实用英语语言学

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Contents

Ⅴ

Chapter 5   Meaning

Chapter 6   Schools of Modern Linguistics

Chapter 8 Language and Culture

involved in being a speaker-hearer, in "knowing a language". From the "externalist" point of view the linguist treats his material as any other scientist does, observing, classifying, seeking underlying regularities, constructing hypotheses to be tested against further data in order to validate descriptions already made (7-8). Followings are the procedures of linguistic study.

(1) linguistic facts observed;

(2) generalizations made about the linguistic facts;

(3) hypotheses formulated to account for the linguistic facts;

(4) the hypotheses tested by further observations;

(5) linguistic theories of language constructed.

1.1.3 The Scope of Linguistics

The scope of linguistics covers many different areas of study. An important topical division is between the study of language **structure** (grammar) and the study of **meaning** (semantics and pragmatics). Grammar encompasses **morphology** (the formation and composition of words), **syntax** (the rules that determine how words combine into phrases and sentences), **phonetics** (is concerned with the actual properties of speech sounds (phones), non-speech sounds, and how they are produced and perceived and **phonology** (the study of sound systems and abstract sound units). The study of meaning can be divided into two categories: **semantics** (explores the meaning of linguistic units, typically at the level of words, phrases or sentences, whether or not they correspond to simple propositions such as "The bird ate the worm" or to more complex structures as in "John saw the bird eat the worm" or "John says he thinks the bird ate the worm" (Verschueren, 2000:2) and **pragmatics** (the study of

3

sis and moved to the analysis of the system of language. Saussure formed the fundament of modern linguistics. **Diachronic linguistics** views the historical development of a language. A diachronic study of language is historical study, which studies the historical development of language over a period of time. **Synchronic linguistics** views a certain state of a language at some given point in time (see Figure 1-1). No comparisons are made to other states of language or other times.

today

synchronic axis

1500

1066

449
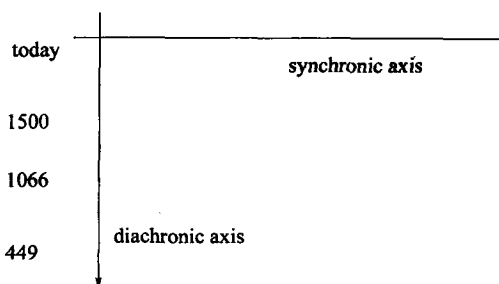
diachronic axis

Figure 1-1   Diachronic vs Synchronic Axis

Modern linguistics, following Ferdinand de Saussure, is primarily interested in the *synchronic* point of view. In modern linguistics, *synchronic* study seems to enjoy priority over *diachronic* study. The reason is that unless the various states of a language are successfully studied it would be difficult to describe the changes that have taken place in its historical development. *Synchronic* descriptions are often thought of as being descriptions of a language as it exists at the present day and most linguistic studies are of this type. Saussure postulated linguistic research must concentrate on the structure of language. Later, the whole paradigm was hence called *structuralism*

6

According to Figure1-1, when we look at the structure of language, we examine the relationships of all elements of a sentence to one another from synchronic view which is **syntagmatic analysis**. We ask ourselves exactly what element appears where and under which condition in a sentence. For example, where do nouns appear? Where are auxiliary verbs applied? All word classes show certain *syntagmatic* relationships. They can be defined by *distribution analysis*, a method that classifies elements according to their appearance within the linear order of a sentence. For example:

A + _____ + *crosses* + *the* + *street* .

Obviously, a noun must appear in the blank space, for example:

A *woman* crosses the street.

Of course, nouns and verbs are not all the same. They do not fit into contexts freely. Then we apply **paradigmatic analysis**. In our example, the idea of a sandwich crossing the street is impossible. The elements of language obviously evince *paradigmatic* relationships. Elements can be substituted by others of the same *paradigmatic* class, such as "street", "lane", "road", etc. Articles can also be exchanged. Words that belong to the same *paradigmatic* class thus belong to the same grammatical class. They also belong to the same *lexical field*. The following diagram shows the two axes of synchronic analysis:

a	woman	crosses	the	street
the	lady		a	lane
	female			road
	*sandwich			

Figure 1-2   Two Axes of Synchronic Analysis

7

3. Speech vs. Writing

Speech and **writing** are the two major media of communication. Modern linguistics regards the spoken language as primary, and the written language secondary. Traditional grammarians tended to over-emphasize the importance of the written word, partly because of its permanence.

Modern linguistics, however, gives priority to the spoken form of language and considers it basic for a number of reasons. First, in any human society, speech precedes writing. The writing system of any language is a later invention, used to record the speech. Even in the world today, many languages have only the spoken form. Second, in terms of function, the spoken language is used for a wider range of purposes than the written language, and carries a larger load of communication than the written form.

4. Langue vs. Parole

The distinction between **langue** and **parole** was made by the Swiss linguist Saussure in the early 20th century. *Langue* and *parole* are French words. *Langue* refers to the abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community, and *parole* refers to the realization of langue in actual use (Dai & He, 2002:5). *Langue* is the lexical, grammatical, and phonological constitution of a language, and was considered by Saussure to be implanted in the native speaker's mind (brain) in childhood as the collective product of the speech community envisaged as a supra-individual entity in its own right. In speaking his language the speaker could only operate or perform within this *langue*; what he actually uttered was *parole*, and the only individual control he could exercise was when to speak and about what to speak. Lexical, grammatical, and phonological

8

of "knowing", while linguistic potential is a set of possibilities for "doing". The competence versus performance is one between what a person "knows" and what he "does", while the linguistic potential versus linguistic behavior distinction is one between what a person "can do" and what a person "does". Through this distinction what people did do or did say on any particular occasion (their actual linguistic choices) is related to what they could have done or could have said (their potential linguistic choices) (Eggins 22).

7. Etic vs Emic

The two terms "emic" and "etic" derived from an analogy with the terms "phonemic" and "phonetic," were coined by the linguistic anthropologist Kenneth Pike (1954). He suggests that two perspectives be employed in the study of a society's cultural system, just as two perspectives used in the study of a language's sound system. In both cases, it is possible to take the point of view of either the insider or the outsider.

Pike states the *emic* perspective focuses on the intrinsic cultural distinctions that are meaningful to the members of a given society (e. g. , whether the natural world is distinguished from the supernatural realm in the worldview of the culture) in the same way that phonemic analysis focuses on the intrinsic phonological distinctions that are meaningful to speakers of a given language (e. g. , whether the phones /b/ and /v/ make a contrast in meaning in a minimal pair in the language). However, the *etic* perspective relies upon the extrinsic concepts and categories that have meaning for scientific observers (e. g. , per capita energy consumption) in the same way that phonetic analysis relies upon the extrinsic concepts and categories that are meaningful to linguistic analysts (e. g. , dental frica-

11

tives). *Etic* is the behavior of non-native speaker while *emic* is the convention of verbal behavior of native speaker. <u>Etic is changable</u> while <u>emic is stable</u>.

Views of the linguists differ concerning the order of the two terms. Pike proposes **emic-etic-emic** while Harris insists that etic analysis has its own independent importance. Hymes holds that the sequence should be **$etic_1$-emic-$etic_2$**, which seems to be more reasonable (Hu, 2001:94). *Etic* and *Emic* are interwoven and further research should be made.

8. Traditional Grammar vs. Modern Linguistics

Traditional Grammar is usually based on earlier grammars of Latin or Greek and applied to some other language, often inappropriately. For example, some grammarians stated that English had six CASEs because Latin had six cases. These grammars were often notional and prescriptive in their approach, which states rules for what is considered the best or most correct usage. *Traditional Grammar* is often based not on descriptions of actual usage but rather on the grammarian's views of what is best.

Modern linguistics is descriptive, not prescriptive. Linguistics regards the spoken language as primary, not the written. Spoken language is prior to written language historically. On other words, it existed long, long before written systems came into being. Even today many well-developed languages do not have a written system yet. Genetically, children always learn to speak before they learn to write. Blind children have no difficulty in learning to speak but deaf children have great difficulty in learning to read. This shows that the channel of sight is not as important as the channel of sound in learning a language. However, this is not to deny the importance of

12

writing systems came much later than the spoken forms and that they are only attempts to capture sounds and meanings on paper. The fact that children acquire spoken language first before they can read or write also indicates that language is primarily vocal; d) **Language as symbol**: The term **symbol** in the definition refers to the fact that there is no connection between the sounds that people use and the objects to which these sounds refer. Language is a symbolic system, a system in which words are associated with objects, ideas, and actions by convention. This is why Shakespeare wrote "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet." In only a few cases is there some direct representational connection between a word and some phenomenon in the "real" world. Onomatopoeic words like *bang*, *crash*, and *roar* are examples from English although the meanings of these words would not be at all obvious to speakers of other languages; e) **Language as human**: The term **human** in the definition refers to the fact that language is possessed only by human beings and is very different from the communication systems that other forms of life possess (Dai & He, 2002: 8-9).

1.2.3 Design Features of Language

The **Design Features of Language** was coined in 1960s by the American linguist Charles Hockett, who believed that there existed 16 features of human language that distinguished human communication from that of animals.

(1) Vocal Auditory Channels—Spoken language is produced in the vocal tract and transmitted/heard as sound, whereas sign language is produced with the hands and transmitted by light and so on.

16

(2) Broadcast Transmission and Directional Reception—The audible sound of language is heard in all directions but listeners will interpret it as coming from one specific direction.

(3) Rapid Fading—The sound made by speech diminishes quickly after being released.

(4) Interchangeability—The speaker has the ability to receive and also send the same message.

(5) Total Feedback—Individuals are able to hear and internalize a message they have sent.

(6) Semanticity—Speech sounds can be linked to specific meanings.

(7) Arbitrariness—There is no direct connection between the signal and its meaning.

(8) Discreteness—Each unit of communication can be separated and unmistakable.

(9) Specialization—Speech is produced for communication.

(10) Displacement—The ability to talk about things that are not physically present.

(11) Productivity—The ability to create new messages by combining already-existing signs.

(12) Traditional Transmission—The learning of language occurs in social groups.

(13) Duality of Patterning—Meaningful signs (words) are made of — and distinguished from one another by—meaningless parts (sounds, letters).

(14) Prevarication—The ability to make false statements (to lie).

(15) Reflexiveness—Language can be used to describe itself.

(16) Learnability—Speakers of one language can learn to speak another.

What makes language features is related to several fields. Here we only discuss the 4 main features of language.

1. Arbitrariness

Saussure first refers to the fact that the forms of linguistic signs bear no natural relationship to their meaning. The basic principle of the arbitrariness is that there is no natural reason why a particular sign should be attached to a particular concept. For instance, we cannot explain why a book is called a /buk/ and a pen a /pen/.

2. Productivity (Creativity)

Language is productive or creative in that it makes possible the construction and interpretation of new signals by its users. This is why they can produce and understand an infinitely large number of sentences, including sentences they have never heard before. They can send messages which no one else has ever sent before (10).

3. Duality

Language is a system, which consists of two sets of structures, or two levels. At the lower or the basic level there is a structure of sounds, which are meaningless by themselves. But the sounds of language can be grouped and regrouped into a large number of units of meaning, which are found at the higher level of the system. For example, the grouping of the three sounds /k/, /ɑː/, and /p/ can mean either a kind of fish (carp), or a public place for rest and amusement (park) (Dai & He 10). This duality of structure or double articulation of language enables its users to talk about anything within their knowledge. Humans can say completely novel things, never said before.

18

4. Displacement

Displacement means that human language can make the language users to describe something or somebody at present or before, here or there. For instance, we can talk about what happened yesterday or 1000 years ago, or what might happen 1000 years from now on.

1.2.4　Functions of Language

The functions of language have been discussed from different emphasis. Here we are to introduce Jakobson's view as well as Halliday's.

According to Roman Jakobson (1960: 350-377) in *Closing Statement: Linguistics and Poetics*, any act of verbal communication is composed of six elements, or factors: a) **context** (the co-text, that is, the other verbal signs in the same message, and the world in which the message takes place), b) **addresser** (a sender, or enunciator), c) **addressee** (a receiver), d) **contact** between an addresser and an addressee, e) code and f) **message**. The theory involves the following mechanism: An **Addresser** sends a **Message** to an **Addressee**. The **Message** cannot be understood outside of a **Context**. The **Addresser** and the **Addressee** need to understand the **Code** that expresses the relationship between the **Message** and the **Context**. A physical **Contact** must be established between them to convey the **Message** (see Figure 1-3).

Each factor is the focal point of an oriented relation, or function, that operates between the message and the factor, which yields six functions (see Figure 1-4): **referential** (to convey message or information; **poetic** (to focus on the message for its own sake);

and **textual** functions. Each of the three metafunctions is about a different aspect of the world, and is concerned with a different mode of meaning. The *ideational function* constructs a model of experience and logical relations. The *interpersonal function* is about the social world, especially the relationship between speaker and hearer. The *textual function* is about the verbal world, especially the flow of information in a text. Now lists of summarized categories of functions are introduced.

1. Informational function

Informational function, also **referential function**, is predominantly the major role of language which is the instrument of thought. People often feel need to speak their thoughts aloud. *Informational function* is also called **ideational function** in Halliday's functional grammar. Halliday (1971) proposed that it "is concerned with the content of language, its function as means of expression of our experience, both of the external world and of the inner world of our own consciousness—together with what is perhaps a separate sub-component expressing certain basic logical relations". For instance, "The sun rises in the East." and "The window is broken."

2. Interpersonal function

Interpersonal function refers to the use of language to bond with other people, as opposed to its use for exchanging information. People use language to establish and maintain their relations in a society. In functional grammar, it is concerned with interaction between the addresser and addressee in discourse situation and the addresser's attitude toward what he speaks or writes about. For example, in everyday life, people address others "Dear Professor", "John" etc. to indicate the grades of interpersonal relations.

21

the word *book* to refer to a book or talk about the concept "book", and we can also use the expression "the word 'book'" to talk about the sign "book" itself (Hu 16). The metalingual function, in Halliday's, is called **textual function**.

7. Directive function

Language can be used to cause (or prevent) an action, that is, language can be used to ask the listener to do something. The *directive function* is most commonly found in commands and requests. Examples of this function are: "Close the windows" and "Do not smoke in this area".

Although the identification of the language function is crucial, one cannot always identify the form with function in the use of language. For example, the utterance "The lecture hall is hot" might be used in different contexts as informational (an observation), emotive (how one feels), or directive (Turn on the air conditioner).

Exercises

1. What is the definition of linguistics?
2. What is the process of linguistic study?
3. What are the 'core' branches of linguistic study? And what are they?
4. What are the important distinctions in linguistic study?
5. Use the two axes of synchronic analysis to analyze a sentence.
6. Consult the introductory part of five linguistic books to discuss the definition of language.
7. What are the design features of language?
8. Discuss the functions of language and the application of these divisions in the poster advertisement [*If you drink, then drive, you're a bloody idiot*], which is part of a series of advertising

and the velum respectively.

The bottom part of the mouth contains the LOWER LIP, the LOWER TEETH, the TONGUE, and the MANDIBLE (i. e. the lower jaw). In phonetics, the tongue is divided into five parts: the TIP, the BLADE, the FRONT, the BACK and the ROOT. (In some analyses the major part of the tongue is often referred to as the TONGUE BODY or the DORSUM.)

1. 上唇 upper lip; 2. 上齿 upper teeth;
3. 上齿背 upper tooth back; 4. 上齿龈 upper tooth ridge;
5. 硬腭 hard palate; 6. 软腭 soft palate;
7. 悬雍垂 uvula; 8. 鼻腔 nasal cavity;
9. 咽部 pharynx; 10. 声带 vocal cords;
11. 下唇 lower lip; 12. 舌尖 tongue tip;
13. 舌前 tongue front; 14. 口腔 oral cavity;
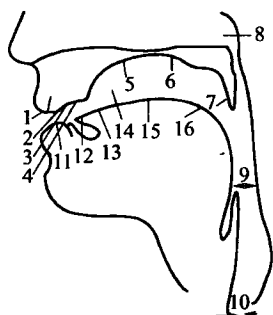15. 舌中 tongue middle; 16. 舌后 tongue back.

Figure 2-1   Speech Organs

2.1.3   Segments, Divergences, and Phonetic Transcription

1. Segments and Divergences

We all know that the English spelling does not represent its pronunciation. In the production of the word *above*, for example, although the spelling suggests five sounds, there are in fact four. When the word is said slowly, we recognize the four sound SEGMENTS that are comparable to the "a", "b", "o" and "v" of the spelling. In this case, the "e" is silent—George Bernard Shaw (1856—1950) highlighted the lack of precision in English orthography by spelling the word fish as *ghoti*, as *gh* is pronounced as [f] in English orthography by spelling the word fish as *ghoti*, as *gh* is pronounced as [f] in *enough*, *o* as

29