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DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES
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AF1111

Introduction to Linguistics and African Languages

Key Concepts and Assignments

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Obligatory Readings for this course

BLLL = Culicover, Peter W. & Elizabeth V. Hume. 2017. *Basics of language for language learners*. 2nd edn. Columbus: Ohio State University Press. ([price comparison](#))

LSAAL = Eifring, Halvor & Rolf Theil. 2005. *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*. Manuscript, University of Oslo. (Chapter 1-2.2, 5, 7-8, Open Access)

FSTAL = Richter, Borbála (ed.). 2006. *First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*. Budapest: Bölcsész Konzorcium. (Chapter 1-6, 8, Open Access)

Wolff, H. Ekkehard. 2016. *Language and development in Africa*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (Chapter 9, distributed during the course)

For reference

Joint catalogue for Swedish reserach libraries: [Libris](#).

The Catalogue of [Gothenburg University Library](#).

Linguistic Society of America's Unified [Stylesheet for the List of References](#).

Leipzig [Generic Style Rules for Linguistics](#).

Leipzig [Glossing Rules](#).

Wikipedia's list of [glossing abbreviations](#).

Childs, George Tucker. 2003. *An Introduction to African Languages*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Dimendaal, Gerrit J. 2011. *Historical linguistics and the comparative study of African languages*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Dryer, Matthew S. & Martin Haspelmath (eds.). 2013. *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*. Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology. <http://wals.info>

Eberhard, David M. & Gary F. Simons & Charles D. Fennig (eds.). 2022. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*. 25th edn. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. <http://www.ethnologue.com>
[Login with you student credentials through our university library to get full access.](#)

Güldemann, Tom (ed.). 2018. *The languages and linguistics of Africa* (The World of Linguistics 11). Berlin & Boston: de Gruyter. https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/rmbr1s/46GUB_KOHA2601442

Mutaka, Ngessimo M. 2000. *An introduction to African linguistics* (LINCOM handbooks in linguistics 16). München: LINCOM Europa.

Vossen, Rainer & Gerrit J. Dimmendaal (eds.). 2020. *The Oxford handbook of African languages*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_proquest_ebookcentral_EBC6461114

Welmers, Wm. E. 1973. *African language structures*. Berkely, California.
(UB Gbg: Fv 393)

When to read what

- Unit 1. **Introduction to the Course** (BLLL ch. 1-4)
- Unit 2. **Linguistics** (LSAAL ch. 1, FSTAL ch. 1)
- Unit 3. **Languages in Africa** (LSAAL 5, Wolff 9)
- Unit 4. **Semantics and Pragmatics** (LSAAL 2.2-2.2.4, FSTAL 5-6)
- Unit 5. **Phonetics and Phonology** (BLLL 5 + FSTAL 2)
- Unit 6. **Vowels and Consonants** (BLLL 6-7)

First exam, worth 2.5 ects credits (short online test)

- Unit 7. **Phonotactics and Morphophonology** (BLLL 8-9)
- Unit 8. **Structures and Categories** (BLLL 10, FSTAL 3)
- Unit 9. **Nouns and Determiners** (BLLL 11)
- Unit 10. **Modifying nouns: Adjectives and Relative Clauses** (BLLL 12)
- Unit 11. **Verbs and Roles** (BLLL 13)
- Unit 12. **Tense and Aspect** (BLLL 14)

Second exam, worth 2.5 ects credits (short online test)

- Unit 13. **Phrases and Clauses** (FSTAL 4.1-4.5)
- Unit 14. **Types of Clauses and Sentences** (BLLL 15, FSTAL 4.6)
- Unit 15. **Writing** (LSAAL 8)
- Unit 16. **Sociolinguistics: Varieties and Norms** (BLLL 16, LSAAL 7, FSTAL 8)
- Unit 17. **Politeness and Taboos** (BLLL 17-18)
- Unit 18. **Summing up and Review** (BLLL ch. 19)

Final Exam, worth 2.5 ects and the final grade for the course (longer online test)

Corrections and comments to the main textbook

Culicover, Peter W. & Hume, Elizabeth V. 2017. *Basics of language for language learners*. 2nd edn. Columbus: Ohio State University Press.

Page 42, line 13, instead of **ä, ö, å** read **å, ä, ö**.

Page 42, line 15, instead of **two** read **three**.

Page 42, line 20, instead of **almost at the end** read **at the end**.

The Finnish alphabet has three additional vowels (å, ä, ö) as compared to the English alphabet. Two (ä, ö) are typical Finnish sounds, whereas the vowel (å) mostly occurs in names of Swedish origin. The order of the extra vowels of the Finnish alphabet, just like in the Swedish alphabet, is ... *å, ä, ö*.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Finnish_orthography

However, the Norwegian and Danish alphabet ends with ... *æ, ø, å*.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Danish_and_Norwegian_alphabet

Page 42, line 1 f.b. (from bottom), instead of **[mâ]** read **[mä]**.

Page 44, line 12 f.b., instead of **Swedish-English** read **English-Swedish**.

Page 44, line 10 and 7 f.b., instead of **grasten** read **gråsten**.

Page 44, line 7 f.b., instead of **håleberg** read **hålleberg**.

Page 66, line 4: instead of **[q] thin, bath** read **[p] or [θ] thin, bath**.

Page 85, line 2–3 f.b., instead of **French, Greek, German, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Navajo, Spanish**
read **Greek, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Japanese, Navajo**.

Page 85, line 1 f.b., instead of **English** read **English, French, German, Italian and Spanish**.

Page 87, line 1–3: instead of **two mid nasal vowels, spelled ‘e’ [ɛ̃] and ‘a’ [ɔ̃]. The nasal quality of a vowel can differentiate the words ‘I, me’ (contains an oral vowel) and ‘she, her’ (contains a nasal vowel)** read **two mid nasal diphthongs, spelled ‘e’ [ɛw̃] and ‘a’ [ɔw̃]. The nasal quality of a vowel can differentiate the words ‘it, that’ (contains an oral vowel) and ‘with it, with that’ (contains a nasal diphthong)**.

Page 87, line 8: instead of **[jɔ̃] ‘I, me’**
read **to [tɔ̃] ‘it, that’ (neuter singular, nominative case)**.

Page 87, line 9: instead of [jɔ̃] ‘she, her’
read *tq* [tɔ̃w] ‘with it, with that (feminine singular, instrumental case).

In Polish, [jɔ] occurs as a dialectal pronunciation corresponding to standard *ja* [ja] ‘I (nominative)’, as opposed to *ją* [jɔw] ‘her (accusative)’.

Page 87, line 6–16 f.b.

Exemplifying vowel length with Turkish is not very fortunate, since Turkish only marginally has long vowels, mainly in borrowed words from Arabic. There are so many other good examples of languages that really has a full fledged system of contrasting long and short vowels, such as Swedish, Norwegian, Finnish, Estonian, Czech, Hungarian, and among African languages Arabic, Somali, Oromo, Hausa, Fula, Wolof...

Page 94, lines 15–16 f.b., instead of **In Arabic** read **In classical Arabic**.

In classical Arabic every word begins with a consonant. The letter alif (ا) denotes a glottal stop, not a vowel, e.g. انا /ʔana:/ ‘I’. But in modern colloquial Arabic words can be pronounced without this initial glottal stop (and final long vowels are pronounced as short ones), which gives انا [ana] ‘I’, which in turn would most naturally be analysed as /ana/ in modern colloquial Arabic. So whether “every Arabic word begins with a consonant” depends on the analysis that you choose to adopt, which in turn depends on the variety that you want to analyse.

Page 97, line 13 f.b.

There are also Greek words ending in /ks/, e.g. πτέρυξ /’pteriks/.

Page 100, line 1 f.b., instead of **cedilla** read **ogonek or tail**.

A cedilla is found, e.g., in French <ç> or Turkish <ş>. The Polish and Lithuanian vowel symbols, however, carry a so called *ogonek* (Polish for ‘tail’) which is turned the other way around: <ą, ę, ĩ, ų>.

Page 111, line 2–4: instead of **French, Greek, German, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Navajo, Spanish**
read **Greek, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Japanese, Navajo**.

Page 125, line 8: instead of **the other six** read **the other three**.

Page 141, line 10: instead of **the children** read **(the) children**.

Swahili does not make any distinction between indefinite and definite form of nouns through the use of determiners.

Page 149, line 14: instead of **kazhdyje zelėnyje list’ja** read **kazdyj zel’onyj list**.

Page 149, line 4 f.b., instead of **the strange house** read **the small house**.

Page 149, line 1 f.b., instead of **the strange houses** read **the small houses**.

Page 153, line 18: instead of **at how** read **how**.

Page 156, line 9 and 12: instead of **il uomo** read **l'uomo**.

Page 169, line 12: instead of **le livre à ... Marie** read **le livre ... à Marie**.

Page 171, line 16 and 20: instead of **man** read **father**.

Page 171, line 12 f.b., instead of **that some action was accomplished**
read **a tool or instrument with which some action was accomplished**.

Page 172, line 14: instead of **the form of a noun is the same**
read **the form of a noun can be the same**.

Page 172, line 8 f.b., instead of **3SG-past-3SG-see-INDIC**
read **1SG-PAST-1SG-see-INDIC**

In Swahili (and Bantu) grammar, 1SG, 3SG etc. refers to the noun class of the noun that the verb prefix is referring to, i.e., 1SG = noun class 1 (which contains singular nouns) etc.

Page 172, line 6 f.b., instead of **a-ni-ki-soma** read **a-na-ki-soma**.

Page 185, line 2, 4 and 6 f.b., instead of **v kote** read **na kota**.

Page 186, line 1: instead of **present tense form of the verb be**
read **future tense form of the verb be**.

Page 186, line 4: instead of **future by using the present tense of the verb itself**
read **future time by using the present tense forms of the verb itself**.

Page 189, line 15: instead of **pisat** and **napisat** read **pifet** and **napifet**.

Page 198, line 10: instead of **he-asks** read **(s)he-asks**.

To the Polish examples, one could add, just like in German, a polite request: *Proszę pytać!* 'Please ask!'

Unit 1. Introduction

Read BLLL, chapter 1–4. This is rather ‘light reading’. If you don’t get the textbook in time, there is no need to worry. You will be able to catch up later on.

The course will cover

- Basic linguistic concepts
- Basic information about languages in Africa
- Basic library searches for linguistic information
- Basic analysis of language data
- Glossing examples
- Handling references

Key concepts

Bilingual dictionary vs. **monolingual** dictionary

Word-classes, traditionally also called **parts of speech**, are e.g. nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs...

Gender: In many languages nouns are divided into a number of groups based on their behaviour together with other words. Swedish has two genders, since nouns require either *en* or *ett*, *den/det*, *ny/nytt* etc. German has three genders since nouns require either *der*, *die* or *das*.

Base form: the most basic (simplest, shortest, most frequent) form of a word. The exact definition may differ between languages and scholars.

Infinitive: a form of the verb that is typically used together with another verb in many languages, e.g. *I can read*, *Jag kan läsa*. Not all languages have an infinitive, and use expressions like ‘I can that I read’, ‘Jag kan att jag läser’ instead.

[bra:] (Swedish for ‘good’) these parentheses are used in order to give information about pronunciation, they contain **phonetic transcription** of a word or a phrase. The transcription is written using phonetic script.

/bra:/ these slashes are used in order to give information about the ‘sound image’ of a word or a phrase, i.e. what the speaker and listener in a particular language ‘imagine’ that they say. This is called a **phonological or phonemic transcription**. Ordinary speakers are often not aware of all the details in their own pronunciation.

<bra> these 'parentheses' are used in order to give information about **spelling or orthography**, i.e. about the letters of a word or phrase.

*Would you like to discuss any of the above concepts in more detail?
Did you notice any other important concepts in the readings?
Please write them down and bring them to our next class.*

Assignment 1.1

Language of the week: Swahili

Try to find information about the following four issues:

1. Where is Swahili spoken?
2. How many speakers are there of Swahili?
3. To which language family does Swahili belong?
4. Mention two other languages that are closely related to Swahili and whose names are rather well known.

Write up your answers as a short text rather than a list with four independent answers. In your text you should make reference to at least three different sources where you have found the information.

After your text you need to add a list of your sources. Give it the heading **References**. The layout of your list of references should follow the standards that are widely applied in African linguistics. You can find these rules in Appendix 1. (It is important to notice that the layout of a reference list varies a lot between different sciences.)

Unit 2. Linguistics

Read LSAAL chapter 1 and FSTAL chapter 1.

Both these readings contain a lot of details, especially LSAAL. You don't have to learn all those things. The important thing is that you do your best to acquire a fairly good understanding of the key concepts in the list below. Through the two readings and the recommended videos you will hopefully get a much better understanding of these concepts than you would by just looking through the list below. The explanations below are extremely short. The purpose of that list is to be useful for review when you want to quickly check that you have not missed any important concept.

Key concepts

Linguistics: The scientific study of language(s).

Descriptive statements about language describe how language is used, reporting observations objectively, without any judgements about them.
→ "This is what people say and write."

Prescriptive statements about language make judgements about language correctness. → "This is what people should say and write. This is good and that is bad."

Grammar: description of the structure of (a) language(s).

Phonetics: the science dealing with the physical and physiological character of sounds, how sounds are produced, transmitted and perceived.

Phonology: the science dealing with the sound system of (a) specific language(s).

Phoneme: the smallest building block that can change the meaning of a word.

Morphology: the science dealing with the structure of words, how words consist of smaller parts – morphemes – each one contributing some specific meaning.

Morpheme: the smallest building blocks that carry a meaning.

Syntax: the science dealing with how words are put together to larger chunks: phrases, clauses, sentences and texts.

Morphosyntax: Morphology + Syntax; it's often difficult to tell exactly where to draw the borderline between them, and therefore it may be more

convenient to treat them together.

Lexicon: The set of words in a language and our knowledge about these words.

Lexicology: the science dealing with the lexicon, i.e. the vocabulary.

Lexicography: the science dealing with the construction of dictionaries OR the actual construction of dictionaries.

Semantics: the science dealing with the meaning of words and utterances.

Pragmatics: the science dealing with the use of words and utterances in a social context, i.e. in real life situations. (We often don't say exactly what we mean, e.g., Do you know what time it is?)

Sociolinguistics: the science dealing with how different groups of people use language in slightly different ways.

Corpus linguistics: the science dealing with the use of large amounts of computationally stored texts for the investigation of language.

Historical linguistics: the science dealing with the historical development of (a) language(s).

Form vs. Meaning: Every linguistic expression (word, phrase etc.) has two 'sides'. On the one hand there are the words themselves, which have a form consisting of sounds; on the other hand there are the meanings, what we imagine when we use a specific word.

Arbitrariness: the relation between **form** and **meaning** is arbitrary, i.e. there is no 'natural' way of explaining the connection between the form and the meaning (with the exception of a few words that imitate sounds).

Recursiveness: the same words can be used over and over again, in new combinations, thus giving us the possibility to create an indefinite number of different, new phrases and sentences of different length and complexity.

The Character of Linguistics

is **descriptive**:

- It finds out how people use language(s),
- it finds patterns, makes generalisations, draws conclusions, finds explanations, makes predictions, and tests them.

It is **not prescriptive**:

- it doesn't say that something is good or bad, right or wrong,
- but it can describe what **people consider** to be (in)correct,
- as well as describe what is frequent and what is infrequent.

No language is 'better' than other languages

All languages have an enormous, indefinite potential to develop new means of expression. Everything depends on the needs of the speakers and their community. It's mainly the **vocabulary that may be restricted** in a specific language, but new words can always be easily created, if needed.

Grammatical constructions may be very different in different languages. Some constructions are more condensed, other constructions use more words.

bilnyckeln vs. *nyckeln till bilen*
the car key vs. *the key to the car*

Different stylistic levels of language may use different grammar and vocabulary. Different styles develop over time if a need is felt for it in the community/society.

Assignment 2.1

Language of the week: Arabic

Look for information about the following issues concerning Arabic:

1. Where is Arabic spoken?
2. How many speakers of Arabic are there world wide?
3. How many speakers of Arabic are there in Africa
4. To which language family does Arabic belong?
5. Mention two other languages that are closely related to Arabic and whose names are rather well known.
6. Mention two other languages that are distantly related to Arabic and whose names are rather well known.

Assignment 2.2

Discuss

1. Consider these statements: *I learned a new word today. I learned a new sentence today.* Are they equally probable? Why? (Fromkin et al. 2014: 29)
2. Can you think of a rule of your own language that you have learned to be the correct way to say something, but that you do not always follow yourself when speaking? Can you think of some good arguments to present to somebody who tells you that the way you express yourself is wrong? (Fromkin et al. 2014: 29)
3. Why is the awareness and understanding of scientific terminology so important in linguistics (and all other sciences)?
4. What aspects of languages can be studied using a corpus?

Unit 3. Languages in Africa

Read LSAAL, chapter 5 + Wolff (2016), chapter 9

Key Concepts

More than 2 000 languages in Africa

Language versus **Dialect**, division due to **either**

- mutual understandability, e.g.

Moroccan Arabic & Iraqi Arabic,
Älvdalian vs. Swedish

or

- standardisation/political decisions, e.g.

Swedish & Norwegian & Danish;
Czech & Slovak;
Bosnian & Croatian & Montenegrinian & Serbian;
Zulu & Xhosa.

Language family (=phylum) and subgroups

Language Isolate – Languages with no genetic ‘relatives’

Language Death

Lingua Franca – If two persons don’t know each other’s languages, they need to choose a third one in order to be able to communicate with each other. This is then their lingua franca – a language that is foreign to both participants, but used for practical communicative purposes. Examples of major lingua francas in today’s world are English, Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, but in e.g. Ethiopia, the traditional lingua franca is Amharic.

Pidgin – A “lingua franca” that is not a previously existing language, but a new, simplified mix of two languages, usually the mother tongue’s of the persons who want to communicate.

Creole – A “new” language that was previously a pidgin, but has become the mother tongue of new generations who were raised by speakers of a pidgin language.

Pidgin är inte ett språk utan en typ av språk. När personer med olika modersmål inte kan något gemensamt språk så ”skapar” de ett ”hjälpspråk” för att kunna kommunicerat.

Det innebär att det liksom utvecklas en "standard" för "hemmagjord" engelska i olika länder där stora delar av befolkningen behöver engelskan för att kommunicera då det talas många olika språk i landet. Om vi hade använt engelskan när vi gick till affären i Sverige för att det talades 80 olika modersmål i Sverige, då hade även svengelskan betraktats som en pidgin.

Ett pidgin-språk är ett språk som växer fram spontant som ett hjälpspråk i befolkningar där många språk samexisterar och majoriteten saknar kunskaper i ett gemensamt språk som alla skulle kunna använda.

Ett annat hjälpspråk är t.ex. esperanto, men skillnaden är att esperanto är ett språk som planerats och utvecklats av språkvetare, medan pidgin är ett helt oplanerat språk och växer fram spontant på en viss plats, ofta i stora städer där många nationaliteter möts och behöver kommunicera, men få har tillräcklig skolgång för att kunna använda den standardiserade formen av det internationella språk som dominerar på platsen.

I Västafrika är det främst engelskan och franskan som är de stora officiella språken i många länder. Därmed är det också vanligt att ett av dessa båda språk utgör basen i det lokala pidgin-språket. Men skillnaderna mellan t.ex. standard-engelska och pidgin-engelska är vanligtvis så stora att den som inte kan pidgin-engelska i stort sett inte förstår någonting utan att lära sig språket. Dels finns massor av ord från andra språk blandade med de engelska orden, dels är både uttal och grammatik kraftigt förändrad. Till exempel kan flera av de engelska ljuden saknas eftersom de är svåra att uttala för folk på den aktuella platsen, då de viktiga lokala språken saknar ljuden. Vidare kan många detaljer i den engelska grammatiken ha fallit bort eftersom de saknar motsvarighet i de stora lokala språken. Ett intressant exempel är att många av världens språk inte skiljer mellan 'han' och 'hon'. Så är det ju till exempel också i finskan som bara har 'hän'. I Pidgin-språk går ofta sådana förändringar ännu längre, eftersom ingen som talar språket har det som modersmål. T.ex. är det i nigeriansk pidgin så att det finns ganska få pronomen och att ett och samma pronomen får fylla flera funktioner, t.ex. *im* i betydelsen 'han, hon, hans, hennes' och *am* för 'honom, henne' (se Rotimi & Faraclas, s. 96-99). En annan intressant detalj är att verben inte böjs och att det därmed inte finns några ändelser som signalerar förfluten tid i motsats till nutid.

Indo-European languages

Germanic:

English, German, Dutch, **Afrikaans**, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Icelandic, Faroese etc.

Romance:

French, Italian, Romanian, Spanish, Portuguese etc.

Slavic:

Russian, Ukrainian, Polish, Czech, Slovak, Slovene etc.

Celtic:

Irish, Welsh, Gaelic etc.

Greek

Albanian

Iranian:

Persian (aka Farsi), Tajik, Kurdish, Pashto etc.

Indo-Aryan:

Hindi, Urdu, Gujarati, Nepali, Bengali, Kashmiri, Punjabi, Sinhala, Romani etc.

etc.

Niger-Congo languages (appr. 1.400 languages)

Kordofanian languages (appr. 20 languages):

Mande languages (appr. 35 languages):

Bambara, Jula, Mandinka...

Atlantic languages (appr. 45 languages):

Fula, Wolof...

Ijoid languages (appr. 10 languages)

Dogon languages (appr. 12 languages, 0.5 million speakers)

Volta-Congo languages

North Volta-Congo languages

Kru languages

Gur languages

South Volta-Congo languages

Volta-Niger or Benue-Congo languages:

Igbo, Ewe, Yoruba...

Central Nigerian languages

Tivoid languages

Tiv, Bitare...

Bantu languages (appr. 450 lang.)

Swahili, Kongo, Shona, Bemba, Zulu, Xhosa...

Afro-Asiatic languages

Semitic (ca. 77 lang.):

Central Semitic

Arabic, Hebrew...

South Semitic

Ahmaric (ca. 35 mill.), Tigrinya (ca. 10 mill.),

Tigre (ca. 3 mill.), South Arabic (Yemen & Oman)...

Cushitic (ca. 47 lang.):

Oromo (ca. 40 mill.), Somali (ca. 26 mill.), Sidamo (ca. 3 mill.),

Afar (1,5 mill.)...

Chadic (ca. 195 lang.)

Hausa...

Berber (ca. 26 lang.)

Tamazight, Tarifit, Taqbaylit, Tamasheq...

Omotic (ca 28 lang.)

Wolaytta (ca. 2 mill.)

Egyptian[†]

Coptic[†]...

Nilo-Saharan languages

A total of some 50-60 million speakers.

Large disagreement on the subdivision into groups.

Kanuri (3 mill. in Nigeria)

Luo (3 mill. in Kenya)

Dinka (2 mill. in South Sudan)

Nubian (1.7 mill. in Sudan and Egypt)

Maasai (1 mill. in Kenya and Tanzania)

Khoi-San languages

Less than 1 million speakers.

Large disagreement on the subdivision into groups.

Nama (ca 250 000 speakers in Namibia, Botswana, South Africa)

Sandawe (ca 50 000 speakers in Tanzania)

Austronesian languages

Ca. 1200 languages, spoken by a total of 400 million people.

Northern Austronesian

26 languages in Formosa/Taiwan, half of which are now extinct.

Eastern Austronesian (the largest number of languages)

Polynesian, Samoan, Tongan, Tahitian, Maori, Hawaiian...

Western Austronesian (the largest number of speakers)

Javanese, Malay, Indonesian, Tagalog (Philippines), **Malagassy** (Madagascar, ca. 25 mill.)...

Assignment 3.1

Language of the week: Somali

1. Where is Somali spoken?
2. How many speakers of Somali are there?
3. To which language family does Somali belong?
4. How many different consonants and vowels are there in Somali?
5. Mention a really large language that is quite closely related to Somali.
6. Mention two other well known languages that are distantly related to Somali.

Assignment 3.2

The number of speakers of individual languages in Africa

Have a look at the numbers of speakers mentioned in as many different sources as possible for two of the major languages of Africa. Alongside with other sources, you might also compare Wikipedia's different language versions about a specific language.

How much variation did you find? What are the extremes for the same language?

What different reasons can there be for the sometimes large variation in numbers?

If you want to get inspired (or maybe puzzled or confused), have a look at some of these videos:

10 most spoken languages in Africa

1. Swahili, 2. Arabic, 3. Zulu, 4. French, 5. English, 6. Oromo, 7. Yoruba, 8. Amharic, 9. Igbo, 10. Hausa

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NimJsEGGbDk>

7 most spoken languages in Africa

1. Swahili, 2. Arabic, 3. Hausa, 4. Yoruba, 5. Oromo, 6. Igbo, 7. Zulu

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8CwJemzfDhc>

10 most spoken languages in Africa

1. Arabic, 2. English, 3. French, 4. Swahili, 5. Hausa, 6. Yoruba, 7. Igbo, 8. Amharic, 9. Oromo, 10. Berber

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BdS5dgZ_pPo

10 most spoken languages in Africa

1. English, 2. Arabic, 3. Swahili, 4. French, 5. Amharic, 6. Hausa, 7. Oromo, 8. Yoruba, 9. Portuguese, 10. Zulu

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=waBAzHlxmqA>

Assignment 3.3

Your Top 10 List of Most Spoken African Languages

1. Put together your own list of the 10 major African languages.
2. For each language, tell us: 1. the number of speakers, 2. the language family that it belongs to, 3. the countries where it is mainly spoken. 4. The sources of your data with a list of references.
3. Explain what kind of considerations have been important to you in order to be systematic and deliver numbers on comparable grounds for all the languages on your list.

Unit 4. Semantics and Pragmatics

Read: LSAAL, sections 2.2–2.2.4 + FSTAL, chapters 5–6

Key Concepts

Semantics: the study of linguistic meaning

Synonymy: synonyms are words or phrases that mean more or less the same, e.g. *elderly* \approx *senior*; *watch out* \approx *be careful*; *black gold* \approx *oil*. There are however almost always some kind of small differences between synonyms in their finer nuances. It is often a matter of REGISTER, i.e. under what circumstances one or the other would be used, e.g. in FORMAL or INFORMAL use of the language.

Polysemy: a polysemous word is a lexeme with different related meanings, e.g. *date* ‘number denoting a specific day’ or ‘meeting’. Sometimes the relation can be difficult to figure out, because the historical development has made us think in new ways, and the old associations have become very distant.

Metonymy: a derived meaning by close association to the original meaning, e.g. *Ankara* says that major progress has been made in the operation. It's of course not the city itself, but the politicians in the city, that have made this statement.

Metaphor: a meaning transferred from a very different domain based on some kind of similarity, e.g. *Hope is on the horizon*. This is of course not saying anything about where hope is situated, but that one can begin to see some hope, like the sun rising at the horizon.

Homonymy: when two different lexemes have an identical form, e.g. *date* ‘number representing a specific day’ vs. *date* ‘kind of fruit’.

Homonyms may be subdivided into

homophones - are only **pronounced** in the same way:

no, know; be, bee; see, sea; root, route

homographs - are only **written** in the same way:

sow [səw] verb, Sw. ‘så’ (to plant seeds)

sow [saw] noun, Sw. ‘so’ (female pig)

Antonymy: antonyms are words with opposite meanings. The relation between the words can be

Gradable antonyms:

two meanings lie on a continuous spectrum:

big – small, good – bad, dark – light, young – old, early – late

Complementary antonyms:

the two meanings do not lie on a continuous spectrum:

open – closed, exhale – inhale, odd – even, exit – entrance, occupied – vacant

Relational antonyms:

two words that refer to a relationship from opposite points of view:

student – teacher, come – go, over – under, husband – wife, doctor – patient

Pragmatics - the study of the **use** of language **in a social context**

Many utterances are **ambiguous**, but in real life **ambiguity** is usually quite easily avoided in a specific social situation, if people cooperate.

Cooperation - speaker and listener strive to understand each other. Good cooperation can be seen as a proportionate mix of

- finding a COMMON GROUND
- using a SUITABLE QUANTITY of words
- applying an appropriate degree of POLITENESS
- only saying things that are RELEVANT to the situation
- only telling the TRUTH

Utterances have an **intention** & an **effect**. In successful communication they coincide.

Speech acts may be **direct** (*I want you to tell me his phone number.*) or **indirect** (*Do you happen to have his number?*). Very often people don't express their thoughts straightforwardly, they only imply them. There are large socio-cultural differences regarding how we express ourselves and how we interpret others. **Cross-cultural pragmatics** studies such differences.

The notion of **word** can be understood in different ways. Therefore, in order to be more precise, different terminological concepts are used:

token (Sw. *löpord*) – the occurrences in a text. Every occurrence is a separate token, even if the same form is repeated.

Therefore *car, car, cars, cars* are 4 tokens

type (Sw. *typord*) – the different **word forms**. If the same form occurs several times in a text, it still only counts once.

Therefore *car, car, cars, cars* are 2 types.

lexeme (Sw. *lexem*) – the abstract word based on the meaning, not the form. If different inflectional forms occur in a text, all the different forms only count as one lexeme.

Therefore *car, car, cars, cars* are 1 lexeme.

Most of the time a sequence of words is also a sequence of lexemes, and the meaning of a phrase can be derived from the individual words, e.g.

go out, red neck, a piece of cake

But sometimes that is not so. The reason is that there are also

multi-word lexemes: the meaning cannot be derived from the individual words. Therefore certain combinations of words jointly constitute one lexeme, e.g.

phrasal verbs

go out ‘date etc.’ (Macmillan 2022)

compounds

redneck ‘OFFENSIVE a working-class white person from the southern US, especially one who is not educated and does not like people who are not white’ (Macmillan 2022)

idioms

a piece of cake ‘something easy’ (Macmillan 2022)

A note on correspondence between languages

Through their words, languages sometimes ‘organise’ the world differently, e.g., the words we use to chunk up the day in Swedish and English:

dygn, dag, morgon, förmiddag, middag, eftermiddag, kväll, natt...
day, morning, noon, afternoon, evening, night...

If we compare them, we’ll see that they don’t correspond exactly to each other, they don’t last for exactly the same amount of time. *Kväll* sometimes corresponds to *night*, e.g. *i går kväll* – *last night*.

Assignment 4.1

Language of the week: Wolof

1. Where is Wolof spoken?
2. How many speakers of Wolof are there?
3. To which language family and subgroup does Wolof belong?
4. How many different consonants and vowels are there in Wolof?
5. Mention a really large language that is quite closely related to Wolof.
6. Mention another well known language that is distantly related to Wolof.

Assignment 4.1

General questions

1. What is the relation between the following word pairs? Gather the pairs in groups representing the same type.
 - a. assemble/disassemble
 - b. damp/moist
 - c. deep/shallow
 - d. dog/schnauzer
 - e. furniture/table
 - f. married/single
 - g. move/run
 - h. peace/piece
 - i. pen/pen
 - j. absent/present
 - k. appear/disappear
 - l. fail/pass
 - m. fair/unfair
 - n. fill/empty something
 - o. high/low

The source of this question is Yule (2014: 120).

2. Are the underlined words examples of polysemy or metonymy?
 - a. I had to park on the shoulder of the road.
 - b. I love those. I ate a whole box on Sunday.
 - c. The bookstore has some new titles in linguistics.
 - d. Computer chips created an important new technology.

The source of this question is Yule (2014: 120).

3. How many words are there in this sentence?

My new phone is newer than all my colleagues' phones are.

4. Give five examples of multi word lexemes (MWL) used in a sentence so that their meaning becomes evident from the context. Use English or Swedish. Underline the MWL.

5. Explain in what way the following sentences are ambiguous.

- a. May I try on those trousers in the window?
- b. I found a bat in the attic.
- c. She gave her dog meat.
- d. The chickens are ready to eat.
- e. Scientist put their glasses on their noses.
- f. Leave the chairs on the veranda.
- g. There is a café in the park that I like.
- h. You should eat more nutritious food.
- i. We discovered that they lost the election by chance.
- j. He said he didn't tell you because he wants to make you mad.

The source of this question is Hudson (2000: 326–327).

6. Explain in what ways the following sentences are indirect speech acts?

- a. I wonder if you have some aspirin.
- b. If I'm coming to your wedding? I wouldn't miss it for the world!
- c. Will you be quiet?
- d. Don't you think it's too dark in here?
- e. I wouldn't do that if I were you.
- f. Do you know what time it is?
- g. I wonder what time it is.
- h. You can bet I'll be there.
- i. A table by the window would be nice.
- j. Hold your horses!
- k. I do appreciate all this peace and quiet, kids!
- l. If you want to make an omelette you have to break eggs.
- h. Har du en penna?

The source of this question is Hudson (2000: 327–328).

Unit 5. Phonetics and Phonology

Read BLLL 5 and FSTAL 2

Key Concepts

Phonetics

Articulatory phonetics

Acoustic phonetics

Auditory phonetics

IPA - International Phonetic Alphabet / International Phonetic Association

Phonetic transcription / script is given between []

Phonology

Phoneme

Allophone

Phonemic or Phonological transcription is given between / /

Phonotactics

Syllable

What's the difference?

Phonetics deals with the exact quality of **any speech sound** as pronounced by a specific speaker in a specific word at a specific occasion, i.e. **phones**, e.g. all the different ways of pronouncing /r/ in Swedish. Phoneticians work with real speech production, recordings, technical equipment that measures and analyses. Phonetics is a piece of natural sciences (physics, anatomy) implemented within linguistics.

Phonology does not deal with the small differences between individual instances of a sound as produced by specific speakers in specific words. Instead phonologists deal only with the **sound system** in a **specific language**, i.e. such differences between sounds that may change the meaning of words, i.e. **phonemes** or distinctive speech sounds, e.g. how do we use /r/ in Swedish, English, Swahili etc.? Does it occur word initially, word finally, does it cluster with other consonants, e.g. *tree*, but not **rtee* (but in Czech it's ok: *rtut'* 'quicksilver, mercury')

Phonetics

Articulatory phonetics deals with the **production** of speech sounds

Acoustic phonetics deals with the **transmission** of speech sounds

Auditive phonetics deals with the **perception** of speech sounds (lat. *audire* 'hear')

IPA

International Phonetic Association & International Phonetic Alphabet

Narrow transcription – every detail is transcribed

e.g. Swedish [t^hɑ:] 'take'

Broad transcription – only the most necessary information

e.g. Swedish [ta:] 'take'

The rest can be figured out following some simple rules:

['] default stress in on the first syllable (and this word has only one)

[t^h] this consonant is aspirated before stressed vowel

[ɑ:] when long this vowel is automatically pronounced as back

So a simplified or broad transcription does not necessarily need to indicate these facts, but a more user-friendly transcription can of course do so.

Phonology

Phonemes are **distinctive** sounds (sounds that allow the speakers to distinguish between different words) in a **specific** language.

Phoneme inventory	Swedish:	/b/, /p/,	/v/, /f/
	Finnish:	/p/,	/v/, /f/
	English:	/b/, /p/, /w/,	/v/, /f/
	Arabic & Somali:	/b/,	/w/, /f/

Phonotactics (fonotax) describes the possible combinations of sounds

Prominence: at word level - one syllable is more prominent than the rest
at sentence level - one word is more prominent than the rest

Prominence can be realized as stress or tone or a combination of both

Stress (betoning): more energy: louder (and often slightly longer)

Tone: pitch level on a specific syllable or vowel

Intonation: pitch variation through a stretch of words

e.g. questions are characterized by intonation in some languages,
but by a question particle in others

Stress basically means that more energy is added to a specific part of a word, e.g., English *import* (noun) versus *impórt* (verb), whereas tone means that the pitch level (the 'melody' or musical tone) is higher or lower on specific vowels or syllables than in the rest of the word. This means that the tone in a word can go up or down more or less the way it does when you sing, and that this melody gives the words their exact meaning, so that two words may be distinguished only by having different **tones** (or melody). This is what happens when we distinguish between Swedish *stegen* (plural) 'the steps' and *stegen* (singular) 'the ladder'.

Allophones: two (or more) sounds that actually sound slightly differently, but are used in a specific language as if they were one and the same sound.

Two **different pronunciations** of the phoneme written <sj> in Swedish, e.g. *sju* 'seven' pronounced [ʃu:] or [hʃu:], but it is still the same phoneme, since it doesn't change the meaning of the word. The two sounds are therefore allophones (variants) of the same phoneme.

Swedish has a couple of different sounds corresponding to the combination of letters <sj>. Even though they are without doubt different sounds, it's still only one (abstract) phoneme, since the meaning of the word *sju* 'seven' doesn't change, even though you pronounce it with very different sounds for <sj>. Also Swedish <r> can be pronounced in quite many different ways, but it is only one phoneme. Such pronunciation variants of a phoneme are called **allophones (allofoner)**.

Phonotactics

The principles for **how sounds may be combined** in any specific language

Syllable: a group of sounds consisting of a vowel (or diphthong) at the center (called *nucleus*) and consonants before and/or after the vowel.

How to represent the structure of a syllable: V= vowel, C = consonant, e.g.

CCCVCCC	[streŋθs]	strengths
CVC	sun	
CV	be	(no coda)
VC	is	(no onset)

The consonant(s) before the vowel are called **onset**.

The consonant(s) after the vowel are called **coda**.

Somali maximal syllable is CVC

ambulance > Somali: *ambalaas* /n/ omitted, CVCC is not possible!

film > Somali: *filin* /i/ inserted to avoid CVCC
/m/ replaced by /n/ since a final /m/ is impossible
in Somalis phonotactics

Assimilation: neighbouring sounds influence or affect each other so that they are pronounced in a more similar way

en bank [ɛmbaŋk] 'a bank'

en ko [ɛŋku:] 'a cow'

havsörn [hafso:ɾŋ] 'sea eagle'

The result of such assimilation processes are usually considered allophones, so that, depending on the neighbouring sounds, [n] and [m] and [ŋ] are three allophones of the Swedish phoneme /n/, and [v] and [f] are two allophones of /v/. Such allophones that depend on the surrounding sounds are called positional or contextual allophones. Such allophones often coincide with sounds that also occur as phonemes in the same language!

And even if the use of specific allophones is completely automatic in a specific language, there is no guarantee that the same is true in another language, e.g. Russian has no [ŋ] – it's [bank] in Russian! Actually the use of allophones according to the principles of one's mother tongue is one of the most important things that give you a foreign accent in another language.

Assignment 5.1

General questions

1. Can you think of any other examples of free variation between **allophones** in Swedish or any other language that you know (something about)? Prove it with a concrete word (with translation) that can be pronounced in different ways without any change in the meaning.
2. Can you think of any other examples of **assimilation** between neighbouring sounds in Swedish or any other language that you know (something about)? Prove it by giving at least two expressions (with translation) where the same element is pronounced in different ways due to a difference in the neighbouring sounds.
3. Can you give an example of an **onset** or a **coda** that is impossible in Swedish and English, but is possible in a language that you know

(something about)? Give some words (and their translations) as examples.

4. English and Swedish don't have very simple rules for the position of the **stress** in words. Do you know (something about) a language that has quite simple rules for the position of stress? Give the rule(s) and a few words to illustrate it, with translations, of course.

5. Find two African languages (not very closely related) that make a distinction between long and short vowels. Give a reference in support of each of them, and at least one minimal pair of words (with translation) as an example.

Assignment 5.1

Language of the week: Afrikaans

1. Where is Afrikaans spoken?
2. How many speakers of Afrikaans are there?
3. To which language family and subgroup does Afrikaans belong?
4. How many phonemes are there in Afrikaans?
5. Mention a really large language that is quite closely related to Afrikaans.
6. Mention another well known and quite large language that is distantly related to Afrikaans.

Unit 6. Vowels and Consonants

Read BLLL 6-7

Key Concepts

IPA charts, IPA symbols

vowel, diphthong, consonant

high=closed vowel, mid vowel, low=open vowel

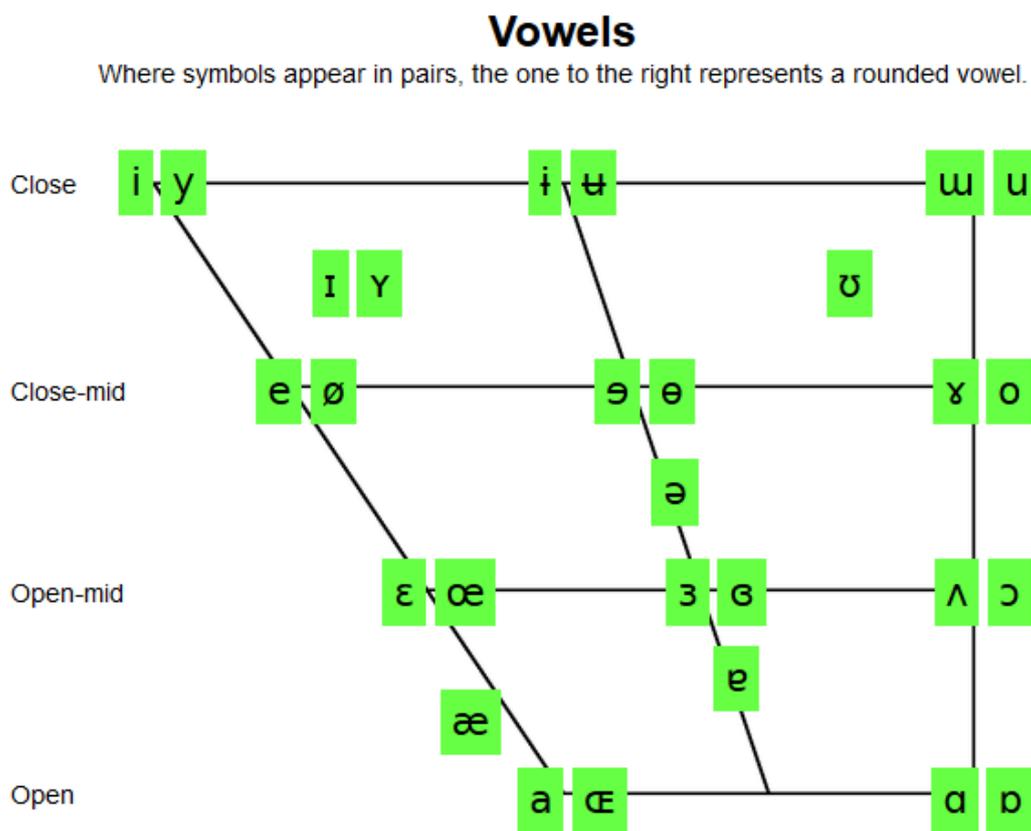
back vowel, central vowel, front vowel

rounded vowel, unrounded vowel

oral vowel, nasal vowel

short vowel, long vowel

Vowels



Source: ipachart.com

On that site you can click on the symbols and listen to the sounds.

high (tongue) = closed (jaw) i u
 mid e ε ɔ o
 low (tongue) = open (jaw) a

front i e ε
 central ə a
 back u o ɔ

rounded u o ɔ
 unrounded i e ε ə a

oral, e.g. ɔ ε
 nasal, e.g. ɔ̃ ɛ̃

short, e.g. ɔ ε
 long, e.g. ɔː ɛː

monophthongs stable vowel quality throughout the vowel
 diphthongs vowel quality change between beginning and end

An example of a less common vowel system:

Ewe [εβε], an Atlantic language in the Niger-Congo family, spoken in southern Togo and south-east Ghana.

	Oral		Nasal	
	Front	Back	Front	Back
Close	i	u	ĩ	ũ
Close-mid	e	o		
Mid	ε	ɔ	ẽ	õ
Open	a		ã	

Ewe has 7 oral vowels + 5 nasal vowels

3 tones: high /´/, mid /˘/, low /`/

The syllables are maximally CV.

E.g. high: /tó/ 'ear'

mid: /tō/ 'mortar'

low: /tò/ 'buffalo'

Consonants

	Bi-labial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post alveolar	Retro flex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal		m ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill		ʙ		ʀ					ʀ		
Tap or Flap			ɾ	ɽ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral Fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral Approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant.

Areas shaded grey indicate articulations judged impossible.

Source: ipachart.com

On that site you can click on the symbols and listen to the sounds.

Classification of NAE Consonant Phonemes							
Manner of Articulation	Place of Articulation						
	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop							
Voiceless	p			t		k	
Voiced	b			d		g	
Fricative							
Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
Affricate							
Voiceless					tʃ		
Voiced					dʒ		
Nasal							
Voiced	m			n		ŋ	
Liquid							
Voiced				l	r		
Glide							
Voiced	w				y		

A simpler table only showing North American English phonemes

Source: weebly.com

place of articulation

labial	lip
dental	teeth
alveolar	alveolar ridge behind the teeth
palatal	hard palate
velar	soft palate
uvular	uvula
pharyngeal	upper part of the throat
glottal	the opening between the vocal folds

manner of articulation

plosive = stop	total closure
fricative	very narrow passage
approximant	slightly narrowed passage
affricate	total closure followed by narrow passage
nasal	air flow through nose
trill	several hits/vibrations
tap, flap	a single hit
lateral	air passing at the side(s) of the tongue

voicing

voiced	vocal folds vibrating
voiceless	vocal folds not vibrating

Accompanying traits

duration

plain = short	standard duration
long	longer than standard duration

aspiration

plain = non-aspirated	
aspirated	pronounced with a puff of air

palatalisation

plain = non-palatalised	
palatalised	pronounced with raised tongue body and the tip of the tongue behind the lower teeth

Swahili phonology

Vowels (5). Like about 60 % of all Bantu languages, Swahili has a five-vowel system:

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Low-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Low		a	

Consonants (21). The voiceless stops (p, t, k) and voiceless affricate (tʃ) are sometimes aspirated. The voiced stops (b, d, g) and voiced affricate (dʒ) might be realized as implosives (ɓ, ɗ, ɠ, ɡ, respectively). Dental (θ, ð) and velar (x, ɣ) fricatives occur in Arabic loanwords.

		Labial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	<i>Voiceless</i>	p	t		k	
	<i>Voiced</i>	b	d		g	
Affricate	<i>Voiceless</i>			tʃ		
	<i>Voiced</i>			dʒ		
Fricative	<i>Voiceless</i>	f	s			h
	<i>Voiced</i>	v	z			
Nasal		m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
Liquid			l r			
Glide		w		j		

Tones: in contrast to most other Bantu languages, Swahili lacks tones.

Stress: falls always on the penultimate syllable.

Source: Gutman & Avanzati (2013).

Somali consonants

Allofoner	LABIAL		CORONAL				DORSAL			RADICAL		LARYNGEAL
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Epi-glottal	Glottal
Nasal	m	ɱ	n					ŋ				
Plosive	p b		t d			ɖ ɗ		k g	q ɢ			
Fricative	β	f	θ	s	ʃ			ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ		h ɦ
Affricate			tʃ dʒ									
Trill			r									
Approximant	w		l				j					

Fonem	LABIAL		CORONAL				DORSAL			RADICAL		LARYNGEAL
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Epi-glottal	Glottal
Nasal	m		n									
Plosive	b		t d			ɖ		k g	ɢ			
Fricative		f		s	ʃ				χ	ħ ʕ		h
Affricate			dʒ									
Trill			r									
Approximant	w		l				j					

Source: Nilsson (2018)

Assignment 6.1

Language of the week: Zulu

1. Where is Zulu spoken?
2. How many speakers of Zulu are there?
3. To which language family and subgroup does Zulu belong?
4. How many phonemes are there in Zulu?
5. What kind of stress/tone system does Zulu have?
6. Mention a really large language that is quite closely related to Zulu.
7. Mention another well known and quite large language that is distantly related to Zulu.

Assignment 6.2 Read IPA

Read the following list of major cities and countries. The phonetic script renders a typical American English pronunciation. The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 36).

1. [məskəwɹəʃə] = Moscow, Russia
2. [ləndənɪlənd]
3. [hɛlsɪŋkɪfɪnlənd]
4. [viənəstriə]
5. [rɒmɪtəli]
6. [kɒpənɦəgəndənmark]
7. [əzlənɔrweɪ]
8. [dəblɪnɑjrlənd]
9. [brəsəlzbɛldʒəm]
10. [bɑrsələnəspeɪn]
11. [æθənzgrɪs] or [æpənzgrɪs]
12. [krakawpələnd]
13. [bɛrlɪndʒərməni]
14. [stakhɒmswɪdən]
15. [budəpestɦəŋgəri]
16. [prɑgʃkɪrɪpəblɪk]
17. [dʒənɪvəsɪtsərələnd]
18. [æmstərdæmɦələnd]
19. [lɪzbənɔrtʃuɡəl]
20. [rɪgəlætviə]

You can find the suggested solutions to assignments 6.2–6.4 at

https://docs.google.com/document/d/1K_1AexWhrLeTtISKqNO5bsIUBYftriA5zilwlsvtSvM/edit?usp=sharing

Assignment 6.3 Homophonous words

Read the following list of English homophones or words that sound the same. Give two spellings for each pronunciation. The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 39). Hudson gives only typical American English pronunciation. British pronunciations have been added according to Macmillan (2022).

- | | | | |
|----|--------------|----------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. | Am. [flawər] | Br. [flaʊə(r)] | flower or flour |
| 2. | Am. [fɪl] | Br. [fɪl] | |
| 3. | Am. [tɪz] | Br. [tɪːz] | |
| 4. | Am. [rɛd] | Br. [rɛd] | |
| 5. | Am. [rɑjt] | Br. [raɪt] | |
| 6. | Am. [sɪn] | Br. [sɪːn] | |

7.	Am. [dʒɪm]	Br. [dʒɪm]
8.	Am. [for]	Br. [fɔ:(r)]
9.	Am. [baw]	Br. [baʊ]
10.	Am. [no]	Br. [nəʊ]
11.	Am. [rod]	Br. [rəʊd]
12.	Am. [hol]	Br. [həʊl]
13.	Am. [sɛnt]	Br. [sɛnt]
14.	Am. [pen]	Br. [pɛm]
15.	Am. [brɛk]	Br. [brɛk]
16.	Am. [prɪns]	Br. [prɪns]
17.	Am. [sɪd]	Br. [sɪ:d]
18.	Am. [trækt]	Br. [trækt]
19.	Am. [tɒt]	Br. [tɔ:t]
20.	Am. [grɛt]	Br. [grɛt]

You can find the suggested solutions to assignments 6.2–6.4 at
https://docs.google.com/document/d/1K_1AexWhrLeTtlSKqNO5bsIUBYftriA5zilwlsvtSvM/edit?usp=sharing

Assignment 6.4 Descriptions of sounds

Read the following list of descriptions of different sounds. Each example makes up a word. Match the words with the descriptions. The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 39–40). Again, this exercise is based on typical American pronunciation.

top, tree, road, car, key, note, gate, lake, feed, know, see, need, run, move, play, take, red, hat, old, new, big, now, soon, wool, then, thin

1. **see** a voiceless alveolar fricative + a high front vowel
2. a voiced velar stop + a mid front vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
3. a voiceless alveolar stop + a mid front vowel + a voiceless velar stop
4. a voiceless velar stop + a low back vowel + a retroflex approximant
5. a voiced dental fricative + a mid front vowel + an alveolar nasal
6. an alveolar nasal + a low back vowel + a labial glide
7. a voiceless alveolar stop + a retroflex approximant + a high front vowel
8. a labial nasal + a high back vowel + a voiced labial fricative
9. a voiceless labial fricative + a high front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
10. a lateral approximant + a mid front vowel + a voiceless velar stop
11. a labial glide + a high back vowel + a lateral approximant
12. an alveolar nasal + a high front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
13. a voiceless alveolar stop + a low back vowel + a voiceless labial stop
14. a voiceless dental fricative + a high front vowel + an alveolar nasal
15. a glottal fricative + a low front vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
16. an alveolar nasal + a mid back vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
17. a retroflex approximant + a mid central vowel + an alveolar nasal
18. a voiceless labial stop + a lateral approximant + a mid front vowel

19. an alveolar nasal + a high back vowel
20. a mid back vowel + a lateral approximant + a voiced alveolar stop
21. a retroflex approximant + a mid front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
22. a voiceless velar stop + a high front vowel
23. a voiced labial stop + a high front vowel + a voiced velar stop
24. a voiceless alveolar fricative + a high back vowel + an alveolar nasal
25. an alveolar nasal + a mid back vowel
26. a retroflex approximant + a mid back vowel + a voice alveolar stop

You can find the suggested solutions to assignments 6.2–6.4 at

https://docs.google.com/document/d/1K_1AexWhrLeTtlSKqNO5bsIUBYftriA5zilwlsvtSvM/edit?usp=sharing

Assignment 6.5 Describe the sounds of three words

Choose three word from (a) language(s) that you know, preferably not English or Swedish. Describe each of the sounds in the words using phonetic terminology. Also say something about the stress and/or similar things. Tell us what language it is, and if the word is difficult to understand, also tell us what it means.

The rest of us will try to figure out what word it is and write it down in phonetic script.

Three examples:

- | | |
|---------|---|
| Persian | a voiced bilabial nasal consonant,
an oral mid front vowel,
an voiced alveolar trill,
a voiceless alveolar fricative consonant,
an oral high front vowel,
the stress is on the first syllable. |
| Russian | a voiced labiodental fricative consonant,
an oral rounded mid back vowel,
a voiceless alveolar stop,
a voiceless velar stop,
an oral mid central vowel,
the stress is on the first syllable. |
| Swahili | a voiceless alveolar fricative consonant,
an oral unrounded closed front vowel
a voiced bilabial nasal consonant,
a voiced bilabial plosive consonant,
an open oral unrounded central vowel,
the stress is on the second to last syllable. |

Unit 7. Phonotactics and Morphophonology

Obstruents vs. Sonorants

Obstruents are consonants that are pronounced with **more** friction noise.

Sonorants are consonants that are pronounced with **less** friction noise.

Obstruents: stops + fricatives + affricates e.g. t s tʃ

Sonorants: nasals + liquids + glides e.g. n r j

It is often the case that a complex onset consists of an obstruent followed by a sonorant, e.g. the Swedish CCV in *tre, slå, dra, flå, bjud*.

Nasal vs. Oral Vowels

Aspirated vs. Unaspirated Stops

The stops/plosives differ between languages with regard to whether they are pronounced with additional aspiration or not. Aspiration is a small puff of air that is released (usually) after the consonant itself. This is common in Germanic voiceless stops, but not in Romance and Slavic.

English and Swedish has aspirated voiceless plosives [p^h, t^h, k^h] when alone in an onset, but unaspirated [p, t, k] if preceded by [s].

kill [k ^h il]	Sw. [k ^h u:] 'cow'
skill [skil]	[sku:] 'shoe'

Also Somali has aspirated voiceless stops [t^h, k^h].

Alveolar vs. Dental consonants

The exact position of the tip of the tongue varies between languages with respect to sounds like [d, t, s, z, n]. The tip of the tongue is positioned behind the teeth in some languages and behind the TOOTH RIDGE (Sw. TANDVALLEN) in other languages.

Released vs. Unreleased Stops

Reduced vs. Full Vowels

In some languages vowels are reduced, i.e. pronounced less distinctly, in weak positions in words, e.g. when they are not stressed, or at the end of words.

In Russian the sounds [ɛ, ɔ] are only possible if the vowel is stressed. If the vowel is not stressed, they are reduced to [a/ə, i], e.g. *Borís* [ba'ris] *Moskvá* [mas'kva], *vodá* [va'da] 'water', *vódka* ['vɔtkə], *Peterbúrg* [pitir'burk].

Diphthongs vs. Monophthongs

Rounded vs. Unrounded Vowels

Phonotactics

Phonotactics are the rules or principles for how sounds (phonemes) may be combined into syllables and words.

All languages have important restrictions on

- word-initial and syllable-initial consonant sequences
- word-final and syllable-final consonant sequences

There are phonotactic rules both for the maximal number of consonants and for the possible combinations of different consonants.

English/Swedish

- three consonants initially
- four consonants finally
- maximum syllable: CCCVCCCC

Somali (Cushitic)

- only one initial and one final consonant
- maximum syllable: CVC

Ewe (Atlantic)

- only one initial and no final consonant
- maximum syllable: CV

Examples of restriction on the type of consonants that may occur in initial and final position:

English/Swedish	[ŋ] can never be initial, [h] can never be final
Somali	[t], [k], [m], [dʒ] can never be final
Japanese	the only possible final consonant is [N]

Morphophonology

Morpho-phonology, morphonology or morpho-phonemics deals with phonological principles that do not apply generally, but **only in specific morphological contexts**:

e.g. when words are **derived** or when they are **inflected**, or in specific inflectional categories, e.g. the present tense:

What if a Scandinavian verb stem that ends in /r/ is followed by the present tense suffix /r/?

Swedish: Reduce to a single /r/

att kör-a	kör!	hon kör	< /çø:r/-/r/
'to drive'	'drive!'	'she drives'	

Norwegian: Insert a vowel

å kjør-e	kjør!	hun kjører	< /çø:r/-/r/
'to ride'	'ride!'	'she rides'	

What about genitive [s/z] after a word ending in [s/z]?

Swedish:

Tomas bok	[tu:mas bu:k]	/tu:mas/+s/ > /tu:mas/
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English:

Chris's book	[krisəz buk]	/kris/+z/ > /krisəz/
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The Somali definite article *-ta*:

kab → kapta 'the shoe' rule 1: b+t > [pt] (assimilation)
kub:ad → kub:ad:a 'the ball' rule 2: d+t > [d:] (assimilation)
mindi → mindiḏa 'the knife' rule 3: VtV > [ḏ] between vowels
bil → bifa 'the month' rule 4: l+t > [ʃ]

The first three principles always apply, hence they are phonological.

The last principle only applies in inflection, therefore it is morphophonological.

There are derived words with *-lt-*

walaal 'sibling' + *-tinnimo* '-hood'

walaaltinnimo 'siblinghood, brotherhood, sisterhood'

Assignment 7.1

Language of the week: Amharic

1. Where is Amharic spoken?
2. How many speakers of Amharic are there?
3. To which language family and subgroup does Amharic belong?
4. How many phonemes are there in Amharic?
5. What kind of stress/tone system does Amharic have?
6. Mention a really large language that is quite closely related to Amharic.
7. Mention another well known and quite large language that is distantly related to Amharic.

Assignment 7.2

Somali stress

Try to figure out the basic rules for where to put the stress in Somali nouns.

Somali has a stress system where the ‘stressed’ syllable is pronounced with a high tone (i.e., a voice with high pitch). Stress is marked with an accent in the following words. Double letters represent long sounds.

<i>árday</i>	‘male student’
<i>ardayád</i>	‘female student’
<i>askári</i>	‘male soldier’
<i>askariyád</i>	‘female soldier’
<i>bilcán</i>	‘married woman’
<i>bisád</i>	‘she-cat’
<i>bóqor</i>	‘king’
<i>boqorád</i>	‘queen’
<i>búug</i>	‘book’
<i>díbi</i>	‘ox’
<i>gaarí</i>	‘good wife’
<i>gabár</i>	‘girl’
<i>gúri</i>	‘house’
<i>habár</i>	‘old woman’
<i>ínan</i>	‘boy’
<i>inán</i>	‘girl’
<i>islaán</i>	‘old woman’

<i>láj</i>	‘ewe, female sheep’
<i>liín</i>	‘citrus fruit’
<i>macallimád</i>	‘female teacher’
<i>macállin</i>	‘male teacher’
<i>mindí</i>	‘knife’
<i>miskíin</i>	‘poor man’
<i>naág</i>	‘woman’
<i>nín</i>	‘man’
<i>óday</i>	‘old man’
<i>saaxíib</i>	‘(boy) friend’
<i>saaxiibád</i>	‘(girl) friend’
<i>sóddog</i>	‘father-in-law’
<i>soddóh</i>	‘mother-in-law’
<i>wán</i>	‘ram, male sheep’
<i>wíil</i>	‘boy’

Assignment 7.3

Progressive forms in Yoruba

Try to give a rule for how to form the progressive verb form in Yoruba. <´ > marks high tone, <` > marks low tone. The source of this exercise is Cowan & Rakušan (1987: 45). Can you see any phonetic/phonological patterns?

bá ‘meets’

mbá ‘is meeting’

bε ‘cuts off’

mbε ‘is cutting off’

bò ‘covers’

mbò ‘is covering’

bù ‘cuts’

mbù ‘is cutting’

dà ‘pours’

ndà ‘is pouring’

dì ‘ties’

ndì ‘is tying’

dúró ‘stands’

ndúró ‘is standing’

ká 'folds'
ńká 'is folding'
kó 'gathers'
ńkó 'is gathering'
kù 'remains'
ńkù 'is remaining'

Assignment 7.4

Singular and plural forms of Swahili nouns

Explain the rules for the formation of both the singular form and the plural form of the following Swahili nouns. The source of this exercise is Cowan & Rakušan (1987: 52). Can you see any phonetic/phonological patterns?

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
1.	ubale	mbale	'strip'
2.	ubugu	mbugu	'cord'
3.	ubifi	mbifi	'argument'
4.	uduvi	nduvi	'shrimp'
5.	udago	ndago	'weed'
6.	udui	ndui	'pustule'
7.	ugimbi	ngimbi	'beer'
8.	ugɔɔ	ngɔɔ	'intercourse'
9.	ugwe	ngwe	'string'
10.	waraka	paraka	'document'
11.	wenzɔ	ɲenzɔ	'roller'
12.	wimbo	ɲimbo	'song'

The words are given in broad phonetic transcription

[ʃ] as in English *she*

[ŋ] as in English *long*

[ɲ] as in Spanish *español*

[ɛ] as in Spanish *español*

[ɔ] as in Spanish *español*

Unit 8

Structures and Categories

Key concepts:

Morpheme: Root, Stem, Affix, Prefix, Suffix

Derivation, Inflection

Word Classes (= Parts of Speech):

Verb, Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Determiner, Preposition, Adverb, Particle, Conjunction, Subjunction, Interjections...

Singular vs. Plural

Indefinite/Definite article (*a* vs. *the*)

Subject/object personal pronoun (*I* vs. *me*)

1st, 2nd, 3rd person

Word classes (parts of speech)

Words belong to different categories/types/classes, such as

Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions...

The words in a word class are

- inflected (morphology) and/or
- used (syntax) in the same way

Languages are different

They have different grammatical categories and rules/principles.

Therefore somewhat different word classes in different languages!

Not all languages have, for example:

Adjectives
Definite Article
Obligatory Subject Pronouns
Plural Forms of Nouns
Bound Word Order
Question Particle
Marking of subject & object etc.

Definite article

English:	the house	
Arabic	al bayt	also, e.g., German, Spanish
Swedish:	hus et	
Somali:	guri ga	also, e.g., Bulgarian, Romanian
Swahili:	no definite article	also, e.g., Finnish, Russian

The use of Subject Pronouns

Many languages that have a rich set of different verb endings don't use subject pronouns. The verb endings are enough to convey the necessary information. Somali has both a rich verb inflection and subject pronouns.

English:	Sahra runs.	She runs
Swedish:	Sahra springer.	Hon springer.
coll.	Sahra hon springer.	
Somali:	Sahro waa ay oroddaa.	Waa ay oroddaa.*
Italian:	Sahra corre.	Corre.
Amharic:	Sahira tirot'alechi.	Tirot'alechi.
Swahili:	Sahra anakimbia.	Anakimbia.

On the other hand, many languages have affixes (suffixes or prefixes) on the verb as a 'substitute' for subject pronouns.

*) Just like languages have a negator particle (Eng. *not*), Somali has a corresponding positive particle *waa*.

Plural Forms of nouns

Suffix in the plural:

English: shoe – shoes

Swedish: sko – skor

Somali: kab – kabo 'shoe(s)'

Prefix in both singular and plural:

Swahili: kiatu - viatu 'shoe(s)'

Different infixes (vowel patterns) in singular and plural

Arabic: kita:b - kutub 'book(s)'

Some languages use plural forms more seldom (e.g. Persian, only when definite) or almost don't have plural forms of nouns (e.g. Japanese).

Persian:

Kafsh e khub kharid-i.

shoe LINKER good bought-you

You have bought good shoes.

kafsh-ha

shoe-PLURAL

the shoes

Basic Word Order

Subject Verb Object

English/Swedish:

Swahili:

Colloquial Arabic:

Subject Object Verb

Somali:

Amharic:

Verb Subject Object:

Classical Arabic:

Verb Object Subject:

Malagassy:

Other word orders are possible in most languages, but only under specific conditions.

Word Order in noun phrases

Adjective + Noun

English:	a long knife	
Swedish:	en lång kniv	'a long knife'
Finnish:	pitkä veitsi	'a long knife'

Noun + Adjective

French, Spanish, Italian:		
Arabic:		
Somali:	mindī dheer	'a long knife'
Swahili:	kisu kirefu	'a long knife'

Question Particle

No – Initial auxiliary verb

She runs. **Does** she run?

No – Word order

Hon springer. Springer hon?
'She runs.' 'Does she run?'

No – Intonation

Czech: Běží. ↘ Běží? ↗
'She runs.' 'Does she run?'

Yes –

Finnish: Combined with word order

Hän juoksee. Juoksee**ko** hän?
'She runs.' 'Does she run?'

Arabic:

Somali: Contrasting with a positive particle

Waa ay oroddaa. **Ma** ay oroddaa?
'She runs.' 'Does she run?'

Grammatical relations of subject and object

Marked by word order

English	S V O
Swedish	S V O
Colloquial Arabic	S V O
Swahili	S V O

Marked by suffixes

Russian	Object endings	+	relaxed S V O
Classical Arabic	Object endings	+	V S O
Somali	Subject endings	+	relaxed S O V

Marked by particles

Japanese	topic / object particles	+	S O V
----------	--------------------------	---	-------

Morphemes, morphs, allomorphs

Words are made up of smaller parts – **morphs** – each part carries some meaning.

Sometimes there are different morphs carrying the same meaning. They are alternative expressions for the same meaning: **allomorphs**

bil	bil ar	'car, cars'	bil-ar-na	'the cars'
ros	ros or	'rose, roses'		
banan	banan er	'banana, bananas'		

Together these three morphs constitute the Swedish plural **morpheme** which could abstractly be represented as /Vr/.

Some morphemes can be used on their own.

They are **free** morphemes: /bil/, /ros/, /banan/.

Other morphemes can only be used together with a free morpheme.

They are **bound** morphemes: /ar/, /or/, /er/

Types of morphemes

Root	Has a lexical meaning
Affixes	Usually has grammatical functions (or meanings)
Prefix	Added before a root or stem
Suffix	Added after a root or stem
Infix	Added into the middle of a root or stem

However

- a Stem** – is not a morpheme and it is often not **one** morpheme long,
– it may consist of one or more Roots + derivational affixes

STEM

Prefix	Root	Root	Suffix	Suffix	
			Derivational	Inflectional	
	ro	giv	ande		rogivande 'calming'
	ro		lig	a	roliga 'fun (pl.)'
o	ro		lig	a	oroliga 'worried (pl.)'
ut	tal		ande	t	uttalandet 'the statement'
	bok	buss		ar -na	bokbussarna 'the bookmobiles'
sam	arbet		a	r	samarbetar 'cooperates'
	arbet		e	t	arbetet 'the work'

Infixes

ARABIC

kita:b	'book'	root: k-t-b	singular infixes i-a:
kutub	'books'		plural infixes: u-u

SOMALI

Adejective		root	infix	Noun	
adag	'hard'	ad-g	-ay-	adayg	'hardness'
culus	'heavy'	cul-s		culays	'heaviness, weight'
jecel	'fond (of)'	jec-l		jacayl	'love'

Omljud / Umlaut – Not infix!

SINGULAR PLURAL

bu:k	bøk:ər	<bok, böcker>	'book(s)'
fu:t	føt:ər	<fot, fötter>	'foot, feet'

Word Classes

Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions...

Inflected vs. Uninflected words

If words are inflected, they usually are divided into word classes based on the forms they exhibit.

If words are not inflected, they are divided into word classes based on their function in sentences.

Open vs. Closed Word Classes

New words easily enter into the classes Verb, Noun, Adjective

New words very seldom enter into the classes Pronoun, Preposition, Conjunction.

Word formation vs. Inflection

sjuk > sjuk-ling

suffix deriving a noun meaning 'sick person' from the adjective 'sick'

sjuk > sjuk-a

suffix forming the plural of the adjective

Derivation vs. Compounding

sjuk-ling	'sick person, patient'	free morpheme + bound morpheme
sjuk-hus	'hospital'	two free morphemes

Prepositions vs. Postpositions

English has the postposition 'ago'.

two years ago.

There are some less commonly used postpositions in Swedish:

Det går visst att visa och prata känslor vänner emellan.

De cyklade Vättern runt. Godispåsen gick laget runt.

När vårt eget släkte dött ut snurrar jorden oss förutan.

Frihet är det bästa ting, som sökas kan all världen kring.

Under hösten äter björnen upp sig och lägger på ett fettlager som ska räcka vintern igenom.

Problem 8.0

Write a short text of some 50 words in English or Swedish that does not contain a single pronoun.

Problem 8.1

Word order in Lotuko

Lotuko (or Otuho) is a Nilotic language spoken by a couple of hundred thousand people in South Sudan.

1.

Gloss the following sentences (a-i) according to the Leipzig glossing rules found in Appendix 2. (Rule No 1 is sufficient for this exercise.)

You need three lines for each example, just like in this example.

Rule 1: Word-by-word alignment

Interlinear glosses are left-aligned vertically, word by word, with the example. E.g.

(1) Indonesian (Sneddon 1996:237)

Mereka di Jakarta sekarang.

They in Jakarta now

'They are in Jakarta now.'

Lotuko (Sudan; adapted from Merrifield et al. 1987, prob. 131)

a idulak atulo ema	‘The man is planting grain.’
b idulak atulo aful	‘The man is planting peanuts.’
c ohonya eito erizo	‘The child is eating meat.’
d amata eito aari	‘The child is drinking water.’
e ohonya odwoti aful	‘The girl is eating peanuts.’
f abak atulo ezok	‘The man hit the dog.’
g amata odwoti aari	‘The girl is drinking water.’
h _____	‘The girl hit the child.’
i ohonya ezok erizo	_____

from Kroeger (2005: 9)

2.
Add sentence (h) and translation (i)?
3.
What is the word order in these examples?

Problem 8.2

Sidama verb morphemes

Sidama is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Cushitic sub-group, spoken by appr. 3 million people in southern Ethiopia.

1. Divide the following Sidama words into the relevant morphs.
 - a. What part of these words is constant? That part is most probably the stem of the word.
 - b. What part differs between the forms of the same verb? That part is most probably the ending.
 - c. Mark the division into stem and ending with a hyphen.
2. Work out the meaning of each of the morphs.
Then gloss all the example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules in Appendix 2. (Rule No 2 is sufficient for this exercise.)

Rule 2: Morpheme-by-morpheme correspondence

Segmentable morphemes are separated by hyphens, both in the example and in the gloss. There must be exactly the same number of hyphens in the example and in the gloss. E.g.

(2) Lezgian (Haspelmath 1993:207)

Gila abur-u-n ferma hamišaluğ güğüna amuq'-da-č.
now they-OBL-GEN farm forever behind stay-FUT-NEG
'Now their farm will not stay behind forever.'

aganno 'he drinks'

agi 'he drank'

The glossing should consist of three lines. The example in the foreign language is on the first line in italics (Sw. kursiv). The words are divided into morphemes: stem and ending.

When one ending carries two pieces of information, we put a dot between these two items in the glossing (PRS.he). The grammatical abbreviations should ideally be written with SMALL CAPS, but CAPITAL LETTERS are also possible.

<i>ag-anno</i>	
drink-PRS.he	(PRS = present tense)
'he drinks'	
<i>ag-i</i>	
drink-PST.he	(PST = past tense)
'he drank'	

This glossing tells us that the stem **ag-** does not reveal the tense (time of the event), it is the ending that makes the difference between present and past, and at the same time it tells us who carries out the action, namely a man: *he*.

As can be seen in the next group of words, the corresponding ending for a woman: *she*, is **-tu**.

Continue glossing the rest of the verb forms in the same way.

muri 'he cut'

murtanno 'she cuts'

murту 'she cut'

giiranno 'he burns'

laʔi 'he saw'
laʔanno 'he sees'
umanno 'he digs'
untu 'she dug'
umi 'he dug'
untanno 'she digs'
fantu 'she opened'
fani 'he opened',
rumi 'he cursed'
runtu 'she cursed'
runtanno 'she curses'
rumanno 'he curses'
itanno 'he eats'
ittu 'she ate'

3. Do any of the morphemes exhibit allomorphs (different variants)?
4. How would you say 'she burned', 'he ate', 'she drinks' and 'he opens'?

The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 81).

Problem 8.3

Swahili noun morphemes

1.

Divide the following Swahili words into the relevant morphs with hyphens.

2.

Work out the meaning and use of each one of the inflectional morphs and gloss all the example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules.

msichana 'girl',	wasichana 'girls'
mvulana 'boy',	wavulana 'boys'
mtoto 'child',	watoto 'children'
mtu 'man',	watu 'men'
mti 'tree'	miti 'trees'
mgomba 'banana tree',	migomba 'banana trees'
mguu 'foot',	miguu 'feet'
kitu 'thing',	vitu 'things'
kiti 'chair',	viti 'chairs'
kitanda 'bed',	vitanda 'beds'

3.

What can you say about different allomorphs of these prefixes and the way each of them is used?

4.

Also adjectives are inflected in a similar way. If *mtoto mzuri* means 'a good child', how would you say 'good children', 'a good thing' and 'good things'?

Gloss your answers.

The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 77).

Problem 8.4

Amharic verb morphemes

1.

Divide the following Amharic verb into the relevant morphs with hyphens.

First compare only the three present tense forms to each other. Find the part of those words that is common to all three forms. That is probably the stem. Divide any prefixes and suffixes from the stem by hyphens.

Then do the same with the past tense forms. You will see that Amharic verbs

have to different stems (two allomorphs), one for the present tense and one for the past tense.

Present tense	Past tense
isəbir 'I break'	səbbərku 'I broke'
tisəbir 'you (m.) break'	səbbərk 'you (m.) broke'
tisəbiri 'you (f.) break'	səbbərɸ 'you (f.) broke'

2.

Work out the meaning of each one of the morphs and gloss all the example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules.

3. What exactly is the difference between the present tense stem and the past tense stem?

4.

How would you inflect the verb **dəkkəmku** 'I tired'? Gloss all forms in your answer.

The source of this exercise is page 65 in Grover Hudson's textbook *Essential Introductory Linguistics*, published by Blackwell (Oxford 2000).

Assignment 8.5

Languages of the week: Khoisan

1. Where are Khoisan languages spoken?
2. How many Khoisan languages are there?
3. How many speakers are there of Khoisan languages altogether?
4. What Khoisan language has the largest number of speakers?
5. Where is this language spoken and by how many people?
6. Is there anything in the grammatical or phonetic structure of Khoisan languages in general that stands out in comparison with other language families?

Unit 9

Nouns & Determiners

How can we **tell the word class** that a word belongs to?

- **form**
Does the word inflect? What different forms does it have?
- **function**
How is it used? What is its sentence function? What is its position?
- **meaning**
What kind of meaning does it convey?

Noun

might be inflected for singular/plural, definite/indefinite...
might belong to a gender class or some other kind of noun class
is generally used as subject or object or adverbial complement
generally denotes living beings, objects and abstract ideas

Determiner

tends to appear next to a noun
might be inflected so that it agrees with the noun
(meaning that it has the same gender, number, definiteness)
tends to express definiteness, possession, uniqueness, quantity...

Subdivision of nouns

Gender

	FRENCH	RUSSIAN	HAUSA	SOMALI
Masculine	livre 'book'	dom 'house'	tebur 'table'	miis 'table'
Feminine	maison 'house'	kniga 'book'	taga 'window'	daaqad 'window'
Neutre		okno 'window'		

Countable nouns	table, idea
Uncountable nouns	furniture, peace
Mass nouns	milk, water, air, sugar

Concrete nouns	table, furniture, milk
Abstract nouns	idea, peace

Common nouns car, milk, idea
Proper nouns (=names) London, Susan, Africa

Inflection of nouns

	SLOVENE suffixes	SWAHILI prefixes	ARABIC infixes	
Singular	miza 'table'	kiatu 'shoe'	kita:b 'book'	maktab 'office'
Dual	mizi 'two tables'			
Plural	mize '3+ tables'	viatu 'shoes'	kutub 'books'	maka:tib 'offices'

Definiteness expressed by a determiner

	ENGLISH	ARABIC	ITALIAN
Indefinite	shoe	hiða:ʔ	scarpa
Definite	the shoe	al hiða:ʔ	la scarpa

Definiteness expressed by inflectional endings

	SOMALI	SWEDISH	BULAGRIAN	HAUSA
Indefinite	kab	sko	obuvka	takalma
Definite	kabta	skon	obuvkata	takalmin

Many languages do not have any marking of definiteness, e.g.,

Finnish, Russian, Persian, Swahili...

do not have any indefinite or definite articles.

Inflection of determiners

Only nouns belong to a gender or a noun class.

Determiners don't belong to a gender or noun class.

Instead, determiners have different forms for each gender or noun class. They adjust to the noun that they determine and take on the same gender or noun class form.

Agreement

In many languages
determiners adjust to/agree with the noun's gender or noun class.
They may also adjust to/agree with the nouns with respect to number.

Italian	FEMININE	MASCULINE	
SINGULAR	la bambina	il bambino	'the child, girl, boy'
PLURAL	le bambine	i bambini	'the children'
Spanish	FEMININE	MASCULINE	
SINGULAR	la médica	el médico	'the doctor'
PLURAL	las médicas	los médicos	'the doctors'
Swedish	N-CLASS	N-CLASS	T-CLASS
SINGULAR	en bil 'a car' bilen 'the car'	en gata 'a street' gatan 'the street'	ett hus 'a house' huset 'the house'
PLURAL	bilar 'cars' bilarna 'the cars'	gator 'streets' gatorna 'the streets'	hus 'houses' husen 'the houses'
Norwegian	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTRE
SINGULAR	en bil 'a car' bilen 'the car'	ei gate 'a street' gata 'the street'	et hus 'a house' huset 'the house'
PLURAL	biler 'cars' bilene 'the cars'	gater 'streets' gatene 'the streets'	hus 'houses' husene 'the houses'
Somali	FEMININE	MASCULINE	
SINGULAR	kab '(a) shoe' kabta 'the shoe'	safar '(a) journey' safarka 'the journey'	
PLURAL	kabo 'shoes' kaba-ha 'the shoes'	safarro 'journeys' safarra-da 'the journeys'	

Noun classes or genders

Some languages do not divide nouns into classes/genders, e.g.

English, Finnish, Persian, Turkish

Some languages divide nouns into two classes, generally referred to as genders, usually MASCULINE och FEMININE, e.g.

French, Spanish, Italian, Arabic, Amharic, Somali, Oromo, Hausa

Some languages have three genders, typically MASCULINE, FEMININE and NEUTRE, e.g.

Latin, German, Norwegian, Russian, Greek

Some languages have many more noun classes, e.g.

Swahili and other Bantu languages

Somali genders

MASCULINE

Stress on second to last vowel position

dukáan 'shop'

Definite article **-ka**

dukáanka 'the shop'

Possessive **kayga** 'my'

dukáankayga 'my shop'

FEMININE

Stress on last vowel position

laán 'branch'

Definite article **-ta**

laánta 'the branch',

Possessive **tayda** 'my'

laántayda 'my branch'

Swahili noun classes

CLASS 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
mtoto 'child'	mfuko 'bag'	kitabu 'book'	gari 'car'	paka 'cat'	usiku 'night'
watoto 'children'	mifuko 'bags'	vitabu 'books'	magari 'cars'	paka 'cats'	siku 'night'
CLASS 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
wangu 'my'	wangu	changu	langu	yangu	wangu
wangu	yangu	vyangu	yangu	zangu	zangu

Possessives agree with the noun that they determine, e.g.

class 1: **mtoto wangu** 'my child'

class 4: **mifuko yangu** 'my bags'

class 5: **gari langu** 'my car'
class 8: **vitabu vyangu** 'my books'
class 10: **paka zangu** 'my cats'

Nominal Categories

often expressed in nouns and determiners

Definiteness	-	Indefinite (something unfamiliar)	Definite (familiar)	
Number	-	Singular (one)	Plural (many)	Dual (two)
Gender	-	Masculine	Feminine	Neutre
Class	-	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10...		

Grammatical gender is not the same as biological sex!

Somali *sac* 'cow', *xaas* 'wife', *dumar* 'women (coll.)' are masculine nouns.

Assignment 9.0

Language of the week: Amazigh

1. Where is Amazigh spoken?
2. How many speakers of Amazigh are there?
3. To which language family and subgroup does Amzigh belong?
4. How many phonemes are there in Amazigh?
5. What kind of stress/tone system does Amazigh have?
6. Mention some large language that are related to Amazigh.

Problem 9.1

The definite article in Lyélé

Lyélé is an Niger-Congo language in the Atlantic sub-group, spoken by some 130,000 people in Burkina Faso.

How would you define the form of the definite article in Lyélé?

The acute accent (´) denotes a high tone, whereas the grave accent (`) denotes a low tone. Vowels without an accent are pronounced with a mid tone.

kúmí 'bird'
kúmíí 'the bird'
yálá 'millet'
yáláá 'the millet'
nà 'foot'
nàá 'the foot'
yijì 'church'
yijíí 'the church'
ya 'market'
yaá 'the market'
célé 'parrot'
céléé 'the parrot'
kùlí 'dog'
kùlíí 'the dog'

Source: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. *Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax*. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Problem 9.2

Noun classes in Kikuyu

Kikuyu is a Bantu language, spoken by some 7 million people in Kenya.

Each English noun in the list below is followed first by the Kikuyu singular form, then by the plural form.

1. How many noun classes do we need to establish in order to account for all the nouns in the list?
2. What are the prefixes for the singular and the plural in each of the classes?

/ŋ/ is similar to Swedish/English <ng>, /ʃ/ is similar to English <sh>, /ɲ/ is similar to Swedish <ɲj> or the beginning of English <new>.

teacher	murutani	arutani
elderly person	muduuri	aduuri
girl	muiretu	airetu
woman	mutumia	atumia
parent	mujiari	ajiari
buyer	muguri	aguri
traveler	mugendi	agendi
politician	muteti	ateti
root	muri	miri
tree	muti	miti
lion	muroodi	miroodi
gun	mujiinga	mijiinga
inattress	muuto	miuto
bottle	mujuuba	mijuuba
comb	gijanundi	ifjanundi
chair	geti	eti
cup	gikombe	ikombe
yam	gikoa	ikoa
tray	gitaruru	itaruru
muscle	gijoka	ifjoka
crocodile	kinjani	injani
sugar cane	kigoa	igoa
worm	kinjuni	injuni
folk song	kibata	ibata
flood	kinjua	injua
steering wheel	kibara	ibara
hiding place	kimamo	imamo
spider	mbombue	mbombue
donkey	bunda	bunda
cow	ɲombe	ɲombe
pig	ɲgurue	ɲgurue
stomach	nda	nda
house	ɲumba	ɲumba
mole	huko	huko
wave	ikombi	makombi
foot	ikina	makina
tooth	igago	magago
banana	irigu	marigu
cloud	itu	matu
stone	ihiga	mahiga

Source: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. *Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax*. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Problem 9.3

Possessive suffixes in Hausa

Hausa is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Chadic sub-group. It is mainly spoken in Nigeria, Niger, Cameroon, Benin and Chad, where it is an important **lingua franca**. It is estimated to be spoken by some 60 million mother tongue speakers and some 30 million second language speakers.

Hausa has the following set of independent possessive pronouns, used in contexts like *Mine is better than yours*.

masculine / feminine possessed object		
na:wa	ta:wa	'mine; min, mitt'
na:ka	ta:ka	'yours; din, ditt' (one male owner)
na:ki	ta:ki	'yours; din, ditt' (one female owner)
na:sa	ta:sa	'his; hans'
na:ta	ta:ta	'hers; hennes'
na:mu	ta:mu	'ours; vår, vårt'
na:ku	ta:ku	'yours: er, ert' (several owners)
na:su	ta:su	'theirs; deras'

1. What generalisation can you make about the morpheme structure of the above possessive pronouns?

When combined with nouns, the above possessive pronouns are not used. Instead there is a set of possessive determiner suffixes that are added as endings after nouns.

mo:ta (fem.)	'car'	gida (masc.)	'house'
mo:tata:	'my car'	gidana:	'my house'
mo:takka	'your (m.sg.) car'	gidaŋka	'your (m.sg.) house'
mo:takki	'your (f.sg.) car'	gidaŋki	'your (f.sg.) house'
mo:tassa	'his car'	gidansa	'his house'
mo:tatta	'her car'	gidanta	'her house'
mo:tammu	'our car'	gidammu	'our house'
mo:takku	'your (pl.) car'	gidaŋku	'your (pl.) house'
mo:tassu	'their car'	gidansu	'their house'

2. What generalisation can you make about the morpheme structure of the above possessive determiner suffixes?

Problem 9.4

Plural formation of nouns in Kasem

Kasem is a Niger-Congo language in the Volta-Congo sub-group. It is spoken in Ghana and Burkina Faso by some 250,000 people.

Kasem has a complex vowel system with ten vowels and vowel harmony. There is one set of more open vowels [ɪ, ɛ, a, ɔ, ʊ], and one set of more closed vowels [i, e, ə, o, u]. In a specific word, these two sets cannot mix, all vowels have to be either more open or more closed. All the vowels in a word need to harmonize or be harmonic, i.e., to belong to the same set of vowels.

As an effect, the plural formation in Kasem is quite complicated. It involves quite many sound alternations.

How would you describe the plural formation in Kasem?

Singular - Plural:

fələ	fəli	'white person(s)'
fana	fani	'knife(s)'
lidə	lidi	'medicine(s)'
boda	bodi	'fishnet(s)'
kada	kadi	'farm(s)'
tulə	tuli	'granary(ies)'
kala	kali	'pot(s)'
kuə	kui	'bone(s)'
təa	təi	'bee(s)'
luə	lui	'funeral(s)'
noa	noi	'finger(s)'

1. What is the singular morpheme and what is the plural morpheme, based on the above examples?

miə	mi	'bowstring(s)'
kwia	kwi	'dry season(s)'
daa	də	'stick(s)'

2. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

lɔŋa	lɔi	'bile(s)'
bugə	bui	'river(s)'
zɔŋa	zɔi	'calabash(es)'
nugə	nui	'shea nut oil(s)'

3. How would you explain the plural form in the four examples above?

dʒɪŋa	dʒi	'hand(s)'
ʧɪŋa	ʧi	'truth(s)'
digə	di	'room(s)'

4. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

ʒəgə	ʒe	'place(s)'
jaga	jɛ	'market(s)'

ləŋə	le	'song(s)'
naga	nɛ	'leg(s)'
bəŋə	be	'roof beam(s)'
taŋa	tɛ	'bow(s)'

5. How would you explain the plural form in the six examples above?

ʃoŋə	ʃue	'path(s)'
kɔga	kʊɛ	'back(s)'
poŋə	pue	'shelter'

6. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

Source: Merrifield, Naish, Rensch & Story (1987).

New problem

Somali case

Somali has two case forms.

Waxa is a particle that puts focus (emphasis) on the last noun or phrase of the sentence. *Uu* and *ay* are subject pronouns.

How would you analyse

Wiilku waxa uu arkaa gabar. 'The boy sees a girl.'

Gabartu waxa ay aragtaa wiil. 'The girls sees a boy.'

Wiilka yari waxa uu arkaa gabarta yar. 'The small boy sees the small girl.'

Gabartan yari waxa ay arkaa wiilka yar. 'This small girl sees the small boy.'

Wiilkani waxa uu arkaa gabartaas. 'This boy sees that girl.'

Gabartaasi waxa ay arkaa wiilkaas. 'That girls sees that boy.'

Unit 10

Modifying nouns: Adjectives & Relative clauses

There are two common ways to give additional information about a noun by building a more complex

noun phrase:

	ENGLISH	SOMALI
Noun + Adjective	the new student	ardayga cusub
Noun + Relative Clause	the student that laughed	ardayga qoslay

The English relative clause is marked by the relative word *that*

The Somali relative clause is marked by the absence of the three main clause characteristics:

- an affirmative marker,
- a subject pronoun, and
- a subject suffix on the subject noun phrase.

Ardaygu **waa uu** qoslay.
student.the.SBJ AFF he laughed
'The student laughed.'

Not all languages have adjectives. Some languages only have a smaller number of adjectives. Verbs or nouns are often used instead.

Somali has some adjectives, but fewer than English. Often, nouns are used instead.

SOMALI	gaari buluug ah	'a blue car'
	car blue.thing being	
	gaari cusub	'a new car'

Somali nouns take a definite article, but adjectives don't.

gaari ga buluug ga ah	'the blue car'
gaari ga cusub	'the new car'

Swahili has quite few adjectives. Often, verbs are used instead.

SWAHILI	ndege aliyekufa	'a dead bird'
	bird which.died	
	mlango uliofunguliwa	'an open door'
	door which.was.opened	

Adjectives precede nouns in:

English, Swedish, Amharic: təlləq bet 'big house'

Qualities precede, but categories follow nouns in:

Polish: **nowy** dworzec **autobusowy** '(the) new bus station'
[dvɔʒɛts]

Adjectives follow nouns in:

Romance languages, Arabic, Somali, Swahili

The adjective does not agree with its head noun in:

English

Basic adjectives (may) agree with their head noun, but only in number:

Somali

The adjective agrees with its head noun in both number and gender/class:

Italian, Swahili

The adjective agrees with its head noun in both gender, number and definiteness:

Swedish, Arabic

Adjective + definite article + possessive

SWEDISH

hus	'house'
hus- et	' the house'
ny-tt hus	'new house'
det ny- a hus- et	' the new house'
mitt ny- a hus	'my new house'

FRENCH

maison
la maison
nouvelle maison
la nouvelle maison
ma nouvelle maison

BULGARIAN

kəft-a	'house'
kəft-a- ta	'the house'
nov-a kəft-a	'a new house'
nov-a- ta kəft-a	'the new house'
moj-a- ta nov-a kəft-a	'my new house'

ITALIAN

casa
la casa
nuova casa
la nuova casa
la mia nuova casa

SOMALI

guri
guri- ga
guri cusub
guri- ga cusub
guri-gay- ga cusub

ARABIC noun+poss

AMHARIC adjective+definite noun+possessive

təlləq-u bet-e 'his big house'
big-the house-his

Somali genders

MASCULINE

FEMININE

Stress on second to last
vowel position

dukáan 'shop'

Stress on last vowel position

laán 'branch'

Definite article **-ka**

Possessive **-kayga** 'my'

dukáanka 'the shop'

dukáankayga 'my shop'

Definite article **-ta**

Possessive **-tayda** 'my'

laánta 'the branch'

laántayda 'my branch'

Adjectives don't have different gender forms.

dukáankayga yar 'my little shop'

laántayda yar 'my little branch'

Subject pronoun **uu** 'he, it'

Subject pronoun **ay** 'she, it'

Verbs 3rd p. sg. masc. **-aa**

Verbs 3rd p. sg. fem. **-taa**

heesaa 'sings'

heestaa 'sings'

wíilka yari wáa uu heesaa

'the little boy sings'

gabárta yari wáa ay heestaa

'the little girl sings'

Wáa is a sentence type marker that marks this clause as a positive (affirmative) statement.

-i is the subject noun phrase suffix added to an adjective.

Swahili noun classes

Class 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
mtoto 'child' wafuko 'children'	mfuko 'bag' mifuko 'bags'	kitabu 'book' vitabu 'books'	gari 'car' magari 'cars'	paka 'cat' paka 'cats'	usiku 'night' siku 'night'
mwali mu 'teacher' wali mu 'teachers'	mwiko 'spoon' miko 'spoons'	chuo 'college' vyuo 'colleges'	jicho 'eye' macho 'eyes'	nguo 'clothes item' nguo 'clothes'	
mu umba 'creator' wa umba 'creators'	mu ziki 'music' mi ziki 'musical genres'				
Agreeing adjectives, e.g., mtoto mrefu 'a tall child'					
mrefu 'long' warefu	mrefu mirefu	kirefu virefu	refu marefu	ndefu ndefu	mrefu ndefu
Agreeing possessives, e.g. mtoto wangu 'my child'					
wangu 'my' wangu	wangu yangu	changu vyangu	langu yangu	yangu zangu	wangu zangu

Relative clause types

that, which, who (subject, object), whom (object), whose (owner), where (place), when (time)

the children that participated

that ~~the children~~ participated (gap=subject)

the house that Jack built

that Jack built ~~the house~~ (gap=object)

the woman who waited

who ~~the woman~~ waited (gap=subject)

the woman who we saw

who we saw ~~the woman~~ (gap=object)

the children whose parents paid a bribe

whose ~~the children's~~ parents paid a bribe (gap=genitive)

the city where I once lived

where I once lived ~~in the city~~ (gap=adverbial of place)

the summer when I learned to fly

when I learned to fly ~~that summer~~ (gap=adverbial of time)

Relative clauses

Languages with gap English, Swedish,

Languages without gap Persian, Slovenian

The gap is filled with a suitable pronoun

Languages with obligatory relative word: French, Italian

Languages with relative word that may be omitted: English, Swedish

Languages without any relative word: Somali

French: *la lettre **que** tu écrivais*

English: *the letter (**that**) you were writing*

Swedish: *brevet (**som**) du skrev*

Somali: *warqaddii aad qoraysay*

Descriptive and restrictive use of adjectives and relative clauses

– descriptive/nonrestrictive/appositive use

the head noun can be identified without the information given by the adjective/relative clause

– restrictive/contrastive use

the head noun can only be identified by the information given by the adjective/relative clause

Some languages mark descriptive and restrictive adjectives and/or relative clauses in different ways.

SOMALI

A descriptive relative clause is marked by the conjunctive particle 'oo'.

A restrictive relative clause directly after the head noun is not marked, but a restrictive relative clause after another modifier, e.g. an adjective, is marked by the conjunctive particle 'ee'.

Problem 10.1

Egyptian Arabic determiners

1. Gloss all the following examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules and answer the grammatical questions.

da walad 'this is a boy'

di binti 'this is a girl'

di ʕarabiy:a 'this is a car'

da siri:r 'this is a bed'

1. How do we know whether to use *da* or *di*?

il walad 'the boy'

il walad da 'this boy'

il binti di 'this girl'

il ʕarabiy:a di 'this car'

il madrasa di 'this school'

is siri:r 'the bed'

2. What can we say about the independent use of the pronouns meaning 'this' and the corresponding determiners?

3. What can we say about the structure of these expressions and how to translate English 'is' in these Arabic constructions?

4. How would you say 'the girl', 'this bed' and 'this is a school'?

is siri:r ig gidi:d 'the new bed'

is siri:r gidi:d 'the bed is new'

il ʕarabiy:a ig gidi:da 'the new car'

il ʕarabiy:a gidi:da 'the car is new'

5. How do we know whether the adjective is a direct modifier to the noun or a predicate complement?

6. The adjective has two different forms. Why?

il walad da yigi il madrasa 'this boy comes to the school'

il binti di tigi il madrasa 'this girl comes to the school'

il ?awla:d dool yigu il madrasa 'these children come to the school'

7. Find the three verb forms and divide them with hyphens into stem and affixes. What meaning or grammatical function would you say that the different affixes express?

faatīma tiḥibb il walad da 'Fatima loves this boy'

ḥasan yiḥibb il binti di 'Hassan loves this girl'

8. Are the assumptions that you made about the verb affixes in the preceding sentences confirmed or not by these last two sentences?

Inspired by: W. Cowan & J. Rakušan. 1987. *Source Book for Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, p. 103, and J. Wightwick & M. Gaafar. 2014. *Colloquial Arabic of Egypt*. London & New York: Routledge.

Problem 10.2

Describing things in Swahili

Swahili doesn't have as many adjectives as English. The stem *-dogo* 'small' is an adjective, but the stem *-faa* 'is useful' is a verb.

1. Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

NB. Swahili doesn't have a definite article, so all the nouns could equally well be translated with the indefinite article *a* instead of the definite *the*. Gloss them without any article.

kisu kidogo 'the small knife'

kisu ni kidogo 'the knife is small'

visu ni vidogo 'the knives are small'

mti ni mdogo 'the tree is small'

miti ni midogo 'the trees are small'

mtu ni mdogo 'the man is small'

watu ni wadogo 'the men are small'

1. How do the prefixes work?

2. What is the word order regarding adjectives?

3. What is the function of the word *ni*?

kisu kinafaa 'the knife is useful'

mti unafaa 'the tree is useful'

watu wanafaa 'the men are useful'

4. How does the difference between adjectives and verbs affect the structure of the above sentences?

5. The verbs have two prefixes. One of them expresses tense. What is your analysis of the verb prefixes?

Inspired by: W. Cowan & J. Rakušan. 1987. *Source Book for Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, p. 110.

Problem 10.3

Somali relative clauses

Most languages have a negator word, e.g. English 'not'. Somali also has a corresponding positive marker.

1. Gloss the following examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

waa uu ordaa 'he runs'

waa ay ordaysaa 'she is running'

waa uu ordayaa 'he is running'

2. What is the function of *waa*, *uu*, *ay*?

3. How is the progressive (or continuous) aspect expressed in Somali?

Sahro waa ay ordaysaa 'Sarah is running'

Xasan waa uu ordayaa 'Hassan is running'

4. What more can we say about the use of *uu*, *ay* based on the last two examples?

waxa ay cunaysaa moos 'she is eating a banana'

waxa uu cunayaa moos 'he is eating a banana'

Sahro waxa ay cunaysaa moos 'Sarah is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu cunayaa moos 'Hassan is eating a banana'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka 'Sarah is watching the boy'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta 'Hassan is watching the girl'

5. What is the most important difference in the sentence constituent structure between these last six sentences and the preceding ones with *waa*?

6. What is your suggestion about the function of the word *waxa*?

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka ordaya 'Sarah is watching the boy that is running'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta ordaya 'Hassan is watching the girl that is running'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka cunaya moos 'Sarah is watching the boy that is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta cunaysa moos 'Hassan is watching the girl that is eating a banana'

7. The two verbs in each sentence have slightly different endings. Do you have any idea why that might be so?

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa Xasan oo cunaya moos 'Sarah is watching Hassan, who is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa Sahro oo cunaysa moos 'Hassan is watching Sarah, who is eating a banana'

8. The last two sentences differ from the preceding ones in that they contain the word *oo* before the relative clause. Do you have any idea what might be the reason for that little word?

Unit 11. Verbs & Roles

A verb usually constitutes the central part of a clause.

*The children **ate** their sandwiches.*

Verbs are (usually) accompanied by one or more nouns (noun phrases, pronouns), e.g., subject, object, adverbial etc. Some are obligatory, and some are optional.

*The children **ate** their sandwiches (with good appetite) (in the park) (before school).*

Some languages also allow verbs completely on their own, e.g.

Italian: *Piove.* 'It rains.'

In many languages, verbs are inflected for different time relations, e.g.

Italian: present: *piove*
past: *pioveva*
future: *pioverà*

In many languages the nouns go into specific positions relative to the verb. The grammatical functions SUBJECT and OBJECT are in some languages intimately related with the word order. Such languages are, e.g., English, Swedish and Swahili.

SUBJECT	+	PREDICATE	+	OBJECT(s) and ADVERBIAL(s)
Noun Phrase	+	Verb phrase		
Noun Phrase	+	Verb phrase	+	Noun Phrase
Noun Phrase	+	Verb phrase	+	Noun Phrase + NounPhrase
Stefan		föll.		
Stephen		fell.		
Stefan		köpte		glass.
Stephen		bought		ice-cream.
Stefan		visade	polisen	sitt leg.
Stephen		showed	the police	his ID.

Intransitive vs. transitive verbs

Verbs that are used without an object are called **INTRANSITIVE**, e.g.

sleep, fall, smile, laugh, walk

Verbs that are used with an object are called **TRANSITIVE**, e.g.

buy, steal, say, watch, take, send

Some verbs are used both as transitive and intransitive, e.g.

see, eat, read

Basic word order

SVO : Subject – Verb – Object

More strict: Swahili, Swedish, English

Less strict: Russian

SOV: Subject – Object – Verb

More strict: Amharic, Tigrinya, Japanese, Persian

Less strict: Somali

VSO: Verb – Subject – Object

Classical Arabic, Berber languages, Celtic languages

VOS: Verb – Object – Subject

Malagassy

Grammatical functions vs. Semantic roles

The **GRAMMATICAL** functions SUBJECT and OBJECT correspond to **SEMANTIC ROLES** that reflect the meaning. The correspondence between grammatical functions and semantic roles is specific to each verb.

fall subject = theme (the kid is not actively doing anything)
The kid fell

walk subject = agent
Grandpa is walking

see subject = experiencer object = theme
Lea saw an elephant

eat subject = agent object = theme
Tom ate a sandwich

enter subject = agent object = goal
Sue entered the airport terminal

receive subject = recipient object = theme
Mike received a letter

The grammatical function, such as subject and object, is expressed differently in different languages:

1. by the word order, i.e. the position relative to the verb
Swahili, Colloquial Arabic, English, Swedish
2. by case endings on the nouns / noun phrases
Somali, Classical Arabic, Finnish, Russian, Latin,
3. by prepositions or particles that accompany the nouns / noun phrases
Japanese, Swedish, English
4. by affixes on the verb that agree with and indicate the subject and/or object
Swahili
5. by pronouns that co-occur with the verb and indicate the subject and/or object
Somali

TEMPLATES

fall: SUBJECT = **THEME** (the 'thing' involved in what happens)

[Stefan] [fell]

buy: SUBJECT = **AGENT**
 OBJECT = **THEME**

[Stefan] [bought] [ice-cream]

show: SUBJECT = **AGENT**
 OBJECT1 = **RECIPIENT**
 OBJECT2 = **THEME**

[Stefan] [showed] [the police] [his ID]

OR SUBJECT = **AGENT**
 OBJECT = **THEME**

to + NounPhrase = **RECIPIENT**

[Stefan] [showed] [his ID] [to the police]

In Somali the grammatical function is defined by inflectional endings on the noun phrase. Word order also contributes, but is not very reliable.

Definite article ends in **-u** if subject, in **-a** if not subject.

Gabar-tu waa ay **dhacday**.
girl-the.SUBJ decl she fell

Waa ay **dhacday** **gabar-tu**.

Gabar-tu **ayskiriin-ka** baa ay soo **iibsatay**.
girl-the.SUBJ ice-cream-the FOC she PF bought
'The girl bought the ice-cream.'

Ayskiriin-ka baa ay **gabar-tu** soo **iibsatay**.

Ayskiriin-ka baa ay soo **iibsatay** **gabar-tu**.

Gabar-tu waxa ay soo **iibsatay** **ayskiriin-ka**.

Waxa ay **gabar-tu** soo **iibsatay** **ayskiriin-ka**.

Waxa ay soo **iibsatay** **gabar-tu** **ayskiriin-ka**.

Russian has a much richer system of CASES, i.e. endings on nouns that express grammatical functions.

How the grammatical functions correspond to the semantic roles depends on the individual verb.

Form	MASCULINE		FEMININE		DOMINATING FUNCTION	ROLE
NOMINATIVE	Ivan	dom	Marina	kniga	SUBJECT	AGENT, THEME
ACCUSATIVE	Ivana	dom	Marinu	knigu	DIRECT OBJECT	THEME
DATIVE	Ivanu	domu	Marine	knige	INDIRECT OBJECT	RECIPIENT
GENITIVE	Ivana	doma	Mariny	knigi	MODIFIER	POSSESSOR
INSTRUMENTAL	Ivanom	domom	Marinoj	knigoj	ADV. OF MANNER	INSTRUMENT

Ivan dal **Marine** **knigu** **nominative - subject - agent**

'Ivan gave the book to Marina'

Ivan dal Marine knigu

Marine dal knigu Ivan

Knigu dal Marine Ivan

Knigu Ivan dal Marine

Marine dal knigu Ivan

accusative - direct object - theme

dative - indirect object - recipient

and several other combinations...

Marina kupila Ivanu dom

Marina kupila dom Ivanu

Marina Ivanu kupila dom

Marina dom kupila Ivanu

Dom Marina kupila Ivanu

'Marina bought a house for Ivan'

and many more options...

Yet other languages work with prepositions or other small particles that accompany the noun phrases in order to tell their grammatical function.

PERSIAN

ivan ketáb rá be mariná dád. 'Ivan gave the book to Marina'
Ivan book DEF.OBJ to Marina gave

mariná baráye Iván xáne xarid. 'Marina bought a house for Ivan.'
Marina for Ivan house bought

An example

The English *My foot hurts* corresponds to Swedish *Jag har ont i foten* (literally 'I have ache in the foot'), Russian *U menyá bolít nogá* (lit. 'At me the foot/leg hurts'), and Polish *Boli mnie stopa* (lit. 'The foot hurts me'). In Swedish 'I' seems to be 'in charge', whereas in the other languages 'the foot' is 'in charge'. In Swedish 'the foot' is the place where it happens, whereas in Russian 'I' am the place where it happens. And in Polish 'I' am being 'affected' by the behaviour of the foot, which is not the case in any of the other languages...

Waxaa **la** fur-ay albaabka.

FIN.FOC **one** open-PST the.door

'Somebody opened the door. / The door was opened (by somebody).'

Albaab-ku waa uu fur-**m**-ay.

door-THE.SBJ DECL it open-**ANT.CAUS**-PAST

'The door opened.' (by itself; no person opened it)

This type of verbs are called ANTI-CAUSATIVE. The anti-causative suffix in Somali is **-m-**. It is very different from a passive form!! **Anti-causative** verb express, just as the term suggest, that **nobody causes** the event.

Problem 11.1

Word order in Sidama

Sidama is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Cushitic group. It is spoken by approximately 3 million people in southern Ethiopia.

What rules can you give for word order in Sidama?

sama:go ka:j:ite laʔi

Samaago Kaajite saw
'Samaago saw Kaajite.'

dangiso n:a ledamo danca ja:la: ti

Dangiso and Ledamo good friend are
'Dangiso and Ledamo are good friends.'

tini sa:da lowil:a:d:a te

these cows big are
'These cows are big.'

o:so se bar:u tuk'a hajjitan:o

children her days all washes
'She washes her children every day.'

wa:re ba:ramo ra di:na ho

Waare Baaramo to enemy is
'Waare is an enemy to Baaramo.'

ba:ramo lek:ate n:i dajno

Baaramo foot on came
'Baaramo came on foot.'

kabi:co he:ʔran:o man:i fi:t'aʔ ja: ti

here live people relatives mine are
'The people who live here are my relatives.'

bis:o inserta se waj n:i wanfitino

Bisso pot her water with filled
'Bisso filled her pot with water.'

sama:go doda no

Samaago running is
'Samaago is running.'

an:u mini ra eʔi wate wa:re ita n:ino

father home to came when Waare eating was
'When his father came home, Waare was eating.'

From: Grover Hudson. 2000. Essential Introductory Linguistics. Oxford: Blackwell. Page 347.

Problem 11.2

Word order and roles in Wolaytta

Wolaytta is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Omotic group. It is spoken by approximately 1.6 million people in southern Ethiopia.

- Gloss all the example sentences as precisely as you can.
- What rules can you give for word order and grammatical marking of syntactic functions in Wolaytta?
- Verbs have different forms. What is probably the reason?
- Nouns seem to have different forms as subject, object and possessor. Make a list of the nouns in these sentences and their function. Try to find the morphological patterns.

ta naʔai ne matʃ:ijo beʔi:s

'My son saw your wife.'

ne a:wai ta a:jijo beʔi:s

'Your father saw my mother.'

ta matʃ:iya ne a:jijo mad:a:su

'My wife helped your mother.'

ta ifai ne ifa: matʃ:ijo mad:i:s

'My brother helped your brother's wife.'

ne a:wa: a:wai ne naʔa: beʔi:s

'Your father's father saw your son.'

ne naʔa: matʃ:iya ta matʃ:iyo a:wa: beʔa:su

'Your son's wife saw my wife's father.'

From: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. Problem 173.

Problem 11.3

Grammar in Engenni

Engenni is an endangered Niger-Congo language in the Volta-Niger group. It is spoken by just a few thousand people in southern Nigeria.

What grammatical information can you give for Engenni based on the following sentences?
Try to write a 'mini grammar' of Engenni with as much information as possible.

aðiðæ næ wu

rich.man the died
'The rich man died.'

edei ðemu næ du eseni

man fat the bought fish
'The fat man bought fish.'

ade do eseni

Ade stole fish
'Ade stole fish.'

edei næ aðiðæ

man the rich.man
'The man is a rich.man.'

edei dori næ ade

man tall the Ade
'The tall man is Ade.'

ade dorija

Ade tall
'Ade is tall.'

aðiðæ næ ðemuja

rich.man the fat
'The rich man is fat.'

From: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. Problem 231.

Problem 11.4

'And' in Amharic

English nouns are connected with the conjunction 'and'.
How is this expressed in Amharic?

1. mark'os mætt'a
Mark came.
2. aster hedəč
Esther went.
3. irbik'a mætt'ač
Rebecca came.
4. mamə hedə
Mamo went.
5. birhane hedəč
Birhane went.
6. yohannis mætt'a
John came.
7. yohannisinna mark'os hedu
John and Mark went.
8. asterinna mamə mætt'u
Esther and Mamo came.
9. mamonna mark'os hedu
Mamo and Mark went.
10. birhanenna irbik'a hedu
Birhane and Rebecca went.
11. irbik'anna mamə mark'osim hedu
Rebecca, Mamo, and Mark went.
12. mark'osinna yohannis asterim mætt'u
Mark, John, and Esther came.
13. asterinna mark'os birhanem mamom hedu
Esther, Mark, Birhane, and Mamo went.

From: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. Problem 289.

Unit 12. Tense & Aspect

Tense is not equal to time!

Tense is a **grammatical form**,

Tense is very often expressed by some affixe(s) (=bound **morpheme(s)**).

present tense: work-s arbeta-r

past tense: work-ed arbeta-de

Time, on the other hand, is a **semantic category**, hence part of the meaning.

There is no one to one relation between form (tense) and meaning (time).

There is only some general (frequent) relation between the two.

English and Swedish present tense can express both **present, past and future** time!

Both in English and Swedish one may report about past events in the present tense to make to story more vivid.

*Yesterday at breakfast, he **walks** over to my table and **sits** down.*

This is a so called historical use (meaning, function) of the present tense.

Both English and Swedish can express future time through the use of the present tense.

Jag kommer med tåget i morgon klockan åtta.

I arrive by train tomorrow at eight.

All languages can express time, but not all languages has tenses (grammatical forms). Especially languages without morphology, or with very little morphology, e.g. Chinese. Then adverbs and particles do the job instead, mostly words that express the time of the event.

Tense: Form vs. Construction

If tenses are **forms**, there is strictly speaking no future tense in English and Swedish, only **constructions** (more than one word) expressing the future: *will arrive, is going to arrive...*

But... if we consider both **forms** and **constructions** to be tenses, then Sw. and Eng. have a future tense.

Once again... grammatical traditions differ!

The crucial point is do distinguish between

- forms
- constructions
- functions / meanings / event time

The Past

English and Swedish have one past tense form + two past (tense) constructions, all of which primarily express past time in different ways.

Simple tense form

PRETERITE / PAST

work-ed

arbeta-de

Constructions

PERFECT / PRESENT PERFECT

has worked

har arbetat

PLUPERFECT / PAST PERFECT

had eaten

hade arbetat

However, the function/meaning of a tense may differ from what the terminological 'label' of the form suggests!

The preterite may express a condition, which can also be related to the future.

*If I **had** enough money, I would travel around the world.*

*Om jag **hade** tillräckligt med pengar skulle jag resa världen runt.*

The perfect may express a future event that is prior to another future event.

*When you **have paid**, you will receive an electronic receipt.*

*När du **har betalat** kommer du att få ett elektroniskt kvitto.*

Conjugation = Verb inflection

To conjugate a verb is to list its inflectional forms (and possibly also the constructions). Many languages, but not all, inflect verbs for:

Persons: 1st, 2nd, 3rd;

Numbers: Singular, Plural (and Dual);

Genders: Masculine, Feminine, Neutre, or Noun Class

Tenses: Past, Present, Future, etc. (distant past, immediate past, today's past, immediate future, distant future...)

Aspects: Perfective, Imperfective, Progressive, Habitual

Moods: Realis (Indicative), Irrealis (Imperative, Subjunctive, Conditional, Prohibitive, Optative...)

All the above forms are often referred to as

TAM-forms (abbreviation for Tense/Aspect/Mood-forms), or
Finite verb forms, which are forms inflected for person (automatically including TAM).

Non-finite verb forms (Sw. infinita verbformer) are

Infinitive(s) / verbal nouns (verbalsubstantiv)

Participles / verbal adjectives

In verb constructions, it is common to find two verbs. One verb expresses the main meaning, but it is not really inflected, it's often in the infinitive. Another verb adds some grammatical meaning and carries the inflectional endings for person, number, tense, mood etc. This verb is called an **auxiliary**.

There are two main types of **auxiliary verbs**:

- Temporal auxiliaries: *will, have, had*;
- Modal auxiliaries: *would, can, could, must, may etc. ...*

Problem 12.1

Tense and aspect in Somali

The following sentences show the full set of tenses and aspects in Somali.

How many tenses are there, and how many aspects are there?

Why do you think so? Explain!

Waa ay orodday. 'She ran.'

Waa ay oroddaa. 'She runs.'

Waa uu orday. 'He ran.'

Waa uu ordaa. 'He runs.'

Waa ay ordaysaa. 'She is running.'

Waa ay ordaysay. 'She was running.'

Waa uu ordayaa. 'He is running.'

Waa uu ordayay. 'He was running.'

Waa ay ordi doontaa. 'She will run.'

Waa uu ordi doonaa. 'He will run.'

Waa ay ordi jirtay. 'She used to run.'

Waa uu ordi jiray. 'He used to run.'

Problem 12.2

Verb prefixes in Swahili

How would you account for all the verb prefixes in the following Swahili examples?

1. Break up the words into morphemes using hyphens. Then gloss the examples.

NB. Swahili doesn't have a definite article, so all the nouns could equally well be translated with the indefinite article *a* instead of the definite *the*. Gloss them without any article.

2. Group the prefixes into three different categories that have some semantic traits in common.

3. Prepare a table showing the ordering of the prefixes.

4. The object prefixes are not always used. When are they used and when are they not?

ninasema

'I speak'

unasema

'you speak'

anasema

'he speaks'

wanasema

'they speak'

ninaona

'I see'

niliona

'I saw'

ninawaona

'I see them'

nilikuona

'I saw you'

ananiona

'he sees me'

utaniona

'you will see me'

Mtoto alisoma kitabu.

'The child read the book.'

Mtoto alikisoma.

'The child read it.'

Watoto walisoma vitabu.

'The children read the books.'

Watoto walivisoma.

'The children read them.'

Mtoto alikula ndizi.

'The child ate the banana(s).'

Mtoto aliikula.

'The child ate it.'

Mtoto alizikula.

'The child ate them.'

Mwalimu alipiga mtoto.

'The teacher beat the child.'

Mwalimu alimpiga.

'The teacher beat him/her.'

Walimu walipiga watoto.

'The teachers beat the children.'

Walimu waliwapiga.

'The teachers beat them.'

from Kroeger (2005: 24)

Problem 12.3

Gee verb morphology

It's not entirely clear which language Gee (spoken in Togo) is referring to, but it seems quite probable that the authors mean the Gen language, one of the Gbe languages of Togo, also considered a dialect of Ewe. Gen has approximately a quarter of a million speakers.

How would you account for all the morphemes in the following Gee examples?

Gloss the examples indicating the morphological structure.

Then group the affixes into different categories that have some semantic trait in common and occur in the same position (slot) relative to the verb stem.

Prepare a table that shows the ordering of these groups of affixes.

- | | | |
|----|----------------|-------------------|
| a. | bi?-fu-ni | 'I came' |
| b. | bai-fu-ni | 'I went' |
| c. | dos-fu-me | 'you (sg.) ran' |
| d. | me?-fu-mi | 'they spoke' |
| e. | bai-te-mi-le? | 'will they go?' |
| f. | bi?-pa?-ni-do | 'I am not coming' |
| g. | dos-fu-ni-risa | 'I ran first' |

- h. bai-paʔ-me-duʔa 'you (sg.) only are going'
- i. dos-te-mi-risa-leʔ 'will they run first?'
- j. bai-fu-ni-tuʔi 'I went suddenly'
- k. meʔ-te-mi-risa-do-leʔ 'will they not speak first?'
- l. biʔ-te-me-duʔa-do 'you (sg.) only will not come'
- m. meʔ-paʔmi-tuʔi-leʔ 'are they suddenly speaking?'

from Kroeger (2005: 18), who in turn cites Bendor-Samuel and Levinson (1986) and Roberts (1999, ex. M-4.8)

Unit 13. Phrases & Clauses

Richter, Sections 4.1–4.5

Morphology describes the ways in which morphemes combine to form words.

Syntax describes the ways in which words combine to form phrases, how phrases then combine to form clauses, how clauses combine to form sentences, and also the manners in which sentences combine to form texts. For example, syntax deals with word order, the use of prepositions, the ways in which the grammatical roles are expressed etc. etc. etc.

Phrase (fras) - A phrase consists of one or more words.

Clause (sats) - A clause consists of one or more phrases.

Sentence (mening) - A sentence consists of one or more clauses.

Sentences are only indirectly made up of words.

Word classes

are important, since words in different word classes are used in different ways in syntax, i.e. when building larger units than the word: phrases, clauses and sentences.

Subdivisions of word classes are also very relevant, e.g., proper nouns, common nouns, countable nouns, uncountable nouns and mass nouns sometimes behave differently.

Some Common Types of Phrases

Verb Phrases (VP's), e.g. auxiliary verb + head/main verb

Noun Phrases (NP's), e.g., determiner + noun

Many linguists, but not all, also include the rest of the clause in the VP, with the exception of the subject NP. Every clause is then first divided into just one NP + one VP.

NP	VP	
<The children>	<have seen the cat>	
	or	
NP	VP	NP
<The children>	<have seen>	<the cat>

This is a good example showing that linguists (and scientists in general) don't always agree with each other on all details.

Noun Phrases (NP's): determiner(s) + modifier(s) + head noun (not necessarily in that order!)

my big **house**

Preposition Phrases (PP's): preposition + noun phrase

in my big house

Adjective Phrases (AP's): adjective (head word) + modifier(s)

tired of this job

Phrases often consist of **only one word**.

Stephen became tired.

NP VP AP

My friend **Stephen** <> has **become** <> **tired** of his job.

NP VP AP

Noun phrase (NP)

Jane; she; the child; the young student; the children in the garden; the **sleeping** child

Verb phrase (VP)

works; has been working intensely; **woke up; saw** the accident

Preposition phrase (PP) - a preposition + a NP

in the garden; in the beautiful garden

Adjective phrase (AdjP) -

beautiful, incredibly beautiful

Adverb phrase (AdvP)

incredibly, very intensely

Tests that show what is a phrase

- replacement (with e.g. a pronoun)
- movement (changing the word order)

A phrase can usually not be divided, even if there exist examples of the contrary.

Sw./En. preposition phrases, where the preposition can be left at the end of a clause

Russian adjectives can be separated from their head noun

In many languages, certain conjunctions can go into the middle of the first phrase and the second clause.

Not all languages have the same types of phrases

Somali doesn't have prepositions phrases, but instead it has sentence particle phrases

NP	SpP	NP	VP	NP
Naciima	<> waxa ay	<> buug	<> ku soo iibsatay	<> 65 000 shilin
	FOC she	book	for COMPL bought	

'Naeema <> bought <> a book <> **for** 65 000 shillings'

NP	VP	NP	PP
----	----	----	----

Xaliimo	<> suuqa	<> waxa ay	<> ka soo iibsatay	<> walxaha soo socda
	market.the	FOC she	at COMPL bought	things.the here going

'Halima <> bought <> the following things <> **at** the market'

SpP - Sentence Particle Phrase

FOC - focus on the last Noun Phrase

COMPL - Completed action

Varying structures between languages

The same meaning can be expressed

- morphologically in one language
- syntactically in another language
- both ways in a third language

	'Monica's mother'	'the name of the village'
JUXTAPOSITION		
SOMALI		magaca tuulada
ARABIC	umm Monika	
GENITIVE CASE		
ENGLISH	Monica's mother	
RUSSIAN	mama Moniki	
SLOVENE		ime vasi
NORWEGIAN	Monikas mor	
POSSESSIVE DETERMINER		
SOMALI	Monika hooyadeed	
NORWEGIAN	Monika si mor	
CONNECTOR		
SWAHILI	mama ya Monika	
PERSIAN	mádar e Monika	nám e rustá
ENGLISH		the name of the village
SPANISH	la madre de Monica	
NORWEGIAN	mora til Monika	
POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE		
SLOVENE	Monik ina mama	

Some languages have very little or no inflectional morphology (e.g. English, Chinese).

Sometimes it is also difficult to draw the exact borderline between morphology and syntax. It can therefore be practical to talk about **morphosyntax** instead of **morphology & syntax**.

Deep vs. surface structure

Ex 1

Deep structure:

children (agent, definite) see (verb, past) cat (theme, definite)

Surface structure 1: The children saw the cat.

Surface structure 2: The cat was seen by the children.

Ex 2

Deep structure 1: Man, interest: people (agent), hunt, lions (theme)

Deep structure 2: Man, interest: lions (agent), hunt, animals (theme)

Surface structure: He is interested in hunting lions.

structure 1: *hunting* is the head noun, *lions* is the object of *hunting*

He is interested in **hunting** (lions).

structure 2: *lions* is the head noun, *hunting* is a modifier of *lions*

He is interested in (hunting) **lions**.

Problem 13.1 – Deep structure

These sentences are ambiguous.

Mr Smith is too old to visit.

Herr Smith är för gammal för besök.

Present two different deep structures that explain the ambiguity.

From Richter (2006: 60).

Problem 13.2 – Empty constituents

In the second English sentence, there is an empty slot (\emptyset) corresponding to a filled slot (him) in the first sentence. In the corresponding Somali sentences both slots are filled.

Sue wanted him to sing.

Sue wanted \emptyset to sing.

Sue waxay rabtay in uu heeso.

Sue waxay rabtay in ay heesto.

Sue FOC.she wanted that he sings

Sue FOC.she wanted that she sings

What would you say is the deep structure?

What do you think is the reason for the empty slot in the English sentence?

Inspired by Richter (2006: 60).

Problem 13.3 – Deep structure in Ngbaka

Ngbaka (Kongo)

Describe the semantic roles found in the deep structure of the following clauses.

1. A ne ko toa do wili a.
she goes to house with husband her.
'She goes to the house with her husband.'
2. A nyongo loso do papa.
he eats rice with spoon.
'He eats rice with a spoon.'
3. A a mbeti ko sanduku.
he puts book in box.
'He puts the book in the box.'

Inspired by Roberts (1999, ex. S-9.2) found in Kroeger (2005: 83–84).

Unit 14. Types of Clauses and Sentences

Clause

A syntactic structure that describes one event.

Minimally, as a rule: one VP + NP's required by the verb
Other phrases may be added.

Clauses can be **independent** or **dependent**.

Independent clauses are also called **main** clauses.

Dependent clauses are also called **subordinate** clauses or **subclauses**.

mainclause *subordinate clause*
Känner du den där killen som sitter där borta?
Do you know that guy who is sitting over there?

Sentence - A textual unit that starts with an uppercase letter and ends with a major interpunction mark, i.e. full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.

Sentences may be categorised based on the type of clauses they contain.

Simple sentence = one independent/main clause
I am eating. *You are playing with your phone.*

Compound sentence = two coordinated independent/main clauses
*I am eating **and** you are playing with your phone.*

Joined by a coordinator word / conjunction

Complex sentence = **main/independent** clause + **subordinate/dependent** clause(s)

*I am eating **while** you are playing with your phone.*
*I am eating **since** you are playing with your phone.*
*I am eating **even if** you are playing with your phone.*
*I am not eating **if** you are playing with your phone.*

Dependent/subordinate clauses are usually introduced by a **subordinator word / subjunction**.

Sentences may also be categorised based on the status of the material they contain.

Major/full/regular sentence

- a complete clause

That's great!

Minor/incomplete sentence

- not a complete clause
just a phrase

Great!

Sentences may be further categorised based on the grammatical form that they have as well as based on the function that they fill in communication.

Sentence Forms

Sentence Functions

Declarative

Statement

Interrogative

Question

Imperative

Request/Order

Exclamative

Reaction/Feeling

Form and function usually match, but not always.

When are you going to clean your room?

The form is interrogative, but the function might be a request.

There is no cake left!

The form is a declarative, but the function might be a question.

Can't you do anything right?

The form is interrogative, but the function is a reaction.

Questions whose function is not a question – no answer is expected – are referred to as rhetorical questions.

There are three very different types of **interrogative** sentences:

Content Question/wh-question/Open Question

- you want some additional content as an answer
the words used begin with *wh... + how*

What would you like to drink?

Polar Question/yes-no question

- you just want *yes* or *no* as an answer

Would you like some tea?

Disjunctive questions

- gives alternatives to choose between

*Would you like **tea or coffee**?*

Analysing sentences, when can do that from four different perspectives:

Sentence Content	the action and the roles involved
Sentence Forms	Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamative
Sentence Functions	Statement, Question, Request/Order, Reaction
Sentence Force	the intended effect

Do you happen to know what time it is?

This sentence is about some person's knowledge about the current time. That's the content.

It has an **interrogative** form, beginning with an auxiliary, which makes it a **polar question**,

The function is rather a **request**. You do not want the person to answer yes or no.

Instead, you want the person to tell you what time it is, which is then the sentence **force**, what you want to achieve.

All languages can of course do all this, but each language has its own ways. The functions are universal, but the **syntactic forms** of sentences differ a lot between languages.

SWEDISH

Declarative (VERB SECOND): One constituent + Verb + (Subject) + Rest

Anders kom sent till jobbet igår.
'Anders came late to work yesterday.'

Igår kom Anders sent till jobbet.
'Yesterday Anders came late to work.'

Content Question (VERB SECOND): Question word + Verb + (Subject) + Rest

Varför kom Anders sent till jobbet?
'Why did Anders come late to work?'

Polar Question (VERB INITIAL): Verb + Subject + Rest

Kom Anders sent till jobbet igår?
'Did Anders come late to work yesterday?'

Imperative (VERB INITIAL): Verb + Rest

Kom inte sent till jobbet imorgon!
'Don't come late to work tomorrow.'

SOMALI

Declarative:

(NP) + Declarative particle + Subject pronoun + (NP) + VP + (NP)

Ardaydu waa ay ordayaan. Waa ay ordayaan.
Waa ay ordayaan ardaydu.
'The students are running. **They** are running.'

Content Question or Open Question:

(NP) + Question word + Focus particle + Subj. pro. + (NP) + VP + (NP)

Xaggee baa ay u ordayaan ardaydu? Xaggee baa ay u ordayaan?
Xaggee baa ay ardaydu u ordayaan?
Ardaydu xaggee baa ay u ordayaan?
'**Where** are the students running (**to**)? **Where** are they running (**to**)?'

Polar Question: Question particle + (Subj. pro.) + (NP) + VP + (NP)

Ma (ay) ordayaan (ardaydu)?
'Are the students running?'

Imperative: (NP) + VP + (NP)

Orda! U orda iskuulka!
'Run! Run **to** school!'

Fronting of question word

Some languages front the question word, some don't.

If not fronted in English and Swedish - special effects are achieved

What did you say? Where are you going? - Real questions

You said WHAT? You are going WHERE? - Reactions (Disbelief)

SOMALI

Free variation - for information structure purposes

Xaggee baa ay ardaydu u ordayaan?

Ardaydu xaggee baa ay u ordayaan?

'Where are the students running (to)?'

Kani waa kuma?

this DECL who

Waa kuma kani?

DECL who this

Kuma weeye kani?

who DECL this

'Who is this?'

In some languages the question word normally stays in the same position as the corresponding answer word. This is the case in Mandarin Chinese.

nǐ shuō shénme?

you say what

'What did you say?'

In other languages the answer word might be fronted, just like the question word. This is one of the possibilities in Somali.

Maxaa aad soo iibsaday?

what you bought

Gaari ayaa aan soo iibsaday.

car FOC I bought

But Somali has very flexible word order and it is also possible to give the answer word at the end of the answer.

Waxa aan soo iibsaday gaari.

FOC I bought car

The word order in Somali is not mainly dictated by the syntax or grammar, but rather by so called information structure or information packaging, i.e., in which order you want to present the different pieces of information to the listener. You often present it so that you first mention things that are known and then add things that are new. But in order to put emphasis on a word, you might put it in a less expected position.

Problem 14.1 – Sentence types in Ewe

Ewe is spoken in southern Ghana and Togo by some 7 million people. It is a Niger-Congo language in the Atlantic-Congo subgroup.

Gloss the following examples.

mó ‘a way’
agble ‘a farm’

mó didi ‘a long way’
agble lolo ‘a big farm’

mó didi lá ‘the long way’
agble lolo lá ‘the big farm’

1. Describe the word order in the noun phrase.

Mó lá didi. ‘The way is long.’
Agble lá lolo. ‘The farm is big.’

2. Describe the structure of the preceding simple sentences.

Mó lá didia? ‘Is the way long?’
Agble lá loloa? ‘Is the farm big?’

3. How are questions formed?

Mó lá médididi o. ‘The way isn’t long.’
Agble lá mélolo o. ‘The farm isn’t big.’

4. How is negation expressed?

Mó lá médididi oa? ‘Isn’t the way long.’
Agble lá mélolo oa? ‘Isn’t the farm big.’

5. How are negative questions expressed?

Problem 14.2 – Sentence types in Gede’o

Gede’o is spoken in southern Ethiopia by approximately 1 million people. It is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Cushitic subgroup.

Gloss the following examples.

Isi dageen. 'He came.'
Isi dagee? 'Did he come?'
Isi dageebaan. 'He did not come.'
Isi dageebaa? 'Didn't he come?'

1. How do declarative clauses differ from interrogative clause.
2. How do positive clauses differ from negative clauses?

Isi soodo dagan. 'He will come tomorrow.'
Isi soodo daga? 'Will he come tomorrow?'

3. How does past tense differ from future or non-past tense?
(This does not necessarily need to be a future tense form, since there is a word in the sentences that defines the time.)

Ise muuze itteen. 'She ate banana.'
Ise muuze ittee? 'Did she eat banana?'
Ise muuze itteebaan. 'She didn't eat banana.'
Ise muuze itteebaa? 'Didn't she eat banana?'

4. What seems to be the basic constituent order?

Looni wiisalloten. 'Looni is a farmer.'
Ise wiisallote? 'Is she a farmer?'
Doori wiisalloken. 'Doori is a farmer.'
Isi wiisalloke? 'Is he a farmer.'

5. The verb form 'is' does not occur as an independent word in Gede’o. Instead it is an unstressed clitic word, i.e. a small word that is attached to another more prominent word. What would you say is the clitic verb form in Gede’o that corresponds to English 'is'?

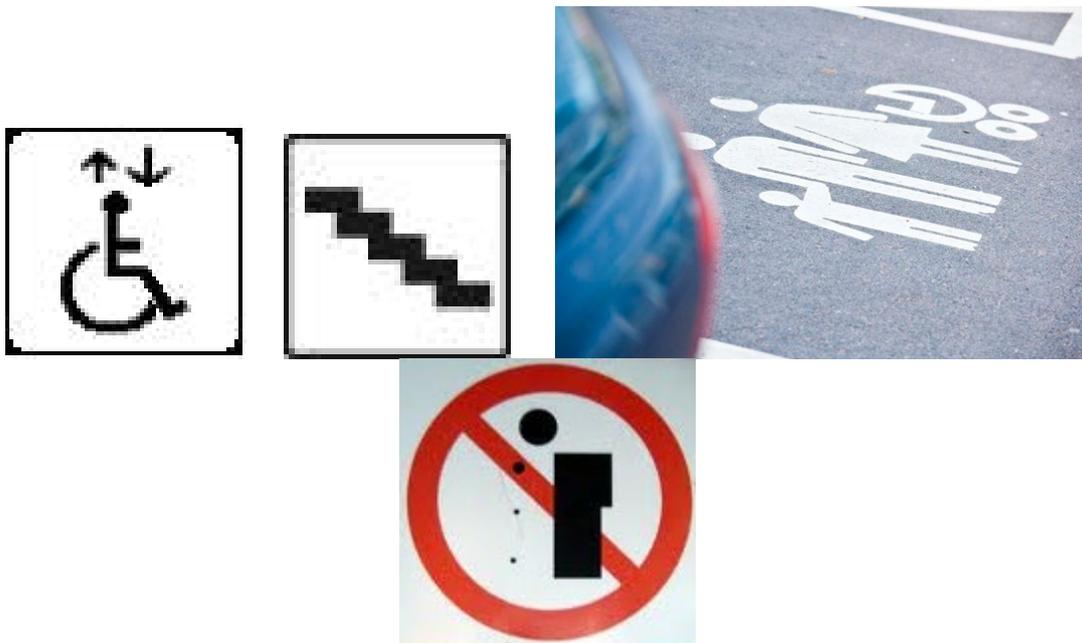
Ise barattoten. 'She is a student.'
Ise barattotebaan. 'She is not a student.'
Ise barattote? 'Is she a student?'
Ise barattotebaa? 'Isn't she a student?'

Isi baratɸɸisandzoken. 'He is a teacher.'
Isi baratɸɸisandzokebaan. 'He is not a teacher.'
Isi baratɸɸisandzoke? 'Is he a teacher?'
Isi baratɸɸisandzokebaa? 'Isn't he a teacher?'

Unit 15. Writing

Writing versus Other Symbols

What is the difference between writing and other systems of symbols?



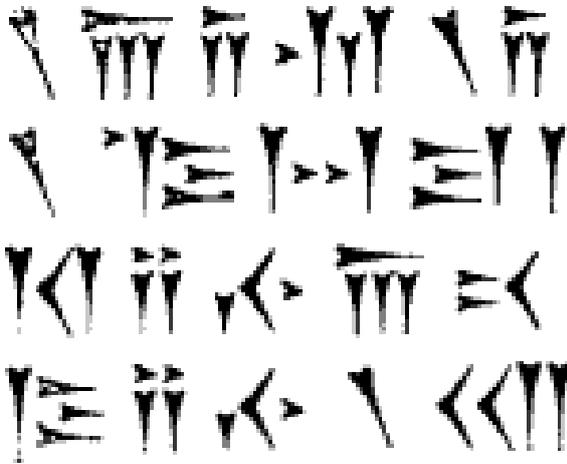
There are many systems of **iconic symbols**, e.g.

- roadsigns, washing advice, find your way symbol: toilet, telephone, entrance, exit, elevator etc.
- mathematical symbols, e.g. $1 + 1 = 2$
- chemical symbols, e.g. H_2O

Some are more iconic, others are more conventionalized, i.e., more difficult to “figure out”.

BUT such symbols do not relate directly to any individual spoken language.

Early writing (not necessarily the earliest!!)



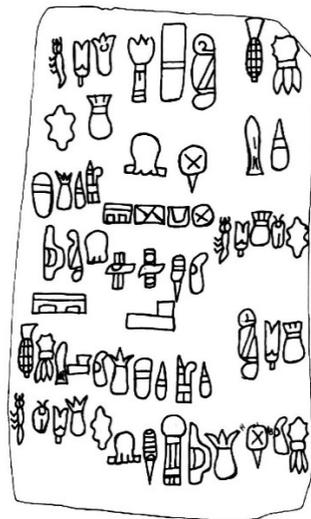
Middle East



Egypt



China



Central America

How writing developed

Original connection:

a spoken word \leftrightarrow a meaning \leftrightarrow a written sign

Later connection:

a spoken word \leftrightarrow a written sign \leftrightarrow a meaning

a written sign \leftrightarrow a spoken word \leftrightarrow a meaning

a written sign \leftrightarrow a spoken word \leftrightarrow several
 meanings (homonymous)

Then the meanings need to be disambiguated through the used of additional 'supportive' signs, so called **determinatives**.

This is called the **rebus principle**.

The iconicity is fading away and the conventionalisation of the signs is increasing.

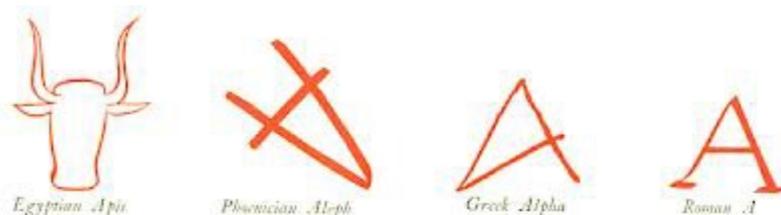
Syllabic script

か カ Ka	き キ Ki	く ク Ku	け ケ Ke
さ サ Sa	し シ Shi(Si)	す ス Su	せ セ Se
た タ Ta	ち チ Chi(Ti)	つ ツ Tsu(Tu)	て テ Te
な ナ Na	に ニ Ni	ぬ ヌ Nu	ね ネ Ne

Japanese

Hiragana signs shown above Katakana signs

From logographic to phonographic writing



Source: readingtothecore.wordpress.com

Next, symbols that had used to represent whole words came to represent only the initial sound of that word.

Iconicity is practically lost and the signs are fully conventionalised.

The number of graphemes is reduces as the level of abstraction incerases.

Purely Phonemic Consonantal script

The first fully phonographic system, the **Phoenician** script, was developed in the Middle East around 1500 BC.

The **Phoenician** script is the historical source of many of today's scripts, e.g. Latin, Cyrillic, Arabic, Hebrew...

Possible derivation of Brāhmī from the Phoenician script

Greek	Α	Β	Γ	Δ	Ε	Υ	Ζ	Η	Θ	Ι	Κ	Λ	Μ	Ν	Ξ	Ο	Π	Ρ	Σ	Τ			
Phoenician	𐤀	𐤁	𐤂	𐤃	𐤄	𐤅	𐤆	𐤇	𐤈	𐤉	𐤊	𐤋	𐤌	𐤍	𐤎	𐤏	𐤐	𐤑	𐤒	𐤓	𐤔		
Aramaic	𐤀	𐤁	𐤂	𐤃	𐤄	𐤅	𐤆	𐤇	𐤈	𐤉	𐤊	𐤋	𐤌	𐤍	𐤎	𐤏	𐤐	𐤑	𐤒	𐤓	𐤔	𐤕	
Brahmi	𑀀	𑀁	𑀂	𑀃	𑀄	𑀅	𑀆	𑀇	𑀈	𑀉	𑀊	𑀋	𑀌	𑀍	𑀎	𑀏	𑀐	𑀑	𑀒	𑀓	𑀔	𑀕	𑀖

The Brahmi script of India: findings from appr. 300 BC, but probably much older

The **Ge'ez** script (used for today's Amharic, Tigrinya etc.) has existed since around 100 AD.

The **Arabic** script was developed around 400 AD.

In the Phoenician script only consonants are written, not vowels, almost like in today's Arabic.

This kind of writing system is called an **abjad**.

In Arabic (from right to left)

لندن lndn 'London'

محمد mhmd 'Muhammed'

Diacritic signs

Later, small **diacritic** signs were sometimes added above, under or at the side of the consonants to indicate vowels.

لَنْدَنْ l^an^daⁿ

مُحَمَّد m^uh^am^{ma}d

The diacritic signs became obligatory in some writing systems, like Amharic, but they are quite seldom used in some other systems, like Arabic.

ለንደን London

ለቫርፑል Liverpool

ናጋሳኪ Nagasaki

Notice the tiny differences between Amharic /lə/, /li/ and /l/ in the names above! Also notice the similarity in the diacritic sign of /li/ and /ki/. Finally notice the similarity between the /l/ in Amharic, Greek and Cyrillic script (e.g. Russian).

A system with obligatory diacritic signs for vowels is called an **abugida**, whereas a system where vowels are mostly not indicated is called an **abjad**.

Alphabetic or Fully Phonemic script

The first alphabet with signs for all the vowels was developed for **Greek** around 800 BC.

This was taken to the Italian peninsula by the Etruscans, who developed the **Latin** alphabet around 700 BC.

The **Cyrillic** script, used for Russian etc., was developed from the Greek script around 900 AD.

However, for some 50 years before that, another script, called Glagolitic, was invented to write Slavic, but it was surprisingly soon abandoned in favour of the more Greek-like Cyrillic script.

Types of writing systems

Logographic

Chinese, Egyptian hieroglyphs

Syllabic

arbitrary signs for each syllable

Japanese

Phonemic

Abjad (consonantal)

Arabic, Hebrew

Abugida (semi-syllabic)

Ge'ez, Amharic, Tigrinya

Alphabet (fully phonemic)

Greek, Latin, Russian, Somali
Osmania script

(quasi syllabic)

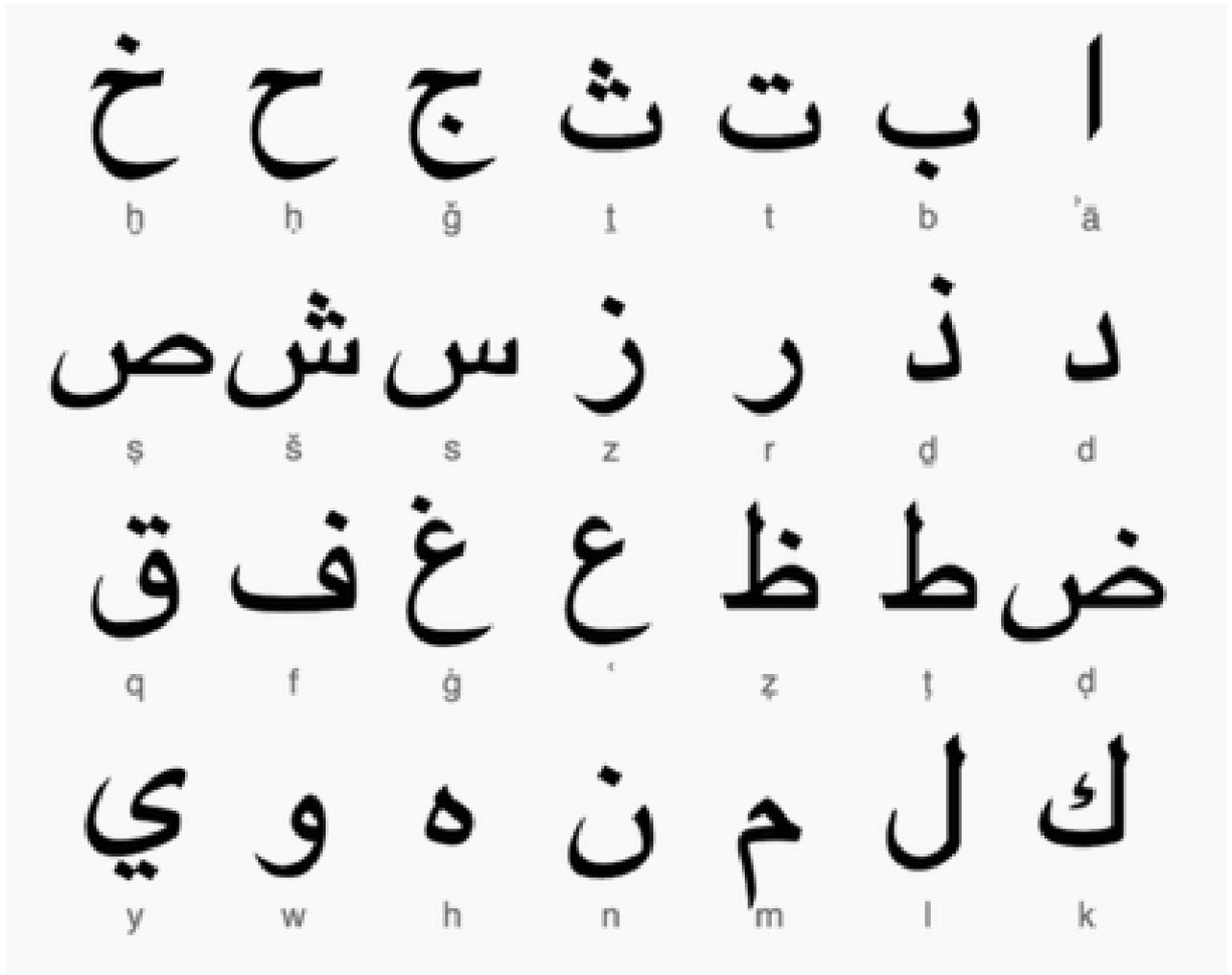
Korean

But languages with a basically alphabetic script have gone through some amount of historical development that has made pronunciation become different from the the writing, and the alphabetic script is then not fully phonemic any more...

Some of the Scripts used in Africa

Hieroglyphs	logographic script	Old Egyptian
Arabic script	phonographic abjad	Arabic
Ge'ez script	phonographic abugida	Amharic, Tigrinya etc.
Tifinagh script	phonographic abjad phonographic alphabetical	Tuareg etc. (Berber in Libya) Tamazigh etc. (Berber in Morocco)
Adlam script https://ff.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fulfulde/adlam		Fulfulde
Osmania script	phonographic alphabetical	Somali (1930's & 1940's)
Latin script	phonographic alphabetical	the majority of languages in Africa

Arabic script



The "upper case" version of the Arabic abjad,
i.e. the forms used word finally

Source: Wikipedia

Ge'ez script

		ä [ə] or [a]	u	i	a	e	ə [ɨ]	o	wa	jä [jə]
<i>Hoy</i>	<i>h</i>	ሀ	ሁ	ሂ	ሃ	ሄ	ህ	ሆ		
<i>Läwe</i>	<i>l</i>	ለ	ሉ	ሊ	ላ	ሌ	ል	ሎ	ሐ	
<i>Häwt</i>	<i>h</i>	ሐ	ሑ	ሒ	ሓ	ሔ	ሕ	ሖ	ሗ	
<i>May</i>	<i>m</i>	መ	ሙ	ሚ	ማ	ሜ	ም	ሞ	ሟ	ሟ
<i>Śäwt</i>	<i>ś</i>	ሠ	ሡ	ሢ	ሣ	ሤ	ሥ	ሦ	ሧ	
<i>Rə's</i>	<i>r</i>	ረ	ሩ	ሪ	ራ	ሪ	ሮ	ሮ	ሮ	ሮ
<i>Sat</i>	<i>s</i>	ሰ	ሱ	ሲ	ሳ	ሴ	ስ	ሶ	ሷ	
<i>Kaf</i>	<i>k</i>	ቀ	ቁ	ቂ	ቃ	ቄ	ቅ	ቆ	ቇ	
<i>Bet</i>	<i>b</i>	በ	ቡ	ቢ	ባ	ቤ	ብ	ቦ	ቧ	
<i>Täwe</i>	<i>t</i>	ተ	ቱ	ቲ	ታ	ቲ	ት	ቶ	ቲ	

The beginning of the Ge'ez abugida.

Source: Wikipedia

Tifinagh script

ⵏ	ⵙ	ⵔ	ⵕ	ⵖ	ⵗ	ⵘ	ⵙ	ⵚ	ⵛ
A	B	G	G ^w	D	Ḍ	E	F	K	K ^w
ⵜ	ⵝ	ⵞ	ⵟ	ⵠ	ⵡ	ⵢ	ⵣ	ⵤ	ⵥ
H	Ḥ	Ḗ	X	Q	I	J	L	M	N
ⵦ	ⵧ	⵨	⵩	⵪	⵫	⵬	⵭	⵮	ⵯ
U	R	Ṛ	Y	S	Ṣ	C	T	Ṭ	W
⵰	⵱	⵲							
Y	Z	Ẓ							

Alphabetic version as used in Morocco for Tamazigh

Source: Wikipedia, Created by: Serg!o

Osmania script

Letters [\[edit \]](#)

Osmanya	Name	Latin	IPA	Osmanya	Name	Latin	IPA	Osmanya	Name	Latin	IPA
Ø	alef	'	[ʔ]	Ƴ	ba	b	[b]	Ƨ	ta	t	[t]
Ɓ	ja	j	[d͡ʒ]	Ɔ	xa	x	[ɸ]	Ƨ	kha	kh	[χ]
Ɔ	deel	d	[d]	Ƨ	ra	r	[r]	Ƨ	sa	s	[s]
Ƨ	shiin	sh	[ʃ]	Ƨ	dha	dh	[d͡ʒ]	Ƨ	cayn	c	[t͡ʃ]
Ƨ	ga	g	[g]	Ƨ	fa	f	[f]	Ƨ	qaaf	q	[q]
Ƨ	kaaf	k	[k]	Ƨ	laan	l	[l]	Ƨ	miin	m	[m]
Ƨ	nuun	n	[n]	Ƨ	waw, uu	w, uu	[w, ʉ, u:]	Ƨ	ha	h	[h]
Ƨ	ya, ii	y, ii	[j, i:, i:]	Ƨ	a	a	[æ, ɑ]	Ƨ	e	e	[e, ɛ]
Ƨ	i	i	[i, i]	Ƨ	o	o	[ø, ɔ]	Ƨ	u	u	[ʉ, u]
Ƨ	aa	aa	[æ:, ɑ:]	Ƨ	ee	ee	[e:, ɛ:]	Ƨ	oo	oo	[ø:, ɔ:]

Numbers [\[edit \]](#)

Digit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Osmanya	Ɔ	Ƨ	Ƨ	Ƨ	Ƨ	Ƨ	Ƨ	Ƨ	Ƨ	Ƨ

Used for Somali in the first half of the 1900's.

Source: Wikipedia.

Problem 15.1

Read Amharic script

Try to read the following names in Amharic. All are cities in Europe, with the exception of Nagasaki.

There is a good table on Wikipedia containing all the Amharic graphemes: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amharic>

ለንደን lə.n.də.n London

ሊቨርፑል li.βə.r.pu.l Liverpool

ናጋሳኪ na.ga.sa.ki Nagasaki

ሪጋ

ቦርሊን

ቤርን

ቦን

ብሬሙን

ቦርግን

ታሊን

ፕራግ

ኦስሎ

ሮማ

ቤልጉሰት

Problem 15.2

Ngbaka, Kongo, determiners

Ngbaka is a Niger-Congo language in the Savannas group, and it is spoken by around a million people in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Gloss the data and write down all the grammatical rules that are necessary in order to produce the following phrases.

1. toa kpo 'one house'
2. toa ke 'this house'
3. toa ge 'that house'
4. gā folo kpo 'one big elephant'
5. folo ge tū 'that black elephant'
6. bisī gbogbo kpo 'one small lion'
7. gbogbo ge fě 'that white lion'
8. bisī gbogbo ke fě 'this small white lion'
9. gā folo kpo tū 'one big black elephant'

from Kroeger (2005: 48–49, citing Roberts 1999).

Unit 16. Sociolinguistics: Varieties & Norms

Language varieties

depending on

geographical region

age

gender

social status

education

profession

religion

interests

friends

family

formality of the situation

etc.

Variety

“the language spoken by a group of people who belong to a particular social or cultural group”

“a set of linguistic items with similar social distribution”

All languages have multiple varieties.

Differences in both pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar, i.e. different norms about language usage.

Variation

Can be observed in **linguistic items** or **variables**.

A specific **variable** may correspond to two or more **linguistic items**.

The variable could be the pronunciation of Swedish <sj>, and the two most typical items would be [ʃ] and [ɧ].

Language vs. Dialect

Dialect: "a geographical variety of a language, spoken in certain areas"
"one of several mutually intelligible geographical varieties"

layman definition: "a 'provincial' variety that differs from the standard" -
the standard is then regarded as non-dialectal

We all speak a dialect (= variety) of our mother tongue.

Language:

Abstand / **Distance Languages:** "languages that are different enough to be mutually unintelligible"

Ausbau / **Development Languages:** "languages that have developed a recognized standard variety"

Dialect continuum: a chain of dialects where the intelligibility decreases as the distance increases.

e.g. Scandinavian language varieties (i.e. dialects of Danish, Norwegian and Swedish)

e.g. Arabic language varieties (Classic, Modern Standard, Moroccan, Egyptian, Levantine...)

e.g. Turkic language varieties (i.e. Turkish, Azeri, Turkmen, Uzbek, Kasakh, Kirgiz, Uighur...)

The dialect continuum problem: varieties 1, 2, 3, 4 are all mutually intelligible, as are varieties 2, 3, 4, 5.

Varieties 1 and 5 are not mutually intelligible, hence: Are they different languages?

Languages (especially development lang.) may emerge at several points of one dialect continuum.

Linguists usually let speakers decide/define themselves what language and/or dialect they speak.

Isogloss

a 'geographical' border between varieties with respect to one (or more) specific individual linguistic item(s)

Standard Language = Standard Variety

The standard is just another variety. No variety is inherently better than another. But knowing the standard is often crucial for functioning as a member of modern society.

However, due to historical factors (historical accidents), the standard variety

enjoys greater prestige than other varieties of a specific language.

A standard language is first of all a **written language**.

A standard language is an **idealization**, it is almost never the natural mother tongue variety of any group.

Usually, people are better at writing it than speaking it.

For some languages, some speakers grow up learning a mother tongue variety in their childhood, that is quite close to the standard, even if not identical.

For some languages, instead, the standard is quite distant from all the naturally occurring varieties that people learn when growing up. The standard is then only learnt at school. This is so, to different degrees, for Arabic, Slovene, Czech...

Not all languages have a standard variety.

Standard varieties change over time, new standard varieties are sometimes born, and some disappear.

Low German used to enjoy the prestigious position of a standard language, but it doesn't anymore.

A standard variety is typically used by people with
greater **political power** (influence)
greater **social influence** (power)
greater **economic power** (wealth)
higher/better **education**

It is used in

administration
education
mass media
literature
(entertainment)

It is defined/described/taught in

dictionaries
grammar books
textbooks

It has a stable form, above all in writing.

It is perceived as

more correct and acceptable than other varieties

Regional Varieties & Pluricentric Languages

Standard languages often have "more than one standard", or slight variation within the standard, e.g.

the differences between standard English in the USA, Canada, Britain, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand etc.,

the differences between standard Swedish in Sweden and Finland.

also Arabic, German, Spanish, French, Russian, Somali etc. etc.

Such different standard varieties or close-to-standard varieties are often referred to as regional varieties (of the standard language), but of course, also non-standard geographical varieties can be referred to as regional varieties.

Languages with multiple/varying standards are often referred to as **pluricentric languages**.

Social varieties = Sociolects

Due to

social stratification of society and
solidarity within social networks and everyday contacts

Some types of social stratifications can be influenced by the individual, others cannot, e.g. rank vs. class.

If the individual's social position can be influenced, the social variety of language plays a more important role.

Slang & Jargon

Only about a part of the vocabulary.

Slang: informal vocabulary typical of a certain group of people

Jargon: professional vocabulary typical of a certain professional group

Contextual variation

Variation within an individual due to different contexts or situations.

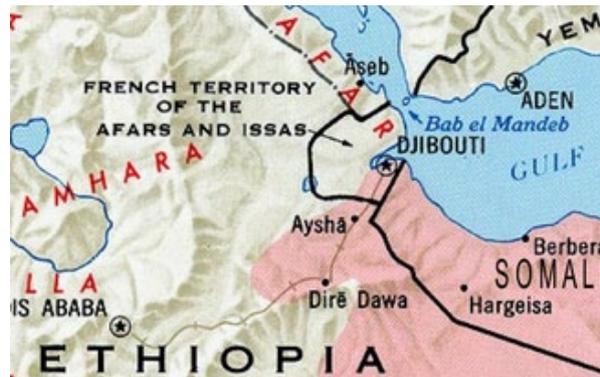
One such difference might be the degree of formality or politeness.

Commonly, one and the same person uses slightly different varieties depending on the situation and mix of the different factors that influence the (unconscious) choice of language variety.

Multilingual societies

e.g. Djibouti, at the Gib lake on the Ethiopian border

Let's imagine an Amharic speaker belonging to the quite small Amharic minority in Djibouti



First Language	Amharic
Second languages	
Neighbours	Afar
Lingua Franca	Somali e.g. talking to police, admin etc... or when travelling to the capital
Official language(s)	French (to a much smaller extent also Arabic) e.g. in school, mass media, newspapers, books, etc.

Accents

Accents are different from geographical and social dialects, because they only involve differences in pronunciation.

Gestures

Strictly speaking gestures are not part of language. They have more in common with traffic signs and other symbols that convey a message. The message is not dependent on any specific language. The message can be spelled out in any language, and the exact wording may differ.

Problem 16.1

Serbo-Croatian

A few decades ago, Serbo-Croatian was considered one language with two slightly differing regional forms of a common standard language. The differences were probably not larger than between American, Australian, British, and South African English.

Today, Serbian, Croatian, Bosnian, and more recently also Montenegrinian, are usually considered different languages.

What arguments could you think of in support of each of these opposite standpoints?

Problem 16.2

Arabic

Is Arabic in Morocco and Arabic in Iraq one and the same language, or different languages?

List arguments in favour of both viewpoints.

Unit 17. Politeness & Taboos

Unit 18. Summing up & Review

18.1 Bariba syntax

Bariba or Baatonum is a Niger-Congo language. It is spoken by appr. 0.5 million people in Benin, Nigeria, Togo and Burkina Faso.

Gloss the following examples.

Prepare an alphabetical list of all the glossing labels that you use.

Prepare an alphabetical wordlist with English translations.

State as many facts as possible about Bariba syntax.

1. Sabii 'Sabii'
2. Sabiin kuro 'Sabii's wife'
3. duro 'man'
4. duro wi 'that man'
5. duro boko 'big man'
6. duro win kuro 'that man's wife'
7. duro bokon kuro 'the big man's wife'
8. duro geo wi 'that good man'
9. duro geo win kuro 'that good man's wife'
10. Sabiin kuro geo wi 'that good wife of Sabii's'
11. Sabiin wono geo 'Sabii's good younger brother'

Kroeger (2005: 99–100, citing Roberts 1999)

18.2 Agatu syntax

Agatu (or North Idoma) is a Niger-Congo language.
It is spoken by appr. 0.1 million people in Nigeria.

Gloss the following examples.

Prepare an alphabetical list of all the glossing labels that you use.

Prepare an alphabetical wordlist with English translations.

State as many facts as possible about Agatu syntax.

1. Oi wa. 'The child came.'
2. Ewo wa ole. 'The dog came to the compound.'
3. Ada wa. 'Father came.'
4. Oi ma ewo. 'The child saw the dog.'
5. Ada goi epa wa. 'The father of the two children came.'
6. Oi ma ewo gada. 'The child saw the father's dog.'
7. Oi ma ewo epa. 'The child saw two dogs.'
8. Ada ma ewo epa goi. 'Father saw the child's two dogs.'
9. Oi ma ole. 'The child saw the compound.'
10. Ada gole ma ehi goi. 'The head of the compound saw the child's pot.'
11. Ewo ma oi gada gole. 'The dog saw the head of the compound's child.'
12. Ewo epa gada gole wa. 'The head of the compound's two dogs came.'

Kroeger (2005: 98–99, citing Roberts 1999)

18.3 Ekpeye verb morphology

Ekpeye is a Niger-Congo language.

It is spoken by appr. 30,000 people in Nigeria.

Gloss the following examples.

Prepare an alphabetical list of all the glossing labels that you use.

Prepare an alphabetical morpheme list with translations/glossing.

State as many facts as possible about Ekpeye verb morphology.

1. edi 'he will eat'
2. edikpo 'he will finish eating'
3. edile 'he has eaten'
4. eme 'he will make'
5. emegba 'he will make again'
6. adikpole 'we have finished eating'
7. edikpohwo 'he will eventually finish eating'
8. adigbale 'we have eaten again'
9. emekpohwole 'he has eventually finished making'
10. amekpogbale 'we have finished making again'
11. amegbahwo 'we will eventually make again'

Kroeger (2005: 169, citing Roberts 1999)

Appendix 1. How to prepare a list of References

In African linguistics it is quite common practice to follow the Linguistic Society of America's [Stylesheet for References](#).

When you mention your sources in your text

Give only the author's last name and year of publication in the text that you are writing. If possible, always try to add the number of the page where the information can be found. Put a colon between the year and the page number.

There are two main ways to do this:

In a recent article, Larsson (2015: 20) claims that the Somali people originate from the highlands surrounding the sources of river X.

There are several different theories about the geographical origin of the Somali people. One of them is that hundreds of years ago the ancestors of today's Somalis inhabited the highlands surrounding the sources of river Xxxx (Larsson 2015: 20).

The list of references

Make a list of the **full names** of the authors and the **full titles** of all the works that you have made reference to.

Notice that only the titles of printed/published books and journals should be written in italics.

Use these formats:

Books

Author's last name, first name. Year. *Title of book*. City: Publisher.

Keenadiid, Yaasiin C. 1976. *Qaamuuska af-Soomaaliga*. Muqdisho: Akademiya Dhaqanka.
Saeed, John I. 1993. *Somali reference grammar*. Kensington: Dunwoody Press.

Articles / chapters in books

Author's last name, first name. Year. Title of article. In Editor's name (ed./eds.), *Title of book*, from page-to page. City: Publisher.

Gebert, Lucyna. 1981. La coordinazione. In Puglielli, Annarita (ed.), *Sintassi della lingua somala*, 139–215. Roma: Ministero degli Affari Esteri.

Articles in journals

Author's last name, first name. Year. Title of article. *Title of journal* volume(issue). From page–to page.

Andrzejewski, Bogumil W. 1969. Some observations on hybrid verbs in Somali. *African Language Studies* 10. 47–89.
Hyman, Larry M. 1981. Tonal accent in Somali. *Studies in African Linguistics* 12(2). 169–203.

Notice that only the title of the journal should be in italics, not the following numbers (volume, issue, pages). The volume refers to the number of years that the journal has existed, and the issue to the number of times it is published each year.

Web pages and pdf documents

Web pages and documents that do not exist as printed works:

Author's/Institution's/Website's name. Year. Title of the page/document. (if available also City: Publisher.) Link (Date accessed)

Kotus. 2021. Suomi–somali-sanakirja. Helsinki: Institute for the languages of Finland. <http://kaino.kotus.fi/somali/> (31 August, 2022)
Nilsson, Morgan. 2021. Beginner's Somali grammar. Gothenburg: University of Gothenburg. <http://morgannilsson.se/BeginnersSomaliGrammar.pdf> (31 August, 2022)
WALS. 2022. Language Hausa. https://wals.info/languoid/lect/wals_code_hau (31 August, 2022)
Wikipedia. 2022. Hausa language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hausa_language (31 August, 2022)

On larger websites you can often find recommendations about how to cite the website, but you might of course need to adjust them to the referencing model that you are following.

Several authors

Only invert the order of the first name and last name of the first author. List the rest of the authors in the ordinary way. Put a comma between the authors, but put a & sign before the last author. Always write the full names of all authors.

Frascarelli, Mara, Lucyna Gebert & Annarita Puglielli. 2005....

Always keep the order of the authors as in the publication, since the first author is usually considered the most important and the last one least important.

If there are many authors (e.g. more than three), you can use the

abbreviation *et al.* ‘and others’ in your text, just mentioning the first author’s last name.

As mentioned by Lecarme et al. (2013: 45), it is very uncommon to find...

Subtitle

Add a colon after the main title, then add the subtitle.

Lamberti, Marcello. 1986. *Die Somali-Dialekte: Eine vergleichende Untersuchung*. Hamburg: Helmut Buske.
Frascarelli, Mara & Annarita Puglielli. 2005. The focus system in Cushitic languages: A comparative-typological analysis. In Fronzaroli, Pelio & Marrassini, Paolo (eds.), *Proceedings of the 10th meeting of Hamito-Semitic (Afroasiatic) linguistics*, 333–358. Firenze: Università di Firenze.

Book with a volume number

Add a comma after the main title of the book and then the volume number as it appears on/in the book. If there is also a subtitle of the volume, add it after a colon.

Reinisch, Leo. 1903. *Die Somali Sprache, Vol. III: Grammatik*. Wien: Alfred Hölder.

Dissertations & theses

Place: University name, XX thesis. instead of Place: Publisher.

Le Gac, David. 2001. Structure prosodique de la focalisation: Le cas du somali et du français. Paris: Université Paris 7, PhD dissertation.

For further details, see the Linguistic Society of America’s [Stylesheet for References](#).

Appendix 2. How to do Glossing

Source: <https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>

About the rules

The Leipzig Glossing Rules have been developed jointly by the Department of Linguistics of the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology (Bernard Comrie, Martin Haspelmath) and by the Department of Linguistics of the University of Leipzig (Balthasar Bickel). They consist of ten rules [...] and an appendix with a proposed "lexicon" of abbreviated category labels. [...]

The rules

(revised version of February 2008)

Preamble

Interlinear morpheme-by-morpheme glosses give information about the meanings and grammatical properties of individual words and parts of words. Linguists by and large conform to certain notational conventions in glossing, and the main purpose of this document is to make the most widely used conventions explicit.

Depending on the author's purposes and the readers' assumed background knowledge, different degrees of detail will be chosen. The current rules therefore allow some flexibility in various respects, and sometimes alternative options are mentioned.

The main purpose that is assumed here is the presentation of an example in a research paper or book. When an entire corpus is tagged, somewhat different considerations may apply (e.g. one may want to add information about larger units such as words or phrases; the rules here only allow for information about morphemes).

It should also be noted that there are often multiple ways of analyzing the morphological patterns of a language. The glossing conventions do not help linguists in deciding between them, but merely provide standard ways of abbreviating possible descriptions. Moreover, glossing is rarely a complete morphological description, and it should be kept in mind that its purpose is not to state an analysis, but to give some further possibly relevant information on the structure of a text or an example, beyond the idiomatic translation.

A remark on the treatment of glosses in data cited from other sources: Glosses are part of the analysis, not part of the data. When citing an example from a

published source, the gloss may be changed by the author if they prefer different terminology, a different style or a different analysis.

Rule 1: Word-by-word alignment

Interlinear glosses are left-aligned vertically, word by word, with the example. E.g.

(1) Indonesian (Sneddon 1996:237)

Mereka di Jakarta sekarang.

They in Jakarta now

'They are in Jakarta now.'

Rule 2: Morpheme-by-morpheme correspondence

Segmentable morphemes are separated by hyphens, both in the example and in the gloss. There must be exactly the same number of hyphens in the example and in the gloss. E.g.

(2) Lezgian (Haspelmath 1993:207)

Gila abur-u-n ferma hamišaluğ güğüna amuq'-da-č.

now they-OBL-GEN farm forever behind stay-FUT-NEG

'Now their farm will not stay behind forever.'

Since hyphens and vertical alignment make the text look unusual, authors may want to add another line at the beginning, containing the unmodified text, or resort to the option described in Rule 4 (and especially 4C). Clitic boundaries are marked by an equals sign, both in the object language and in the gloss.

(3) West Greenlandic (Fortescue 1984:127)

palasi=lu niuirtur=lu

priest=and shopkeeper=and

'both the priest and the shopkeeper'

Rule 3: Grammatical category labels

Grammatical morphemes are generally rendered by abbreviated grammatical category labels, printed in upper case letters (usually small capitals). A list of standard abbreviations (which are widely known among linguists) is given at the end of this document.

Deviations from these standard abbreviations may of course be necessary in particular cases, e.g. if a category is highly frequent in a language, so that a shorter abbreviation is more convenient, e.g. CPL (instead of COMPL) for "completive", PF (instead of PRF) for "perfect", etc. If a category is very rare, it may be simplest not to abbreviate its label at all.

In many cases, either a category label or a word from the metalanguage is acceptable. Thus, both of

(5) Russian

My s Marko poexa-l-i avtobus-om v Peredelkino.

1PL COM Marko go-PST-PL bus-INS All Peredelkino.

we with Marko go-PST-PL bus-by to Peredelkino.

'Marko and I went to Peredelkino by bus.'

Rule 4: One-to-many correspondences

When a single object-language element is rendered by several metalanguage elements (words or abbreviations), these are separated by periods. E.g.

(6) Turkish

çık-mak

come.out-INF

'to come out'

(7) Latin

***insul-
arum***

island-GEN.PL

'of the islands'

(8) French

aux ***chevaux***

to.ART.PL horse.PL

'to the horses'

(9) German

unser-n ***Väter-n***

our-DAT.PL father.PL-DAT.PL

'to our fathers'

(10) Hittite (Lehmann 1982:211)

n=an ***apedani*** ***mehuni*** ***essandu.***

CONN=him that.DAT.SG time.DAT.SG eat.they.shall

'They shall celebrate him on that date.' (CONN = connective)

(11) Jaminjung (Schultze-Berndt 2000:92)

nanggayan ***guny-bi-yarluga?***

who 2DU.A.3SG.P-FUT-poke

'Who do you two want to spear?'

Rule 5: Person and number labels

Person and number are not separated by a period when they occur in this order. E.g.

(20) Italian

and-iamo

go-PRS.1PL (not: go-PRS.1.PL)

'we go'

Rule 6: Non-overt elements

If the morpheme-by-morpheme gloss contains an element that does not correspond to an overt element in the example, it can be enclosed in square brackets. An obvious alternative is to include an overt "Ø" in the objectlanguage text, which is separated by a hyphen like an overt element.

(22) Latin

puer

boy[NOM.SG]

'boy'

or: puer-Ø

boy-NOM.SG

'boy'

Rule 7: Inherent categories

Inherent, non-overt categories such as gender may be indicated in the gloss, but a special boundary symbol, the round parenthesis, is used. E.g.

(23) Hunzib (van den Berg 1995:46)

oz#-di-g xõxe

boy-OBL-AD tree(G4)

m-uq'e-r

G4-bend-PRET

'Because of the boy the tree bent.' (G4 = 4th gender, AD = adessive, PRET = preterite)

Rule 8: Bipartite elements

Grammatical or lexical elements that consist of two parts which are treated as distinct morphological entities (e.g. bipartite stems such as Lakhota *na-xʔu* 'hear') may be treated in two different ways:

(i) The gloss may simply be repeated:

(24) Lakhota

na-wičha-wa-xʔu

hear-3PL.UND-1SG.ACT-hear

'I hear them' (UND = undergoer, ACT = actor)

(i) The gloss may simply be repeated:

(25) Lakhota

na-wičha-wa-xʔu

hear-3PL.UND-1SG.ACT-STEM

'I hear them'

Circumfixes are "bipartite affixes" and can be treated in the same way, e.g.

(26) German

ge-seh-en **or:** ***ge-seh-en***

PTCP-see-PTCP

PTCP-see-CIRC

'seen'

'seen'

Rule 9: Infixes

Infixes are enclosed by angle brackets, and so is the object-language counterpart in the gloss.

(27) Tagalog

b<um>ili (stem: bili)
<ACTFOC>buy
'buy'

(28) Latin

reli<n>qu-ere (stem: reliqu-)
leave<PRS>-INF
'to leave'

Infixes are generally easily identifiable as left-peripheral (as in 27) or as rightperipheral (as in 28), and this determines the position of the gloss corresponding to the infix with respect to the gloss of the stem. If the infix is not clearly peripheral, some other basis for linearizing the gloss has to be found.

Rule 10: Reduplication

Reduplication is treated similarly to affixation, but with a tilde (instead of an ordinary hyphen) connecting the copied element to the stem.

(29) Hebrew

yerak~rak-im
green~ATT-M.PL
'greenish ones' (ATT= attenuative)

(30) Tagalog

bi~bili
IPFV~buy
'is buying'

(31) Tagalog

b<um>i~bili
<ACTFOC>IPFV~buy
'is buying' (ACTFOC = Actor focus)

List of Standard Glossing Abbreviations

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
A	agent-like argument of canonical transitive verb
ABL	ablative
ABS	absolutive
ACC	accusative
ADJ	adjective
ADV	adverb(ial)
AGR	agreement
ALL	allative
ANTIP	antipassive
APPL	applicative
ART	article
AUX	auxiliary
BEN	benefactive
CAUS	causative
CLF	classifier
COM	comitative
COMP	complementizer
COMPL	completive
COND	conditional
COP	copula
CVB	converb
DAT	dative
DECL	declarative
DEF	definite
DEM	demonstrative
DET	determiner
DIST	distal
DISTR	distributive
DU	dual
DUR	durative
ERG	ergative
EXCL	exclusive
F	feminine
FOC	focus
FUT	future
GEN	genitive
IMP	imperative
INCL	inclusive
IND	indicative
INDF	indefinite
INF	infinitive
INS	instrumental
INTR	intransitive
IPFV	imperfective

IRR irrealis
LOC locative
M masculine
N neuter
N- non- (e.g. NSG nonsingular, NPST nonpast)
NEG negation, negative
NMLZ nominalizer/nominalization
NOM nominative
OBJ object
OBL oblique
P patient-like argument of canonical transitive verb
PASS passive
PFV perfective
PL plural
POSS possessive
PRED predicative
PRF perfect
PRS present
PROG progressive
PROH prohibitive
PROX proximal/proximate
PST past
PTCP participle
PURP purposive
Q question particle/marker
QUOT quotative
RECP reciprocal
REFL reflexive
REL relative
RES resultative
S single argument of canonical intransitive verb
SBJ subject
SBJV subjunctive
SG singular
TOP topic
TR transitive
VOC vocative

Appendix 3. Linguistics overviews

Linguistic Network

<http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/tutorials/>

<http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/an-introduction-to-phonology/>

<http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/category/tutorials/tutorials-syntax/>

Linguistics on YouTube

There are several quite good series of lectures on linguistics on YouTube. Here are some tips.

Elementary

TrevTutor

<https://www.youtube.com/c/Trevtutor/playlists>

CrashCourseLinguistics

<https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL8dPuuaLjXtP5mp25nStsuDzk2blncJDW>

AzeLinguistics

<https://www.youtube.com/c/AzeLinguistics/playlists>

FingtamLanguages

<https://www.youtube.com/c/FingtamLanguages/playlists>

NativLang

<https://www.youtube.com/user/NativLang/playlists>

Intermediate

Love Language

https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCgPcnblzRYEouc_8ylTkWZQ/playlists

Evan Ashworth

<https://www.youtube.com/channel/UC4NHPS-ApMmYuguXTCZGWPw/playlists>

Randall Eggert

<https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCUg-q09ENTiMSy2FC6mwDqQ/playlists>

Advanced

The Virtual Linguistics Campus, Marburg

<https://www.youtube.com/c/LinguisticsMarburg/playlists>

Appendix 4. Dictionaries for African languages

Electronic dictionaries

LLACAN

<https://corporan.huma-num.fr/Lexiques/dicoLLACAN.php>

Bambara-Francais

Beja-Francais-English

Bena-English

Dan -Francais-English

Eton-Francais

Gbaya-Francais

Goo-Francais

Keeraak-Francais

Peul-Francais

Wolof-Francais

Yoruba-Francais

Zaa-Hausa-English

Forthcoming:

Kali'na-Francais

Teko-Francais

Nengee-Francais-English

Kreyol-Francais

Pdf dictionaries

Saho

<http://www.sahoarchive.org/dictionaries-wordlists/>

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