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A Pedagogical Handout
on

Applied Linguistics

For Master 1 students (semester 1 & 2)

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Introduction

General linguistics, as a scientific field of study to analyze language, had long existed and can be traced back to ancient times in different lands such as Mesopotamia and India, but also China, more than two thousand years ago where it was a combination of phonetics, lexicography and traditional linguistics which became later a linguistic tradition. The term ‘linguistics’ however has emerged in the 20th century, demerging the thorough analysis from philology, making it a whole discipline composed of theoretical as well as practical chapters, studied in a synchronic as well as diachronic approach.

Applied linguistics is an area of expertise that joins the theoretical underpinnings of linguistics to the practical application of language and its rules. It encompasses a wide range of fields, including the teaching-learning process and acquisition, language policy and planning, language assessment, translation and interpreting, computational linguistics and forensic linguistics.

The Objectives

The handout on *Applied Linguistics* provides students with a deep understanding of different structures of different languages with English in the crosshairs, corroborated by relevant exemplification through concrete grammatical, syntactic, morphological and semantic changes and cases encountered mostly on a daily basis. The objectives' range may vary according to each lesson as follows:

- The implementation of analytical thinking in deciphering semantic changes due to variables such as punctuation, word order and choice, etc.
- A profound interpretation of lingual output based on grammar rules.
- A sensible correlation between languaculture and students' perception of communicative capacity within schema theory.
- Leading questions are meticulously asked to boost students' analytical thinking within the range of the Socratic method.
- Hands-on activities keep applied linguistics applied more consciously.

Presentation of the Subject

Subject	Applied Linguistics
Level	Master 1
Credit	4
Coefficient	2
Mode of evaluation	CC 50/50

The handout is divided into six chapters, the first one deals with the nature and basic concepts of applied linguistics, and the second one with language learning and acquisition. The third one tackles language transfer, then the fourth one revolves around semantic importance, while the fifth one highlights branches of applied linguistics, and the sixth and last chapter focuses on figures of speech.

The first semester is dedicated to key language-related concepts such as the nature of applied linguistics, language learning/acquisition, language transfer, interlanguage and bypassing. The second semester, however, centers around branches of applied linguistics and figures of speech.

Chapter One

The Nature and Basics of Applied Linguistics

1. Definitions and Distinctions

Since it is of the utmost importance to agree on the most academically and unanimously acceptable definitions before discussing them further, this rubric would pave the way for a good start.

2. Linguistics

Linguistics is the study of language in a scientific and academic way.

3. Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics is the also the study of language, but from a practical perspective, tackling real-world issues.

4. Language

Language is the means of communication used by humans through writing or speaking to convey messages.

4.1. First Language

A first language is the one we get from parents/family/environment as kids, and when we move toward puberty, it's also sometimes referred to as 'L1',

‘native language’ or ‘mother tongue’. That’s why we might find more than one first language for one person, and this may happen when a child grows up in a bicultural/bilingual or multicultural/multilingual environment.

4.2. Second Language

A second language is the one we learn/acquire after the first language, it also “refers to a language in which instruction in other school subjects is carried on or that serves as a common language for speakers of diverse language groups, as English does in India or French in Guinea. Second-language instruction begins early, often in primary school” (Britannica, n.d.)

5. Learning

Learning, is a well-studied approach that allows learners to consciously schematize (in the case of *language learning*) morphology, syntax and vocabulary, in order to become able to produce a(n) limited number of sentences, both orally and in writing. It usually takes place in schools or institutions designed for that purpose.

6. Acquisition

Acquisition, on the other hand, is an unconscious unplanned process through which we can practically obtain the ability to express our ideas (in the case of *language acquisition*), but without making intellectual efforts to

memorize the structure and grammar rules of that particular language. It usually takes place at home and in the street.

7. Error

Most people tend to use ‘error’ and ‘mistake’ interchangeably, which is not completely incorrect per se. However, in language learning/acquisition, an error is supposed to signify an incorrect way of saying or writing something, made by the learner/acquirer without even noticing that they have erred, as they would think that was the correct way of doing it.

8. Mistake

A mistake is, contrastively, an incorrect way of saying or writing something, but which is made inadvertently, hence usually corrected right after it’s made.

Exercise:

Recite the following tongue twisters:

"She sells seashells by the seashore"

"Can you can a can as a canner can can a can?"

"Which witch is which?"

"An ape, mate, may hate the eight cakes you ate"

"A good cook can cook what you took, by hook or by crook"

"A shopper comes get a cup of proper coffee in a copper coffee cup"

9. Lexicography

Lexicography is the process of creating dictionaries.

10. Register

The form of language used by someone or a group of people under some circumstances. It may have to do with a given field of study, profession, location, target audience, purpose, etc.

11. Accent

A special way a language is spoken, depending on the country of origin, social stratum or first language influence.

12. Speech

A speech is simply “the ability to *talk*, the activity of *talking*, or a piece of *spoken* language” (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.).

13. Idiolect

A special variety of language proper to someone in particular.

14. Sociolect

A form of language proper to a specific social group, class or even caste.

15. Dialect

A subdivision of language that is used in a particular area or city, with more or less different phonology, vocabulary, syntax and morphology.

Dialect Continuum

A dialect continuum describes a gradual and continuous shift in language features across a geographical area under the umbrella term '*macrolanguage*'. Neighboring dialects within this continuum differ slightly/significantly in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. As the distance between speakers increases, *mutual intelligibility* usually decreases gradually. This means that while speakers of closely related dialects can usually understand each other, communication becomes progressively more challenging as the distance between their locations grows. In extreme cases, dialects at opposite ends of the continuum may become so different that speakers are no longer able to understand each other, making it closer to an example of distinct languages. This demonstrates how minor linguistic variations can accumulate over time and distance, leading to significant linguistic divergence.

A concrete example of macrolanguage would be Arabic; with 22 divergent Arabic dialects spoken by different nations in countries which are members of the League of Arab States where Arabic is an official language.

Subdialects are likely to be found within the same society, differing from one city to another.

16. Sentence Types

16.1. Declarative Sentence

A sentence that declares a statement or provide an information; like: "Asia is the world's largest continent".

16.2. Interrogative Sentence

A sentence that needs an information by asking a question; like: "Are you ok?".

16.3. Imperative Sentence

A sentence that expresses an order, request, prohibition, directive, offer or advice; like: "Finish your meal".

17. Text Types

17.1. Written

17.1.1. Poetry

Although they *could* be *oral* too, poems are categorized under a type of literature that focuses on a certain metrical structure and rhythm, and a particular choice of words with rhyme.

17.1.2. Prose

It's the usual use of language (*written as well as spoken*) where the ideas are expressed through short/long sentences and paragraphs.

NB All coming types can also be oral.

17.1.2.1. Informational

It has to do with a text full of details that are *not necessarily* closely relevant or linked with the main topic and thus, *may* contain *useless* information. Some newspaper articles are good examples of informational texts.

17.1.2.2. Informative

The informative text, by contrast, is supposed to have *almost exclusively helpful and useful* information that serve the treated topic. Textbooks' texts should be informative.

17.1.2.3. Instructive

Just like the adjective suggests; this type of text consists primarily of providing instructions for readers/users. A relevant example would be culinary recipes.

17.1.2.4. Descriptive

A text that depicts, describes and transfers to the receiver what and how someone, something, a situation or a phenomenon is/was.

17.1.2.5. Prescriptive

Giving orders, commands or directions to tell the addressee what to do and how, even when and where. A common example would be medical prescriptions.

17.1.2.6. Persuasive

A text that focuses on convincing the receiver of something, and it usually relies on aligning the latter's opinions with the speaker's/writer's, however, when it's the opposite (persuade someone not to make/follow/adopt a given mistake/attitude/opinion, it quickly becomes a *dissuasive text*. Commercials may be considered analytically persuasive (and sometimes dissuasive at same time).

17.1.2.7. Argumentative

An occasion to show and defend one's position regarding a particular subject/phenomenon/ideology, often based on strong arguments that ought to be objective.

Exercises

Exercise 01: Categorize the following sentences:

What's for dinner?

Dinner is ready.

Eat healthy food.

Exercise 02: Categorize the following text:

Using Artificial Intelligence to Navigate the New Challenges of College and Career

The COVID-19 pandemic has put a spotlight on the fact that American workers at all levels are at a crossroads due to the relentless improvement of technology. The **World Economic Forum in 2020** found that, amid “the largest experiment in mass remote-working in history,” more than half of businesses have accelerated automation in response to the crisis. Even before the outbreak of COVID-19, the path to economic opportunity in the United States was, in many ways, less clear than ever as workers’ careers have taken increasingly non-traditional routes with technology carving new tracks and creating new ways of working.

Technology has always been a disruptive force. But can it also be employed as an accelerant? How can we help current and incoming students,

recent graduates, and working learners navigate a fragmented landscape of education and work?

Against a backdrop of unprecedented volatility, policymakers and technologists must harness technology and utilize some of the very forces that are causing this upheaval to build new routes to economic mobility for all students.

While Artificial Intelligence (AI) and related technologies are often seen as disruptors, these same technology-based tools can redefine what's possible and guide students through the challenges of college and careers (Harvard Advanced Leadership Initiative Social Impact Review, 2021).

17.2. Oral

17.2.1. Discourse

A discourse is a general term used to refer to "a long and serious treatment or discussion of a subject in speech or writing" (Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, n.d.).

17.2.2. Conversation

An often informal talk/chat between a group of people (two or more).

17.2.3. Discussion

Another occasion for sharing one's knowledge, ideas and opinions with others about one particular topic or more.

17.2.4. Debate

Another level of discussing serious issues in a rather formal way, usually trying to convince the others of a different opinion.

17.2.5. Dialogue

An often formal communication between two (groups of) people, entities, or even countries.

17.2.6. Monologue

An often long speech given by one person, not letting the others interfere.

18. Diglossia

Diglossia refers to a situation where a community uses two distinct varieties of the same language, each appropriate for specific sociocultural contexts.

Chapter Two

Language Learning and Acquisition

1. Second Language Acquisition Theory

We will focus in this section on Stephen Krashen's theory and the five hypotheses he has suggested to know more about the difficulties and obstacles faced during the process of SLA, and what solutions were formulated by Krashen to tackle them.

1.1. The Acquisition-Learning Distinction

Krashen observed here two systems to help become fluent in a given language; namely *the acquired system* and *the learned system*. The first one is, according to him, very similar, with adults, to what happens with children *picking up* their first language "L1", so it's a *natural, informal, unconscious, repetitive* and *communicative* act. The second one is contrastingly a *sophisticated, formal, conscious, regular* and *linguistic* act that focuses on grammar rules and morphology and how to conjugate verbs, so in short, learning is knowing the language, but also, *about* the language, while acquisition is knowing the language.

1.2. The Natural Order Hypothesis

Based on previous studies, Krashen tried, through this hypothesis, to highlight that “Brown (1973) reported that children acquiring English as a first language tended to acquire certain grammatical morphemes, or functions words, earlier than others. For example, the progressive marker -ing (as in “He is playing baseball”.) and the plural marker /s/ (“two dogs”) were among the first morphemes acquired, while the third person singular marker /s/ (as in “He lives in New York”) and the possessive /s/ (“John’s hat”) were typically acquired much later, coming anywhere from six months to one year later” (Krashen, 1982, p. 12). In that respect, a *morpheme* is the *smallest meaningful* unit in a language.

1.3. The Monitor Hypothesis

According to Krashen, acquirers may *feel* that something is wrong with a sentence, not because it’s not consistent with the grammar rules which they’re not even aware of, but because it has become automatic in their system due to a lot of practice with the four language skills.

Learners, by contrast, should be able to monitor their language/output and self-correct before/after they make mistakes by reference to what they have learned from morphology to syntax to any grammar rule that can be useful and helpful in those particular cases.

1.4. The Input Hypothesis

In this hypothesis, Krashen stipulates *comprehensibility* of inputs as a *condition* to move from stage (*i*) to stage (*i + 1*). He also insists that this condition is *necessary* but *not sufficient*, and the *comprehensibility* means that the acquirer focuses on the *meaning*, *not* the *form* of the message.

When trying to explain how acquirers could understand more complicated/advanced structures before having acquired them, Krashen gave this rationale: “The answer to this apparent paradox is that we use more than our linguistic competence to help us understand. We also use context, our knowledge of the world, our extra-linguistic information to help us understand language directed at us” (Krashen, 1982, p. 21).

1.5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Clearly stated by Krashen, there are three affective/emotional categories of variables strongly linked to correct/incorrect and quick/slow acquisition of a second language;

- 1- **Motivation** usually plays a pivotal part in getting a better result when it comes to acquiring a second language “L2”.
- 2- **Self-confidence**, too, can act as a springboard for a higher receptiveness of “L2”.

3- Anxiety, however, *may* halt/slow the process of acquisition according to Krashen's theory.

To understand the relationship between the *affective filter*, *mental block* and *comprehensive input*, we should consider the following; the more unprivileged the emotional conditions are, the stronger the mental block is, the less the acquirer picks up comprehensive inputs. To conclude on this point, we can detail the three affective filter's variables which can impact negatively/positively the process of SLA, so when the filter goes up (by blocking inputs), SLA goes down, and vice versa.

2. Meta-Learning

In addition to learning as defined above, students need to be taught how to learn. They should be able to set goals, choose the right strategies, and track their progress. It's important to encourage such a mindset, where students believe they can improve through fruitful effort and see/seek challenges as opportunities.

3. Realia

Materials, objects and/or texts used in the classroom to exemplify and/or make the lesson/content easier to understand.

4. Positive Reinforcement

Positive reinforcement rewards good behavior. It helps students feel good about themselves and encourages them to keep doing well. For example, praising a student who gets involved in fruitful discussions about the lesson can motivate others to do the same.

5. Negative Reinforcement

Negative reinforcement involves removing something unpleasant to encourage desired behavior. For example, a teacher might reduce homework for students who consistently submit assignments on time. This would motivate them and their classmates to submit their work as promptly as possible, as they are rewarded by the removal of an undesirable task.

Chapter Three

Language Transfer

Also known as *crosslinguistic influence*, language transfer is the clear impact that a language, which is already mastered/learned/acquired, has on the target language.

1. Positive Transfer

If the two languages in question were similar in many ways, grammatically, morphologically, syntactically and/or semantically, the result would be a positive transfer translated by a correct output in the target language.

2. Negative Transfer

If the two languages in question were dissimilar in many ways, grammatically, morphologically, syntactically or semantically, the result would be a negative transfer translated by an incorrect output in the target language.

Potential Causes of Negative Transfer:

- *Dominance of the Learned/Acquired Language*: it could be the mother tongue or any other previously acquired/learned language. If the L1 (learned/acquired/mastered language) is more dominant than the L2 (target language), it is more likely to influence the learner's language production.

- *Lack of Exposure to the Target Language*: Limited exposure to the target language (TL/L2) can make it difficult for younger learners to distinguish between their L1 and L2, hence use words from L1 in L2 because they lack vocabulary in the latter.
- *Cognitive Factors*: Cognitive factors such as memory and attention can also play a role in lexical negative transfer.
- *Literal Translation*: Translating word-for-word would likely lead to more confusion like in these examples;

كتاب الغرفة - Book the room.

"I have hunger" instead of "I am hungry" due to the tendency of resorting to literal translation of the French phrase "J'ai faim."

- *Idiomatic Expressions*: Under the weather – تحت الطقس, but it rather means 'sick.'
- *Word Order*: لقد رأيت نجما ساطعا بالأمس – Saw I/me star shiny with yesterday, when it should rather be translated as follows: "I saw a shining star yesterday."

3. Stages of First Language Acquisition for Children

It is fairly common to assume that the first language would be acquired at a very early age, however, there is a *prelinguistic period* during which the baby starts "crying, whimpering, and cooing. These sounds are not considered

language because they are involuntary responses to stimuli" (Minnesota State University Moorhead, 2010). It's expected to start being noticed from birth to 6 months.

3.1. The Babbling Stage

Babies start acquiring language by babbling, usually between 4 and 12 months old. They listen to the sounds around them and try to imitate them.

3.1.1. Canonical Babbling

This initial stage of language development is characterized by the repetition of simple syllable sequences, such as "ma-ma" or "ba-ba-ba." It usually starts at 6 months after birth.

3.1.2. Variegated Babbling

This one is a subsequent phase that emerges around 8 months of age. It involves the combination of different syllables, as exemplified by sequences like "ma-ga" or "da-di." During this stage, babies may also begin to experiment with intonation patterns that mimic adult speech, despite producing many meaningless sounds.

3.2. The Holophrastic Stage

Children usually reach the one-word or holophrastic stage between 12 and 18 months. During this stage, they use single words to express complex

thoughts. For instance, "dada" might mean "I want Dad" or "Where's Dad? "

This ability to convey multiple meanings with a single word is called holophrasis.

Initial words a child may use *often sound more like babbling than real words*. While they can include a variety of sounds, their ability to produce them is limited. These early words are known as *proto-words*. Despite their babbling quality, these sounds hold meanings for the child, functioning as useful words. Children may also use real words but adapt them to fit their speech abilities, and this often leads to errors as they learn and practice, such as calling all animals dogs if they're familiar with one.

3.3. The Two-Word Stage

Children enter this stage by 18 months where they start producing two-word utterances. These early sentences *focus on essential words like nouns and verbs, ignoring less important words*. For instance, a child might say "Cat jump" to convey the idea of a jumping cat. This limited linguistic expression, like the single-word stage, depends mainly on context for an accurate understanding.

3.4. The Multi-Word Stage

During the multi-word stage, which often begins in the 2nd year, children progress from simple two-word phrases to longer sentences. They incorporate more function words and form complex sentences, more or less. Building them

based on prior language knowledge, children rapidly improve their productive abilities through this phase, divided into early and later sub-stages.

3.4.1. The Early Multi-Word Stage

Also called *the telegraphic stage*, roughly between 24 and 30 months, children's speech starts resembling telegrams. *They prioritize content words, omitting function words*, and begin to incorporate negatives and questions. This stage marks a significant step toward more complex language use.

A kid may simply say "No want fruits" instead of sayin "I don't want fruits." And although children would not use function words (prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary, verbs, conjunctions, etc), they would be able to understand them if used by grown-ups.

3.4.2. The Later Multi-Word Stage

The final stage of language acquisition, also called *the complex stage*, begins around 30 months and continues indefinitely. During this period, children's language becomes increasingly sophisticated. They start using a wider range of words, including function words, and construct more complex sentence structures. Their understanding of time, quantity, and logic also develops, allowing them to use tenses effectively and explain their thoughts and feelings (StudySmarter, n.d.).

Exercises:

Exercise 01: When does the babbling stage of language acquisition occur?

(retrieved

from:

[https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/language-](https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/language-acquisition/language-acquisition-in-children/#:~:text=The%20later%20multi%2Dword%20stage%2C%20also%20known%20as%20the%20complex,of%20words%20children%20can%20use.)

[acquisition/language-acquisition-in-](https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/language-acquisition/language-acquisition-in-children/#:~:text=The%20later%20multi%2Dword%20stage%2C%20also%20known%20as%20the%20complex,of%20words%20children%20can%20use.)

[children/#:~:text=The%20later%20multi%2Dword%20stage%2C%20also](https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/language-acquisition/language-acquisition-in-children/#:~:text=The%20later%20multi%2Dword%20stage%2C%20also%20known%20as%20the%20complex,of%20words%20children%20can%20use.)

[%20known%20as%20the%20complex,of%20words%20children%20can%](https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/language-acquisition/language-acquisition-in-children/#:~:text=The%20later%20multi%2Dword%20stage%2C%20also%20known%20as%20the%20complex,of%20words%20children%20can%20use.)

[20use.\)](https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/language-acquisition/language-acquisition-in-children/#:~:text=The%20later%20multi%2Dword%20stage%2C%20also%20known%20as%20the%20complex,of%20words%20children%20can%20use.)

A. 12-18 months.

B. 10-15 months.

C. 6-12 months.

D. 1-5 months.

Exercise 02: When does the holophrastic stage occur?

A. 6-12 months.

B. 1-6 months.

C. 12-18 months.

D. 18-24 months.

Exercise 03: When does the two-word stage start?

A. 12 months

B. 2 months

C. 24 months

D. 18 months

4. Interlanguage

In 1972, the American professor and researcher Larry Selinker published an article entitled 'Interlanguage' in the January 1972 issue (IRAL) journal "International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching," in which he has introduced his theory on the nature of interlanguage which would be the result of a progressive system of grammatical rules which don't belong exclusively to the the source/mastered/learned/acquired language, nor entirely to the target language.

5. Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is noticed when the learner/acquirer tends to infer an unconditional application of a rule from a general application of the same rule, just like when children pluralize tooth by adding 's' to become 'tooths' instead of 'teeth.'

6. Fossilization

Fossilized language can be seen in frozen formulae of errors made due to the overdependence on the language that is already acquired and/or learned.

7. Intentional/Deliberate Vocabulary Learning

It is the process of looking up words in a dictionary, whether words with a known meaning, since they might be polysemous and have other meanings, or new words whose meanings would be discovered in the process.

8. Incidental Vocabulary Learning

Just like the adjective suggests, this type of learning takes place unintentionally when someone comes across a new word or expression while reading or watching or listening.

9. False Friends

These are words in different languages/dialects that look/sound (more or less) the same, but have different meanings. Examples of false friends are numerous, and in many languages, but we'll only take a few from French and English.

<i>The word in French</i>	<i>Equivalent in English</i>	<i>The word in English</i>	<i>Meaning in English</i>
Pain	<i>Bread</i>	<i>Pain</i>	Hurt, ache, suffering, soreness
Journée	<i>Day</i>	<i>Journey</i>	Travel, trip, tour, adventure
Actuellement	<i>Currently</i>	<i>Actually</i>	In fact, indeed, in reality

9.1. Homonym

Words spelled/pronounced the same, but having different meanings.

9.2. Homophone

Words pronounced the same, yet having different meanings/spelling.

9.3. Homograph

Words spelled the same, but having different meanings.

9.4. Cognate

Cognates are words that share a common origin and similar/same spelling, pronunciation and meaning. For example, "Haus" in German and "house" in English are cognates.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Try to distinguish between words sounding similar without knowing their spelling, then put each word in a specific sentence to facilitate the guess hence the meaning hence the spelling. (retrieved from: <https://preply.com/en/blog/words-that-sound-the-same-in-english/>)

Ship – sheep

Pear – pair

Tail – tale

Mail – male

Sail – sale

Fair – fare

Air – heir

Eye – I

Buy – by – bye

Four – for

Hi – high

Eight – ate.

10. Thinking in the Mother Tongue

Many learners admit they still think in their mother tongue before formulating new sentences in the language they're trying to learn, partly due to the cultural/linguistic barrier they still have between the two languages, so instead of practicing for example a total francization/arabization/germanization of every tiny detail around them when trying to pick up French/Arabic/German respectively, they usually tend to translate objects and concepts, relying almost entirely on their cultural background.

11. Grammatical Interference

New language learners may keep focusing for a while on their first language's grammatical rules and syntactical structure in generating phrases in the (still to be) learned language, and this may obstruct or reduce the learning process pace.

12. Cultural Influence

Culture, on the other hand, is not quite the same; for it is "the way of life, especially the general customs and beliefs, of a particular group of people at a particular time" (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.). So simply put, a language can be considered as a part of culture (Britannica, n.d.), and the latter may operate like a vessel of the different characteristics of language that, just like any cultural affiliation, can be, and is in fact, changing all the time, as we could/can

comparatively and clearly see with the various cultures/subcultures/countercultures of humankind.

13. Nature vs. Nurture

13.1. Innatist/Nativist Theory

Traditionally defended by the American linguist Noam Chomsky who has long suggested that humans are born with some sort of a built-in faculty called LAD (Language Acquisition Device) that is supposed to help children acquire their first language(s) within a hypothetically critical period, arguing that the language development process hinges on natural knowledge about the grammatical system of “the” *language* in general, such as (not always) distinctive word classes like the verb and the noun (Bresnan, 1999).

13.2. Behaviorist Theory

Promoted by its constant proponent; the American behaviorist Burrhus F. Skinner, this theory holds that the child acquires the first language mainly by imitating other people, and then learns new words and sentences through the *operant conditioning*; a system of reinforcement (rewards) and punishment that would stimulate the child to say and (re)formulate sentences in a contextually correct way.

14. Languaculture

Language and culture have been inseparable for ages, so it seems that one cannot intrinsically exist without the other coexisting right next to it, within it, surrounding it and protecting it. “Anthropologists speak of the relations between language and **culture**. It is indeed more in accordance with reality to consider language as a part of **culture**” (Britannica, n.d.). However, many counterexamples show that researchers can become versed in a given culture without having to learn the related language in question.

Throughout history, many orientalists, who didn't/don't belong to the culture they've been or are studying, don't understand/speak (but not necessarily uninterested in) the languages relating to oriental areas and nations, namely Chinese and Arabic as part of a non-exhaustive list of examples.

Exercise

Analyze the following idiomatic expressions in light of your own culture, then provide me with a formal/dynamic equivalent in your own language, then explain the example in both languages/cultures.

It's all Greek to me.

To get your wires crossed.

To speak the same language.

To beat around the bush.

To call a spade a spade.

To read between the lines.

Don't put all your eggs in one basket.

When in Rome, do as the Romans do.

Chapter Four

Semantic Importance

1. Semantic Misunderstandings/Barriers

This phenomenon consists of interpreting the same words or phrases differently. These differing interpretations, arising from various causes, result in miscommunication and confusion.

1.1. Bypassing

Bypassing is a complex form of miscommunication due to mutual misunderstanding resulting from both communicators/interlocutors misinterpreting each other's words, hence mistakenly thinking they are talking about the same thing.

1.1.1. Different Words, Same Meaning

Sometimes, a sender of the message uses a word different from the one (that would be) used by the receiver, which may create a misunderstanding, even though they are trying to refer to the same thing. If someone doesn't know that USSR is the same as Soviet Union, there could be an unnecessary miscommunication due to the lack of information in such particular cases.

1.1.2. Same Word, Different Meanings

Many words are indeed polysemous, which implies their capacity of meaning different things depending on different contexts. When the world has been going toward the end of WW2, The United States, Great Britain and China suggested to Japan the Potsdam Declaration (an ultimatum for an unconditional surrender). The Japanese Prime Minister Kantaro Suzuki's response 'Mokusatsu' was apparently (mis)interpreted by the Allies as a rejection, which still could be one of the meanings of the Japanese word, but what was (un)justifiably excluded is the other meaning which would be "withhold comment." The result of this seemingly (un)intentional mistranslation was atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, resulting in the mass killing of hundreds of thousands of people.

1.1.2.1. Denotative Meaning

The denotative meaning is the one we would find in a dictionary; decontextualized and isolated from senders and receivers' subjective connotation.

1.1.2.2. Connotative Meaning

The connotative meaning is the one that would be context-dependent and added by the language users. It might contain relatable feelings, emotions or ideas attributed to the word by its user.

Exercise:

Give me the denotative then the connotative meaning of each of the following words, and explain the contextual reason behind attributing the second meaning to each example.

House

Earth

Life

Pleasure

Loneliness

Tears

Friendship

1.2. Implicature and Inference

When the sender of the message doesn't send clear explicit signs to be understood and interpreted properly/correctly, that could pave the way for inaccurate deductive conclusions.

1.3. Sarcasm

A sarcastic comment like "That's great" can be misinterpreted as sincere praise, especially in text-based communication.

1.4. Punctuation Mistakes, Grammatical Errors

Punctuation marks, along with respect and application of grammar rules, are vital for an unambiguous communication. Consider the following example and how a simple comma could change the meaning, and our way of decoding the message, radically.

“Let’s eat grandma.”

“Let’s eat, grandma.”

1.5. Indirectness

Lucidity of the speaker/writer should be translated into a direct way of saying what they want to say. In the same vein, straightforwardness is a result of

avoiding circumlocution and verbosity instead of avoiding directness and conciseness.

1.5.1. High-Context Cultures

High-context cultures prioritize indirect communication, relying heavily on shared understanding, unspoken hints and implicit messages.

1.5.2. Low-Context Cultures

Low-context cultures favor direct, explicit communication, where meaning is conveyed primarily through clear words; (say what you mean, mean what you say).

1.6. Lack of Common Language

This one would go without saying, however, we must highlight the crucial importance of having a common ground, through which communicators and interlocutors can understand and be understood.

1.7. Hedging

Hedging encompasses a range of linguistic devices that convey uncertainty or ambiguity. These devices can include:

- Modal verbs: "may," "might," "could," "should," "would."
- Adverbs: "perhaps," "possibly," "probably," "likely," "somewhat," "rather."

- Phrases: "it seems that," "it appears that," "it is possible that," "it is likely that."

Disadvantages of Hedging

While hedging can be seen by many as a sign of humbleness, its excessive misplaced use would lead to misunderstanding;

Undermining Confidence: Exaggerated hedging can unintentionally convey a lack of conviction in one's ideas. It's crucial to strike a balance between acknowledging uncertainty and bragging through overconfidence.

Direct: "I'm confident in this approach."

Hedged: "I think this approach might be, kind of, promising."

Creating Ambiguity: Overuse of hedging phrases can make communication unclear or imprecise, that's why it's best to aim for clarity by using specific language whenever possible.

Direct: "The deadline is tomorrow."

Hedged: "The deadline is, you know, kind of soon."

Evading Responsibility: While hedging can be appropriate when discussing unforeseen circumstances, overusing it can blur accountability, which is why one must be clear when taking ownership of actions or decisions.

Direct: "I made a mistake."

Hedged: "I think perhaps there might have been a misunderstanding."

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Express yourself wanting something specific by implying, then by saying it straightforwardly.

Exercise 02: Use sarcasm to say the exact opposite of what you mean in one example.

Exercise 03: Provide at least one example where you show the importance of punctuation and how it could change the meaning radically.

Exercise 04: Give me a sentence then add words and expressions of hedging to see the difference.

2. Contronym

Unlike synonyms and antonyms, a contronym is a word which can have two opposite/contradictory meanings, e.g. the word ‘sanction’ can mean ‘a penalty to limit an action,’ but also ‘a permission to take action.’

3. Hyponym

A hyponym is a word whose meaning is less general (more specific), hence belongs to a larger group, i.e. cats, dogs and rabbits are all hyponyms of pets, the latter being a hyponym of animals, which is, in turn, a hyponym of beings.

4. Hypernym

A word whose meaning is quite large and general, which makes it encompass many words (hyponyms). Human is a hypernym of citizen, man, woman and doctor.

5. Abstract Language

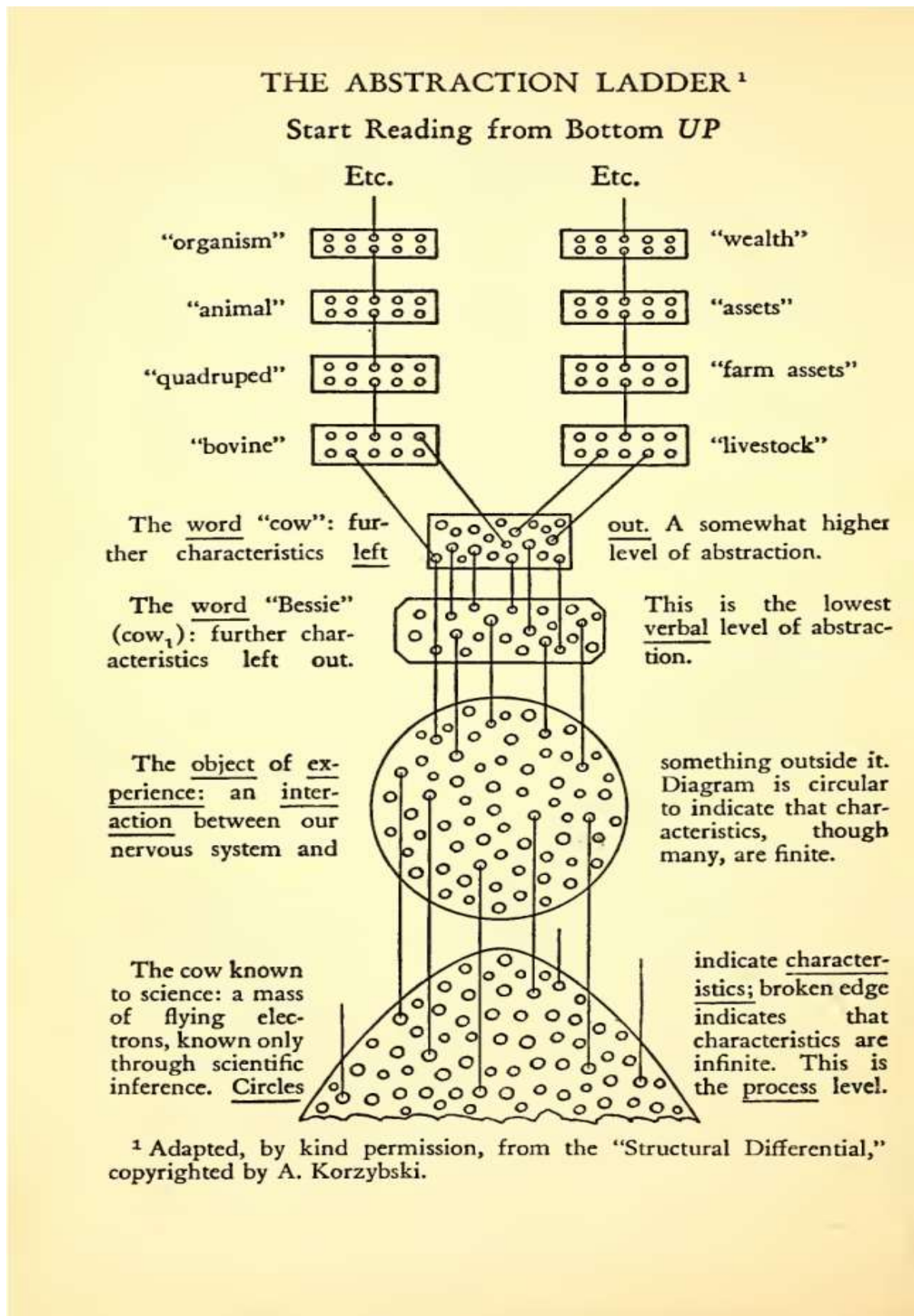
Language can vary considerably from abstract concepts to concrete terms, and the more abstract it gets, the further from its original meaning/essence, the more subject to (over/mis)interpretation.

Happiness, sadness, madness, kindness, justice, cowardice, courage, honor, (com)passion, arrogance, confidence, intelligence, envy, integrity,

jealousy, (dis)honesty, morality, satisfaction, health, wealth, are examples of abstract words that refer to intangible ideas, intellectually conceived and perceived by the brain, but not detected and observed through the five senses.

The American semanticist and linguist Samuel I. Hayakawa has categorized language levels through rungs on what he called 'The Abstraction Ladder' which was first introduced in his book "Language in Action" in 1939. He used 'Bessie the cow' to exemplify the steps taken during the conceptual/perceptual process; going from the most concrete form he knows of that particular cow, at the bottom of the ladder, to the most abstract thought the cow could turn into at the top of it.

Figure 1: The Abstraction Ladder (Hayakawa, 1939, p. 96)



Exercises:

Exercise 01: Choose from the list below hyponyms, then match them with their respective hypernyms, and explain the correlation.

Dog, sun, grocery, orange, tomato, galaxy, food, solar system, animal, peach, moon, water, whale, bread, ocean, shop, river, car, vehicle, engine, tire, rabbit, fruit.

Exercise 02: Try to come up with a word in its most concrete form, then climb the abstraction ladder until you reach the most abstract form.

6. Relative Language

We tend to relativize the use of language by resorting to words whose meanings are personalized based on each one's understanding and experiences. A relevant example of how relative language can be is the criteria an average person has in mind describing 'expensive', compared to those a rich person has.

7. Equivocal Language

Equivocation takes place whenever someone tries to intentionally hide (part of) the truth by using specific words in specific contexts as ambiguously as possible, leaving room for miscommunication and misunderstanding due to probable misinterpretation. When you don't want to speak to someone who has called asking for you on the landline, a family member could say that you're not there, meaning that you're not in the same room, but knowing that the caller is likely to understand that you're not at home.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Contextualize the following words to give them relatively different meanings.

Expensive

Power

Rich

Intelligent

Exercise 02: Try to use equivocal language deliberately to confuse the interlocutor by telling something that would lead to a wrong interpretation, by without lying.

8. Facts

A fact is what people objectively agree on, whether because it's self-evident like admitting the existence of the sun on a sunny day, or due to the proof we may provide to agree that one plus one equals two.

By not using some keywords when we express our own opinions about an issue, it would just sound like a fact. Explaining to a friend that there's no study tomorrow because the teacher doesn't feel like teaching, without adding 'I think', 'I suppose' or 'probably,' leads to a misleading comprehension/conclusion that it's a fact, while it might be no more than an ill-founded assumption.

9. Opinions

A standpoint, viewpoint, perspective or angle, can be all used contextually as synonyms for opinion. The latter having a subjective connotation regarding particular matters. An opinion and a fact don't necessarily/automatically converge. In fact, they may well diverge in a way that shows clearly how confirmation bias could push people into turning a blind eye to all the evidence-based demonstration of inaccuracy and inexactitude.

10. Emotive Language

It is obvious that language contains words and expressions that may provoke emotions through sensory incisiveness, such as auditory or visual memories triggered by something said.

One example can be to incite soldiers by describing a scene from a battle as follows: “Your unarmed fellow fighters were mercilessly and cold-bloodedly slaughtered,” instead of saying: “Your comrades-in-arms were killed.”

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Turn the following sentences from facts to opinions.

The sun is nothing but another small star in this small galaxy.

The main reason for the tidsoptimist you not to succeed is procrastination.

No development will take place unless they adopt capitalism.

The team will lose today because of the weather.

Exercise 02: Make the following sentences sound more emotive.

The earthquake caused many deaths in a few minutes.

We need more money to develop a sustainable infrastructure.

11. Paralinguistics

Paralinguistics deals with communicative ways of using non-lexical language and expressing oneself through non-verbal means such as the tone of voice.

12. Non-verbal Communication

13. Body Language

Body language implements any quintessential means of expressing/interpreting one's intention to say what has not been said through words. It ranges from the posture to facial expressions (eye contact, smiling or yawning), to hand and legs gestures/crossing, to proxemics/distance, to haptics/touch.

Note that the above-mentioned non-linguistic acts are sometimes subject to overinterpretation based on a few cases one may encounter then overgeneralize with no reproducibility whatsoever.

14. Physiognomy

Just like the overinterpretation that might be imposed on someone's way of behaving spontaneously, there's this pseudoscience called 'physiognomy' where someone claims to know the character of someone else merely by overanalyzing their facial features. It's an ancient practice that can be traced

back to Pythagoras' time who reputedly used this technique to choose his students. Hippocrates, Aristotle and Galen were among scholars and philosophers who implemented it.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Explain the importance of body language by giving a presentation neutrally, then give the same presentation using body language.

The presentation:

The world urgently needs a new approach to smart sustainable infrastructure. The complex lifecycle of infrastructure projects, involving numerous stakeholders and decades of work from planning to maintenance, demands it. Coupled with increasing urbanization, digitalization, evolving social needs, and the drive for environmentally sound growth, we must revolutionize how we manage existing infrastructure and create new projects. This transformation is crucial for building cleaner, more energy-efficient, and climate-resilient infrastructure in the face of accelerating climate change impacts.

Exercise 02: Give strong exemplified arguments why physiognomy, just like astrology, is a pseudoscience.

Chapter Five

Branches of Applied Linguistics

1. Morphology

The study of internal composition of words, and how suffixes (prefixes and affixes) can change the meaning and the classification/type of words. E.g. ‘hopeless’ and ‘hopeful’ are both adjectives, but antonyms. ‘Kind’ is an adjective, and ‘kindness’ is a noun, and they denote the same meaning despite the different types each one belongs to.

2. Semantics

The study of the signification of words and phrases.

3. Stylistics

Stylistics is the study of one’s style and choice of words in writing.

4. Syntax

Following particular grammatical rules, a correct syntax would arrange the words in a well-organized structure.

5. Phonetics

Phonetics is the study of the production of speech sounds.

6. Phonology

Phonology is the study of the sounds in a given language.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Find the syntactical mistake and correct it.

Me and my friend went to the movies.

She have a new car.

The cat it sat on the mat.

He don't like vegetables.

Although she is tired, but she went to the party.

Exercise 02: Add as many affixes as possible to the following words.

Happy

Care

Understand

Friend

Quick

Agree

7. Semantic Change

Many words have undergone considerable changes in their meanings over time; from the initial meaning to a slightly different meaning to a more specific/broader meaning, and this ever-changing process may sometimes take place randomly/naturally with no premeditated intent to add new meanings to the word in question, just like what happened with the word ‘guy’ which currently means a random *man* or *fellow*, and sometimes used even to refer to *girls* once pluralized, that’s why nowadays it’s regarded as gender-neutral.

It would seem, despite its broad use, fairly surprising to find out that “The term actually comes from Guy Fawkes, a 17th-century participant in the failed 1605 Gunpowder Plot (and the inspiration behind those creepy, mustachioed, "V for Vendetta" masks that Anonymous wears)” (Guys, 2016).

We distinguish many forms of semantic change, most of the time because of how naturally the (de)contextualized use of those words has been implemented, then forced a *polysemy* by *adding* one or more new meanings while *keeping the old one.s*, or replacing the latter instead of coining new words with new meanings.

7.1. Widening

Also referred to as broadening, generalization or extension, it's the process that takes place during years, decades or centuries to add new connotations, but also denotations once added in a dictionary, to a given word.

"1500s, earlier haliday (c. 1200), from Old English haligdæg "holy day, consecrated day, religious anniversary; Sabbath," from halig "holy" (see holy) + dæg "day" (see day); in 14c. meaning both "religious festival" and "day of exemption from labor and recreation," but pronunciation and sense diverged 16c. As an adjective mid-15c. Happy holidays is from mid-19c., in British English, with reference to summer vacation from school. As a Christmastime greeting, by 1937, American English, in Camel cigarette ads." (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.).

7.2. Narrowing

Narrowing is contrastively the diachronic process that a word's meaning undergoes, going from a large meaning (hypernym for example) to a specific meaning (hyponym for example).

"Old English hund "dog," from Proto-Germanic *hundaz (source also of Old Saxon and Old Frisian hund, Old High German hunt, German Hund, Old Norse hundr, Gothic hunds), from PIE *kwnto-, dental enlargement of root *kwon- "dog." Meaning narrowed 12c. to "dog used for hunting" (compare dog

(n.)). Contemptuously, of a man, from late Old English." (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.).

7.3. Amelioration

This process takes place when a positive denotation/connotation is attributed to a word that had a rather negative meaning.

"ate 13c., "foolish, ignorant, frivolous, senseless," from Old French *nice* (12c.) "careless, clumsy; weak; poor, needy; simple, stupid, silly, foolish," from Latin *nescius* "ignorant, unaware," literally "not-knowing," from *ne-* "not" (from PIE root **ne-* "not") + stem of *scire* "to know" (see *science*). "The sense development has been extraordinary, even for an adj." [Weekley] — from "timid, faint-hearted" (pre-1300); to "fussy, fastidious" (late 14c.); to "dainty, delicate" (c. 1400); to "precise, careful" (1500s, preserved in such terms as a *nice* distinction and *nice* and early); to "agreeable, delightful" (1769); to "kind, thoughtful" (1830)." (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.).

7.4. Pejoration

Pejoration occurs when amelioration process is reversed, by associating new negative meanings with words that had neutral to positive ones.

"Middle English *seli*, *seely*, from Old English *gesælig* "happy, fortuitous, prosperous" (related to *sæl* "happiness"), from Proto-Germanic **sæligas* (source also of Old Norse *sæll* "happy," Old Saxon *salig*, Middle Dutch *salich*, Old High

German salig, German selig "blessed, happy, blissful," Gothic sels "good, kindhearted")." (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.).

7.5. Metaphorization

Referring to the metaphorical meanings attributed to a word that had a literal meaning.

"the top of a desk," 1873, from desk + top (n.1). As an adjective meaning "suitable for use on a desktop," it is recorded by 1952 (desk-top supplies). As a shortening of desktop computer, by 1983. Desktop publishing recorded from 1984." (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.).

7.6. Metonymization

It's the attribution of a meaning *symbolizing* a given characteristic instead of a literal way to understand the word in question. The word 'ride' in informal American English can be used to refer to a 'car', while it usually formally means the journey taken in a car.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Explain how the context helps you understand the actual meaning of the underlined word in each sentence, and whether or not it changed due to one of the mechanisms of semantic change.

I need to update the *software* on my computer.

Let's go to a *party* this weekend.

He's a *cool* guy.

She's working on a new *project*.

I'm going to *travel* next summer.

He made a *crafty* deal.

She was spreading *gossip* about her neighbor.

Don't be a *fool*.

The food had a *terrible* smell.

That's a *cheap* trick.

8. Pragmatics

We often use ‘pragmatic’ to describe an attitude or someone who is resilient and realistic in dealing with issues by taking into consideration all the data with respect to the topics in question in order to better analyze them, and accordingly solve the correlated problems, and ‘pragmatics’ is not too different from that definition; for it’s “the study of how language is affected by the situation in which it is used, of how language is used to get things or perform actions, and of how words can express things that are different from what they appear to mean” (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.).

8.1. Context in Pragmatics

Context is, without doubt, vitally important for a better analysis and understanding of any given discourse. Still, if we are to adopt objectivity in our assessment and review of written and oral language used to transmit a message, we need to do it properly by categorizing the context by type.

8.1.1. Physical Context

This type of context can be summarized in the space and time surrounding the discourse, so it’s about the setting details that should be taken into consideration like *when* and *where* and *what* is/was the conversation.

8.1.2. Epistemic Context

The adjective “epistemic” is used to describe anything related to knowledge, and the epistemic context is what the speaker/writer and the listener/reader know, not only about the topic discussed, but also outside the framework of the discussion; since the general knowledge and awareness play a key role in the quality and quantity of what we produce and how we receive it then interact with it.

8.1.3. Linguistic Context

This particular type revolves around elements that were used in the speech and how to refer to them. A good example of that would be the following sentence:

Life isn't about doing what people want you to do, *it* should rather be about doing what you want to do.

It's obvious that the pronoun “it” written in bold refers to “life” in this specific sentence, however, this is not the dictionary definition of the word, rather the contextual meaning.

8.1.4. Social Context

We also must consider the relationship between the interlocutors, since speaking with your friend or sibling is not the same as speaking with your boss

or customer. The choice of words would change, as well as the tone and even topics of the conversations.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Discuss the following examples by taking into consideration all types of context.

"The meeting is at 2." (Consider different interpretations based on where the meeting is.)

"I saw her at the library." (Who is "her"? What is the significance of seeing her at the library?)

"It's raining." (What is the relevance of this statement? Does it imply something else?)

"Can you pass the salt?" (Consider the physical context and the social context.)

"He's not the sharpest tool in the shed." (What knowledge is needed to understand this idiom?)

9. Historical Linguistics

Just like it was suggested by the subheading; “historical linguistics, also called Diachronic Linguistics, the branch of linguistics concerned with the study of phonological, grammatical, and semantic changes, the reconstruction of earlier stages of languages, and the discovery and application of the methods by which genetic relationships among languages can be demonstrated” (historical linguistics, n.d.).

10. Etymology

This one, as compared to the previous point, is “the study of the origin and history of words, or a study of this type relating to one particular word” (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.), so it all ends up digging into the past to figure out the earlier meanings of words that we may still use today, but with probably very different connotations, and this (if the word still has different meanings at the same time) is what’s known as *polysemy*.

11. Etymological Fallacy

It is considered a fallacy when the oldest meaning of a word (that may even be no longer in use) is imposed as the right or exclusive meaning to consider and refer to.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Write a paragraph where you use words based on their original meaning centuries ago. A meaning that's no longer used.

Exercise 02: Imagine you've traveled back in time to the medieval era. How would the following words be understood by people living then, and how would that differ from their current meanings? Explain why insisting on the old meaning today would be an example of the etymological fallacy.

Manufacture

Nice

Silly

Villain

Condescending

Prevent

Terrific

Garbage

Computer

Internet

Chapter Six

Figures of Speech

A word, phrase or expression that is used in a figurative way to be understood metaphorically, not literally.

1. Metaphor

It's a figure of speech used to express an idea that should not be interpreted in a literal way. A metaphorical example could be "Brad Pitt is a shining star".

2. Hyperbole

It's another figure of speech that consists of an exaggerated statement instead of conveying the intended meaning in a correct way. A hyperbolic example would be "That casual shirt isn't affordable, *it costs an arm and a leg.*"

3. Understatement

This particular figure of speech is used when trying to make a situation/someone/something/ look not as important and significant as it truly is. More precisely, it's rather implemented to *lessen* the *seriousness* or *gravity* of a given statement. An adequate example might be observed when saying that the house has got *just some wall cracks* after an earthquake, whereas in reality, it had *almost completely collapsed*.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Rewrite each sentence below, adding hyperbole to make it more expressive.

I'm tired.

The test was difficult.

She's a good singer.

He's very tall.

I waited a long time.

Exercise 02: Remove hyperbole by saying the following sentences moderately.

I've told you a million times to clean your room!

I'm so hungry I could eat a horse.

The line at the coffee shop was a mile long.

He's as strong as an ox.

Exercise 03: Identify the understatement in each sentence and explain what is being downplayed.

"It's a bit chilly today," said while standing in a blizzard.

"He's a little bit tired," after running a marathon.

"The movie was alright," when it was actually the best movie ever.

"We had a slight disagreement," which involved a shouting match.

"It's just a scratch," when the injury is quite serious.

- **Exercise 04: Rewrite each sentence below, using understatement to make it less dramatic.**

I'm furious!

That was the most amazing concert I've ever seen!

The traffic was absolutely terrible.

I'm completely exhausted.

The storm caused widespread destruction.

4. Euphemism

This one is defined by trying to transmit the same meaning, but by using one word or more in such a way that the message is *less sad, harsh, blunt, offensive, impolite, unpleasant, uncomfortable, inappropriate, embarrassing or even unacceptable*. A euphemistic example is witnessed when a worker's contract is to be *terminated*, and the human resources manager states in the email that the worker in question will have to go through an *involuntary job separation* due to a personnel surplus reduction.

5. Allusion

It's yet another figure of speech that is needed when we prefer to use a word or an expression that makes us think about something else. An allusive example can be *Achilles heel* when we speak about a *weak point*, e.g. potato chips have always been her Achilles heel.

6. Circumlocution

It's the tendency to use a large number of unnecessary words, usually to *avoid* tackling the main topic in a straightforward way. A circumlocutory exemplification of what's also called **periphrasis** may be established by describing a *bald-faced lie* by saying that it's merely *a truth whose second half was not completely revealed in the most obvious way*.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Identify the euphemism in each sentence and explain what it is replacing.

He passed away peacefully in his sleep.

We're downsizing the company.

They're experiencing some financial difficulties.

She's between jobs at the moment.

We need to let him go.

Exercise 02: Rewrite each sentence below, replacing the direct phrase with a euphemism.

He's dead.

The company is firing a lot of people.

They're poor.

She's unemployed.

He was fired.

Exercise 04: Picture the following situations. Write a sentence using circumlocution.

You're playing a guessing game where you can't use certain words.

You're trying to avoid directly mentioning a sensitive topic.

You're trying to sound sophisticated or intellectual.

Exercise 04: Remove circumlocution used in these sentences, then rewrite them properly.

The individual responsible for the culinary preparations.

The period of time following sunset.

The department concerned with financial matters.

- **Exercise 05: Explain what the allusive words and expressions refer to.**

He was a real Romeo with the ladies.

She's the Einstein of our class.

The situation turned into a real Waterloo.

He's trying to reinvent the wheel.

Don't go opening Pandora's Box.

7. Litotes

This figure of speech is used to express something by using the *negative* form instead of the affirmative one. A proper example would be to say “the text isn’t that difficult to understand” instead of saying “the text is quite easy to understand.”

8. Metonymy

Metonymy is a different figure of speech and integral part of our day-to-day life, *symbolizing* a concept/something/someone by using a semantically linked word to mean another word. A metonymic example could be choosing ‘crown’ in lieu of ‘king/queen/prince/princess/sultan/sultana.’

9. Onomatopoeia

Another figure of speech that sets a word in order to imitate the sought-after sound. An onomatopoeic example is ‘clap’ referring to the (sound of) clapping hands.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Detect the litotes in each sentence, then reformulate them without it.

That's not a bad idea

He's not the worst player on the team."

It's not uncommon to see deer in this area.

The food wasn't inedible.

1. **Exercise 02 :** Picture the following hypothetical situations, then write a sentence using litotes about each situation.

You're describing a friend who is exceptionally kind.

You're commenting on a performance that was truly outstanding

You're acknowledging someone's significant achievement.

You're trying to politely suggest that someone is wrong.

You're modestly downplaying your own role in a successful project.

Exercise 03: Where is the metonymy in each sentence?

The crown has decided to increase taxes.

Hollywood is obsessed with sequels.

The White House issued an important statement.

He's a big fan of the Bard.

She studied hard for her finals.

Exercise 04: Express the same idea in these sentences, but without any figure of speech.

Wall Street was in a panic after the market crash

The pen is mightier than the sword.

He drank the whole bottle.

Exercise 05: Is there any onomatopoeia in the following sentences?

The bee buzzed lazily around the flowers.

The clock ticked quietly in the corner.

The bacon sizzled in the pan.

10. Oxymoron

A figure of speech relying on the juxtaposition of two words having opposite meanings. An oxymoronic example can be ‘doubtful certainty.’

11. Pleonasm

The *superfluously pleonastic, needless, inordinate and excessive* (mis)use of unnecessary words to make a point. The previous sentence is per se a demonstration of pleonasm.

12. Synecdoche

This specific figure of speech is characterized by the introduction of something by referring to a *part* of it *or vice versa*. A direct exemplification can be ‘hired *hands*’ to refer to ‘workers.’

13. Anthropomorphism

This is giving/attributing human traits/characteristics to non-human animals, plants, deities, objects, concepts, etc. Anthropomorphic examples are found everywhere around us; like *talking animals* in fairy tales.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: Explain how these sentences contain oxymoron.

He was a cheerfully pessimistic man.

The silence was deafening.

They enjoyed a bittersweet reunion.

It was a clearly confused explanation.

She wore a beautifully ugly dress.

Exercise 02: Use the following words to come up with sentences containing oxymoron.

wise / fool

open / secret

original / copy

Exercise 03: Try to use a combination of adverbs and adjectives to implement oxymoron in the following hypothetical situations.

You're describing a situation that is both funny and tragic.

You're commenting on a person who is both kind and ruthless.

You're trying to explain a complex idea that seems contradictory.

You're describing a place that is both beautiful and desolate.

You're talking about a decision that was both difficult and necessary.

Exercise 04: Remove pleonasm from each sentence.

I saw it with my own two eyes.

They both arrived together at the same time.

The blue color was a vibrant shade of blue.

He gave a brief summary of the main points.

She returned back to her home.

Exercise 05: Add as many pleonastic words as possible to the following sentences.

The car was red.

He walked away.

The story was interesting.

I understand.

The lesson was easy.

Exercise 06: Extract the forms of synecdoche from the sentences below.

I need a hand with this project.

Nice wheels!

The world is watching.

He's got a roof over his head.

Boots on the ground.

Exercise 07: Explain the anthropomorphic implementation in the sentences below.

The wind whispered secrets through the trees.

The old house sighed with weariness.

The flowers danced in the gentle breeze.

My computer is feeling a little sluggish today.

The angry storm raged across the sea.

Exercise 08: Add anthropomorphic words to change the following sentences.

The car moved quickly.

The river flowed gently.

The trees swayed in the wind.

The sun shone brightly.

The clouds drifted across the sky.

Schema Theory

Without having to use, think of or even know the word ‘schema’ through our everyday activities and thoughts, the concept is constantly around to refer to “a drawing that represents an idea or theory and makes it easier to understand” (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.), and this very definition is actually quite similar to the one we give to *schema* in *pragmatics*.

Much like the concept of mapping or schematizing different ideas to realize something, “A schema, or scheme, is an abstract concept proposed by J. Piaget to refer to our, well, abstract concepts. Schemas (or schemata) are units of understanding that can be hierarchically categorized as well as webbed into complex relationships with one another” (Schema Theory, n.d.). With this in mind, *schemata* might change according to our knowledge about what we endeavor to describe or conceive/perceive, and it goes without saying that schemata may differ from one group/person to another, from one language/culture to another, from one era/period to another, from one country/place to another, and sure enough, from one context to another.

We then eventually interpret words, expressions, speeches and situations in a way that facilitates access of too much information/input, making their way into our brains through the five basic human senses (sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch), which would/should enable the brain to sort out received inputs and accordingly produce its own outputs.

Script Theory

This theory suggests that there are some psychological patterns to have, both consciously or unconsciously, hence follow by translating them into particular behavioral series of actions. That is what usually makes anyone think of eating something in a restaurant in a preconceived way, positing to walk in, take a look at the menu (if that's the first visit), choose, wait for the waiter/waitress, order, eat, then pay, or perhaps order, prepay then eat. That's not necessarily how things must always go, some restaurants have different ways of serving their customers, but the suggested idea is how relatively common it is for many/most people to think of some same/similar scenarios.

Exercises:

Exercise 01: What is the schema that crosses your mind when you're told the following?

You see a sign that says "Dentist's Office."

Someone tells you they are going to "catch a flight."

You receive an invitation to a "birthday party."

You see a sign that says "Library."

Exercise 02: Describe in detail the suggested scenarios below according to a script you find normal.

Going to a movie theater.

Attending a birthday party.

Going to a restaurant.

Exercise 03: What crosses your mind when you find yourself in such scenarios?

You see someone holding a movie ticket and a large bucket of popcorn.

You hear someone say, "Table for two, please."

You see someone wearing a graduation gown and cap.

You see someone filling out a form at a counter that says "Rental Car."

You hear the sound of an airplane taking off.

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