Carolina, and Jacksonville, Florida, and the islands off that sea coast (South Eastern US). Creoles arise from so-called pidgins, which are highly simplified forms of language that allow speakers from two different languages, usually one of them culturally or economically dominant and thus used more widely (e.g. English, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, etc.), the other spoken locally, to communicate with each other. They use a small stock of vocabulary, usually from the dominant language, with the meanings extended to cover a wide variety of related meanings[2] and their sentence structure tends to be very simple and based on what the speakers' sentence structure would be like. Once these simplified languages, often used for trade or limited communication, are learned by a new generation as a first language, they become more complex in terms of vocabulary and they become more fixed in their sentence structures. In summary, whereas (16) demonstrate how English differs over time, (17) shows differences in terms of   and also, often implicitly, in terms of social stratification.

A final feature of language, and one that as students of language and literature we are clearly familiar with is its use for (cultural) enjoyment.

(18)   missed

out of work
divorced
usually pissed

he aimed
low in life
and
          missed

Roger McGough

The poem by Roger McGough plays with meanings and concepts like aims we may have in life, that we may miss a target we aim for and the fact that we usually describe worthwhile things in terms of height and failure with in adjectives like low; but it clearly also uses sounds such as alliteration in "low in life" as well as rhyme "pissed" and "missed" with a degree of playfulness not associated with a simple transmission of information. An important feature of language, especially for those who enjoy literature, is that it represents a source of enjoyment and even fun.

1.1.6 Types of language

In linguistics we can look at different types of language. The following list is by no means exhaustive, it is simply intended to give a general idea of what kind of language a linguist

---

[2] *bilong* thus means, *belong*, *of*, *along*; *pela* – from *fellow* – is *person* in the widest sense: *tripela* would mean *three*. "Papa bilong mipela" therefore means "my/our father" "kingdom bilong yu" means "your kingdom".

may explore. The most obvious forms of language that would come under consideration, especially for developing a grammar for use in education is represented in (19).

> (19a) Our centre has made every endeavour not to marginalise any members of this neighbourhood.
>
> (19b) Our center made every endeavor not to marginalize any members of this neighborhood.

Although (19a) and (19b) look identical at first glance there are noticeable differences. (19a) represents [ ] whereas (19b) is an example of [ ]. The difference lies mainly in orthography, but also in the more widespread use of the present perfect represented in (19a).

Another type of language of interest in linguistics is exemplified here:

> (20a) Y'all get yo sorry asses ouda this here car.
>
> (20b) Youse be'er bugger of oot av this coach.

The meaning is the same in both, a speaker is telling a group of people to leave a section of a train. (20a) has typical features of Southern American [ ] with a *y'all* as a *you* plural, which is unavailable in the standard, whereas (20b) with *youse* as the same pronominal reference is typical a Scottish or an English [ ] from the Border area. Other features seem to indicate the same region but as this is not given phonetically such an assumption must remain speculative. Other difference are the reference to the section of the train *car* vs. *coach* and the expression of impatience with the addressees.

A similarly different use of items of vocabulary and grammatical features is in evidence in (21):

> (21a) Would you be so kind as to vacate this carriage.
>
> (21b) Youse be'er bugger of oot av this coach.

Here the difference between the two ways of expressing the same concept is one of [ ]. (21a) represents an elevated and somewhat formal mode of expression, (21b) can be seen as rather informal. What is perhaps more important here, rather than the difference in style may also be that the two versions represent a difference in social markers. In this case we talk about a [ ].

Various forms of expressing oneself which owe nothing to either region or social class can also be observed in the way individual people express themselves.

> (22) My sufficiency has been elegantly suffonsified.

represents such a highly individualistic way of expressing oneself. Anecdotally this example was used by a grandparent of an acquaintance to say "I'm full-up", which is sometimes expressed by the rather overly formal "I have had an elegant sufficiency". The technical term for such an individualistic way of speaking, including with the creation of the word *suffonsified*, a so-called neologism, is [ ].

So far we have considered forms of English. Other kinds of language that we may study are

(23a) Ayr ain t'ayns niau, casherick dy row dt'ennym.

(23b) Ár n-Athair, atá ar neamh, go naofar d'ainm

(23c) Ar n-Athair a tha air nèamh, gu naomhaichear d' ainm.

All three examples belong to a group of Celtic languages known as the Goidelic group. (23a) is Manx, the language of the Isle of Man, (23b) represents Modern Irish and (23c) expresses the same meaning Scots Gaelic. Whereas Modern Irish and Scots Gaelic still have first language speakers, although in ever shrinking numbers, Ned Mandrell, the last known speaker of Manx died in 1974. In other words, Irish and Gaelic are ⬚ languages, Manx with no first-language speakers has to be considered a ⬚ language, like Latin or Ancient Greek.

What also commands considerable interest among language lovers are languages like (24) and (25) but for different reasons.

(24) Ash nazg durbatulûk, ash nazg gimbatul,
ash nazg thrakatulûk agh burzum-ishi krimpatul.
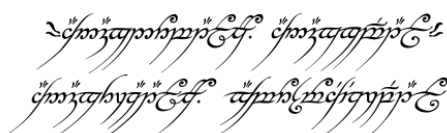
J.R.R.Tolkien, a medievalist created a whole range of languages for his Middle Earth, for which he used his expertise in Nordic and Celtic languages, "Black Speech" being one of them. Other examples of languages created like this are Na'vi for the film *Avatar*, Klingon in the *Star Trek* series and Dothraki in the HBO series *Game of Thrones*. This is different, however, for

(25) La knabo vidis la nigra hundo.

which is one of several language created with the purpose to make communication between speakers of different mother tongue easier. *Esperanto* mixes various European languages and has a very simple inflection system free of any "exceptions" that make life difficult for learners of natural language. Black Speech, Na'vi, Klingon, Dothraki, etc., are often also constructed by or with the help of linguists, but for "cultural" reasons. What they all have in common is that they are all ⬚ languages.

Each surah in the Koran except for the 9th begins

(26) Bismi Allahi arrahmani arraheem

بِسْمِ ٱللَّهِ ٱلرَّحْمَٰنِ ٱلرَّحِيمِ ۝
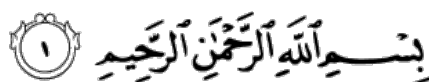
The Koran is clearly a religious text but it is also held in high regard by more secular thinkers for its fine writing. In other words, it represents not just a holy scripture but it also is seen as an instance of ⬚ .

Although the same to a degree applies to

> (27) Glory be to God on high
> And in earth peace, goodwill towards men,
>
> We praise thee, we bless thee,
> we worship thee, we glorify thee,
> we give thanks to thee, for thy great glory
> O Lord God, heavenly King,
> God the Father Almighty.

there is something that is a level of archaic usage alongside its specific place in the religious ceremony – it is a hymn – that is its distinguishing feature. Because of this, (27) represents an instance of [＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿] language.

The following example is interesting to a student of language for a different reason:

> (28a) Patrons are kindly requested to refrain from smoking.

> (28b) No smoking

Both (28a) and (28b) have the same meaning but they express it differently. To be more precise there is a difference in terms of [＿＿＿＿] or [＿＿＿＿＿＿] with the language in (28a) being more [＿＿＿＿＿] whereas in (28b) it is rather more [＿＿＿＿＿] .

Although the following are also two ways to express the same concepts in English there is a sizeable difference between them.

> (29a) a bilabial velaric click / a voiced glottal fricative

> (29b) smacking your lips / moan or sigh

(29a) would mean nothing to a non-linguist or to someone without any knowledge of vocal technique or anatomy. (29b) is much more accessible to language users in general, but the terms also present less detailed information. Whereas (29b) expresses the concept in laypersons' terms, (29a) requires the knowledge of specialised, subject-related vocabulary. It is an instance of [＿＿＿＿＿] or [＿＿＿＿＿＿] language/terminology.

The following examples also express the same concept in different ways.

> (30a) In the course of the relentless bombing huge numbers of defenceless women and children were blown to bits.

> (30b) In the bombardment there were heavy civilian casualties.

> (30c) In the servicing of soft targets there was collateral damage.

(30b) presents the information in the least "engaged" terms, doing so relatively unemotionally. (30a), by contrast, quite obviously shows the considerable involvement of the passionately indignant speaker whereas the speaker in (30c), by avoiding words like "bombardment" and by not referring to people or to the loss of life, can refer to the traumatic events avoiding or at least downplaying what might arouse a reaction of disgust or anger in the listener. What we are confronted here is [＿＿＿＿＿＿] language vs. a [＿＿＿＿＿＿] and/or [＿＿＿＿＿＿] or distanced use of language.

Another area of language study is to consider what the typical elements are in the language used in specific contexts or fields

> (31)   In the next game, from 30-30, he put a forehand wide and then another half way up the net. It was the first of seven breaks of the Federer serve as he squandered that break in the first set and then a double break in the second.

Several items of vocabulary, but also *collocations* like "put a forehand wide" or "squander a break" that clearly identify this excerpt from the bbc.co.uk website as a text about   .

Even if we do not recognise

> (32)   I wandered lonely as a cloud
> That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
> When all at once I saw a crowd,
> A host, of golden daffodils;
> Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
> Fluttering and dancing in the breeze.

as Wordsworth's probably most famous piece of writing "The Daffodils", the rhymes, the regular rhythm but also imagery like the "crowd" or "host" of flowers "dancing" in the wind as well as the line breaks characterise this instance of language use as the language of ☐.

The next example,

> (33)   Removing the apical buds removes the source of growth-inhibiting chemicals, so the buds behind it are able to grow into shoots.

may sound rather confusing to anyone who does not know anything about pruning fruit trees. The reference to "buds", "growth" and "shoot" however are an indication that this text is about ☐.

There are also pointers in (34) that make it clear what kind of a text type this is:

> (34)   so if your message ain't shit, fuck the records you sold
> cuz if you go platinum, it's got nothing to do with luck
> it just means that a million people are stupid as fuck

The orthography ("cuz"), the grammar and vocab ("your message ain't shit"), the choice of words in general, but also the rhythm and rhyme, make it clear that this excerpt must be a ☐ .[3]

There are also "pointers" as to what kind of language we are concerned with in

> (35)   Printers that don't use proprietary vendor codes communicate with computers using one or more of three major printing protocols. The communication is done over a hardware cable that can be a parallel connection (printer port) or a serial connection (COM port).[4]

Such pointers are words like "codes", "protocols", "hardware", "serial connection", etc. They clearly place this instance of language use in the ☐ domain.

Pointers or a different kind help us identify the type of language we encounter in

[3] http://rapgenius.com/Immortal-technique-industrial-revolution-lyrics#note-54214
[4] http://docs.freebsd.org/doc/4.3-RELEASE/usr/share/doc/en/books/corp-net-guide/x28.html

(36) Man, you're like a total breadhead, that's such a bummer.

Here it is expressions like "breadhead" to refer to someone who is concerned with (earning) money and "bummer", a turn-off, that are reminiscent of the way young people spoke in the second half of Sixties and the first half of the Seventies. Either of these expressions are no severely dated and used mainly for comical impact. Interestingly enough, "total" is still used as an intensifier and so is the marker "like". The selective datedness of some elements and the continued vigour of others are typical for this kind of language use, of what is often referred to as [   ], in particular [   ], which sounds really odd ("like totally weird") when used by the wrong people at the wrong age.

The pointers in

(37) r u smart bcoz i need some1 smart :)

are of a very different nature. First of all, unlike the other instances of language use, this clearly relies on being a written medium as "r", "bcoz" and "some1" cannot be readily pronounced. The smiley emoticon also is only possible in a written medium. Furthermore, this instance of language use relies on brevity as a necessary feature, something that is fairly unique to texting with its constraints in terms of characters and the traditional awkwardness of composing text messages with a number pad. But like texting also emails between friends or contributions to chats and instant messaging rely on speed and thus brevity, for which a certain amount of orthography and punctuation is sacrificed, but compensated for with the codified use of symbols to express how the message is to be taken, similar to a facial expression in oral face-to-face communication. This text type therefore shares features of informal oral interaction and written language, which is typical for [   ].

Other types of language we might want to study are directly linked to specific speakers and the abilities or limitations they typically show. Here two examples will have to suffice. The first is an interesting instance because without further information it is not clear if it is an infant or her/his carer that would say

(38)   Milk allgone?

to express that there may be no more milk. Small children's way of speaking is quite unique and it usually goes through a number of stages that can be predicted quite accurately. (38) is relatively typical of a first attempt by infants to combine what they consider units of meaning, thus laying the groundwork for sentence building to follow later on. Very often carers will imitate such combinations as in (38), leading to the possible question whether it is the carers that are responsible for some typical combinations as we have it in the example. We characterise such instances of early language use as [   ] and the way in which carers may speak to children as [   ].

Another instance of language use specific to certain speakers manifests itself in

(39) Well this is … mother is away here working her work o'here to get her better, but when she's looking, the two boys looking in the other part. One their small tile into her time here. She's working another time because she's getting, too.

Here a patient with a brain lesion is attempting to describe a picture in which a mother in the kitchen[5] is drying the dishes while two children are stealing some cookies behind her back. Without this information, utterance (39) is virtually incomprehensible, this instance of language use being an example for ⬚, in this case ⬚ language.

To conclude this rather sketchy tour of the kinds of language or types of language use we can research as students of language we also need to take into consideration the various examples of (16) and (17) as representative for the use of language over time and in very different regions of the Earth.

1.1.7 What does language consist of?

In order to be able to develop an understanding of how language works, in other words, to study the linguistics of a given language (English in our case) we need to break the phenomenon down into manageable elements. Each of these elements might represent a field of linguistic study. The table below (once again, not exhaustive for reasons that will become clear in 2.1) represents a possible way in which we can break an individual language down into such elements.

1.
• [p] [b] [t] [d]   ꝑ ƀ t ꝺ   *p b t d* • **p**en / **b**en / **t**en / **d**en
2.
• pen / pens / penned / penlike / pen-friend / penman / penmanship
3.
• the pen • the mighty pen • the pen is mightier than the sword • she penned a first novel, which was about her family, when she was in her early twenties.
4.
• **pen:** 1 (noun): a) a writing implement, b) an enclosure for animals, c) an enclosed play area for toddlers, d) a prison, e) a female swan 2 (verb): a) write a literary text, b) enclose or keep in a pen
5.
• That the pen be mightier than the sword may be counter-intuitive. There are several instances in history, however, where a tract or a treatise has at least contributed to unleashing momentous events, for instance Abbé Sieyès pamphlet "Qu'est-ce que le tiers-état?" (What is the Third Estate?) and the beginning of the French Revolution …

---

[5] The picture can be seen at http://www.rachaelanne.net/teaching/psych/aphasia_HO.doc

6.
• "Yo ol' man, he been in de pen too long." • Your progenitor's confinement to a correctional facility has been of a considerable duration.

A slightly different approach would be to look at the elements which a language consist of in somewhat less lay-person's terms. This will be done in the following subsection 1.2.

1.2 Linguistics as the Study of Language

1.2.1 A basic division: theoretical study and applied exploration

So far we have encountered a difference in the way in which linguists might approach their subject, i.e. in terms of whether they look at a longitudinal development of a given language or whether they explore the state of a language at a specific point in time, in other words, whether they choose to look at language diachronically or synchronically. However, there is also another division: Do we look at language as an entity, what this entity consists of and how its component parts work, or do we look at language or languages as a phenomenon in use and therefore linked to its/their users.

The former approach assumes an idealisation of the language as a system, as well as an artificial, idealised language user (Chomsky in fact talks of the "idealised speaker listener"), who has perfect mastery of the language and does not make mistakes; furthermore, this speaker is monolingual. The focus is on explaining how the language and its component parts work, the sound system, the way in which the language is written, the way its words are constructed, how words are combined into meaningful and well-formed utterances, what its words mean and how the language logically has meaning. What all this suggests is that this approach is rather theoretical.

If this first approach could be compared to pure or theoretical maths, by contrast, the second approach is more like practical physics in the sense that it uses the theoretical tools of pure maths, but applies them to real life phenomena that do not always comply with the theory but whose methodology and the findings are often close enough to it to allow sensible conclusions. Thus the second approach looks at a variety of issues, listed here a little unsystematically: how speakers acquire a language, how they may lose it, how speakers can be taught other languages, how they use language to structure relationships, what we can gather from the way people speak about their origins, their background, their aspirations, how language is stratified and how it changes through negotiation, how speakers of different variants of a language or of different languages interact with each other, etc.

Whereas the first approach looks at language in its micro-elements, the second approach looks at language in more comprehensive, and by definition more interdisciplinary terms.

1.2.2 From language to linguistics

If we consider what we have discussed so far, we can broadly list the elements that make up a language into two categories, which largely correspond with the notion of the basic division mentioned above. We can see language as an entity in itself with an underlying system that works on a number of levels, from the basic building blocks of sounds and letters to the way in which we form texts. On the other hand, we can analyse language in terms of how it is manifests itself in practice, when we will see it as a fluctuating, self-defining system that is constantly negotiated in its use and that is inevitably subject to variation and change, which comes into existence because of the way the individual speakers use it.

A way to illustrate this and then to apply it to the fields of study in linguistics is the following table. We begin by listing the various elements in the two main categories of language (Table 2-1); this approach is loosely based on Crystal (2009: 2-3), which is a very useful starting point.

Elements of language				Use/Variations of Language	
	graphic elements	speech sounds		variation	
	writing system	sound system			
	building blocks for words			/ variation	
	meaning of words			variation	
	combination rules for phrases and sentences				
				variation	
	combination of sentences	"turns" in a conversation		duration	change

Table 1-1 Language in terms of elements and use/variation (based on Crystal 2009)

If we take the above, on the one hand, as representing the elements that make up language as an entity, and, on the other hand, the ways in which language is used, which inevitably leads to practical deviations from the theoretical "idealisations", and deduce from this model of language elements and language use the various areas of linguistics (table 2-2).

"Linguistics"					
Elements of language				Use/Variations of Language	
Graphology	Phonetics			variation	Psycholinguistics Neurolinguistics
	Phonology			/ variation	Dialectology Sociolinguistics
Morphology				variation	Sociolinguistics Sociology of Language
Semantics				variation	Historical Linguistics
Syntax					
Text Linguistics	Pragmatics Discourse / Conversation Analysis			duration: approach	change: approach

Table 1-2 Fields of linguistics

However, as with all neat subdivisions, of course, the reality is somewhat more complex and there are areas of language analysis that fall into either or both categories. Consider, for instance, language philosophy, which explores areas that can belong to either of the categories, depending on the focus of the language philosopher in question. The same applies, perhaps even more so, to pragmatics and text linguistics as they may well focus on language in a relatively abstract manner and use a methodology that relies to a considerable degree on language theory, but clearly focus on language in use. However, apart from methodological considerations, in the disciplines of the left-hand column there is often strong tendency towards formulating findings in terms predictability. To put it more simply, in theoretical linguistics we often look for models that can explain certain language phenomena, also in terms of language manifestations that have not taken place yet. Theoretical linguistic analysis tends to work with idealised forms of language (consider Chomsky's idealised speaker listener) and often with relatively limited data, which need not be linked to a specific instance of language use. It has been said, for instance, that Chomsky analysed language with an amount of data which could be fitted on a blackboard.

The disciplines in the right-hand column, by contrast, clearly often also aim for predictability, but, as it can be quite elusive at times, it need not be the final objective in research; predictability is often limited to tendencies because of the complexity and diversity of language in use and the situations in which this occurs, which often is so individual and so specific that a generalisation, which is the aim of theoretical methods, is simply not possible. For this reason, one could argue that these two areas referred to above, pragmatics and text linguistics could be represented also in the right-hand column.

Considering the interdisciplinary nature of the study of language, the fact that we use language in so many fields that go beyond the outline presented in tab. 2-2, it comes as no

surprise that what can be covered in linguistics is very varied indeed. The illustration below (fig. 2-1) represents the dual approach of section 2.1: the study of language theory as the central element of the circle, the exploration of how we can apply linguistic findings in practice shown in the outer circle as further fields of linguistics. It does so in considerably more detail than the model presented above, but as many, indeed, most of these areas of application of linguistics are highly specialised, we can simply acknowledge for the moment that they exist but their discussion in an introduction of this kind would lead too far.
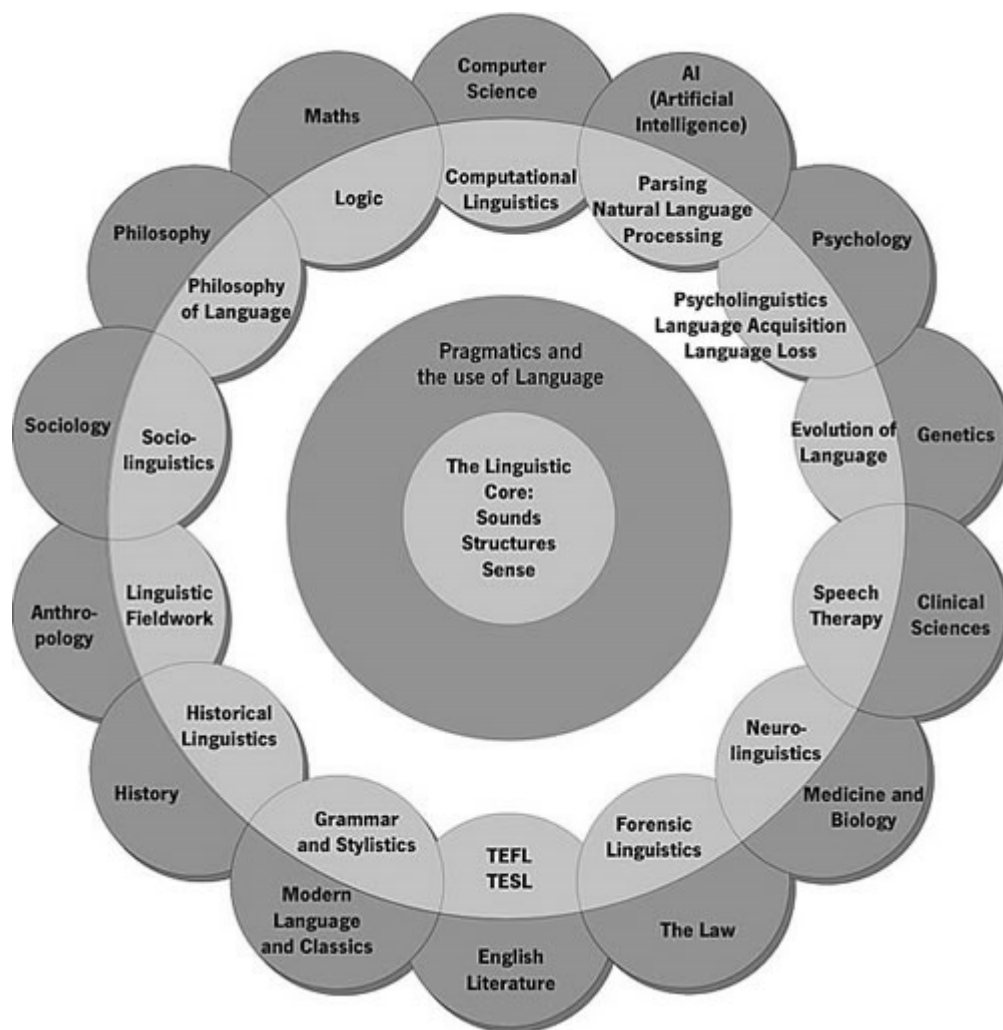
Figure 1-5 The Interdisciplinary nature of Linguistics (www.philology-upatras.gr/en/department/glossology)

1.2.3 Focus of the next chapters

In this Introduction to Linguistics, we will focus largely on the theoretical approach to the study of language. We will follow the system presented earlier (in 1.1.7). However, we will (at least in the parts where there is a choice between spoken and written manifestations of language) concentrate on the spoken variety. This means that graphology and the study of writing systems, fascinating as it is, will be left to other study courses and/or to the

individual student. An interesting and entertaining overview is presented in *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language* by David Crystal (2005).

The sequence of topics of this introduction will look like this:

1.2.3.1 Sounds of language I: Phonetics

We will firstly study how speech sounds are produced, look at how we can describe them and then develop the system for representing speech sounds in writing.

1.2.3.2 Sounds of language II: Phonology

In a second step we will look at how speech sounds are part of a specific system, that of the English language: how do they relate to each other, what are the ways in which they can/cannot be combined. Here we will also look at how speech sounds combine into larger units and explore patterns of which elements will be particularly noticeable.

1.2.3.3 Building blocks of words: Morphology

In Morphology we will examine the way in which words in English are composed. We will also find about the various categories which words can belong to and how they can change from one such category to another. Lastly we will consider the strategies English uses to create (new) words.

1.2.3.4 Word meaning: Semantics

Although meaning clearly goes beyond the word level, for the time being we will start by looking at what words express and how they do this. In this consideration we also are concerned with the various layers of meaning, such as the objective vs. the emotive meaning of words, but we will also consider variation, sameness and overlap of meaning as well as opposite meanings of certain words.

1.2.3.5 Combination rules for phrases and sentences: Syntax

In this part of the introduction we will look at the way words are combined into phrases and what the constituents of sentences are; this is the structure of sentences. This will be tied in with the way in which we can assign functions in the sentence to these structural elements. Clearly there is a fair amount of overlap with the Modern English Grammar course and cross-references will be made.

1.2.3.6 Beyond the sentence/ turns in conversation: Pragmatics

This part deals with the way in which sentences are combined into discourse or into a conversation (although, of course, sentences in writing tend to be overtly closer to the laws

of syntax than utterances in conversation, which are often characterised by false starts or elliptical production of sentences.[6]

Pragmatics is also concerned with language production in an actual situation such as in the conversational exchange between interlocutors (people involved in a conversation, speaking, listening and thus interacting with each other). In this context we will learn that in order to express a concept we may never actually use any words that refer to this concept.

1.3 Key Terms

systematicity of language	
creativity of language	
Langue / Parole	
Competence / Performance	
game analogy	
grammar	
prescriptive / prescriptivism	
descriptive / descriptivism	
well-formedness	
diachronic	

---

[6] i.e. sentences that are not complete in a prescriptively grammatical sense.

synchronic	
microlinguistics	
macrolinguistics	
idealised speaker-listener	
graphology	
phonetics	
phonology	
morphology	
semantics	
syntax	
pragmatics	

1.4 Exercises and questions

1. Using the *game analogy*,

    a. what is the *de Saussurian* concept for an individual game that is played?

    b. what is the Chomskyan term for the rules of the game?

    c. what would the term *parole* correspond with in Chomskyan terms?

2. Language is both systematic and creative.

    a. Which concepts show the systematic nature of language?

    b. Illustrate in what way language is creative.

3. If you see a book with the title *English Grammar for Foreign Language Learners* what type of grammar would you expect?

4. Which approach to the study of language do you expect from the following book titles:

    a. *African-American Vernacular English: developments since the Second World War*

        diachronic / descriptive

    b. *The Language of Gaming Chat Rooms*

    c. *English from Beowulf to the Canterbury Tales*

    d. *Accents and Speech Styles of Beatles Songs from 1962 till 1970.*

5. What can you say about these utterances?

    a. did he go yet?

    b. has he goed yet?

    c. he gone yet?

6. In the following identify what kinds of language you are dealing with and what the cues are that tell you this.

    a. … The soil tends to be warmer which promotes root growth, and — unlike with spring planting — there's not the potential of a long, hot, dry summer facing the young upstarts.

    b. Turn the idle speed adjuster screw next to the throttle cam with a flat head screwdriver until the engine idles smoothly without stumbling at the lowest possible engine revolutions per minute. Turn the screw clockwise to reduce idle speed and counterclockwise to increase idle speed.

    c. … the knight's unique, non-straight pattern of movement creates two advantages: it allows a knight to attack other pieces without fear of being captured by them; and it enables a knight to make jumps and deliver threats that are surprising to the eye and so are easy to overlook.

    d. Play the Tinker Tailor Soldier Spy soundtrack and the NAD glides through the elegant and mournful music with a good attention to detail. Play the track Esterhase, and each note is delivered with precision and subtlety.

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