

**English Department**

**Forth Stage/ Linguistics – 2<sup>nd</sup> course**

**Lecturer Hanaa A. Suleiman**

## **Chapter 16 writing**

### **The development of writing**

**Writing:** is the symbolic representation of language through the use of graphic signs.

Writing is a system that is not simply acquired but has to be learned through sustained conscious effort.

-Some languages do not have written form.

### **Types of writing**

#### **Pictograms and ideograms**

**1.Pictograms (pictographic writing):** is a writing phenomena. It is a way of writing in which a picture/ drawing of an object is used to represent the object.



-When pictures came to represent particular images in a consistent way, we describe this product as a form of picture-writing 'pictograms'.

**-pictograms** are figures, which are language independent and can be understood with some conventional meaning in different places where a number of different languages are spoken.

**2.Ideogram (ideographic writing):** a way of writing in which each symbol represents a concept. It is part of a system of idea writing. It has an abstraction away from the physical world.

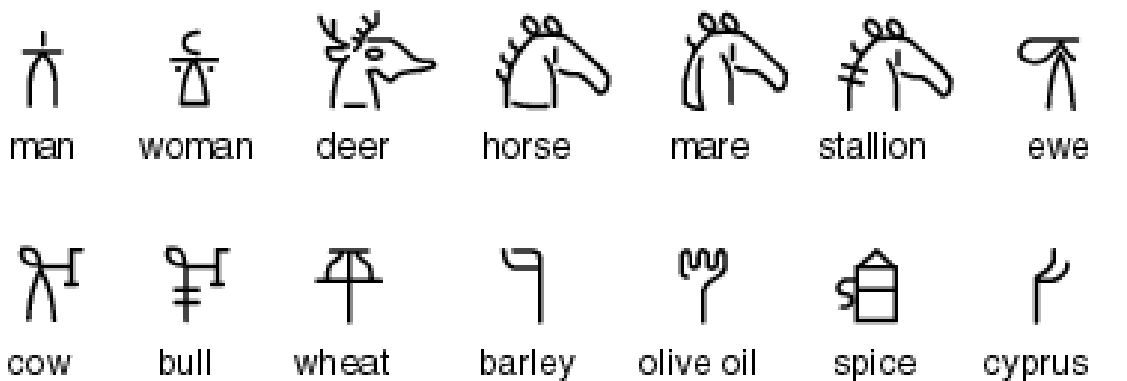


Ideograms is the use of a representative symbol that everyone should use to convey a roughly similar meaning.

-The more picture- like forms **are pictograms** and the more abstract derived forms **are ideograms**.

**3.Logograms (logographic writing):** a way of writing in which each symbol represents a word. They are symbols to be used to represent words in a language. They can be described as word-writing.

**Logograms** refer to the written form that gives no clue to what type of entity is being referred to. The relationship between the written form and the object it represents has become arbitrary and have no a clear example of word- writing.



**Cuneiform:** a way of writing created by pressing a wedge- shaped implement into soft clay.

**Characters:** forms used in Chinese writing.

**Rebus writing:** a way of writing in which a pictorial representation of an object is used to indicate the sound of the word for that object.

**Syllabic writing (syllabary) :** The symbol that is used for the pronunciation of parts of a word represents a unit (ba) consists of a consonant sound (b) and a vowel sound (a). This unit is one type of syllable.

-A way of writing in which each symbol represents a syllable.

Accordingly, when a writing system employs a set of symbols, each one representing the pronunciation of a syllable, it is described as **syllabic writing**.

-In the early nineteenth century, a Cherokee named Sequoyah, living in North Carolina invented a syllabic writing system that was widely used within the Cherokee community to create written messages from spoken language.

**Syllable:** a unit of sound consisting of a vowel and optional consonants before or after the vowel.

**Alphabetic writing:** a way of writing in which one symbol represents one sound segment.

-when we have a set of symbols being used to represent syllables, e.g., b sound and m sound, then you are very close to a situation in which the symbols can be used to represent single sound types in a language. Therefore, this basis of alphabetic writing.

### **Alphabet**

-is a set of written symbols, each one representing a single type of sound or phoneme.

**Consonantal alphabet:** a way of writing in which each symbol represents a consonant sound.

Such Semitic languages such as Arabic and Hebrew, where the reader adds vowel sounds and the origins of the alphabet for writing Semitic languages in the consonantal alphabet system are traced back to the Phoenician writing system (syllabic writing). And the system of writing the phoenix syllables moved (syllabic writing) to Greece, where they developed it into an alphabetical system To include vowel sounds, and

from Greece it moved to Western Europe through Rome and was subjected to modification to suit the requirements of the spoken language, and the Roman alphabet became the writing system used in English. The other path of development moved from Greece to Eastern Europe, where they spoke the Slavic languages, and the writing system became called the Cyrillic alphabet, which is the system used in Russia.

### **Written English**

The origins of the alphabetic writing system were based on a correspondence between a single symbol and a single sound type. So one must ask that why there is such a frequent mismatch between the forms of written English (you know) and the sounds of spoken English (yu no or /ju nou/. Other languages (Italian, Spanish) have writing system that hold much more closely to the one- sound- one symbol principle of alphabetic writing. English orthography (spelling system) is not always so consistent.

## **English orthography (spelling)**

It is the spelling system of a language. It is subject to a lot of variation in how each sound is represented, because English language is full of words borrowed from other languages such as Greek and German often with their spelling. For example, the sound /ph/ in *alphabet* and *orthography* are used for single sound /f/. a combination of two letters consistently used for a single sound as the last example and this is called **digraph**.

-There is a difference in the English language between written and spoken language, and it has several reasons, including the entering of printing in the fifteenth century, where the first printers were from the Netherlands, which affected the correct pronunciation, and the correction process was carried out in the sixteenth century by referring to the old English words depending on their Latin origin.

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## **Chapter 17**

### **Language history and change**

**Philology:** investigating the features of older languages and the ways in which they developed into modern languages (the study of language history and change).

### **Family trees**

-Sir William Jones described the Sanskrit, the ancient language of Indian law that it is a wonderful structure, more perfect than the Greek, more copious than Latin.

-Sir William stated that a number of languages from very different geographical areas must have some common ancestor. This ancestor had to be hypothesized on the basis of similar features



existing in records of languages that were believed to be descendants.

-During the nineteenth century, a term came into use to describe that common ancestor. It was the original form (proto) of a language that was the source of modern languages in the Indian subcontinent (Indo) and in Europe (European) Proto-Indo- European.

**Proto- Indo- European:** It is hypothesized the original form of a language that was the source of many languages in India and Europe.

-Scholars set out to identify the branches of the Indo- European family tree, tracing the lineage of many modern languages. Indo- European is the language family with the largest population and distribution in the world, but it isn't only one. There are about thirty such language families. Many of these languages are in danger of extinction while a few are expanding. In terms of number of speakers, Chinese has the most native speakers (about 1 billion), while English (about 350 million) is more widely used in different parts of the world.

## **Family connections**

Some languages are related by close similarities. One way to get a clearer picture of how they are related is through looking at records of an older generation, like Latin and Sanskrit, from which the modern languages evolved. For example, if we use familiar letters to write out the words for **father and brother**, in Sanskrit, Latin and Ancient Greek some common features become apparent. So that close similarities (in pronunciation of words) is good evidence for proposing a family connection.

## **Cognates**

**(words in different languages that have a similar form and meaning e.g. English friend and German freund)**

It is a process that used to establish a possible family connection between different languages. Within groups of related languages, we can often find close similarities in particular sets of words. A cognate of a word in one language (e.g. English) is a word in another language (e.g. German) that has a similar form and is or was used with a similar

meaning. The English words **mother**, **father** and **friend** are cognates of the German words **Mutter**, **Vater** and **Freund**.

On the basis of these cognates, we would imagine that Modern English and Modern German have a common ancestor in what has been labeled the Germanic branch of Indo- European.

### **Comparative reconstruction**

-It is the creation of the original form of an ancestor language on the basis of comparable forms in languages that are descendants. This process operates on the basis of some principles:

**1.The majority principle:** the choice of the form that occurs more often than any other form in the set of descendant languages. For example, in a cognate set, three words begin with a [p] sound and one word begins with a [b] sound then our best guess is that the majority have retained the original sound [p].

**2.The most natural development principle:** the choice of older versus newer forms on the basis of commonly observed types of sound change. The

direction of change can be described in each case from (1-4) :

1. final vowels often disappear (vino → vin)
2. voiceless sounds become voiced, typically between vowels (muta → muda)
3. stops become fricatives (ripa → riva)
4. consonants become voiceless at the end of words (rizu → ris)

## **Sound reconstruction**

### **Languages**

<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	
Cantare	cantar	chanter	(sing)
Catena	cadena	chaine	(chain)
Caro	caro	cher	(dear)
Cavallo	caballo	cheval	(horse)

If we were faced such examples, we could make a start on comparative reconstruction by looking at the initial sound in the original source of all three.

The written forms can be misleading, we see that the initial sounds of the words in languages A and B are all [k] sounds, while in language C the initial sounds are all [ʃ] sounds. On the evidence presented, the majority principle would suggest that the initial sound [k] in languages A and B is older than the [ʃ] sound in language C. the [k] sound is a stop consonant and the [ʃ] sound is a fricative. According to one part of the "most natural development principle", change tends to occur in the direction of stops becoming fricatives, so the [k] sound is more likely to have been the original.

## **Word reconstruction**

### **Languages**

1	2	3	Proto- forms	
Mube	mupe	mup	_____	(stream)
Abadi	apati	apat	_____	(rock)
Agana	akana	akan	_____	(knife)
Enugu	enuku	enuk	_____	(diamond)

These examples are a set of cognates from three related languages which are a non – Indo – European, but what would the proto- forms have looked like?

By using the majority principle, we can suggest that the older forms will most likely be based on language 2 or language 3. If this is correct, then the consonant changes must have been [p]→[b], [t]→[d] and [k]→[g] in order to produce the later forms in language 1.

By applying the (most natural development principle) i.e voiceless sounds become voiced between vowels. So the words in languages 2 and 3 must be older forms than in language 1.

(most natural development) The words in language 3 have lost the final vowels which is still present in the words of language 2.

-the forms listed for language 2 are closest to what have been the original proto- forms.

## **The history of English**

The reconstruction of proto-forms is an attempt to determine what a language must have been like

before any written records. When we have written records from an older period of a language such as English, they may not resemble to the written form of the language found in today's newspapers.

## Old English

The primary for the development of English language were the Germanic languages spoken by a group of tribes from northern Europe who moved into the British Isles in the fifth century. These tribes of Angles, Saxon and Jutes, were described as "God's wrath toward Britain".

From the name of the first tribe that we get the word for their language *Englisc* and their new home *Engla-land*. From these early versions, now it is called **old English**, we have many terms such as, mann (man), wif (woman), etc.

These pagan settlers gave us some weekday names, commemorating their God's *Woden* and *Thor*. But they did not remain pagan for long. From the sixth to the eighth century there was an extended period through converted Christianity names and religious. Then during the eighth to tenth centuries another group of northern European came first to

plunder and settle in the regions of Britain. They depend on the Old Norse language.

## **Middle English**

It starts from the arrival of the Norman French in England, following their victory at Hastings under William the Conqueror. These French-speaking invaders became the ruling class. So the language of government and law is French. The language of peasants is different from the language of upper class.

## **Sound change**

Some sounds disappeared from the pronunciation of certain words (sound loss). The initial [h] of many old English words was lost, as in *hlud* → *loud* and *hlaford* → *lord*. Some words lost sounds but kept spelling, resulting in the "silent letters" of contemporary written English

The sound change known as **metathesis** involved a reversal in position of two sounds in a word. This type is illustrated in these versions:



Acsian→ ask    frist→ first    brided→ bride  
hrose→ horse

The reversal of position in metathesis can sometimes occur between non- adjoining sounds. The Spanish word *palabra* is derived from the Latin *parabola* through the reversal of the [l] and [r] sounds.as in the following :

Latin	Spanish
Miraculum →	milagro ("miracle")
Parabola →	palabra ("word")
Periculum →	peligro ("danger")

Another type of sound change, known as **epenthesis**, involves the addition of a sound to the middle of a word.

amtig→ empty    spinel→ spindle    timr→ timber

other type of sound change worth noting, it involves the addition of a sound to the beginning of a word and it is known as **prothesis**. It is a common feature in the evolution of some forms

from Latin to Spanish, as in the following examples:

schola → escuela ("school")

spiritus → espíritu ("spirit")

Spanish speakers who are starting to learn English as a second language will sometimes put a prothetic vowel at the beginning of some English words. As in words, *strange* and *story* may sound like "*estrange*" and "*estory*".

### **Syntactic change**

The most noticeable differences between the structure of sentences in Old and Modern English involve the word order. We find the subject- verb-object order most common in modern English, but we can find a number of different orders that are no longer used. For example, the subject could follow the verb, as in *ferde he* (he traveled) and the object could be placed before the verb, as in *he hine geseah* (he saw him) .

Another form for the syntactic change is that the use of the negative also differs from Modern English, since the sequence \*not gave (ne sealed) is

no longer grammatical. A double negative construction was also possible, as in the following examples, where both *ne* (not) and *nafre* (never) are used with the same verb. We would now say (you never gave) rather than \*you not gave never.

*And ne sealdest pu me nafre an ticcen*

**And not gave you me never a kid**

There is also the loss of a large number of inflectional suffixes from many parts of speech. In the previous examples, the forms *sealde* (he gave) and *sealdest* (you gave) are differentiated by inflectional suffix (-e, -est) that are no longer used in Modern English.

### **Semantic change**

The most obvious way in which Modern English differs from Old English is in the number of borrowed words that have come into the language since the Old English period. Many words have ceased to be used. We no longer carry swords (most of us, at least) the word *foin*, meaning "the thrust of a sword" is no longer heard. A common Old English word for "man" was *were*, but it has

fallen out of use, except in horror films where the compound *werewolf* occasionally appears.

-Two other processes are described as "**broadening**" and "**narrowing**" of meaning. An example of **broadening** of meaning is the change from *holy day* as a religious feast to the very general break from work called a *holiday*.

We have broadened the use of *foda* (fodder for animals) to talk about all kinds of food. Old English words such as *luflic* (loving) and *hrad* (quick) not only went through sound change, they also developed more complex evaluative meanings (wonderful and preferentially) as in their modern uses: *That's a lovely idea, but I'd rather have dinner at home tonight.*

The reverse process, called **narrowing** has overtaken the Old English word *hund*, once used for any kind of dog, but now, as *hound*, used only for some specific breeds. Another example is *mete*, once used for any kind food, which has in its modern form *meat* become restricted to only some specific types.

## **Diachronic and Synchronic Variation**

**Diachronic variation** means differences resulting from change over a period of time, in contrast to synchronic.

**Synchronic variation** means differences in language form found in different places at the same time, in contrast to diachronic variation.

-The changes that happened to the language were happened gradually . some of these changes caused by wars, invasions and other upheavals, the most pervasive source of change in language seems to be in the continual process of cultural transmission.

-Each new generation has to find a way of using the language of the previous generation. So in this unending process whereby each individual child has to "recreate" the language of the community.

-It should be expected that languages will not remain stable and that change and variation are inevitable.

-we have concentrated on variation in language viewed **diachronically**, from the historical perspective of change through time. The type of

variation that can be viewed **synchronically** in terms of differences within one language in different places and among different groups at the same time.

**English Department**

**Forth stage/ linguistics**

**Second course**

**Lecturer Hanaa A. Suleiman**

## **Chapter 18**

### **Language and regional variation**

**-Linguistic geography:** the study of language variation based on where different varieties of the language are used. There is a single variety of each language in everyday use. Every language has a lot of variation, especially in the way it is spoken. If we look at English, we find widespread variation in the way it is spoken in different countries such as Australia, Britain and the USA.

-We can find a range of varieties in different parts of those countries, with Lee Tonouchi's account of "Trick- O-Treat" in Hawai as just one example.

## **The standard language**

It is The variety of a language treated as the official language and used in public broadcasting, publishing and education. It is more easily described in terms of the written language (i.e. vocabulary, spelling, grammar) than the spoken language. It is actually idealized variety , because it has no specific region.

## **Accent and dialect**

**Accent:** the aspects of pronunciation that identify where a speaker is from, regionally or socially, in contrast to **dialect**. We all speak with an accent whether one accent is good or other accent is bad. Some speakers have easily recognized types of accent while others may have more subtle or less noticeable accents, but every language – user speaks with an accent.



**Dialect:** the aspects of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of a variety of a language, in contrast to **accent**. Dialect variation in the meaning of grammatical constructions are less frequently documented.

### **Dialectology**

-The study of dialects. It is to distinguish between two different dialects of the same language (whose speakers can understand each other) and two different languages (whose speakers can't understand each other).

-From a social point of view, some varieties do become more prestigious. The variety that develops as the standard language has one socially prestigious dialect. This development of dialect is a center of economic and political power (e.g. London for British English and Paris for French).

## **Regional dialects**

The existence of different regional dialects is recognized as the source of humor for those living in different regions.

There is a specific investigation of regional dialects in order to know the speakers of the original dialect. so the informants in the major dialect surveys of the twentieth century tended to be **NORMS** or 'non- mobile, older, rural, male speakers'. Such speakers were selected because those speakers were less likely to have influences from outside the region in their speech in addition to other reasons.

## **Isoglosses and dialect boundaries**

Isogloss is a line on a map separating two areas in which a particular linguistic feature is significantly different, used in the study of dialect.

For example, the vast majority of informants in one area say they carry things home from the store in (a paper bag) while the majority in another area say they use (a paper sack). So it is possible to draw a line across a map separating the two areas.

## **The dialect continuum**

It is the gradual merging of one regional variety of a language into another.

A very similar type of continuum can occur with related languages existing on either side of a political border. As you travel from Holland into Germany, you will find concentrations of Dutch speakers giving way to areas near the border where "Dutch" may sound more like "Deutsch" because the Dutch dialects and the German dialects are less clearly differentiated.

Speakers who move back and forth across this border area, using different varieties with some ease, may be described as (bidialectal) speaking two dialects. Most of us use one dialect among family and friends and another dialect in school.

## **Bilingualism and diglossia**

Bilingualism is the state of having two languages. For example, Canada is an officially bilingual country with both French and English as official languages.

Individual bilingualism doesn't have to be the result of political dominance by a group using a different language. It can be the result of having two parents who speak different languages. If a child acquires the French spoken by her mother and the English spoken by her father then the distinction between the two languages may not be noticed by the child.

Diglossia is a situation where there is a 'high' or special variety of a language used in formal situations (e.g. Classical Arabic) and a 'low' variety used locally and informally (e.g. Lebanese Arabic).

### **Language planning**

It means choosing and developing an official language or languages for use in government and educational system. It is when there are many languages in the same country so the role of the government is to depend on its language planning to choose an official language.

Language planning passed through different stages:

1. selection/choosing an official language

- 2.codification/ to use dictionaries and written models for the standard variety.
- 3.elaboration/the appearance of literary works written in the standard.
- 4.implementation/ a matter of government attempts to encourage use of the standard.
- 5.acceptance/ the final stage that the majority group of population have come to use the standard.

### **Pidgins and creoles**

Pidgins is a type of variety of language that can be used by a specific group of people for the purpose of trade. It is a simple language and a kind of contact among people who did not know each other's languages.

Creoles/ when a pidgin develops beyond its role as a trade or contact language and become the first language of social community. Creoles have large numbers of native speakers and not restricted at all in their uses.

## **The post- creole continuum**

In many countries there was development from a pidgin to a creole this is known as **creolization**, there is now retreat from the use of the creole by those who have greater contact with a standard variety of the language, where education and greater social prestige are associated with 'higher' variety (e.g. British English in Jamaica)

When a number of speakers will tend to use fewer creole forms and structures, this process known as **decrolization**. This range of varieties evolving after (post) the creole has come into existence and this is called the post- creole continuum.

College of Arts/ English Department

Fourth class/ linguistics

Second semester

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## Unit 19

### **Language and social variation**

#### **Introduction**

Not everyone in a single geographical area speaks in the same way in every situation. There are certain uses of language, such as the slang language, which can be found in the speech of some individuals in society but not others.

**Slang language**/ words or phrases used instead of more conventional forms by those who are typically outside established higher status groups (e.g. bucks for dollars).

**Speech community**/ a group of people who share a set of norms and expectations regarding the use of language.

**Sociolinguistics**/ the study of the relationship between language and society. It can be developed through the interaction with other disciplines.

## **Social dialects**

It is concerned with the speech of the speakers in towns and cities. It is concerned with the social class that is used to define groups of speakers as having something in common.

In Social class of dialect, we treat class as the social variable and the pronunciation or word as the linguistic variable.

## **Education and occupation**

Everyone of us has a specific way of speaking or a personal dialect.