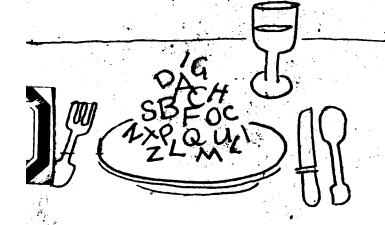
J.M.Y.Simpson A First Course in Linguistics.



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Preface

This is an introductory textbook for those with no knowledge of linguistics. It was designed as background for students receiving specialised courses of lectures; but it may equally well be used by the interested reader working alone.

The principal aim is of course to outline something of contemporary linguistics; yet I envisage other objectives. For example, I am concerned to impart awareness of the diverse phenomena found in natural languages: students of linguistics must not remain content with a knowledge limited to the patterns of the more commonly taught European tongues (and regrettably even this is denied to many educated in English-speaking countries). Secondly, I hope my readers will be stimulated to examine with new ears and eyes those languages they already know. Furthermore, since various schools of linguistics exist, it must be made clear that there is no 'correct' approach and that questions concerning the nature of linguistic theories and their comparison arise, even though they cannot be dealt with in this book. Above all, those being introduced to linguistics will, I trust, be encouraged to read primary texts, aided by an appreciation of a wider perspective in which to view them.

A first textbook cannot survey all the activities that have been or are being carried out by linguists (nor would that be desirable) and only a restricted number of topics is handled in the present volume; my selection has been governed by the need to expound not only that which I consider most important but also that which has gained general fame (or notoriety), though to some extent these categories coincide. Underlying the presentation is a conviction that knowledge of a subject's historical development is crucial to an appreciation of its contemporary state. Indeed it may not always be possible to apply the word 'outmoded' to a linguistic approach save in a purely chronological sense.

I may not agree with every linguistic viewpoint I describe, yet while I have had no qualms about inventing my own illustrations and examples, I trust that I have explained the arguments of others without distortion. Suggestions for further reading, including much primary literature, follow the text of the present chapters. And suggestions are also given for reading in areas of linguistics not

covered in this book, for it is unfortunately possible to encounter advanced students (and scholars of other disciplines) who suffer from linguistic tunnel-vision and imagine that one particular linguistic school or other is the only valid approach: I am concerned to dispel such ignorance. Since not everyone is conversant with the still indispensable technical terms of traditional grammar, a glossary of these is given.

A linguist of all people will not deny the truth of Donne's famous metaphor 'No man is an Iland', least of all one who undertakes a book like this. Many people have contributed wittingly or unwittingly to the present volume, and it is they who should be thanked for all that is good in it.

My debts in matters linguistic cannot be repaid to the late C.T. Carr, my beloved mentor in Germanic letters and philology; to Edward Ullendorff, whose kindness not only enabled me to behold the Aladdin's Cave of Semitic philology, but introduced me to the works of de Saussure, Trubetzkoy, Sapir and Bloomfield; and to my teachers (later colleagues) in the University of Edinburgh, particularly to David Abercrombie, whose lucidity of thought and independence from mere fashion are matched by brilliant teaching and generous encouragement of his students.

Complete drafts of earlier elephantine versions of this book were read by David Abercrombie, Geoffrey Leech and R.H. Robins, all of whom made many detailed observations, and sections of various lengths were scrutinised and commented on by Jacques Durand, John Fox, Thomas MacCaffrey, M.K.C. MacMahon, M.L. Samuels, Peter Swinbank and W.S.-Y. Wang. These kind friends saved me from lapses into incomprehensibility, from errors and from idiocies. and must not be blamed for any blunders that I may have introduced despite their help, or for any particular points of view I express. Encouragement to write, and to continue, was entertainingly given by various people, particularly Sheila MacCrindle and above all Peggy Drinkwater. John Fox undertook the chore of compiling an index. Cecily Smith deserves the utmost praise for typing imperturbably and accurately innumerable drafts from typescripts and manuscripts of my own, all illegibly palimpsestuous. And my students over the years, as every teacher will empathise, have contributed to my own understanding to an extent that would astonish them if they but knew. To everyone I have mentioned I am humbly grateful.

J.M.Y. Simpson Glasgow, November 1978

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Transcriptional Conventions

Asterisks are prefixed to unrecorded forms (including both conjectural reconstructions and impossibilities).

Square brackets enclose phonetic or partly allophonic transcriptions and slant lines phonemic transcriptions (see Chapter'8).

Examples from languages written in the Roman alphabet are given in their usual orthography followed by a more or less phonemic transcription in phonetic symbols. (For an explanation of these see the list of *Phonetic Symbols* opposite.) Occasional examples are given only in orthography, and these may read as though written in phonetic symbols (except that Latin $c = \frac{k}{and} \frac{du}{du} = \frac{kw}{h}$).

Ancient Greek appears in a transliteration which may be read as our phonetic symbols. Sanskrit appears in the conventional transliteration which may be read as our phonetic symbols, except that $\tilde{n} = /p/$, n = /n/, y = /j/ and long vowels are marked by a bar, e.g. $\tilde{a} = /\alpha z/$. Other languages normally written in non-Roman scripts are quoted here only in phonetic symbols.

The use of other symbols is explained in the course of the text. Linguistic examples drawn from English are not generally prefixed by the

Phonetic Symbols

- unrounded open front vowel, as in RP hat; primary CV symbol. a unrounded open back vowel, as in RP balm; primary CV symbol. α rounded open back vowel, as in RP pot; secondary CV symbol. D
- voiced bilabial plosive, as in bee.
- b voiced bilabial implosive, as in Hausa bauna, 'buffalo'. В
- voiced bilabial fricative, as in Spanish saber, 'to know'. β voiceless palatal plosive, as in Hungarian tyuk, 'chicken'.
- С voiceless palatal fricative, as in German ich, 'I' and some Ç pronunciations of hue.
- voiceless alveolo-palatal fricative, as in Polish, środa, 'Wednesday'. G
- rounded half-open back vowel, as in RP caught; primary CV symbol. э d voiced alveolar plosive, as in day.
- voiced retroflex plosive, as in Hindi das, 'ten'; Swedish mord, 'murder'. d
- ð voiced dental fricative, as in those.
- unrounded half-close front vowel, as in French the, 'tea'; Sc. English е day; primary cv symbol.
- unrounded half-close central vowel, as in second syllable of some Sc. 9
- English pronunciations of after; not official cv symbol. unrounded half-open central vowel, as in first syllable of RP about; Э 'float' symbol (sometimes called shewa /[ə'wa/).
- unrounded half-open front vowel, as in get; primary CV symbol.
- unrounded half-open central vowel, as in RP earth; not official CV 3 symbol.
- rounded half-open central vowel, as in some RP pronunciations of world; Amharic wer, 'month'; Swedish föra, 'to lead'; not official cv symbol.
- f voiceless labio-dental fricative, as in far.
- voiced palatal plosive as in Hungarian egy, 'one'. J
- voiced velar plosive, as in gun. g
- voiced uvular plosive, as in Persian tsonga: zi: 'when the judge'. G
- represents a series of voiceless vowels, as in heel, hill, ham, whom. h voiceless pharyngal fricative, as in Arabic hamala, 'carried'. ħ
- represents a series of breathy-voiced vowels, as in Czech hlas, 'voice', ĥ and in some RP pronunciations of e.g. behave.
- voiced lip-rounded labial-palatal approximant, as in French huit. ų
- unrounded close front vowel, as in see; primary CV symbol. i
- unrounded close front vowel, as in fill; 'float' symbol.
- unrounded close central vowel, as in Amharic giß, 'goal'; Russian sin, 'son'; cv symbol.

Phonetic Symbols

- j voiced palatal approximant, as in ves.
- k voiceless velar plosive, as in cow.
- voiced alveolar lateral, as in law.
- voiceless alveolar fricative lateral, as in Welsh Ilan, 'church'.
- m voiced bilabial nasal, as in mow.
- unrounded close back vowel, as in Scots Gaelic aon, 'one'; Rumanian git, 'neck'; Vietnamese cú', 'advance'; secondary cv symbol.
- n voiced alveolar nasal, as in now.
- n voiced palatal nasal, as in Italian segno, 'sign'.
- y voiced velar nasal, as in sing.
- η voiced retroflex nasal, as in Swedish korn, 'grain'; Malayalam enna,
- N voiced uvular nasal, as in Eskimo anut, 'male person'.
- rounded half-close back vowel, as in Sc. English rope; French peau, 'skin'; German Not, 'need'; primary cv symbol.
- rounded half-close central vowel, as in Swedish *upp*, 'up', not official CV symbol.
- rounded half-close front vowel, as in German Söhne, 'sons'; French deux, 'two'; secondary cv symbol.
- rounded half-open front vowel, as in German Götter, 'gods'; French peur, 'fear'; secondary cv symbol.
- or rounded closish back vowel, as in General American and RP pull; 'float' symbol.
- ψ voiceless bilabial fricative, as in Japanese φωκω, 'to blow'.
- p voiceless bilabial plosive, as in paw.
- q voiceless uvular plosive as in Arabic (not Egyptian) qalb, 'heart'.
- voiced alveolar trill as in Spanish red, 'net'; Italian burro, 'butter'.
 voiced alveolar tap, as in Spanish pero, 'but'; South African Engli
- voiced alveolar tap, as in Spanish pero, 'but'; South African English bread: some Sc. English pronunciations of red, for; sometimes in RP over-eat.
- voiced retroflex flap, as in Hindi gari, 'cart'.
- voiced alveolar fricative-trill, as in Czech řeka, 'river'.
- J voiced post-alveolar fricative, as in some Sc. English bread; as approximant symbol, as in RP red.
- voiced retroflex approximant, as in Amer. English string.
- Noiced uvular trill, as in French cabaret singer's pronunciation of rouge, 'red'.
- voiced uvular fricative, as in Persian besa: 'zi, 'to the judge', Parisian French rouge.
- s voiceless alveolar fricative, as in see.
- f voiceless palato-alveolar fricative, as in she.
- voiceless retroflex fricative, as in Swedish kors, 'cross'.
- voiceless alveolar plosive, as in tea.
- voiceless retroflex plosive, as in Hindi ata 'flour'; Swedish fart, 'speed'.
- alveolar ejective, as in Amharic ajit' 'rat'.
- u rounded close back vowel, as in fool: primary cv symbol.
- rounded close central vowel, as in Norwegian hus, 'house'; Amharic wul, 'agreement'; some Sc. English look.

Phonetic Symbols

- v voiced labio-dental fricative, as in row.
- A unrounded half-open back vowel, as in but; secondary cv symbol.
- w voiced lip-rounded labial-velar approximant, as in wail.
- woiceless lip-rounded velarised bilabial fricative, as in Sc. English whale.
- x voiceless velar fricative, as in Sc. English loch; German Buch, 'book'.
- χ voiceless uvular fricative, as in French prêtre, 'priest'.
- y rounded close front vowel, as in French pur, 'pure'; German für, 'for'; secondary CV symbol.
- k voiced palatal lateral, as in Italian figlio, 'son'.
- y voiced velar fricative, as in Scots Gaelic *dhomh*, 'to me': Spanish *luego*, 'place'.
- z voiced alveolar fricative, as in zoo.
- z voiced alveolo-palatal fricative, as in Polish *ile*, 'badly'.
- yoiced palato-alveolar fricative. as in leisure.
- z voiced retroflex fricative, as in Pekingese Chinese 'zən, 'man'.
- v unrounded half-close back vowel, as in Vietnamese o, 'remain'.
- θ voiceless dental fricative, as in *thigh*.
- ? glottal stop, as in German geöffnet, 'opened'; Arabic al?ami:r, 'the prince'.
- n, t, etc. are consonants with dental (not alveolar) articulation.
- n, t, etc. are palatalised consonants.
- s, i, etc. are velarised consonants.
- a, e, etc. are vowel sounds closer than those of the cardinal vowel symbols.
- a, n, etc. are voiceless vowels or consonants.
- marks stress where necessary and is written before the stressed syllable, as in English in spekt or in spect.
 - is written where necessary under a syllabic consonant or vowel, as in some English 'bath, RP 'startas.
- n marks a silent stress.
- : long vowel or consonant.
- half-long vowel or consonant.

For the explanation of technical terms, see Chapter 7.

accidence: the study of the various word-endings used in declensions and conjugations.

active: see voice.

adjective: a word such as good, turbulent, gustatory; often defined as a word which modifies or describes a noun. Closed subsets of adjectives include interrogative adjectives: in English which and what (e.g. Which bird killed Cock Robin?); demonstrative adjectives: this, these, etc. (e.g. This chair is uncomfortable); possessive adjectives: my, your, etc. (e.g. Your tiny hand is frozen); and the relative adjective which (e.g. The Dean resigned, which action was very welcome).

adverb: a word such as often, almost, peremptorily; often defined as a word which modifies or describes a verb, adjective or preposition.

article: in English there are two: the definite article the and the indefinite article a or an.

aspect: see tense.

case: a factor in the variant forms of a noun, pronoun or adjective in a declension.

clause: a group of words containing a verb but nevertheless not forming a sentence, e.g. because he was too honest.

complement: e.g. in His grandmother was elected president and His grandmother was in full possession of her faculties, the terms president and in full possession of her faculties are the complements of was elected and was respectively; often defined as the word or phrase used to complete the meaning of another word or phrase.

conjugation: the set of all the variant forms of an individual verb, expressing differences of number, person, tense, mood and voice, e.g. in Latin amo 'I love', amabimini 'you (pl.) will be loved', amaverimus 'we shall have loved'. The total number of such forms in Latin is about 100.

conjunction: a word such as and, but, when, unless: often defined as a word which links other words, phrases or sentences.

declension: the set of all the variant forms of an individual noun, pronoun or adjective, e.g. in Latin:

glis: 'a dormouse'. glires: 'dormice'.

nominative case, usually denotes the subject of a sentence.

glis: 'oh dormouse!'. glires: 'oh dormice'.
vocative case, used when addressing someone or something.

glirem: 'a dormouse'. glires: 'dormice'.

accusative case, often denotes the object of a sentence.

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gliris: 'of a dormouse'. glirium: 'of dormice'.

genitive case, usually denotes the possessor of something.

gliri: 'to a dormouse'. gliribus: 'to dormice'.

dative case, often denotes the recipient in a transaction.

glire: 'by a dormouse'. gliribus: 'by dormice'.

ablative case, often denotes an instrument of an action.

There are five main declensional patterns in Latin; not one of these has a distinctive ending for every case. Almost every case carries a wider range of uses than indicated above.

- gender: a factor in the declension of adjectives; e.g. Latin magnus honor 'great honour' is masculine; magna arbor 'large tree' is feminine; magnum cor 'big heart' is neuter. Since this declensional variation is dependent on the noun which the adjective modifies, gender is posited as a feature of nouns; therefore honor is said to be masculine. arbor feminine, and cor neuter. Pronouns may show the gender of nouns which they 'replace', so hic, haec and hoc may respectively replace honor, arbor and cor. A similar situation is seen in English he, she and it.
- gerund: in English certain words ending in -ing, e.g. in Drinking tea makes one ill; it functions as a noun in being the subject of makes but also as a verb in taking the object tea.
- interjection: a word such as oh, ouch, wow; often defined as an exclamatory word which indicates emotion.

intransitive: see verb.

- mood: a factor in the conjugation of a verb, e.g. in Latin amare 'to love' is infinitive mood; amat 'he is loving' is indicative mood; amet is subjunctive mood appearing automatically after certain conjunctions or by itself meaning 'let him love!'; ama is imperative mood, giving the command 'love!'
- noun: a word such as hatter, hare, tea-pot, erudition, recitation, Alice, Mafeking; often defined as the name of a person, animal, place or thing.
- number: a factor in declensions or conjugations, e.g. in Latin the singular number very often indicates 'one' (e.g. glis 'a dormouse'; dormiebat 'it was sleeping') and the plural number very often indicates 'more than one' (e.g. glires 'dormice'; dormiebant 'they were sleeping').
- object: e.g. in Kenneth ate the bun and Kenneth gave his sister the bun the words the bun represent the object (or direct object), often defined as the word or phrase designating the person or thing to which an action is directed; his sister is sometimes called the indirect object, defined as the recipient or beneficiary of an action.
- participle: e.g. smiling in The duke was smiling and The smiling duke spoke (a present participle active) or lost in The purse has been lost and The lost purse has turned up (a past participle passive); often defined as a verbal form which has adjectival characteristics.

passive: see voice.

person: a factor in verbal conjugations and in pronouns. The first person is defined as referring to the speaker, e.g. Latin nato 'I am swimming',

- ego 'I'; the second person as referring to the hearer, e.g. natas 'You are swimming'. tu 'you (sg.)'; and the third person as referring to the person spoken about, e.g. natat 'he is swimming', ille 'that man' or 'he'.
- phrase: e.g. the facts, under the bed, my old English manservant: may be defined as a sequence of words which forms some sort of a coherent group but does not contain a verb.
- predicate: everything (apart from any words in the vocative case) in a sentence which is not the subject; e.g. was late, skidded, contained the lecturer and his wife, was found abandoned are all predicates of those sentences which have The taxi as subject; it may be defined as what we say about the subject, or as the word or group of words that affirms or negates a property, condition or action of the subject of the sentence.
- preposition: a word such as above, under, to, with, from; defined as a word placed in front of a noun or pronoun to show its relation to other words in the sentence.
- pronoun: e.g. personal pronouns I, you, he, she, it, we, they; interrogative pronouns who? (e.g. Who killed Cock Robin?), what?; demonstrative pronouns this, that (e.g. That was not my wife); relative pronouns who, which (e.g. Sheila, who paints landscapes, also sings exquisitely); possessive pronouns mine, yours, etc., e.g. That armchair is mine; often defined as a word used to replace a noun.
- sentence: a sequence of words such as Babylon the great is fallen; often defined as a group of words which makes complete sense, sometimes with the condition that it must contain a verb. Actually to define sentence in a way which does not beg questions or which is not immediately circular is extraordinarily difficult, perhaps impossible.
- subject: e.g. the words The taxi in The taxi was late, The taxi skidded, The taxi contained the lecturer and his wife, The taxi was found abandoned; defined as the person or thing which is spoken about, or the agent performing the action (if the verb is active), or the person or thing on whom the action is performed (if the verb is passive).
- syntax: the study of how words are put together in phrases, clauses and sentences.
- tense: is a factor in conjugations which refers to the time of the action described relative to the moment of description. Latin has six tenses, namely present rideo 'I am laughing', imperfect ridebam 'I was laughing' or 'I used to laugh'; future ridebo 'I shall laugh'; perfect risi 'I have laughed' or 'I laughed'; pluperfect riseram 'I had laughed'; future perfect risero 'I shall have laughed'. The first three convey an imperfect aspect since they do not indicate the end of the action denoted by the verb, the last two express a perfect aspect since the end of the action is clearly indicated; the form risi is therefore ambiguous, as the English translation shows. The systems of tense and aspect vary greatly from language to language.

transitive: see verb.

verb: a word such as is, seems, laughs, smokes, makes; often defined as a type of word which expresses an action, process, state, condition or xvi

mode of existence. Transitive verbs are followed by a direct object (e.g. loves in David loves cheese); intransitive are not (e.g. snores in Matilda snores loudly).

verbal noun: sometimes applied to e.g. poisoning in The poisoning of the Principal remained an unsolved mystery. It is 'more of a noun' than the gerund, since preceded by the and followed by of.

voice: a factor in conjugations, e.g. in Latin mordeo I am biting is active voice, mordeor I am being bitten is passive voice; it may be defined as the category which expresses whether the subject of the verb is the agent of the action (active) or whether it is the target of the action (passive).

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1. Introduction

To define in one sentence an area of study so that one explains something of its nature may be impossible: what could be a short, informative definition of mathematics, chemistry or philosophy? Linguistics is such a subject. We can only offer a definition and then enlarge upon it; the remainder of this book is an expansion of the statement that linguistics is the study of human language according

to certain principles developed during this century. I

Linguistics is sometimes defined as the 'scientific study' of language, but there is no point in using 'science' or 'scientific' in this context without a clear idea of what these words mean. We omit from this book all discussion of whether linguistics, or any area within it, may be regarded as a science; such a discussion requires some knowledge of linguistics and an agreed definition of 'science', for opinions vary about the meaning of this tricky word. Admittedly, in Chapter 6 we quote the defining characteristics of a science, as understood by one distinguished linguist; but not everyone would agree with his views.

An area of study passes through historical stages. During each stage most practitioners are in general agreement about the object of the study, about the general aims of it and the methods employed, and about the problems that remain to be solved. Each period may of course have its share of 'non-conformists'.²

Any period is, according to its own standards, just as 'reasonable' as any later one, and it may interpret phenomena equally well. In the Ptolemaic ('sun revolves round earth') view of the universe, the rising of the sun may be predicted as precisely as in the Copernican ('earth revolves round sun'). In the absence of a telescope, how could we choose between these theories? Indeed, for limited purposes, an earlier and simpler view may be retained without disadvantage: it does no harm to regard electricity as 'something flowing from positive to negative' when we are wiring a circuit or fitting plugs. Moreover, no theory can be shown to be 'true' even though it is of immense practical utility and interprets many phenomena; it may always be superseded by another that interprets more. For example, Newton's system of physics (in the light of which the great technological developments of the nineteenth

1