of a word to form a new one. Example: *bye-bye, chit-chat.*

11. Coinage (Neologism): Inventing completely new words. Example: *Kleenex, Google.*

12. Onomatopoeia: Creating words that imitate natural sounds.
Example: *buzz, splash, hiss.*

Week-7-Class Test and Presentation

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Week-8

Slide-58-66

Syntax
Different types of Syntax
Features of Syntax
IC analysis

Syntax is the branch of linguistics that studies the rules and principles governing the structure of sentences in a language. It focuses on how words are combined to form phrases, clauses, and sentences, ensuring grammaticality and coherence. It examines the order, relationships, and dependencies between elements in a sentence to create meaning. Example: Correct syntax: *The cat sat on the mat*. Incorrect syntax: *Cat the mat on sat*.

English Syntax

The Different Types of Syntax

Generative syntax	how sentences are generated by the human brain
Transformational syntax	how sentences can be transformed into different forms while still retaining their meaning
Descriptive syntax	how language is actually used in practice, rather than how it "should" be used according to prescriptive rules
Comparative syntax	how different languages use syntax to convey meaning

English Syntax Rules

Subject-verb agreement	The subject and verb in a sentence must agree in number (i.e. singular or plural)
Word order	English sentences generally follow a subject-verb-object (SVO) order
Use of articles and prepositions	English uses articles (a, an, the) and prepositions (in, on, at, etc.) to convey specific meanings and relationships between words
Punctuation	The use of punctuation marks like commas, periods, and semicolons helps to clarify the meaning and structure of a sentence

Features of Syntax

Rule-Governed: Syntax follows specific rules for word order and sentence structure (e.g., Subject-Verb-Object in English).

Hierarchy: Sentences are structured in layers, including phrases, clauses, and sub-clauses.

Grammaticality: Syntax determines whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not (e.g., *She is happy* vs. *Happy she is*).

Features of Syntax

Universality: All languages have syntax, but the specific rules vary across languages.

Recursion: Allows embedding of phrases or clauses within each other, enabling infinite sentence generation (e.g., *He said that she thinks that I know*).

Dependency: Words in a sentence often depend on each other for meaning (e.g., subject-verb agreement: *She runs* vs. *They run*).

Ambiguity: Syntax can create multiple interpretations for a sentence (e.g., *The man saw the boy with the telescope*).

IC Analysis

Immediate Constituent (IC) Analysis is a linguistic method used to break down sentences into their component parts, or "constituents," to understand their underlying structure. This technique divides a sentence into smaller units hierarchically, showing how words and phrases combine to form a grammatical sentence

Key Features of IC Analysis

Hierarchical Structure:

A sentence is analyzed in layers, starting with larger units (e.g., subject and predicate) and breaking them into smaller ones (e.g., phrases and words).

Binary Division:
Sentences are typically divided into two immediate constituents at each level.
Example: *The cat (Subject) / sat on the mat (Predicate).*
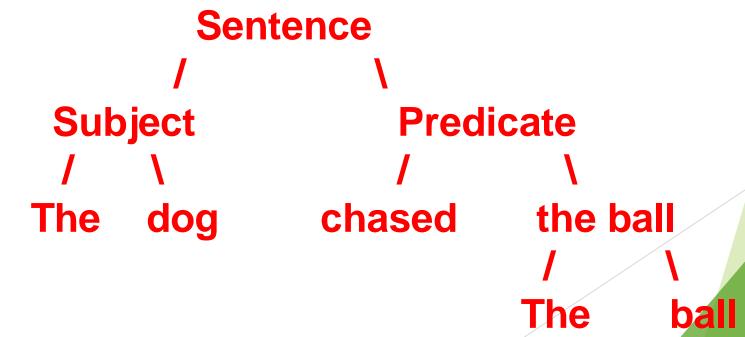
Focus on Constituents: Each constituent is a meaningful unit, like a word, phrase, or clause.

Graphical Representation: IC Analysis can be represented using tree diagrams or bracketing to illustrate the divisions. Example (bracketing):

Example of IC Analysis: **Sentence:** *The dog chased the ball.*

1. Divide into **Subject** and **Predicate**:
- Subject: The dog
- Predicate: chased the ball

2. Break down further:
- The dog → The (determiner) + dog (noun)
- chased the ball → chased (verb) + the ball (noun phrase)
- The ball → The (determiner) + ball (noun)

Tree Diagram: Sentence: *The dog chased the ball.*

Sentence
/ \
Subject **Predicate**
/ \ / \
The dog **chased** **the ball**
/ \
The **ball**

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Week-9

Phrase Structure (PS) Grammar
Key features
Tree diagram
Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar

Phrase Structure (PS) Grammar

Phrase Structure Grammar (also known as **Constituent Grammar**) is a framework in linguistics used to describe the internal structure of sentences based on their constituent parts (phrases). It represents how smaller units (words and phrases) combine hierarchically to form larger units like sentences.

Key Features

Hierarchical Structure: Sentences are composed of nested phrases, which are built from smaller constituents.

Rewrite Rules: PS grammar uses formal rules to describe how sentences are generated.

Phrase Structure (PS) Grammar

S → NP + VP (A sentence consists of a noun phrase and a verb phrase).

NP → Det + N (A noun phrase consists of a determiner and a noun).

Tree Diagrams:
Sentences are often visualized as hierarchical trees to illustrate the relationships between constituents.

Recursive Rules:
Allows the embedding of structures within structures, enabling infinite sentence generation (e.g., clauses within clauses).
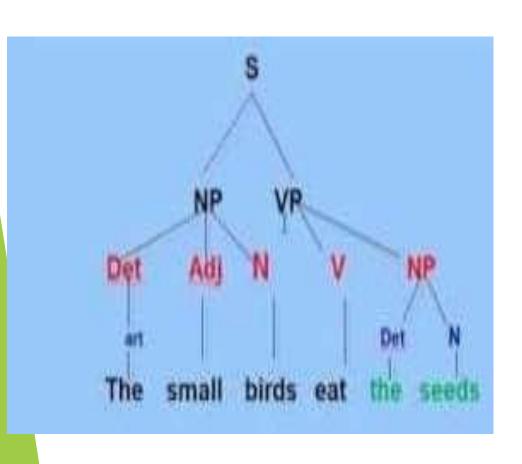
Basic PS Grammar Rules (Example for English)

S → NP + VP   (Sentence consists of a noun phrase and a verb phrase).

NP → Det + N   (Noun phrase consists of a determiner and a noun).

VP → V + NP   (Verb phrase consists of a verb and a noun phrase).
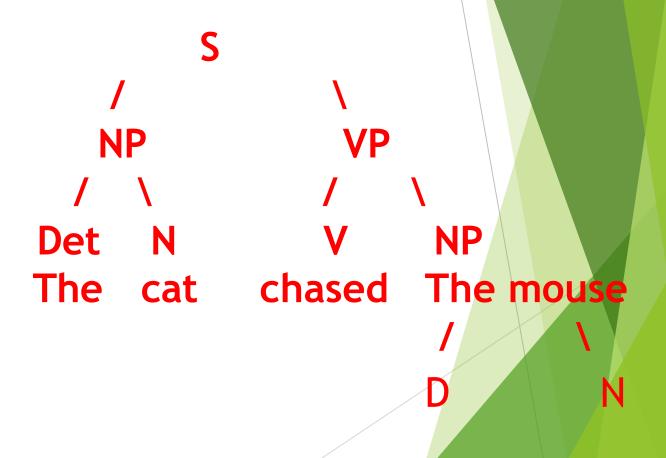
Example: Sentence: *The cat chased the mouse*. PS Rules Applied:

S → NP + VP

NP → Det + N (*The cat*)

VP → V + NP (*chased the mouse*)

NP → Det + N (*The mouse*)

T

Tree Diagram

The small birds eat the seeds   **The cat chased the mouse**


```
                        S
              /                    \
           NP                      VP
          /    \                   /      \
       Det      N                V        NP
       The     cat            chased   The mouse
                                       /         \
                                      D           N
```

Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar

Transformational-Generative Grammar, introduced by **Noam Chomsky**, is a linguistic framework that explains how sentences are generated from underlying structures using a combination of **phrase structure rules** and **transformational rules**.

Key Features

Deep Structure: Represents the underlying meaning of a sentence.

Surface Structure: Represents the final grammatical form of the sentence.

Rules that transform deep structures into surface structures (active to passive voice, question formation).

Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar

Generative Nature: Capable of producing an infinite number of grammatical sentences from a finite set of rules.

Focus on Syntax: Explains how complex sentences (e.g., questions, negatives) are derived systematically.

Example   **Deep Structure: *John wrote the book*.**

Transformation: Passive rule applied.

Surface Structure: *The book was written by John*.

Introduction to Linguistics

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3rd Semester

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Week- 10   Slide-75-84

Pragmatics
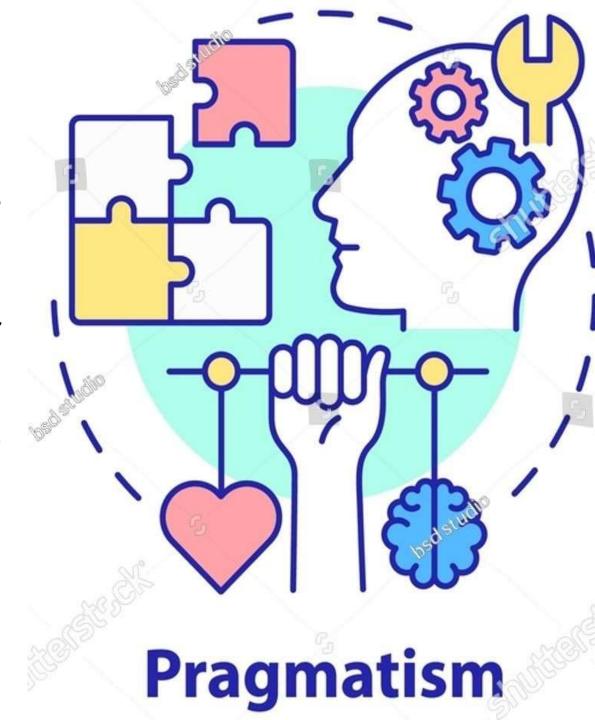
Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that studies how language is used in context and how meaning is derived beyond the literal interpretation of words. It focuses on the relationship between the linguistic expressions and their meanings.

PRAGMATICS

Pragmatics is the study of how context influences how we interpret and make meaning of communication. It is often described as the study of "language in use".

OVERVIEW

Sometimes, the literal meaning of what is said isn't the implied meaning. Pragmatics goes beyond the literal meaning of words and phrases to understand the intended message based on factors like the social situation, relationship between the speakers, cultural context, situational context, and the way the words are said.

EXAMPLES
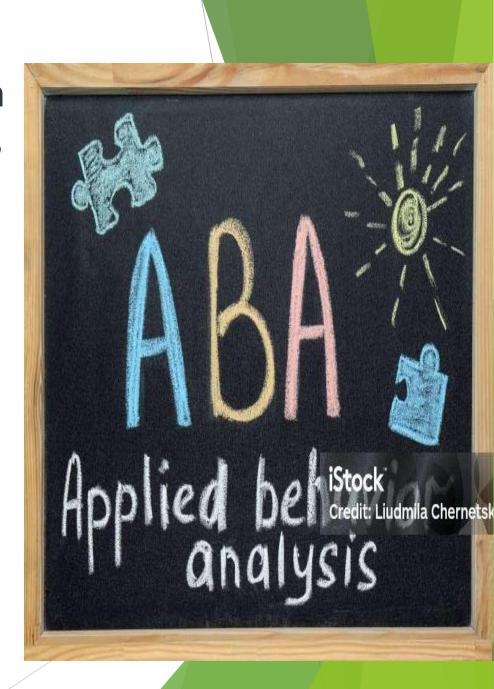
- Use of metaphor
- Use of irony
- Use of sarcasm
- Use of deixis
- Use of euphemisms
- Jokes and humor
- Use of silence / mis en scene
- Use of hyperbole
- Use of tautologies

Aspects of pragmatics

Context Dependence: How the meaning of an utterance changes depending on the physical, social, or linguistic context in which it is spoken.

Speech Acts: How speakers use language to perform actions, such as making requests, giving commands, making promises, or offering apologies.

Implicature: How meaning is implied rather than explicitly stated. For example, saying, "It's cold in here" might be a suggestion to close a window.
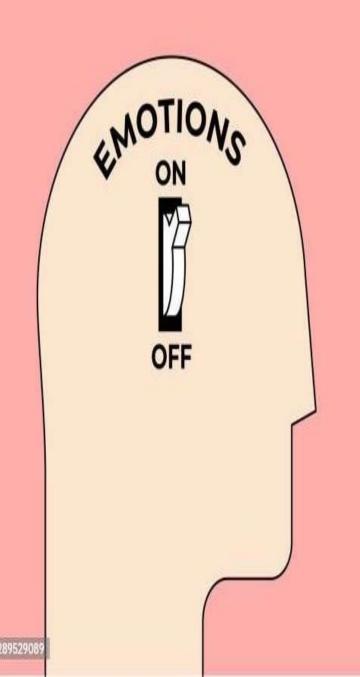
Aspects of pragmatics

Deixis: Words or phrases (like "this," "that," "here," "now") whose meanings depend on the speaker's perspective.

Politeness and Social Norms: How language reflects social conventions, relationships, and politeness strategies.

Ambiguity and Disambiguation: How listeners resolve ambiguous meanings based on context.

Pragmatics complements other fields of linguistics like semantics, but While semantics deals with "what is said, " pragmatics deals with "what is meant."

EMOTIONS
ON
OFF

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Types of pragmatics

Pragmatics encompasses various types or subfields that explore different aspects of how meaning is conveyed in context. Here are the main types of pragmatics:

1. Linguistic Pragmatics
Focuses on how language is used in communication, considering the interaction between linguistic expressions and the context of use.

2. Social Pragmatics
Deals with how language use is shaped by social norms, cultural conventions, and relationships between speakers. It involves aspects such as politeness, formality, and conversational norms.

3. Cognitive Pragmatics
Examines how mental processes (like beliefs, intentions, and assumptions) influence communication and interpretation. This includes understanding implicature and inferring speaker intentions.

Types of pragmatics

4. Deictic Pragmatics (Deixis)
Explores how certain words or phrases (e.g., "here," "there," "this," "that," "now") rely on contextual information to convey meaning.

5. Pragmatics of Politeness: Analyzes how speakers use language to maintain social harmony, manage face-threatening acts, and convey respect or politeness.

6. Pragmatics of Speech Acts: Studies how speakers perform actions through language, such as requesting, commanding, apologizing, or promising.

7. Interpersonal Pragmatics: Focuses on the ways speakers manage relationships and interact with others in conversation, including turn-taking, repair, and negotiation of meaning.

Types of pragmatics

8. Cross-Cultural Pragmatics: Examines how pragmatic norms vary across cultures and how misunderstandings can arise in intercultural communication.

9. Pragmatics of Humor and Irony: Looks at how speakers use language to create humor, sarcasm, or irony and how listeners interpret these non-literal meanings.

10. Historical Pragmatics: Studies how the use and interpretation of language in context has evolved over time.

11. Experimental Pragmatics: Uses experimental methods (e.g., psychology and neuroscience) to study how individuals process and interpret language in context. Each type of pragmatics highlights a particular dimension of how language operates in real-world interactions, contributing to a comprehensive understanding of communication.

Importance of Pragmatic

Studying pragmatics is important because it enhances our understanding of how language works in real-life contexts. It helps us interpret implied meanings, navigate cultural and social norms, improve communication skills, and avoid misunderstandings, making interactions more effective and meaningful.

Pragmatics is essential because language is more than just words and grammar—it's about how meaning is shaped by context, intention, and interaction. It helps us:

Understand Implied Meanings: Interpret meanings beyond what is explicitly said, such as sarcasm, humor, or indirect requests.

Importance of Pragmatic
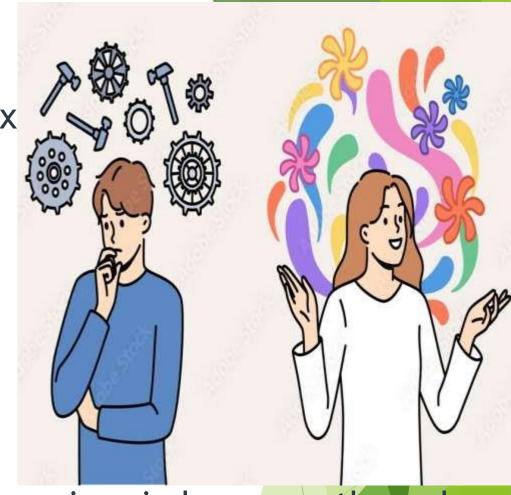
Navigate Context: Adapt communication based on situational, cultural, and social contex

Enhance Communication: Avoid misunderstandings and use language effectively in diverse scenarios.
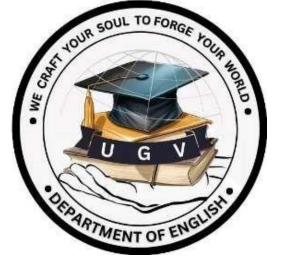
Build Relationships: Maintain politeness, manage face-threatening acts, and foster smoother social interactions.

Handle Ambiguity: Resolve multiple possible meanings in language through context and shared understanding.

In short, pragmatics makes communication functional, meaningful, and contextually appropriate in real-world interactions.

Introduction to Linguistics

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Week-11   Slide-86-93
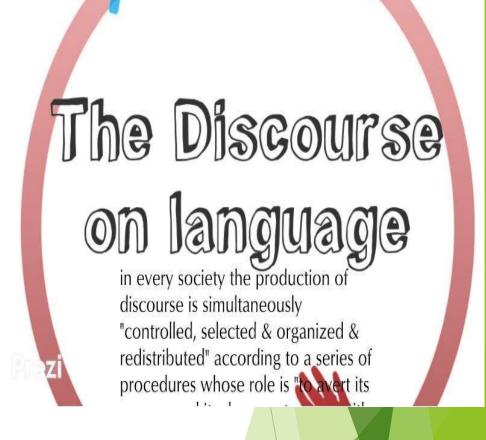
Discourse

Form and Functions of Discourse

Types of Discourse

Purpose of Discourse

Difference between spoken and written Discourse

Discourse

Discourse refers to the use of language beyond single sentences. Discourse is an important study for the English language because it allows individuals to ex- press their ideas and thoughts effectively, understand and interpret the perspectives and opinions of others,
 and build relationships through effective communication. Discourse analysis is also critical for language teachers and researchers to better understand language use and development.
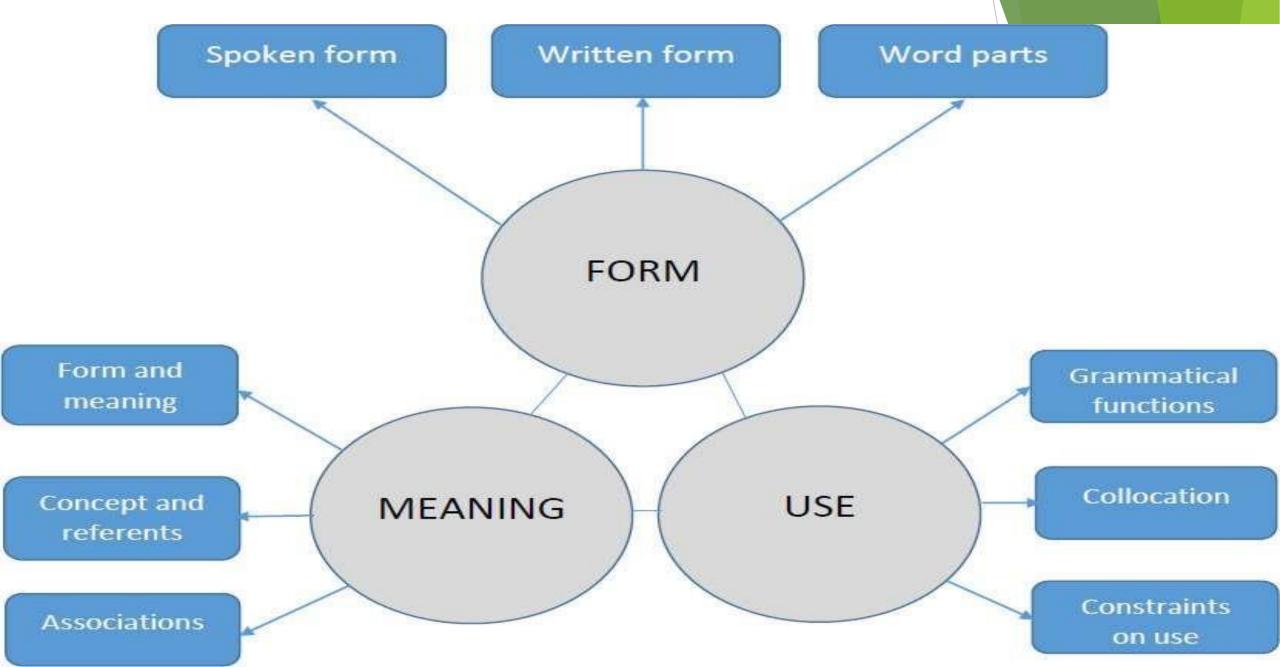

What is the definition of discourse?

Discourse is the verbal or written exchange of ideas. Any unit of connected speech or writing that is longer than a sentence and that has a coherent meaning and a clear purpose is referred to as discourse.

An example of discourse is when you discuss something with your friends in person or over a chat platform. Discourse can also be when someone expresses their ideas on a particular subject in a formal and orderly way, either verbally or in writing.
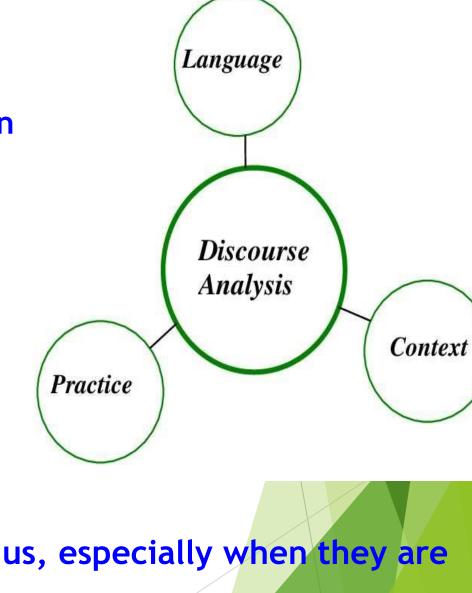
Function of discourse

Discourse analysis' is the study of spoken or written language in context and explains how language defines our world and our social relations.

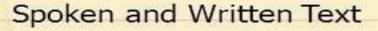Spoken discourse is how we interact with each other, as we express and discuss our thoughts and feelings. Think about it isn't conversation a huge part of our daily lives? Conversations can enrich us, especially when they are polite and civil.
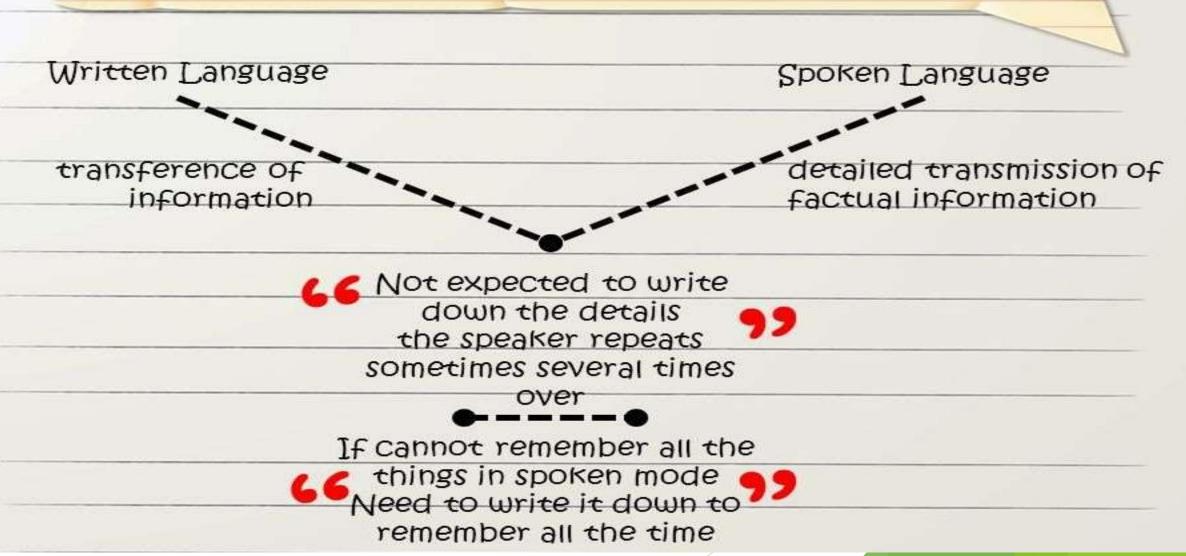
Language

Discourse Analysis

Context

Practice

Function of discourse

Civil discourse is a conversation in which all parties are able to equally share their views without being dominated. Individuals engaged in civil discourse aim to enhance understanding and the social good through frank and honest dialogue. Engaging in such conversations helps us live peacefully in society.

Written discourse: (novels, poems, diaries, plays, film scripts etc.) provides records of decades-long shared information. How many times have you read a book that gave you an insight into what people did in the past? And how many times have you watched a film which made you feel less alone because it showed you that someone out there feels the same way you do?

Types of discourse

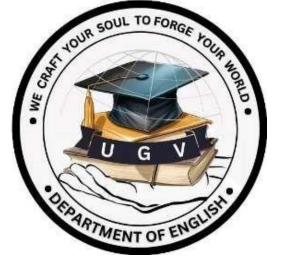| Types of discourse	Purpose for the type of discourse
Description	Helps the audience visualize the item or subject by relying on the five senses.
Narration	Aims to tell a story through a <u>narrator</u>, who usually gives an account of an event.
Exposition	Conveys background information to the audience in a relatively neutral way.
Argumentation	Aims to persuade and convince the audience of an idea or a statement.

Discourse – key takeaways

Discourse is another word for any kind of written or spoken communication. It is any unit of connected speech that is longer than a sentence, and that has a coherent meaning and a clear purpose.

Discourse is crucial to human behavior and social progress.

Critical discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary method in the study of discourse that is used to examine language as a social practice.
There are four types of discourse - Description, Narration, Exposition, and Argumentation.

There are three categories of literary discourse - Poetic, Expressive, and Transactional.

Discourse appears in Literature (both poetry and prose), speeches, advertisements, diaries, blog posts, definitions and verbal conversations.
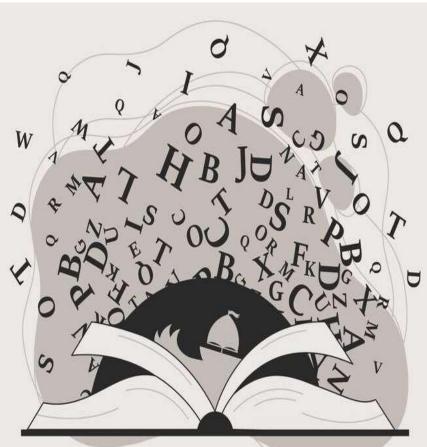
Introduction to Linguistics
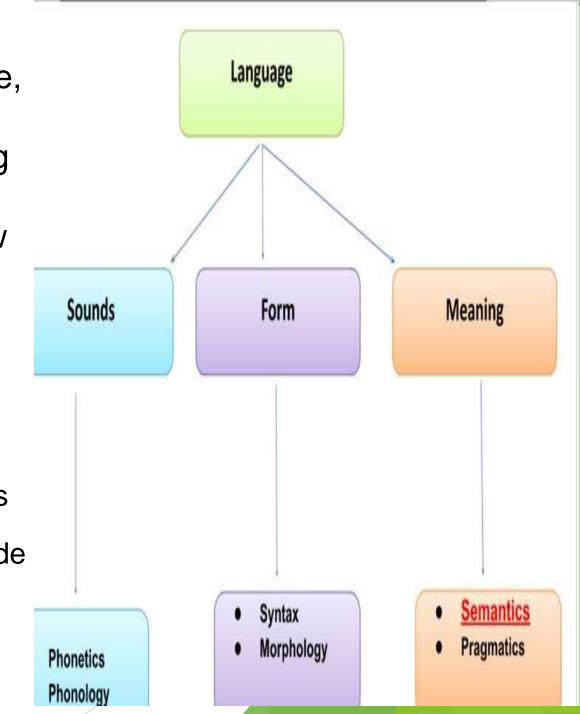## Course Code: ENG-0232-2109
3rd Semester

Week- 12   Slide-95-102

Semantics
Types of Meaning

Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning in language, symbols, and signs. It examines how words, phrases, sentences, and texts convey meaning and how interpretation can vary depending on context, structure, and usage. It Examines how context influences meaning, including tone, speaker intention, and social norms. It Investi-gates the mental representation of meaning—how people conceptualize and categorize information.

Examples: The word **"bank"** has different meanings depending on context (a financial institution or the side of a river). Semantics studies how these meanings arise and how they are understood.

Language

Sounds

Form

Meaning

Phonetics
Phonology

- Syntax
- Morphology

- Semantics
- Pragmatics

Types of Meaning

1. Conceptual meaning

2. Connotative meaning

3. Stylistic meaning

4. Affective meaning

5. Reflective meaning

6. Collective meaning

7. Thematic meaning

1. Conceptual Meaning

Conceptual which means abstract meaning that is additionally famous is the denotative or psychological feature which means is widely assumed to be the central consider communication. We can also call the conceptual Meaning as literal or dictionary meaning.

The example of the conceptual Meaning is that.

Boy: = +HUMAN+MALE-ADULT

Girl: = +HUMAN-MALE-ADULT

2. Connotative meaning

Connotative is kind of associated meaning. Certain characteristics or features are associated with a particular world. Connotative meaning includes not only physical characteristics but also psychological, historical and social properties.

The example is that rose. The conceptual meaning of the word rose is a flower but its connotative meaning is freshness. Similarly, the connotative meaning of the word "night" is "Evil", "lamb" refers to innocence, while "beauty" is the connotative meaning of "moon".

3. Collective Meaning

Collective meaning consists of the associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words. Which tend to occur in its environment. It is created with the collective of one word with the other.

In Collective Meaning, a particular word goes with another particular word. Linguistic communication conspicuously includes the communication of something through association with words which tend to occur in the context
of another word.
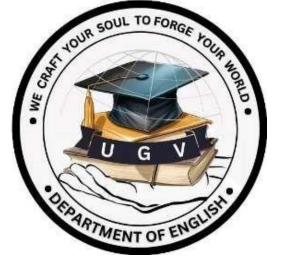
4.Stylistic meaning

Stylistic meaning is that meaning is created specifically by the use of language. When we say the same thing in different ways the stylistic meaning is created. stylistic meaning results from a "style". For example, "he died" "he expired" "he left for heavenly aboard" in these sentence the same meaning has been expressed in different styles.

5. Reflective meaning

Reflective meaning is the meaning which arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning. It is what is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression. It occurs when one sense of word forms part of our response to another sense.

The example of reflected meaning is a synonymous expression of "The Comforter and "The Holy Ghost" both referring to the Third person of the Trinity, one may find one's reactions to these terms conditioned by the everyday non-religious meanings of "The Comforting" and "Ghost". "The Comforter" sounds warm and "'Comforting'", while 'the Holy Ghost' sounds awesome.

6. Affective Meaning: Affective meaning is largely a parasite category in the sense that to express our emotions we rely upon the mediation of the other categories of meaning-conceptual, connotative or stylistic. Emotional expressions through style come about, for instance, when we adopt an impolite tone to express friendliness.

On the other hand, there are elements of language whose chief function is to express emotion. When we use these, we communicate feelings and attitudes without the mediation if any other kind of semantic function.

7. Thematic meaning: The final of meaning is the thematic meaning. Thematic meaning is mainly a matter of selection between alternative grammatical constructions. In thematic meaning, the theme remains the same, but the order of two sentences many changes. Thematic meaning is mainly a matter of choice between alternative grammatical constructions.

Introduction to Linguistics

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3rd Semester

Week-13   Slide-104–107

Types of Meaning Relation:
Homonyms
Homograph
Homophones
Synonyms
Antonyms

Meaning Relation

Most of English words have homonyms, homophones, homographs, synonyms and antonyms.

1. Homonyms: Homonyms are words that have the same pronunciation and spelling, but have different meanings.
Homonyms, Homophones, Homographs, Synonyms and Antonyms
Bat (animal), Bat (baseball object), Can (be able), Can (put something in container)

2. Homographs/ Heteronyms: Homographs are words that have the same spelling, but different pronunciation and meaning, also called heteronyms. Live (living)   Live (of a broadcast) desert (land)Desert (to leave)

3. Homophones: Homophones are words that have the same pronunciation, but have different spelling and meaning.

Meet (to see)	Meat (the flesh of an animal)
Weak (not strong)	Week (a period of seven days)
See (to watch)	Sea (water)

Commonly Confused Homophones

Affect vs. Effect => Affect (verb) Effect (noun)

There vs. Their vs. they're => There (location) Their (possessive) They're (they are)

You're vs. Your => You're (you are) Your (possessive)

Other Commonly Confused Homophones

Accept/ except	Allowed/ aloud
Ant/aunt	Ball/bawl
Bear/bare	Board/bored
Brake/break	By/bye/buy
Capital/capitol	Clothes/close

4. Synonyms

Synonyms are words that are spelt and pronounced different but have the same or nearly the same meaning as another word.

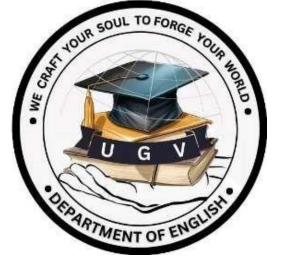|	
Big	Large
Correct	True
Near	Close

Antonyms

An antonym is a word that has opposite meaning of another word.

Old	Young
White	Black
Boy	Girl

Introduction to Linguistics

Course Code: ENG-0232-2109

3rd Semester

Week- 14   Slide-109-118

Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguists study the relationship between language and society. They are interested in explaining why we speak differently in different social contexts, and they are concerned with identifying the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning.
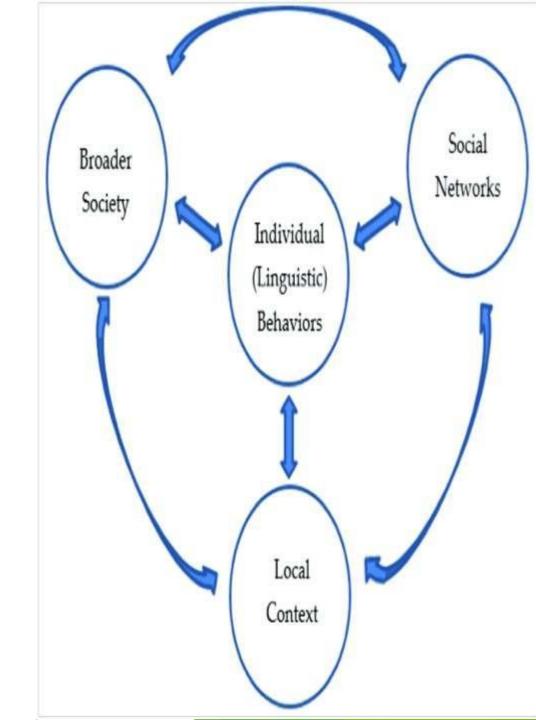
Factors affecting sociolinguistics

As we have said, sociolinguistics studies the social factors that influence how people use language, including grammar, accents, and lexical choices. The main social factors are: Geographical location, Occupation, Gender Our Parents Age. Socioeconomic status - class and education level Ethnicity etc.

Geographical location

Where you grew up can significantly impact how you speak. Linguists refer to these variations in language as **dialects**. In the UK, dialects vary from region to region and often have different pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary compared to Standard British English. Some common UK dialects include **Geordie** (found in Newcastle), **Scouse** (found in Liverpool), and **Cockney** (found in London).

Occupation

Your occupation can impact how you use language. For example, a computer programmer would be far more likely to use tech jargon than a chef. **Jargon** is a kind of slang specific to a workplace or small group and is often difficult for people outside the group to understand. An example of tech jargon is the term '*Unicorn*', which refers to a start-up company valued at over $1 billion.

Gender: This factor is a little more controversial than the others as there is a lot of conflicting research around the differences between men and women's use of language. Some researchers suggest that differences in speech are due to genetics, whereas others think that women's lower status in society has had an impacted on their use of language. Some studies have found that women tend to be politer and expressive, and men tend to be more direct. Other studies have shown that men swear more, and women are more likely to use 'caretaker speech' (speech modified to talk to young children) as they are often the primary caregivers.

Age: New words are added to the dictionary every year, and many words that were once common fall out of use. This is because language is constantly changing. Think about your grandparents or someone significantly older than you. Do you think they would understand if you told them that the email they received looked *suss* (suspicious/suspect)? What do you think they would say if you said their outfit was ***cheugy***?

Elements of sociolinguistics

In this section, we are not discussing the social factors that sociolinguists study, but the technical terms that feed into sociolinguistics. Some sociolinguistics terms.

Language variation - An umbrella term for all variations in a language. Language varieties are often referred to as 'lects', which are laid out below.

Dialect - a language variety based on geographical location.

Sociolect - a language variety based on social factors, such as age, gender, or class.

Idiolect - a language variety that is specific and unique to an individual.

Ethnolect - a language variety specific to a particular ethnic group.

Further key terms include:

Accent - how our voices sound, usually due to where we live.

Register - how we change the language we use depending on our circumstances eg. formal vs. casual speech.

Sociolinguistics - Key takeaways

Sociolinguistics is the study of the sociological aspects of language and is interested in society's effect on language.

William Labov (1927-present day), an American psychologist, is widely considered the founder of sociolinguistics.

Social factors that can influence our language include: geographical location, gender, our parents/carers, race, age, and socioeconomic status.
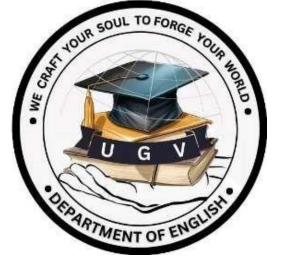
Sociolinguistics is interested in understanding language variation. Varieties within language include dialects, sociolects, idiolects, ethnolects, accents, and registers.

Sociolinguistics is widely considered a scientific discipline and sociolinguists utilise quantitative and qualitative research methods to study language use.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

Read more prep with Harshita

- **Cultural Values:** Words and phrases reflect societal norms.
- **Social Stratification:** Dialects and accents vary by region and class.
- **Technology and Media:** Social changes drive new vocabulary and usage trends.
- **Identity:** Regional dialects and sociolects.
- **Power:** Dominance of certain political, educational, and media languages.
- **Media:** Influence of language in shaping public opinion.
- **Globalization:** English as a global lingua franca.
- **Technology:** Emergence of internet slang and digital communication.
- **Migration:** Integration of loanwords into native languages.
- **Language Loss:** Endangerment of Indigenous and minority languages.

- **Language Discrimination:** Prejudice against accents or non-standard speech.
- **Access and Equity:** Language barriers in education and technology.
- Language and society are interdependent.
- Language reflects cultural values, identity, and social power.
- Understanding their relationship fosters cross-cultural communication and preservation.
- Facilitates communication and social interaction.
- Preserves cultural heritage and traditions.
- Shapes group identity and individual self-expression.

Introduction to Linguistics

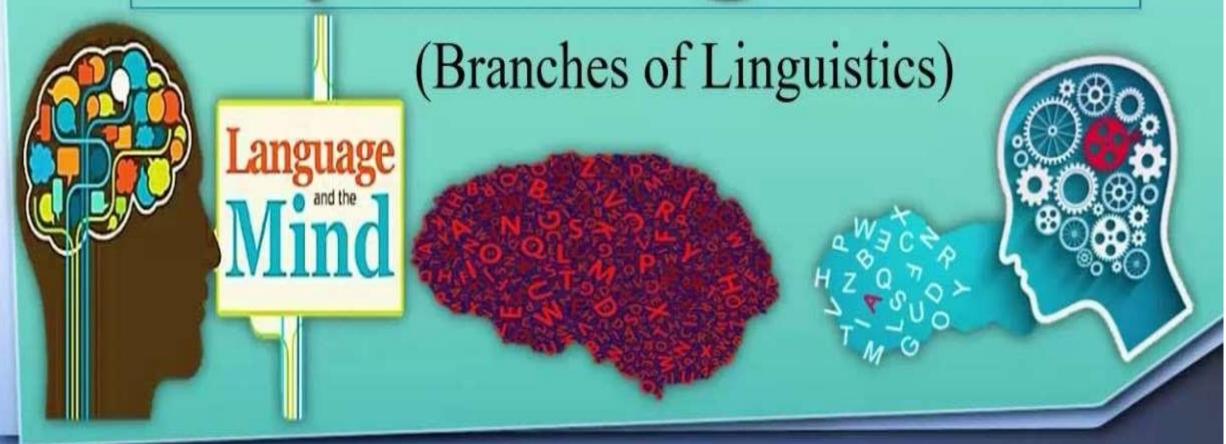## Course Code: ENG-0232-2109

3rd Semester

Week-15   **Slide-120-132**

Psycholinguistics

Language development stage

Branches of linguistics

First Language acquisition

Psycholinguistics
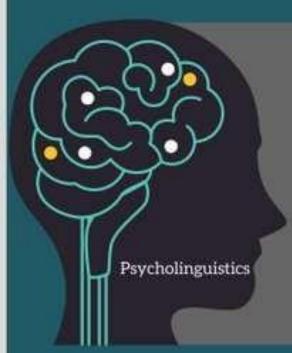
(Branches of Linguistics)

Psycholinguistics
(Or Psychology of Language)

It is the study of the interrelation between linguistic factors and psychological aspects. Put differently, it is a scientific study of mental processes and elements employed in language or studying factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend and produce language.

Psycholinguistics

Reference:
An Introduction to Psycholinguistics, Hojat Jodai and Dr. Barekat, The University of Guilan, 2011.
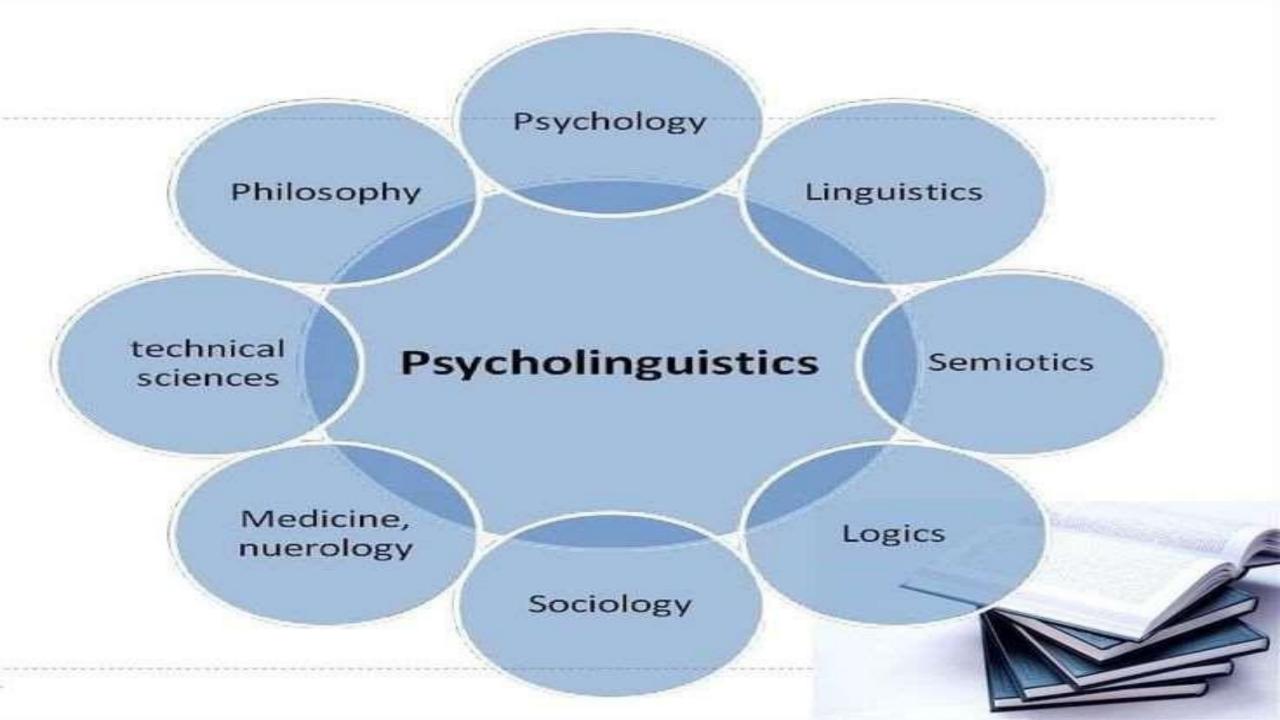
@HubofELSE

Psycholinguistics includes studying:

- Cognitive processes that underlie the comprehension and production of language.
- Processes that govern the development, use, and breakdowns of language.
- Perception, attention, motor planning and memory.

What is the purpose of Psycholinguistics?

Ultimately, psycholinguistics try to have a model that describes how language is processed in our brains. Some scientists, however, believe that this model will be universal (Chomsky and supporters of universality), while others believe that this model will be language specific.

1. Pre-linguistic stage

Also known as the pre-linguistic stage, the first stage of language development often occurs between zero and six months. Children in this phase don't have developed language skills, so they communicate with sounds. They cry, make cooing sounds and utter nasal murmurs as their vocal tracts develop. Infants can also recognize voices and sounds in addition to facial expressions and voice tones.
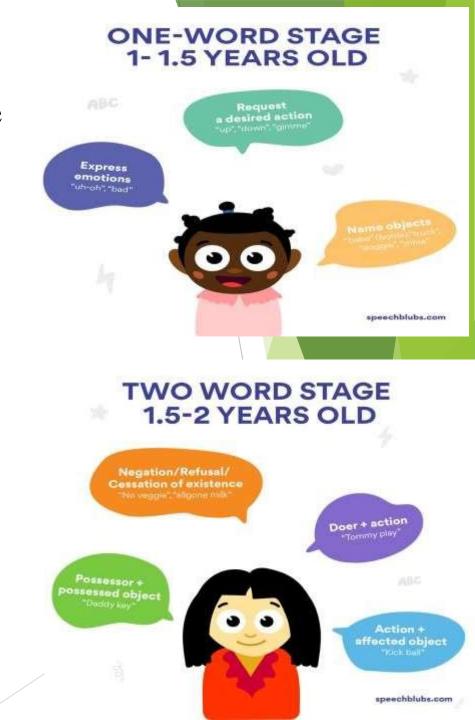
2. Babbling stage

The second stage of a child's language development happens between the ages of 6 and 9 months. Children begin to babble, making noises and syllables that aren't yet words. Mouth muscles and teeth grow to prepare children for more advanced talking.

3. Holophrastic stage

The third phase of language development, also known as the holophrastic stage, usually happens between the ages of 9 and 18 months. During this time, their language skills usually have increased enough for them to say single words that describe objects or identify their basic needs.

4. Two-word stage: During this stage, the child can speak two-word sentences that usually have some meaning. They group words together that they learned during the holophrastic stage. Some examples may include: Saying "more food" at the table/ Saying "doggy small" to describe a dog/ Saying "thank mom!" to show appreciation

ONE-WORD STAGE
1- 1.5 YEARS OLD

ABC

Request a desired action
"up", "down", "gimme"

Express emotions
"uh-oh", "bad"

Name objects
"ball", "bottle", "truck", "doggy", "gimme"

speechblubs.com

TWO WORD STAGE
1.5-2 YEARS OLD

Negation/Refusal/Cessation of existence
"No veggie", "allgone milk"

Doer + action
"Tommy play"

Possessor + possessed object
"Daddy key"

ABC

Action + affected object
"Kick ball"

speechblubs.com

5. Telegraphic stage:

The telegraphic stage occurs between the ages of 24 and 30 months. Children can speak phrases that are not only longer but also have more than two elements. For instance, a child might say "The cat stands up on the table." Correct grammar still isn't prevalent in this stage, but the sentence conveys that the cat is standing up in addition to being on the table. The child also develops the ability to understand basic instructions, including two-part orders like "go to your table and get your books."

6. Multi-word stage

Beyond 30 months, children enter the multi-word stage. They build increasingly complex sentences that allow them to better communicate their ideas. They also start to incorporate morphemes to make more semantically sound phrases. For instance, they know to use the word "dogs" instead of "dog" when referring to more than one dog. The telegraphic stage occurs between the ages of 24 and 30 months.

TELEGRAPHIC SPEECH

Refers to the two-word stage of language development.

ABC

Baby Read!

Mommy See!

speechblubs.com

First Language Acquisition

Theories of Language Learning is divided into two parts: Theories of First Language Acquisition and Theories of Second Language Development.

Language Acquisition

Language acquisition means the process by which human beings achieve the capacity to understand and realize language and also to produce and use words and sentences for communication. This is called a Language acquisition is one of the authentic and quintessential traits of human subconscious process in which the learners are only aware of communication. Language acquisition is one of the authentic and quintessential traits of human beings for without language human civilization is paralyzed. It usually stands for first language acquisition that studies child's native language acquisition beings for without language human civilization is paralyzed. It usually stands Acquisition is basically called an implicit learning that is ever lasted, and it is out and out distinguished from second language acquisition.
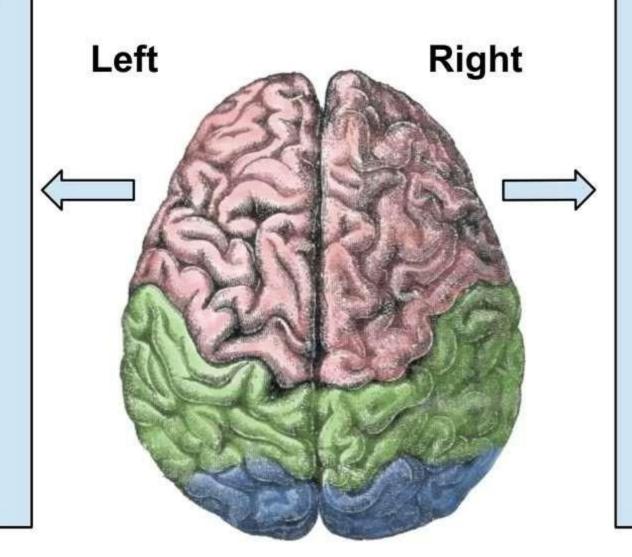
Language Learning: Language Learning refers to the process in which learners attain language capacity in linguistic procedure that means in a conscious effort by knowing the rules of grammar, memorizing vocabulary and not being aware of communicative purposes. This is a very difficult process for developing language skill. This is also called explicit learning that is not long lasted at all. Most of the second language learners strictly follow this process.

Theories of First Language Acquisition: Sundry theories have been proposed by various psychologists as to language acquisition. Here the major theories are: Behaviorism, in other words Behaviorist or Learning Theory, was introduced by American psychologist John B. Watson in 1913 and developed by Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov's 'Classical Conditioning', Skinner's 'Operant Conditioning' and Osgood's 'Meditation Theory'.

2. Mentalism, in other words Linguistic or Innatist Theory, is alternative to the behiourists' inadequate language learning explanation. This theory proves that language is autonomous and property of mind. The prime personality behind this theory is Noam Chomsky who illustrates that humans learn language by dint of internal capacity, and he describes this universal principles and linguistic knowledge of natural human language. 'Internal faculty' known as a 'Language Acquisition Device' (LAD) contains universal principles and linguistic knowledge of natural human language.

3. Cognitive theory means that normal children start their object performance, learn in many ways simultaneously and learn the world around them first. This is a reaction against the dominant innatist theory because a group of psychologists claimed that cognitive was the major guiding force behind language acquisition. This theory is called a temporal development because of not having complete international function
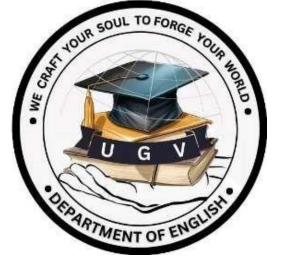
Brain Lateralization

Left

- Analytical thought
- Detail Oriented Perception
- Ordered Sequencing
- Rational Thought
- Verbal
- Cautious
- Planning
- Math/Science
- Logic
- Right Field Vision
- Right Side Motor Skills

Right

- Intuitive Thought,
- Holistic perception
- Random Sequencing
- Emotional Thought
- Non-verbal
- Adventurous
- Impulse
- Creative Writing/Art
- Imagination
- Left Field Vision
- Left Side Motor Skills

4. Social Interactionist Theory is a type of language acquisition theory that means that language is learnt by active interaction between child and environment. Here Chomsky's LAD, Brunner's LASS (Language Acquisition Socialization System) and watching Tv and listening Radio exist but not like critical period.

5. Maturation Theory or Critical Theory Hypothesis claims the critical period of language acquisition. The range of the period is completed in early puberty. This theory was introduced by Arnold Gessel in 1925. The theory concentrates on the course, the pattern and maturation growth in children.
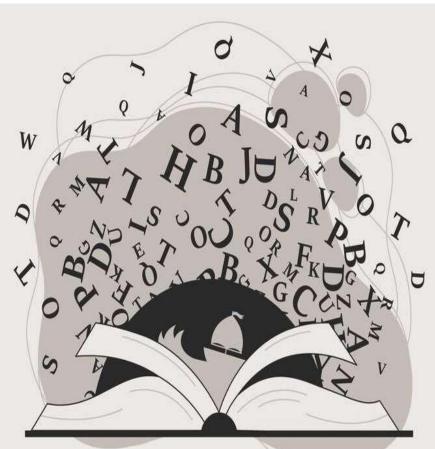
Introduction to Linguistics

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3rd Semester

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RECAPITULATION

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