UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMISSION

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LANGUAGE AND PEDAGOGY

Contents

CHAPTER 1
The Beginnings

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. The study of language must begin with certain idea about language. Language is perhaps the most interesting entity that mankind has ever come across. We use language for communicating our thoughts and feelings with others and the language we use is transmitted from generation to generation without much deliberate effort on our part. Those who have not studied language systematically do use language with much ease and they are never bothered about the complexities of the ways in which the constituent elements of language combine and organize to make meaningful utterances. This fact does not make us come to the conclusion that the systematic and scientific study of language is meaningless. The study of language is significant as it ultimately takes us to the beginnings of our culture and social life. Language has become an essential part of our lives. The study of language in a scientific and systematic way is therefore, significant both in terms of academic and cultural point of view.

Language occupies an important place in the lives of human beings. Language is the very medium of expression. The everyday activities of life are sure to come to an end unless language functions as a means of communication. Language is inextricably tied up with the social and cultural evolution of mankind. Language is as familiar to us as the air we breathe or the saliva that we carry in our mouth. So, we are hardly conscious of its significance. However, the effects of language are most remarkable. It is in fact language that distinguishes human beings from the animals. C. L. Barber rightly remarked: "Language is the most remarkable tool that man has invented and is one that makes all other possible"

DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE

Language is a means of communication. It is a means of conveying our thoughts, ideas, feelings, and emotions to other people. However, language is not the only means of communication. Signs, gestures and facial expression can also communicate our thoughts and ideas. Language is different from signs and gestures, because it employs speech sounds. These speech sounds have meaning.

To define language is not an easy task. Different linguists tried to define language variously. However, if we analyse the definitions closely, we will find that each of these definitions is incomplete in some respect or the other. These definitions will raise a large number of questions.

Some of the most commonly approved definitions of language given by the experts in the field of linguistics are given below:

Edward Sapir says: "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols"

This definition is rather incomplete because 'ideas, emotions and desires' are not the only things communicated by language. The term language covers a wide range of implication such as body language, sign language and animal language.

According to Hall, language is "the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols."

Hall's definition is narrow because it regards language purely as a human institution.

We know that animals do communicate. Animals have their own language.

In the words of Noam Chomsky, language is "a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements."

Chomsky focuses on the structural features of language. He showed how language can be investigated by analysing it into its constituent elements.

Each of these linguists focuses on certain aspects of language and ignores some others. However, what they have said of language is true, though not comprehensive.

Some important characteristic features of human language are given below:

*   language is ubiquitous
*   language is a means of communication
*   language is systematic
*   language is conventional
*   language is arbitrary
*   language is social
*   language is cultural
*   language has a duality of structure
*   language is recursive
*   displacement
*   transference
*   language is dynamic

These characteristic features of human language make it different from other forms of communication. The differences are primarily due to the fact that human brain is different from animal. The human brain has an innate capacity for learning language creativity.

ANIMAL COMMUNICATION AND HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Like human beings, animals also make noises to communicate with other members of their group. However, human language differs from animal language in many respects.

Language has enabled humans to achieve a form of social organization different from that of other animals. The social organization of animals is mainly instinctive and genetically transmitted. On the other hand, the social organization of human beings is largely acquired and transmitted verbally by the cultural heritage.

Human language is different from animal language in the following respects:

1. Duality of patterning (Duality of structure)

Language displays two levels of patterning. It is made up of sounds and smaller formal units called phonemes, morpheme and words. A stretch of speech in any human language can be analysed into smaller units and larger number of meaning can be expressed by means of limited number of signals. For instance, a sentence such as "Our teachers like all the students" can be analysed into words: Out/teacher/like/all/the/students/. Some of these

words may further be broken into smaller units: teach/er/s; student/s. Each word in the sentence is made up of speech sounds called phonemes.

For example, the word 'like' is made up of an initial consonant /l/, a medial

diphthong /ai/ and a final consonant /k/. The same words can be rearranged in order to construct another sentence "All the students like our teachers". Thus, in human language

two levels of structure are found: a primary level which consists of compounding of words and a secondary level which consists of compounding of sounds.

Animal communication on the other hand, consists of meaningful cries which cannot be analysed into constituent elements such as phonemes, morphemes or words. The cry of animals denotes approaching danger, mating instinct, anger etc. The chirping of birds and the buzzing of bees are means of communication. But they serve only a limited number of purposes. The bees for example, have only two modes of body movements called bee dance- one to signify distance and the other to denote the direction of forage. Unlike animal language, human language is articulate as it has got a structure. Human language can be analyzed into a number of smaller constituent elements like words, phonemes and morphemes. That is why human language is said to be a "system of systems". The cry of animals or the body movement of the bees cannot be analysed into smaller units. Human language is structured at different levels- at the level of phonemes and morphemes and at the level of words. Charles Hockett calls this property of language as the duality of structure

2. Recursiveness (Creativity)

Since there are various ways of combining the units of language, there is considerable scope for creativity within it. Using a few basic rules of construction, human beings can produce and understand a large number of utterances. There is no limit to the length or number of sentences a speaker can produce. Using a finite number of rules which are repeatedly used, a speaker can produce grammatical sentences never uttered before. This property of language is called recursiveness. We can add new words and sentences to the already existing ones or even form sentences inside sentences. This property of language is referred to as creativity. Languages always remain open-ended. The signals in human language can be combined in a variety of ways. Human language may therefore be called an open -ended system.

Animal language, on the other hand, exhibits only a very little creativity or recursiveness. It does not have any variety of combination or organization of constituent elements.

3.   Arbitrariness.

Generally speaking, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the vocal sounds and the concepts or ideas they stand for. The relationship between a word and its referent is purely arbitrary. In other words, there is no positive relationship between a speech sound and the object. This property of language is referred to as arbitrariness. There are a few exceptions to this feature of language. A few words are representational in nature. In English, for example, words like 'buzz', 'hiss', 'rattle', 'bang', 'thud' etc. actually represent the sounds of their referents. Such words are called Onomatopoeic words. With the exception of such words, the relationship between the signifier and the signified (i.e. the word and its referent) is generally arbitrary.

4.   Displacement.

Animal communication is context bound but human communication can be context free. Human beings can talk about others experiences. They can talk of objects and events which are not present at the time and the place of speaking because the use of human language is not directly controlled by stimulus. This property of language is called displacement. In the case of animals, there is a direct relationship between stimulus and they can respond only to their immediate environment.

5.   Transferability.

Human language has two basic manifestations: One is speech and the other is writing. It is possible to write down spoken language and read aloud the written material. This property of language is referred to as transferability.

These differences between human language and animal language are primarily due to the fact that the human brain has an innate capacity for learning language creatively.

THEORIES OF THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE

With respect to the origin of language, a large number of theories have been formulated. Some of them are discussed below.

1.   The Bow-Vow Theory.

This theory is based on the assumption that language originated as a result of human instinct to imitate natural sounds such as that of the cry of an animal or that of the wind blowing. When a child speaks of a dog as "bow-vow", he is imitating the speech habits of his ancestors in pre-historic time. It is true that there are a few words in any language which exhibit a kind of sound symbolism. Such sounds are called onomatopoeic words. There is a certain onomatopoeic element in all ancient words for snakes, wind, water etc. The same thing can be noticed in words of recent coinage like crow, quack and chirp. These words directly imitate natural sounds as produced by animals and birds. Words like rattle, splash, ripple, thud, buzz, bang, sneeze, puff, babble etc. also exhibit an onomatopoeic element.

The "Bow-Vow" theory can account for only a certain number of words. But the theory does not say anything about how the majority of words in language have originated. This theory fails to explain the arbitrariness of language (i.e. the notion that the relationship between the vocal sounds and the idea or the concept they denote is based upon a collective consent among the members of the community using a particular language). However, this theory holds good in explaining the origin of onomatopoeic words.

2.   Ding Dong Theory.

This theory was advanced by the German scholar and philologist Max Muller. According to this theory, language has originated in the sense of rhythm innate in man.

This theory stresses the rhythmical nature of the universe and the sense of rhythm innate in human beings. This theory is based on man's tendency to imitate not sounds but movements in nature. The primitive man having observed the rhythm in the flowing of stream and the swaying of the trees in the wind must have "ding-donged"phonetically to them, partly by the way of accomplishment and partly in imitation. Every sensory expression that primitive man received from nature must have found expression from vocal sounds or ding-dongs, like the striking of the bell.

3.   The Pooh-Pooh Theory

According to this theory, the origin of language is to be traced to the involuntary exclamations of pain, surprise, pleasure or wonder. The upholders of this theory say that language is only a refinement upon our emotional interjections like "ah!", "ha!", "vow!" etc. This theory derives its name from the expression "pooh-pooh" which is often used as an exclamation of contempt or disgust. The expression has come to acquire a definite meaning. The verb "to pooh-pooh" has become accepted in ordinary usage. It is used with the meaning of belittling somebody or something. The supporters of theory believe that all language originated in this way.

4.   The Gesture Theory.

This theory has been advanced by Wilhelm Wundt and Sir Richard Paget. The proponents of this theory believe that every human gesture is followed by movements of tongue, the lips and the jaws. According to Wundt most primitive means of communication among human being was by means of gesture made with hand. The sign language is still employed by us when we have to communicate with a deaf person or with a person whose language is not known to us. We beckon with hand when we want him or her to come to us. Similarly we nod the head in agreement and shake it from side to side when we want to express disagreement. The upholders of this theory argue that a gesture by hand is usually accompanied by a corresponding movement of the vocal organs. Thus in course of time man is supposed to have passed from sign language to spoken language. Sir Percy Munn in his book Education its Data and First Principles points out how in uttering the word "I" and "me", the lips are drawn towards the

speaker in the same way as he would point to himself. At the sametime, in saying "you" or "thou", the movement of the tongue is towards the person addressed. The same directional differences can be noticed in the utterance of "here" and "there"

5.   The Yo-He-Ho Theory.

The Yo-He-Ho Theory was propounded by the 19th century scholar Noire. He emphasized that language has been formed from the words uttered by groups of people engaged in joint burdensome labour of some sort. While engaged in some heavy task such as lifting an object or pushing it or cutting a big tree, people make some sort of "yo-he-ho" noise in order to make themselves feel at ease to a certain extent. These sounds are involuntarily made as a result of the sudden release of the air accumulated in the lungs while exerting powerful muscular effort. The yo-he-ho theorists believe that speech sounds originated in this way.

6. The Musical Theory

This theory was propounded by the Swiss linguist Otto Jespersen. According to him language originated in the form of songs, as reactions to emotions, especially love and joy.

In spite of all the theories mentioned above, it is impossible to arrive at the truth regarding the origin of language. Though these theories are true to a certain extent, we do not know how exactly language originated, nor can we be sure wither there was an original common language of whether language developed at different places at different periods.

SPEECH AND WRITING: TWO MODES OF COMMUNICATION

Speech and writing are the two basic manifestations of language. As a means of communication, both the spoken and the written forms of language are equally important. Spoken language may be defined as "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which human beings communicate and co-operate with one another". In human speech we make use of vocal organs for the articulation of definite sounds. These sounds, when arranged according to set patterns, form the words of a given language. For example words, like 'crow' employs a certain sequence of sounds, which serve as a symbol for a particular word which in its turn stands for the given object we have in mind at the time of speaking. Due to a variety of causes, the sequence of sounds used to express different ideas may vary gradually from time to time. Hence, the spoken form of any given language is liable to undergo change and development in the course of its history. That is why language is said to be in a constant state of flux.

The written forms of language always come later than the spoken form. Written form of language implies that the using of certain symbols for the speech sounds, while the spoken form of a word is a symbol of the thing referred to by that word. The written form is the symbol of the spoken form. Therefore the written form may be conceived of as a symbol of a symbol. Traditional grammarians had a general tendency to regard the spoken form as inferior to the written form. They made all their observations on language based on the written form. Most of

the rules of Traditional Grammar, which are prescriptive in nature, are based on the written language. They attached primacy to writing. They considered that language of literature written by the socially accepted writers should be the model for all language study. Modern linguistic argue that speech is primary and writing is only secondary. The written form is only a symbol of the symbol and hence it is twice removed from the thing referred to. Hence, it is less important than the spoken form. In some cases, there is one-to-one correspondence between speech and writing. But, in a number of areas there is no neat one-to-one correspondence between the units of speech and the units of writing.

In fact, in the history of any linguistic community, speech began earlier than writing and speech is the primary means of expression of human thoughts, feelings and desires. Normally human beings learn to practice writing only after they learn to speak. Children first learn to speak their mother tongue and later on learn to write. All languages in the world have developed the spoken form earlier than they develop written form. Written form is only a concrete recorded form of the spoken form. There are a few languages which have only the spoken form with no written form. In no language, the written form originated prior to the spoken form, nor is there in any language, only the written form with no spoken form. All these facts affirm the primacy of speech. Therefore, modern linguists never consider speech as inferior to writing.

In fact, neither speech nor writing can claim superiority over the other. Each has its own merits and demerits. For example, writing cannot represent the redundancy in human language. The yes-no type question in English has two markers of interrogation. In "Is he still there?" the two markers which show that it is a question are: (i) the placement of the helping verb at the beginning and (ii) the rising tone with which the question would be asked. In the written form, such intonations, pitch and stress cannot be represented except with help of Supra Segmental Signs. Apart from these, facial expressions gestures and other paralinguistic features play a significant role in conveying additional meaning in the spoken form of language, whereas in writing only the alphabet and the punctuation marks provide the resources for conveying additional meaning. However, speech is transitory whereas writing treasure valuable thoughts and ideas for sake of future generations. Thus, both speech and writing have their own value and significance as the basic manifestations of language.

F.T Wood makes the following observation regarding the characteristic features of language: Language is primarily something that is spoken, not written. The introduction of a system of recording thought and speech by writing was a very important step . Without it we should be very largely ignorant of the ways of life and the modes of thought of our ancestors. Language is dynamic and not static. It keeps on changing at all levels-- in pronunciation, in grammar and in the meaning of words and sentence patterns. Speech or language is the distinguishing characteristic of human beings. It differentiates them from other animal species.

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPEMENT OF HUMAN LANGUAGE

Scholars who have studied the origin of language say that the art of writing evolved between 3500 and 2900 B.C. The age of language has been put back to at least 6500 B.C.

Human beings originally moved about in smaller groups and used a limited number of signals for communication. Perhaps, when different groups came into contact, their needs and activities increased and hence this system of signals became more complex. In the beginning there were only visual signals. But when visibility was not perfect, human beings felt the need for vocal signals. That is how, it may be assumed, communication by oral sounds evolved.

There are different opinions about the origin of language. Plato thought that there

was a 'perfect' language which all human beings were striving to rediscover. Some believe in the Divine Gift theory of language. They hold that human language is the gift of God. According to Socrates, onomatopoeic imitation was the basis for the origin of language. But it must be remembered that onomatopoeic words differ from language to language. Some others say that man's instinctive response to certain external stimuli was the basis for the origin of language.Max Muller said, 'It is quite clear that we have no means of solving the problem of the origin of language historically'

THE ORIGIN OF WRITING

Speech and writing are the two basic manifestations of language. Each has its own function. If we analyze the linguistic history of any community, it will be clear that speech originated much earlier than writing and that writing is only a later development. As F.T. Wood remarked, the origin of writing is a great leap forward in the history of human civilization. Without writing we should be very largely ignorant of the ways of life and the modes of thought of our ancestors.

It is very interesting to note that in some languages there is a one-to- one correspondence between speech and writing, but in number of languages, there is no neat one-to-one correspondence between speech and writing.

The system of writing may be categorized into:

1.   **Pictographic or ideographic.**

In pictographic writing each sign corresponds to a thing, an object or an idea. Pictures represented messages. For example, the picture of the Sun, and that of the Moon represented these objects respectively. Primitive pictograph conveyed messages in the same way as the modern cartoon does. In the Sumerian writing, four semi-circles with the picture of an ox's head stood for four oxen. The sheep, the Sun and the bird were all represented using pictorial symbols. Gradually, the pictorial symbols underwent a process of extension of meaning. This occurred when the same symbol began to be used for more abstract concepts related to the

original object. (i.e. a picture of the Sun represented various abstract ideas associated with the Sun such as brightness, day, time etc.)

2.   Logographic.

In logographic writing, each sign corresponds to a word.

3.   Syllabic.

In this system of writing, each sign corresponds to a syllable.

4.   Alphabetic.

Each sign corresponds to a sound unit that makes a difference in meaning.

5.   Phonetic.

In phonetic each sign corresponds to a sound whether the sound makes a difference in meaning or not.

In the processes of the growth of writing, phonetization has come to be regarded as the most significant development. Phonetization means the association of certain symbols with a particular sound or a group of sounds.

It is generally agreed that the earliest form of writing is that of the Sumerian

Civilization of 3300 B.C. It was originally pictographic. (i.e. 'the picture of a wild animal with an arrow stricken at by a hunter' was sufficient to convey the message) Later on it developed into other forms.

The Sumerian word 'ti' meant arrow and it was represented by an arrow in the script. The same word 'ti' also meant 'life' and the same symbol came to be used for this also.

Gradually the arrow symbol came to be used for the sound of the word 'ti' and it was used for the syllable 'ti' in longer words. Thus original word symbols developed into syllable symbols. Later on such syllable symbols came to be used to spell out a word.

The Sumerian writing was a mixture of ideograms, word symbols, and syllable symbols. Out of it developed the Cuneiform writing. Cuneiform was the system of writing used for the Acadian languages (I.e. the advancement language of ancient Babylon and Assyrians.) The Cuneiform writing was almost syllabic in nature. In this system, each sign stood for a syllable such as 'ba', 'tu' 'sa' etc. Cuneiform writing was an improvement

upon Sumerian pictography and logography.

The ancient Egyptians also used the syllabic writing system. This led to the emergence of the true alphabetic writing in which symbols actually represent speech sounds. Vowels were not indicated in Egyptian writing. Most of the signs stood for a group of two consonants and any vowel as needed went along with it. For example, the symbol for the word "par"(house) was a group of two consonants, 'pr' which could also stand for 'per', 'apr', or 'epr'. But there were twenty four symbols which stood for just one consonant plus any vowel. This syllabic system of writing of the Egyptians was adopted by the West Semitic people inhabiting the eastern shore of the Mediterranean. The Greeks took over this Semitic alphabet. They also made regular symbols for the vowels. All later alphabet systems are ultimately iderived from this Greek achievement.

REVIEW EXERCISES

A.   Answer the following questions in one or two sentences each.

1.   Define language in your own words.

Language is one of the means of communicating our thoughts, feelings, emotions, desires, ideas and attitudes making use of voluntarily produced system of arbitrary vocal sounds or written symbols.

2.   What do you mean by 'the arbitrariness' of language?

It means that there is no logical relationship between the speech sounds and what it represents.

3.   What do you mean by 'recursiveness' of language?

Human beings can produce and understand an infinite number of sentences using a finite number of rules. This property of language is called recursiveness.

4.   Why does Charles Hockett say that language is characterized with the duality of structure?

Human language is structured at two levels: (i) at the level of sounds and (ii) at the level of words. That is why Charles Hockett says that language is characterized with the duality of structure.

5.   What are onomatopoeic words?

Words like 'buzz', 'hiss', 'thud', etc. which represent the sounds of their referents are known as onomatopoeic words.

6.   Mention the names of major modern linguists.

Ferdinand de Saussure, Edward Sapir, Leonard Bloomfield, Noam Chomsky and Charles are the major modern linguists.

B.   Answer the following questions in a paragraph.

1.   Two modes of communication.

Speech and writing are the two basic manifestations of language. As a means of communication, both the spoken and the written forms of language are equally important. Spoken language may be defined as "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which human beings communicate and co-operate with one another" The written forms of language always come later than the spoken form. It is the symbol of the spoken form. Therefore the written form may be conceived of as a symbol of a symbol.

Traditional grammarians had a general tendency to regard the spoken form as inferior to the written form. But modern linguistic argue that speech is primary and writing is only secondary. In fact, in the history of any linguistic community, speech began earlier than writing and speech is the primary means of expression of human thoughts, feelings and desires. Normally human beings learn to practice writing only after they learn to speak. Children first learn to speak their mother tongue and later on learn to write. All languages in the world have developed the spoken form earlier than they develop written form. Written form is only a concrete recorded form of the spoken form. There are a few languages which have only the spoken form with no written form. In no language, the written form originated prior to the spoken form, nor is there in any

language, only the written form with no spoken form. All these facts affirm the primacy of speech. Therefore, modern linguists never consider speech as inferior to writing.

Each has its own merits and demerits. In the written form, intonations, pitch and stress cannot be represented except with help of Supra Segmental Signs. Apart from these, facial expressions gestures and other paralinguistic features play a significance role in conveying additional meaning in the spoken form of language, whereas in writing only the alphabet and the punctuation marks provide the resources for conveying additional meaning. However, speech is transitory whereas writing treasure valuable thoughts and ideas for sake of future generations. Thus, both speech and writing have their own value and significance as the basic manifestations of language.

2. Properties of human language

Language is one of the means of communicating our thoughts, feelings, emotions, desires, ideas and attitudes making use of voluntarily produced system of arbitrary vocal sounds or written symbols.

Some important characteristic features of human language are given below:

• language is a means of communication

Language is one of the means of communicating our thoughts, feelings, emotions, desires, ideas and attitudes making use of voluntarily produced system of arbitrary vocal sounds or written symbols

• language is systematic.

Language is made up of sounds and smaller formal units called phonemes, morpheme and words. A stretch of speech in any human language can be analyzed into smaller units and larger number of meaning can be expressed by means of limited number of signals.

• language is arbitrary.

It means that there is no logical relationship between the speech sounds and what it represents.

• language has a duality of structure.

Language displays two levels of patterning. It is made up of sounds and smaller formal units called phonemes, morpheme and words.

• language is recursive.

Using a finite number of rules which are repeatedly used, a speaker can produce grammatical sentences never uttered before.

• transference

It is possible to write down spoken language and read aloud the written material.

• language is dynamic.

Language is never static, it is dynamic. It goes on changing.

C. Answer the following questions in not more than 350 words.

1. Define Language and explain the most important properties of human language.

Language occupies an important place in the lives of human beings. Language is the very medium of expression. The everyday activities of life are sure to come to an end unless language functions as a means of communication. Language is inextricably tied up with the social and cultural evolution of mankind. Language is as familiar to us as the air we breathe or the saliva that we carry in our mouth. So we are hardly conscious of its significance. However, the effects of language are most remarkable. It is in fact language that distinguishes human beings from the animals. C. L. Barber rightly remarked: "Language is the most remarkable tool that man has invented and is one that makes all other possible"

Definitions of language

Language is a means of communication. It is a means of conveying our thoughts, ideas, feelings, and emotions to other people. Edward Sapir says: "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" According to Hall, language is "the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oralauditory arbitrary symbols". In the words of Noam Chomsky, language is "a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. "

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For example the word 'like' is made up of an initial consonant /l/, a medial

diphthong /ai/and a final consonant /k/. The same words can be rearranged in order to construct another sentence "All the students like our teachers". Thus in human language

two levels of structure are found: a primary level which consists of compounding of words and a secondary level which consists of compounding of sounds.

- **Language is Arbitrary**

It means that there is no logical relationship between the speech sounds and what it represents. Generally speaking, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the vocal sounds and the concepts or ideas they stand for. The relationship between a word and its referent is purely arbitrary. In other words there is no positive relationship between a speech sound and the object. This property of language is referred to as arbitrariness. There are a few exceptions to this feature of language. A few words are representational in nature. In English, for example, words like 'buzz', 'hiss', 'rattle', 'bang', 'thud' etc.

actually represent the sounds of their referents. Such words are called onomatopoeic words. With the exception of such words, the relationship between the signifier and the signified (I.e. the word and its referent) is generally arbitrary.

- **Language Has A Duality of Structure**

Language displays two levels of patterning. It is made up of sounds and smaller formal units called phonemes, morpheme and words. A stretch of speech in any human language can be analyzed into smaller units and larger number of meaning can be expressed by means of limited number of signals. Human language is structured at different levelsat the level of phonemes and morphemes and at the level of words. Charles Hockett calls this property of language as the duality of structure

- **Language is Recursive**

Using a finite number of rules which are repeatedly used, a speaker can produce grammatical sentences never uttered before. This property of language is called recursiveness. We can add new words and sentences to the already existing ones or even form sentences inside sentences. This property of language is referred to as creativity. Languages always remain open-ended. The signals in human language can be combined in a variety of ways. Human language may therefore be called an open -ended system

- **Displacement**

Human beings can talk about experiences without actually living them. They can talk of objects and events which are not present at the time and the place of speaking because the use of human language is not directly controlled by stimulus. This property of language is called displacement.

- **Transference**

Human language has two basic manifestations: One is speech and the other is writing. It is possible to write down spoken language and read aloud the written material.

This property of language is referred to as transferability.

- **Language is Dynamic**

This characteristic feature of human language makes it different from other forms of communication. Language is never static, it is dynamic. It goes on changing.

2. Difference between human communication and animal communication.

Like human beings, animals also make noises to communicate with other members of their group. However, human language differs from animal language in many respects. Language has enabled humans to achieve a form of social organization different from that of other animals. The social organization of animals is mainly instinctive and genetically transmitted. On the other hand the social organization of human beings is largely acquired and transmitted verbally by the cultural heritage.

Human language is different from animal language in the following respects:

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diphthong /ai/and a final consonant /k/. The same words can be rearranged in order to construct another sentence "All the students like our teachers". Thus, in human language

two levels of structure are found: a primary level which consists of compounding of words and a secondary level which consists of compounding of sounds.

Animal communication on the other hand, consists of meaningful cries which cannot be analysed into constituent elements such as phonemes, morphemes or words. The cry of animals denotes approaching danger, mating instinct, anger etc. The chirping of birds and the buzzing of bees are means of communication. But they serve only a limited number of purposes. The bees for example, have only two modes of body movements called bee dance- one to signify distance and the other to denote the direction of forage. Unlike animal language, human language is articulate as it has got a structure. Human language can be analysed into a number of smaller constituent elements like words, phonemes and morphemes. That is why human language is said to be a "system of systems". The cry of animals or the body movement of the bees cannot be analysed into smaller units. Human language is structured at different levels- at the level of phonemes and morphemes and at the level of words. Charles Hockett calls this property of language as the duality of structure

2.   Recursiveness (Creativity)

Since there are various ways of combining the units of language, there is considerable scope for creativity within it. Using a few basic rules of construction, human beings can produce and understand a large number of utterances. There is no limit to the length or number of sentences a speaker can produce. Using a finite number of rules which are repeatedly used, a speaker can produce grammatical sentences never uttered before. This property of language is called recursiveness. We can add new words and sentences to the already existing ones or even form sentences inside sentences. This property of language is referred to as creativity. Languages always remain open-ended. The signals in human language can be combined in a variety of ways. Human language may therefore be called an open -ended system.

Animal language, on the other hand, exhibits only a very little creativity or recursiveness. It does not have any variety of combination or organization of constituent elements.

3.   Arbitrariness.

Generally speaking, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the vocal sounds and the concepts or ideas they stand for. The relationship between a word and its referent is purely arbitrary. In other words there is no positive relationship between a speech sound and the object. This property of language is referred to as arbitrariness. There are a few exceptions to this feature of language. A few words are representational in nature. In English, for example , words like 'buzz', 'hiss', 'rattle', 'bang', 'thud' etc. actually represent the sounds of their referents. Such words are called Onomatopoeicwords. With the exception of such words, the relationship between the signifier and the signified (I.e. the word and its referent) is generally arbitrary.

4.   Displacement.

Animal communication is context bound but human communication can be context free. Human beings can talk about experiences without actually living them. They can talk of objects and events which are not present at the time and the place of speaking because the use of human language is not directly controlled by stimulus. This property of language is called displacement. In the case of animals, there is a direct relationship between stimulus and they can respond only to their immediate environment.

5.   Transferability.

Human language has two basic manifestations: One is speech and the other is writing. It is possible to write down spoken language and read aloud the written material. This property of language is referred to as transferability.

These differences between human language and animal language are primarily due to the fact that the human brain has an innate capacity for learning language creatively.

CHAPTER II

WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language.It is the systematic study of the elements of language and the principles governing their combination and organization.

Linguistics provides for a rigorous experimentation with the elements or aspects of language that are actually in use by the speech community. It is based on observation and the data collected thereby from the users of the language, a scientific analysis is made by the investigator and at the end of it he comes out with a satisfactory explanation relating to his field of study. This sort of systematic study of language has rendered the traditional method language study outmoded or unfit for any theorization.

SCIENTIFIC NATURE OF LINGUISTICS:-

Is language amenable to scientific study? To answer such a question, the term Science needs to be defined.Science can be defined as a systematic, explicit and objective study of an object or a phenomenon, natural or social.Science engages in:-

- Gathering of data in a methodical manner
- Analysis of the data
- Determination of the relationship between facts
- Formulation of casual explanation
- Verification and validation of explanations and predictions
- **Generalization**

In short, Science is committed to empirically provable/proven ideas. Empirical proof or objective truth is the hallmark of science.

In the context of language study, Science implies a systematic investigation into language by means of controlled and objectively verifiable prepositions based on observations and within the framework of some general theories governing language. Linguistic procedure involves generating testable hypothesis in order to make predictions about language. In case the hypothesis is found to be false and does not fit into a generalized theoretical framework, it is modified or refuted and an alternative hypothesis is formulated with a view to arriving at absolute truth unshakable by criticism. In this respect linguistics is supposed to have the hallmark of Science (Linguistics is a Science because it follows the general methodology of science, i.e. controlled observation, hypothesisformation, analysis, generalization, prediction, testing the further observation and confirmation, modification or rejection of the hypothesis with a goal to formulate an alternative hypothesis).

Linguistics has two major aims:

i. to study the nature of language and establish a theory of language and

ii. to describe a language and all languages by applying the theory established.

To be scientific, the linguistic procedure should satisfy three essential conditions. They are explicitness, systematicness and objectivity. In traditional grammar, there is no explicitness at all. Traditional grammar begins with definitions. Many of these definitions lack clarification. The noun, for example, is defined as the name of a person, place or a thing. This definition does not encompass human qualities such as love, sympathy, beauty, etc. However they are treated under the head of abstract nouns. But the definition of noun does not give any information about abstract nouns.

In traditional grammar, words such as truth, beauty, courage, love, hatred etc. are categorized as noun but the question arises whether they are the names of things at all as the definition claims. The classification of words into parts of speech is also problematic. Traditional Grammarians say that parts of speech are eight in number:- noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjections. Again the question arises whether the articles "a", "an" and "the" and the demonstrators, "this" and "that" are

not parts of speech at all.

Similarly the traditional definition of a verb as "a doing, being or having word" is

also narrow and defective. This definition does not take into consideration the verbal nouns or gerunds such as running, washing and swimming etc. It ignores that these words can be used both as verbs and as nouns. In short, traditional grammar lacks explicitness. It is rather vague .Language study, should never be vague.

Another thing to be considered is that the study of language should be systematic. Systematicness can be ensured by following the steps in scientific method. It involves formulation of hypothesis, observation, collection, classification and analysis of data, generalization, verification, modification, or rejection of hypothesis and theorization. In short, systematicness implies linguistic framework, procedures and consistency throughout the study. Objectivity is another criterion of scientific study of language. Objectivity means a relative freedom from subjective biases which inevitably distort the accuracy of a research report. Objectivity means an observation uninfluenced by one's personal biases, prejudices, beliefs or values. In other words, the problem of objectivity in linguistics is in fact one of knowing reality about language in general.

MODERN LINGUISTICS

Linguistics is the systematic study of the elements of language and the principles governing their combination and organization. Philology was the older term used to refer to the study of language. Philology was rather comparative and historical. A comparative study of language focuses on the similarities and differences within a family of related languages. A historical study analyses the evolution of a family of languages or the changes that occur within a particular language, over a long course of time. This type of study of the changes in language over a span of time is called diachronic study. On the other hand, an analysis of the systematic interrelation of the elements of a single language at a particular time is called synchronic study

A new approach to the study of language began with the experiments and observation made by Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist. He is regarded as the father of modern linguistics. He considered language as a self-sufficient system. His lectures on language were published from student's notes in 1916, three years after his death. These lectures have been translated as Course in General Linguistics.

Important contributions to linguistics were also made by American descriptive and structural linguists. Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloom Field were notable among them. A basic text in American linguistics is Bloomfield's 'Language' (19193)

Saussure introduced new concepts and procedures in analyzing language. The following are some of the major terms and concepts introduced by him.

SYNCHRONIC AND DIACHRONIC APPROACH

Saussure introduced time concept in the study of language. Language can be studied over a span of time as well as at a point of time. The former, he called diachronic, and the latter, synchronic. Diachronic approach to the language study focuses on the changes in language over language over a span of time. Language is evolutionary and is not static. If we compare a passage from the fourteenth century English poet Geoffrey Chaucer with modern English, it will be clear that language has changed considerably. Diachronic study implies the study of the changes in language over a span of time.

Synchronic approach to the study of language focuses on the systematic interconnections and rules of a long course of time. It is rather comparative and historical. It is comparative in the sense that it analyses the similarities and differences within a family of related languages. It is historical, because it focuses on the evolution of a family of languages or on the changes that occur within a particular combinations and organization of the constituent elements of a single language at a particular time.

Saussure emphasizes the importance of seeing language as a living phenomenon. He laid the stress on studying speech habits of the community speaking a given language. He analyzes the underlying system of a language in order to demonstrate the integrated structure. He placed language in social context. As against the total historical study of language, Saussure stressed the importance of seeing language existing as a state at particular point of time. Synchronic linguistics sees language as a living whole.

LANGUE AND PAROLE

Saussure introduced an important distinction between langue and parole. A parole is any particular meaningful utterance. It may be spoken or written. It refers to the actual concrete act of speaking on the part of the individual. It is personal, dynamic and social activity. It exists at a particular time and place and in a particular context. It is the only object available for direct observation by linguists. It is similar to Chomsky's idea of performance.

Langue, on the other hand implies the underlying rules governing the combination and organization of the elements of language. It is the implicit system of elements, of distinctions and oppositions. It is the langue which makes it possible for a speaker to make an utterance and the listener to understand the same. In short, langue = grammar + vocabulary + pronunciation system of a linguistic community.

Competence and performance

Noam Chomsky has substituted Saussure's concept of language and parole with

competence and performance. Competence is the tacit knowledge on the part of native speakers who have mastered or internalized the implicit conventions and rules of a language system. It is the competence which enables the speaker to make meaningful utterances and the listener to understand well-formed and meaningful utterances. Performance on the other hand is the actual utterance of particular sentences.

Semiotics and semiology

The terms semiotics and semiology are alternative names used to refer to the systematic study of signs. The only difference is that the term semiotics was introduced by the American philosopher, Charles Sanders Peirce and the term semiology was used by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. Saussure held the view that language is a semiotic system. (i.e. language is a system signs). Each linguistic sign is composed of a 'signifier' and the 'signified' 'Signifier' + signified -> sign. Signifier is the phonic or the graphic part of the sign. The signified is the referent or the concept or idea behind the signifier. The relationship between the signifier and the signified is purely arbitrary. This means that there is no positive relationship between the signifier and the signified.

Linguistics is descriptive

The modern linguists value all varieties of language. The distinction between spoken or written, formal or informal, regional or social and domestic or professional varieties of language has become blurred in modern linguistics. Language is never static but dynamic. A particular variety of language cannot be considered to be superior to the other varieties. The concept of homogeneity of language has no place in modern linguistics. It is not possible that all members of a given speech community speak exactly the same language. There exist differences in accent, vocabulary, and style even among people who speak the same language. This gives rise to the notion of idiolect or the speech of a given person and dialect or the speech habits of the people inhabiting a given geographical area. Countless varieties are possible inhuman speech. Register, jargon, slang and cant are examples of such varieties. If a language variety has certain features which are typical of certain disciplines/topics/occupation and social roles placed by the speaker, it is referred to as register. E.g. the journalistic register and the legal register, scientific register. Jargon is a term used to refer to set of words or expressions used by a specific group among themselves. Every trade has its own jargon. Slang is an extreme form of informality in the use of language. Cant is a term used to mean the secret language used by a class or sect.

The task of linguists is to describe the way people actually speak or write their language. Their task is not to prescribe the rules governing the use of language. This is what Saussure meant when he says that Linguistics is descriptive, not prescriptive.

The traditional grammarians were prescriptive. The prescriptive grammarians tell the speakers what forms they should use and what they should not. They blindly the conventions accepted by their predecessors. But modern linguists describe how language functions. Both the prescriptive and descriptive linguists use rules. But the prescriptive rules are rigid whereas the rule of descriptive grammar is flexible. The descriptive linguists agree to the idea that linguistic change is natural. The prescriptive grammarians have the false notion of the purity of language. They conceived language as static. They considered the spoken form of language inferior to the written form.

INTER DISCIPLINARY APPROACH IN LINGUISTICS.

Interdisciplinary approach in linguistics implies connecting the study to other branches of knowledge and areas of life and experience. Linguistics has developed various dimensions. Scientists say that language is connected with the brain functions. This has led to the development of a new discipline called Neurolinguistics. Neurolinguists have studied the biological foundations of language and the brain mechanism underlying its acquisition and use. They have found that language is the function of the left hemisphere of the brain. Injuries to the left hemisphere result in language disorders called aphasia. Noam Chomsky, the great American linguist regards language as a cognitive system. According to him, the speaker of a language has certain mental structure which is different from that of a speaker who speaks another language. The study of the linguistic cognitive system has led to the growth of new disciplines such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and Neurolinguistics.

Psycholinguistics deals with the connection between language and the mind. It is the study of how the mentally represented grammar of language is employed in the production and comprehension of speech. In Chomskian terms, the mentally represented grammar of language is linguistic competence and the actual production and comprehension of utterance is linguistic performance. Language acquisition by children is one of the most prominent areas of Psycholinguistics.

Socio linguistics is the study of language in relation to society. It is the study of how human beings acquire language and how we use language to speak and understand. Sociolinguistics is the converging point where the methodological perspectives in both sociology and linguistics converge in the analysis of language in connection with society. Each language follows its own pattern and system. It is culture and societal relationships that determine such things. Sociolinguistics studies the verbal behavior of the individual who is a member of the speech community. Language behavior is manifested as individual speaker's utterances. The speaker, the listener as well as the observer can observe the

language behavior of people engaged in communication. A language system is a social phenomenon which is purely abstract and has no physical existence. It gets actualized on particular occasions in the language behavior of individual members of a linguistic community. Sociolinguistics emphasizes the variability of language. They acknowledge the multiplicity of languages.

Idiolect, dialect, register, bilingualism, multilingualism are some of the basic terms associated with it. Dialects are varieties of a language which differ in grammar vocabulary and pronunciation. Dialect refers to the linguistic norm specific to a geographical area, social class or status affecting mutual intelligibility. No individual speaks alike. Idiolect is the totality of the speech habits of an individual. A collection of similar idiolects make up dialect. If a language variety has certain features which are typical of certain disciplines/topics/fields/occupations and social roles played by a speaker, it is referred to a register (e.g. Journalistic register or the language of the journalists; the legal register, the language of law/ lawyers; the scientific register, the language of science, and so on). Two or more languages that come into contact may influence one other. A monolingual person is someone who has the ability to use only one language. A bilingual person can use two languages. A multilingual person can use more than two languages. All these concepts come under the purview of sociolinguistics.

REVIEW EXERCISES
A. Answer the following questions in one or two sentences each.
1.   Define the term 'linguistics'
Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. It is the systematic study of the elements of language and the principles governing their combination and organization.
2.   Distinguish between langue and parole.
Saussure introduced an important distinction between langue and parole. A parole is any particular meaningful utterance. It may be spoken or written. It refers to the actual concrete act of speaking on the part of the individual.
Langue, on the other hand implies the underlying rules governing the combination and organization of the elements of language. It is the implicit system of elements, of distinctions and opposition
3.   What is Dialect?
Dialects are varieties of a language which differ in grammar vocabulary and pronunciation. Dialect refers to the linguistic norm specific to a geographical area, social class or status affecting mutual intelligibility.
4.   What is Idiolect?
No individual speaks alike. Idiolect is the totality of the speech habits of an individual. A collection of similar idiolects make up dialect

5.   Distinguish between the signifier and the signified.

The signifier and the signified are the two inseparable components of a sign. In language, signifier is a set of speech sounds or of marks on a page and the signified is the concept or idea which is the meaning of the sign.

6.   Distinguish between Competence and performance.

Noam Chomsky has substituted Saussure's concept of language and parole with competence and performance. Competence is the tacit knowledge on the part of native speakers who have mastered or internalized the implicit conventions and rules of a language system. It is the competence which enables the speaker to make meaningful utterances and the listener to understand well-formed and meaningful utterances. Performance on the other hand is the actual utterance of particular sentences.

7.   What is a sign?

A sign is anything that conveys an idea, meaning or a concept. A sign has two elements, a signifier and the signified.

8.   Descriptive and prescriptive approaches to the study of language,

The traditional grammarians were prescriptive. The prescriptive grammarians tell the speakers what forms they should use and what they should not.   But modern linguists describe how language functions. Both the prescriptive and descriptive linguists use rules.   But the prescriptive rules are rigid whereas the rule of descriptive grammar is flexible.

9.   What is Psycho-linguistics?

Psycholinguistics is the study of how the mentally represented grammar of language is employed in the production and comprehension of speech. In other words, it is the study of the correlation between linguistic competence and linguistic performance.

10. What is Socio-linguistics?

Sociolinguistics is a discipline where the methodological perspective of both linguistics and sociology converges in the analysis of the relationship between language and society.

11. Neuro-linguistics.

Neuro linguistics deals with the brain mechanism underlying the acquisition and use of language. Neuro linguists have found that language is a left-hemisphere function and that the injuries to the left hemisphere of the brain result in language disorders called aphasia.

12. Semiology and Semiotics.

Semiology and semiotics are alternative terms for the systematic study of signs such as language, our body postures and gestures, the social rituals, meals, clothes, buildings and other objects.

13. Register.

If a language variety has certain features which are typical of certain disciplines/topics/fields/occupations and social roles played by a speaker, it is referred to a register(eg. Journalistic register or the language of the journalists; the legal register, the language of law/ lawyers; the scientific register, the language of science, and so on)

14.Bilingualism.

It refers to an individual's equal and native command of two or more languages.

B.   Answer the following questions in a paragraph

1. Distinguish between the synchronic and diachronic approach to language study.

Diachronic approach to the language study focuses on the changes in language over a span of time. Language is evolutionary and is not static. If we compare a passage from the fourteenth century English poet Geoffrey Chaucer with modern English, it will be clear that language has changed considerably. Diachronic study implies the study of the changes in language over a span of time.

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C.   Write an essay on the following questions in not more than 350 words each.
1. Basic assumption of modern linguistics.
Linguistics is the systematic study of the elements of language and the principles governing their combination and organization. Philology was the older term used to refer to the study of language. Philology was rather comparative and historical. A comparative study of language focuses on the similarities and differences within a family of related languages. A historical study analyses the evolution of a family of languages or the changes that occur within a particular language, over a long course of time. This type of study of the changes in language over a span of time is called diachronic study. On the other hand, an analysis of the systematic interrelation of the elements of a single language at a particular time is called synchronic study A new approach to the study of language began with the experiments and observation made by Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist. He is regarded as the father of modern linguistics. He considered language as a self-sufficient system. His lectures on language were published from student's notes in 1916, three years after his death. These lectures have been translated as Course in General Linguistics.

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Saussure introduced new concepts and procedures in analyzing language. The following are some of the major terms and concepts introduced by him.

Synchronic and Diachronic approach: Diachronic approach to the language study focuses on the changes in language over a span of time. Language is evolutionary and is not static.

Synchronic approach to the study of language focuses on the systematic interconnections and rules of a single language at a particular time.

Saussure emphasizes the importance of seeing language as a living phenomenon. He laid the stress on studying speech habits of the community speaking a given language. He analyzes the underlying system of a language in order to demonstrate the integrated structure. He placed language in social context

LANGUAGE AND PAROLE

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COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE

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LINGUISTICS IS DESCRIPTIVE, NOT PRESCRIPTIVE

The task of linguists is to describe the way people actually speak or write their language. Their task is not to prescribe the rules governing the use of language. This is what Saussure meant when he says that Linguistics is descriptive, not prescriptive.

The traditional grammarians were prescriptive. The prescriptive grammarians tell the speakers what forms they should use and what they should not. They blindly the conventions accepted by their predecessors. But modern linguists describe how language functions. Both the prescriptive and descriptive linguists use rules. But the prescriptive rules are rigid whereas the rule of descriptive grammar is flexible. The descriptive linguists agree to the idea that linguistic change is natural. The prescriptive grammarians have the false notion of the purity of language. They conceived language as static. They considered the spoken form of language inferior to the written form.

2. Linguistics as a science.

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. The study of language must begin with certain idea about language. Language is perhaps the most interesting entity that mankind has ever come across. We use language for communicating our thoughts and feelings with others and the language we use is transmitted from generation to generation without much deliberate effort on our part. Those who have not studied language systematically do use language with much ease and they are never bothered about the complexities of the ways in which the constituent elements of language combine and organize to make meaningful utterances. This fact does not make us come to the conclusion that the systematic and scientific study of language is meaningless. The study of language is significant as it ultimately takes us to the beginnings of our culture and social life. Language has become an essential part of our lives. The study of language in a scientific and systematic way is therefore, significant both in terms of academic and cultural point of view.

SCIENTIFIC NATURE OF LINGUISTICS:-

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- Analysis of the data
- Determination of the relationship between facts
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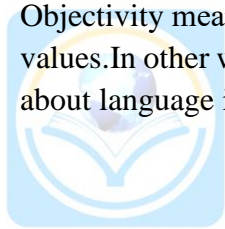
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CHAPTER III

PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY
THE SPEECH MECHANISM

Language is used for the purpose of communication. To a certain extend communication is possible without language. If communication takes place with the help of language, it is called linguistic communication. It can be spoken or written. If communication takes place without the help of language, it is called non-linguistic communication.

Linguistics is the scientific study of human language. It has got several branches. Phonetics is that branch of linguistics which deals with the study of speech sounds or phonemes in general. Phonemes are the smallest units of speech sound. They are not meaningful by themselves. But they can bring about change in meaning. Phonemes are combined into larger meaningful units called morphemes.

Phonology is concerned with the selection and organization of phonemes in a language.

The important branches of linguistics are:

i. Phonology: The study of the elementary speech sounds.

ii. Morphology: The study or ordering of speech sounds into the smallest meaningful groups such as morphemes and words.

iii. Syntax: The study of the way that sequences of words are ordered into phrases, clauses, and sentences.

iv. Semantics: The study of meaning.

PHONETICS:

Phonetics is a branch of phonology. It deals with the study of speech sounds in general. It is concerned with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech.

THE AIR STREAM MECHANISM AND THE ORGANS OF SPEECH.

Lung air is used for the articulation of most speech sounds of most of the languages. The air that flows out of our mouth is modified in the production of speech sounds by the action of speech organs.

The organs involved in the production of speech can be divided into three groups:

i. The respiratory system. This comprises the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the wind pipe.

ii. The phonatory system. This comprises the larynx.

iii. The articulatory system. This comprises the nose, the teeth, the tongue, the roof of the mouth and the lips.

THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

The respiratory system consists of the lungs and the wind pipe (the trachea). As the walls of the lungs contract, the air is pushed out from the lungs. The air which goes out through the wind pipe is made use of in the production of speech sounds.

Respiration involves two processes:

i. Respiration. It is the taking in of the air from outside into the lungs ii. Expiration. It is the throwing out of the air from the lungs into the outer atmosphere.

Since the expiratory lung air is the basis of the articulation of most speech sounds, the air stream is called pulmonic air stream mechanism.

There are three air stream mechanisms:

i.   Pulmonic air stream mechanism ii. Glotalic air stream mechanism iii. Velaric air stream mechanism.

Of these three, the pulmonic air stream mechanism is the most important. This is due to the fact that a very large percentage of speech sounds in all the languages is produced using this kind of air stream mechanism.

The air is drawn into the lungs or pushed out of them by the movement of the walls of the lungs. This movement is caused by the respiratory muscles.

When the air stream mechanism is used to draw air in, it is called ingressive and when it is used to push air out, it is called egressive.

All sounds in the English language and in most languages in India, are produced by the use of pulmonic air stream mechanism.

The closed glottis makes use of the air in the pharynx and acts as the initiator for glotalic air stream mechanism. This is also known as pharyngeal air stream mechanism. Some languages of the world make use of both egressive and ingressive glotalic air stream mechanism for the articulation of speech sounds. The sounds used by this system are called implosives.

The air in the mouth is set in motion by the velaric air stream mechanism. The back of the tongue is the initiator. It is also known as the oral air stream mechanism. Several African languages have sounds produced with a velaric ingressive air stream mechanism.

2. The Phonatory System

There is a box made up of a cartilage at the top of the wind pipe. It is called larynx. Adams Apple is its front. The larynx encloses a pair of folds made of static tissues call Vocal Chords. They are small lip-like folds which run from front to the back along the side walls of the larynx. The vocal chords can be held together or kept wide apart. Glottis is the small opening between the vocal chords. It can be closed or open by bringing the vocal chords together or keeping them apart.

In the production of certain speech sounds, the vocal chords are wide apart and the glottis is open so that sir passes our through it freely without any friction. The speech sounds thus produced with the glottis wide open are called voiceless sounds or breathed sounds.

E.g. the first sound in the word 'pill' and 'king'

During the production of certain sounds, the vocal chords are closely held together and as thr air from the lung Is pushed out, they vibrate producing the sound called voiced sounds

Eg. The sounds like /z/ and / ʒ/

3. The articulatory system

This consists of the pharynx and the oral cavity and the nasal cavity. They are used in the articulation of various sounds. The nose, the teeth, the tongue, the roof of the mouth and the lips help us in the articulation of various sounds. Articulation is bringing together or near each other of two organs in the production of speech. Articulators can be classified into two categories:

i.   the passive articulators and

ii.   the active articulators.

Tongue and lower lips are active articulators. The upper lip, teeth and the entire roof of the mouth form the passive articulators. The various positions of the the active articulators in relation to the passive articulators result different types of sounds.

Speech sounds are classified according to the place of articulation (where the two articulators meet) and according to the manner of articulation(howthe air is pushed out) Organs of speech The air that we breathe comes out of the lungs and passes through various organs of the body like the larynx and the pharynx and from there it is passed out through the mouth or the nasal cavity. The various organs of the body that convert the air that comes out of the lungs to the atmosphere are called speech organs.

The following are the various organs that involve in the production of speech sounds:

1.   Lungs

2.   Larynx: - (the hollow box like part at the upper end of the throat's air passage). It is commonly called Adam's apple. The larynx encloses a pair of folds made of elastic tissue called vocal chords.

3.   Pharynx: - immediately above the larynx, there is a space behind the tongue. It reaches upwards the nasal cavity. This space is called pharynx.

4.   The roof of the mouth: - The palate forms the roof of the mouth. It separates the mouth cavity from the nasal cavity. The roof of the mouth is divided into three broad areas for the sake of descriptive convenience.

i.   Alveolar ridge (alveolum):- This is the convex part right behind the upper teeth . It is hard. It is called the teeth ridge.

ii.   Hard palate: - The hard concave area behind the teeth ridge is called the hard palate. This is the convex part right behind the upper teeth. It is hard. It is called the teeth ridge.

iii   Soft palate (velum):- It is the soft portion at the end of the hard palate.

At the extreme end of the soft palate is the fleshy finger like structure called the uvula

The soft palate can be lowered or raised. When the soft palate is raised, it touches the back wall of the pharynx. Then the nasal passage will be closed and the air can escape only through the mouth cavity. The sounds produced in this way with the air escaping through the mouth alone are called oral sounds.

/p/; /b/; /t/; /d/etc. are oral sounds. The soft palate is lowered that the nasal passage is opened and the oral passage is blocked at some point and the air escapes only through the nose. The wounds thus produced are called nasal sounds. /m/; /n/ and / ŋ / are nasal sounds in English.

5.   The tongue:-

The tongue is the most important of the organs of speech. The tongue can be divided in the following parts:

i.   The tip: - it is the extreme edge of the tongue.

ii.   The blade: - it is the part immediately after the tip. It lies opposite to the teeth ridge, when it is in resting position.

iii.   The front:-It is the part beyond the blade. It lies opposite to the hard palate.

iv.   The back: - It is beyond the front. It lies opposite to the soft palate. v.   The root: - It is even beyond the back of the tongue.

6.   The teeth:-

The lower front teeth are not important in the production of speech. But if they are missing, the production of certain sounds like/z/ and /s/ will be difficult. The two upper front teeth are used to produce sounds like initialsounds in words 'thick' and 'then'.

7.   The lip:-

The position of lips affects the quality of vowels. They play an important part in the articulation of certain consonants also.

CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

Speech sounds may be classified into two groups.

i.   Vowels

ii.   Consonants

VOWELS

Vowels are voiced sounds during the production of which the air escapes through the freely and continuouslywithout any audible frictional voice.

All other articulated mouth sounds are consonants.

Vowels are thus articulated with a stricture of open approximation, i.e. the active articulator, the tongue raised towards the passive articulator, the roof of the mouth in such a way that there is sufficient space between them for the air to escape freely and continuously. Vowel limit:

The highest level to which the tongue can be raised an a sound produced without frictional voice is called vowel limit.

Classification of Vowels:

Vowels can be classified along the following dimensions:

i.   The position of the lips.

ii.   The part of the tongue that is raised.

iii.   The height to which the tongue is raised.

According to the position of lips vowels can be divided into two categories:

i. Round Vowels. ii. unrounded Vowels

Rounded vowels are those vowels during the production of which the lips are rounded. E.g. /U: / as in cool; and / ɔ: / as in short. There are two main types of rounding called close lip rounding and open lip rounding.

Unrounded vowels are those during the production of which the lips are opened or neutral. E.g. Vowels like /i: / as in 'sea' and /e/as in 'get'

According to the part of the tongue that raises , Vowels can be classified into three categories:

i. Front Vowels ii. Back Vowels iii. Centre Vowels

Front vowels are those vowels during the production of which the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. There will be sufficient space between the front of the tongue and the hard palate for the air to escape without any friction.

e.g. /i:/ as in 'beat'; /e/as in 'bet'

Back Vowels are those vowels during the production of which the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate.

e.g. / ɑ: / as in 'calm'. /u: / as in 'cool'

Centre Vowels are those vowels during the production of which the Centre of the tongue is raised towards that part of the roof of the mouth where the hard palate and soft palate meet.

e.g. / ʌ / as in 'but' and / ɜ: / as in 'bird'

According to the height to which the tongue is raised, vowels can be classified into four categories:

i. High/close ii. Low/ open

iii.   Half high/Half close iv.   Half low/ half open.

i.   High/close vowels:

These are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is raised close to the roof of the mouth.

e.g. /i: / as in 'beat'; /u: / as in 'fool'.

ii.   Low/open vowels:

These are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is kept low in the oral cavity. E.g. / ɑ:/ as in 'calm'; / æ / as in 'cat'.

iii.   Half high/half close

For half high/ half close, the tongue occupies the position one third of the distance from close to open iv. Half low/ half open

For half open, the tongue occupies a position two third of the distance from close to open.

In the production of the vowel/i: / there is greater tension of the tongue. There is less tension of the tongue in the production ofthe vowel /i/as in 'sit'. On the basis ofthis criterion, vowels can be classified as follows:

i. Tense vowels ii. Lax vowels

Tense vowels are those vowels which require considerable muscular tension on the part of the tongue. E.g., /i: / as in 'leap'

Lax vowels are those vowels in which the tongue is held loosely.   E.g. /i/ as 'lip'

The three term label i.e. rounded/unrounded vowel(on the basis of the position of the lips); front /back/central vowel (on the basis of the part of the tongue that is raised in the production of vowels) and close/open/half close/ half open (on the basis of the height to which the tongue is raised) are not sufficient to describe the actual vowels in the language accurately. For this purpose, cardinal Vowel system has been developed.

CARDINAL VOWELS

The term cardinal vowel was introduced by A.M Bell but later on the concept of Cardinal vowels came to be associated with Daniel Jones. Cardinal vowels are specially selected vowels which can be used as points of reference from which other vowels can be measured. They are not vowels of any particular language. The system of eight cardinal vowels formulated by Daniel Jones has been accepted the world over. The vowels of particular languages can be compared to the point of cardinals. They serve as a yardstick. For example, if one knows the position of cardinal vowels no. 1 and no.2, he can easily identity another sound whose position falls somewhere between 1 and 2. For example, TheEnglish vowel /i/as in 'sit' is veryclose to the cardinal vowel no. 1; but it is a little more open and slightly more towards the back.

The following are the eight cardinal vowels.

Cardinal vowel no. 1. /i/ front close unrounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 2. /e/ front half-close unrounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 3. /3/ front half open unrounded vowel Cardinal vowel no. 4. / a/ front open unrounded vowel.

Cardinal vowel no. 5. / α / back open unrounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 6. /ɔ / back half open rounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 7. /o/ back half-close rounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 8. /u/ back close vowel rounded

The important thing is that the tongue may assume different position between any two of the positions described above during the articulation of a vowel that occurs in a language. So these positions are convenient points with reference to which any vowel in a given language can be described. Interestingly no English vowel is a pure cardinal vowel.

Vowels of English received pronunciation:

In English R.P (Received Pronunciation), there are twenty distinct vowel sounds. Of these twelve are monophthongs or pure vowels and the remaining eight are diphthongs.

The twelve pure vowels are given below with their three term labels:

1.   /i:/ as in beat   /bi:t/ - long unrounded, front, close.

2.   /i/ as in bit /bit/ -short unrounded, front (slightly retracted), half close (slightly raised)

3.   /e/ as in bet   /bet/   -unrounded, front, open (closer to half open)

4.   /æ/ as in bat /bæt/   -unrounded, front open (closer to half open)

5.   /ʌ/ as in but   /bʌt/   -unrounded, central, half open

6.   /a:/ as in   bard /ba:d/-unrounded,back, open

7.   /ɒ/as in God /gɒd/-rounded, back, open

8.   /ɔ:/ as in caught /Kɔ:t/ - rounded, back half open

9.   /u/ as in put /put/   - rounded back, slightly fronted, half close
(slightly raised)

10./u:/ as in boot /bunt/ -rounded, back open

        11. /3:/as in bird /b3:d/   - unrounded central, between half-close and half open

        12./ə/as in ago /əgəu / - unrounded central, between half close and half open

DIPHTHONGS

Diphthongs are sounds during the articulation of which the tongue starts in the position of a particular vowel and move in the direction of the position of Diphthongs in which the glide is from one vowel position to that of a close or high vowel may be called closing diphthongs.

The closing diphthongs of English R.P are:

1.   /ei/ as in make /meik/

2.   / ɔi/ as in boy /bɔi/

3.   /ai/ as in high /hai/

4.   /əu/as in go / gəu/

5.   /au/ as in how /hau/

The closing diphthongs may be classified as follows:

i. Fronting diphthongs ii. Retracting diphthongs

FRONTING DIPHTHONGS:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the front vowel/i/ are called fronting diphthongs.
e.g. /ei/, / ɔi/, /ai/

RETRACTING DIPHTHONGS:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the back vowel /u/ are called retracting diphthongs.
e.g. /au/, / əu/

2. Centring Diphthongs:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the Central vowel / ə / are called centring diphthongs. There are three centring diphthongs in English R.P. /i ə/as in ear, /e ə/ as in air, /uə/as in poor.

Diphthongs may also be classified as follows:

1.   Falling Diphthongs.

2.   Rising Diphthongs.

Falling Diphthongs   They are:

Diphthongs in which the first element has greater prominence than the second element are called falling diphthongs; the prominence of the sound undergoes a diminution as it passes on to the second sound. All the closing diphthongs and the centring diphthong /eə/ in English are falling diphthongs. In all these diphthongs, the second element is less prominent than the first.

Rising Diphthongs

The diphthongs with a stronger second element are called rising diphthongs. For example, in the second syllable of the word 'period; /pi əri əd/, the first element of the diphthong may be the weaker of the two elements. The prominence increases as the articulation proceeds as in the case of the word 'experience'. The first /i ə/in /ikspiəriəns/ is falling whereas the second one is rising.

Triphthongs

A triphthong is a monosyllabic vowel combination of a diphthong and the weak vowel /ə/.

A triphthong involves a quick but smooth movement of the articulator from one vowel quality to another that passes over a third one. E.g. trial /traiəl/, tire /taiə/.

Usually the closing diphthongs like /ai/, /ei/ and /u ə/ are followed by the weak vowel / ə/ within a syllable in a word. In words like 'tire / taiə/   'hour' /auə/, the closing diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ are followed by the weak vowel / ə /. Here the final vowel / ə / forms an inseparable part of the word. But in words like 'player' /pleə/ and 'prayer'

/prei ə /, the final / ə / is a suffix. Where the diphthong +/ ə / is treated as a single unit, the combination is called a triphthong, whereas the diphthong +/ ə / is not treated as a single unit and the final / ə / is a suffix, the words constitute two syllables each, the first syllable containing diphthong and the second one, the pure weak vowel / ə/. In such cases, the combination of a diphthong and the weak vowel /ə/ is not treated as a triphthong.

CONSONANTS

Consonants are sounds in the production of which there is an obstruction of the air passage narrowing the oral cavity. As a result, an audible frictional noise accompanies during articulation. The obstruction can be of various kinds and at different points in the oral cavity causing different sounds to be produced. Consonants are classified on the basis of the place of articulation and the manner of articulation. Consonants are either voiced or voiceless sounds.

Classification of consonants on the basis of place of articulation:

According to the point of articulation or the point of stricture, consonants are classified as follows:

1.   Bilabial:- The bilabial sounds are articulated by the two lips resulting in the consonants /p/. /b/, /m/, /w/. The lower lip is the active articulator and the upper lip is the passive articulator.

2.   Labio-dental. They are articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth resulting in /f/. and /v/.

3.   Dental:- They are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth as / θ / in 'thin' and / ð/ in 'this'

4.   Alveolar: - They are articulated by the tip of the tongue or the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge as in /t/./ d/./ n/./ l/. /s/./ z/

5.   Post-Alveolar:- They are produced involving the tip of the tongue and the back part ofthe teeth ridge as /r/in 'right'

6.   Palato-Alveollar:- They are articulated by the tip and the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge with raising of the front of the tongue towards the palate i.e. along with the alveolar articulation, the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, e.g. / ʃ / as in ship, / ʒ / as in pleasure, / ʧ /as in church and /ʤ/ as in judge.

7.   Palatal:- They are articulated by raising the front of the tongue towards the hard palate./j/ as in 'young' /jʌ ŋ/ is the only palatal sound in English.

8.   Velar:- They are articulated by raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate(velum). /k/, /g/ and /ŋ/ are examples.

9.   Glottal or Laryngeal: - They are articulated in the glottis. Both vocal cords are active articulators. E.g. /h/ as in the word 'he'. In the production of /h/, the glottis is completely closed and air is compressed by pressure from lungs. Then the glottis is opened by separating the vocal cords and the air escapes suddenly. It is neither breathed nor voiced.

MANNER OF ARTICULATION

On the basis of manner of articulation, consonants may be classified as follows:

1.   Plosives or stop consonants : - Plosive sounds are produced by total closure of the air passage at some point with the articulators coming into firm contact with each other and the nasal cavity being blocked by the velum so that the air cannot escape through the nose. On the release of the closure, the air escapes with a rapid small explosive noise as in the utterance of sounds /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/.

There are three pairs of plosives in English:

i.   Bilabial plosive /p/, /b/ ii. Alveolar plosive /t/, /d/. iii.   Velar plosive /k/, /g/.

In each of the above pair, the first one is voiceless and the second one is voiced.

Plosives are again classified into:

i.   Incomplete plosion:- When a plosive consonant is followed by another plosive or an affricate sound in the same word, the first plosive is not fully pronounced as /k/ in 'act' and 'picture'. Such plosives are called incomplete plosives.

ii.   Nasal plosion: - In sequence consisting of a plosive immediately followed by a nasal sound, the plosive is not pronounced in the normal way. The explosion produced while pronouncing such sequences is not formed by the air escaping through the mouth but through the nose. This kind of plosion is called nasal plosion. E.g. /p/ in 'sharpness; and 'topmost'.

iii.   Lateral plosion: - The lateral plosion occurs when /t/ and /d/ are followed by the lateral sound /l/as in middle, little etc. In such cases, the plosion of /t/ and /d/ is lateral. i.e. the tip of the tongue raised towards the teeth ridge remaining and the air escaping through both sides of the tongue that is lowered. In other words, the plosion of /t/ and /d/ is lateral, when the tip of the tongue does not leave the teeth ridge at the Centre and the air escapes through the sides of the tongue. iv. Glottal plosion:- The glottal plosive is produced by an interruption of the air passage by a closure e of the vocal cords. The air pressure below is released by the sudden separation of the vocal cords. This is used as a syllabic boundary marker by the native speakers of English as in 'co-operates' and 'react'. This occurs when the initial sound in the second syllable is a vowel.

2.   Affricates:- In the production of Affricates, there is a complete closure of air stream. But the oral closure is very slow and the release of closure is also slow and audible friction is heard as/ʧ/ in 'chair and / ʤ / in 'jam'. These are palato-alveolar fricatives.

During the articulation of these sounds, the air passage in the mouth is completely closed by the tip and the blade of the tongue coming into contact with the tongue with the alveolar ridge and the rims of the tongue with the upper set of teeth. The front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal cavity. When the tip and the blade of the tongue are released from the teeth ridge, the air escapes through the mouth slowly. / ʧ/ is voiceless and /ʤ/ is voiced.

3.   Fricatives:- In the production of fricatives, the articulators are brought so close together and the air escapes through the narrow passage between them producing an audible friction or hissing sound e.g. /s/, /z/, / θ/, / ð /, /f/, /v/, /h/, / ʃ /, / ʒ /.

Fricatives may be classified as:

i.   Labio-dental fricatives: /f/, /v/. ii. Dental Fricatives; / θ /, / ð /. iii. Alveolar Fricatives: /s/, /z/; iv. Palato-Alveolar Fricatives: / ʃ /, / ʒ /. v. Glottal Fricative: /h/.

4.   Trill or Roll: - During the production of a trill or roll, the articulators come into contact with each other a number of times, producing a series of intermittent taps. E.g. /r/ -rrrrr. During the utterance of /r/ as in 'ring'. The tip of the tongue is tapping

against the teeth ridge. The sound thus produced is called a trill. Instead of a series of taps, if a single tap is made by the articulators quickly coming into contact and getting separated instantly, we have a tap or a flap.

5.   Lateral:- A lateral consonant is produced with the oral passage blocked at the Centre but open at the sides.. English has one lateral consonant /l/ as in 'lake'. For its production, the tip of the tongue is raised to the alveolar ridge, blocking the oral passage at the Centre, the sides of the tongue are lowered allowing the air to escape through the sides freely.

6.   Nasal:- In the production of nasal sounds, the soft palate is kept lowered so that the nasal passage of air is open while the oral passage is completely blocked at some point. The lung air escapes through the nose. The nasals are articulated with a complete oral closure. English has three nasal consonants:/m/, /n/ and / ŋ / Nasals may be classified as follows:

i.   Bi-labial Nasal; /m/ ii.   Alveolar Nasal: /n/ iii.   Velar Nasal / ŋ /.

7.   Frictionless Continuants: - During the articulation of the consonant /r/, which can be prolonged for a long time without any audible friction, the soft palate is raised closing the nasal passage and the tip of the tongue is brought near the rear part of the teeth ridge in such a way that there is sufficient gap between the two for the air to escape freely without audible friction. The /r/ in 'red' and 'right' is articulated as a frictionless continuant.

8.   Semi Vowels:- Semi vowels are gliding sounds during the articulation of which, the speech organs glide from one vowel position to another. /w/as in 'west 'and /j/ as in 'yard' are the semi vowels in English. In the production of /w/, the glide is from the tongue position of approximately /u: / and for /j/, the glide is from the position of /i:/ to some other position. They function like consonants in the structure of a syllable in spite of their vocalic quality. The frictionless continuants and semi vowels together may be called approximants. Such sounds are articulated with a stricture of open approximation. I.e. the gap between them is wide enough for the air to escape without any friction.

THE CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH RP

/p/ as in pin

/b/ as in big

/t/ as in tin

/d/ as in din

/k/ as in kit

/g/ as in give

/f/ as in fan

/v/ as in van

/ θ/ as in thin

/ ð /as in that

/s/ as in sin

/z/ as in zip

/ ʃ / as in ship

/ ʒ / as in pleasure

/h/ as in hat

/ ʧ /as in chat
/ ʤ/ as in jug
/m/ as in man
/n/ as in name
/ ŋ/ as in ink
/j/ as in you
/w/ as in what
/r/ as in rat
/l/ as in lip

PHONOLOGY

A phoneme is the smallest distinctive sound unit in a language. Phonemes are significant sounds in a specified language. There are no universal phonemes. Each language has its own set of phonemes. Phonology is the study of the selection and organization of sounds in a particular language.

The phoneme is the smallest contrastive linguistic unit which may bring about a change of meaning. For example, the sound /p/ in pill makes it different from other words like kill, hill, till, mill etc., all of which are the same as pill except in the initial sound. Each of these words has an initial sound different from the initial sound of each of other sounds and it is this difference in the initial sound of each of these words which makes it different in meaning from the rest. Thus the initial sounds in these words are meaningful units of sound. Two words which differ only in one phoneme are usually called a minimal pair. Minimal pairs are very useful in identifying the phonemes of a language. For instance, if we substitute /k/ in 'cool' with /p/, we get 'pool'. Hence we get /k/ and /p/ as two different phonemes in English. The contrast between such phonemes is functional in English, each one effecting a meaning change when it occurs in the same linguistic environment. Units which effect meaning change in the same linguistic environment are said to be in contrastive distribution. In the above example /k/ and /p/ are in contrastive distribution. They are considered two distinctive phonemes. On the other hand, those phonemes which do not occur in the same linguist environment and which when occur in the same linguistic environment do not bring about a change in meaning are said to be in complementary or non- contrastive distribution. For example, the substitution of the aspirated /k/ for the unaspirated /k/ in the word 'sky' does not alter the meaning of the word. So they are said to be in complementary distribution.

ALLOPHONES

Allophones are the different concrete phonetic variation of the same phoneme. In other words, allophones are the variants of the same phoneme. Let us examine the pronunciation of /k/ in the words 'kill' and 'skill'. The symbol /k/ is used for both the sounds. But the /k/ in kill is accompanied by a strong puff of air called aspiration. The /k/ in 'king' is aspirated; the aspiration can be represented by the symbol 'h' on top of the aspirated sound. The /k/ in 'kill' is aspirated whereas the /k/ in 'skill' is unaspirated. The

aspirated and the unaspirated forms of /k/ are the allophones of the same phoneme.

Similarly, the lateral /l/ has two variants. They are the clear /l/ and the dark /l/. The former is palatalized and the latter is velarized. The clear /l/ and the dark /l/ may be considered to be the allophonic variation of the same phoneme. During the production of the clear /l/, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of hard palate. So it is called palatalized. The clear/l/ occurs in words like the following:

Leave, lull, lead (in these words, /l/ is followed by a vowel)

Million, allure (in these words, the /l/ is followed by /j/) The dark /l/ occurs in words like the following:

Tell, call. Pull (in these words, the /l/ is in the final position)

Fold, pilled, milk (in these words, the /l/ is followed by a consonant)

Thus if /l/ is followed by a vowel or /j/ the clear /l/ occurs whereas the l/l occurs in the final position or is followed by a consonant, the dark /l/ is uttered.

HOMOPHONES

In Greek, the term 'homo' means 'same' and 'phone' means 'sound'. The term 'homophones,' is used to designate words which are spelt differently but pronounced alike and which are different in meaning. We have examples of such words in red (colour) and read /red/ (the past tense of the verb 'read' /ri:d/); 'right' and 'write'; 'site' and 'sight'; 'road' and 'rode'; 'flower' and 'flour' and 'led' and 'lead' (metal). The homophones are kept apart by their difference in spelling and there can't be any ambiguity in the use of homophones in writing.

HOMOGRAPHS

Sometimes it is seen that certain forms have more than one meaning and can be understood in more than one way. This leads to ambiguity in language. We have examples of such words in English as 'bank'; 'bat' and 'tear 'with single spelling and two or more meaning. Such words are generally called homographs.

HOMONYMS

The word 'homonyms' is used to designate words pronounced differently though
spelt identically. we have examples of such words in 'read' /ri:d/ (the present form of the verb) and 'read' /red/ (the past form of the verb); 'lead' /li:d/ (verb) and 'lead' /led/ (metal).

There is the danger of ambiguity in the written form when homonyms are used. But, as a rule, the contexts in which they are used help to avoid real ambiguity or confusion in meaning arising from them.

SYLLABLE

The syllable is a unit of speech which is at a level higher than the speech sound or phoneme. A syllable is the smallest convenient unit of speech. A word is made up of one or more syllables. In every word made up or of more than a single sound, at least one of the sounds is more prominent than the neighboring sounds. If there is only one prominent sound, such a word consists of only one syllable.

Monosyllabic words:

A word having only one syllable is called mono-syllabic word. The structure of monosyllabic words can be as follows:

i.   Mono syllabic words having only the vowel (v)

e.g. 'I' /ai/; 'eye' /ai/

ii.   Monosyllabic words with a vowel+ consonant (v c)

e.g. 'Am' / æm /; 'up' / ʌp/

iii.   Monosyllabic words with consonant + vowel (c v)

e.g. 'be' /biː/; 'he' /hiː/

iv.   Monosyllabic words with consonant + vowel + consonant (c v c)

e.g. 'pen /pen/; 'come' /k ʌ m/

Disyllabic words

Words having two syllables are called disyllabic words

        e.g.   kindly /kaindli/

'pocket' /pɒkit/

'market' /maː kit/

Trysyllabic words

Words having three syllables are called trysyllabic words. e.g. 'furniture /fɜːniʧə/ 'dictionary' /dikʃənri/

'minister' /ministə/

Polysyllabic words

Words with more than three syllables are called polysyllabic words. e.g. 'examination /igzæminei ʃən/

'Electricity; /ilektrisiti

'Linguistics' /liŋgwistiks/

A syllabic division is marked with a hyphen as follows:

Examination /ig-zæm-i-nei- ʃən/

A syllable can be analyzed in terms of vowels and consonants that constitute it. In the word eye /ai/, there is only a single syllable, and it is a vowel and it constitutes the nucleus of the syllable. In words having both consonants and vowel, usually, the vowel or diphthong is more prominent or sonorous. They are the peaks , The number of syllables are decided by the number of prominence. The most prominent sound it a syllable is said to be syllabic and it is called the nucleus. In the word 'calmer'/ka:mə/, there are two syllables. /ka: -mə/. Each syllable in this word begins with a consonant. The consonant with which the syllable begins is called the releasing consonant or onset. The consonant with which the syllable ends is called the arresting consonant or coda. In the word 'bet' there is only one syllable which begins with a consonant /b/ and ends with the consonant/t/. The structure of the syllable ids C V C It begins with a consonant followed by a nucleus /e/ which is a vowel and ends with a consonant. The nucleus which is usually a vowel or w diphthong is the central obligatory element in a syllable. When a syllable does not have a final consonant and ends with a vowel as in 'bee' /bi:/; 'tea' /ti:/. It is called an open syllable.

When a syllable ends in a consonant, it is called a closed syllable.

SYLLABIC CONSONANT

Usually a syllable consists of vowels and consonants. The nucleus of the syallble is normally a vowel or diphthong and the consonants are only marginal elements in a syllable.

But there are some syllables in which the consonants function as nucleus. If the consonant in a syllable is a nucleus, it is called a syllabic consonant.

        e.g.   bottle /bɒtl/

cattle /k ætl/ little /litl/

mutton /m ʌtn/ Sudden /s ʌ dn/ prism /prizm/

In each of these words the second syllable is a consonant with no vowel and this consonant functions as nucleus in the syllable. The English consonants /l, m, n, r, / sometimes function as syllabic consonants. While making the syllabic structure, such consonants will have to be marked 'V'.

SUPRA SEGMENTALS (PROSODIC FEATURES)

The vowels, diphthongs and consonants are called primary phonemes. They are segmental phonemes. In addition to such phonemes, there are certain special features which affect speech sounds such as stress, pitch length or intonation and juncture. They may be called sound attributes or supra segmental phonemes. They are also called secondary phonemes or prosodic features.

STRESS

In words of more than one syllable, all the syllables are not articulated with the same force. Some are uttered with more prominence than others. Those that are uttered with greater force or breath effort & muscular energy are said to be the stressed or accented syllable. Stress is the degree of force with which a sound of syllable is uttered. Stress is the prominence or relative loudness given to a syllable. There are different degrees of prominence: extra loud, loud, medium & weak etc… The extra loud is used for the sake of emphasis .Generally two stresses are marked: loud or primary & medium or secondary syllables which receive the primary stress are marked with a vertical bar [ ] above and before the syllable that is stressed. Syllables which receive the secondary stress are marked with a vertical bar [ ] below & before the syllable that is stressed e.g.: examination /igzæmi′nei ∫ən /, resignation /resig′nei∫ən/

If prominence is given to the syllables in isolated words it is called word stress, prominence given to syllables in sentences itis called sentence stress.

There are no rules for determining which syllable in a word is to be stressed. Native speakers of a language know intuitively which syllable receives primary stress & which syllable receive the secondary stress & which are not stressed at all. But it is difficult for a non-native speaker to determine the accent on the correct syllable. This is due to the fact + that in English words, the accent is both free & fixed. FREE ACCENT

It is free in the sense that it is not associated with a particular syllable in many of the words of English. For e.g.: there are number of disyllable words in English with accent on the first syllable. There are also a number of disyllable words with accent on the second syllable.

EXAMPLES

Disyllabic words with stress on the first syllable

Lady /′leidi/

Enter /'entə /

Father/'fa:ðə/

Letter /'letə/

Pleasure /'pleʒə /

Disyllabic words with stress on the second syllable

Depend /di'pend/

About / ə'baut/

Forgive /fə'giv/

Escape /is'keip/

Beside /bi'said/

Trisyllabic words with stress on the first syllable

Customer /'kʌstəmə/

Anywhere /'eniweə/

Calculate /'kælkjəleit/

Educate /'edʒukeit/

Trisyllabic words with stress on the second syllable

Manner /'mænə/

Magnetic/''mægnətik/

Recorder /'rikɔ:də/

Polysyllabic words with different stress patterns

Examination /igzæmi'neiʃən/

Establishment /i'stæbliʃmənt/

Controversy /'kɒntrəvɜ:si/

Psychology /sai'kɒlədʒi/]

Psychological/sai'kə'lɒdʒikəl/

Politician /pɒli'tiʃən/

STRESS SHIFT IN DERIVATIVES

Another difficulty about English word accent is due to shift in the accent, common in derivatives. There are a number of words in which there is no stress shift in the derivation.

        E.g.:   Agree / ə'gri:/

Agreement/ ə'gri:mənt/

But there are a number of derivatives in which there is a shift in accent causing slight changes in pronunciation.

1.   Photograph /'f əutəgra: f/ Photographic/'fəutə'græfik/ Photographer/fəu'təgra:fə/

2.   Politics/'pɒlitiks/ Political/pɒ'litik əl/

Politician/pɒli'tiʃən/

3.   Examine /i'gzæmin/

Examination/igzæmi'neiʃən /,

STRESS IN COMPOUND WORDS

The words which are composed of two or more separate words are called compound words. In most compound words in English, the primary accent falls on one of the two elements, usually the first, others have double stress.

e.g.

1. PRIMARY SYLLABLE ON THE FIRST

Tea party /'ti:pa:ti/

Birthday /'bɜ:θdei/

2.   PRIMARY ACCENT ON THE SECOND SYLLABLE.

[Compound words with ever & self as second element]

Him self /him'self/

What ever /wɒt'evə/

3.   Compound words in which both the elements are stressed but primary stress falls on the second element.

Absent minded /ˌæbsənt'maindid/

Bad tempered /ˌbæd'tempɜ:d/

Good looking /ˌgud'lukiŋ/

Stress in words used as different parts of speech.

There are a number of disyllabic words in English in which word stress depends upon whether the words are used as nouns, adjectives or verbs. If the words are used as nouns or adjectives, their stress is on the first syllable & if these are used as verb, the stress is on the second syllable.

EXAMPLES

Word	Noun/Adjective	Verb
Export	/'ekspɔ:t/	/iks'pɔ:t/
Conduct	/'kɒndʌt/	/kən'dʌt/
Contact	/'kɒntækt/	/kɒn'tækt/
Import	/'impɔ:t/	/im'pɔ:t/
Absent	/'æbsənt/	/æb'sənt/
Perfect	/'pɜ:fikt/	/pə'fekt/
Object	/'ɒbdʒikt/	/əb'dʒekt/

SENTENCE STRESS

Where the word stress is the accent on one syllable in a word, sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence. In English speech, not all words are uttered alike some words are stressed, where as others are not stressed. There is no set rule for determining which word in a sentence is stressed. However as a general rule, words in a sentence are stressed on the basis of whether they are lexical word, (content words) or structure words (grammatical words). Lexical words are the key words in a sentence. They are the important words that carry the meaning or sense. All nouns, demonstratives & interrogative pronouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc…belong to the class of words called lexical words.

Such words are stressed. Structure words or grammatical words on the other hand are semantically insignificant but they indicate grammatical relationship. Pronouns, Articles, demonstrations, prepositions, auxiliaries, relative pronouns, conjunctions etc belong to this category. Such words are not usually stressed.

ILLUSTRATION

ʹThis is the ʹhouse that ʹJack ʹbuilt

ʹWhat's the ʹname of the ʹgirl on your ʹleft

Who's ʹturned ʹoff the ʹfan

ʹMary ʹbought a ʹnew ʹpen ʹTime and ʹtide ʹwaits for no ʹman

There is ʹnothing to be ʹdone

′Go and ′get me a ′glass of ′water ′quickly

In the above sentences, the content words are stressed and purely grammatical words are not stressed.

RHYTHM

One of the important characteristics of English language is that it is a language with a stress-timed rhythm. This means that in English stressed syllables tend to occur at a regular intervals of time.

E.g. This is the dress I like

The time intervals between the accented syllables, 'this', 'dress' and 'like' will be the same irrespective of the number of unaccented syllables, the time intervals between them will be roughly the same. It is this phenomenon that gives English its characteristic rhythm. Such a phenomenon is called isochrony. In order to achieve the regularity of time interval, accented syllables may have to be prolonged and unaccented ones are pronounced rapidly.

JUNCTURE

Juncture refers to the phenomenon of pauses in speech, the pause that we make between two words to make out the meaning. Juncture does not refer to transition from one sound to the next within a word but to a transition from one word to the next. Thus the sequence of sounds such as /piːstɔːks/ may either mean "pea-stalks" or "peace talks", depending on where the juncture or pause is

OTHER EXAMPLES

/aiskriːm/ -> I scream /ai/ / skriːm/ ; ice cream /ais/ /kriːm/

/ədres/ -> a dress   /ə//dres/ ; address /ədres/

PITCH AND INTONATION

In connected speech, the pitch of the voice is continuously rising and falling. The pitch of the voice is determined by the rate at which the vocal cords vibrate the more rapidly the vocal cords vibrate, the higher will be the pitch. The voice -pitch keeps on varying in connected speech.

There are four pitch levels ranging from the lowest, marked [1], to the highest, marked [4] pitch [2] forms the base upon which most utterance begin. The voice normally rises to [3]. Just before the end of an utterance which is followed by a terminal contour (TC) that characteristics the end. The TC may be rising [ ] falling [ ] or level [ ]

INTONATION

The term intonation is used to cover both the pattern of changes in pitch and the terminal contour. Intonation refers to significant changes of pitch and stress pertaining to sentences. Falling and rising are the two basic intonation patterns.

e.g. "sa-ri-ga-ma-padha-ni-sa

The pitch movement is from low to high [pitch rises]

"sa-ni dha-pa-ma-ga-risa"

The pitch moves from high to low [pitch falls]

The pitch movement from a low to a high pitch taking place within a single syllable is referred to as a rising intonation.

e.g. one, two, three

In listing the item the last one has fall.

"One, two and three"

Such a pitch move from a high to a low pitch is referred to as a falling intonation.

The rising & the falling intonation can be combined & the word uttered bringing the pitch down & letting it go up again. Such a pitch movement is called a fall-rise intonation.

The same sequence of words for instance. "The lady is beautiful" can be uttered with any of the three intonation pattern. If it is uttered with a falling intonation, the speaker makes a statement. If on the other hand, it is uttered with a rising intonation it becomes as good as questioning the attitude of another person. However, if the same sentence is uttered with a rising- falling intonation the implication is that there is something wrong about the lady though she is beautiful.

The falling force is marked with a downward arrow [↘] before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice falls, and the rising tone is marked with an upward arrow [ ] before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice rises.

FUNCTIONS OF INTONATION

1.   The falling tone: the falling tone is used in the following contexts

Decorative sentences uttered as ordinary statements without any emotional implication and when the tone group is fixed as in

I went to the ↘ party

I have a lot of ↘ friends

It is ↘ raining

[if the tone group is non-final, that is when there is something to follow, we use a rising tone as in

"He won the prize //as hisperformance was good"

a)   W.H questions take a falling tone when uttered in the normal way i.e. expecting some information in the reply and sometimes in a cold unfriendly way:-

Why are you ↘ late? Where do you ↘ live? How did you do ↘ it?

b)   Commands take a falling tone

e.g. 'open your $\searrow$ books

'Do as I say

c)   Exclamations also take the falling tone What a lovely $\searrow$ sight!

'What a fine $\searrow$ day!

d)   In tag questions which imply that the speaker is certain about what he/she and just expects the listener to confirm what is said. e.g. Heis well // isn't he //

Wedon't want to go // do we?//

On the other hand, if we want the listener to answer the questions, then a rising tone will be used.

2.   Rising tone

The rising tone is generally used in the following contexts

a)   In complete utterance, often the first of the two clauses in a complex sentence, which indicates something more to follow, i.e. (when the tone group is non-final)

He is late // because he missed the bus //

b)   In listing the items, we use, a rise for each expect the last one as in :One // two // three // four //

Thefall on "four" indicate that the counting is complete Similarly

"I bought, book, pencils, papers and apen"

c)   In declaration sentences used as questions

"We will go for awalk?"

You are ready for the test?

d)   In "yes/no" questions as in

Are you dreaming?

Has your friend come? Have you read the book?

e)   In polite requests as in :-

Please pass the salt Please open the door Will you help me?

f)   In W.H questions asked in a warm and friendly way indicating extra politeness an interest as in

Why are you late? Where did you go?

g)   In tag questions where the speaker wants the listener to answer the question andgive information.

She has done the work // hasn't she?

You are coming //aren't you?

3.   Fall rise tone

The use of the fall rise tone indicates that the speaker implies things which are not explicitly expressed. A fall rise tone gives the impression that the listener should understand more than a literal interpretation of the words or more than what is said. For example the sentence "the girl

is pretty" is uttered with a fall rise tone as in "the 'girl is pretty", it implies that she is pretty but she is stupid or there is something morally wrong about her.

Other examples

The houses are nice (but not the people there)

I saw you at the cinema (you went out after getting Permission to go to temple)

ASSIMILATION

The English language has undergone so many changes in the pronunciation. Definite causes can be attributed to most of such changes. Assimilation is one type of historical change which throws light on the changeable nature of pronunciation.

Assimilation may be defined as the process by which one speech sound is changed to a second, under the influence of a third.

For example in the word income tax /iŋkəmtæks/, the alveolar /n/ changes to the velar /ŋ/ under the influence of the following velar /k/. Leonard Bloom field in his book "language" points out that in assimilation , the position of the speech agents for the production of one sound is altered to a position more like that of a neighbouring sound. The changes of /n/ to / ŋ/ in income tax are an example. Here the second syllable of 'income' is reduced in stress so that it becomes /ə/ in /kəm/ instead of /kʌm/. Another example is

newsprint /nju:z + pint/   becomes /nju:sprint/. The change may be allophonic or phonemic. That is the replacement may be by an allophone of the same phoneme or by another phoneme.

Assimilation may be of three types

1.   Progressive
2.   Regressive
3.   Reciprocal

1) If the assimilation is the result of a   preceding sound influencing the following sound, we have progressive assimilation.

        E.g.   cats /kæts/; lamps /læmps/

Dogs /dɒgz/; bags /bægz/

In these examples the plural phoneme 's' or 'es' is manifested as |s| or |z| depending

o whether the preceding phoneme is voiced or voiceless.

If the preceding phoneme is voiceless, as the plural phoneme is also manifested as voiceless i.e. |s| as in lamps /læmps/. If on the other hand, the preceding phoneme is voiced, the plural phoneme is also manifested as voiced i.e. /z/ as in bags

2)   Regressive assimilation is the result of the following sound influencing the preceding one as in ink /Iŋk/. In this word, the alveolar, /n/ is replaced by the velar / ŋ / under the influence of the following velar sound /k/.

3)   In reciprocal assimilation the two sounds influence each other and combine to produce a third sound which is a sort of compromise between the two. The British pronunciation of issue /isju/ is difficult for most Americans and they habitually use the assimilated /iʃju/. Similarly we have the reciprocal assimilation in the modern pronunciation of the word vision /viʒən/ from the earlier /vizjan/.

ELISION

In order to maintain the rhythm of English we have to pronounce the unaccented syllables rapidly and, in doing so, certain sounds, syllables or even words are omitted in continuous speech. The term elision refers to suchomissions. Thus theword 'them' which is pronounced /ðem/ in isolation may be heard as /ðm/ in connected speech. In other words, the vowel in this gets elided.

Other examples:

Cup o' tea (elision of f)

After a while /a:ftrəwail/ /elision of /ə/

INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (IPA)

IPA is a system of phonetic notation composed of symbols and letters. The English language shows a remarkable discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation. Ebglish uses the same letter or letters for different sounds. Words like bought, enough and cough are examples. The vowel /i/ occurs in words like sit, women and village in different spellings. In order to identify the speech sounds accurately, it is very necessary to have a notation composed of symbols. That is why the phonetic alphabet was devised. The IPA came into existence in the year 1889. It was devised by the International Phonetic Association established by a group of European Phoneticians to promote the study of phonetics.

In phonetic transcription, each letter represents one sound only. There are two main types of phonetic transcription:

i.   Phonemic or broad transcription ii. Phonetic or narrow transcription.

In phonemic transcription, allophonic forms are not taken into considerations. Only the units which account for meaning difference are considered. For instance, the /p/ in 'pin' is aspirated whereas it is unaspirated in 'spin'. But in phonemic transcription, both are represented alike. The allophonic variation is not considered. Oblique lines // enclose phonemic transcription;

In phonetic transcription, allophonic variations, and all the suprasegmental features such as stress, and intonation are indicated. Square braclets [ ] enclose phonetic transcription.

STANDARD ENGLISH AND RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION

English has risen to the status of an international language. Several factors have contributed to the popularity of English. Like most languages, English has also more than one distinguishable variety. There are a number of varieties of the language spoken within the country itself. Of the various dialects, one variety, the south-east spoken in around London came to be accepted as a standard variety. London being the administrative centre and the cultural capital of the country, this dialect gained superiority over other dialects and th   th

gradually came to be called Standard English. In the 18 and the 19 centuries, education was restricted to the upper classes and the upper middle classes. They wanted to distinguish themselves from others and they maintained a uniform style of speech. The public schools which dominated the educational field around this time influenced them very much. The pronunciation practiced by the higher classes educated at the public schools came to be known as Received Pronunciation or RP. In short, the terms Standard English and Received Pronunciation indicate the way of using English by the educated people whose speech give no indication of their regional origins. However RP itself has lost some of its prestige in the wake of democracy and consequent loss of monopoly in power and education formerly enjoyed by the public schools. Today, many educated English men without a public school background do speak in their regional accent and claim acceptance along with RP speakers. The RP still enjoys status as prestige variety. A linguist will not regard any variety of language better or worse than any other variety.

REVIEW EXERCISES

A. Answer the following questions in one or two sentences.

1.   What is phonology?

Phonology is concerned with the selection and organization of speech sounds in a language.

2.   How do we get the energy required for the production of speech sounds?

The air that is expelled from the lungs through the wind pipe gives the energy required for the production of speech sounds

3.   Which kind of air-stream forms the basis of most speech sounds?

Pulmonic air-stream mechanism is the basis of all sounds in English language and in most languages in India.

4.   Which are the three branches of phonetics?

The three branches of phonetics are: articulatory phonetics (production od speech sounds), acoustic phonetics (transmission of sounds) and auditory phonetics (reception of speech sounds)

5.   What is the position of the vocal cords in the production of voiced sounds?

In the production of voiced sounds, the vocal cords are kept together and they vibrate when the air passes through them.

6.   What is the position of the velum in the production of nasal sounds?

In the production of nasal sounds the velum or the soft palate is kept lowered so that the oral passage of air is completely blocked and the air escapes through the nose.

7.   What is a triphthong?

A triphthong is a monosyllabic vowel combination of a diphthong and the weak vowel /ə/. A triphthong involves a quick but smooth movement of the articulator from one vowel quality to another that passes over a third one. E.g. trial /traiəl/, tire /taiə/.

8.   How is the sound /ʧ/ articulated?

/ʧ/ is a palate-alveolar fricative. During the production of this sound, the air passage in the mouth is completely closed by the tip and the blade of the tongue coming into contact with the alveolar ridge and the rims of the tongue with the upper set of teeth. The front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal cavity. When the tip and blade of the tongue are released from the teeth ridge, the air escapes through the mouth slowly

9.   What are semi vowels?Semi vowels are gliding sounds during the articulation of which, the speech organs glide from one vowel position to another. /w/as in 'west 'and /j/ as in 'yard' are the semi vowels in English.

10.   What are minimal pairs?

Two words which differ only in one phoneme are usually called a minimal pair.

Minimal pairs are very useful in identifying the phonemes of a language. For instance, if we substitute /k/ in 'cool' with /p/, we get 'pool'.

11.   What is complementary distribution?

12.   What is contrastive distribution?

13.   What are allophones? Give examples.Allophones are the different concrete phonetic variation of the same phoneme. In

other words; allophones are the variants of the same phoneme. The /k/ in 'kill' is aspirated whereas the /k/ in 'skill' is unaspirated. The aspirated and the unaspirated forms of /k/ are the allophones of the same phoneme.

14.   What is a syllable?

The syllable is a unit of speech which is at a level higher than the speech sound or phoneme. A syllable is the smallest convenient unit of speech

15.   What is a syllabic consonant?

There are some syllables in which the consonants function as nucleus. If the consonant in a syllable is a nucleus, it is called a syllabic consonant.

E.g.   bottle /bɒtl/ cattle /k ætl

16.   Suprasegmental phonemes.

There are certain special features which affect speech sounds such as stress, pitch length or intonation and juncture. They may be called sound attributes or supra segmental phonemes. They are also called secondary phonemes or prosodic features.

17.   What is assimilation?

Assimilation may be defined as the process by which one speech sound is changed to a second, under the influence of a third.

For example in the word income tax /iŋkəmtæks/, the alveolar /n/changes to the velar /ŋ/ under the influence of the following velar /k/.

18.   IPA

IPA is a system of phonetic notation composed of symbols and letters devised to identify the speech sounds accurately, it is very necessary to have a notation composed of symbols.. The IPA came into existence in the year 1889. It was devised by the

International Phonetic Association established by a group of European Phoneticians.

19.   RP

The pronunciation practiced by the higher classes educated at the public schools came to be called Received Pronunciation.

20.   Standard English

Of the various dialects in England, the south east dialect spoken in and around London came to be accepted as a standard variety. The dialect gained superiority over other dialects and gradually came to be called Standard English. B. Answer the following questions in a paragraph:

1. How are diphthongs in English classified?

Diphthongs are vowel glides or vowels with a changing quality. The glide should take place within one syllable.

The Diphthongs of English R.P may be classified as follows:

Closing Diphthongs:

Diphthongs in which the glide is from one vowel position to that of a close or high vowel may be called closing diphthongs. The closing diphthongs of English R.P are: /ei/ as in make /meik/ ; / ɔi/ as in boy /bɔi/ ; /ai/ as in high /hai/ ; /əu/as in go /gəu/; /au/ as in how

/hau/

The closing diphthongs may be classified as follows:

Fronting diphthongs

Retracting diphthongs Fronting diphthongs:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the front vowel/i/ are called fronting diphthongs. e.g. /ei/, / ɔi/, /ai/ Retracting diphthongs:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the back vowel /u/ are called retracting diphthongs.

e.g. /au/, / əu/ Centring Diphthongs:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the Central vowel / ə / are called centring diphthongs. There are three centring diphthongs in English R.P. They are:

/i ə/as in ear, /e ə/ as in air, /uə/as in poor.

Diphthongs may also be classified as follows:

4.   Falling Diphthongs.

5.   Rising Diphthongs.

Falling Diphthongs

Diphthongs in which the first element has greater prominence than the second element are called falling diphthongs; the prominence of the sound undergoes a diminution as it passes on to the second sound. All the closing diphthongs and the centring diphthong /eə/ in English are falling diphthongs. In all these diphthongs, the second element is less prominent than the first.

Rising Diphthongs

The diphthongs with a stronger second element are called rising diphthongs. For example, in the second syllable of the word 'period; /piˈəriˈəd/, the first element of the diphthong may be the weaker of the two elements. The prominence increases as the articulation proceeds as in the case of the word 'experience'. The first /iˈə/ in /ikspiəriəns/ is falling whereas the second one is rising.

Classification of consonants with regard to the place of articulation

Consonants are sounds in the production of which there is an obstruction of the air passage narrowing the oral cavity. As a result, an audible frictional noise accompanies during articulation. The obstruction can be of various kinds and at different points in the oral cavity causing different sounds to be produced. Consonants are classified on the basis of the place of articulation and the manner of articulation. Consonants are either voiced or voiceless sounds.

Classification of consonants on the basis of place of articulation: According to the point of articulation or the point of stricture, consonants are classified as follows:

10.   Bilabial:- The bilabial sounds are articulated by the two lips resulting in the consonants /p/. /b/, /m/, /w/. The lower lip is the active articulator and the upper lip is the passive articulator.

11.   Labio-dental. They are articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth resulting in /f/. and /v/.

12.   Dental:- They are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth as / θ / in 'thin' and / ð/ in 'this'

13.   Alveolar: - They are articulated by the tip of the tongue or the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge as in /t/./ d/. / n/./ l/. /s/./ z/

14.   Post-Alveolar:- They are produced involving the tip of the tongue and the back part of the teeth ridge as /r/in 'right'

15.   Palato-Alveollar:- They are articulated by the tip and the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge with raising of the front of the tongue towards the palate i.e. along with the alveolar articulation, the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, e.g. / ʃ / as in ship, / ʒ / as in pleasure, / ʧ /as in church and /dʒ/ as in judge.

16.   Palatal:- They are articulated by raising the front of the tongue towards the hard palate. /j/ as in 'young' /jʌ ŋ/ is the only palatal sound in English.

17.   Velar:- They are articulated by raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate(velum). k/, /g/ and /ŋ/ are examples.

18.   Glottal or Laryngeal: - They are articulated in the glottis. Both vocal cords are active articulators. E.g. /h/ as in the word 'he'. In the production of /h/, the glottis is completely closed and air is compressed by pressure from lungs. Then the glottis is opened by separating the vocal cords and the air escapes suddenly. It is neither breathed nor voiced.

3.   Phonology

Phonology is concerned with the selection and organization of speech sounds or phonemes in a language. The phoneme is the smallest contrastive linguistic unit which may bring about a change of meaning. For example, the sound /p/ in pill makes it different from other words like kill, hill, till, mill etc., all of which are the same as pill except in the initial sound. Each of these words has an initial sound different from the initial sound of each of the other sounds and it is this difference in the initial sound of each of these words which makes it different in meaning from the rest. Thus the initial sounds in these words are meaningful units of sound. Two words which differ only in one phoneme are usually called a minimal pair. Minimal pairs are very useful in identifying the phonemes of a language. For instance, if we substitute /k/ in 'cool' with /p/, we get 'pool'. Hence we get /k/ and /p/ as two different phonemes in English. The contrast between such phonemes is functional in English, each one effecting a meaning change when it occurs in the same linguistic environment. Units which effect meaning change in the same linguistic environment are said to be in contrastive distribution. In the above example /k/ and /p/ are in contrastive distribution. They are considered two distinctive phonemes. On the other hand, those phonemes which do not occur in the same linguist environment and which when occur in the same linguistic environment do not bring about a change in meaning are said to be in complementary or non- contrastive distribution. For example, the substitution of the aspirated /k/ for the un- aspirated /k/ in the word 'sky' does not alter the meaning of the word. So they are said to be in complementary distribution.

4.   Suprasegmental phonemes

There are certain special features which affect speech sounds such as stress, pitch length or intonation and juncture. They may be called sound attributes or supra segmental phonemes. They are also called secondary phonemes or prosodic features. Stress is the degree of force with which a sound of syllable is uttered. Stress is the prominence or relative loudness given to a syllable. Generally two stresses are marked: loud or primary & medium or secondary. Syllables which receive the primary stress are marked with a vertical bar ['] above and before the syllable that is stressed. Syllables which receive the secondary stress are marked with a vertical bar [,] below & before the syllable that is stressed e.g.: examination /,igzæmi' nei ʃən /, resignation /resig' neiʃən/. One of the important characteristics of English language is that it is a language with a stress-timed rhythm. This means that in English stressed syllables tend to occur at a regular intervals of time.

Juncture refers to the phenomenon of pauses in speech, the pause that we make between two words to make out the meaning. Juncture does not refer to transition from one sound to the next within a word but to a transition from one word to the next. Thus the sequence of sounds such as /pi:st ɔ: ks/may either mean "pea- stalks" or "peace talks", depending on where the juncture or pause is. The term Intonation refers to significant changes of pitch and stress pertaining to sentences. Falling and rising are the two basic intonation patterns. The rising & the falling intonation can be combined & the word uttered bringing the pitch down & letting it go up again. Such a pitch movement is called a fallrise intonation. The same sequence of words for instance. "The lady is beautiful" can be uttered with any of the three intonation pattern. If it is uttered with a falling intonation, the speaker makes a statement. If on the other hand, it is uttered with a rising intonation it becomes as good as questioning the attitude of another person. However, if the same sentence is uttered with a rising- falling intonation the implication is that there is something wrong about the lady though she is beautiful. The falling force is marked with a downward arrow [↘] before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice falls, and the rising tone is marked with an upward arrow [ ] before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice rises.

5.   Assimilation.

Assimilation may be defined as the process by which one speech sound is changed to a second, under the influence of a third.

For example in the word income tax /iŋkəmtæks/, the alveolar /n/ changes to the velar /ŋ/   under the influence of the following velar /k/. Leonard Bloom field in his book "language" points out that in assimilation , the position of the speech

agents for the production of one sound is altered to a position more like that of a neighbouring sound.

Assimilation may be of three types:

1.   Progressive
2.   Regressive
3.   Reciprocal

1)   If the assimilation is the result of a   preceding sound influencing the following sound, we have progressive assimilation.

        E.g.   cats /kæts/;   lamps /læmps/

Dogs /dɒgz/; bags /bægz/

2)   Regressive assimilation is the result of the following sound influencing the preceding one as in ink /Iŋk/. In this word, the alveolar, /n/ is replaced by the velar / ŋ /

under the influence of the following velar sound /k/.

3)   In reciprocal assimilation the two sounds influence each other and combine to produce a third sound which is a sort of compromise between the two. The British pronunciation of issue /isju/ is difficult for most Americans and they habitually use the assimilated /iʃju/.

Essay Questions

1. Describe the pure vowels of English RP.

Vowels are voiced sounds during the production of which the air escapes through the freely and continuouslywithout any audible frictional voice.

All other articulated mouth sounds are consonants.

Vowels are articulated with a stricture of open approximation, i.e. the active articulator, the tongue, is raised towards the passive articulator, the roof of the mouth, in such a way that there is sufficient space between them for the air to escape freely and continuously.

In English R.P (Received Pronunciation), there are twenty distinct vowel sounds. Of these twelve are monophthongs or pure vowels and the remaining eight are diphthongs.

The twelve pure vowels are given below with their three term labels:

1. /i:/ as in beat   /bi:t/ - long unrounded, front, close.

2. /i/ as in bit   /bit/   -short unrounded, front (slightly retracted),
half close(slightlyraised)

3. /e/ as in bet   /bet/   -unrounded, front, open (closer to half open)

4. /æ/ as in bat /bæt/   -unrounded, front open(closer to half open)

5. /ʌ/ as in but   /bʌt/   -unrounded, central, half open

6. / ɑ:/ as in   bard /bɑ:d/-unrounded,back, open

7. /ɒ/as inGod /gɒd/-rounded, back, open

8. /ɔ:/ as in caught /Kɔ:t/ - rounded, back half open

9. /u/ as in put /put/   - rounded back, slightly fronted, half close
(slightly raised)

10. /u:/ as in boot /bunt/ -rounded, back open

11. /3:/as in bird /b3:d/   -unrounded central, between half-close and half open

12. /ə/as in ago /əgəu / -unrounded central, between half close and half open Classification of Vowels:

Vowels can be classified along the following dimensions:

i.   The position of the lips.

ii.   The part of the tongue that is raised. iii.   The height to which the tongue is raised.

According to the position of lips vowels can be divided into two categories:

i.   Round Vowels.

ii.   Unrounded Vowels

Rounded vowels are those vowels during the production of which the lips are rounded. E.g. /u: / as in cool; and / ɔ: / as in short

There are two main types of rounding called 'close lip rounding' and 'open lip rounding'.

Unrounded vowels are those during the production of which the lips are opened or neutral. E.g. Vowels like /i: / as in 'sea' and /e/ as in 'get'

According to the part of the tongue that is used, Vowels can be classified into three categories:

i. Front Vowels ii.   Back Vowels iii.   Centre Vowels Front vowels are those vowels during the production of which the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. There will be

sufficient space between the front of the tongue and the hard palate for the air to escape without any friction.

e.g. /i:/ as in 'beat'; /e/ as in 'bet'

Back Vowels are those vowels during the production of which the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate.

e.g. /a: / as in 'calm'. /u: / as in 'cool'

Centre Vowels are those vowels during the production of which the Centre of the tongue is raised towards that part of the roof of the mouth where the hard palate and soft palate meet.

e.g. / ʌ / as in 'but' and / ɜ: / as in 'bird'

According to the height to which the tongue is raised, vowels can be classified into four categories:

i. High/close ii. Low/ open

iii.   Half high/Half close iv.   Half low/ half open.

i.   High/close vowels:

These are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is raised close to the roof of the mouth.

e.g. /i: / as in 'beat'; /u: / as in 'fool'.

ii.   Low/open vowels:

These are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is kept low in the oral cavity. E.g. / ɑ: / as in 'calm'; / æ / as in 'cat'.

iii.   Half high/half close

For half high/ half close, the tongue occupies the position one third of the distance from close to open iv.   Half low/ half open

For half open, the tongue occupies a position two third of the distance from close to open.

The state of tension of the tongue is factor affection the quality of the vowel. In the production of the vowel/i: / there is greater tension of the tongue. There is less tension of the tongue in the production of the vowel /i/ as in 'sit'. On the basis of this criterion, vowels can be classified as follows:

i. Tense vowels ii.   Lax vowels Tense vowels are those vowels which require considerable muscular tension on the

part of the tongue. E.g., /i: / as in 'leap'

Lax vowels are those vowels in which the tongue is held loosely.

E.g. /i/ as I 'lip'

The three term label i.e. rounded/unrounded vowel (on the basis of the position of the lips); front /back/central vowel (on the basis of the part of the tongue that is raised in the production of vowels) and close/open/half close/ half open (on the basis of the height to which the tongue is raised) are not sufficient to describe the actual vowels in the language accurately. For this purpose, cardinal Vowel system has been developed.

2. Write an essay on the suprasegmental features of the English Language.

There are certain special features which affect speech sounds such as stress, pitch length or intonation and juncture. They may be called sound attributes or supra segmental phonemes. They are also called secondary phonemes or prosodic features.

Stress: Stress is the degree of force with which a sound of syllable is uttered. Stress is the prominence or relative loudness given to a syllable. There are different degrees of prominence: extra loud, loud, medium & weak etc… The extra loud is used for the sake of

emphasis. Generally two stresses are marked: loud or primary & medium or secondary syllables which receive the primary stress are marked with a vertical bar [ ] above and before the syllable that is stressed. Syllables which receive the secondary stress are marked with a vertical bar [ ] below & before the syllable that is stressed e.g.: examination /igzæmi'nei ʃən /, resignation /resig'neiʃən/

If prominence is given to the syllables in isolated words it is called word stress, prominence given to syllables in sentences is called sentence stress

There are a number of disyllabic words in English in which word stress depends upon whether the words are used as nouns, adjectives or verbs. If the words are used as nouns or adjectives, their stress is on the first syllable & if these are used as verb, the stress is on the second syllable.

EXAMPLES

Word	Noun/Adjective	Verb
Export	/'ekspɔ:t/	/iks'pɔ:t/
Conduct	/'kɒndʌt/	/kən'dʌt/
Contact	/'kɒntækt/	/kɒn'tækt/
Import	/'impɔ:t/	/im'pɔ:t/
Absent	/'æbsənt/	/æb'sənt/
Perfect	/'pɜ:fikt/	/pə'fekt/
Object	/'ɒbdʒikt/	/əb'dʒekt/

SENTENCE STRESS

In English speech, not all words are uttered alike some words are stressed, where as others are not stressed. There is no set rule for determining which word in a sentence is stressed. However as a general rule, words in a sentence are stressed on the basis of whether they are lexical word, (content words) or structure words (grammatical words). Lexical words are the key words in a sentence. They are the important words that carry the meaning or sense. All nouns, demonstratives & interrogative pronouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc…belong to the class of words called lexical words. Such words are stressed.

Structure words or grammatical words on the other hand are semantically insignificant but they indicate grammatical relationship. Pronouns, Articles, demonstrations, prepositions, auxiliaries, relative pronouns, conjunctions etc belong to this category. Such words are not usually stressed.

ILLUSTRATION

′This is the ′house that ′Jack ′built

′What's the ′name of the ′girl on your ′left

Who's ′turned ′off the ′fan

′Mary ′bought a ′new ′pen

′Time and ′tide ′waits for no ′man

There is ′nothing to be ′done

′Go and ′get me a ′glass of ′water ′quickly

In the above sentences, the content words are stressed and purely grammatical words are not stressed.

RHYTHM

One of the important characteristics of English language is that it is a language with a stress-timed rhythm. This means that in English stressed syllables tend to occur at a regular intervals of time.

E.g. this is the dress I like

The time intervals between the accented syllables, 'this', 'dress' and 'like' will be the same irrespective of the number of unaccented syllables, the time intervals between them will be roughly the same. It is this phenomenon that gives English its characteristic rhythm. Such a phenomenon is called isochrony. In order to achieve the regularity of time interval, accented syllables may have to be prolonged and unaccented ones are pronounced rapidly

JUNCTURE

Juncture refers to the phenomenon of pauses in speech, the pause that we make between two words to make out the meaning. Juncture does not refer to transition from one sound to the next within a word but to a transition from one word to the next. Thus the sequence of sounds such as /pi:stɔ:ks/ may either mean "pea-stalks" or "peace talks", depending on where the juncture or pause is

INTONATION

The term intonation is used to cover both the pattern of changes in pitch and the terminal contour. Intonation refers to significant changes of pitch and stress pertaining to sentences. Falling and rising are the two basic intonation patterns.

The same sequence of words for instance. "The lady is beautiful" can be uttered with

any of the three intonation pattern. If it is uttered with a falling intonation, the speaker makes a statement. If on the other hand, it is uttered with a rising intonation it becomes as good as questioning the attitude of another person. However, if the same sentence is uttered with a rising- falling intonation the implication is that there is something wrong about the lady though she is beautiful.

FUNCTIONS OF INTONATION

The falling tone: the falling tone is used in the following contexts Decorative sentences uttered as ordinary statements without any emotional implication and when the tone group is fixed as in

I went to the ↘ party

W.H questions take a falling tone when uttered in the normal way i.e. expecting some information in the reply and sometimes in a cold unfriendly way:Why are you ↘ late?

Commands take a falling tone e.g. 'open your ↘ books

'Do as I say

Exclamations also take the falling tone 'What a lovely ↘ sight!

'What a fine ↘ day!

In tag questions which imply that the speaker is certain about what he/she and just expects the listener to confirm what is said.

    e.g.   He is well // isn't he //

We don't want to go // do we? //

On the other hand, if we want the listener to answer the questions, then a rising tone will be used.

Rising tone

The rising tone is generally used in the following contexts

In complete utterance, often the first of the two clauses in a complex sentence, which indicates something more to follow, i.e. (when the tone group is non-final)

He is late // because he missed the bus //

In listing the items, we use, a rise for each expect the last one as in:-

One // two // three // four //

The fall on "four" indicate that the counting is complete

Similarly

"I bought, book, pencils, papers and a pen"

In declaration sentences used as questions "We will go for a walk?"

You are ready for the test?

In "yes/no" questions as in

Are you dreaming?

Has your friend come?

Have you read the book?

In polite requests as in :Please pass the salt

Please open the door Will you help me?

In W.H questions asked in a warm and friendly way indicating extra politeness an interest as in

Why are you late?

Where did you go?

In tag questions where the speaker wants the listener to answer the question and give information.

She has done the work // hasn't she?

You are coming //aren't you?

4. Fall rise tone

The use of the fall rise tone indicates that the speaker implies things which are not explicitly expressed. A fall rise tone gives the impression that the listener should understand more than a literal interpretation of the words or more than what is said. For example the sentence "the girl is pretty" is uttered with a fall rise tone as in "the 'girl is pretty", it implies that she is pretty but she is stupid or there is something morally wrong about her.

3. Describe the consonants of English RP.

Consonants are sounds in the production of which there is an obstruction of the air passage narrowing the oral cavity. As a result, an audible frictional noise accompanies during articulation. The obstruction can be of various kinds and at different points in the oral cavity causing different sounds to be produced. Consonants are classified on the basis of the place of articulation and the manner of articulation. Consonants are either voiced or voiceless sounds.

THE CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH RP

/p/ as in pin

/b/ as in big /t/ as in tin

/d/ as in din

/k/ as in kit

/g/ as in give

/f/ as in fan /v/ as in van / θ/ as in thin

/ ð /as in that

/s/ as in sin

/z/ as in zip

/ ʃ / as in ship

/ ʒ / as in pleasure

/h/ as in hat

/ ʧ /as in chat

/ ʤ/ as in jug

/m/ as in man /n/ as in name

/ ŋ / as in ink

/j/ as in you

/w/ as in what

/r/ as in rat

/l/ as in lip

Classification of consonants on the basis of place of articulation:

According to the point of articulation or the point of stricture, consonants are classified as follows:

Bilabial:- The bilabial sounds are articulated by the two lips resulting in the consonants /p/. /b/, /m/, /w/. The lower lip is the active articulator and the upper lip is the passive articulator.

Labio-dental:- They are articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth resulting in /f/. and /v/.

Dental:- They are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth as / θ / in 'thin' and / ð / in 'this'

Alveolar: - They are articulated by the tip of the tongue or the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge as in /t/./ d/./ n/./ l/. /s/./ z/

Post-Alveolar:- They are produced involving the tip of the tongue and the back part of the teeth ridge as /r/ in 'right'

Palato-Alveollar:- They are articulated by the tip and the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge with raising of the front of the tongue towards the palate i.e. along with the alveolar articulation, the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, e.g. / ʃ/ as in ship, / ʒ / as in pleasure, / ʧ /as in church and /ʤ/ as in judge.

Palatal:- They are articulated by raising the front of the tongue towards the hard palate. /j/ as in 'young' /j ʌ ŋ/ is the only palatal sound in English.

Velar:- They are articulated by raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate (velum). /k/, /g/ and /ŋ / are examples.

Glottal or Laryngeal: - They are articulated in the glottis. Both vocal cords are active articulators. E.g. /h/ as in the word 'he'. In the production of /h/, the glottis is completely closed and air is compressed by pressure from lungs. Then the glottis is opened by separating the vocal cords and the air escapes suddenly. It is neither breathed nor voiced.

MANNER OF ARTICULATION

On the basis of manner of articulation, consonants may be classified as follows:

Plosives or stop consonants: - Plosive sounds are produced by total closure of the air passage at some point with the articulators coming into firm contact with each other and the nasal cavity being blocked by the velum so that the air cannot escape through the nose. On the release of the closure, the air escapes with a rapid small explosive noise as in the utterance of sounds /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/.

There are three pairs of plosives in English: Bilabial plosive /p/, /b/ Alveolar plosive /t/, /d/. Velar plosive /k/, /g/.

In each of the above pair, the first one is voiceless and the second one is voiced.

Plosives are again classified into:

Incomplete plosion:- When a plosive consonant is followed by another plosive or an affricate sound in the same word, the first plosive is not fully pronounced as /k/ in 'act' and 'picture'. Such plosives are called incomplete plosives.

Nasal plosion: - In sequence consisting of a plosive immediately followed by a nasal sound, the plosive is not pronounced in the normal way. The explosion produced while pronouncing such sequences is not formed by the air escaping through the mouth but through the nose. This kind of plosion is called nasal plosion. E.g. /p/ in 'sharpness; and 'topmost'.

Lateral plosion: - The lateral plosion occurs when /t/ and /d/ are followed by the lateral sound /l/as in middle, little etc. In such cases, the plosion of /t/ and /d/ is lateral. i.e. the tip of the tongue raised towards the teeth ridge remaining and the air escaping through both sides of the tongue that is lowered. In other words, the plosion of /t/ and /d/ is lateral, when the tip of the tongue does not leave the teeth ridge at the Centre and the air escapes through the sides of the tongue.

Glottal plosion:- The glottal plosive is produced by an interruption of the air passage by a closure e of the vocal cords. The air pressure below is released by the sudden separation of the vocal cords. This is used as a syllabic boundary marker by the native speakers of English as in 'co-operates' and 'react'. This occurs when the initial sound in the second syllable is a vowel.

Affricates:- In the production of Affricates, there is a complete closure of air stream. But the oral closure is very slow and the release of closure is also slow and audible friction is heard as/ʧ/ in 'chair and / ʤ / in 'jam'. These are palato-alveolar fricatives. During the articulation of these sounds, the air passage in the mouth is completely closed by the tip and the blade of the tongue coming into contact with the tongue with the alveolar ridge and the rims of the tongue with the upper set of teeth. The front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal cavity. When the tip and the blade of the tongue are released from the teeth ridge, the air escapes through the mouth slowly. / ʧ/ is voiceless and /ʤ/ is voiced.

Fricatives:- In the production of fricatives, the articulators are brought so close together and the air escapes through the narrow passage between them producing an audible friction or hissing sound e.g. /s/, /z/, / θ/, / ð /, /f/, /v/, /h/, / ʃ /, / ʒ /.

Fricatives may be classified as:

Labio-dental fricatives: /f/, /v/. Dental Fricatives; / θ /, / ð /.

Alveolar Fricatives: /s/, /z/;

Palato-Alveolar Fricatives: / ʃ /, / ʒ /.

Glottal Fricative: /h/.

Trill or Roll: - During the production of a trill or roll, the articulators come into contact with each other a number of times, producing a series of intermittent taps. E.g. /r/ -rrrrr. During the utterance of /r/ as in 'ring'. The tip of the tongue is tapping against the teeth

ridge. The sound thus produced is called a trill. Instead of a series of taps, if a single tap is made by the articulators quickly coming into contact and getting separated instantly, we have a tap or a flap.

Lateral:- A lateral consonant is produced with the oral passage blocked at the Centre but open at the sides.. English has one lateral consonant /l/ as in 'lake'. For its production, the tip of the tongue is raised to the alveolar ridge, blocking the oral passage at the Centre, the sides of the tongue are lowered allowing the air to escape through the sides freely.

Nasal:- In the production of nasal sounds, the soft palate is kept lowered so that the nasal passage of air is open while the oral passage is completely blocked at some point. The lung air escapes through the nose. The nasals are articulated with a complete oral closure. English has three nasal consonants:/m/, /n/ and / ŋ / Nasals may be classified as follows:

Bi-labial Nasal; /m/

Alveolar Nasal: /n/ Velar Nasal / ŋ /.

Frictionless Continuants: - During the articulation of the consonant /r/, which can be prolonged for a long time without any audible friction, the soft palate is raised closing the nasal passage and the tip of the tongue is brought near the rear part of the teeth ridge in such a way that there is sufficient gap between the two for the air to escape freely without audible friction. The /r/ in 'red' and 'right' is articulated as a frictionless continuant. Semi Vowels:- Semi vowels are gliding sounds during the articulation of which, the speech organs glide from one vowel position to another. /w/as in 'west 'and /j/ as in 'yard' are the

semi vowels in English. In the production of /w/, the glide is from the tongue position of approximately /u: / and for /j/, the glide is from the position of /i:/ to some other position. They function like consonants in the structure of a syllable in spite of their vocalic quality. The frictionless continuants and semi vowels together may be called approximants. Such sounds are articulated with a stricture of open approximation. I.e. the gap between them is wide enough for the air to escape without any friction.

CHAPTER IV

INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

Grammar is the science of the right use of language. It is a set of rules governing how language is used. The grammar of a language lays down the principles governing the combination and organization of words so as to form meaningful sentences. In other words, grammar is a system of rules that enable the speakers to organize words in certain ways. In the case of the native speakers of a language, Grammar functions unconsciously. This is because the native speakers have internalized the rules of their language.

Learning a language does not mean just speaking it fluently. It is also required that whatever we speak or write is grammatically correct. Therefore, to learn a language properly, one must learn the grammar of that language. In the case of a non-native speaker of a language, Grammar does not function automatically. Therefore, a non-native speaker of a language has to learn the grammar of that language deliberately.

GRAMMAR OF WORDS (MORPHOLOGY)

Language is a system, which relates sound and meaning. The minimal sound unit of any language is called Phoneme. Phonemes combine to form Morphemes and words. A morpheme is the minimal meaningful unit in the grammatical system of a language. The morphemes and words in varying combinations produce phrases, clauses and sentences.

Morphology or morphemics is the study of the morphemic structures. It shows the word-structure in terms of classes of morphemes. For example, a morphological analysis of a work like "sleeping" would show that it is made up of two classes of morpheme-a free morpheme "sleep" and a bound morpheme "-ing". Free morphemes are those which can stand alone as independent words, all others are said to be bound morphemes.

A morpheme is the smallest unit of form that has meaning. If the phoneme denotes the unit of sound in a word, the morpheme denotes the unit of its structure. Earlier it was thought that words were the smallest grammatical units. But in fact, words are not the smallest grammatical units. For example, the word "unlikely" has three segments; 'un''like'-'ly', each one is identifiable as a morpheme. Of these three, 'like' is a free morpheme; and 'un' and 'ly' are bound morphemes. A free morpheme is called a "lexical morpheme" because it has got a dictionary meaning; it has content and we can give a definition for it. But morphemes like "un", "ly" cannot stand-alone and are so called bound morphemes.

Allomorphs are variants of a morpheme. For example, the plural morpheme

takes different manifestations as in cats, dogs and roses. The plural morpheme in these words is manifested as |s|, |z| and |iz|. Allomorphs occur in predicable environments. It is illustrated as follows.

Words	Plural morpheme	Phonological realization
Cats	Cat+s	|s|
Dogs	Dog+s	|z|
Roses	Rose+es	|iz|

The same morpheme may occur in different contexts in different meanings. The 'es' morpheme is used with nouns to indicate plurality. The same morpheme, when used with a verb, is the sign of third person singular as in "John writes"

Similarly the past tense morpheme in English, spelt '-d' or '-ed' has three phonological manifestations: |t|, |d| and |id|. This is illustrated as follows.

Words	Plural morpheme	Phonological realization
Pack	Pack+ed	|t|
Bag	Bag+ed	|d|
Pat	Pat+ed	|id|
Guard	Guard+ed	|id|

Such variants are known as allomorphs or morpheme alternants. It is the American linguist, Leonard Bloomfield who initiated the study of morphemes in linguistics. A word has one or more morpheme in it. The word 'dog' for example has only one morpheme, whereas "dis-interest-ed-ness" has four morphemes.

The concept of morpheme has been helpful in describing a large number of suffixes, both inflectional and derivational. The study of morphemes is helpful in describing the process of word formation, by changing a word from one class into another.

Eg:-

      Child+ -ish   -> Childish Adjective forming morpheme

Meaning+ -ful -> meaningful

Boy+ -s->boysPlural morpheme

Cat+ -s -> Cats   Possessive morpheme

Sing+ -s -> sings   Morpheme signalling third person singular

Walk+ ed

Die+ -ed

Act+ -or   -> walked Past morpheme

-> died

-> actor   Noun forming morpheme

     Strength+ -en-> strengthen   Verb forming morpheme

WORD FORMATION

The English language has enriched its vocabulary by borrowing a large number of words from foreign languages like Latin, Greek and French. In addition to these loan words, the English language has formed new words out of its own resources. Three different methods have been followed in making of these new words. They are,

1.   Composition
2.   Derivation and
3.   Root-creation

• Composition means the joining together of two words already existing in the language to form new words.

• Derivation means making of new words out of existing ones by the addition either prefixes or suffixes, or by two other process known as back formation and shortening.

• Root-creation implies the creation of an entirely new word either imitative of some noise or movement or because of "some instinctive feeling of expressiveness".

Some of the processes of word formation are given below.

1. Compounding

Compounding is a process of word formation wherein two or more existing words are simply combined. It is a process of word formation by adding one base to another. Compounds are formed by the following several criteria.

Noun + Noun eg: blackboard

Verb + Noun   eg: Flashlight

Noun + Adjective   eg: Class-conscious

Noun + gerund   eg: air conditioning

Gerund + noun   eg: dancing girl

Noun + past participle eg: hand made

Noun + present participle   eg: man eating

2. Blending (portmanteau words)

Blending is the process by which new words are coined by combining the segments of two different words. As in

Smoke + fog   = smog

Breakfast + lunch   = brunch

Motorist + hotel   = motel

Words formed in this way are called blends or portmanteau words.

3. Derivation and inflection

Derivation is one of the most popular methods of word-formation in English. Derivation is a means by which new words are formed by attaching prefixes or suffixes to the base form. Affixes can be derivational or inflectional. Derivational affixes are those affixes which, when attached to the base form, changes a word from one class to another, eg: a noun becomes an adjective by adding a suffix like "-ly" as in "friend+ly" -> "friendly". Similarly the adjective "happy" changes to the negative noun "unhappiness" when we add the prefix "un-" and the suffix "-ness".

Inflectional affixes do not change the class of a word. The past of speech remains the same in spite of inflectional affixes. The sibilant suffix "s" or "-es" and the past suffix "-d" or "-ed" are examples. They change the form of word but not its class or meaning. They only indicate grammatical relationship. Inflections occur at the end of words; they are not followed by other suffixes. Derivational suffixes can be followed by other derivational suffixes or inflectional suffixes.

4.   Back formation Back formation is the reverse process of derivation. On the analogy of keep keeper |keeping| a verb stem "house-keep" is sometimes formed by subtraction from "house keeper", "housekeeping". This kind of word formation arose from misunder-standing. Other examples of this type of word formation are 'sculpt' from 'Sculptor', 'edit' from 'editor', 'beg' from 'beggar', 'peddle' from 'peddler', 'hawk' from 'hawker' etc.

5.   Clipping or shortening.

In this method, one or more syllables are removed from a longer word as with words like gym (gymnasium) photo (photograph), Phone (telephone), flu (influenza) clipping is also known as abbreviation.

6. Metanalysis (Reanalysis)

Metanalysis or reanalysis involves a different analysis of the structure of the word by attaching a consonant at the end of a word to the vowel at the beginning of the next word or by attaching the initial consonant of the next word to the first word.

        Examples: -   an ick name -> a nick name

        A newt ->anewt

        A nadder   -> an adder

Reanalysis involves picking up a part from a word as though it existed separately. Originally the word Hamburger was formed by adding –er to hamburg. But later on the word was reanalyzed into "ham" and "burger", yielding the "burger" now used in cheeseburger and vege burger.

7. Conversion

Conversion involves the deliberate transfer of a word from one part of speech to another without any affixation at all. For example the word "red" is used both as a noun and as an adjective.

        Eg: The colour of my car is red (noun)

I like red colour (adjective)

8. Acronym

Acronyms are words produced from the initial letters of a phrase.

        Eg: radar (radio detecting and ranging)

UNESCO (United Nations Educational Social Cultural Organisation)

But if a word formed from the initial letters is to be spelled out as B.B.C or U.G.C, it is not called acronym, but initialism.

9. Re duplicatives

Words composed of two or more elements that are either identical or slightly different are called re-duplicatives.

The most commonly used re-duplicatives are,

Tick-tock (to imitate sounds)

See-saw (to suggest alternative movements)

Tip-top (to intensity)

MODERN APPROACH TO SYNTAX

Syntax is an important area in linguistics. It is the study of the structure of sentences in terms of its constituent elements. Syntax deals with the rules of sentence building i.e. the combination, organization and arrangement of components within the sentence. Concord and word order are some of the devices used in the syntactic analysis of English language. Concord means formal agreement in person, number, gender or tense between two or more parts of a sentence. For example, the present tense of 'to be', 'I' can only go with 'am' and 'we' can only be combined with 'are'. Word order refers to the way in which word in an utterance are arranged. Word order is important in English because English has got rid of most of its inflections. In languages like Sanskrit and Latin, which are fully inflected, word order is not as important as in English. (Inflections are case distinctions indicated at the end of words. E.g. the 'm' in 'him' and 'them' are inflections indicative of the objective case)

As English has got rid of most of its inflections, words are required to be arranged in the proper order, otherwise, utterance may not convey the intended meaning. The two sentences, 'The dog bit John' and 'John bit the dog' make use of the same words; but they are entirely different in meaning because of the difference in the arrangement of words. In Sanskrit and Latin word order does not matter, as relationship between words is indicated by inflections. Inflections indicate whether a word is a subject or object. English language is distinguished in this matter. English sentences follow the SVO sentence pattern, whereas Malayalam has the SOV pattern. Modern grammarians strongly criticized the traditional approach to sentence study. According to the structural and other modern linguists, traditional grammar was defective in various ways.

TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

Traditional grammar begins with definitions. Many of these definitions are vague and lacks explicitness. Traditional grammarians carried out the study of sentences by analyzing them into parts of speech (noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection).The definitions of some of the parts of speech were based on meaning and some based on function. The noun, for example, is defined as the name of a person, place or a thing, and the adjective is defined, on the basis of function,(an adjective is defined as a word, that qualifies a noun).Modern grammarians rejected this kind of study as unscientific.

In English language words form groups of various types like the nominal, verbal,

and adverbial. In the sentence, 'the old doctor has completely cured him of his illness', the three words, 'the old doctor', forms the nominal group. It occupies the subject position of the sentence. It is called the Ngp.

Modern grammarians focused on the structural aspect of language. Their main thesis is that language has a structure and so each language must be described in its own terms. They criticized traditional grammar on the ground that it copied and translated many rules from Latin and made them applicable to English as well. Many of these rules have no relevance at all to English since the structure of English is entirely different from that of Latin. In Latin, for

example, the case system is very rigorous, whereas in English only the personal pronouns are declined according to the different cases.

According to structural linguists, linguistics is an autonomous science and so linguistic analysis must be based on actual utterances produced by native speakers of a language in terms of principles valid for an empirical study .They pointed out the primacy of spoken mode of communication over writing.

As a result of attempts made by modern grammarians in the field of language study, new methods of sentence analysis have come up in the twentieth century. The chief among them are:

1. Immediate Constituent Analysis:

It is the modern process of grouping together words and phrases in such a manner as to help us to remove ambiguity of construction. It therefore helps us to understand the real meaning of a sentence in a systematic manner. Two great linguists who have contributed much to frame this principle or device are Leonard Bloomfield and Noam Chomsky.

According to Chomsky, grammar is a theory of language. By language he means

competence and not performance of the native speaker. Competence is the native speaker's inborn knowledge of the language. All of us have   an unconscious knowledge of the rules which generate (produce) correct sentences in our mother tongue. Performance means the actual act of speaking, writing, listening and reading. IC Analysis uses precise rules as in mathematics. Let us learn more about the technique.

Technique of IC Analysis

The methodology involves two steps:

i)   Breaking up of the given sentence or phrase ii)   Labelling the constituents.

There are three kinds of breaking up

        a)   Sequential, b) Hierarchical, c) transformational
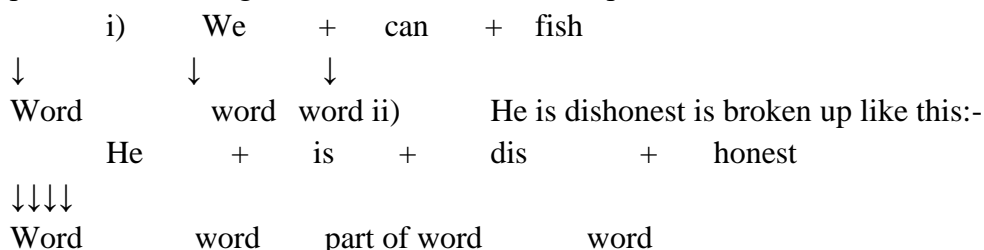
Likewise, there are three kind of labeling

a) Morphological, b) Categorical, c) Functional

Let us examine how the ambiguous sentences are broken up in each case.

Sequential Breaking Up A. Sequential breaking up and morphological labeling

Here, first, the given sentence is broken up into a series of the smallest meaningful words or parts of a word. Egs. 'We can fish' is broken up like this:-

        i)   We   +   can   +   fish

↓   ↓   ↓

Word   word   word ii)   He is dishonest is broken up like this:-

        He   +   is   +   dis   +   honest

↓↓↓↓

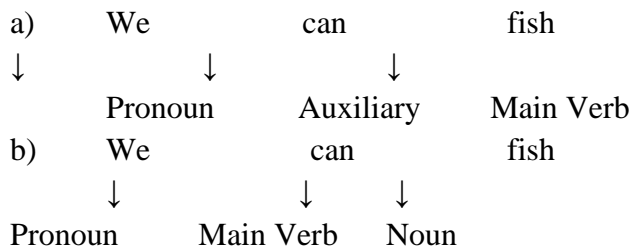Word   word   part of word   word

Unfortunately, this technique does not give the corresponding structural descriptions to remove the ambiguity, so it is not considered sufficient.

2. Sequential Breaking Up + Categorical labeling

Categorical labels refer to the grammatical class or category to which the word belongs. E.g.nouns, pronouns, articles, verbs, adjectives etc. See how the ambiguity in the sentence. "We can fish" is resolved using this method:
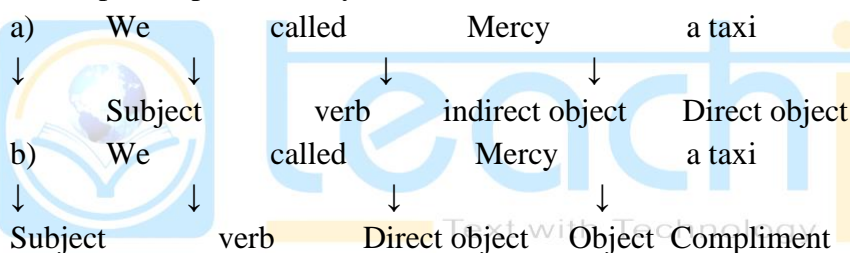
a)   We   can   fish
↓   ↓   ↓
         Pronoun   Auxiliary   Main Verb
b)   We   can   fish
         ↓   ↓   ↓
Pronoun   Main Verb   Noun

Clearly (a) gives the meaning" We have the ability to fish" and (b) gives the meaning "We put fish in cans, that is, sealed containers".

Though sequential breaking up + categorical labeling is effective, it cannot explain ambiguities in certain other sentence. Let us study further techniques.

3. Sequential breaking up + Functional Labelling

Consider the sentence 'We called Mercy a taxi'. What does it mean? Is there ambiguity? Now let us split it up in two ways?

a)   We   called   Mercy   a taxi
↓   ↓   ↓   ↓
         Subject   verb   indirect object   Direct object
b)   We   called   Mercy   a taxi
↓   ↓   ↓   ↓
Subject   verb   Direct object   Object Compliment

Clearly, (a) gives the meaning "We called a taxi for Mercy" and (b) gives the meaning "We said Mercy was a taxi "or " We called Mercy the name a Taxi". This is more effective than the previous ones. But this technique cannot resolve ambiguities in certain other sentences, so we have to learn to use some more techniques.

B) Hierarchical Breaking Up

Consider the phrase "Young men and women"

Is there ambiguity? There is ambiguity indeed and it can be explained by the method of hierarchical breaking up or bracketing.

a)   (young) (men and women)
b)   (young men) (and women)
a)   Means that "both the men and the women are young."
b)   Means "women and young men", that is, only the men are young.

In (a) men and women are grouped together.
In (b) young men and women are grouped together.

This kind of breaking up is known as hierarchical breaking up because it breaks up a sentence or phrase into its parts at different levels or hierarchies. See how the two ways of breaking up can be represented diagrammatically.

a)   (young) (men and women)

Young (men and women)

↙ ↘

Young   men and women

↙ ↓ ↘

Men   and   women

b)   (young men) (and women)

Young men and women

          ↙   ↓   ↘
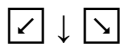
          Young men   and   women

          ↙   ↘

Young   men This device also cannot explain some other kinds of ambiguities. For instance, consider the expression "love of mother ". It may mean two things: (a) the love that mother has for her children,   (b) the love that children have for mother. We can resolve the ambiguity using the method of transformational breaking up.

Transformational breaking up:-

Transformationally, the expression "love of mother" is derived from the two expressions given below.

a)   Children love their mother-love of mother.

b)   Mother loves her children – love of children.

This device explains the ambiguity in the phrase love of mother.

It is a more effective device than the previous ones.

2. Transformational Generative Grammar

The generative grammar which makes use of all the three devices which we have discussed so far is called Transformational Generative Grammar. Just as there is no limit to the number of words in a sentence, there is no limit to the number of sentences that can be generated in a language. Naturally all sorts of ambiguities are likely to arise. Transformational Generative Grammar generates or clearly labels or classifies all the grammatical sentences in the language. Chomsky's 'Syntactic Structures' (1957) and his 'Aspects of the theory of Syntax'

(1965) contain the theory of transformational generative grammar. The former consists of rules which took an initial element (S standing for any sentence) and assigned to it a particular phrase structure. The rules would then produce strings of elements which represented the underlying structure of a sentence (a Kernel sentence).   The second component consisted of transformational rules- rules which operated on the strings produced by the phrase structure component, and altered them in various ways just as changing active into passive voice, by altering word order, by adding the inflection and so on.

Transformation may do three things:

i.   It may add new items ii. It may delete items iii. It may alter the order of words.

The passive transformation for example altered the order of elements in the active sentence and added three further elements i.e. a form of the verb 'be', a particle 'by' and a past participle affix 'en' or 'ed' attached to the main verb.

The rule for transforming a sentence in the active voice into the passive voice can be shown with the help of a formula given as follows:

NP1 + Aux + V + NP2 -> NP2 + Aux + be + en + V + by + NP1 NP1 stands for the first noun phrase and NP2 stands for the second. Aux stands for

the auxiliary verb and 'en' stands for the past participle of the main verb.

Consider the following sentence for example:

The doctor has cured the patient ->the patient has been cured by the doctor.

The following rules are applied here.

i.   Reverse the position of NP1 and NP2

ii.   Introduce one of the forms of 'be', taking into account the number and person of the subject and the tense of the verb.

iii.   The past participle form of the main verb is used iv. The particle 'by'is introduced and NP2 is rewritten.

GENERATIVE

'Generative' means 'to produce', 'develop 'or 'predict'. It summarizes the two main properties of grammar: its ability to account by its rules for the infinite sentences of a language and its ability to be absolutely explicit about the grammaticality of sentences by precisely defining the characteristics of their internal structure. 'To generate' means to predict all and only the grammatical sentences of a language.

2. The Phrase Structure Grammar (constituent structure grammar)

Phrase structure grammar is more sophisticated model of grammar evolved as a further development of IC analysis. Phrase structure grammars contain a set of rules called 'phrase structure rules' or 'rewrite rules'. A rewrite rule is a replacement rule in which the symbol to the left of the arrow is replaced by the expanded form to the right of the arrow. The arrow signifies 'to be rewritten as'

1.   S→ NP + VP

This means that the sentence is to be rewritten as NP (noun phrase)

2.   NP→ Det + N

('Det' is Determiner and N is noun.)

3.   VP→ Aux + V + NP

('Aux' is Auxiliary,'V' is main verb, 'NP' is noun phrase)

Applying rule 2 to the output of rule 1, we get

S→Det +N+VP

Applying rule 3, we get S→ Det +N +V +NP

Applying rule 2 once again (to accommodate the 2nd NP), we get S→Det + N + V +NP

Applying rule 2 once again (to accommodate the 2nd NP), we get S→Det + N +V+ Det + N

This final string beyond which the symbols do not take is called a 'terminal string'.

At this stage morphophonemic rules are applied to replace symbols by morphemes or words. The representation of the structure of a sentence is called a 'Phrase Marker' Or 'P Marker'. The usual form of a 'P Marker' is a tree with labeled nodes. The 'P Marker' of the sentence 'The boy saw an elephant' is shown below:

S

   ↙ ↘

NP   VP

↙ ↘ ↙ ↘

Det   N V   NP

  ↓ ↓↓   ↙ ↘

Det N

  ↓   ↓

The boy saw an elephant
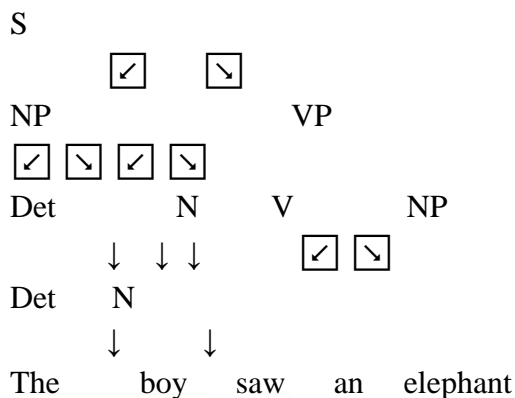
The new methods of sentence analysis have replaced the traditional divisions into parts of speech. Bloomfield's method which is called Immediate Constituent Analysis and Noam Chomsky's The Phrase Structure Grammar and Transformative Generative Grammar have gained prominence in the analysis of sentence structure.

4. Transformational Generative Grammar

Chomsky's 'Syntactic Structures' was published in 1957. His 'Aspects of the Theory of Syntax' came out in 1965. These are the two books which contain the theory of

Transformational Generative Grammar, the most influential theory of grammar in modern times. 'Syntactic Structures' consisted of rules which took an initial elements (S, standing

for any sentence) and assigned to it a particular phrase structure. These rules would then produce strings of elements which represented the underlying structure of a sentence(a 'kernel sentence'). The second component consisted of transformational rules-rules which operated on the strings produced by the phrase structure component, and altered them in various ways (e.g. by turning 'active' into 'passive' ones, by altering word order, by adding inflections, and so on), making the various relationships between different types of sentences. In other words, transformations may do three things: (i) it may add new item; (ii) it may delete items; (iii) it may alter the order of words. The passive transformation, for example, altered the order of elements in the active sentence and added three further elements (a form of the verb 'be', a particle 'by' . and a past participle affix – 'en' attached to the main verb). One formula of this rule could be as follows:

$NP_1 + Aux + V + NP_2 → NP_2 + Aux + be + en + V + by + NP_1$

NP$_1$ stands for the first noun phrase, and NP$_2$ for the second. Aux stands for the auxiliary verb. Let us take the following example,

The driver may start the bus → the bus may be started by   the driver.

The following rules are applied here:

(i)   Reverse the positions of NP$_1$ and NP$_2$

(ii)   Introduce one of the forms of 'be', taking into consideration the number of the subject and the tense of the verb.

(iii)   The past participle affix is added to the verb.

(iv)   The particle 'by' is introduced and NP$_1$ is re-written.

The technical proposals Chomsky made in 'Syntactic Structures' were primarily a positive reaction to the grammatical and general linguistic pre-dispositions of the preceding decades – in particular, to the post Bloomfieldian and 'taxanomic accounts of language.

GENERATIVE

The most important term in the definition of grammar, the term which is used as the identifying label in the new approach to language as a whole is 'generative'. 'Generative' here means 'to produce' 'develop', 'explain' or 'predict'. It summarizes the two mains.

properties of grammar its ability to account by its rules for the infinite sentences of a language and its ability to be absolutely explicit about the grammaticality of sentences by precisely defining the characteristics of their internal structure (To 'generate' means to predict all and only the grammatical sentence of language). The term 'generate' is a term Chomsky took from mathematics.

According to Chomsky linguistics is concerned with far more than the range of patterns to be found in any corpus. A corpus can never illustrate a whole language, but will reflect a partial and selective picture. Moreover, he says, ' a record of natural speech will show numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in mid- course, and so on'. These mistakes and non –fluencies are due to many factors, such as poor memory, and being distracted while we are speaking; but the important point is that we have the ability to recognize them. We are able to distinguish mistakes from correct utterance because we have mastered a system of rules. This lies outside the corpus, presumably in the mind of the speakers of the language. This may also be due to the creativity in language. Chomsky makes a fundamental distinction between a person's knowledge of their language- the system of rules they have mastered (competence) and their actual use of language in reallife situation (performance).

In TG grammar, the term grammar is used in all- embracing sense, covering the subject –matter of phonology and semantics as well as morphology and syntax. An early definition talks of 'grammar as device which generates all and only the grammatical sentences of a language'. This approach is firmly orientated towards the sentence. Concepts such as 'clause' and 'utterance' have to be obtained through derivations. Secondly the definition emphasizes that only the grammatical sentences of a language can be explained in the grammar. But a grammar

should be in a position to show the distinction between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. Another point in the definition is the use of ' all'. It is assumed that the number of the sentences which any grammar has in principle to

account for is infinite. What has to be done is to relate the finite system of rules to the infinite set of possibilities. The most important way in which it is done is through the notion of recursion (that is, piling clause upon clause introduced by conjunctions).

SEMANTICS

The term semantics refers to that branch of linguistics which investigates into realm of meaning. Semantics tries to find out how language is organized in order to be meaningful. Meaning is important. But it is not an easy subject to study. In the past, there was a tendency to identify words and things. People defined meaning as the relationship between words and things. The doctrines of general semantics were proposed by people like Alfred Korzibski. A literary discussion of the concept of meaning was introduced by C.K Ogden and I.A. Richards in 'The Meaning of Meaning' published in 1923.

The subject of meaning is by no means a discovery of modern linguistics, but at the same time little of the early work has proved to be of permanent value. Modern linguists attacked the procedure of considering 'word' as a means of studying a language's semantic system. To understand what is meant by a word we have to put the word in a context. (e.g. 'table' is used in different senses)Walk, walks, walking and walked are all words, in one sense. In another sense they can be taken as the different forms of the same word. To solve this problem, the term 'lexeme' or 'lexical item' was invented. A lexeme is the minimal

distinctive unit in the semantic system of a language. For the most part, we convey our meaning by relying on the network of sense relationships which the lexemes of the language have built up between them. The relationship are given in a good lexicon (dictionary)

In addition to the dictionary meaning, words acquire subtle shades of meaning. All words develop new meaning depending on the contexts in which they occur. All most all words have implications, connotations, and ambiguities. Certain words habitually associate with certain other words. This feature is called collocation. In English, for example, the word 'auspicious' collocates with 'occasion 'and 'letter' collocates with 'alphabet' and 'spelling'. A language's vocabulary is said to be organized into areas of meaning, with in which the lexemes relate to each other in specific ways. One such field was color: the precise meaning of a colour term can be understood only by placing it in relation to other terms which occur with it in demarcating the colour spectrum.

Chomsky made a distinction between Surface Structure and Deep Structure. The surface structure refers to the structure of actual utterance. Deep structure underlines the surface structure. The semantic interpretation of a sentence is given in it. Deep structure can account for certain semantic differences which cannot be accounted for in the surface structure

Consider for example the following pair of sentences.

John is easy to please

John is eager to please.

In surface structure the above two sentences are alike. But in the deep structure,

They are interpreted differently. The first sentence means that it is easy for someone to please John. The second sentence means that John is eager to please someone else. Thus it is at the deep level that the semantic distinctions are obtained.

REVIEW EXERCISES

A. Answer the following questions in one or two sentences each.

1.   What are allomorphs?

Allomorphs are variants of a morpheme. For example, the plural morpheme takes different manifestations as in cats, dogs and roses. The plural morpheme in these words is manifested as |s|, |z| and |iz|. Allomorphs occur in predicable environments.

2.   What is clipping?

Clipping is a method of word formation whereby one or more syllabus are removed from a longer word as with words like gym (gymnasium) photo (photograph), Phone (telephone), flu (influenza) clipping is also known as abbreviation.

3.   What do you mean by semantics?

The term semantics refers to that branch of linguistics which investigates into realm of meaning. Semantics tries to find out how language is organized in order to be meaningful.

B. Answer the following in a paragraph.

1.   Describe the concept of morpheme.

2.   Semantics as a branch of linguistics.

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C. Write an essay on the following:

1.   Different methods of word formation in English.

The English language has enriched its vocabulary by borrowing a large number of words from foreign languages like Latin, Greek and French. In addition to these loan words, the English language has formed new words out of its own resources. Three different methods have been followed in making of these new words. They are,

•   Composition: It means the joining together of two words already existing in the language to form new words.

•   Derivation: It means making of new words out of existing ones by the addition either prefixes or suffixes, or by two other process known as back formation and shortening.

•   Root-creation: It implies the creation of an entirely new word either imitative of some noise or movement or because of "some instinctive feeling of expressiveness".

Some of the processes of word formation are given below.

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Compounding is a process of word formation wherein two or more existing words are simply combined. It is a process of word formation by adding one base to another. Compounds are formed by the following several criteria.

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Verb + Noun eg: Flashlight

Noun + Adjective   eg: Class-conscious

Noun + gerund   eg: air conditioning

Gerund + noun   eg: dancing girl

Noun + past participle eg: hand made

Noun + present participle   eg: man eating

Blending (portmanteau words)

Blending is the process by which new words are coined by combining the segments of two different words. As in

Smoke + fog   = smog

Breakfast + lunch   = brunch

Motorist + hotel   = motel

Words formed in this way are called blends or portmanteau words.

Derivation and inflection

Derivation is one of the most popular methods of word-formation in English. Derivation is a means by which new words are formed by attaching prefixes or suffixes to the base form.

Affixes can be derivational or inflectional. Derivational affixes are those affixes which, when attached to the base form, changes a word from one class to another, eg: a noun becomes an adjective by adding a suffix like "-ly" as in "friend+ly" -> "friendly". Similarly the adjective "happy" changes to the negative noun "unhappiness" when we add the prefix "un-" and the suffix "-ness".

Inflectional affixes do not change the class of a word. The past of speech remains the same in spite of inflectional affixes. The sibilant suffix "-s" or "-es" and the past suffix "-d" or "-ed" are examples. They change the form of word but not its class or meaning. They only indicate grammatical relationship. Inflections occur at the end of words; they are not followed by other suffixes. Derivational suffixes can be followed by other derivational suffixes or inflectional suffixes.

Back formation

Back formation is the reverse process of derivation. On the analogy of keep-keeper |keeping| a verb stem "house-keep" is sometimes formed by subtraction from "house keeper", "housekeeping". This kind of word formation arose from misunder-standing. Other examples of this type of word formation are 'sculpt' from 'Sculptor', 'edit' from 'editor', 'beg' from 'beggar', 'peddle' from 'peddler', 'hawk' from 'hawker' etc.

Clipping or shortening.

In this method, one or more syllabus are removed from a longer word as with words like gym (gymnasium) photo (photograph), Phone (telephone), flu (influenza) clipping is also known as abbreviation.

Metanalysis (Reanalysis)

Metanalysis or reanalysis involves a different analysis of the structure of the word by attaching a consonant at the end of a word to the vowel at the beginning of the next word or by attaching the initial consonant of the next word to the first word.

> Examples: -   an ick name -> a nick name
>
> A newt -> anewt
>
> A nadder   -> an adder

Reanalysis involves picking up a part from a word as though it existed separately. Originally the word Hamburger was formed by adding –er to hamburg. But later on the word was reanalyzed into "ham" and "burger", yielding the "burger" now used in cheeseburger and vege burger.

Conversion

Conversion involves the deliberate transfer of a word from one part of speech to another without any affixation at all. For example the word "red" is used both as a noun and as an adjective.

> Eg: The color of my car is red (noun)

I like red color (adjective)

Acronym

Acronyms are words produced from the initial letters of a phrase.

Eg: radar (radio detecting and ranging)

UNESCO (United Nations Educational Social Cultural Organisation)

But if a word formed from the initial letters is to be spelled out as B.B.C or U.G.C, it is not called acronym, but initialism.

Re duplicatives

Words composed of two or more elements that are either identical or slightly different are called re-duplicatives.

The most commonly used re-duplicatives are,

Tick-tock (to imitate sounds)

See-saw (to suggest alternative movements)

Tip-top (to intensity)

CHAPTER V
METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGE

The following is the chronology of the ELT (English Language Teaching) method:

a)The Grammar-Translation Methods

b) The Direct Method

c) The Audio Lingual Method

d) The Silent Way

e) Desuggestopedia

f) Community language hearing

g) Total Physical Response

h) Communicative Language Teaching

a) The Grammar Translation Method

The grammar translation method is a method of teaching foreign languages derived from the classical method of teaching Greek and Latin.

- In these classes, students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules by translating sentences between the target language and the native language.
- It originated from the practice of teaching Latin.
- The method has been rejected by scholars and has no theoretical basis.

b) The Direct Method

- The direct method of teaching is also called natural method of teaching foreign language and refrains from using the learner's native language and uses only the target language.
- It was established in Germany and France around 1900 and contrast with the Grammar Translation Method.
- Characteristic features of the direct method are:
- Teaching concepts and vocabulary through pantomiming, real life objects and other visual
- materials.
- Teaching grammar by using an inductive approach (i.e. having learners find out rules through
- the presentation of adequate linguistic forms in the target language.)
- Centrality of Spoken language
- Focus on question-answer patterns
- The Techniques used in this method are – Question-answer exercise, dictation, Reading out loudly, student self-corrections, conversation practice and paragraph whiting.

c) Audio Lingual Method/ Army Method/ New Key

- This method of teaching foreign language is based on Behaviorist theory which postulates that humans can be trained through a system of reinforcement.
- This method was similar to direct method like, student should be taught a language directly without using student's native language to explain new words or grammar in the target language
- The only it differs from the direct method is that; this method does not focus on teaching vocabulary.
- The behavioral psychology as developed by B.F. Skinner was included in this method by Charles C. Fries.
- In this method skills are taught in the following order: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing.

d) The Silent Way

- The Silent Way of language teaching methods was created by Caleb Gattegno that makes extensive use of silence as a teaching method.
- Gattegno introduced this method in his 1963 book Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way.
- It is usually regarded as an alternative language teaching method.
- Silence is used as a tool to emphasize learner's autonomy and active student's participation.
- The teacher uses a mixture of silence and gestures to focus student's attention to elicit response from them, and to encourage them to correct their own errors.
- Pronunciation is seen as fundamental to the method; Evaluation is carried out by observation and teacher may never set a formal test.

e) Desuggestopedia

- Desuggestopedia is a teaching method developed by the Bulgarian psycho- Therapist Georgi Lozanov in 1970's.
- The theory applied positive suggestion in teaching and is now a days called de-suggestive learning.
- The method for adults includes long sessions without movement and materials that are appropriate for adults.

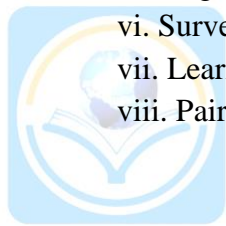### f) Community Language Learning (CLL)

- CLL is a language teaching method in which students work together to develop what aspects of a language they would like to learn.
- It is based on Counseling approach in which the teacher acts as a counselor and a paraphraser while learner is seen as a client and collaborator.

g) Total Physical Response (TPR)

- TPR is a language teaching method developed by James Asher.
- It is based on the coordination of language and physical movement.
- In this method, instructors give commands to students in the target language and students respond with whole-body actions.
- This method is an example of the comprehension approach to language teaching.

h) Communicative Language Teaching

- This approach of language teaching emphasis interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of study.
- Classroom activities used in Communicative Language Teaching include the following-
  i. Role-Play
  ii. Interviews
  iii. Information-gap
  iv. Games
  v. Language exchanges
  vi. Surveys
  vii. Learning by Teaching
  viii. Pair-work