Dimensions and levels of linguistic analysis

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Abstract---There are a number of ideas on this matter: some linguists state that there are four units such as phoneme-phone, morpheme-morph, lexeme-lex and sentence; others believe that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations or phrases and sentences. Yet others emphasized that in addition to the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most well-known opinion is that there are five units of language (speech) and correspondingly there are five language levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. In this article dimensions and levels of linguistic analysis are proved and outlined by the authors.

Keywords---Dimensions, levels, layout, linguistic analysis, syntagmatic elements, paradigmatic bond, horizontal linear, syntax, lexicological level, morphological level.

We have syntagmatic elements in a sequence along the horizontal dimension, while along the vertical dimension we have paradigmatic elements in substitution.

Well-known Uzbek linguist A.T. Iriskulov emphasized that there are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.

a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common –ingending);

b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem "ask" is common);

2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech. Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

In these following examples the pronouns-*I, you, he, she, they*-combine with each other along a vertical dimension, they enter into paradigmatic relations. The words and word groups *(go, school, go to school, goes every day*) combine with the others along a horizontal dimension, they enter into syntagmatic relation.

Paradigmatic relations between lingual elements are especially obvious in classical paradigms of grammatical categories of parts of speech. The minimal paradigm consists of two oppositional forms. For example, we can see this type of paradigm in the expression of the category of number of nouns:

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Desk-desks

Toy-toys

As well as such paradigms are followed in the expression of grammatical categories of adjectives and verbs. For instance, the category of degrees in adjectives: *large-larger-largest;* the category of tense in verbs*: clean-cleans – cleaned-is cleaning.*

Different from syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations between the forms of language cannot be directly observed in sentences, so they are considered as relations "in absentia" ("in the absence"). The lingual elements at any branches of language are systematized along these two dimensions. They combine into larger structures along the syntagmatic or horizontal linear. For instance, letters or sounds join to make morphemes; morphemes combine to form words; words combine to make phrases; phrases combine to form sentences; sentences combine to make up a text. When different lingual elements have the same potential to take place in the same structural context and are therefore equivalent in function, they are paradigmatically associated as members of the same class of items.

It is necessary to see that this two-dimensional mode of organization provides the potential to generate infinite expressions from a limited number of language means. Besides this, these two interdependent dimensions or relations between lingual elements represent the basic principles for the linguistic analysis at all levels. In modern linguistics language is regarded as a system of signs which is structured by the principle of hierarchy of levels of lingual units.   The peculiarity of this hierarchy lies in the fact that units of any higher level are analyzable into units of the immediately lower ones.

Language consists of definite levels. According to the linguists' researches there are 2 types of levels: primary and secondary levels. Uzbek linguist A.T. Iriskulov termed them differently such as, basic and non-basic levels. This difference between them relies on if a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non – basic. That's why the quantity of level completely depends on the number of lingual units.

There are a number of ideas on this matter: some linguists state that there are four units such as phoneme-phone, morpheme-morph, lexeme-lex and sentence; others believe that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations or phrases and sentences. Yet others emphasized that in addition to the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most well-known opinion is that there are five units of language (speech) and correspondingly there are five language levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major.

The levels and their units are as follows:

- phonological/phonetic level: phoneme/phone

- morphological level: morpheme/morph

- lexicological level: lexeme/lex

- Syntax - minor: sentence

- Syntax - major: text

Secondary level or non-basic level is characterized by having no unit of its own. For instance, stylistics can be said to be non – basic (secondary) due to the fact of that this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. Famous Russian linguist I.R.Galperinsaid:"The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".

While talking about the levels we have to reveal the difference between language and speech because the linguistics distinguishes language units from speech units.

 According to F. de Saussure's theories, the basic difference between language and speech is in the following:

1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;

2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;

3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;

4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

 Sometimes the terms of "language levels" are corresponded to the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are corresponded to "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

Phonology and phonetics are the lowest level in the hierarchy of strata. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. Phonemes are the smallest undivided meaningless units of language. They are used as material elements to make the higher level segments – morphemes and words. They are essential units which distinguish one word or morpheme from another.

For example: pan [pən] and pen[pen]; chalk[tSə:k] and talk [tɵ:k].

Letters symbolize phoneme in writing. Lingual units of the higher levels are meaningful, for that reason they express signs. A morphemic or morphological level is situated above the phonemic level. This level is represented by morphemes and morph. The morpheme is a unit of language; morph is a unit of speech. The morpheme is a basic meaningful part of the word. It is made up by a string of phonemes or even by one phoneme. For example: *enjoy-able, teach-er.*

The morphs that have different forms, but similar meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are /t/, /d/, /id/.

Examples: *worked, phoned and wanted*. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level in hierarchy strata is the lexemic level which formed by words and lexemes. The word is made up by a string of morphemes or one morpheme. Sometimes, it is thought that words(lex) and lexemes are the same terms. However, "Lexeme" is a unit of language in the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Word

"is a unit of speech in the lexicological level which has a nominative function. Consequently, both of them nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

For instance: *mother, nurse, radio, box, black, happy, unfortunately*.

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. Its arrangement with the verb helps to express a predication, the basis of the sentence. The word «noun» derived from the Latin word which means «name». Word classes like nouns were first described by Sanskrit grammarian Panini and ancient Greeks like Dionysius Thorax, and defined in terms of their morphological properties. For example, in Ancient Greece, nouns can be inflected for grammatical case, such as dative or accusative. Verbs, on the other hand, can be inflected for tenses, such as past, present or future, while nouns cannot. Aristotle also had a notion of onomata (nouns) and rhemata (verbs) which, however, doesn't exactly correspond our notions of verbs and nouns.

It is the basic nominative unit of speech. As already mentioned, the grammatical meaning of the noun is "substance" or "thingness.As a part of speech, the noun can be characterized by three following criteria:
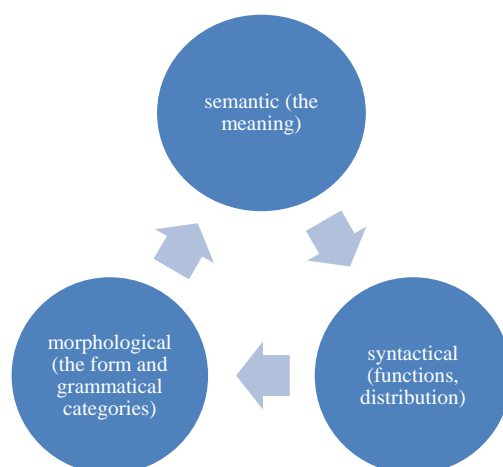
Semantic peculiarities of the noun express both lexical and grammatical meaning of thing and substantiality. According to different criteria of classification nouns fall into several groups:

1. According to the type of nomination they may be **proper** and **common**;
2. According to the form of existence they may be **animate** and **inanimate**.
3. Animate nouns in their turn fall into **human** and **non-human.**
4. According to their quantitative structure nouns can be **countable** and **uncountable.**

This set of subclasses cannot be put together into one table because of the different principles of classification.

Morphological peculiarities of the noun. According to the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into the following types:

❖ simple nouns which consist of only a stem, such as: *pen, chair, mirror, window* and so on;

❖ derived nouns which consist of stem + affix or affix + stem, such as: *agreement*, *happiness* ;*disadvantage, misadventure;*

❖ compound nouns consist of more than a stem, for instance: *armband*, *babysitter*, *background*. Compound nouns can be formed in different ways. The most common way is to put two nouns together, such as, *car park, Iceland;* other common types are adjective+noun and verb+noun, for instance: *greenhouse, blackberry, breakwater;*

The noun has morphological categories of number and case. Some scholars admit the existence of the categories of gender and determination.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used the sentence in all syntacticfunctions but predicate. For example:

— nouns can function as a subject of the sentence: *Math is my favourite subject.*

— as a direct object: Our students read a lot of books.

— as an indirect object: *Give me some notebooks.*

— as an adverbial modifier of place: *We decided to go home.*

 Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

If we analyze nouns from the point of cognitive linguistics the conceptual category 'thing' finds its parallel in the linguistic category 'noun'. The distinction between the two main classes of things, objects and substances, is reflected in the linguistic distinction between count nouns and mass nouns. But, due to the prototype structure of all conceptual and linguistic categories, the distinction between objects and substances tends to be blurred: objects may shade into substances and substances may shade into objects. The problem of fuzziness is even more intriguing with abstract nouns. Abstract nouns are the result of a conceptual shift known as reification by means of which relational concepts like 'be married' are construed as things, in this case 'marriage'.

Grammarian Langacker connects the noun to the notion of symbolic unit. The symbolic unit is "the construct deployed in cognitive grammar for the representation of both lexical and grammatical structure". According to Langacker, a symbolic unit is a form-meaning pairing with three meaningful structures: phonological, semantic, and symbolic. The scholar argues that nouns, i.e. nominal predications, as well as verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, i.e. *relational predications*, can be defined semantically as symbolic units, "each with a semantic and a phonological pole". The former pole "determines the categorization". The linguist states that a noun "is a symbolic structure whose semantic pole instantiates the schema "thing", in other words, "a noun designates a thing". According to Langacker, "a thing is properly characterized as a region in some domain, i.e. every nominal predication designates a region", bounded or unbounded, which relates to whether nouns are conceived as countable or uncountable.

An uncountable noun names an unbounded region and a countable noun designates a bounded region "in a primary domain", i.e. in three-dimensional space for physical objects, two-dimensional space for "nouns like *circle*, *point*, *line*, and *triangle*", and in the domain of time for bounded regions named by *moment*, *instant*, and *period*. Moreover, colour terms, which are used as nouns, "designate particular regions in color space; most are defined relative to the hue dimension primarily (*red*, *yellow*, *blue*, etc), but a few are confined largely or solely to the brightness dimension (*black*, *white*, *gray*)". Langacker argues that other nominal concepts are placed in the matrix "formed by coordinating basic domains", for example, a *beep* is "bounded in both pitch and time". Finally, abstract domains "presuppose (and thus incorporate) more basic domains. Bounding in an abstract domain is therefore compatible with bounding in an incorporated basic domain, though the former may be primary and the latter

derivative". Nouns designating collections of individual entities, such as *swarm*, *archipelago*, and *forest*, also involve the processes of conceptual bounding or conceptual closure, i.e. imposing "a boundary in structuring a conceived situation . Space is "a primary domain for these nouns".

Nevertheless, Langacker associates collective nouns like *team*, *family*, or *class*, with spatial and also quasi-spatial bounding, since we "recognize a set of individuals as a *team* even if they are scattered all over a playing field and intermingled with members ofthe opposition spatial relations are less important than co-operative activity towards a common objective". The scholar claims that "an appropriate schematic characterization of the thing category is capable of accommodating both count and mass nouns, as well as nouns whose content is highly abstract (*eg*deverbal nominalizations)". Langacker acknowledges that while the names for physical objects, such as *diamond*, *book*, *cup*, are typical for count nouns, the names of physical substances, such as *gold*, *meat*, *water*, are typical for mass nouns. Moreover, "count nouns also label creatures (*cat*), parts of larger wholes (*tail*), and geographical regions (*county*), as well as entities that are either nebulous (*cloud*) or abstract (*idea*)". As far as mass nouns are concerned, they "designate entities whose substantial nature is rather tenuous (*air*, *electricity*) or which are wholly nonphysical (*nonsense*, *righteousness*)". Consequently, following Langacker's analysis, English countable and uncountable nouns can be understood by forming concepts of the designated referents or regions in some domain, which means that they are *conceptualized*. Talmy also studies nouns through conceptual constructs, as *schematic categories* or *conceptual categories*. He argues that the grammatical elements which occur in languages, "taken together, specify a crucial set of concepts".

As far as plexityin relation to matter is concerned, the quantity in question is perceived in agreement with "the traditional linguistic category of 'number' with its component notions 'singular' and 'plural'." Semantically, plexity relates to one element in space (uniplex) or to more than one (multiplex). Not only count nouns specify multiplexity, also mass nouns like *furniture*. Nevertheless, the intrinsically multiplex, internally discrete matter realized as *furniture*, refers to unbounded region in space.

If we investigate nouns from the semantic point of view we can differentiate two grammatically basic groups of nouns:

1)   countable

2)   uncountable, or mass

Countable nouns are the nouns which can be counted. They are subdivided into proper and common nouns.

A proper noun is the name of a particular member of a class or of a set of particular members. As regards their meaning proper nouns may be personal names (*Bob, William, Jack*), geographical names (*London*, Bukhara, Uzbekistan), names of months and the names of days of week (March, Sunday) and so on.

The function of a proper noun, or name, is similar to the definite article – both are particularizers: Smith means the man Smith/the Smith man. However, there is a difference between the man Smith / the Smith man and the man: it concerns the mode of naming. In the first case, man is particularized through the use of another name (i.e. Smith) while in the second case man is particularized through the use of a grammatical word morpheme, i.e. the definite article. The addition of a proper (i.e.particularizing) name renders the common name (i.e. man) semantically redundant and it is dropped in the surface structure. Another difference concerns the way the two modes of naming

solve the problem of the uniqueness of reference: proper names are not always 'proper', i.e. they may refer to more than one individual. Consider:

A. There's an Alice on the phone.

B. Is that the Alice you told me about?

This suggests that proper names may function as common names. To put it otherwise, proper names, when they have no unique reference, behave like common names. Such 'proper' nouns need particularizing by the definite article or a grammatical element that marks the entity denoted by the noun as unique. Proper names 'proper' have unique reference and do not need to be particularized by the definite article. The use of the definite article with such nouns can only be accounted for by the fact that as proper names they are still in the making. For example*: the Mediterranean / the sea Mediterranean* but not yet *Mediterranean.*

The knowledge of the mentioned features of proper nouns is exactly connected to grammar, such as to the category of determination and to the category of number. The connection of proper nouns to the category of case is not so obvious: proper nouns denoting animate entities are used in the genitive while proper nouns denoting inanimate entities may or may not be used so.

A common noun is a common name, i.e. it is the name common to the class as a whole. Similar to proper nouns, common nouns form two grammatically relevant groups: animate and inanimate. Animate common nouns are further subdivided into person and non-person nouns. This subdivision of nouns constitutes the basis for the category of gender in English: person nouns can be either masculine or feminine, while non-person nouns are neuter. Both types of countable nouns – proper and common – serve as a basis for the category of number. The category of case is based on animate nouns.

Uncountable nouns, in contrast to countable nouns, don't denote individuals; they either denote substance as such material nouns or concepts, or ideas, which exist in our minds only. Uncountable nouns include the following ones:

- Names of substances such as materials, liquids, gases: *oxygen, whisk, paper, wood, air, flour*;
- Names of subjects: *history, biology, music, art*;
- Sports and activities: *swimming, football, tennis;*
- Abstract nouns: *kindness, love, information, beauty, poverty, famine, peace, hope;*
- Collective nouns*: furniture, equipment, location, accommodation.*

Uncountable nouns, naturally, cannot form the opposition of singular vs. plural within their class: they are singulars only. For example: *Water is life. Money is time.* The other member of the opposition does not exist, or, to put it otherwise, is neutralized. Being singulars only, they don't behave in the same way as countable nouns used in the singular: they don't take a numeral or the indefinite article. For example: *bread, coffee, tea.*

However, we sometimes come across uncountable nouns with indefinite articles such as, *a bread, a water and so on.* That's due to the fact of thatthe indefinite article can be used with uncountable nouns when we refer to a particular variety. Consider:

1) He has a courage (i.e. a type of courage) equaled by few of his contemporaries.

2)   A knowledge of English (a certain, some knowledge) is needed for this job.

Such nouns as *tea, coffee, cream, whiskey, juice* are primaries. But they can function as countable nouns:

Would you like a green tea or a black tea?

Would you rather have a Chinese tea?

Our Chinese teas are especially good.

This is a rich heavy tea.

Is it a gas or a liquid?

When used so, they denote a kind, type, or variety of the substance. Thesenouns can be turned into countable nouns by using a container word, such as*, a cup of coffee, a glass of milk, a bowl of soup, a box of chocolate.* The container word may be dropped and we have *a coffee, a milk, a whiskey, a beer, a juice*. However, such nouns are not countable nouns proper since they functions units only: *a tea* means *a cup of tea*, i.e. *tea* remains uncountable despite the form.

For instance: *He drinks many teas* instead of *He drinks a lot of tea.*

Uncountable nouns also take different quantifiers which give an indefinite indication of quantity, distinguished as such from a numeral, which gives a precise indication of quantity. Compare:

Hurry! We don't have much time

 I have been to London in many times.

Some nouns can be uncountable and countable. Many nouns which are generally uncountable can be countable in particular contexts. They are uncountable when we talk about the substance, material or abstract concept however, countable when we talk about one specific item, such as: *glass, paper, work, hair, light.* For example:

Sevara has beautiful hair. (1)

There is a hair in my soup. (2)

    Hurry up! I must go to work on time. (1)

She enjoys reading works by M. Twain and J. London. (2)
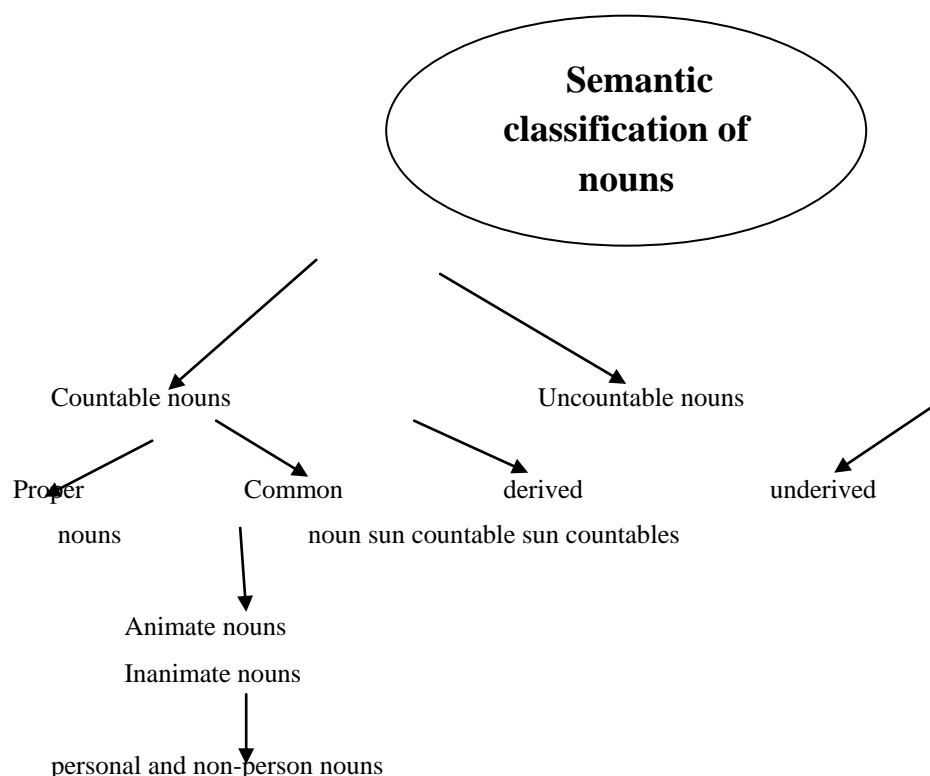
This table is made of glass. (1)

Would you like drink a glass of water? (2)

Languages may differ with respect to the count/non-count distinction: what is countable in one language may be uncountable in another.

 For example, in English some nouns peas, strawberries, potatoes are individuated and lexicalized as countable nouns. However, in Russian these words are generally conceptualized as uncountable nouns: горох- a quantity of peas, картошка-a quantity of potatoes.

If we want to talk about individual particles, we have to use appropriate words expressing discreteness: *a piece of bread*. According to John Payne and Rodney Huddleston, "if the particles are very small and non-significant, then the conceptualization is likely to focus on the substance". Similar differences in lexicalization can be found with concrete nouns denoting aggregates, and with abstract nouns.

 To come to the point, we can differentiate the following grammatically relevant semantic classification of nouns:

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                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │    Semantic     │
                        │ classification of│
                        │     nouns       │
                        └─────────────────┘
                         ↙             ↘
              Countable nouns          Uncountable nouns
               ↙        ↘                ↙           ↘
          Proper      Common        derived       underived
          nouns    noun sun countable sun countables
                      ↓
                 Animate nouns
                 Inanimate nouns
                      ↓
         personal and non-person nouns
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