MAENG-401

Introductory Linguistics, Phonetics and Modern English Usage-I

MA ENGLISH
1st Semester

Rajiv Gandhi University
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INTRODUCTORY LINGUISTICS, PHONETICS AND MODERN ENGLISH USAGE I

MAENG401
I SEMESTER

RAJIV GANDHI UNIVERSITY

Arunachal Pradesh,INDIA - 791 112

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About the University

Rajiv Gandhi University (formerly Arunachal University) is a premier institution for higher education in the state of Arunachal Pradesh and has completed twenty-five years of its existence. Late Smt. Indira Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India, laid the foundation stone of the university on 4th February, 1984 at Rono Hills, where the present campus is located.

Ever since its inception, the university has been trying to achieve excellence and fulfill the objectives as envisaged in the University Act. The university received academic recognition under Section 2(f) from the University Grants Commission on 28th March, 1985 and started functioning from 1st April, 1985. It got financial recognition under section 12-B of the UGC on 25th March, 1994. Since then Rajiv Gandhi University, (then Arunachal University) has carved a niche for itself in the educational scenario of the country following its selection as a University with potential for excellence by a high-level expert committee of the University Grants Commission from among universities in India.

The University was converted into a Central University with effect from 9th April, 2007 as per notification of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

The University is located atop Rono Hills on a picturesque tableland of 302 acres overlooking the river Dikrong. It is 6.5 km from the National Highway 52-A and 25 km from Itanagar, the State capital. The campus is linked with the National Highway by the Dikrong bridge.

The teaching and research programmes of the University are designed with a view to play a positive role in the socio-economic and cultural development of the State. The University offers Undergraduate, Post- graduate, M.Phil and Ph.D. programmes. The Department of Education also offers the B.Ed. programme.

There are fifteen colleges affiliated to the University. The University has been extending educational facilities to students from the neighbouring states, particularly Assam. The strength of students in different departments of the University and in affiliated colleges has been steadily increasing.

The faculty members have been actively engaged in research activities with financial support from UGC and other funding agencies. Since inception, a number of proposals on research projects have been sanctioned by various funding agencies to the University. Various departments have organized numerous seminars, workshops and conferences. Many faculty members have participated in national and international conferences and seminars held within the country and abroad. Eminent scholars and distinguished personalities have visited the University and delivered lectures on various disciplines.

The academic year 2000-2001 was a year of consolidation for the University. The switch over from the annual to the semester system took off smoothly and the performance of the students registered a marked improvement. Various syllabi designed by Boards of Post-graduate Studies (BPGS) have been implemented. VSAT facility installed by the ERNET India, New Delhi under the UGC-Infonet program, provides Internet access.

In spite of infrastructural constraints, the University has been maintaining its academic excellence. The University has strictly adhered to the academic calendar, conducted the examinations and declared the results on time. The students from the University have found placements not only in State and Central Government Services, but also in various institutions, industries and organizations. Many students have emerged successful in the National Eligibility Test (NET).

Since inception, the University has made significant progress in teaching, research, innovations in curriculum development and developing infrastructure.

About IDE

The formal system of higher education in our country is facing the problems of access, limitation of seats, lack of facilities and infrastructure. Academicians from various disciplines opine that it is learning which is more important and not the channel of education. The education through distance mode is an alternative mode of imparting instruction to overcome the problems of access, infrastructure and socio-economic barriers. This will meet the demand for qualitative higher education of millions of people who cannot get admission in the regular system and wish to pursue their education. It also helps interested employed and unemployed men and women to continue with their higher education. Distance education is a distinct approach to impart education to learners who remained away in the space and/or time from the teachers and teaching institutions on account of economic, social and other considerations. Our main aim is to provide higher education opportunities to those who are unable to join regular academic and vocational education programmes in the affiliated colleges of the University and make higher education reach to the doorsteps in rural and geographically remote areas of Arunachal Pradesh in particular and North-eastern part of India in general. In 2008, the Centre for Distance Education has been renamed as "Institute of Distance Education (IDE)."

Continuing the endeavor to expand the learning opportunities for distant learners, IDE has introduced Post Graduate Courses in 5 subjects (Education, English, Hindi, History and Political Science) from the Academic Session 2013-14.

The Institute of Distance Education is housed in the Physical Sciences Faculty Building (first floor) next to the University Library. The University campus is 6 kms from NERIST point on National Highway 52A. The University buses ply to NERIST point regularly.

Outstanding Features of Institute of Distance Education:

(i) At Par with Regular Mode

Eligibility requirements, curricular content, mode of examination and the award of degrees are on par with the colleges affiliated to the Rajiv Gandhi University and the Department(s) of the University.

(ii) Self-Instructional Study Material (SISM)

The students are provided SISM prepared by the Institute and approved by Distance Education Council (DEC), New Delhi. This will be provided at the time of admission at the IDE or its Study Centres. SISM is provided only in English except Hindi subject.

(iii) Contact and Counselling Programme (CCP)

The course curriculum of every programme involves counselling in the form of personal contact programme of duration of approximately 7-15 days. The CCP shall not be compulsory for BA. However for professional courses and MA the attendance in CCP will be mandatory.

(iv) Field Training and Project

For professional course(s) there shall be provision of field training and project writing in the concerned subject.

(v) Medium of Instruction and Examination

The medium of instruction and examination will be English for all the subjects except for those subjects where the learners will need to write in the respective languages.

(vi) Subject/Counselling Coordinators

For developing study material, the IDE appoints subject coordinators from within and outside the University. In order to run the PCCP effectively Counselling Coordinators are engaged from the Departments of the University, The Counselling-Coordinators do necessary coordination for involving resource persons in contact and counselling programme and assignment evaluation. The learners can also contact them for clarifying their difficulties in then respective subjects.

SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

Syllabi

UNIT I: Communication and Language

Forms of Communication and Language

UNIT II: Branches of Linguistics
Branches of Linguistics

UNIT III: Phonetics of English

UNIT IV: Phonology and Morphology

UNIT V: Word Stress and Prosody

UNIT 1 COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGE

Structure

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Linguistics is defined as a scientific study of language; therefore, its major concerns are with the sounds of language (phonetics and phonology). It is also related with the meanings and combination rules that make this correlation between sounds and meaning possible (morphology) and with the arrangement of words in a sentence (syntax) leading to the meaning of a sentence and its manifestation in language (semantics). Like all other sciences, it is concerned with the systematic, patterned and predictable elements.

Linguistics study languages in general and are not concerned with any particular language. Hence, its goal is to formalize the linguistic phenomenon of all individuals in society and to attempt to decode the factors generating variation in languages. A full understanding of the various components of a language and their relations with the rest of the world outside the language would constitute the right scope of linguistics.

In this unit, you will study communication, its different forms a language as a means of communication. You will also learn about the distinct features of a language as compared to other forms of communication. The unit also focuses on the various branches of linguistics.

1.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- define communication and its various forms
- discuss the various branches of linguistics

1.2 FORMS OF COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGE

Communication is basic to human life. When a child is born, he cries and announces his arrival to the world. As he grows up he interacts with the help of sounds, words and finally sentences with people around him. This process continues throughout life.

The word 'communication' is derived from the Latin word '*communis*', which means to share. Thus, communication can be defined as that 'natural activity' of human beings by which they share thoughts, express their ideas and opinions, convey emotions and feelings and exchange knowledge and information with their fellow beings through words (spoken or written), body language or signs.

Communication is the process of conveying meaningful information. It needs a sender, a message and an intended recipient. The receiver need not be there or be conscious of the sender's intent to correspond at the time of communication. Communication can take place across huge distances in time and space. It requires that the parties communicating have a common area of communication. The communication process is complete once the receiver is able to comprehend the sender's message.

Communication has been classified on the basis of the number of persons (receivers) to whom the message is addressed.

- **Intrapersonal communication:** Intrapersonal communication takes place within a person's mind or with himself; for example, a soliloquy (a person talking to himself) or a person standing in front of the mirror and talking to himself. It is not for language use. It is for the thought process of the communicator. It is useful while envisioning intrapersonal communication, which occurs in the mind of an individual. It contains the following:
  - o Sender
  - o Receiver
  - o Feedback loop

  Although it is successful, communication is basically described as being conducted amongst two or more individuals. It refers to issues related to the useful nature of communicating with oneself and problems related to communication with non-sentient entities like computers.

- **Interpersonal communication:** Any kind of communication that takes place between two people, i.e., there is one sender and a receiver of the message, is called inter-personal communication. For instance, two friends discussing a movie they watched, a dialogue between a couple or an interview between a boss and his employee.

  Interpersonal communication is described by communication scholars in many ways. It is usually described as participants who are dependent on one another and have a common history. It may consist of one-on-one conversations or individuals interacting with many people within society. It helps you learn why and how people act and behave in a particular manner to construct and negotiate a social reality. While interpersonal communication can be described as its own area of study, it also takes place within the other contexts like groups and

organizations. Interpersonal communication is the process used for conveying our ideas, thoughts, and feelings to another person. Our interpersonal communication skills comprise learned behaviour. This behaviour can be improved through the following:

o Knowledge

o Practice

o Feedback

o Reflection

Interpersonal communication is featured by message sending and message reception between two or more individuals. This communication includes all aspects of communication. Some of them are listening, persuading, asserting, non-verbal communication and more. A basic concept of interpersonal communication concentrates at communicative acts when there are few individuals involved unlike areas of communication like group interaction, where there might be a huge number of individuals involved in a communicative act.

Individuals also converse on various interpersonal levels based on who they are indulging in communication with. For instance, if an individual is conversing with one's family member, that communication would more than likely be different from the type of communication used when one is engaged in a communicative act with a friend or someone else.

Interpersonal communication can be accomplished by using both direct and indirect mediums of communication like face-to-face interaction and computer-mediated communication. A successful interpersonal communication presumes that both the message senders as well as the message receivers will interpret and understand the messages that are being sent on a level of understood meanings and implications.

- **Group communication:** It takes place among a group of people, small or large, like an organization, club or a classroom in which everyone retains their identity. Group communication systems basically give specific guarantees regarding the complete ordering of messages, such as, that if the sender of a message receives it back from the GCS, and then it is certain that it will be delivered to all other nodes in the system. This property is useful while constructing data replication systems.

- **Mass communication:** Mass communication takes place when the group of people to whom the message is sent is very large. For example, news broadcast on radio and television, a political leader addressing the public at a rally, where each person in the crowd does not retain his/her identity. Mass communication research consists of media institutions and processes like diffusion of information, and media effects such as persuasion or manipulation of public opinion.

- **Verbal communication:** It refers to the use of words in the process of communication, whether spoken or written. Communication is based on the interaction among people. Verbal communication is a way for people to converse face to face. A few key components of verbal communication are as follows:

o Sound

o Words

o speech

o Language

Vocal cords produce sounds. Gradually, as a child grows he/she learns how to change sounds in words. Some words can be imitative of natural sounds while others might come from expression of emotion, like laughter and crying. Just words have no meaning. Only people can make words meaningful.

The real origin of language is under considerable speculation. A number of theorists agree that it is an enhancement of group activities like working together or dancing, while others think that language evolved from general sounds and gestures.

Today over 3,000 languages and dialects are spoken around the world. Development of languages depicts the following:

o Class
o Gender
o Profession
o Age group
o Other social factors

The huge group of languages generally leads to problems among different languages, but even in a single language there can be a number of issues. Although by speaking you try to eliminate this problem, at times it is quite difficult. Just as you think that your messages are received clearly, you assume that as the message is important to us, it is important to others as well. But time has proven that this is not true in all situations. A lot of problems can arise while speaking and the only manner to solve these problems is by way of experience.

- **Non-verbal communication:** It refers to that form of communication which flows without the use of words. In this communication, the message is conveyed through signs, symbols, gestures, facial expressions, distance, time and touch. For example, traffic signs, nodding of the head, frowning, and embracing. Non-verbal communication is basically the process of communication by sending and receiving wordless (mostly visual) messages. These messages can be transferred via gestures and touch or by body language or posture and sometimes even by facial expression and eye contact. Meaning can even be communicated through object or artfacts like clothing, hairstyles or architecture, symbols, and icons or graphics. Speech consists of non-verbal elements known as paralanguage. Some constituents of speech are as follows:

o Voice quality
o Rate
o Pitch
o Volume
o Style
o Rhythm
o Intonation
o Stress

Even dance is regarded as a form of non-verbal communication. For instance, written texts have non-verbal elements like handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words or the physical layout of a page.

However, a lot of non-verbal communication focusses on face-to-face interaction, where it can be classified into three major areas, which are as follows:
  o Environmental conditions
  o Physical characteristics of the communicators
  o Behaviour of communicators during interaction

It has been seen that all living beings communicate. It is an inherent gift of nature that enables them to exist, survive and grow in any given environment. Mankind is unique among all living beings that, during the different stages of evolution, have developed several codes and forms of communication from the beating of drums in primitive times to the invention of computers and Internet in the modern age. Language is nothing but a code or tool of communication, the essential purpose of which is to convey a message. Hence, it is a means through which human beings express their personality. Language originated as a complex system of signs and symbols that aimed at communication. The language is a system of signs for encoding and decoding information.

Definition of Language

Language refers to the cognitive faculty of human beings that enables them to learn and use systems of complex communication.

Based on another definition, language is a formal system of symbols that are governed by grammatical rules, which associate specific signs with specific meanings. This definition emphasizes the fact that human languages are governed by rules and, hence, are closed structural systems.

Yet another definition sees language as a system of communication that enables human beings to cooperate with their fellow beings. This definition emphasizes the basic functions of language and the fact that humans need it to express them and for manipulating objects in their own environment.

Human language is different in comparison with other forms of communication, like those used by the animals, essentially as it is stimulus free. Moreover, humans can form an infinite set of utterances through a finite set of elements, and as the symbols and grammatical rules of any particular language are mainly arbitrary, the system can only be used through social interaction and cultural transmission.

Every speech community has a language of its own, which is owned, perceived and recognized for communication by the members of that community. Hence, there are several languages spoken all over the world by different speech communities and cultures. But all human languages have two forms, i.e., the spoken form that consists of sounds and the written form consisting of symbols to represent these sounds.

Language is defined by various scholars in various ways:

- 'Language is that system by which sounds and meanings are related.' (Fromkin and Rodman, 1974)

- 'Language is the most sophisticated and versatile means available to human beings for the communication of meaning.' (Brown, 1984)

- 'Language is purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols.' (Sapir, 1921)

- 'Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory symbols.' (Hall, 1964)

- Language is a 'system of sounds, words, patterns etc used by humans to communicate thoughts and feelings.' (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 1989)

- 'Language is a patterned system of arbitrary sound signals, characterized by structure dependence, creativity, displacement, duality and cultural transmission.' (Aitchinson, 1987)

These definitions suggest that it is hard to define language in a singular parameter as it is a complex phenomenon. This complexity of language has attracted the attention of philosophers such as Wittgenstein, Austin, Searde, Grice and others. It has also attracted psychologists such as Piaget, Fodor, Garrett and others, physiologists such as Luria and lenneberg, and even neurosurgeons such as Penfield and Roberts. Therefore, it is obvious that the study of language in all its aspects is beyond the knowledge of linguistics. This is not a problem of Linguistics as all natural sciences have felt the necessity of vigorously delimiting their scope and field of analysis as well.

Salient features of language

You have seen how human languages are different from animal communication in their uniqueness and complexity. Due to these reasons, language has been the focus of attention of philosophers, psychologists, sociologists and, of course linguists, whose preoccupation is naturally with all aspects of language. Human languages display such unique complexities that a simple definition of language is rendered impossible and inadequate. Hence, linguists have devoted much of their focus in analysing the features that distinguish language from other forms of communication. They agree that a language must display the following properties:

- **Duality**: The most striking feature of human language is the fact that it is structured at two distinct levels:
    - o The primary level consisting of units or sounds
    - o The secondary level consisting of elements or words and their meanings

For example, take a simple word like 'tree'. It consists of three sounds- /t/, /r/ and /ee/ at the primary level. At the secondary level, these three sounds combine to form a word, i.e., /t/ + /r/ + /ee/ = tree, which has a specific meaning. Here, three sounds meaningless in themselves combine to make a perfectly meaningful unit. This is referred to as duality.

A cow has less than ten vocal signals; a chicken has around twenty whereas a fox has over thirty. Dolphins have between twenty and thirty, and so do gorillas and chimpanzees. Most animals can use only one basic sound, i.e., the number of messages an animal can send is limited to the number of basic sounds, or infrequently the basic sounds plus a few simple combinations.

Human languages work in a different manner. Each language has a store of sound units or phonemes that are identical to many basic sounds that are possessed by animals; the average number being between thirty and forty. But every phoneme is meaningless in isolation. It becomes meaningful only when it is merged with other phonemes, i.e., sounds such as f, g, d and o mean nothing separately. They have a meaning only when they are joined together in different ways, like fog, dog and god.

This organization of language in two layers—a layer of sound that combines into a second layer of larger units—is known as duality or double articulation.

- **Arbitrariness:** In any language, the sounds develop first and then arises the need to assign symbols and meanings to them. The sound–symbol–meaning correlation was made totally arbitrarily because there is no direct relationship between a particular sound and its symbol or meaning. This relationship is completely based on convention and cannot be explained in terms of logic and reason. With the exception of some onomatopoeic words like hush, hiss or thud the choice of symbols and meanings for sounds and words was made arbitrarily. It is a term given to choices and actions subject to individual will, judgment or preferences that are based solely upon an individual's opinion or discretion.

  Arbitrary decisions might not necessarily be the same as random decisions. For instance, during the 1973 oil crisis, Americans were allowed to purchase gasoline only on odd-numbered days if their license plate was odd and on even-numbered days if their license plate was even. The system was quite well defined and not random in its restrictions; however, as license plate numbers are completely unrelated to a person's capability to purchase gasoline, it was still an arbitrary division of people. Similarly, schoolchildren are usually organized by their surname in alphabetical order, a non-random but still an arbitrary method, at least in cases where surnames are irrelevant.

- **Productivity:** Since language is stimulus free, it is productive in the sense that its flexibility enables us to produce and interpret a sentence in different ways. For example, if you are hungry, you can make yourself understood in many ways by using verbal as well as non–verbal communication. But if a dog is hungry, it has limited ways of explaining to the master its hunger and the stimulus of hunger has to be present in order to make him act in a certain manner. Noam Chomsky, a well–known linguist, has called this 'the creative aspect of language', which accounts for the infinite length and number of sentences that can be produced by a human being.

  Productivity is the measure of output from a production process, per unit of input; for instance labour productivity is basically measured as a ratio of output per labour-hour, an input. Productivity may be thought of as a metric of the technical or engineering efficiency of production. The emphasis of productivity is on quantitative metrics of input, and sometimes output. Productivity is quite distinct from metrics of allocative efficiency, which consider both the monetary value (price) of the goods and the cost of inputs used, and it is also distinct from metrics of profitability, which talks about the difference between revenues that are obtained from output and expenses associated with consumption of inputs.

- **Rule-governed behaviour:** Language is a system that is governed by rules. Thus, learning a language entails the learning of the rules of that language by which an infinite number of sentences can be generated. If the grammar, i.e., the rules of the language, is internalized, an unlimited number of sentences can be formed and explained. For example, sentences in English follow the Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) rule. Hence, it is possible to construct and explain sentences having this pattern – Ram killed the snake, Martin plays football. But any change made in this pattern will lead to the notion of syntactic (structure) and semantic (meaning) ungrammaticality.

- **Displacement:** Since human communication is not in response to a stimulus, it has the property of displacement. This enables us to talk about the past or the future, of things far away and even people who are not present before us. For instance, you can talk about your past experiences and visualize and plan for the future. It is possible for us to refer to somebody who is not present before us at that moment. This property of language also accounts for the fact that human beings can tell lies, imagine or dream of things not seen before.

In linguistics, displacement is the ability of human beings to converse about those things that are not immediately present. In 1960, Charles F. Hockett suggested displacement as one of 'design-features' distinguishing human language from animal language: apparently, man is quite unique in being capable enough to talk about things that are remote in space or time (or both) and from where the talking goes on. This feature—'displacement'—quite definitely lacks in the vocal signalling of man's closest relatives, though it does occur in bee-dancing. Honeybees use the waggle dance for communicating the location of source of nectar. The degree of displacement shown in this example is quite limited as compared to human language. A bee can only converse about the location of the most recent food source that it has visited. It cannot tell any idea regarding a food source at a particular point in the past, nor can it analyse about food sources in the future. Along with it, displacement in the waggle dance is strictly restricted due to the language's lack of creativity and productivity. The bees can describe direction and distance, but it has been experimentally determined that it lacks the sign for 'above'. It is also unsure about whether bees can communicate about non-existent nectar for the purpose of deception or not.

- **Species specificity:** Language is a phenomenon that is unique to the human species. Linguists have closely studied the language acquisition process and have come to the conclusion that it is related to the natural indices of the brain and that language capacity is 'generally coded in human beings.' This led Chomsky to say that 'all and only human beings are capable of human language'.

- **Discreteness:** Language is a system of sounds and symbols. It makes use of sounds, words and phrases which make up sentences. The written form of language is just an attempt at representing the spoken form with the help of certain symbols. Each word or grammatical construction as well as symbol is distinct from one another. Language comprises discrete units, which are used in combination for creating meaning.

- **Cultural transmission:** Language is culturally transmitted from one generation to another. As a child grows up, he learns the language spoken by those around him. Since it is a social phenomenon, apart from correctness, the notion of appropriateness is also necessary. Particular forms appropriate to particular situations are largely conditioned by the cultural norms of a particular society. Besides acquiring the rules of the language, one must have full knowledge of these requirements if he has to master the language. For example, when a person acquires a language, he also learns the usage of certain words or terms and the context in which they can be used.

It is the manner in which a group of people or animals within a society or culture try to learn and pass on some new information. Learning styles are largely influenced by culture socialization of children and young people.

The basic aspect of culture is that it is not passed through biologically from the parents to the offspring, but is rather learned through both experience and participation. The procedure by which a child learns about his or her own culture is known as enculturation.

Based on cultural learning, people create, remember and deal with ideas. They learn and apply particular systems of symbolic meaning. Cultures have been compared with sets of control mechanisms, plans, recipes, rules or instructions.

- **Patterning:** Human languages display the property of patterning. They are neither the result of a chance combination of sounds nor used in a random manner. Patterning is involved at both the phonological and the grammatical level. The language items combine with certain specific items and can be replaced by others which fit the pattern. Therefore, language is a complex and intricate network of interlinked elements and the placing of each item depends on the identity of the others. Patterning is of two types:

- **Low-level patterning:** In low-level patterning, the basic unit of the lower level has no meaning at all, whereas words, the basic unit of the higher level, usually have meaning. You can imagine a hypothetical linguistic system in which specific phonemes had special relationships with meanings. However, no human language is like that. You cannot guess the meaning of a word, even in the unclear terms, from the phonemes that constitute it.

- **Higher-level patterning:** The higher level of patterning is fairly dissimilar. For example, the meaning of a clause is largely a product of the meanings of the individual words that it contains. Syntactic rules try to recognize the role of words in a clause, and the relationships between the words.

- **Evolutionary:** All living languages are dynamic, i.e., constantly changing. Everyday new words are being added to the vocabulary depending on the needs of the users. Similarly, usages and meanings of words change with the passage of time. Changes in language keep pace with the changes in society and nature.

Evolutionary linguistics is the scientific study of the origins and development of language. The basic challenge in this research is the insufficient information about empirical data: spoken language specifically leaves no traces. This led to abandonment of the field for more than an era. Since the late 1980s, the field has been revived due to the progress made in the following related fields:
  o Psycholinguistics
  o Neurolinguistics
  o Evolutionary anthropology
  o Evolutionary psychology
  o Cognitive science

Characteristic features of language

Many studies have gone into figuring out the ways in which language marks the essential identity of human beings and their civilization. Human culture is dependent

on language. This is evident from the fact that some scholars view that it is only through language that humanity has come out of the stone age and has developed science, art and technology. Moreover, the basic feature of language is that it is a means of communication. However, language is not merely a tool of communication; it is also the carrier of our culture as human culture finds its expression.

Language is a human element and differs from animal communication in several ways. Language has several characteristics but the following are the most important ones: language is arbitrary, productive, creative, systematic, vocalic, social, non-instinctive and conventional. These characteristics set human language apart from animal communication. Some of these features may be a part of animal communication; yet they do not form part of it completely.

1. **Language is arbitrary:** Arbitrariness is one of the most significant features of human language. Language is perceived to be arbitrary in the sense that there is no inherent relation among the words (morphs) of a language and their meanings or the ideas conveyed by them. We do not know why we call a thing or an idea by the sound or set of sounds (phonemes) that we use for it. There is no reason why a female adult human being be called a 'woman' in English, *aurat* in Urdu, *zen* in Persian, and *femine* in French. The concept of arbitrariness where the choice of words selected to mean a particular thing or idea is significant in language. Ferdinand de Sassure, in his famous book, *Course in General Linguistics*, (compiled by his students from his lectures), emphasizes on this feature of language and points out the arbitrariness of human language. Except for the onomatopoeic words (words which carry their sense inherent in them, for example, the snake hisses— the hissing sound connotes its sense), all other words or meaningful sounds of a language are arbitrary.

   However, you should keep in mind that once a word (morph, in the sense of a sound or set of sounds) is selected for a particular referent, it remains the same, though we realize that the meaning of words changes over the years. Language has never been constant and has been evolving over the ages with its use. For example, in the eighteenth century, 'whitewash' meant doing make up by women, but over the course of years, the meaning has changed.

2. **Language is social:** As discussed earlier, language is a medium of communication among the members of a particular community. The community is also known as speech community and is bonded in terms of people of that particular community sharing the same language as a means of communication. In that sense, language is a possession of a social group. It comprises an indispensable set of rules which permits its members to relate, to interact, and to cooperate with each other. Hence, it is a social institution. Language exists in society and is a means of nourishing and developing culture and establishing human relations.

   In other words, it can be said that we perform all actions in terms of language. There is nothing nameless that exists in the world. Naming is the way in which we incorporate everything we come across within our cultural purview. Therefore, it can be said that the world exists within language.

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3. **Language is symbolic**: Language is used not only for speaking, but also for writing. For each sound or combination of sounds in a particular language, a corresponding symbol is used to denote its meaning. These symbols are arbitrarily chosen (similar to the way sounds are chosen arbitrarily) and conventionally accepted and employed. Words in a language are not mere signs or figures, but symbols of meaning. The intellectual ability of a language depends on the correct interpretation of these symbols. This assumes that society as a whole or the speech community shares certain codes which everybody follows so that the meaning becomes intelligible.

4. **Language is systematic:** Although language is symbolic, its symbols are arranged in a particular system. All languages have their system of arrangement. Every language is a system of systems. They have phonological and grammatical systems, and within each system, there are several subsystems. For example, within the grammatical system, we have morphological and syntactic systems, and within these two subsystems we have systems such as those of plural, of mood, of aspect, of tense. For example, in English, the syntactical word order is subject–verb–object (SVO); globally, English-speaking people use this order. On the other hand, the word syntactical order of Hindi is subject–object–verb (SOV).

5. **Language is vocal:** Language is primarily made up of vocal sounds that are produced only by a physiological articulatory mechanism in the human body. In the beginning, it appeared only as vocal sounds. Writing came much later, as an attempt to represent vocal sounds. Writing is only the graphic representation of the sounds of the language. Hence, linguists are of the view that speech is primary.

6. **Language is non-instinctive and conventional:** No language was created in a day out of a mutually agreed upon formula by a group of humans. Language is the outcome of evolution and convention. Each generation transmits this convention to the next one. Like all human institutions, languages also change, die, grow and expand. Every language is a convention in a community. It is non-instinctive because it is acquired by human beings. We do not get a language in heritage; we acquire it because we have an innate ability to do so. However, many scholars have doubted the theory of innatism, and consequently, many theories of language acquisition came into existence, which we will discuss when we discuss first language acquisition.

7. **Language is productive and creative:** Language is productive and creative. The structural elements of human language can be combined to produce new utterances, which neither the speaker nor his hearers may ever have made or heard before. Still, both sides understand each other without difficulty. Language changes according to the needs of society.

Finally, language has other characteristics such as duality, which refers to two systems of sound and meaning, displacement, which means the ability to talk across time and space, and humanness. Animals cannot acquire it, and it is universal and refers to the equilibrium across humanity on linguistic grounds, competence and performance. Language is innate and is produced in society. Furthermore, language is culturally transmitted. It is learnt by an individual from his elders, and is transmitted from one generation to another. Thus, using J. Firth's term, language is a 'polysystematic'. It is also open to be studied from multifaceted angles.

Charles F. Hockett: Thirteen design features of language

In his famous study on the difference between human language and animals, Charles F. Hockett talks about thirteen design features of human language which makes it distinct. The thirteen features are as follows:

- The vocal auditory channel is the most obvious of the characteristics of human beings. It is through this channel that sounds are created. The vocal auditory channel is distinct from the other channels such as gesture or the dancing of the bees, etc.

- Rapid fading and broadcast transmission and directional reception are the next two which stem from the physics of sound. These are the unavoidable consequences of the first feature. The sounds that are uttered by humans can be heard for a short period of time; the sound is present in the air for a brief moment before it fades away, similar to any other sound. Therefore, one of the important characteristics of human language is rapid fading.

- The next feature, broadcast transmission and directional reception, is self-explanatory as these two features signify that the speaker intends a particular direction of transmission whenever he creates certain sounds to mean something. In other words, the sounds uttered are meant for a listener and, therefore, have a particular direction.

- Interchangeability and total feedback are the next two important features. As the terms themselves suggest, during interaction, we take turns to speak or share our thoughts, ideas and emotions, as communication is never a one—way process. It requires at least two individuals. Therefore, it is necessary that while interacting, two individuals take turns in communicating.

- Without feedback, no communication is complete, as you can only understand whether he has been understood or not when he receives the feedback. Therefore, interchangeability and feedback becomes important features of human language. The significance of these two features of human language becomes clear when there is a comparison with other systems of communication. In general, a speaker of a language can reproduce any linguistic message that he can understand, while the characteristic courtship motions of the male and female stickleback are different, and neither can act out those appropriate to the other. For that matter, during the process of communication of a mother and an infant, neither is apt to transmit the characteristic signals or to manifest the typical responses of the other. Again, by total feedback, the speaker of a language hears everything that is of linguistic relevance in what he says. Feedback is important, as it makes possible the so-called internalization of communicative behaviour that constitutes at least a major portion of thinking.

- The sixth design feature, known as specialization, refers to the fact that the bodily effort and spreading sound waves of speech serve no function except as signals. A dog, panting with his tongue hanging out, is performing a biologically essential activity, as this is how dogs cool themselves off and maintain their proper body temperature.

- The next feature is semanticity. When a dog is panting, it is not a signal meaning that the dog is feeling hot; it is a part of its systemic ability to maintain its temperature. In language, however, a message triggers the particular result

because there are relatively fixed associations among elements in messages (example words) and recurrent features or situations of the world around us. For example, the English word 'salt' means salt, and does not indicate sugar or pepper. In the semantic communicative system, the ties between meaningful message elements and their meanings can be arbitrary and non-arbitrary.

- In language, the ties are arbitrary. Why should we call 'salt' as salt? We have no answer to this question. Between the signifier and the signified, the relationship is that of arbitrariness. This is the next feature of human language.

- The feature of discreteness in the elementary signalling units of a language contrasts with the use of sound effects by way of vocal gesture. There is an effectively continuous scale of degrees to which you may raise his voice such as during times of anger, or lower it to signal confidentiality. Bee-dancing is continuous rather than discrete. Man is apparently almost unique in being able to talk about things that are remote in space and time (or both) from where the talking goes on.

- The next feature, displacement, seems to be definitely lacking in the vocal signalling of man's closest relatives, though it does occur in bee-dancing.

- Another most important feature of language is productivity; it refers to the capacity to say things that have never been said or heard before and yet to be understood by other speakers of the language. If a gibbon makes any vocal sound, it is one or another of a small finite repertory of familiar calls. The gibbon call system can be characterized as closed. Language is open, or productive, in the sense that you can coin new utterances by putting together pieces familiar from old utterances, assembling them by patterns of arrangement also familiar in old utterances.

- Human genes carry the capacity to acquire a language, and probably also a strong capacity to acquire a new language. They also consist of a strong drive towards such acquisition; however, the detailed conventions of any one language are transmitted extragenetically by learning and teaching. To what extent such traditional transmission plays a part in gibbon calls or for other mammalian systems of vocal signals is not known, though in some instances, the uniformity of the sounds made by a species, wherever the species is found over the world, is so great that genetics must be responsible.

- The meaningful elements in any language comprise words that are used in everyday parlance, morphemes to the linguist – constitute an enormous stock. Yet, these are represented by small arrangements of a relatively very small stock of distinguishable sounds which are in themselves wholly meaningless. This duality of pattering is illustrated by English words.

Thus, these thirteen features of the language of the human beings create a distinctive mark which makes us differentiate between the human sound system and animal communication.

As discussed, language has many characteristics which make it unique to human beings. Moreover, language can be used in multifarious ways in different social and cultural settings and in different circumstances. This wide usage leads to immense variation in the use of language. Language varies according to class, gender, region, from person to person, from context to context and so on and so forth. (This aspect of language variation will be dealt with in the next unit). As there are multifarious ways

of using language and loads of characteristics of language, it is pertinent that language can be studied and is studied from various points of view.

Some definitions of linguistics

'Linguistics will have to recognize laws operating universally in language, and in a strictly rational manner, separating general phenomena from those restricted to one branch of languages or another.'

—Ferdinand de Saussure

'The marvelous thing is that even in studying linguistics, we find that the universe as a whole is patterned, ordered, and to some degree intelligible to us.'

—Kenneth L. Pike

Linguistics can be defined as the scientific study of human language which tries to uncover the underlying structure of human language. Before the twentieth century, scholars primarily focused on the aspect of grammar and evolutionary aspect of language. This is known as philology. Philology is a branch of study of language where you try to trace the origin of words and primarily attaches importance to the realm of vocabulary of a particular language. Linguistics is far wider than philology as the realm of linguistics is to figure out the underlying structure not only of a language, but languages per se.

There are different subfields of linguistics which try to structurally figure out the ways in which language is manifested by us. The different sub-fields include:

- Phonetics, the study of the physical properties of speech (or signed) production and perception,
- Phonology, the study of sounds (or signs) as discrete, abstract elements in the speaker's mind that distinguish meaning,
- Morphology, the study of internal structures of words and how they can be modified,
- Syntax, the study of underlying structures of sentences,
- Semantics, the study of the meaning of words and how words combine to form the meanings of sentences,
- Pragmatics, the study of how utterances are used in communicative acts, and the role played by context and nonlinguistic knowledge in the transmission of meaning, and
- Discourse analysis, the analysis of language use in texts (spoken, written, or signed).

There are more areas which come under the area of linguistics or are connected with linguistics; some areas which are directly connected are:

- Sociolinguistics, the study of variation in language and its relationship with social factors.
- Applied linguistics, the study of language-related issues applied in everyday life, notably language policies, planning, and education,
- Stylistics, the study of linguistic factors that place a discourse in context, and

- Semiotics, the study which investigates the relationship between signs and what they signify more broadly.

There are even more areas which are remotely linked to the field of linguistics. They are biolinguistics, clinical linguistics, computational linguistics, developmental linguistics, evolutionary linguistics, historical linguistics or diachronic linguistics, language geography, linguistic typology, neurolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and so on. Thus, there is no limit to the way in which language is studied in the present day from a scientific point of view. As days progress, linguists are trying to uncover more fields and subfields of linguistics. The more you to study language per se, the more you can get into the depth of it, because of the complexity of its use.

The sociolinguistic perspective

Human beings are distinct from other animals as they can use language in a creative way to express themselves. It is not that animals do not have language of their own; but human beings use words to communicate with each other. Thus, language becomes one of the important markers of human identity. Language is not only a means of communication but also serves the purpose of the carrier of our culture. Thus, one of the aspects of linguistic study that deals with the study of language vis-a-vis society is sociolinguistics. The main concern of sociolinguistics is to examine the way a complex relationship exists between language and society. In other words, it can be said that sociolinguistics is a meeting ground for linguists and social scientists, anthropologists and others. The sociolinguist primarily studies the variable nature of language. He undertakes work from the premise that language is not a static entity, but a dynamic one. Due to the dynamic quality of language, there are lots of varieties of language. Variation in language and language use takes place for various reasons such as geographical separation, sex, age, education, social background, class, and caste, and these variations can be studied at various levels such as phonological, morphological, syntactical, semantic and others.

If we take the example of India, there are about 1,652 spoken languages. This points out to the linguistic diversity of our land. However it is not only that there are these many languages, you have to keep in mind that these languages are used in different settings by different individuals in different ways. For example, a Bhojpuri man may use his Bhojpuri at home. When he is in a formal setting, he would prefer to use standard Hindi. If he knows English, then he may use that in a much more formal setting. He may even mix the two languages while speaking to friends, and when he writes, he may be using any one of the three languages. His language will be much more formal. Thus, in different settings, depending on the listener or some other parameter, he may choose to use different language. Sociolinguists study this aspect of language variation in detail.

Apart from studying language variation per se, sociolinguists also study how language becomes the marker of your identity—whether class identity, gender identity, or group identity, national identity. We use our languages differently and use it in different ways (we will discuss this in detail when we come to the topic of Idiolect); yet it is language which binds us together. Language marks our individual identity as well as group identity.

Language is also a tool which is significant in different spheres of social l
such as education, religion, media, and administration. Language is also a tool
domination.

We can conclude by saying with Fishman that sociolinguistics is about 'w
speaks (or writes) what language (or what language variety) to whom and when a
to what end.'

Some definitions of sociolinguistics

R. Wardhaugh, *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics.* Wiley, 2005

There are several possible relationships between language and society. One is
that social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure and/
or behavior ... A second possible relationship is directly opposed to the first:
linguistic structure and/or behavior may either influence or determine social
structure ... A third possible relationship is that the influence is bi-directional:
language and society may influence each other ... Whatever sociolinguistics is
... any conclusions we come to must be solidly based on evidence.

–P. Trudgill (1974: 32), *Sociolinguistics:*

Sociolinguistics ... is that part of linguistics which is concerned with language
as a social and cultural phenomenon. It investigates the field of language and
society & has close connections with the social sciences, especially social
psychology, anthropology, human geography and sociology.

–Peter Trudgill (1983: 2-5), *On Dialect:*

Trudgill uses 'language and society' as the broadest term, and distinguishes
three types of study:

1. First, those where the objectives are purely linguistic;

2. Second, those where they are partly linguistic and partly sociological; and

3. Third, those where the objectives are wholly sociological.

Studies of [the first] type are based on empirical work on language as it is
spoken in its social context, and are intended to answer questions and deal with
topics of central interest to linguistics... the term 'sociolinguistics' [here]... is
being used principally to refer to a methodology: sociolinguistics as a way of
doing linguistics.

The second category... includes [areas] such as: sociology of language; the social
psychology of language; anthropological linguistics; the ethnography of speaking;
& [interactional] discourse analysis.

The third category consists of studies... [like] ethno-methodological studies of
conversational interaction... where language data is being employed to tell us,
not about language but only about society... [This] is fairly obviously not
linguistics, and therefore not sociolinguistics.

Wm. Downes (1984: 15), *Language and Society:*

Sociolinguistics is that branch of linguistics which studies just those properties
of language and languages which REQUIRE reference to social, including
contextual, factors in their explanation.

or behavior... [2] Linguistic structure and/or behavior may either influence or determine social structure [Whorf, Bernstein]... [3] The influence is bi-directional: language and society may influence each other... [4] There is no relationship at all between linguistic structure and social structure... each is independent of the other... [4a] Although there might be some such relationship, present attempts to characterize it are essentially premature... this view appears to be the one that Chomsky holds.

Florian Coulmas (1997), *Handbook of Sociolinguistics Introduction (1-11)*

The primary concern of sociolinguistic scholarship is to study correlations between language use and social structure... It attempts to establish causal links between language and society, [asking] what language contributes to making community possible & how communities shape their languages by using them... [It seeks] a better understanding of language as a necessary condition and product of social life... Linguistic theory is... a theory about language without human beings.

Variation studies

In variation studies, Noam Chomsky, a famous linguist and a political thinker of the twentieth century, makes a significant distinction between competence and performance. Chomsky differentiates competence, which is an idealized capacity, from performance being the production of actual utterances. According to him, competence is the ideal speaker-hearer's knowledge of his or her language. It is the 'mental reality' which is responsible for all those aspects of language use which can be characterized as 'linguistic'. Performance refers to the specific utterances, including grammatical mistakes and non-linguistic features. It includes hesitations that accompany the use of language. Based on the performance of language of the users, variation studies find empirical data which help in formulating theories. For example, the Hindi spoken in New Delhi and the Hindi spoken in eastern Uttar Pradesh or Haryana are very different. Similarly, the English used in India is very different from the English used in United States of America or Caribbean or England. English is often different not only across the borders, but even within India. A Bengali person speaking English would use English in a very different manner that than of a South Indian English speaking person. Even the same person would speak different English in different contexts/circumstances. For example, in a formal setting, such as in a meeting or an interview, a person would use words which are much more formal (father, instead of dad, child, instead of kid) than in an informal context, such as talking to a friend or a talking to a person from the same peer group.

Thus, there are varieties in the use of language. When you ponder over the divergent, you can only think in terms of the complexity of language; use of language variation studies deal with this performative aspect of language use.

Language and class: A study by William Labov

William Labov's classic work *The Social Stratification of English in New York City* has immense importance in this context. He investigated the sound 'r' in New York City. He believed that r-pronunciation after vowels as in 'park' and 'fourth' was being reintroduced into New York speech. His hypothesis was that the pronunciation of 'r' by New York City speakers varies according to the social class that they belong to. In order to investigate whether the pronunciation varied in a systematic way, he carried out a large scale survey. Thus, his study is an important step in the setting of the model of language variation.

He tested the hypothesis by walking around three New York City department stores of Saks, Macy's, and S. Klein. These are distinguished according to the social class groups they cater to. Saks caters to the prestigious upper social class; Macy's caters to the middle class, while Klein caters to the lower class. Labov asked the shop assistants working in the stores, the location of the departments he knew to be located on the fourth floor. He thus elicited the use of 'r'. He assumed that by investigating the speech of the shop assistants, he would get a good idea of the social stratification of the customers. This is because it would be mirrored in a similar stratification of these shop assistants. When they answered, Labov would seek a careful repetition of the 'fourth floor' by pretending not to have heard the initial response. The incidence of r-pronunciation was found to be maximum at Saks where it was used over sixty percent of the time, at Macy's it was inserted fifty per cent of the time and under twenty percent at S. Klein. As he had anticipated, the results suggested that the pronunciation of /r/ varies according to the social status of the speakers. The analysis resulted in a pattern called class stratification.

Labov claimed that the r-pronunciation is highly valued. It is associated with the upper middle class even though members of that class may not use it on all occasions. A further analysis of the department store makes its firm that that low social class people tend to change their pronunciation as they always aspire to get up in the order and reach a place of status and prestige. His final analysis also tried to prove the fact that the use of r-pronunciation increases the formality off style along with the class status. The most interesting research of Labov was when he said that the lower middle class speakers outperformed the upper middle class speakers when they read words lists and minimal pairs. Labov termed it as hypercorrection. Therefore, in many cases, where the r – pronunciation is not there, r is deliberately pronounced. This is because it is a matter of outperforming the upper class. Therefore, the word 'idea' is pronounced as 'aydiyar'. This happens because the speakers try to overcompensate or overcorrect their pronunciation by believing that it is incorrect to drop 'r' because it denotes prestige.

Labov's contribution to sociolinguistics is that he made it clear as to how language changes or varies with the variation of class, age, gender and so on. Language is a social phenomenon, but each individual had his or her own mark in the way he or she speaks or writes. Therefore, the study of that becomes very important because language is not constant. It is this interaction of the small variations in language which paves the path for the development of the language. Labov has undoubtedly been able to establish that there is nothing pathological associated with language variation.

There has also been a criticism of Labov's classic work for the methodology. He opined that prestige and status are involved with the pronunciation of 'r'. Labov's procedure for identifying the linguistic and social variables is suspected, as the

investigator began with a predetermined list of linguistic variables and their variants. It also includes a range of hypotheses about the social variables such as sex, region, age, social class. to which the linguistic variables are related. It is believed that there is a danger of prejudging the issue as it starts with the wrong hypotheses. Another problem with Labov's style is that it assumes that societies are rigidly stratified, with different socio-economic layers stacked up on top of one another. It is thought that this is an oversimplification of the way society functions.

There are many criticisms against Labov's classic work *The Social Stratification of English in New York City*. But Labov's study is important for sociolinguistics as he pointed out how language varies in its use. So, when we make theoretical generalizations about language, they are merely abstract things. In reality, language is a much more complex affair. It is an affair that needs to be understood in its complexity to make us realize the power relationships in the society and the social fabric of society.

Idiolect

Idiolect is a term coined by linguist Bernard Bloch from the Greek word *idio* (personal, private) and the word *(dia)lect* to mean a variety of language which is unique to an individual. Idiolect, in other words, can be said to be referring to 'a person's individual speech patterns' (Frege), but the term is not so easy to define as there are at least two claims about the relationship between idiolects and language:

1. Idiolects are defined as deviations from a common standard, deviations from a language intended as a social institution or convention (thesis of the *priority of language over idiolects*)

2. A language is defined as the result of the way individuals use linguistic expressions in different contexts (thesis of the *priority of idiolects over language*).

Thus, whether idiolects are variations or deviations from language or many idiolects make a language is something which has caused difficulty for the linguists. While discussing langue and parole (in the Unit on Ferdinand de Saussure) we said that parole is the individual way of speaking or using language which is very personalized and idiosyncratic. Saussure was of the opinion that the field of studies of linguistics can only be langue and not the parole. The sociolinguists try their best to study every aspect of language in all its varieties. They do so in order to understand the way people belonging to a speech community vary in their use of language and yet are intelligible to each other.

We might have noticed that each one of us has a unique way of speaking or using language. We are different from others as we use language in a different way than others do. This is not only limited to speaking but also to writing. Idiolect is manifested by patterns of vocabulary. This refers to the individual's lexicon, grammatical uses, and pronunciations that are unique to the individual. Each one's language production is unique in some sense. Individual variation of language use is of no concern to prescriptive linguists. They are primarily interested in the standard variety. To the descriptive grammarians, this is of utmost importance as idiolect points out the real use of language in particular contexts.

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Dialect

The term 'dialect' originates from the Greek word *dialektos*. It is significant to the sociolinguists and linguists, in two ways. On one hand, dialect refers to a particular variety of a language that is a characteristic of a particular group of that language's speakers. On the other hand, it refers to a variety of language which is supposedly socially subordinate to a regional or national standard language. Thus, dialect is used by linguists with varied connotations. The first way of looking at dialect is politically neutral in terms of not giving any prestige value to the variety of language. The second one is politically motivated where the users of a dialect is usually looked down upon by the users of the standard language. For example, let us take the example of Maithili or Bhojpuri. Are they languages on their own or are they dialects? If they are dialects in the sense of variety of Hindi then, the question of the status of the language does not come into question. But when a supposedly Hindi speaker (in the sense of speaking the standard Hindi) looks down upon these languages or other varieties of Hindi then the notion of the prestige value of the dialect comes into existence. In most urban centres, the standard Hindi speakers look down upon not only the speakers of the dialects, but at the same time also looks down upon the dialects. This is because they are brought up with the idea that they are more cultured as they speak the standard variety of a language.

When a dialect is associated with a particular social class, it is termed as sociolect. When it is a regional dialect, it is called regiolect or topolect. For example, the language spoken by the elite educated class is not similar to that of the language of the lower, working class. In his study on class difference and language, William Labov examines the way people speak, and says that you can very well understand to which class he or she belongs to. Similarly, while listening to the language of a particular person, you can point out to which region the person belongs to. For example, if you listen to a person in India speaking English, you can make out in most cases, to which region of India he or she belongs to. A south Indian person has a different accent of English than a Bengali English–speaking man. But accent or pronunciation is only one of the aspect in which a dialect differs from another dialect. A dialect is also distinguished by its vocabulary, grammar, and phonology, including prosody.

Dialect or language—No universal criterion

There seems to be no universally accepted criterion for distinguishing a language from a dialect. Different scholars and linguists suggest different measures, but they often lead to contradictory results. There are some linguists who do not want to differentiate between languages and dialects, that is, languages are dialects and vice versa. There are some who think that language and dialect should be used separately. Thus, there is a major disagreement in the distinction and depends on the user's frame of reference. However, it can be said that the term dialect always suggests a relation among languages: if language A is called a dialect, this implies that the speaker considers A as a dialect of some other language B, which then is usually some standard language.

It can further be added that language varieties are often called dialects rather than language. They are termed so because:

- they have no standard or codified form,
- the speakers of the given language do not have a state of their own,

- they are rarely or never used in writing (outside reported speech), and

- they lack prestige with respect to standardized variety.

Anthropological linguists try to define dialect as the specific form of a language used by a speech community. In other words, the difference between language and dialect is the difference between the abstract or general and the concrete and particular. From this perspective, no one speaks a 'language.' Everyone speaks a dialect of a language. Often, the standard language is the dialect (sociolect) of the elite class.

Linguists do not study linguistics per se merely from the point of view of language. They also give importance to the socio-political and cultural factors that determine the use of a particular language by a community and the use of the language by individuals. Linguists focus on the aspect of the modern nation-state as a significant determiner of the way the language policies and planning are done. This difference affects the way you perceive it to be a language or a dialect.

It is widely believed that the notion of the modern nation state was developed in Europe since the French Revolution which made the distinction between 'language' and 'dialect'. Western nations are built on the theoretical premise that they achieved their unity as a nation on the basis of either or few or all of the following criteria: linguistic unity, cultural cohesiveness, and same religion or cut off from rest of the last by some geographical boundary. You have to keep in mind here that in the case of India, none of these parameters work. This is because India is a multilingual, multicultural state having diverse religions. The diversity of the land gives it a plurality of its own and the linguistic diversity is peculiar of its kind where there are at least 1,652 languages existing within the boundaries of India.

When we came together as a nation, it was meant for a different reason. But the linguistic diversity in India has created political problems for India often. Whenever a linguistic community or a speech community figured out that their language and culture is threatened by the dominant group, there is a rebellion. Sometimes, it arises in the manner of asking for regional autonomy or for demanding a separate nation. A group speaking a separate language is often seen as having a greater claim to being a separate people or a nation. A group speaking a dialect tends to be seen not as 'a people' in its own right. The distinction between language and dialect is thus made at least as much on a political basis as on a linguistic one, and can lead to great political controversy, or even armed conflict.

However, the question of deciding the status of a language or a dialect based on the view of the modern nation state is doubted by many linguists. The historical linguists try to approach dialect from the language (parent language) from which it evolved or developed. From this point of view, the modern Romance languages are dialects of Latin. Modern Greek is a dialect of ancient Greek, Tok Piskin is a dialect of English. This paradigm is not entirely problem-free. This approach gives paramount importance to genetic relationships between languages. But this approach also has its own pitfalls as a language may develop from another language or dialect. It can diversify to such an extent to be mutually unintelligible over a period of time. Some languages or dialects may change widely, others may not. Those languages may again be subdivided into more languages or dialects. The following language tree of Indo-European languages (Figure 1.1) will help you understand the evolution of language in a better way.

3. A description of the syntax of well-formed sentences of that language.

4. A description of lexical derivations.

5. A documentation of the vocabulary, including at least one thousand entries.

Grammar is nothing but the official set of rules which supposedly govern any language. But keep in mind that more than they being sacrosanct rules they attempt to approximate the language. Therefore, they cannot be correct for all times as with the change of time, language changes and grammatical rules also changes. The prescriptive grammarians are averse to change and are very dogmatic, which becomes a problem. The descriptive scholars, instead of following the dogmatic rules, try to figure out in their research how the rules have changes over the years. They analyze how the change has occurred and led to certain modifications in the structure of the language.

There are many scholars who believe that the term 'descriptive' is misleading. For example, Christopher Beedham in his book *Language and Meaning: The Structural Creation of Reality* says The term 'descriptive' is misleading, because it can be taken to imply a taxonomic, merely labeling, non-explanatory approach, and generative grammar in its inception accused descriptive grammar of being just that and hence we needed generative grammar. However, descriptive grammar is not merely descriptive, it provides analyses, theories, and explanations.' (John Benjamins, 2005)

Conclusion: Who's right—prescription and description?

As suggested earlier, though prescription and description are antagonistic to each other in some terms, yet both the forms of studies have something to offer and are important in their own rights. While prescriptive grammar is essential for the language learners (more for second language learners), descriptive grammar is important as the research of the descriptive scholars provides the clues and evidences to the prescriptive grammarians about their suggestions and advice. Thus, description and prescription has their own importance and it is not advisable to grade them in terms of one being qualitatively better than the other.

Ferdinand de Saussure: A short biographical sketch

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913, born in Geneva), considered the 'father of modern linguistics', studied Sanskrit and comparative linguistics in Geneva, Paris, and Leipzig. In 1878, at the age of 21, Saussure published a long and bright article *Note on the Primitive System of the Indo-European Vowels* which established his credential as young scholar.

Saussure's influence on linguists was far-reaching, through his direct influence on his students at the University of Geneva. They practically worshipped him. His teachings are spread through his ideas which were collected and disseminated after his death by two of his students, Charles Bally and Albert Sechaye. These students who became well-known linguistic researchers in their own right, put together course notes from their and another student's notebooks. They produced the *Cours de Linguistique Generale* (course in General Linguistics). This composite work, shaped and interpreted by Bally and Sechaye, was prepared in the years immediately following Saussure's death. It was a tribute and was seen as a way of making his brilliant ideas accessible beyond Geneva for posterity. It worked out well and the *Cours de Linguistique Generale* was widely read in French by scholars all over Europe. In 1959, it was translated into English by Wade Baskin mainly for American students

and modern cultural studies. They still exert a very strong intellectual force in all these disciplines (probably most in linguistics and the disciplines most influenced by literary theory; less so now in traditional anthropology, sociology, and psychology).

In linguistics, Saussure's focus on the synchronic dimension and on language as an interrelated system of elements was maintained through the American Structuralist period (Bloomfield, Hockett). It was extended to the generative period (Chomsky, Bresnan). His view of the essential nature of the form-meaning pairing, without the intermediate and essentially meaningless syntactic layer posited by Chomsky, Perlmutter, and other generative theory-builders, has re-emerged in theories like head-driven phrase structure grammar (Sag and Pollard) and construction grammar.

Modern functionalist theories have integrated diachrony much more than generative theories (cf. the functional typology of Greenberg, Givón, Comrie, Heine, and Bybee), but the focus on the synchronic has nevertheless been essentially maintained in modern cognitive theories of language. It keeps in with the synchronic view of the human mind in the cognitive sciences, notably psychology and neuroscience.

Key ideas of Ferdinand de Saussure

Ferdinand de Saussure lost faith in philology (the study of the historical development of languages) and the historical (or diachronic) study of language. He argued for structurally studying language as it exists as a system at a particular point in time (synchronically). This feature of Sassurean linguistics is taken by structuralists to study any given text or cultural practice from a synchronic perspective.

Synchronic and diachronic

As against the historical view of language, Ferdinand de Saussure emphasized the importance of studying language from two distinct points of view, which he called 'synchronic' and 'diachronic'. The word 'chronic' was derived from Greek word 'chronos' and means time. While synchronic linguistics sees language as a living whole, existing as a state at a particular point in time, diachronic linguistics concerns language in its historical development (Greek dia - through, chronos - time).

Saussure says:

> Synchronic linguistics will concern the logical and psychological relations that bind together co-existing terms and from a system in the collective mind of speakers. Diachronic linguistics, on the contrary, will study relations that bind together successive terms, not perceived by the collective mind but substituted for each other without forming a system.

Thus, synchronic linguistics deals with systems whereas diachronic with units. The relationship between the both aspects of language study was diagrammatically represented as follows in Figure 1.2.
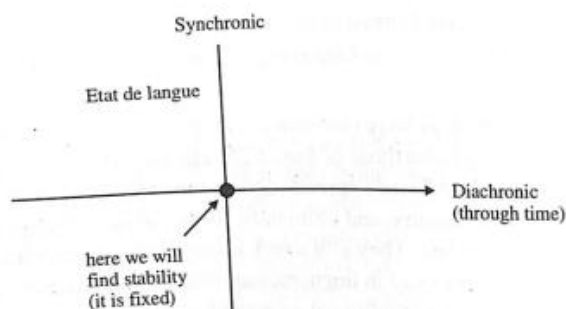
Fig. 1.2 *The Relationship between Synchronic and Diachronic Linguistics*

You have to keep in mind that it is impossible to consider the way a language has changed from one state to another without first knowing something about the two states to be compared. This need not be a pair of complete synchronic descriptions. It is raised as complaint with regard to what linguists actually do in practice. However, some non-historical analysis is essential in the preliminary course of analysis. Saussure rounds off his discussion with various analogies. His analogy with a game of chess is perhaps the most famous of all. If we walk into a room while a game of chess is being played, it is possible to assess the state of the game by simply studying the position of the pieces on the board (as long as we know the rules): we do not normally need to know the previous moves from the beginning of the game. And likewise, the state of board at every move is implicit in any pattern of play we may wish to study. The synchronic/diachronic distinction, Saussure claims, is very similar to this analogy.

Saussure's distinction between diachronic and synchronic studies of the language is a distinction between two opposing viewpoints. You have to keep in mind that a good diachronic work is usually based on good synchronic work because no valid statement about linguistic change can be made unless you have good synchronic work of the languages across the time in which the diachronic work is being done.

Langue and parole

Saussure divided language into three levels: (*i*) *language*, the human capacity to evolve sign systems, (*ii*) *langue*, the system of language that is the rules and conventions which organize it, and (*iii*) *parole*, any individual utterance or the individual's use of language. Saussure was chiefly interested in *langue* as a historical phenomenon. For Saussure, as Roland Barthes describes it, langue is 'essentially a collective contract which one must accept in its entirety if one wishes to communicate.' In other words, it can be said that langue is the structure of a language at a given point of time and parole is the performance of a speaker of that language (Figure 1.3).
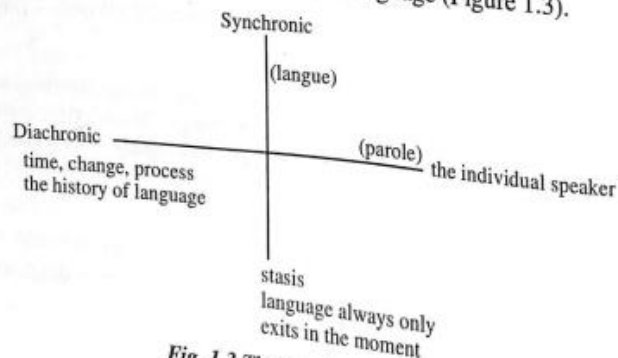

Fig. 1.3 *The Levels of Language*

Saussure also made a categorical distinction between langue and parole. Langue formed the subject matter of linguistics, and parole was constituted of all those elements which lay beyond the domain of linguistics. Parole dealt with individual utterance in the sense of how an individual uses a language within the structure of a language (langue). Saussure was deeply influenced by the sociological theories of Durkheim. He considered language to be an abstract body of knowledge which all members of society shared collectively and individually. This knowledge of the code, which was encoded in the brain of each individual and which belonged collectively to all the members of society, was considered to be langue. Individuals used it either by choice or predilection on individual occasions fell in the domain of parole. Therefore, it was of no direct interest to linguistics. This is the basic difference between the two: whereas one is social and a body of abstract knowledge, the other is individual and is perceptible in individual instances.

The implication, therefore, is very simple: the stable, predictable, pattered, systematic regularities of language are what linguistics could set out to study. On the other hand, the random, unpredictable, idiosyncratic and willful individual use of language was not amenable to a scientific analysis and was therefore of no interest to linguistics.

Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations

The synchronic system can then be described in terms of two axes: the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic (Figure 1.4). The paradigmatic is concerned with meaning based on association, and the syntagmatic is based on combination. The paradigmatic is concerned with the 'fixed' value of signs based on their immediate associations with other signs (like the association of the sound/idea 'large' with other size notions such as 'small', as well as with other sound images, such as 'barge'). On the other hand, the syntagmatic is concerned with the 'dynamic', pertaining to meaning conferred by the combination, order and sequence of signs.
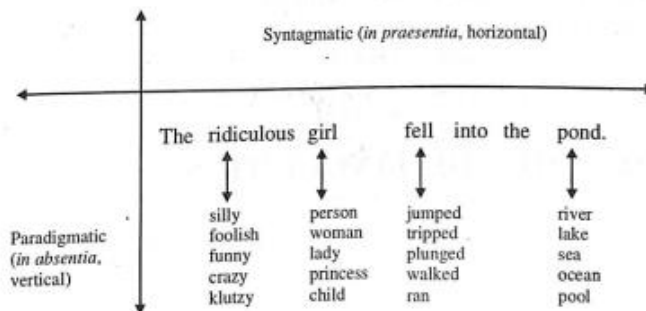
Fig. 1.4 Two Axes of the Synchronic System

The relationship between the words in syntagmatic arena in the sentence 'the ridiculous girl fell into the pond' is the relationship where the words are combined together to produce a meaning, where we have the word order of SVO (subject – object – verb). Further, we have each word define a relationship with the other words. But each word in this sentence can be substituted with other words, as given in the diagram above to make an infinite number of sentences having different meanings. This realm of substitution is termed by Saussure as paradigmatic. The relationship between the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic is analogous to that between the

synchronic and diachronic, in that the former is like a snapshot of related values, and the latter offers a trajectory where value is related to the sequence or progression. The paradigmatic sense is structuralism's primary concern, and it is more readily systematizable, although a consideration of both (and the correlations between them) is essential for any structuralist analysis.

Signifier and signified

In Saussure's view, words are not symbols which 'refer' to things, but are 'signs' which are made up of two parts. They comprise a sound pattern (either written or spoken) called a 'signifier', and a concept called a 'signified'. Things have no place in Saussure's model as language does not acquire meaning as the result of some connection between words and things, but only as parts of a system of relations. Saussure says, 'A linguistic system is a series of differences of sounds combined with a series of differences of ideas.' The relationship between the sounds (signifier) and the ideas or concepts it refers to (signified) is arbitrary (Figure 1.5).

Fig. 1.5 The Relationship between the Sounds and the Ideas

All these significant ideas of Saussure deeply influenced the French scholars of 1950s and 1960s. They started an intellectual movement known as structuralism. The underlying rules of the cultural texts and practices which produce its meaning or signification are what interest the structuralists. The task of the structuralist, in other words, is to figure out the rules and conventions (the structure) of texts and cultural practices which govern the production of meaning (parole).

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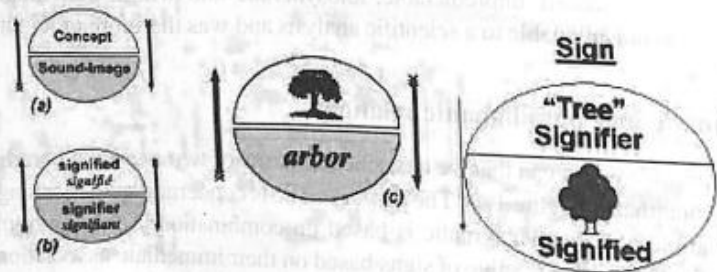*Fig. 1.5 The Relationship between the Sounds and the Ideas*

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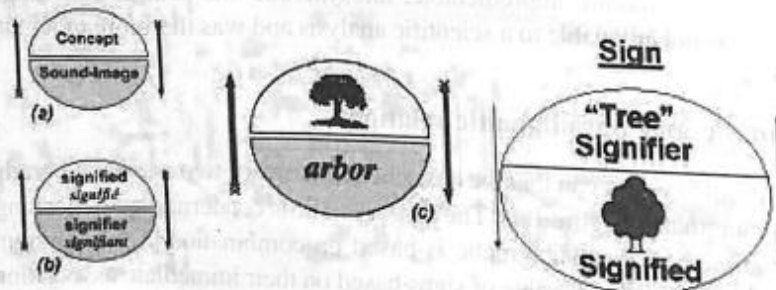
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1.3 BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Linguistics can be divided into five distinct branches in accordance with functionality. These are discussed subsequently.

1.3.1 Phonetics

As the science of human speech sounds, it studies the defining characteristics of all human vocal sounds. It is related to the physical properties of speech sounds (phones); their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neuro-physiological status. Phonetics is a multi-layered subject that focuses on speech. While researching phonetics there are three basic areas of study:

- **Articulatory phonetics:** It refers to the study of the production of speech by the articulatory and vocal tract of the speaker.
- **Acoustic phonetics:** It refers to the study of the transmission of speech from the speaker to the listener.

- **Auditory phonetics:** It refers to the study of phonetics of the reception and perception of speech by the listener.

1.3.2 Phonology

Phonology is used to sort out which sounds are important for causing differences in meaning and which are not, and to establish rules to account for the variations in sounds involved. It studies the different kinds of sounds that are found in a language, their pattern and relationships and is viewed as a subsidiary field to linguistics. It deals with the sound systems of languages. Phonetics is about the physical production, acoustic transmission and perception of the sounds of speech. Phonology explains the way sounds operate within a given language or across languages for encoding meaning. The term 'phonology' is used in linguistics as a greater part of the 20th century as a cover term uniting phonemics and phonetics.

1.3.3 Morphology

Morphology focuses on words, and the combination of phonemes to make morphemes. In linguistics, morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of morphemes and other units of meaning. Morphological typology represents a way of classifying languages according to the ways by which morphemes are used in a language —from the analytic that use only isolated morphemes, through the agglutinative (stuck-together) and fusional languages that use bound morphemes (affixes), up to the polysynthetic, which compress lots of separate morphemes into single words.

1.3.4 Syntax

It studies the arrangement of words in a sentence, their order and the relationships among the different constituents. In linguistics, syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing phrases and sentences in natural languages.

In addition to describing about the overarching discipline, the term 'syntax' directly refers to those rules and principles that govern the sentence structure of an individual language. Modern research in syntax tries to describe languages in way of such rules. A lot of professionals in this discipline try to find general rules that can be applied to all natural languages. The term syntax can also be used to refer to the rules that govern the behaviour of mathematical systems. There has been a huge interplay in the development of modern theoretical frameworks for the syntax of formal languages as well as natural languages.

1.3.5 Semantics

Semantics refer to the meaning of a sentence and its manifestations in language. It is the study of meaning and it focuses on the relation between signifiers, such as words, phrases, signs and symbols, and what they stand for.

Linguistic semantics refers to the study of meaning, which is used by humans for expressing themselves through language. The other forms of semantics comprise the semantics of the following:

- Programming languages
- Formal logic
- Semiotics

The word 'semantics' itself describes a wide range of ideas. They refer from the popular to the highly technical. It is mostly used in basic language for denoting a problem of understanding, which comes down to word selection or connotation. The issue of understanding has been the topic of a lot of formal inquiries, over a long duration, mostly in formal semantics field.

In linguistics, semantics is referred to as study of interpretation of signs or symbols that are used by agents or communities within specific situations and contexts. Inside this view, sounds, facial expressions and body language has semantic (meaningful) content, and each has many branches of study. Written language, like paragraph structure and punctuation have semantic content, which exist in other forms of language as well.

In *Human Behavior at Work*, Keith Davis defines communication as, 'the transfer of information and understanding from one person to another person. It is a way of reaching others with facts, ideas, thoughts and values. It is a bridge of meanings among people so that they can share what they feel and know. By using this bridge, a person can cross safely the river of misunderstanding that sometimes separates people.'

In the words of Allen Louis, 'Communication is the sum of all the things one person does when he wants to create understanding in the mind of another. It involves a systematic and continuous process of telling, listening and understanding.'

George Vardman in his book *Effective Communication of Ideas* defines effective communication as 'purposive interchange, resulting in workable understanding and agreement between the sender and receiver of a message.'

The above definitions highlight the fact that communication is a two-way process and its basic purpose is to create mutual understanding. An analysis of these definitions reveals the following characteristics of communication:

- Communication is essentially a two-way process between the sender and receiver of a message and this process is incomplete without a feedback, i.e., a response based on proper understanding and analysis of that message.
- Communication is a dynamic process, which continues life-long. Without communication, human life will cease to exist.
- The basic purpose of communication is to create mutual understanding by giving/seeking information, persuading/influencing others and prompting a response.
- It is a goal-oriented process, which becomes more effective if both the sender and receiver have a common goal and are aware of it.
- Communication is not just dependent on words but can also take place without the use of words. You can communicate a lot through a wordless message. Often you supplement your spoken words with non-verbal communication in form of gestures, facial expressions, signs and symbols. For example, a smile, nodding of the head or waving a hand.
- Communication encompasses all human relationships in all types of institutions and organizations and at all levels of management.

Phonetics and phonology

Historical evidence has proved that speech developed before writing. A child learns to speak first and the written form of the language is taught to him only when he

begins his formal education. There are many people in the world that can speak a language but cannot write. Moreover, many languages of the world lack a written form. Hence, the first level of linguistic analysis is phonetics which is the science of human speech sounds and studies the defining characteristics of all human vocal sounds. The next level of analysis naturally is to identify the sounds that are important for causing differences in meaning and which are not and to establish rules to account for the variations in the sounds involved. Thus, phonology concerns itself with the types of sounds which occur in a given language and patterns of relationships they form as the sound systems of the language.

The study of phonetic composition of utterances has revealed that different languages not only use different selections from the articulatory possibilities of the human vocal tract but also organize these selections differently in the process of contrasting sounds and possibilities of combining them in utterances. As a result, two separate ways of studying speech sounds are recognized in linguistics: phonetics – which studies and analyses the sounds of languages with a focus on their articulation, transmission and perception; and phonology – which is the study and analysis of the use of different ranges of speech sounds by languages and the systems of contrasting sound features found in them.

Both phonetics and phonology focus on the same subject matter, i.e. speech sounds but they are concerned with them from different points of view. Phonetics is descriptive and classificatory in nature and is concerned with speech sounds and their functions in language. Phonology is more particular and focuses on a particular language or languages and is functional in the sense of the actual working or functioning of speech sounds in a language or languages. Therefore, phonology has been called functional phonetics by linguists.

Branches of phonetics

There are several approaches to the study of different sounds produced in languages. The different branches of phonetics focus on varying sounds produced by human voice. The following are the branches of phonetics:

- **Acoustic phonetics:** Acoustics is a branch of physics that studies the physical properties of speech sounds such as frequency, amplitude and time period involved in their transmission. Since a very long time it was believed that production of speech sounds must have some basic principles and it only recently become possible to record and measure various features of sound waves with the help of instruments. Acoustic phoneticians analyse the speech waves with the help of these instruments in order to describe their properties. Such an analysis of sound is best represented graphically by a spectrogram.

  The study of acoustic phonetics was hugely enhanced in the late 19th century by the invention of the Edison phonograph. The phonograph let the speech signal to be recorded and then later processed and analysed. By replaying the identical speech signal from the phonograph many times, filtering it every time with a different band-pass filter, a spectrogram of the speech utterance can be built up. A series of papers by Ludimar Hermann published in *Pflüger's Archives* in the last two decades of the nineteenth century investigated the specific properties of vowels and consonants by using the Edison phonograph, and in these papers itself the term formant was first introduced. Hermann also played back vowel recordings made with the Edison phonograph at

various speeds for distinguishing between Willis' and Wheatstone's theories of vowel production.

Further advances in acoustic phonetics became possible by the invention of the telephone industry (coincidentally, Alexander Graham Bell's father, Alexander Melville Bell, was a phonetician). During World War II, work process at the Bell Telephone Laboratories (who invented the spectrograph) hugely facilitated the systematic study of the spectral properties of the following:

o Periodic speech sounds
o Aperiodic speech sounds
o Vocal tract resonances
o Vowel formants
o Voice quality
o Prosody

- **Auditory phonetics:** Auditory phonetics is the study of the process of hearing and the perception of speech sounds. It defines sounds on the basis of how they reach the ear drum and focuses on different auditory impressions of quality, pitch and loudness of sounds.

- **Articulatory phonetics:** Articulatory phonetics is a branch of human physiology which distinguishes sounds on the basis of the manner and place of articulation of sounds. Speech is produced by the air pressure movements made by the vocal organs like lungs, larynx, soft palate, tongue, teeth and lips. The knowledge of the organs of speech, their relation to each other and the way in which they are used in speaking provides a sound basis for the classification of sounds in human languages.

The field of articulatory phonetics is a subfield of phonetics. In studying articulation, phoneticians explain how humans produce speech sounds via the interaction of different physiological structures.

Generally, articulatory phonetics is concerned with the transformation of aerodynamic energy into acoustic energy. Aerodynamic energy refers to the airflow through the vocal tract. Its potential form is air pressure; its kinetic form is the actual dynamic airflow. Acoustic energy is variation in the air pressure that can be represented as sound waves, which are then perceived by the human auditory system as sound.

IPA Symbols

Phonetics rapidly developed as the scientific study of speech sounds in the nineteenth century but with this advancement, the inadequacies of orthographies (the standardized way of using a specific writing system) also became more and more apparent. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was devised by a group of English and French linguists who formed the International Phonetic Association in 1886 to provide a precise and universal means of writing down the spoken forms of utterances. It is an alphabetic system based essentially on the Latin alphabet, which represents only those qualities of speech that are distinctive in spoken language like phonemes, intonation and the separation of words and syllables. The purpose of IPA is to represent each sound by one letter instead of using a combination of letters, for example the 'sh' sound in ship can be represented by one symbol.

The IPA has undergone several revisions since it was developed. The 'narrow' transcriptions led to the realization of their inherent inadequacy in representing the pronunciation of the spoken forms of a language. It was discovered that 'broad'

transcriptions could be made possible if transcriptional systems of fewer symbols were devised for each language separately.

The following is a list of IPA symbols:

Consonant symbols

Representations of consonant sounds outside of the core set are created by adding diacritics to letters with similar sound values. A few languages such as Banda have a bilabial flap as the preferred allophone of what is elsewhere a labiodental's flap. It has been suggested that this be written with the labiodental flap letter and the advanced diacritic.

Similarly, a labiodental trill will be written and labiodental stops rather than with the ad hoc letters sometimes found in the literature. Other taps can be written as extra-short plosives or laterals, although in few cases the diacritic would need to be written below the letter. A retroflex trill can be written as a retracted, just like retroflex fricatives sometimes are. The remaining consonants, the uvular laterals (Ÿ *etc.*) and the palatal trill, while not totally impossible, are very difficult to pronounce and are unlikely to occur even as allophones in the world's languages. Table 1.1 shows the consonant symbols.

Table 1.1 Consonant Symbols

Sounds	Words
P	pipe, people, cap, paper
b	bat, baby, mob
t	top, cattle, cat
d	dog, daddy, sad
k	kite, cake, kick
g	go, gang, ago
t	church, rich, feature
d	judge, magic, cage
f	fan, giraffe, graph
v	van, wave, negative
s	sea, system, gas
z	zoo, busy, positive
m	man, mammal, madam
n	net, nine, drain
h	hut, high, heavy
l	lamp, call, release
r	rat, marry, red
w	wet, water
y	yes, your

Vowel symbols

The vowels can be managed by using diacritics for rising, lowering, fronting, backing, centering and mid-centering like, the unrounded equivalent of [Š] can be transcribed as mid-centered [o=], and the rounded equivalent of [æ] as raised [v"]. True mid vowels are lowered while centered and are near-close and open central vowels, respectively. The only known vowels which cannot be represented in this scheme are those vowels that have unexpected roundedness that would need a dedicated diacritic. Table 1.2 shows the vowel symbols.

Table 1.2 *Vowel Symbols*

Sound	Word
i	It, sit
i	sleep, sea, tree
u	pull, book
u:	pool, shoe, truth
e	met, elephant
a:	art, farm, fast
o:	hot, pot
o:	fought, sought

Diphthong symbols

A diphthong, also known as a gliding vowel, refers to two adjacent vowel sounds occurring within the same syllable. Technically, a diphthong is a vowel with two different targets, i.e., the tongue moves during the pronunciation of the vowel. In most dialects of English, the words eye, hay, boy, low and cow contain diphthongs.

Diphthongs contrast with monophthongs, where the tongue does not move and only one vowel sound is heard in a syllable. Where two adjacent vowel sounds occur in different syllables, as in, for example, the English word re-elect, the result is described as hiatus, not as a diphthong.

Diphthongs often form when separate vowels are run together in rapid speech during a conversation. However, there are also unitary diphthongs, as in the English examples above that are heard by listeners as single-vowel sounds. Table 1.3 shows diphthongs.

Table 1.3 *Diphthongs*

Sound	Word
i	fear, ear
e	air, hair
u	poor, tour
i	oil, spoil
ei	say, train
ai	try, bike
u	go, gold
au	now, how

ACTIVITY

Make a list of 10 words containing diphthongs in English.

1.4 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- The word 'communication' is derived from the Latin word '*communis*', which means to share. Thus, communication can be defined as that 'natural activity' of human beings by which they share thoughts, express their ideas and opinions, convey emotions and feelings and exchange knowledge and information with their fellow beings through words (spoken or written), body language or signs.

- Communication is the process of conveying meaningful information. It needs a sender, a message and an intended recipient. The receiver need not be there or be conscious of the sender's intent to correspond at the time of communication. Communication can happen across huge distances in time and space. It requires that the parties that are communicating have a common area of communication. The communication process becomes complete once the receiver understands the sender.

- Language refers to the cognitive faculty of human beings that enables them to learn and use systems of complex communication. Based on another definition, language is a formal system of symbols that are governed by grammatical rules, which associate specific signs with specific meanings. This definition emphasizes the fact that human languages are governed by rules and hence, are closed structural systems. Yet another definition sees language as a system of communication that enables human beings to cooperate with their fellow beings. This definition emphasizes the basic functions of language and the fact that humans need it to express them and for manipulating objects in their own environment.

- Idiolect is a term coined by linguist Bernard Bloch   Greek word *idio* (personal, private) and the word *(dia)lect* to mean a variety of language which is unique to an individual. Idiolect, in other words, can be said to be referring to 'a person's individual speech patterns' (Frege).

- The term dialect has its origin from the Greek Language word *dialektos*. It is significant to the sociolinguists and linguists in two ways. On one hand, dialect refers to a particular variety of a language that is a characteristic of a particular group of that language's speakers. On the other hand, it refers to a variety of language which is supposedly socially subordinate to a regional or national standard language.

- As the science of human speech sounds, Phonetics studies the defining characteristics of all human vocal sounds. It is related to the physical properties of speech sounds (phones); their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neuro-physiological status.

- Phonology is used to sort out which sounds are important for causing differences in meaning and which are not, and to establish rules to account for the variations in sounds involved. It studies the different kinds of sounds that are found in a language, their pattern and relationships and is viewed as a subsidiary field to linguistics. It deals with the sound systems of languages.

- Morphology focuses on words, and the combination of phonemes to make morphemes. In linguistics, morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of morphemes and other units of meaning.

- Syntax studies the arrangement of words in a sentence, their order and the relationships among the different constituents. In linguistics, syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing phrases and sentences in natural languages.

- Semantics refer to the meaning of a sentence and its manifestations in language. It is the study of meaning and it focuses on the relation between signifiers, such as words, phrases, signs and symbols, and what they stand for. Linguistic semantics refers to the study of meaning, which is used by humans for expressing themselves through language.

- The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was devised by a group of English and French linguists who formed the International Phonetic Association in 1886 to provide a precise and universal means of writing down the spoken forms of utterances. It is an alphabetic system based essentially on the Latin alphabet, which represents only those qualities of speech that are distinctive in spoken language like phonemes, intonation and the separation of words and syllables. The purpose of IPA is to represent each sound by one letter instead of using a combination of letters, for example the 'sh' sound in ship can be represented by one symbol.

1.5 KEY TERMS

- **Dialect:** A particular variety of a language that is a characteristic of a particular group of that language's speakers.
- **Diphthong:** Two adjacent vowel sounds occurring within the same syllable.
- **Idiolect:** A person's individual speech patterns.
- **Interpersonal communication:** Any kind of communication that takes place between two people.
- **Intrapersonal communication:** Intrapersonal communication takes place within a person's mind or with himself.
- **Morphology:** The identification, analysis and description of the structure of morphemes and other units of meaning.
- **Syntax:** The study of the principles and rules for constructing phrases and sentences in natural languages.
- **Semantics:** The meaning of a sentence and its manifestations in language.

.6 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Intrapersonal
2. Idiolects are defined as deviations from a common standard, deviations from a language intended as a social institution or convention.
3. Language
4. Displacement
5. 'Diatype'
6. Prescriptive

7. Acoustic phonetics
8. Morphology
9. Semantics
10. Diphthong

1.7 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Define communication.
2. Distinguish between verbal and non-verbal communication.
3. How is language arbitrary?
4. State one difference between phonetics and phonology.
5. State the difference between 'signified' and 'signifier'.
6. What semantics?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the various forms of communication.
2. Write a short note on Saussure's concepts of 'signified' and 'signifier'.
3. Explain the concept of morphology.
4. Discuss the concept of phonology.
5. Distinguish between syntax and Semantics.

1.8 FURTHER READING

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NOTES

Respiratory System

The respiratory system comprises the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the windpip (also known as trachea). The primary function of the lungs is to breathe or respir The muscles of the chest expand and contract to let the air flow in and out. Th function of the respiratory system is to let the air pass through the windpipe (trachea towards the glottis so that it produces sounds.

Phonatory system

The phonatory system of human beings (Fig. 2.1) consists of the larynx in the throat When the air comes out of the lungs, it is modified in the upper part of the trache where the larynx is situated. The larynx is a muscular structure in the front part of the neck and is also known as the 'Adam's apple.' It contains a pair of muscular bands o folds which are called vocal cords. They are placed horizontally from the front to the back, and are joined at the front bit separated at the back. The space between the cords is called the glottis.
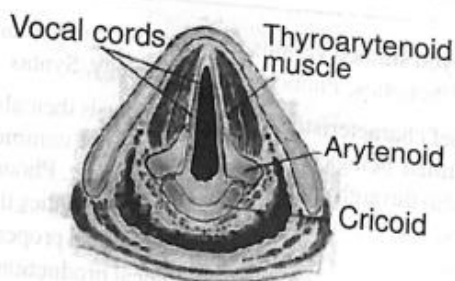
Fig. 2.1 The Phonatory System

As the vocal cords are separated at the back to let the air flow out, it can assume many positions. Based on the opening of the vocal cords, we can primarily talk about three important kinds of sounds that are produced:

1. **Voiceless sounds**: When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded, and the sounds produced is described as voiceless sounds. Examples are sounds in English—sit, sheet, fever, think.

2. **Voiced sounds**: When the vocal cords are loosely held together, the air passes through them and causes vibration in the vocal chords. The sounds created in this manner are called voiced sounds. For example, the consonantal sounds in English such as veil, these, zoo, me, nose are all voiced sounds. It should be noted here that whereas all English vowels are voiced, some English consonants are voiced, some are voiceless.

3. **Glottal stop:** The vocal cords are tightly held together so that no air can escape from them. They are suddenly drawn apart and an explosive sound is created. This is known as glottal stop. The sounds in English such as aunt, end and apple are examples of glottal stop.

Articulatory system

The air that we breathe out passes through the vocal cords. It is modified further in different parts of the oral and nasal cavities to produce different sounds. The various

articulators such as pharynx, lips, teeth, teeth ridge, hard palate, soft palate, uvula and tongue take different positions to make different sounds. This is represented in Fig. 2.2.
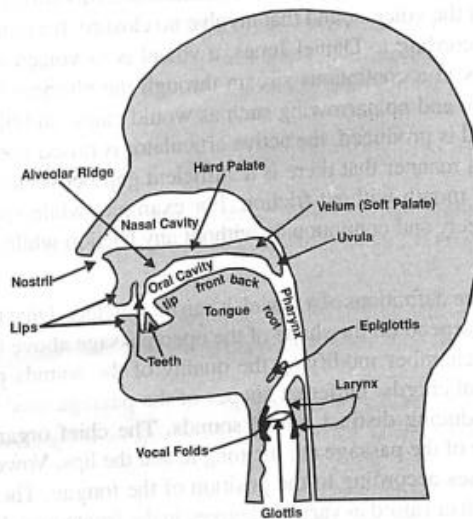
Fig. 2.2 The Articulatory System

- **Pharynx:** The pharynx extends from the top of the larynx to the root of the tongue which lies opposite to it. The muscles of the pharynx modify the shape and size of the pharyngeal cavity by contracting and expanding. It can also be modified by the back of the tongue, by the position of the soft palate and by the raising and lowering of the larynx.

- **Lips:** The lips also have an important role to play in the production of the speech sounds. For example, the consonant sounds such as 'p' and 'b' are produced by closing of the lips tightly and then releasing the closure abruptly to let out the air built up behind the closure.

- **Teeth:** Some consonants are produced with the help of teeth, such as 'think and 'that' in English.

- **Teeth ridge:** The teeth ridge is the alveolar ridge. It is the convex part of the roof of the mouth lying just behind the upper teeth. Sounds such as 'top' and 'drill' are a result of the alveolar ridge.

- **Hard palate:** The hard bony surface in the alveolar ridge along the roof of the mouth is the hard palate.

- **Soft palate:** In the alveolar ridge, where the bony structure ends, the roof of the mouth becomes soft and it is called soft palate or the velum.

- **Uvula:** At the end of the soft palate, there is a small pendant like fleshy tongue which is known as uvula.

- **Tongue:** The tongue is one of the most effective articulators as it is flexible and can take different shapes and positions which are significant in speech production.

2.3 VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

Speech sounds are classified as vowels and consonants. Bloomfield defines a **vowel** as 'modifications of the voice-sound that involve no closure, friction or contact of the tongue or lips'. According to Daniel Jones, a vowel is 'a voiced sound in forming which the air issues in a continuous stream through the pharynx and mouth, there being no obstruction and no narrowing such as would cause audible friction.' Thus, when a vowel sound is produced, the active articulator is raised towards the passive articulator in such a manner that there is a sufficient gap between the two for air to escape through the mouth without friction. For example, while speaking the word 'art', air escapes freely and continuously without any friction while pronouncing the first sound /a:/.

From the above definitions of a vowel, it can be concluded that the characteristic qualities of vowels depend on the shape of the open passage above the larynx which forms a resonance chamber modifying the quality of the sounds produced by the vibration of the vocal chords. Different shapes of the passage modify the quality in different ways, producing distinct vowel sounds. The chief organs concerned in modifying the shape of the passage are the tongue and the lips. Vowels are classified for linguistic purposes according to the position of the tongue. The tongue may be kept low in the mouth or raised in varying degrees in the front towards the hard palate or in the back towards the soft palate. These positions produce what are called open and closed vowels, with dependent variants, half open and half close. Different degrees of openness and closeness also depend on the extent of the opening between the upper and lower jaws. Open vowels may also be distinguished as front or back depending on the part of the tongue that is highest, but the latitude of variation when the tongue is low in the mouth is more restricted. The tongue may also produce central or neutral vowels, which are neither distinctively back nor front if it is raised centrally in the mouth. The lip features which distinguish vowel qualities may vary independently of the position and height of the tongue, though obviously the more open vowel positions give less scope for lip spreading and for strong lip rounding, because the jaw and mouth are wide open.

In phonetics, a vowel is a sound in spoken language, like English ah! or oh!, which is pronounced with an open vocal tract so that there is no build-up of air pressure at any point above the glottis. This contrasts with consonants, like English sh! where there is a constriction or closure at some point along with the vocal tract. A vowel is also thought of to be syllabic: an equivalent open but non-syllabic sound is known as semi-vowel.

In all languages, vowels form the nucleus or peak of syllables, whereas consonants make the onset and (in languages that have them) coda.

Without reference to any particular language, eight vowel sounds, articulated at fixed positions of the tongue and lips, four front and four back, have been recorded as cardinal vowels and transcribed as [i], [e], [a], [o], [u].

There are twelve pure vowels in English and eight vowel glides or diphthongs. There is an argument between the phonetic definition of 'vowel' (a sound made with no constriction in the vocal tract) and the phonological definition (a sound that makes the peak of a syllable). The approximants [j] and [w] describe this conflict: both are made without any constriction in the vocal tract (so phonetically they seem to be vowel-like), but they occur on the edge of syllables, like at the beginning of the English

words 'yet' and 'wet' (that suggests that phonologically they are consonants). The American linguist Kenneth Pike suggested the terms 'vocoid' for a phonetic vowel and 'vowel' for a phonological vowel, so by using this terminology, [j] and [w] are classified as vocoids but not as vowels.

The word vowel comes from the Latin word *vocalis*, which means 'speaking', as in most languages words and so speech is not possible without vowels. In English, the word vowel is basically used to describe both vowel sounds and the written symbols that describe them.

Description of vowels

The phonetics of English is given in detail in books like Daniel Jones' *Outline of English Phonetics*, Gimson's *Introduction to the Pronunciation of English* and Ward's *Phonetics of English*.

- **Front vowels:** There are four front vowels in English. A front vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a front vowel is that the tongue is positioned as far in front as possible in the mouth without creating a constriction that would be classified as a consonant. Front vowels are sometimes also called bright vowels as they are perceived as sounding brighter than the back vowels.
  - o /i/: It is a short, front, unrounded vowel just above the half-close position. It can occur initially as in it /it/, medially as in bit /bit/ and finally as in city / siti/.
  - o /i:/: It is a long, front, close unrounded vowel which can occur initially as in yield /i:ld/, medially as in wheat /wi:t/ and finally as in sea /si:/.
  - o /e/: It is a short, front, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open. It occurs initially as in elephant /elifnt/ and medially as in met /met/.
  - o //: It is a front, unrounded vowel just below the half-open position. It occurs initially as in ant /nt/ and medially as in man /mn/.

- **Back vowels:** A back vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a back vowel is that the tongue is positioned as far back as possible in the mouth without creating a constriction that would be classified as a consonant. Back vowels are sometimes also called dark vowels as they are perceived as sounding darker than the front vowels. There are five back vowels in English:
  - o /a/: It is a back, open, unrounded vowel, which occurs in all the three positions. For example, initially in art /a:t/, medially in part /pa:t/ and finally in papa /ppa:/.
  - o /o/: It is a short, back, rounded vowel just above the open position. It occurs initially as in on /n/, and medially as in cot /kt/.
  - o /o/: It is a long, back rounded vowel between half-open and half-close. It occurs in the initial position as in ought /t/, medial position as in bought /bt/ and finally as in law /l/.
  - o /u/: It is a short, back, rounded vowel, a little centralized and just above the half-close position. It does not occur initially but medially in put /put/ and finally as in to /tu/.
  - o /u:/: It is a back, long, close rounded vowel. It occurs initially as in ooze / u:z/, medially in booze /bu:z/ and finally in too /tu:/.

- **Central vowels:** A central vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a central vowel is that the tongue is

positioned halfway between a front vowel and a back vowel. There are three central vowels in English:

- o /u/: It is a central, unrounded vowel just above the open position. It occurs initially as in utter / /, and medially in butter / /.
- o /o/: It is a central, unrounded vowel just below half-open. It occurs in all the three positions – initially in upon / /, medially in forget / / and finally in tailor / /.
- o /e/: It is a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open positions. It occurs in all the three positions – initially in earthly / /, medially in bird / / and finally in river / /.

When a vowel comes finally in a word, it is much longer than when it occurs initially. Similarly, if it occurs after a voiced sound, it will be longer. For example, as in bee /bi:/, bead /bi:d/, beat /bi:t/. Vowels may also be characterized by what in linguistic terms is called retroflexion or the slight upward turning of the tip of the tongue towards the centre of the hard palate. Retroflexion is one of the characteristics of the American accent. It also occurs in some dialects of British English in the pronunciation of words spelt with an 'r' after a vowel (as in hard, word, etc.). It is also possible to make all kinds of vowel sounds with nasalization, that is, with the soft palate lowered and with the air passing partly through the nasal cavity and nostrils as well as through the mouth.

Diphthongs

A diphthong or vowel glide is a combination of two short vowels. Generally, English vowels are characterized by lip-spreading in case of front vowels and lip-rounding in back vowels. In the pronunciation of long vowels, a relatively constant articulatory position is maintained but a temporary equivalent articulation may be made by moving from one vowel position to another through the intervening positions. In such a situation, it is necessary for the glide to take place within the same syllable. When the diphthong is lengthened, the first element is lengthened and the second element is very short. Therefore, the phenomenon is called falling diphthong.

- /ei/: It is the result of a glide from a front, unrounded vowel just below the half-close position to one just above half-close. It occurs initially in ate /eit/, medially in race /reis/ and finally in day /dei/.

- /ai/: It is a glide from a front, open, unrounded vowel to a centralized front, unrounded vowel just above half-close. It occurs initially in ice /ais/, medially in bite /bait/ and finally in bye /bai/.

- /o/: This is a glide from a back, unrounded vowel between open and half-open to a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above the half-close position. In the beginning, the lips are rounded but as the glide moves towards RP /i/, the lips are unrounded. It occurs in all the three positions – initially in oil //, medially in boil / / and finally in boy / /.

- / /or /ou/: It is a glide from a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open to a centralized, back, rounded vowel just above the half-close position. Initially, it occurs in own /oun/, medially in boat /bout/ and finally in go /gou/.

- /u/: The glide begins at the back, open unrounded position and moves in the direction of RP /u/. It occurs initially in out / /, medially in shout / / and finally in how / /.

- /e/: It is a glide from a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open positions. It occurs initially in ear / /, medially in fierce / / and finally in fear / /.

- /a/: This is a glide from a front, half-open, unrounded vowel to a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open positions. It occurs initially in aeroplane //, medially in careful / / and finally in fair / /.

- /o/: It is glide from a centralized, back, rounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open. It can occur medially as in touring / /, and finally in tour / /.

Types of diphthongs

- **Falling and rising:** Falling (or descending) diphthongs start with a vowel quality of higher prominence (higher pitch or volume) and end in a semivowel with less prominence, like [aj/] in eye, while rising (or ascending) diphthongs begin with a less prominent semivowel and end with a more prominent full vowel, similar to the [ja] in yard. (Note that 'falling' and 'rising' in this context do not refer to vowel height; the terms 'opening' and 'closing' are used instead. The less prominent component in the diphthong may also be transcribed as an approximant, thus [aj] in eye and [ja] in yard. However, when the diphthong is analysed as a single phoneme, both elements are often transcribed with vowel letters (/aj//, /j/a/). Note also that semivowels and approximants are not equivalent in all treatments, and in the English and Italian languages, among others, many phoneticians do not consider rising combinations to be diphthongs, but rather sequences of approximant and vowel. There are many languages (such as Romanian) that contrast one or more rising diphthongs with similar sequences of a glide and a vowel in their phonetic inventory (see semivowel for examples).

- **Closing, opening, and centering:** In closing diphthongs, the second element is more close than the first (e.g. [ai]); in opening diphthongs, the second element is more open (e.g. [ia]). Closing diphthongs tend to be falling ([ai/]), and opening diphthongs are generally rising ([i/a]), as open vowels are more sonorous and therefore tend to be more prominent. However, exceptions to this rule are not rare in the world's languages. In Finnish, for instance, the opening diphthongs /ie// and /uo// are true falling diphthongs, since they begin louder and with higher pitch and fall in prominence during the diphthong.

Another, rare type of diphthong that is neither opening nor closing is height-harmonic diphthong. This diphthong has both elements at the same vowel height. These were particularly characteristic of Old English, which had diphthongs such as /æQ//, /eo//.

A centering diphthong is one that begins with a more peripheral vowel and ends with a more central one, such as [jY/], [[Y/], and [ŠY/] in Received Pronunciation or [iY/] and [uY/] in Irish. Many centering diphthongs are also opening diphthongs ([iY/], [uY/]).

Diphthongs may contrast in how far they open or close. For example, Samoan contrasts low-to-mid with low-to-high diphthongs:

'ai ["ai/] 'probably'

'ae ["ae/] 'but'

49

'auro ["au/~o] 'gold'

ao [ao/] 'a cloud'

- **Length:** Languages differ in the length of diphthongs, measured in terms of morae. In languages with phonemically short and long vowels, diphthongs typically behave like long vowels, and are pronounced with a similar length. In languages with only one phonemic length for pure vowels, however, diphthongs may behave like pure vowels. For example, in Iceland, both monophthongs and diphthongs are pronounced long before single consonants and short before most consonant clusters.

Some languages contrast short and long diphthongs. In some languages, such as Old English, these behave like short and long vowels, occupying one and two morae, respectively. In other languages, however, such as Ancient Greek, they occupy two and three morae, respectively, with the first element rather than the diphthong as a whole behaving as a short or long vowel. Languages that contrast three quantities in diphthongs are extremely rare, but not unheard of; Northern Sami is known to contrast long, short and 'finally stressed' diphthongs, the last of which are distinguished by a long second element.

A **consonant** is defined as a speech sound that is produced when the air passage is obstructed, or the flow of air is stopped as a result of narrowing or a complete closure of the air passage. For example, while pronouncing the word 'pool' our lips try to stop air from passing through when the sound /p/ is produced. In the production of consonants, the voice or breath is partially hindered by the tongue, teeth, lips, or the other organs of speech. Thus, the production of the consonant sounds involves the action of some speech organ. Consonants include the following:

- All sounds which are not voiced
- All sounds in the production of which the air has an impeded passage through the mouth
- All sounds in the production of which the air does not pass through the mouth
- All sounds in which there is audible friction

Articulatory phonetics is, perhaps, the oldest and the best approach for the study of consonants. It believes that the characteristics of speech sounds are determined by their modes of formation. They may accordingly be described and classified by stating the position and action of the various speech organs.

Any description of the manner of forming consonants must be based on the following particulars:

- The place or places of articulation
- The state of the air passage at the place (or places) of articulation
- The position of the soft palate

Place of articulation

The following are the chief places of articulation:

- **Bilabial:** The two lips are the primary articulators. The initial sounds in the word **pat, bat,** mat and **what** are bilabials. For example, /p/, /m/, /w/.
- **Labio-dental:** The lower lip articulates with the upper teeth. Here, active articulator is lower lip and passive articulator is upper teeth. For example, /f/, /v/.

- **Dental**: The tip of the tongue articulates against the upper teeth. Here, active articulator is tip of the tongue and passive articulator is the upper teeth. For example, //.

- **Alveolar:** In the production of these sounds the tongue touches or is brought near the alveolar ridge and here active articulator is the blade of the tongue and passive articulator is the teeth ridge. Tip or blade of the tongue articulates against the alveolar ridge (the rough bony ridge immediately behind the upper teeth). For example, /t/, /d/.

- **Alveo-palatal/ Post alveolar:** Behind the alveolar ridge the roof of the mouth rises sharply and here active articulator is the tip of the tongue and passive articulator is the rare part of the alveolar ridge. For example, English 'r' as in red.

- **Palato-alveolar:** Palato-Alveolar sounds are produced by two simultaneous articulators, which are as follows:
  o The blade of the tongue an active articulator against the teeth ridge a passive articulator
  o The front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate

- **Palatal:** Sounds produced with the tongue near the hard palate and the active articulator is the front of the tongue and passive articulator is hard palate. For example, /j/

- **Velar:** Sounds produced near the soft area of the roof of the mouth and here active articulator is the back of the tongue and passive articulator is soft palate. /k/, /g/, //

- **Glottal:** The vocal folds are used as the primary articulators. Moreover, glottis plays a vital role in the production of this sound. For example, /h/

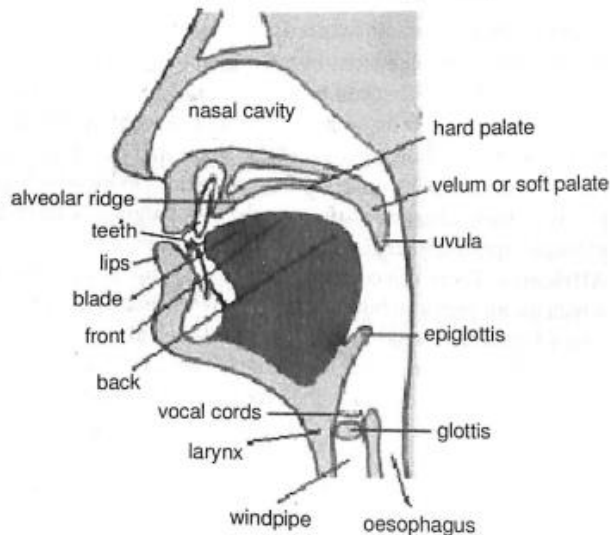The position of the speech organs can be studied from Figure 2.3.

Fig. 2.3 *Position of the Speech Organs*

Manner of articulation

The obstruction made by the organs may be total, intermittent or partial, or may merely constitute a narrowing sufficient to cause friction. Sibilants can be differentiated from each other fricatives by the tongue's shape and by the airflow that is directed over the teeth. Fricatives at coronal places of articulation can be sibilant or non-sibilant; although sibilants are more common.

Taps and flaps are identical to brief stops. However, their articulation and behaviour is different enough to be thought of in a separate manner, rather than just in the length form.

Trills include the vibration of one of the speech organs. As trilling is a different parameter from stricture, the two might be combined. Increasing the stricture of a basic trill leads to a trilled fricative. Trilled affricates are quite well known.

Nasal airflow might be added as an independent parameter towards any speech sound. It is quite commonly found in nasal stops and nasal vowels. You can also find nasal fricatives, nasal taps as well as nasal approximants. When a sound is not nasal, it is termed oral. An oral stop is generally called a plosive, whereas a nasal stop is basically just termed as nasal.

Laterality is the release of airflow at the tongue's side. It can be combined together with other manners, leading to the following:
- Lateral approximants
- Lateral flaps
- Lateral fricatives and affricates

The chief types of articulation are as follows:

- **Complete closure**
  - **Plosive:** The air passage is completely closed for a considerable time and the air is compressed and on release issues suddenly making an explosive sound. If the consonant is voiced, then the voicing is the only sound that is heard during the occlusion; but if it is voiceless, then the plosive will be completely silent. What you hear as a /p/ or /k/ is the effect that the *onset* of the occlusion has on the preceding vowel, as well as the release burst and its effect on the following vowel. The shape and position of the tongue (the *place* of articulation) describes the resonant cavity which gives different plosives their characteristic sounds. All languages have plosives. For example, /p/, /b/, /k/, /g/
  - **Affricates:** There is a complete closure at some point in the mouth behind which the air pressure builds up. It begins just like a plosive, but this releases into a fricative instead having a separate release of its own. The English letters 'ch' and 'j' represent affricates. They are quite common around the world, though less common than fricatives. On sudden release, the friction is audible though it is much slower when compared with that of a plosive. For example, //, //
  - **Nasal:** A nasal sound is produced when there is a complete closure at some point in the mouth but the air escapes through the nose as the soft palate is lowered. They are vowel-like in the sense that they do not issue forth with a noise. The shape and positioning of the tongue determines the resonant cavity, which gives different nasal stops different characteristic sounds. Some examples of nasal sounds in English include /m, n/. Nearly all languages

have nasal sounds, the only exceptions being in the area of Puget Sound and a single language on Bougainville Island.

- **Intermittent closure**
  - o **Trill or roll:** The active articulator strikes several times against the passive articulator. The structure involved is often known as intermittent stricture. In it the articulator (usually the tip of the tongue) is held firmly in one place, and the airstream causes it to vibrate. The double 'r' of Spanish 'perro' is a trill. Trills and flaps, where there are one or more brief occlusions, form a class of consonants called rhotics. For example, Scottish 'r' where the tongue tip trills against the alveolar ridge.
  - o **Flap:** A single tap made by the active articulator (tongue tip) against the passive articulator (teeth ridge). For example, English 'r'. It aiso occurs in American English when the word butter is pronounced as 'budder'. Often called a tap, is a momentary closure of the oral cavity. The 'tt' of 'utter' and the 'dd' of 'udder' are pronounced as a flap in North American and Australian English. A lot of linguists differentiate *taps* from *flaps*, but there is no consensus on what the difference could be. No language is based on such differences. There are also lateral flaps.

- **Partial closure**
  - o **Lateral:** At some point in the mouth, a partial but firm closure is made. At the same time, the air stream is allowed to escape on one or both sides of the contact. These sounds are also frictionless and therefore, vowel-like. Usually, shortened to lateral, is a type of approximant pronounced with the side of the tongue. English /l/ is a lateral. Together with the *rhotics*, which have similar behaviour in many languages, this forms a class of consonant called liquid. For example, /l/

- **Narrowing**
  - o **Fricative:** A fricative is formed by narrowing the air passage to such an extent that the air on escaping produces an audible friction. Sometimes called spirant, where there is continuous frication (turbulent and noisy airflow) at the place of articulation. Examples include English /f, s/ (voiceless), /v, z/ (voiced), etc. Most languages have fricatives, though many have only a /s/. However, the indigenous Australian languages are almost completely devoid of fricatives of any kind. For example, /f/, /v/

- **Narrowing without friction**
  - o **Semi-vowel:** A semi-vowel is a voiced gliding sound formed when the speech organs first produce a weakly articulated vowel of comparatively small inherent sonority and then change to another sound of equal or greater prominence. For example, /j/, /w/

A use of the word semivowel, generally called a glide, is a type of approximant, pronounced like a vowel but with the tongue closer to the roof of the mouth, so that there is slight turbulence. In English, /w/ is the semivowel equivalent of the vowel /u/ , and /j/ (spelled 'y') is the semivowel equivalent of the vowel /i/ in its usage. Other descriptions use semivowel for vowel-like sounds, which are not syllabic, but do not have the increased stricture of approximants. These are seen as elements in diphthongs. The word can also be used for covering both the concepts.

Two classes of consonants can be identified according to their modes of articulation:

- **Oral sounds:** The soft palate or velum can be raised to block the passage into the nose. When this is done, the air from the lungs can pass through the mouth only. Sounds produced in this manner are called oral sounds.
- **Nasal sounds:** Nasal sounds are produced when the soft palate is lowered and the passage in the mouth is closed so that the air from the lungs can pass through the nose only. For example, /m/, /n/, / /.

The state of the vocal chords also determines the type of consonant. When the vocal chords are held loosely together, the pressure of the air coming from the lungs makes them vibrate, that is, they open and close regularly many times a second. Sounds produced in this manner are called voiced sounds. Voiceless sounds are those in the production of which there is no vibration. For every voiceless sound there is a corresponding voiced sound, i.e., one articulated in the same place and manner, only the voice being substituted for breath and vice versa. A point to be noted is that voiced consonants are usually pronounced with less force of exhalation than unvoiced consonants.

2.4 CONSONANT CLUSTERS

When a group of two or three consonants occur together in a word without any vowel between them, it is called a consonant cluster. Sometimes it is also called a consonant blend. Each letter in the group is pronounced individually. For example, words like school and strange. Consonant clusters may occur initially, medially and finally in words. For example, /r/ as in shrink, /sk/ in school, /spr/ as in spring, /lk/ as in milk, / kts/ as in acts and /ksts/ as in texts. The longest possible initial cluster in English is of three consonants as in split, sphere and the longest possible final cluster is of five consonants as in angsts. Linguists have put forward the argument that the term consonant cluster should be applied only if it occurs within one syllable but some others have argued that the definition is more useful when it is not bound by the limitations of a syllable boundary.

Many languages do not permit consonant clusters at all. Maori and Pirahã, for instance, do not permit any two consecutive consonants in a word. Japanese is almost as strict, but it allows clusters of consonant plus /j/ as in Tokyo, the name of Japan's capital city. Across a syllable boundary, it also allows a cluster of a nasal consonant plus another consonant, as in *Honshū* [honUuÐ] (the name of the largest island) and *tempura* [tempu}a] (a traditional dish). A great many of the languages of the world are more restrictive than English in terms of consonant clusters; almost every Malayo-Polynesian language forbids consonant clusters entirely. Tahitian, Samoan and Hawaiian are this entire sort. Standard Arabic does not permit initial consonant clusters, or more than two consecutive consonants in other positions; neither do most other Semitic languages, although Modern Israeli Hebrew permits them (e.g. *pkak* 'cap'; *dlat* 'pumpkin'). Khmer, as do most Mon–Khmer languages permits only initial consonant clusters with up to three consonants in a row per syllable. Finnish has initial consonant clusters natively only on South-Western dialects and on foreign loans, and only clusters of three inside the word are allowed. Most spoken languages and dialects, however, are more permissive. In Burmese, consonant clusters of only up to three consonants (the initial and two medials—two written forms of /-j-/, /-w-/) at the

initial onset are allowed in writing and only two (the initial and one medial) are pronounced. These clusters are restricted to certain letters. Some Burmese dialects allow for clusters of up to four consonants (with the addition of the /-l-/ medial), which can combine with the above-mentioned medials.

General approaches

Innatism

Innatism refers to an approach to understand the process of language acquisition by infants. In this approach, scholars started the study from the basic premise that a human child is born with the innate capability to learn language. This notion of innatism basically arises from the fact that learning of language by child happens in a magical fashion and cannot be explained easily. Therefore, from ancient days, people have believed and tried to figure out ways to understand the innate nature of language acquisition device of humans. As mentioned earlier, the ancient Greek scholar, Plato, even felt that human beings are born with certain innate ability of making the right connection between words and their meanings. Plato's idealistic theories of reality and language led him to believe that language is God-given. Therefore, human beings must be given the proper mechanism even to pick up, understand and interact in that language.

Beyond the theories of innatism, different experiments were also carried out from ancient days to prove the existence of the theory in the first place. In the seventh century BC, Psammeticus, an Egyptian Pharoah, thought language to be inborn in human beings. Consequently, he thought that children isolated from birth from any linguistic influence would develop the language they had been born with. In his experiment, he isolated two children from the social circumstances where the children had no access to language. These children were reported to have spoken a few words of Phyrgian, an IE language of present day Turkey. Psammeticus believed that this was the first, or original, language. In the fifteenth century, King James V of Scotland performed a similar experiment and children were reported to have spoken good Hebrew.

Social interactionism

The social interactionist theory consists of a number of hypotheses on language acquisition. As the term social interactionism suggests, this theory believes that children do not learn language only because of some innate capability that is manifest in them. It also happens because they interact with the other members of the speech community that they are born in and grow up. This interaction with the other members of community facilitates in picking up the language. The compromise between 'nature' and 'nurture' is the 'interactionist' approach. We need to examine the language behaviours that nature provides innately and those behaviours that are realized by environmental exposure, which is nurture.

Relational frame theory

While social interactionist theory makes a dual approach in terms of finding a mid path between innateness of human beings in picking up language and the social and linguistic environment of the child, the relational frame theory (Hayes, Barnes-Holmes, Roche, 2001) provides a wholly selectionist/learning account of the origin and development of language competence and complexity. Based on the principles of

Skinnerian behaviorism, the relational frame theorists are of the opinion that children acquire language purely through interacting with the environment. This challenges the notion that the language acquisition capability in children is innate. They are of the opinion that the context in which the child grows up is significant. This is distinguished from Skinner's work by identifying and defining a particular type of operant conditioning known as derived relational responding. This refers to a learning process that appears to occur only in humans possessing a capacity for language.

Generativism

Noam Chomsky's studies on syntax had changed the way linguistic studies had been progressing on in the twentieth century. His generative grammar is one of the principal approaches to children's acquisition language. In his *Lectures on Government and Binding,* Chomsky (1980) is of the view that the child's acquisition of syntax is similar to ordering from a menu to some extent. The child selects the correct options using her parents' speech, in combination with the context. It is noted that all the children in a speech-community ultimately learn almost the same grammar by the age of about five years. Considerations like these have led theorist like Chomsky, Jerry Fodor, Eric Lenneberg and others to argue that the types of grammar that the child needs to consider must be narrowly constrained by human biology. These innate constraints are sometimes referred to as universal grammar, the human language faculty, or the language instinct.

Further developments

Generativists have been criticized by many critics who argued that the concept of a language acquisition device (LAD) is not supported by evolutionary anthropology. Moreover, they point out that generative theory has several hypothetical constructs (such as movement, empty categories, complex underlying structures and strict binary branching) that cannot possibly be acquired from any amount of linguistic input.

Since 1980, linguists such as Melissa Bowerman, and psychologists such as Jean Piaget, Elizabeth Bates and Jean Mandler have been studying children language acquisition. They believed that there might be many learning processes involved in the acquisition process. The more recent position is that language emerges from usage in social contexts in children. They use learning mechanisms that are a part of a general cognitive learning apparatus (which is what is innate). This position has been championed by Elizabeth Bates, Catherine Snow, Brian MacWhinney, Michael Tomasello, Michael Ramscar, William O'Grady and others. Philosophers, such as Fiona Cowie, Barbara Scholz and Geoffrey Pullum also supported the empirical point of view of language acquisition.

The acquisition schedule

We are aware of the fact that a child does not learn language in a day. The process takes time; it is usually thought that by five to six years, a child becomes a more or less good user of a language. Also, five to six years is insignificant when compared to the speed with which a child learns language. This points out to the fact that a child is born with the innate capacity to learn language. However, as we have discussed earlier, a child does not acquire language if he or she is not in an environment where language is used. So, we can say that a child picks up language as a medium of self-expression and communication, like no other creature, regardless of differences in circumstances in the social environment in which he or she grows up. The environment decides the

kind of language that he or she will acquire. The process of language acquisition is gradual and goes through different stages.

It is being observed that all children (that is, all normal children) acquire language or develop linguistic competence, more or less at the same time and very much in the same schedule. For example, at one month, a child is usually capable of distinguishing between sounds such as [ba] and [pa]. From then onwards, till about five or six years of age, the child carries on picking up different features of language to make more or less a good user of language by six. Young children actively acquire language by identifying the regularities in language.

Caregiver speech

Innatism cannot be the only reason of human language acquisition device. The social, linguistic and cultural environment decides the kind of language that a child picks up. Therefore, in this circumstance, the language spoken around the child by the older children, by the elderly, by adults, and by the caregiver decides the way the child will acquire the language. Many a times, the caregiver uses a language with the child which is much more simplified than the everyday language that adults use. The characteristically simplified speech style adopted by someone who spends a lot of time interacting with a young child is called caregiver speech. Caregiver speech is also distinguished by many kinds—the child-directed speech used by the mother is known as 'motherese'; by the father as 'fatherese' and by others as 'otherese'. Salient features of this child directed speech are the frequent use of questions, often using exaggerated intonation, extra loudness and a slower tempo with longer pauses. These are either simplified words (*tummy, nana*) or alternative forms, with repeated simple sounds and syllables, for things in the child's environment (*choo-choo, poo-poo, pee-pee, wawa*).

Caregiver speech is also characterized by simple sentence structures and numerous repetitions. In the process, the child works out a system of putting sounds and words together to get a hold of the basic structural organization of language.

Cooing and babbling

The earliest use of speech-like sounds by infants has been described by linguists as cooing. It is perceived that during the first few months of a child's life, he or she gradually acquires the ability to produce certain vowel-like sounds, particularly high vowels similar to [i] and [u]. By four months of age, the developing ability to bring the back of the tongue into regular contact with the back of the palate allows the infant to create sounds similar to the velar consonants [k] and [g]. Hence the common description of 'cooing' or 'gooing' is used for this type of production. It is also noted that by the time they are five months old, babies can already hear the difference between the vowels [i] and [a] and discriminate between syllables like [ba] and [ga].

Between the age of six and eight months, the child starts sitting up and produces a number of different vowels and consonants, as well as combinations such as *ba-ba-ba* and *ga-ga-ga*. This type of sound production is described as babbling. In the later babbling stage, around nine to ten months, one can perceive recognizable intonation patterns to the consonant and vowel combinations being produced, as well as variation in the combinations such as *ba-ba-da-da*. Nasal sounds also become more common and certain syllable sequences such as *ma-ma-ma* and *da-dada* are inevitably interpreted by parents as versions of 'mama' and 'dada' and repeated back to the child.

As the child starts to stand up during the tenth and eleventh months, he or she becomes capable of using their vocalizations to express emotions and emphasis. This late babbling stage is characterized by more complex syllable combinations (*ma-da-ga-ba*). This stage also includes a lot of sound play and attempted imitations.

One-word stage

Between the age of twelve and eighteen months, children usually begin to produce a variety of recognizable single-unit utterances. This period is traditionally called the one word stage. This stage is characterized by speech in which single words are uttered from everyday objects such as 'milk', 'cookie', 'cat', 'cup', etc. Instead of the phrase, 'the one-word stage', sometimes, the term, holophrastic (meaning a single form functioning as a phrase or sentence) is also used which describes an utterance that could be analyzed as a word, a phrase, or a sentence. In this phase the words uttered by the child is primarily for the purpose of naming objects, but in certain cases the child also starts extending their use.

Two-word stage

It is usually perceived that the two-word stage begins around eighteen to twenty months, as the child's vocabulary moves beyond fifty words. By the time the child reaches the age of two years, he or she is capable of using a variety of combinations, similar to baby chair, mommy eat, cat bad. It is very difficult to predict whether the child is trying to mean something in terms of a sentence or they are simply about naming them. However, the adult interpretation of such two words expressed by the child is of significance as the adult tries to interpret these utterances of the child by the context of his or her utterance.

The words, 'baby chair' may be taken as an expression of possession (= this is baby's chair), or as a request (= put baby in chair), or as a statement (= baby is in the chair), depending on different circumstances. The above example taken from George Yule's book where he suggests that the child may use the two words 'baby chair' for various purposes, depending on the circumstances in which he or she is thrown in. Whatever be the intention of the child in making such an expression, it is usually the thing that the adult tries to interpret the utterance of the child as a way which suggests that a communication is taking place.

Telegraphic speech

Between the age of two and two-and-a-half years, the child begins to produce a large number of utterances which go beyond the two-word stage. This is usually classified as 'multiple-word' speech. This phase is also called the stage of telegraphic speech, as it is a phase which is characterized by strings of words (lexical morphemes) in phrases or sentences such as 'this shoe all wet, cat drink milk and daddy go bye-bye'. In other words, it can be said that in this stage, the child starts developing some sentence-building capacity. By three, the vocabulary of the child increases to hundreds of words and pronunciation becomes more or less closer to the form of adult language.

Developing semantics

When a child starts using language, it starts learning which sound to associate with an object or idea or concept. The process is interesting as the child makes many mistakes

kinds of round objects, including a lampshade, a doorknob and the moon. Thus, the semantic development in a child's use of words is usually a process of overextension, followed by a gradual process of narrowing down the application of each term as more words are learned.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we can say that despite the fact that the child is in the process of acquiring competence of his or her native language through the later years of childhood, it is usually assumed that, by the age of five to six, a child completes the greater part of the basic language acquisition process. Many believe that the child is then placed in a good position to start learning a second (or foreign) language, though many children learn the second language simultaneously with the first language. However, there are many who start learning the second language at a much later stage in life as and when the occasion demands it.

Introductory approach to second language learning

The objectives of this part are to acquaint ourselves with:

- The various aspects of second language learning
- The difference between the mother tongue acquisition and second language learning
- The barriers that learners face in second language learning
- The factors that boost second language learning

Language acquisition depends on the social environment in which one grows up. A child born in a monolingual social setup picks up one language. If a child is lucky to be born in a setup where more than one language is used in everyday conversation, then it becomes easy for him to acquire competence in two languages. In such cases, the child becomes a bilingual or a multilingual individual. For example, if a child is born in the United States, where his or her mother tongue is English, then the child will pick up just one language, that is, English. But if the child is born in the elite class of an Indian city where the parents and other individuals at home are bilingual, speaking mother tongue and English at the same time, then the child will naturally pick up two languages. It will have competence in both the languages.

However, in many cases, a child only learns his or her mother tongue, but in a later period for various reasons, starting from academic, professional and others, an individual may choose to learn a second language. However, it is true that the learning of second language at a later stage in life is a bit different than learning a second language as a child.

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Moreover, a distinction needs to be made between the acquisition of a second language and a foreign language. For example, a child learning English in India at school learns a language which is slightly alien to him as the social setting in which he grows up does not use English in their regular everyday conversation (if English is not spoken in his or her immediate surroundings). If the child learns the language in USA, then the situation would be different as he or she will be encountering the use of the language continuously. Based on this difference of community setting, second language learning can be distinguished into two kinds—foreign language learning and second language learning. Both kinds of learning are referred to as second language acquisition.

There is a significant distinction between phrases, second language learning and second language acquisition. Second language acquisition refers to the process of acquiring a second language where the child is not conscious of picking up a second language. This is because it is a gradual process and comes naturally because of the environment in which he or she grows up. However, second language learning is a conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features, such as vocabulary and grammar, of a language, typically in an institutional setting.

Barriers in acquisition of second language

In most of the cases, the learning of second language (L2) is very different from the acquisition of mother tongue (L1). Most people learn their L2 during their teenage or adult life. Moreover, they tend to learn the language in an institutionalized setting. This makes them interact in that language only for a few hours, as for all other purposes they already know a language (L1) in which they communicate. For example, a teenage child in India learning English only uses English in the school for a few hours. Outside the school and even amongst the peer group within the school, he or she uses L1. Thus, various barriers come in the way of learning L2. Yet, there are many children who overcome all barriers to become effective communicators in L2. Bilingualism is generally referred to as 'a native like competence in two languages.' This situation arises when a person has a native-like competence in two languages and is an ideal state and very few of us reach that state.

Therefore, when one becomes as an effective communicator as a native speaker of the language, then he/she is probably making an over-statement. There are cases when a person achieves similar competence as a native speaker in one aspect of the second language. For example, one can use spoken language in a similar way as that of the native speaker or in some cases he or she may achieve expertise in the written form. Joseph Conrad, the famous English novelist, is a notweorthy example whose expertise in written English language finds its proof in his writings. His spoken English retained a strong Polish accent. Similarly, when Indians learn English, they become similarly adept in the vocabulary and grammar, but neglect the RP. (However, in the present context, it is not even desirable to acquire the pronunciation of RP as Indian English has a distinct identity of its own.)

Some scholars also are of the opinion that another critical period for language acquisition is around the time of puberty. It becomes very difficult to acquire a second language as one grows up; but this belief is proved to be wrong many times by the learners those who have shown tremendous expertise in second language.

Learning factors in second language acquisition

There are several factors which are responsible for the speed and nature of second language acquisition. The significant factors among them are: learner's age, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, attitude, personality, cognitive style, etc.

Age

Many linguists and psychologists are of the opinion that children are better at learning a second language than adults. Penfield (1953) and Lenneberg (1968) are of the opinion that the important period for language acquisition is between the age of two to puberty. After an individual crosses the age of puberty, it becomes difficult and psychologically different for him or her to learn a second language. Seliger (1978) is of the opinion that children acquire phonological system much faster than adults.

But the alternate opinion also does exist, where experts feel that adults are better learners of second language than children. Cook, while referring to the research done by Hoefnagel and Hohle, shows that the older learners are able to pick up Dutch much faster than the children after a period of three months. Cook says, 'If children and adults are compared who are learning a second language in exactly the same way, whether as immigrants to Holland, or by the same method in classroom, adults are better. The apparent superiority of adults in such controlled research may meant that the typical situations in which children find themselves are better suited to L2 learning than those adults encounter, age itself is not so important as the different interaction that learners of different ages have with the situations and with other people.' He moreover points out: 'Adults start more quickly and then slow down. Though children start more slowly, they finish up at a higher level.'

Sex

Several studies are done on whether sex determines the nature of second language acquisition. It is being found that girls are better learners of second language than boys. Trudgill points out how women used the prestige linguistic forms more frequently than men. This is a result of female social insecurity. To compensate this insecurity, women are faster learners of second language than the boys. Agnihotri is of the opinion that girls pick up prestige second language faster but are slow in the stigmatized form.

Intelligence

The intelligence of a person obviously decides the way and the speed of second language acquisition. However, many studies (Pimsleur et al, 1962; Carroll and Sapon, 1959) are being done where scholars are skeptical about the relationship between intelligence and language acquisition skills.

Aptitude

By aptitude, one means whether the person has a knack for his actions. Often we hear the phrase, 'a knack for languages', which means that a person can have an aptitude to learn a new language. There are two known measures of second language acquisition aptitude—modern language aptitude test (MLAT), developed by Carroll and Sapon (1959) and the Pimsleur Langauge aptitude battery (LAB) (1966). MLAT talks about four factors that predict a student's success in the classroom:

1. **Phonemic coding ability:** Student's ability to use phonetic scripts to distinguish phonemes in the languages.

2. **Grammatical sensitivity:** Student's ability to pick out grammatical functions in a sentence.

3. **Inductive language learning ability:** Student's ability to generalize patterns from one sentence to another.

4. **Rote learning:** Student's ability to remember vocabulary lists of foreign words paired with translations.

Cognitive style

Cognitive style refers to the way a person tries to organize his or her way of looking at things, personality and performance. It does not refer to his or her intelligence or competence.

Researchers have pointed out that that there are three different cognitive styles:

1. **Field-independence/ field-dependence:** Field-dependence means that a person cannot think of an object or event separately from the context in which that has occurred or appeared. The context is the field. The field-independent person can do it without the context. Researchers have related this to the second language learning. Skehan points out that the field dependent persons usually have greater communicative skills. Greater conversational skills and greater negotiation skills help in being a better learner of second language.

2. **Reflection-impulsivity:** The idea is whether a person impulsively responds to a situation or reflects over the issue. People who are impulsive are faster learners of language and are not so accurate, whereas the reflective people are accurate though slow.

3. **Categorization styles:** This refers to the way an individual classifies and arranges the information, things, events, and objects that he or she encounters, which can be subdivided into three types:
   - *Descriptive:analytic style*—concentrates in a single detail common to all objects.
   - *Categorical:inferential style*—focuses on the class of objects.
   - *Relational:contextual style*—focuses on the common theme or function.

Personality

There are certain personality traits which are significant in second language acquisition. They are social conformity, extrovertness, flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, independence, self-confidence, maturity, meticulousness, responsibility, etc. These factors make a person or a child a better learner of second language.

Attitude

Attitude plays an important role in second language acquisition. The attitude of a second language learner can vary from person to person because of different factors such as attitude towards the teacher, attitude towards the language itself or the group that speaks the language. According to Allport, 'Attitude is a mental and neutral state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all object and situations with which it is related.' This readiness to learn a language can make things happen faster or slower. Some researchers are of the opinion that attitudes towards learning of a second language and the second language speaking community connect significantly with achievement of the learner. Gardner and Lambert were of the opinion that 'a friendly outlook

ards the other group whose language is being learnt can differentially sensitize learner to the audio-lingual features of the language, making him more perceptive orms of pronunciation and accent than is the case for a learner without this open friendly disposition.' Spolsky, Burstall and other scholars conducted evaluative arches and opined that the initial success or failure in language learning can be a rerful determinant of linguistic attitudes.

The general disposition among researchers is that there are essentially two ors—ethnocentrism and authoritarianism—which are responsible for language ning. Gardner and Lambert believe that 'learners who have strong ethnocentric or loritarian attitude or who have learned to be prejudiced towards foreign people unlikely to approach the language learning task with an integrative outlook... horitarianism refers to anti-democratic feelings and is generally measured through lect for authority, use of force, nationalism etc. agreement or disagreement with le of the following statements may elicit the second language learner's task with ntegrative outlook.' Ethnocentrism, on the other hand, refers to people who suspect ign people and ideas. It is generally measured through attitude towards the igners, preservation of nationality, respect for national symbols etc.

Both these factors influence second language learning very much as they both ern the way the learner approaches the languages. Though the attitude of the ner towards the target language varies according to the variation of geographical ndaries, or age, etc., if the learner has more exposure to the target language then attitude to the language also becomes more favourable.

tivation

term 'motivation' in the second language learning is viewed by Gardner as erring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language. s is because they have a desire to do so and there is satisfaction experienced in this vity'. It is the learner's drive to learn language that can be termed as motivation, comprises not only the favourable attitude. For example, a person living in India a favourable opinion about English language, but that does not mean that he is tivated. Moreover, when he puts in a special effort to strive to learn the language, l we can call him motivated.

Gardner and Lambert have conducted some pioneering study to explore the re of the motivation specific to languages. They suggest that those people who itify positively with the target language group would like to resemble the target guage group. They tend to understand their culture and participate in it. The pattern notivation is named 'integrative motivation.' In most cases of integrative motivation, learner tries to get included into the culture of the target language by making his sonality and his perspective change according to the culture of the target language. may also learn the language to read and understand the art and literature of the et language. In contrast to this, in the 'instrumental motivation', the learner learns language. He does so because he wants that language to be used in a utilitarian y to attain some goals in his career. He wants to travel at ease, or have any such ctical motive. Thus, motivation differs its variety and its nature (instrumental or grative) changes the perspective of the learner and also the way he learns the guage. In case of instrumental motivation, the learner only learns the language in h a way that he may use it in the context where it is necessary. But if the learner an integrative motivation, then he learns it so well that he becomes a compound ngual or a full bilingual.

Gardner conducted a detailed study of the motivation aspects of second language learning. He opines that motivation is a combination of the attitudes towards the target language and the effort and the desire to learn it. These can be of three kinds—integrative, instrumental and manipulative. The integrative motive is a hypothetical construct comprising motivation, positive attitudes to the learning situation and integrativeness. Gardner opines that different factors such as age, previous language training, sources of exposure, socio-economic status, physical conditions of the learning situation, patterns of language in different types of activity, teacher effectiveness are also responsible for the second language learning. For example, if two people in New Delhi are trying to learn two languages—English and French respectively, the first person will be able to learn the language faster than the second one, even if the motivation is the same. This is because of the situation in which they are learning. Thus, along with other factors of equal importance, the motivation and attitude also are the important variables in the process of the second language learning.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be said that second language learning is as complex a process as first language acquisition. It is more difficult than the acquiring the competence of the mother tongue. There are various factors responsible for such difficulty including human capability, the context of language use, etc. As there are various reasons such as professional, educational, cultural, financial and others, people across the world learn or try to learn second language. There are various factors that decide the pace and effectiveness of the second language acquisition. These include the learner's age, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, attitude, personality, cognitive style, etc.; many scholars feel that the learner of the second language cannot be similarly competent as the native speaker of the language, though many a time this theory has been proved wrong by the learners who became very effective users of the language.

One aspect of second language acquisition that we have not discussed in this unit is the aspect of teaching the second language. As second language is usually learnt, it presupposes that the teaching-learning process comes into action. In this process, it is important that one thinks in terms of the different methodologies that the teachers can use to make second language acquisition more effective and useful. We will deal with this aspect of second language acquisition subsequently.

Methods and approaches to second language teaching

Many children learn several languages at a very young age, but many learn a second language when they grow up. Learning a second language (L2) at a later stage in life is not a major disadvantage, though age works as a major factor in the second language learning as discussed in the last chapter. When we discussed the first language acquisition, we did not talk about the method as no method is needed for the acquisition of the first language. This is because the child has the capability to pick up languages on its own. No one teaches the child how to pick up his first language; he or she does it by himself or herself. But when second language is learnt after a particular age, then the notion of teaching the second language comes into being. Scholars are varied in their opinion about how to teach the second language or the foreign language. Therefore, it is said that language teaching involves many methods. It is not that some methods are better than the others; in different context and different situations different methods become popular and effective. In other words, it can be said that different methods may be appropriate but in different contexts. There is no one single method

strongly recommended in the teaching of second language as the level of the learners differs from one another. So, it becomes necessary for a teacher to know the different methods of teaching and learning, as an awareness of variety of methods helps the teachers to apply the relevant method in his or her classroom successfully.

However, as said earlier, there lies a difference between language acquisition and language learning as one is an unconscious process while the other is a conscious decision. The difference between them can be enumerated as follows:

ACQUISITION	LEARNING
In acquisition, one gains knowledge by one's own.	In learning, one gains knowledge and skill by study (teaching-learning process).
Mother tongue competence develops in a human beings.	One learns the second language.
Done in a very early stage of life with in five to six years.	Done in a later stage, mostly after six years
An unconscious process.	A conscious decision having a particular purpose.
The context is crucial and meaningful.	Context is not so significant, though it may help.
Child learns it effortlessly.	Motivation is essential.

The three major second language learning issues that Stern (1983) talks about are as follows:

1. The L1–L2 connection is the disparity in the learner's mind between the inevitable dominance of the mother tongue or L1 and the weaknesses of the second language knowledge.
2. The explicit–implicit option is the choice between more conscious ways of learning a foreign language and more subconscious ways of learning it.
3. The code-communication dilemma has been a major issue recently. It refers to the problems that learners have to cope with when learning a new language, as they have to pay attention on the one hand to linguistic forms (the code) and on the other to real communication.

As mentioned earlier, acquisition of a second tongue is a conscious process where the individual acquires or tries to acquire a second language because of a specific purpose. The purpose may be professional, educational, financial or cultural (as he or she may belong to a particular class or community) or may be for numerous other reasons. Therefore, second language learning always depends on the motivation that the language learner has in his or her acquisition.

It is usually the norm that second language is usually taught to the learners and teaching involves certain methodologies. Over the years, scholars and teachers have evolved various methods of teaching second language to make language learning faster, effective and socially and culturally productive and purposeful. Among these methods, some have become obsolete over a period of time, and others were modified to suit various purposes, but all methods had their importance in their periods. Let us now focus on some of the methods of second language learning.

Traditional or grammar translation method

The traditional or grammar-translation method was primarily applied to the study of second languages from the seventeenth to the twentieth century. In the nineteenth century, this method was rather widespread for learning second languages. Even today, this method has not completely died out, though there are very few practitioners of this method.

Principles of the grammar-translation method

The most relevant principles of this method can be summarized as follows:

- The method emphasizes on the study and translation of written language, more than the spoken form. When one excels in translation, then one starts translating the moment one hears a sentence to be translated. But in the second language learning schedule, the beginners start translating simpler things and slowly move on to more and more complex aspects in written form of the language. Initially, easier constructions of the language are given and complexities of language are dealt at a later stage.

- Learners are considered successful if they can translate from their mother tongue to the second language, even if they cannot communicate orally. As translation is the main focus of this method, if a learner of a second language is able to translate properly, it is assumed that he has achieved command over the second language. The thrust is on academic use of second language and not on social or everyday use.

- Reading and writing are considered the main language skills. The spoken form of language is usually neglected.

- The role of the teacher in this method is very authoritarian as the primary interaction is between the teacher and the student. Students are not encouraged to talk amongst themselves in any language as the focus is not on the spoken form of language.

- Students are made to learn grammatical rules and are asked to use them in their exercises. Understanding and grasping the rules of grammar is very significant in the grammar-translation method, therefore, students are made to learn grammatical rules so that it helps in the process of translation.

- The basic unit of teaching is the sentence.

- The student's native language is usually the medium of instruction.

The main techniques used by the grammar-translation method

The method focuses on the teaching of the second language grammar primarily through the grammatical rules and lists of vocabulary. It also comprises translations into the mother tongue. Translation is considered the most important classroom activity. The main procedure of an ordinary lesson follows this plan: a presentation of a grammatical rule, followed by a list of vocabulary and, finally, translation exercises from selected texts.

Other activities and procedures can be the following:
- reading comprehension questions about the text;
- students find antonyms and synonyms from words in the text;

- vocabulary is selected from the reading texts and it is memorized; sentences are formed with the new words.

Major disadvantages of the grammar-translation method

Major disadvantages of the grammar-translation method are as follows:

- The grammar-translation method focuses on the use of language by the great authors and thereby, overlooks the fact of everyday conversational language. Great authors are grand in their constructions in language and are ahead of the everyday conversational language. Therefore, when a second language learner gets himself acquainted with the language through the language of the great authors, he or she is not acquiring the conversational day-to-day language at all. In the process, he or she completely lacks the skill to use language for conversational purposes. For example, in India, often, we can find people good in written English but hesitate in using English for conversational purposes. The primary reason for such hesitation is that he or she has certain mental or psychological barrier in speaking English. These mental barriers exist as at no point of time the individual has got a chance to use the language for conversational purposes. The thrust of grammar-translation method is merely on the written form of language and does not make the second language learner learn various aspects of language use.

- Grammatical rules and list of vocabulary that the student memorizes are sometimes very confusing for the student. There may be a few who are good in memorizing, but most of us dislike it. The grammar-translation method helps in memorizing and creates problems for the learners as they often do not figure out or grasp the rules of language but merely memorize them, making them useless. Similarly, learning vocabulary does not mean much as what one needs to grasp is how those words can be used in proper occasions. Moreover, it is also important to learn how the same word can be used in different occasions to mean different things. This is missing in the grammar-translation method.

- This method gives too much of importance to morphology, but neglects syntax when syntax is thought to be one of the basic element of any language learning.

- The method provides too much importance to faults to be avoided and to exceptions, which emphasize on the prescriptive and mechanical aspect of language. The mechanical aspect does not make the learners engage with the second language which hampers the learning process. Sometimes, the mechanical aspect deters the learner away from the language making the grammar-translation method a barrier in second language learning.

- In most cases, the translations done by learners are not up to the mark as they are done word by word. Word to word translation can never imbibe the spirit of the language to which it is translated. This is because each word of a language has a cultural baggage attached to it. Therefore, it is significant that one understands the two cultures, than merely knowing the vocabularies of two languages. When one translates, one is translating from one culture to another. Therefore, it is significant that translation is done in terms of finding cultural, morphological and syntactical equivalence in the target language. As the grammar-translation method merely focuses on word-to-word translation, the learners in the process of learning language merely learn the mechanical aspect of translation and not the language and culture of the second language.

- Many a times, the tedious process of memorizing makes the learner frustrated about the whole process of learning a second language.

The direct method

Another important method of teaching second language is called the direct method. It is often referred to as the natural method. It evolved due to dissatisfaction with the grammar-translation method. In the direct method, the attempt is to create a context similar to that of the mother tongue acquisition (hence, it is sometimes also named the natural method). It was based on the assumption that the learner of a foreign language should think directly in the target language. According to this method, for example, English is taught through English. The learner learns the target language through discussion, conversation and reading in the second language. This method was established in Germany and France around 1900. In the US, it is known as Berlitz method. The main aim of this method is to help the students speak the target language (L2) fluently and correctly. In other words, the focus of this method is to make the learner get himself or herself equipped with the conversational aspect of the second language so that he or she becomes adept in using the second language in his or her day to day life. Thus, it can be said that there is a complete shift of focus in the direct method from the grammar translation method as the former is more concerned with the spoken form of language and the latter with the written aspect.

Characteristic features of the direct method

- Teaching of vocabulary is done through pantomiming real-life objects and other visual materials. The tedious process of memorizing vocabularies is prevalent in the grammar-translation method and does not become taxing for learners. It does not deter them from learning the second language. Thus, while not giving so much emphasis on memorizing and by making the students a part of the process of learning through real life objects, the direct method engages the learners with the second language and makes the learning process interesting and engaging.

- Teaching of grammar is done by using an inductive approach centrality of spoken language (including a native speaker like pronunciation), which makes the learner feel that he or she is growing up to be a part of the speech community of the target language. As discussed earlier, one of the main motivations of the second language learner is to learn the language so that he can be a part of the speech community of the second language.

- The focus is on question–answer patterns.

- Teacher is the centre of learning.

Principles

- Instructions in classroom are given in the second language so that the learners get the second language from the beginning and gets into the habit of interacting in the second language.

- The focus is on the everyday vocabulary and sentences during the initial phase; grammar, reading and writing are introduced in intermediate phase.

- Oral teaching precedes any form of reading and writing as the primary emphasis is on the spoken form of language.

- Grammar is taught inductively.
- Pronunciation is taught systematically in accordance with the principles of phonetics and phonology of the second language so that the learner can be a part of the second language speech community also in terms of pronouncing the second language exactly in the same manner as the native speaker of the language.
- The meanings of words and forms are taught by means of object or natural context.
- Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects and pictures; abstract vocabulary is taught by the association of ideas.
- Both speech and listening comprehensions are taught.
- The focus is on the learner; therefore, they speak at least eighty per cent of the time.
- Learners are taught from the beginning to ask questions as well as answer thems.

Advantages

There are many advantages of the direct method. They are as follows:

- This method tries to teach the second language in the same way as one learns one's mother tongue. The language is taught through demonstration and conversation in context. Therefore, students are quick at understanding the spoken from. It is a natural method which has its benefits.
- The mother tongue is not used and the learner focuses not only on learning the second language but at the same time tries to grasp it to the fullest.
- This method is based on sound principles of education as it believes in introducing the particular before general, concrete before abstract and practice before theory.

Disadvantages

The disadvantages are as follows:

- Many educationists and scholars are of the view that the direct method does not take into account all aspects of language teaching. It emphasizes on the written form and neglects the written aspect of language. In other words, it can be said that this method is not comprehensive enough as language learning involves acquisition of skills—listening, speaking, reading and writing. The direct method concentrates on listening and speaking but not reading and writing. That is why many of those who have learned the second language through the direct method feel that they do not get adequate command over written language.
- Its procedures and techniques were difficult for the learner as the instruction from the beginning is given in the second language which makes the learner not grasp the instructions.

- Teachers had difficulty in explaining the difficult words as he or she is not able to use the mother tongue of the learner to explain difficult concepts and words.

- No selection and grading of vocabulary and structures.

- It was a success in private language schools but not in public secondary schools.

- There was less time and less opportunity available in the classroom.

A comparison between the direct method and the grammar-translation method, we must take into account the following points:

i. The direct method:

1. Avoids close association between the second or foreign language and the mother tongue.
2. Lays emphasis on speech.
3. Follows the child's natural way of learning a language.
4. Teaches the language by 'use' and not by 'rule'.
5. Does not favour the teaching of formal grammar at the early stage.

ii. The grammar—translation method:

1. Maintains close association between the foreign language and the mother tongue.
2. Lays emphasis on speech.
3. Follows the adult's natural way of learning a language.
4. Teaches the language by 'rule' and not by 'use'.
5. Teaches formal grammar from the very beginning.

Bilingual method

Dr C.J. Dodson developed the bilingual method, which is also known as the sandwich method. In this method, both L1 and L2 are used as medium of instruction. The teaching begins with a bilingual approach and then gradually becomes monolingual at the end. In that sense, the teacher uses both mother tongue (L1) and the target language (L2) in the classroom during the initial classes and then gradually uses less of L1 to focus on L2.

There is a three-phase structure of the presentation–practice–production model followed in the class room where the lesson starts out with the reproduction/ performance of a basic dialogue, and then moves on to the variation and recombination of the basic sentences and ends up with an extended application. Dodson analysed the most direct form of access to meaning possible by using oral mother tongue equivalents at sentence level to convey the meaning of unknown words or structures in a second language.

The following principles are followed in the bilingual method:
- Second language is learnt with the help of L1.
- Mother tongue is not used as translation, but becomes one of the medium initially for the teachers to begin the process of acquainting the learners with L2.
- Teacher only uses L1 in the class room, whereas the students are not allowed to use their mother tongue.

- When the students achieve sufficient communicative proficiency, L1 is withdrawn by the teacher.
- Syntax is the unit of teaching

Procedure/steps in teaching

1. The teacher begins by reading out a dialogue to the learner(s). The learners listen to the teacher with their books closed.

2. Next, the learners repeat the lines with the teacher with their books opened in the second reading.

3. The teacher gives sentence wise or meaningful parts wise L1 equivalents (meanings).

4. The teacher says each sentence of the dialogue twice with L1 version (meanings).

Disadvantages

The primary disadvantages of the bilingual method are:

- One of the primary face of the bilingual method is the emphasis on grammatical structures but not on the day-to-day conversation.
- If the teacher is not well conversant in both L1 and L2, then the whole method fails.
- Learners become dependent on their mother tongue to some extent, thus making their process of picking up L2 slower.

The structural-oral-situational approach

The structural-oral-situational approach to second language teaching is a method developed by British applied linguists, Firth and Halliday. It was popular from the 1930s to the 1960s. This method harps on the structural view of language, where both speech and structure are the basis of language learning and, especially, the competence to speak. One of the significant features of the method is the emphasis on vocabulary and reading skills learning. It is noticed that about two thousand words in English occur frequently in the language. If these are mastered, they could make one proficient in a language. Moreover, it is believed that an analysis of English and a classification of its principal grammatical structures into syntactical patterns will help in internalizing syntactical rules.

This method held a behaviouristic stand to second language learning as it deals with the processes rather than the conditions of learning. These processes encompass three stages:

- Receiving the knowledge or material
- Fixing it in memory by repetition
- Using it in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill

The principles of the behaviouristic theory of learning are:

1. Language learning is all about habit formation

2. Mistakes should be avoided, as they make bad habits

3. Language skills are acquired in a better way if they are presented orally first, then in written form

4. Analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis
5. The meanings of words can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context

The approach aims at the following objectives:

1. A practical command of a language in the sense of the spoken from of language so that the learner becomes fully proficient user of the language to make him or her similar to that of the native speaker of that language.
2. Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar.
3. Ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations.
4. Automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns.

The basic important features of this approach are:

1. Learning a language is not only learning its words but also the syntax.
2. Vocabulary is presented through grades.
3. The four skills of LSRW or listening, speaking, reading and writing are presented in order.
4. Sentence patterns exist and can form the basis of a language course.
5. Classroom teaching and learning are made enjoyable.
6. Concrete linguistic items are taught through demonstration
7. Abstract ideas are taught through association.
8. It helps to develop learners' competence in the use of structure in L2.

The structural-oral-situational approach uses a structural syllabus and a word list and relies on structural activities including situational presentation of new sentence patterns and drills to practice the patterns. A typical structural-oral-situational approach teaching lesson would start with stress and intonation practice. The main body of the lesson might consist of four parts:

- Revision (to prepare for new work if necessary)
- Presentation of new structure or vocabulary
- Oral practice (drilling)
- Reading of material on the new structure, or written exercises

Advantages

Although the structural-oral-situational approach of second language teaching was developed during the 1930s, it still attracts the interest of many teachers. Its strong emphasis on oral practice, grammar and sentence patterns conform to the intuitions of many practically oriented classroom teachers.

Disadvantages

- Noam Chomsky thought that the structural and the behaviouristic approaches to language are flawed and do not account for the basic characteristic of language namely the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences.
- Moreover, the situations used in the classroom are not real-life situations and therefore do not help the learners deal with the language when they are faced with a real-life situation.

- Another drawback of this method is that the explanations of abstract ideas become very difficult.
- This method is viable only at the elementary level, but at an advanced stage this method does not work.

Recent methods

As all the methods discussed earlier have some disadvantages or the other, scholars and teachers of the second language pondered over the methods and devised a new way of teaching the second language which they thought to be more effective than the earlier methods. The new method is called communicative language teaching. Communicative language teaching (CLT) is a functional approach to language learning. In 1972, this second language methodology was proposed in Europe. The main aim is to develop the communicative competency of the learner. Students' need of understanding and expressing in the L2 is the main focus of this method.

Objectives of CLT

1. To produce effective communicative competence in learners.
2. The focus is on meanings and functions of the language.
3. More importance on the learner and his learning.
4. The teacher is a facilitator in language acquisitions.
5. Involve the learner in the learning process through problem solving, tasks, participation and interaction.

All the four LSRW (listening-speaking- reading- writing) skills are equally treated.

CLT involves many classroom activities like group work, pair work, language games, role play and question answer sessions. It is not confined to any set of text books. The learners are mostly introduced to task-based and problem-solving situations.

Demerits

1. No single uniform method is prescribed.
2. Different techniques are followed in the process of learning.
3. Several roles are assigned to teachers.

Conclusion

We have gone through some of the methods of second language teaching among which some of them have become obsolete from a scientific point of view, some others seem to be more recent, but in fact all of them have their contribution at their time. However, there are some things which are common in all methods:

1. Their belief to be the best one, and
2. A set of prescriptions that teachers have to follow necessarily.

NOTES

The teaching learning process cannot follow any prescribed methodology all the time because it is a reflective and dynamic process which involves constant interaction among the curriculum, teachers, students, activities, methodology and instructional materials. Therefore, what is needed is an active role for teachers, who design her or his own content and tasks, classroom interaction, materials, methodology, evaluation, etc., instead of a passive role which means dependence on other people's designs and methods.

ACTIVITY

List the vowels and consonants of your Mother Tongue and make another list of consonant clusters with examples.

2.5 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- The air that we breathe out is modified in various ways. This results in various combinations of sounds such as consonants and vowels. Therefore, speech is also sometimes referred to as 'modified breathing'. The organs of speech and their speech functions can be described with reference to three systems as follows: Respiratory system, Phonatory system, Articulatory system.

- Speech sounds are classified as vowels and consonants. Bloomfield defines a **vowel** as 'modifications of the voice-sound that involve no closure, friction or contact of the tongue or lips'. According to Daniel Jones, a vowel is 'a voiced sound in forming which the air issues in a continuous stream through the pharynx and mouth, there being no obstruction and no narrowing such as would cause audible friction.'

- There are four front vowels in English. A front vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a front vowel is that the tongue is positioned as far in front as possible in the mouth without creating a constriction that would be classified as a consonant. Front vowels are sometimes also called bright vowels as they are perceived as sounding brighter than the back vowels.

- A back vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a back vowel is that the tongue is positioned as far back as possible in the mouth without creating a constriction that would be classified as a consonant. Back vowels are sometimes also called dark vowels as they are perceived as sounding darker than the front vowels.

- A central vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a central vowel is that the tongue is positioned halfway between a front vowel and a back vowel.

Check Your Progress

7. When a group of two or three consonants occur together in a word without any vowel between them, it is called a _____

8. In second language teaching, both L1 and L2 are used as medium of instruction. (True/ False)

9. State one principle of behaviouristic theory of language.

- When a group of two or three consonants occur together in a word without any vowel between them, it is called a consonant cluster. Sometimes it is also called a consonant blend. Each letter in the group is pronounced individually.

- A diphthong or vowel glide is a combination of two short vowels. Generally, English vowels are characterized by lip-spreading in case of front vowels and lip-rounding in back vowels. In the pronunciation of long vowels, a relatively constant articulatory position is maintained but a temporary equivalent articulation may be made by moving from one vowel position to another through the intervening positions.

- Innatism refers to an approach to understand the process of language acquisition by infants. In this approach, scholars started the study from the basic premise that a human child is born with the innate capability to learn language.

- The social interactionist theory consists of a number of hypotheses on language acquisition. As the term social interactionism suggests, this theory believes that children do not learn language only because of some innate capability that is manifest in them. It also happens because they interact with the other members of the speech community that they are born in and grow up.

- While social interactionist theory makes a dual approach in terms of finding a mid path between innateness of human beings in picking up language and the social and linguistic environment of the child, the relational frame theory (Hayes, Barnes-Holmes, Roche, 2001), provides a wholly selectionist/learning account of the origin and development of language competence and complexity. Based upon the principles of Skinnerian behaviorism, the relational frame theorists are of the opinion that children acquire language purely through interacting with the environment.

- Language acquisition depends on the social environment in which one grows up. A child born in a monolingual social setup picks up one language. If a child is lucky to be born in a setup where more than one language is used in everyday conversation, then it becomes easy for him to acquire competence in two languages. In such cases, the child becomes a bilingual or a multilingual individual.

2.6 KEY TERMS

- **Consonant:** A speech sound that is produced when the air passage is obstructed, or the flow of air is stopped as a result of narrowing or a complete closure of the air passage.

- **Consonant cluster:** A group of two or three consonants occurring together in a word without any vowel between them.

- **Diphthong:** A combination of two short vowels.

- **Vowel:** Modifications of the voice-sound that involve no closure, friction or contact of the tongue or lips.

UNIT IV : Phonology

3.2 PHONOLOGY

Phonology is used to sort out the sounds that are important for causing differences in meaning and those which are not, and to establish rules to account for the variations in sounds involved. It studies the different kinds of sounds that are found in a language, their pattern and relationships and is viewed as a subsidiary field to linguistics. It deals with the sound systems of languages.

3.2.1 Phonemes

The word 'phoneme' was used in the nineteenth century to refer to a unit of sound. The term largely remained under-developed until it was used by distinguished linguists like Saussure and Bloomfield. Leonard Bloomfield defined a phoneme thus, 'a minimal unit of distinctive sound-feature'. Each phoneme was said to possess a set of 'distinctive features' which was in clear opposition to other features in the data. Thus, there would be no point in talking about a /p/ phoneme as voiceless and tense as these features only make sense when considered in opposition to the /b/ phoneme, which is voiced, unaspirated and lax. So, phonemes are defined as the minimal contrastive units of sound in a language.

Phonemes can be divided into two categories – segmental phonemes and suprasegmental phonemes. All the segmental sounds used in each language can be classed into a limited number of phonemes, and conversely the consonant and vowel phonemes exhaustively cover the entire consonant and vowel sounds so occurring. All consonant and vowel contrasts between distinct forms in a language can be referred to one or another of its component phonemes. Thus, the English word, 'man' /mn/ contains three phonemes, contrasted at three points or places wherein a distinctively different sound unit may be substituted: man, pan; man, men; man, mad. These are called 'minimal pairs' or pairs of words differing by one phoneme. There are twelve vowel phonemes and twenty six consonant phonemes in the English language.

Suprasegmental phonemes consist of stresses, pitches and junctures (modes of transition from one segment to another).

Phonemes are contrastive in certain environments. They may or may not be contrastive in all environments. In the environments where they do not contrast, the contrast is said to be neutralized.

In English there are three nasal phonemes, /m, n, K/, as shown by the minimal triplet,

These phonemes are not usually contrastive before plosives like /p, t, k/ within the same morpheme. Although all the three phones appear before plosives, like in limp, lint, link (limp/, /lint/, /liKk/), only one of these might appear before each of the plosives, i.e., the /m, n, K/ distinction is neutralized before each of the plosives /p, t, k/:

- Only /m/ occurs before /p/
- Only /n/ before /t/
- Only /K/ before /k/

Hence these phonemes are not contrastive in these environments, and according to some of the theorists, there is no assurance as to what the underlying representation may be. If any one hypothesizes that they are dealing with just a single underlying nasal, there is no need to pick one of the three phonemes /m, n, K/ over the remaining two.

(In some of the languages there is just one phonemic nasal anywhere, and because of the obligatory assimilation, it surfaces as [m, n, K] in only these environments, so this is not as far-fetched an idea as it might seem at first glance.)

In some schools of phonology, such a neutralized distinction is termed as an archiphoneme (Nikolai Trubetzkoy of the Prague school is often associated with this analysis). Archiphonemes are usally notated with a capital letter. Following this convention, the neutralization of /m, n, K/ before /p, t, k/ could be notated as |N|, and limp, lint, link would be represented as |ljNp, ljNt, ljNk| (the |pipes| hint towards the underlying representation). Some other ways through which this archiphoneme could be represented are as follows:

- |m-n-K|
- {m, n, K}
- |n*|

One more example of phonolgy from American English is the neutralization of the plosives /t, d/ following a stressed syllable. Phonetically, both can be realized in this position as [~], a voiced alveolar flap. This can be heard by comparing betting with bedding.

So, it cannot be said whether the underlying representation of the intervocalic consonant in either word is /t/ or /d/ without looking at the un-suffixed form. This neutralization can be described as an archiphoneme |D|, in which case the underlying representation of betting or bedding could be |Èb[DjK|.

One more way to describe about archiphonemes includes the concept of under specification. Phonemes can be thought of as fully specified segments while archiphonemes are underspecified segments. In a language known as Tuvan, phonemic vowels are specified along with the following articulatory features:
- Tongue
- Height
- Backness
- Lip rounding

The archiphoneme |U| is an underspecified high vowel where only the tongue height is mentioned.

Whether |U| is pronounced as front or back and whether rounded or unrounded depends on vowel harmony. If |U| occurs follows a front unrounded vowel, it will be pronounced as the phoneme /i/; if following a back unrounded vowel, it will be as an /o/; and if following a back rounded vowel, it will be an /u/.

Minimal contrastive units in sign languages

In sign language, the basic elements of gesture and location were earlier known as cheremes (or cheiremes), but later on the general usage changed to phoneme. Tonic phonemes are usually known as tonemes, and timing phonemes are known as chronemes.

In sign languages, phonemes may be grouped as Tab (elements of location, from Latin *tabula*), *Dez* (the hand shape, from *designator*), Sig (the motion, from signation), and with some researchers, Ori (orientation).

Expressions of the face and mouth are also phonemic. There is one published set of phonemic symbols for sign language, the Stokoe notation, which is used for

linguistic research and originally developed for American Sign Language. However, as they are not bound by phonology, they do not display any particular spelling for a sign. For example, the signwriting form would be different based on whether the signer is left or right-handed, irrespective of the fact that it makes no difference towards the meaning of the sign.

3.2.2 Allophones

While phoneme is the minimal unit of sound, there are many different versions of that unit of sound, which are produced in the actual speech. These different versions are called phones. A group of several phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, are referred to as allophones of that phoneme. The English words 'can' and scan' contain the phoneme /k/. A native speaker will not be able to identify the difference in the sound /k/ in the two words but for a linguist the phoneme /k/ does not sound alike. The /k/ in 'can' is an aspirated sound (followed by a 'puff of breath') while in 'scan' it is un-aspirated. Such variations in sound of the same phoneme are called allophones. Furthermore, if you take the phoneme 'p', a phonemic transcription will include three kinds of /p/ - [p], [p'], [p'] – ['] standing for aspiration and [p'] indicating no release by reopening the lips. All these varieties are called phones or allophones. Allophones have complementary distribution, i.e., they do not get into each others ways. They tend to be restrictive- [p'] cannot appear at the beginning of a word and [p'] cannot occur at the end of the word. Therefore, allophones never collide and they complement one another in such a way that they take care of all the situations in which the phoneme occurs.

Each time a speech sound is produced for a given phoneme, it sounds a little different from the other utterances, even for the same speaker. This has led to some kind of debate over how real, and how universal, phonemes are in reality. Only some of the variation is important (i.e., detectable or perceivable) to the speakers. There are two types of allophones, depending on whether a phoneme should be pronounced by using a specific allophone in a specific situation, or whether the speaker has freedom to (unconsciously) choose what allophone he or she will use.

Whenever a particular allophone (from a set of allophones that correspond to a phoneme) must be selected in a specific context (i.e., using a different allophone for a phoneme will cause confusion or make the speaker sound non-native), the allophones are thought to be complementary (i.e., the allophones complement each other, and one cannot be used in a situation where the usage of the other is standard). In the case of complementary allophones, every allophone is used in a particular phonetic context and it may be involved in a phonological process.

In the other cases, the speaker has been able to select freely from free variant allophones, depending upon personal habits and preferences.

Most linguists have identified allophones on the following basis:

- **Phonetic similarity:** Linguists assume that if a phoneme is represented in two or more environments, there will be a high degree of similarity in the sounds produced among the allophones involved. In English, the phoneme /p/ is similar in both the initial and final positions as in *pin* (/'pin/) and *gap* (/g 'p/). Thus, both the sounds are phonetically similar. Phonetic similarity is used for comparing two data strings that might be spelled differently but will sound exactly the same. In master data management, phonetic similarity

is used for data matching while comparing two sets of data that does not have a common exact key but it might be describing in the same real-world construct. Utilizing phonetic similarity in data quality improvement applies to both customer data quality as well as product data quality.

- **Complementary distribution:** Every phoneme may have allophones. Sometimes, the allophones of a phoneme have a fixed place in different words. For example, the phoneme /p/ is aspirated and stressed in the initial position as in 'pan' but when used after 's' as in 'span', it becomes un-aspirated and unstressed. These variants of /p/ are said to be in complementary distribution. Complementary distribution in linguistics is the relationship amongst two elements, wherein one element is found in a specific environment and the other element is found in the opposite environment. It usually hints that two superficially different elements are in actuality one single linguistic unit at a deeper level. In some situations, more than two elements can be in complementary distribution with one another.

  Complementary distribution is basically applied to phonology, when identical phones in complementary distribution are basically allophones of the same phoneme. For example, in English, [p] and [p°] are allophones of the phoneme /p/ as they occur in complementary distribution. [p°] always occurs when it is the syllable onset and is followed by a stressed vowel (as in the word *pin*). [p] occurs in all the other situations (as in the word *spin*).

  There are various cases where elements are in complementary distribution, but are not considered allophones. For example in English [h] and [K] (engma, written with the digraph <-ng> in English) are in complementary distribution, as [h] only occurs at the beginning of a syllable and [K] only at the end. But they have so less in common in phonetic terms as they are still considered separate phonemes.

- **Symmetrical patterning:** This can be explained by taking some consonant phonemes and pairing them on the basis of the similarity between them. For example, /p/ with /b/, /t/ with /d/ and /f/ with /v/. The phonemes /p/, /t/ and /k/ behave in a similar manner and each of them is aspirated when they occur in the initial position as in pill, till and kill. However, if /s/ comes before them, they become un-aspirated as in spill, still and skill. Here the above sounds are phonetically different. /p/ is a bilabial sound (articulated by the two lips), /t/ is a palatoalveolar (articulated by the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge or hard palate) and /k/ is a velar (articulated by the back of the tongue against the central and forward part of the soft palate). If you select a set of six phonemes /p, t, k, b, d, g/, which contrast with each other on the same phonetic basis in both the environments initial and final, you find that their allophones differ from each other from one environment to the other in parallel ways, or the initial /p-/ differs from the initial /t-/ and /k-/ in that one is bilabial and the other two are palato-alveolar and velar, respectively. The same differences can be found in the final /-p/, /-t/ and /-k/. The initial /b-/, /d-/, /g-/ and the final /-b/, /-d/, /-g/ also differ in the same way. This sort of parallelism is called symmetrical patterning.

3.3 MORPHOLOGY

'Morphology' means the study of forms. It was taken for granted by traditional grammarians that these forms are the words and these words are to be put together to form sentences. Hence, morphology focuses on words, how they are formed and what forms they take in language.

3.3.1 Morphemes

The most intriguing elements of language are the combination of sounds to form words and the association of words to form meaning. When individual meaningless phonemes combine to make meaningful grammatical units they at once assume significance. According to Edward Sapir, a well-known linguist, the 'word' is the smallest such unit. Another eminent linguist, Bloomfield, has pointed out that words could be 'alike or partially alike' as far as 'form' and 'meaning' are concerned, but at the same time be different words. The obvious implication of this definition is, of course, that 'words' have parts and they are therefore, not the smallest units. Thus, dog and dogs are alike as to dog just as dogs and cats are alike as to the plural marker 's' both in form and meaning. Now, dog and cat in these examples are words but not the plural marker /z/. Bloomfield called these units 'morphemes' and defined them as the 'minimum same of form and meaning.' From this definition of morphemes, it can be concluded that:

(i) Morphemes are minimal, i.e., they cannot be further analyzed without destroying either the form or meaning.

(ii) They must have the same stable form or phonetic identity.

(iii) They must have the same stable meaning, i.e., semantic identity.

Hockett defined morphemes as 'the smallest individually meaningful elements in the utterances of a language. For example, in words like boys, girls, trees, the morpheme /s/ has the same meaning in each – an indication of plurality. But this definition does not hold true in all cases. In a sentence like I want to sing – to doesn't have any independent meaning to attribute to the sentence. Its occurrence is purely syntactical and has nothing to do with the morphemic definition of the semantic notion of meaningfulness. Therefore, Gleason defined morphemes as 'that smallest unit which is grammatically pertinent.'

Morphology, therefore, includes the identification and classification of morphs. A morph can be defined as 'an individual linguistic form which is an indivisible unit of meaning'. For example, a word like 'scramble' has several forms – am, ram, scram, ramble, amble. If any one of these forms is taken out, the remaining sounds will be meaningless. Therefore, scramble is a morph. A morpheme can, therefore, be called a class of morphs that are semantically similar and contrast with morphs belonging to other morphemes.

The /z/ of dogs and cats meet the requirements of this definition and are therefore, morphemes just as boys, girls and trees. Further study revealed that the plural marker /s/ can have different manifestations in different phonetic environments, i.e, it could be /s/ in pens, /z/ in dogs, /iz/ in houses. Similarly, the past tense marker /ed/ could be /d/ in received, /t/ in 'rushed' or /id/ in 'butted'.

The variation which is symmetrical with regard to the voiced and unvoiced variety could be related to the nature of the preceding sound. Bloomfield called one of these forms 'basic' and the other 'alternants'. If /s/ is taken to be the basic, three rules have to be applied:

    (i) Pens – pens – no rule

    (ii) Dogs – dogs - /s/ - /z/

    (iii) Houses – houses - /s/ - /z/ - /iz/

But if /z/ is taken to be the basic

    (i) Pens – pens - /z/ - /s/

    (ii) Dogs – dogs - /z/ - /z/

    (iii) Houses – houses - /z/ - /iz/

Thus, if /z/ is the basic, only two rules have to be applied. Similarly, /d/ is the basic and /t/ and /id/ are the alternants. Each alternant is a morph and they are allomorphs of one another. Morphs are used in a mutually exclusive environment, that is, when one morph is used, the other morphs cannot be used. Therefore, the second implication of Bloomfield's definition had to be changed from phonetic identity to complementary distribution of sounds.

3.3.2 Allomorphs

Just as there are 'allophones' of a particular phoneme, there are 'allomorphs' of a particular morpheme. That is, when we find a group of different morphs, all versions of one morpheme, we can use the prefix 'allo' and describe them as allomorphs of that morpheme. Thus, an allomorph is the alternative phonological manifestation of a morpheme. Allomorphs are of two types:

    (i) Phonologically conditioned allomorphs

    (ii) Morphologically conditioned allomorphs

When the distribution of the allomorphs is conditioned by the phonetic nature of the preceding phoneme, they are said to be phonologically conditioned allomorphs. For example, /s/ occurs after voiceless sounds (for example in cats - /cat/ + /s/), /z/ after voiced sounds (for example, dogs - /dog/ + /z/) and /iz/ after affricates or fricatives (for example in buses - /bus/ + /iz/).

On the other hand, in the case of words like <u>children</u>, <u>oxen</u>, <u>brethren</u>, the allomorphs are determined by the morpheme or morphemes forming the context. They are called morphologically conditioned allomorphs.

In English, there are a number of other morphological processes at work such as those involved in the range of allomorphs for the morpheme 'past tense'. These include the common pattern in 'walk + past tense' that produces *walked* and also the special pattern that takes 'go + past tense' and produces the 'irregular' past form *went*.

3.3.3 Affixes

Let us take a group of words like <u>goes</u>, <u>walks</u>, <u>talked</u>, <u>smiled</u>, <u>received</u>. An analysis of the words will reveal the following facts:

    Goes – go + -es

    Walks – walk + -s

Talked – talk + -ed

Smiled – smile + -d

Received – receive + -d

Deceived – deceive + d

In goes and walks, -es and –s are bound morphemes which make the root words *go* and *walk* singular. Similarly, -ed and –d have been joined with the free morphemes *talk, smile, receive and deceive* to change them into past tense. These are free morphemes as they have their own meaning without being added to any other morpheme. –es, -s, -ed and –d are the bound morphemes because they are meaningless independently.

Thus, we see that every word of the above group has one independent (free) morpheme, which has some meaning, and there is a bound morpheme added to each to form a new word. Since the bound morphemes have no independent meaning, the free morphemes are the roots to which the bound morphemes are added as affixes. In English, the roots are mostly free morphemes. A word may consist of one or more morphemes, one morpheme usually as the central and one or more morphemes as the peripheral. The central morpheme is known as root morpheme and the peripheral, affixes.

Affixes can be divided into three types: prefixes, suffixes and infixes.

Prefixes – A prefix is added at the beginning of a root word to form a new word. In English, prefixes are profusely used to make new words or to modify or extend the concept which is denoted by the root word. In this way, the English language has evolved and kept pace with the changing needs of time.

Some of the native prefixes are:

1. Be- - Originally meaning about, it forms derivative verbs which can have two kinds of meanings – beset, bemoan, besmear, etc. It also forms verbs from nouns and adjectives. For example, befool, befriend, belittle.
2. Un- - This negative prefix is freely used with adjectives and adverbs to form words like unhappy, untidy, unnatural. Un- is very commonly used in Modern English with present participles to change them into permanent verbs like unbecoming, untiring and unyielding. In the Old and Middle English periods, un- was commonly used with nouns as in the word unreality.
3. With – Though a very productive prefix in the Old English period, only one derivative word has survived in Modern English, i.e, withstand. Withdraw and withhold were two new words that were added in the Middle English period.
4. For- - This prefix has now become obsolete though it was very much used in the Old English Period. For example, forbid, forgo, forbear.
5. Mis- - This prefix has been used with verbs, nouns and adjectives to form new words like misbehave, mislead, misconception.

Apart from native prefixes, new words have been formed by foreign prefixes mainly borrowed from French, Latin and Greek.

French prefixes:

1. En- - endanger, enlist
2. Em- - embark, empower
3. Demi- - demigod

Latin prefixes:

1. Re- - return, rewrite
2. Pro- - prodemocracy
3. Pre- - prenatal
4. Super- - supernatural
5. Dis- - disadvantage, discomfort
6. Post- - post-match
7. De- - decode
8. Trans- - transplant
9. Multi- - multinational, multilingual
10. Extra- - extraordinary

Greek prefixes:

1. A- - atypical
2. Anti- - antinational, antisocial
3. Pan- - pantheism
4. Hyper- - hyperactive
5. Pseudo- - pseudo-intellectual
6. Neo- - neo-feminist
7. Auto- - autobiography, automobile

General list of words with prefixes

1. Advance
2. Anti-aircraft
3. Antibiotic
4. Anticlockwise
5. Bejeweled
6. Bemuse
7. Beset
8. Bespatter
9. Bespectacle
10. Bewitch
11. Bicycle
12. Bifocal
13. Bilingual
14. Bisexuality
15. Decantation
16. Decentralization
17. Decode

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18. Decompose
19. Defame
20. Deforestation
21. Defrost
22. Degenerate
23. Degradation
24. Degrade
25. Dehydration
26. Derange
27. Disadvantage
28. Disappear
29. Disconnect
30. Dishonest
31. Embitter
32. Embitter
33. Engulf
34. Enlighten
35. Enmesh
36. Enrage
37. Entangle
38. Hyperactive
39. Hypersonic
40. Illegal
41. Immaterial
42. Impossible
43. Invisible
44. Invisible
45. Irresistible
46. Irresponsible
47. Misbehave
48. Mischief
49. Monocle
50. Monolith
51. Monologue
52. Monotony
53. Nonentity
54. Nonfiction
55. Nonsense

56. Nonsense
57. Overbearing
58. Overboard
59. Overcast
60. Overconfident
61. Overview
62. Prehistoric
63. Reconnect
64. Recover
65. Replay
66. Reserve
67. Review
68. Rewind
69. Submarine
70. Subservient
71. Subsoil
72. Subtitles
73. Sub-tropical
74. Subway
75. Telecommunication
76. Telepathy
77. Telephoto lens
78. Television
79. Telegraph
80. Unable
81. Unacceptable
82. Uncover
83. Underarm
84. Underdeveloped
85. Underground
86. Undersecretary
87. Undertake
88. Undertaker
89. Unfair
90. Unforgettable
91. unhappy
92. Unhealthy
93. Unlucky

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94. Unmanned
95. Unmask
96. Unplug
97. Unreal
98. Untamed
99. Untidy
100. Unwind

Suffixes- A suffix is attached at the end of a root word to form a new word. It can change the word-class and meaning of a word. Suffixes may be used to form nouns from verbs and adjectives, and adjectives from nouns and verbs. The following lists contain different suffixes and their uses to form new words.

Nouns from verbs:

1. –ment – appointment, arrangement
2. –ion – selection, collection
3. –ance – assistance, insurance
4. –al – arrival, dismissal
5. –sion – extension, compulsion
6. –ing – reading, walking
7. –ure – failure

Nouns from adjectives:

1. –ity – activity, reality
2. –ness – happiness, sadness
3. –ance – distance, ignorance

Adjectives from nouns:

1. –y – cloudy, dusty
2. – ly – fatherly, manly
3. –al – accidental, classical
4. –ish – boyish, reddish
5. –ful – beautiful, thoughtful
6. –less – penniless, careless

Adjectives from verbs:

1. –able – admirable, agreeable
2. –ful – thankful, helpful

Infixes – Infixes are not very commonly found in English except in plural words like geese, men, etc. These words change their inflection by bringing some variations in the vowels in their middle structure.

For example:

        Man – men

        Mouse – mice

        Foot- feet

        Tooth- teeth

Such changes are known as *replacive*, because they involve the replacement of vowels.

All English words formed by this derivational process have either prefixes or suffixes, or both. Thus, *mislead* has a prefix, *disrespectful* has both a prefix and a suffix, and *foolishness* has two suffixes.

3.3.4 Inflections

It has been seen that almost all natural languages have inter level dependencies which make any rigid separation between the phonological and syntactic structure impossible. In fact, there is a gap between the syntax and the phonology. This gap is covered in traditional grammar by *inflection*. Let us take a group of words like walk, walks, walked, walking. They are considered to be different forms of the word walk. In other words, walks, walked and walking are word forms. Walk is called a *lexeme*, or vocabulary word, whose forms are walks, walked and walking. They are described as its *inflectional forms*. Thus, inflection refers to the different forms of a word which express different grammatical categories such as tense, gender case, number, and person.

The distinction between the terms *syntax* and *inflection* is made on the basis of the distinction between a lexeme and its forms. Syntax and inflection together determine the grammaticality of sentences, the syntax by specifying how lexemes combine with one another in particular constructions and the inflectional rules by specifying which forms of the lexeme should occur in a particular construction.

3.3.5 Derivation

Morphology includes not only the study of inflection but also derivation. It handles both the concepts by means of rules operating upon the same basic units, i.e, morphemes. For example, as the inflectional form 'walking' is made of the two basic units 'walk' and 'ing', so the derivational form 'walker' is made up of the two more basic units 'walk' and 'er'. Hence, derivation is the process of adding derivational *morphemes*, for creating a new word from existing words, generally by adding affixes and sometimes by simply changing the grammatical category (for example, changing a noun to a verb by adding the suffix -fy as in glory - glorify).

Examples of some English derivational patterns and their suffixes:
1. Adjective to noun: -ness (happy - happiness)
2. Adjective to verb: -ise (modern - modernise)
3. Adjective to adjective: -ish (black - blackish)
4. Adjective to adverb: -ly (quick - quickly)
5. Noun to adjective: -al (nation - national)
6. Noun to verb: -fy (glory - glorify)
7. Verb to adjective: -able (read - readable)
8. Verb to noun (abstract): -ance (deliver - deliverance)
9. Verb to noun (concrete): -er (run - runner)

3.3.6 Compounds

Apart from borrowing words from various foreign languages like Latin, Greek and French, the English language has been constantly enriching its word store by the making of new words out of its own resources. Some of the processes by which words are formed in English are:

1. Compounds
2. Clipping
3. Blend
4. Acronym
5. Phrases
6. Idioms

In compound formation, two roots are joined together to make a longer word. This combining process is technically known as compounding and is very commonly found in German and English.

For example:

Playground – play + ground

Blackboard – black + board

Battlefield – battle + field

Everybody – every + field

Everlasting – ever + lasting

Aircraft – air + craft

Backdrop – back + drop

Backfield – back + field

Backfire – back + fire

Background – back + ground

Citizenship – citizen + ship

Clapboard – clap + board

Claptrap – clap + trap

Clockwise – clock + wise

Clockwork – clock + work

Daytime – day + time

Deadbeat – dead + beat

Deadline – dead + line

Deadlock – dead + lock

Deadwood – dead + wood

Deathbed – death + bed

Eardrum – ear + drum

Earflap – ear + flap

Earmark – ear + mark

Earmuff – ear + muff

Earphone – ear + phone

Earring – ear + ring

Earshot – ear + shot

Earthquake – earth +quake

Fanfare – fan + fare

Fanlight – fan + light

Farewell – fare + well

Farmhouse – farm + house

Farmyard – farm + yard

Farsight –far +sight

Fatherhood – father + hood

Featherbed – feather + bed

Featherweight – feather + weight

Feedback – feed + back

Freshman – fresh + man

Freshwater – fresh + water

Fretwork – Fret+ work

Frogman – frog + man

Frostbite – frost + bite

Gatekeeper – gate + keeper

Gateway – gate + way

Gearbox – gear + box

Gearshift – gear + shift

Gemstone – gem + stone

Ghostwriter – ghost + writer

Gingerbread – ginger + bread

Giveaway – give + away

Glendale – glen + dale

Globetrotter – globe + trotter

Glowworm – glow + worm

Goalkeeper – goal + keeper

Hazelnut – hazel+ nut

Headache – head + ache

Headband – head + band

Headdress – head + dress

Headfirst Head + first

Headgear – head + gear

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Headland – head + land

Headlight – head + light

Headline – head + line

Headlock – head + lock

Headlong – head + long

Headmaster – head + master

Headmistress – head + mistress

Headphone – head + phone

Headquarters – head + quarters

Jackknife – jack + knife

Jaywalk – jay + walk

Ladybird – lady + bird

Landlord- land +lord

Landslide – land +slide

Lawsuit – law+ suit

Layout – lay + out

Letterhead – letter + head

Limelight – lime +light

Mankind – man + kind

Masterpiece – master + piece

Needlework – needle + work

Network – net + work

Newborn – new + born

Nightclub – night + club

Outdated – out + dated

Outermost – outer + most

Outlook – out + look

Overweight – over + weight

Passport – pass + port

Payroll – pay + roll

Potbelly – pot + belly

Purebred – pure + bred

Rainfall – rain + fall

Rhinestone – rhine +stone

Sandstorm – sand + storm

Saucepan – sauce + pan

Shipmate- ship + mate

Textbook – text + book

Thickset – thick + set

Toadstool – toad + stool

Typewriter – type + writer

Understood – understood

Underworld – under+ world

Upward – up + ward

Windowpane – window + pane

Wisecrack – wise + crack

Woodpecker – wood + cracker

Workshop – work + shop

Worldwide – world + wide

Yardstick – yard + stick

Yearbook – year + book

Yourself – your + self

Apart from nouns, adjectives are also created by compounding like 'good-looking', 'well-behaved' and compounds of adjective plus noun as in a 'fast-food restaurant' or a 'well-paid job'.

Other word formation processes

Clipping

In clipping, a word is made smaller without any change in its meaning or the grammatical class. In this process, a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, usually beginning in casual speech. For example:

Laboratory – lab

Gasoline – gas

Examination – exam

Advertisement – ad

Telephone – phone

Cellular phone – cell

Refrigerator – fridge

Mathematics – maths

Maximum – max

Influenza – flu

Introduction – intro

Photograph – photo

Demonstration – demo

Spectacle – specs

Gentlemen – gents

Condominium – condo

Hippopotamus – hippo

Rhinoceros – rhino

Doctor – doc

University – varsity

Zoological garden – zoo

Luncheon – lunch

Memorandum – memo

Typographical error – typo

Dormitory – dorm

Bicycle – bike

Limousine – limo

Gymnasium – gym

Pantaloons – pants

Moving picture – movie

Promenade – prom

Modulator-demodulator – modem

Blend

Blending is a process of word formation in which a new word is formed by combining the meaning and sound of two words. It is accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. The words formed by this process are called *blends* or *portmanteau* words. For example:

Breakfast + lunch – brunch

Breath + analyzer – breathalyzer

Camera + recorder – camcorder

Documentary + drama – docudrama

Electricity + execute – electrocute

Emotion + icon – emoticon

Gleam + shimmer – glimmer

Hindi + English – Hinglish

Information + entertainment – infotainment

Motor + Cavalcade – motorcade

Motor + hotel – motel

Motor + pedal – moped

Net + etiquette – netiquette

Sex + escapade – sexcapade

Slang + language – slanguage

Smoke + fog – smog

Sports + broadcast – sportscast

Stay home + vacation – staycation

Television + broadcast – telecast

Television + photogenic – telegenic

Work + alcoholic – workaholic

Acronym

Acronymy is a process of word formation in which a word is formed of the initial letters of a group of words. This is a type of abbreviation known as *acronym*. It is the result of human desire for minimizing human effort.

There are three types of acronyms in English:
1. The sequence of initial letters pronounced as words. For example:
   UNICEF – United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
   NATO – North Atlantic Treaty Organization
   SAARC – South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
   UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
   PIN – Personal Identification Number
   AIIMS – All India Institute of Medical Sciences
   CAT – Common Admission Test
   CATE – Common Admission Test for English
   FIITJEE – Forum for Indian Institute of Technology Joint Entrance Exam
2. The sequence of initial letters which are pronounced as a sequence of letters. For example:
   CD – Compact Disc
   VIP – Very Important Person
   BBC- British Broadcasting Corporation
   GBM – General Body Meeting
   ATM – Automatic Teller Machine
3. Abbreviations formed from letters taken from the same word. For example:
   TB – Tuberculosis
   TV – Television

Phrases

Another process of word formation is through phrases. In this process, a phrase is used in place of a word to express a meaning. For example:

Cats and dogs – It was raining cats and dogs. (Heavily)

A dime a dozen – People like him are a dime a dozen. (Found in plenty)

A feather in the cap – The player added another feather in his cap. (Achievement / honour)

A fool's paradise – He lives forever in a fool's paradise. (A state of happiness based on false hope)

Dark horse – Peter was the dark horse in the last elections. (Someone who rose to prominence)

Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb is an idiomatic phrase that contains a verb and another element, either an adverb or a preposition. For example,' break down' or 'look down on'. The latter example shows a combination of adverb and preposition.

List of Phrasal Verbs from A – Z

1. **act up:** misbehave, not work properly

   Example: The teacher acted up with the child in the class.
2. **act like:** to behave in a way similar to somebody else

   Example: Sunil is behaving like a joker.
3. **catch on:** develop understanding or knowledge of something

   Example: John caught on medical studies very quickly and now he is one of the renowned doctors.
4. **add up (1) :** logically fit together

   Example: His solution to the problem adds up and makes sense.

   add up (2): sum up the total

   Example: Add up all the payment made till date and then calculate the total expenditure.
5. **back down:** to not follow a threat

   Example: The minister backed down after he stopped receiving the calls.
6. **back up:** move backward, proceed in a reverse direction
7. **draw up:** create a formal document

   Example: The official documents of the merger will be drawn up this month
8. **knock out:** make unconscious

   Example: Sam was knocked out by the other boxer and therefore, he got defeated.
9. **call off:** cancel a scheduled plan or meeting etc.

   Example: The coaching classes were called off because of sudden rain.
10. **drop out (of):** stop attending or leave something such as school, office etc.

    Example: Anna dropped out of school because her father died suddenly.
11. **draw out:** prolong or extend something beyond the expected limits

    Example: The Professor drew out the lecture and held up the students for extra time.
12. **call on:** ask someone for an answer in class

    Example: The teacher always calls on Pinky as she knows all the answers.
13. **eat out (no object):** have food outside and not in the house

    Example: She was too tired to cook last night and so they ate out.
14. **beg off :** deny an invitation, ask to be excused from doing something

    Example: Sharika begged off going to the party saying that she was not well.

15. **break down**: separate something into several parts, stop functioning

    Example: Margaret's car broke down on the highway and she could not reach for the meeting.

16. **face up to**: accept or take responsibility for

    Example: Sia had to face up to her boss for the loss incurred on the new project.

17. **egg on** : instigate towards doing something (usually negative)

    Example: The husband and wife had a mild argument but their friends egged them on and they had a bad fight.

18. **end up:** finally arrive at

    Example: Jade and his friends lost their way and ended up in the neighbouring town.

19. **fall through**: not happen

    Example: Our trip to Nainital fell through because my friend's wife fell sick.

20. **feel up to**: feel strong enough or comfortable enough to do something

    Example: The boy was asked if he felt up to the mark to talk about the bomb blast.

21. **figure out**: to logically find an answer to a problem

    Example: She has been finally able to figure out the correct answers.

22. **iron out**: reach an agreement mutually or resolve difficulties

    Example: Rahul and Tina disagree on several issues which can be ironed out if discussed in a peaceful way.

23. **turn down**: to decrease the intensity of

    Example: She requested him to turn down the TV when the guests arrived.

24. **make after:** chase

    Example: The police made after the thief.

25. **Press upon:** to compel someone to accept something

    Example: He pressed upon us to attend the marriage and so we cancelled the meeting.

26. **put up with:** tolerate

    Example: Tashi struggles everyday to put up with her husband.

27. **nod off:** to fall asleep

    Example: The movie was so boring that the audience nodded off.

28. **jump all over:** to scold someone very badly

    Example: Laila's mother jumped all over her because she had not completed her homework.

29. **let down:** to disappoint somebody

    Example: Her husband let her down in front of everyone by using bad language.

30. **run into:** to meet by chance in an unplanned way

    Example: She ran into her old school teacher in the market.

31. **slip up:** make a mistake

    Example: He slipped up his speech because of which the students got confused.

32. **tick off:** to irritate or upset somebody

    Example: It really ticks her off if somebody cancels the appointment in the last minute.

33. **pan out:** succeed, happen as planned

    Example: Her trip to New York could not pan out because her mother fell sick.

34. **write up:** to record or report

    Example: Could you write up the important points discussed in the meeting?

35. **do over:** to do something again

    Example: The documents he was working on got deleted before he could save and so he had to do them over again.

36. **bone up on:** to assess or review

    Example: You had better bone up on your mathematical skills before the exam.

37. **chip in:** contribute or donate

    Example: Would you like to chip in for the farewell party?

38. **work out:** to solve a problem or to overcome a difficult situation

    Example: The director consoled the employess that he could work out the crisis by taking help from the other shareholders.

39. **hold up:** to lift to a higher position or delay

    Example: The team arrived late for the match because they were held up in a traffic jam.

40. **zonk out:** fall asleep quickly

    Example: She zonked out when she reached home because she was highly exhausted.

41. **get by:** to survive financially even in a difficult situation

    Example: It is going to be tough to pay the loan without a job but we will get by.

42. **lay off:** to dismiss someone from a job because of lack of job or money

    Example: The employees were laid off because the company went in a loss.

43. **fill in:** add information in a form

    Example: Could you fill in the educational details also?

44. **get across:** to make somebody understand something

    Example: Juan is capable in writing but he is unable to get across his thoughts verbally.

45 **hang up:** to end a telephonic conversation by replacing the receiver

    Example: She desired to talk more but she hung up because her brother had to make an urgent call.

46. **keep on:** to continue to remind someone to do something unless he or she does it

    Example: Rhea's mother kept on her till Rhea completed her essay writing.

47. **getoff:** to make someone escape punishment

    Example: His lawyer helped him to get off easily in just ten days.

48. **knock out:** to make unconscious

    Example: Rahul was knocked out during the boxing mathc.

49. **set back:** to cause a delay in scheduling

    Example: They had to set back the project because of technical problems.

50. **take after:** to resemble in appearance

    Example: Both he and his brother take after their father.

Some more phrases

There are hundreds of phrases in the English language. Below are some commonly used phrases.

1. **Point-blank:** To say something directly or rudely, without explaining or apologising. *Example:* The company owner told the workers point-blank that their demands could not be met.

2. **So-so:** Not very satisfactory. *Example:* My new job is so-so but I cannot afford to give it up.

3. **Chit-chat:** Small talk or unimportant conversation. *Example:* The boss asked them to stop their chit-chat and get on with their work.

4. **See-saw:** Something that goes up and down. *Example:* The Indian rupee has been see-sawing for the last one year.

5. **Black-and-white:** Something which is extremely clear. *Example:* The employees have been told in black-and-white that they have to deliver or quit.

6. **Dos and don'ts:** The rules. *Example:* A good driver always follows the do's and don'ts of driving.

7. **Haves and have-nots:** Those who are rich and those who are not. *Example:* In India, there is a wide gap between the haves and have-nots of the population.

8. **Ins and outs:** The details. *Example:* As I don't know the ins and outs of the situation, I can't really comment on it.

9. **Pros and cons:** Advantages and disadvantages. *Example:* One must consider all the pros and cons before buying a new car.

10. **Tried and tested:** Something which has been well-tested. *Example:* Drinking green tea is a tried and tested way of improving the digestion.

11. **Ups and downs:** Very good times and very bad times. *Example:* He has had a lot of ups and downs in his business.

12. **Flesh and blood:** One's close family. *Example:* You must help your brother – after all, he's your flesh and blood.

13. **By and large:** Generally. *Example:* By and large, people prefer quality products to low prices.

14. **Dead and buried:** Something that is not going to happen again. *Example:* Their long dispute is now dead and buried.

15. **Wine and dine:** To entertain someone lavishly. *Example:* The Chopras are known for wining and dining their guests.

16. **Bread and butter:** The main source of income, or the most important issue. *Example:* Making shoes was the poor shoemaker's bread and butter.

17. **Spick and span:** Very clean and tidy. *Example:* Mrs Khanna's house is always spick and span.

18. **A bit much:** Something that is excessive or annoying. *Example:* All that violence in today's movies is a bit much.

19. **Bad egg:** A person who cannot be trusted. *Example:* Don't hire that man – he is a bad egg.

20. **Behind bars:** To be in prison. *Example:* Corrupt people find themselves behind bars one day.

Idioms

An idiom is a non-literal linguistic expression that is characteristic of different languages. It is not a grammatical trait and the meaning of an idiom is not dependent upon its literal expression but its idiomatic usages. For example, in Shakespeare's play *Macbeth*, Lady Macbeth feels that all the perfumes of Arabia will not wash the blood from her hands. 'Washing the blood' is not a literal reference to washing her hands clean but is an indication of guilt because she feels responsible for the death of the king. So 'having blood on your hands' is to be responsible for someone's death. Notice how the literal explanation is different from the idiomatic one. Each language has idioms that have evolved from a particular historical or cultural context and with the passage of time have become a part of the vocabulary and usage. Fluency and familiarity with a language enables us to both use idioms while speaking and also identify them in written language.

So, an idiom is a usage in which the meaning is not literal, as the writer is actually referring to something else. An idiomatic expression might not mean the same in another language, so translating an idiom may change the meaning. In the following section, we will study the commonly used idioms.

For example:

Spill the beans – His friend spilt the beans. (divulged a secret)

Pull the strings - He wanted to take his own decision without anybody pulling the stings. (controlling someone's actions secretly)

Miss the boat – My son missed the boat. (too late to take advantage of an opportunity)

Bear the brunt – The common people have to bear the brunt of rising prices. (suffer a large part of something bad)

There are hundreds of idioms in the English language. Below are some commonly used idioms.

1. Add fuel to the fire: To make a bad situation worse. *Example:* He was already in a bad mood and his wife's nagging added fuel to the fire.

2. Now and then: Occasionally. *Example:* We manage to go for a movie now and then.

3. On the back burner: To give an issue low priority. *Example:* The women's reservation bill was put on the back burner by the government.

4. With bated breath: Very excited. *Example:* We waited with bated breath for the magic show to begin.

5. Beeline for: To head directly to a place. *Example:* At the Diwali Mela, the children made a beeline for the snacks stalls.

6. Neck to neck: Very close competition *Example:* The two candidates are running neck to neck in the elections.

7. Apple of the eye: Someone who is cherished above all others. *Example:* Abhishek is the apple of his father's eye.

8. To cry wolf: To raise a false alarm. *Example:* We were told that there was a fire in the building, but someone was just crying wolf.

9. From rags to riches: To go from being very poor to being very wealthy. *Example:* The famous actor went from rags to riches in one year.

10. A knee-jerk reaction: An automatic response. *Example:* Please think carefully about the proposal – don't give a knee-jerk reaction.

11. Over the top: Very excessive. *Example:* The businessman went over the top in spending money at his daughter's wedding.

12. Pass the buck: Avoid responsibility by giving it to someone else. *Example:* When the workers complained, the manager passed the buck to the supervisor.

13. Go scot-free: To escape without punishment. *Example:* The people who had started the fake finance company went scot-free.

14. Turn a blind eye: Refuse to acknowledge something. *Example:* Despite many accidents, the local authorities turned a blind eye to the bad roads.

15. A cut above: To be superior or better. *Example:* The actress who won the National Award is certainly a cut above the rest.

16. Rain or shine: No matter what the weather is like. *Example:* Rain or shine, he goes for a walk at the same time every day.

17. Wild goose chase: A futile or hopeless pursuit. *Example:* The police thought that they would catch the gang leader, but they were on a wild goose chase.

18. Last-ditch effort: A final effort. *Example:* The team made a last-ditch effort and managed to win the match.

19. Lock horns: To have a heated argument. *Example:* The two politicians locked horns in Parliament over the issue of corruption.

20. Nip something in the bud: To end something at an early stage. *Example:* It is said that evil should always be nipped in the bud.

Some more idioms

1. I have covered my syllabus from A to Z (gone over the entire portion).

2. Mathematics to me is as easy as ABC (as elementary and simple as learning ABC).

3. The open manholes on the road are an accident waiting to happen (a situation that is likely to be dangerous because of someone's carelessness)

4. She has all the aces (all the advantages, not a card game).

5. Sumita's support of her wayward son was her only Achilles heel (Her only weakness which could make her vulnerable).

6. It was very clear from the minister's policies that he had a hidden agenda (hidden intentions).

7. I could give an arm and a leg to work on this project (Ready to do anything and pay a high price).

8. After dismissing the director, the minister said that he had no axe to grind (no questionable personal motive).

9. In office he is very quick to pass the buck (shirk responsibility and blame someone else).

10. The investigation brought to light the truth about the alleged break-in (disclosed).

11. She broke down when she met her child after a decade (emotionally agitated).

12. The police had to bear the brunt of the crowd's anger (suffered the most because of the crowd's behaviour).

13. He always has a bone to pick with him (a reason to quarrel).

14. Rajiv cannot be trusted because he always goes back on his word (never sticks to what he says).

15. The two neighbours decided to bury the hatchet, and meet for tea (to end hostilities).

16. Before any examination, Ravi always has butterflies in his stomach (feels nervous).

17. The student changed colour when her teacher found her eating in class (to become pale with fear).

18. She cannot hold a candle to her mother's beauty (not as good).

19. Children have to be disciplined with a carrot and stick policy (alternately rewarded and disciplined, promise of reward and also threat of punishment).

20. The surprise party was not a surprise, because Anita let the cat out of the bag (revealed the secret).

21. After its policy on reservations, the government found itself in a catch 22 situation (difficult situation both ways).

22. The twins are as different as chalk and cheese (completely different with nothing in common).

23. Madhu felt relieved after speaking to the principal and getting everything off her chest (expressing something which was hidden and wanting to tell someone).

24. Vinita is extremely helpful, but she has to learn that charity begins at home (Be helpful first to your immediate family and friends).

25. The two brothers are constantly at daggers drawn (hostile to each other as enemies).

26. Though she could not get admission in any college, Rita was confident that as one door closed, another would open (Failure is not final because new opportunities will soon come one's way).

27. At the office party Meena was dressed to kill (attractively dressed to create an impact)

28. After watching the movies there was not a dry eye left (moved to tears).

29. Whenever we have lunch together we go dutch (sharing the cost equally).

30. His contribution for the homeless was a drop in the ocean (an extremely small amount, as negligible as a drop of water in the ocean).

31. It was beyond my wildest dreams when I got the Rhodes Scholarship (better than what one imagined or hoped for).

32. He goes on leave at the drop of a hat (at the slightest excuse).

33. The boss was very happy with his new employee who was a real eager beaver (ready and enthusiastic worker).

34. She always submits her work at the eleventh hour (at the last possible moment).

35. Once Collins started speaking, no one could get a word in edgeways (you cannot speak much, because the other individual does not stop speaking).

36. He is his own worst enemy (self-destructive).

37. By the end of the day, the baby sitter was at the end of her tether (had no more patience and energy left to deal with anything).

38. The designer has an eye for good fabric (can recognize and judge).

39. The public were told to keep their eyes open and look out for suspicious objects (be on guard and alert).

40. You can never pull the wool over my grandmother's eyes (deceive someone lie to them).

41. Resigning from one company to join the rival company was like jumping from the frying pan into the fire (going from one tough or taxing situation to a worse one).

42. It was a feather in Rahul's cap when he was selected for the test team (an achievement to be proud of).

43. Being unemployed for a long period, Ravi could feel the pinch (financial hardship).

44. She did not have the faintest idea of what to do after her retirement (had no clue or idea).

45. Rita does not want to work for anyone because she hates to play second fiddle (be in a subordinate post).

46. The local official is not reliable because he always speaks with a forked tongue (to make false promises).

47. Meena's boss often tends to fly off the handle (losing one's temper).

48. The author's award winning book seems to be a flash in the pan (one time success which has not been repeated).

49. The class representative has the gift of the gab (can speak persuasively and eloquently).

50. Once the new financial policies are released, there is bound to be much gnashing of teeth (feel angry and upset).

51. The children at the orphanage were told never to look a gift horse in the mouth (to refuse a gift, or be critical about a gift).

52. He is ready to grease palms to get his contract renewed (bribe someone).

53. The employees heard through the grapevine that there was going to be a lay off (unofficial nerves, rumours).

54. Whatever her problems, Anita always grins and bears it (does not complain about misfortune).

55. It is anybody's guess who will win the next elections (no one can predict it).

56. Despite being isolated by his colleagues, Robin stuck to his guns (did not compromise, stuck to his position).

57. The students let their hair down after their board exams (behave with abandon, uninhibitedly).

58. The employee of the firm was discovered to be hand in glove with the intruder (in conspiracy, plotting together).

59. After the closure of their factory, the Bhatia's led a hand to mouth existence (having money just for basic necessities).

60. After a long stint as the chairman, he was ready to hang up boots (to give up working and retire).

61. After the dramatic decline in sales, heads are bound to roll (employees will be fired, or strong action will be taken).

62. (vi) The mother watched her children like a hawk when they went to play (keep a close watch on someone).

63. We all need to put our heads together and plan for the next quadrennium (work together).

64. All hell broke loose when the students were not allowed to meet the principal (unruly behaviour, chaos).

65. The assistant's involvement in the theft was just the tip of the iceberg (only a tiny part of the problem is evident, the larger situation is still hidden).

66. The seniors made a special effort to break the ice by welcoming all the freshers (initiate a conversation with people you have just met, or break the tension)

67. Robin was involved in a terrible accident and was within an inch of his life (nearly died).

68. The announcement that all the employees had to work extra hours and would not get compensatory leave was adding insult to injury (aggravating an existing problematic situation).

69. Brutus in the play 'Julius Caesar' accuses Cassius of having an itching palm (greedy for money).

70. The chairman of the company has had good innings (long and successful life).

71. She was out of pocket after the negotiations failed (financial loss).

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72. Manju knows all the inns and outs of the deal (detailed information).

73. The little boy finishes eating before you can say Jack Robinson (very fast).

74. India was the jewel in the crown of the British empire (the best and most valuable part).

75. The Raos always want to keep up with the Joneses (have the same materials, lifestyle like the neighbours).

76. My boss is always ready to jump down someone's throat (react angrily).

77. The jury is still out regarding the benefits of stem cell cloning (undecided).

78. In court he always goes for the jugular (aggressive).

79. The director's assistant is a jack of all trades but master of none (can do different things but does not excel at anything).

80. I have hit the jackpot (unexpected financial gain).

81. After Manoj became the Managing Director, he gave his friend a kick in the teeth and refused to promote him (a setback or disappointment, usually viewed as betrayal).

82. She was always ready to kiss the ground in front of her guru (bow down as a token of respect).

83. Christmas and New year is the time to greet your kith and kin (relations).

84. You could have knocked me down with a feather when I heard that the Director was resigning from the company (extremely surprised).

85. At the interview the chairman enjoys getting the applicants tied up in knots (confuse someone).

86. The knives are out for Bharat who has recently superseded his colleagues and become the manager (open hostility).

87. Reena's success after a delayed start proves that you can't keep a good man down (competence and skill will win).

88. By marrying the director's daughter, Ravi killed two birds with one stone (achieve two aims at one go).

89. I like to be up with the lark and start my daily routine (early morning).

90. There are increasing instances of mobs taking the law into their own hands (doing as you please, punishing someone illegally and violently).

91. With most game shows asking people to vote for the winner, telecommunication companies are laughing all the way to the bank (lots of money with little effort).

92. A good leader should lead from the front (by example).

93. It is no point expecting Suresh to change because a leopard cannot change his spots (cannot change your basic nature).

94. It is amazing to see how pilgrims who are on their last legs are ready to undertake strenuous journeys (physically exhausted, nearing the end of your life).

95. Unlike her mother who is very hard working, the daughter refuses to lift a finger (does not do any work).

96. For our country to prosper, it is important that we all learn to live and let live (be tolerant of each other).

97. Multinational companies take the lion's share of profits (major share).

98. The medical reports showing that everything was clear was a load off his mind (sense of relief).

99. The new director is well liked by everyone as he is a man for all seasons (suitable for all occasions, appropriate behaviour).

100. His decision to be part of the new project will make or break the company's profits (decisive factor).

101. The coalition of political parties is obviously a marriage of convenience (a collaboration for practical purposes).

102. The dictator was given a taste of his own medicine (treated in the same manner).

103. The opposition made mincemeat of the ruling party in Parliament (decisive defeat).

104. As children we were told to watch our P's and Q's when we went visiting (be careful to behave well).

105. Mother Teresa was overflowing with the milk of human kindness (care and compassion for others).

106. Though she got many opportunities to study abroad, she still missed the bus/boat (not knowing how to make use of opportunities).

107. She wanted to join films to make a name for herself (to become famous).

108. The intelligence agencies were caught napping when the terrorists attacked (not ready for action, unprepared).

109. Both the companies are neck and neck in a bid to release their product first (equal in a race).

110. The hostages were rescued by the police just in the nick of time (just in time).

111. The new employer is a real taskmaster and keeps Sunil's nose to the grindstone (makes him work hard).

112. The management has been giving a nudge and wink to the government's questionable policies (quiet support).

113. From the minister's actions one can see that the department head's days are numbered (his time is up).

114. We are just on nodding terms with our neighbours (to know someone just a little).

115. He was the only civilian and he always felt he was the odd one out when he was with colleagues (different from the others, does not fit in).

116. The negotiator held out an olive branch to the two warring partners (offer of peace).

117. When opportunity knocks at your door, you should make full use of it (chances for better avenues).

118. It is no use going overboard with the new plans until they are approved (over enthusiastic).

119. Ajay always behaves as if he owns the place (overbearing manner).

120. He resigned from his job and joined another company with his eyes open (aware of consequences).

121. The election between the two candidates is a one horse race (one candidate seems sure to win).

122. It is an old wives' tale that you should not cook during a solar eclipse (traditional belief that is unscientific).

123. With new technology many of our traditions have paled into insignificance (lost their value).

124. The students' behaviour with their teacher was beyond the pale and was criticized by everyone (unacceptable, beyond the norm).

125. It was a mutual decision by both individuals to part company (go their separate ways).

126. Everyone paid through their nose for a club membership (pay an extremely high price).

127. Giving her expensive designer gifts is like casting pearls before the swine (giving valuable things to someone who does not appreciate them).

128. I hope Rahul does not take over the family business because he is a square peg in a round hole (situation unsuited to his abilities).

129. Senior citizens are often made to run from pillar to post to get their pension. (from one place to another, uselessly).

130. You could hear a pin drop when the name of the selected candidates was announced (complete silence).

131. The budding actress said that she had many films in the pipeline (being planned).

132. Suresh is an astute politician who always plays his cards close to his chest (secretive).

133. As children we used to quake in our shoes when we heard our grandfather's voice (be scared).

134. It was only a question of time before his financial dealings were exposed (matter of time).

135. Among the siblings Seema is quiet as a mouse (docile person).

136. (iv) The company and its employees decided to call it quits (mutually part ways, part company).

137. She was quick of the mark in class and was her teacher's favourite (quick to comprehend).

138. The parents were cut to the quick by their children's remarks (distressed by hurtful remarks).

139. Nobody trusted him as he was always trying to queer someone's pitch (spoil someone's chances).

140. Who will contest the elections together is a million dollar question (unknown outcome on which a lot depends).

141. I have to rack my brains on what to say at the meeting (think hard).

142. His life is a rags to riches story (from poverty or difficult time to wealth).

143. Having a punk hairstyle today is all the rage (in fashion).

144. Many militant organizations abduct people and hold them to ransom (demand money or concessions for their release).

145. The statements made to the press by the minister were off the record (not official statements).

146. 'Unless we see a reasonable change in your behaviour, there is no place for you in this company' said Manoj (behave in a reasonable manner).

147. She was red as a beetroot when Raghu proposed publicly to her (red with embarrassment).

148. I like movies and books where everyone rides off into the sunset (happy endings).

149. He is known for riding roughshod over everyone in the company (disregard

150. others' wishes).

151. She has the knack of smoothing ruffled feathers (to make someone less angry or upset).

152. In international relations many countries do not follow the principle that what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander (what is right for one should be the same for the other).

153. He is willing to sell his soul to the devil in order to achieve his ambitions (go to any extent).

154. Some schools follow the principle of dividing the sheep from the goats (superior and inferior groups).

155. The proposal to increase the number of schools was passed with a show of hands (express consent by raising a hand).

156. When you are born with a silver spoon in your mouth, it is difficult to understand how the other half lives. (wealth and riches).

157. In today's economic scenario the sky is the limit to what one can achieve (limitless opportunities).

158. The government's decision about increased surveillance measures is not to be sneezed at (not to be dismissed).

159. Sudhir's response to his neighbour's new ipod is so obviously a case of sour grapes (be critical of something that you cannot have).

160. I knew that the management kept tabs on everything juniors did in office (monitor someone).

161. She was able to turn the tables on her opponent and reach the second position (reverse your position to one of advantage).

162. The judge pointed out to the petitioner that it took two to tango (both parties are equally responsible).

163. On being caught cheating, the student shed crocodile tears (show false grief).

164. Ever since the announcement of new tariffs, Reet is on tenterhooks about his proposals (state of anxiety).

165. The public was always throwing stones at the municipality (be critical).

166. The lawyers succeeded in throwing dust in the policemen's eyes (mislead/divert).

167. The new president loves to blow her own trumpet and take credit for everything (boast about her achievements).

168. The students were warned in no uncertain terms about the consequences of bunking (strongly and forcefully).

169. After a prolonged illness she is up and about (active).

170. In their fight for control of the party, the dissidents have gained the upper hand (gained control).

171. She was the ugly duckling who went on to win the Ms India crown (unexpected change from ordinariness to beauty or talent).

172. Everyone sensed that something was up from the secretive behaviour of the neighbours (something unusual).

173. She only associates with people who are upwardly mobile (moving to a higher social position).

174. The defence prosecutor was upto his tricks again (misbehaving in his usual fashion).

175. Rina drives her father's car but is underage (below the permissible age).

176. The villain of the piece was someone who also worked in the bank (main culprit).

177. She takes a dim view of her colleague's behaviour (disapprove).

178. The manager is hot tempered and frequently vents his spleen (express your anger).

179. He is never transparent in his functioning and always draws a veil over his dealings (avoid discussion).

180. At the end of the day he wondered whether his pyrrhic victory had been worth anything (at too great a cost).

181. She loves to travel and explore the world because she believes that variety is the spice of life (new and exciting experiences).

182. After her boss ticked her off, she worked with a vengeance to complete her assignments (more than expected).

183. When it is time to settle the bill, Raja always does the vanishing act. (disappear especially when people are looking for you).

184. The newly married couple was busy washing their dirty linen in public (argue publicly about personal matters).

185. The chairman's post is being kept warm for someone (hold a post for someone else).

186. He lacks maturity as he is still wet behind the ears (immature).

187. The government is contemplating selling off a public enterprise which has become a white elephant (difficult to maintain).

188. The overburdened mother was at her wits end (not knowing what to do next).

189. You can count on him because he is a man of his word (reliable, keeps his promise).

190. With the arrival of the twins, the mother had her work cut out (hard task).

191. The writing is on the wall that the company is going to be in trouble (clear indication of something unpleasant about to happen).

192. We never take him seriously because he loves to spin a yarn (tell long stories).

193. Her new hairstyle takes years off her (makes you look younger).

194. Newspapers are not interested in yesterday's news (no longer of interest).

195. The gatekeeper has been with the office for donkey's years (long period).

196. After his studies he wants to travel into the wide blue yonder (unknown distance).

197. The chancellor cannot accept the fact that he is yesterday's man (individual, especially a politician whose career is over).

198. It is important to celebrate the New Year with you and yours (family and friends).

ACTIVITY

Make a list of ten allophones and allomorphs in your mother tongue.

3.4 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Leonard Bloomfield defined a phoneme thus, 'a minimal unit of distinctive sound-feature'. Each phoneme was said to possess a set of 'distinctive features' which was in clear opposition to other features in the data.

- Phonemes can be divided into two categories – segmental phonemes and suprasegmental phonemes.

- All the segmental sounds used in each language can be classed into a limited number of phonemes, and conversely the consonant and vowel phonemes exhaustively cover the entire consonant and vowel sounds so occurring.

- Suprasegmental phonemes consist of stresses, pitches and junctures (modes of transition from one segment to another).

- While phoneme is the minimal unit of sound, there are many different versions of that unit of sound, which are produced in the actual speech. These different versions are called phones. A group of several phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, are referred to as allophones of that phoneme.

- 'Morphology' means the study of forms. It was taken for granted by traditional grammarians that these forms are the words and these words are to be put together to form sentences. Hence, morphology focuses on words, how they are formed and what forms they take in language.

- 'Words' have parts and they are therefore, not the smallest units. Thus, dog and dogs are alike as to dog just as dogs and cats are alike as to the plural marker 's' both in form and meaning. Now dog and cat in these examples are words but not the plural marker /z/. Bloomfield called these units 'morphemes' and defined them as the 'minimum same of form and meaning.'

Check Your Progress

4. The smallest unit of a word is called a _____.

5. _____ is a process of word formation in which a new word is formed by combining the meaning and sound of two words.

6. The meaning of an idiom is dependent upon its literal expression. (True/False)

- Just as there are 'allophones' of a particular phoneme, there are 'allomorphs' of a particular morpheme. That is, when we find a group of different morphs, all versions of one morpheme, we can use the prefix 'allo' and describe them as allomorphs of that morpheme.

- Inflection refers to the different forms of a word which express different grammatical categories such as tense, gender case, number, person etc.

- In clipping, a word is made smaller without any change in its meaning or the grammatical class. In this process, a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, usually beginning in casual speech.

- Acronymy is a process of word formation in which a word is formed of the initial letters of a group of words. This is a type of abbreviation known as *acronym*. It is the result of the human desire for minimizing human effort.

- A phrasal verb is an idiomatic phrase that contains a verb and another element, either an adverb or a preposition. For example,' break down' or 'look down on'. The latter example shows a combination of adverb and preposition.

- An idiom is a non-literal linguistic expression that is characteristic of different languages. It is not a grammatical trait and the meaning of an idiom is not dependent upon its literal expression but its idiomatic usages.

3.5 KEY TERMS

- **Acronymy:** A process of word formation in which a word is formed of the initial letters of a group of words.

- **Idiom:** A non-literal linguistic expression that is characteristic of different languages.

- **Inflection:** Different forms of a word which express different grammatical categories such as tense, gender case, number, person etc.

- **Phoneme:** The minimal unit of sound

- **Phrasal verb:** An idiomatic phrase that contains a verb and another element, either an adverb or a preposition.

3.6 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Segmental phonemes and suprasegmental phonemes one the two categories of phonemes.

2. Allophones

3. True

4. Morpheme

5. Blending

6. False

3.7 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Distinguish between segmental and suprasegmental phonemes.
2. Give five examples of allophones.
3. What is a morph? Give examples.
4. What are allomorphs? How are they classified?
5. Distinguish between prefixes and suffixes.
6. Give five examples of inflections.
7. What is 'derivation'?
8. Write a short note on Phonemes.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the concept of allophones in detail.
2. Distinguish between morphemes and allomorphs.
3. Explain in detail any two word formation processes.
4. What are affixes? Discuss in detail.

3.8 FURTHER READING

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UNIT V: WORD STRESS AND PROSODY

UNIT 4 WORD STRESS AND PROSODY

Structure

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you studied the concepts associated with phonology and morphology.

Words are made up of one or more than one separately pronounced parts. When we speak, we do not pronounce these parts or each word with the same force or emphasis, some parts/words are spoken with greater force while others are pronounced with lesser force. There are several process involved in the formation of words. Also, rhythm plays a very important role in speech. It is based on intonational patterns so that the actual meaning of words combined in a sentence gets conveyed.

In this unit, you will study word and sentence stress in English along with the rhythm and intonation patterns of English and basic sentence structure and its constituents.

4.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss word and sentence stress in English
- analyse rhythm and intonation of English
- explain the basic sentence structure and its constituents

4.2 WORD AND SENTENCE STRESS IN ENGLISH

The parts or units into which words are divided while pronouncing them are called syllables. The vowel sounds in the word constitute the syllables while the consonantal sounds associate themselves with the preceding or following vowels or both. A syllable can thus be defined as a group of sounds with one vowel and one or more than one consonant sounds. For example, let us take the word 'tree'. It has only one syllable, i.e, /iː/. The /t/ and /r/ sounds are consonantal sounds which precede the vowel sound /iː. Thus, words can be monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, tetrasyllabic, so on and so forth depending on the number of vowel sounds they one contain.

Stress or accent is the force of voice with which a syllable is pronounced. Stress denotes the pitch of voice and marks out the syllable or syllables that receive greater emphasis from the rest in a word. The stress generally falls on the root syllable and not on a prefix or a suffix. It is denoted by the mark ( ) placed either on the vowel sound of the stressed syllable or at the end of it, as tree or tree. The symbol for unstressed syllable is ( ).

Syllables that are stressed are also called accented and the unstressed are called unaccented. Generally, more important parts of speech like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs receive greater stress. Longer words may have more than one prominent syllable. In such words, one syllable may have the main stress called primary stress whereas the other syllable may have a weak stress called secondary stress. For example in a word like photograph, there are three syllables, the primary stress being on the first syllable /fou/ and the secondary stress on the third syllable /gra:f/.

The word *prosody* is taken from the Greek word *prosodia* which means a song put to music. It is defined as the science of versification and is the systematic study of the principles and practice of foot, metre, rhyme and stanza.

In terms of acoustics, the prosodics of oral languages involve alteration in syllable length, loudness, pitch and the formant frequencies of speech sounds. In sign languages, prosody includes the rhythm, length, and tension of gestures, along with mouthing and facial expressions. Since it is typically absent in writing, prosody can occasionally result in reader misunderstanding. The typical marks or symbols that represent prosody include punctuation marks (commas, exclamation marks, question marks, scare quotes, and ellipses), and typographic styling for emphasis (italic, bold, and underlined text).

The prosody of a language depends upon its phonology. In a similar manner, prosodic pitch should not conceal tone in a tonal language if the result is to be comprehensible. Although tonal languages, such as Mandarin, have prosodic pitch variations in the course of a sentence, such alterations are long and smooth contours, on which the short and sharp lexical tones are superimposed. If pitch is compared to ocean waves, the swells that are created on the waves are prosody, and the wind-blown ripples on their surface are lexical tones, as with stress in English. The word 'dessert' has greater emphasis on the second syllable, compared to the noun 'desert' which has greater stress on the first syllable. This difference becomes relevant when the entire word is stressed by a child ordering 'Give me dessert!'

Prosodic features are suprasegmental. They are not restricted to any particular segment, but occur in some higher level of expression. These prosodic units are the real phonetic 'spurts' or chunks of speech. They need not correspond to grammatical units such as phrases and clauses, though they may and these facts suggest ideas about how the brain processes speech. Prosodic units are marked by phonetic cues, such as a coherent pitch contour or the gradual decline in pitch and lengthening of vowels over the duration of the unit, until the pitch and speed are reorganized to begin the next unit.

Foot

Continuous reading of poetry does not create the desired effect. Poetry has a rhythm which occurs only when there is a regulated alternation of syllables, stressed and unstressed. Each regular combination or group of accented and unaccented syllables is called a *measure* or *foot*. In each foot, there must be at least one accented syllable and one or two unaccented syllables. Thus, the total number of syllables in an English foot is either two or three, but never more than three. For example:

With ravished ears,

The monarch hears,

Assumes the god.

Affects to nod - **Dryden**

The above lines have two syllables in a foot.

There are many who say that a dog has his day.- **Dylan Thomas**

In the above line, there are three syllables in a foot, two unstressed syllables followed by one stressed syllable.

Sometimes a strongly accented syllable is made to form an entire foot by itself for a special effect as in,

Break, break, break, -Tennyson

Metre

Metre is the succession of regularly accented groups of syllables called measures or feet in a recognized standard length. The number of feet in a poetic line determines the metre, i.e, if there are two feet, it is dimeter, three feet is trimeter and so on. Thus, a metric line is named according to the number of feet composing it:

Monometer – one foot

Dimeter – two feet

Trimester – three feet

Tetrameter – four feet

Pentameter – five feet

Hexameter – six feet

Heptameter – seven feet

Octameter – eight feet

Major metrical forms

The following are the different metrical forms used in English poetry:

Feet or Measures of two syllables

(a) Iambic – It consists of one unaccented syllable followed by one that is accented ( ). It is the most common pattern in English poetry. For example:

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,

The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,

The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,

And leaves the world to darkness and to me. -Thomas Gray

(b) Trochaic – In this metrical form, the above order is reversed, i.e, the accented or stressed syllable precedes the unaccented syllable ( ). For example:

Let her live to earn her dinner. - J.M.Synge

Other disyllabic feet are also found in English prosody. They sometimes occur in irregular metres. Like Spondees in which both the syllables are accented ( ) – The long day wanes; the slow moon climbs; the deep (Tennyson) and

Pyrrhics in which both the syllables are unaccented ( ) – My way is to begin with the beginning (Byron).   Feet or Measures of three syllables

(a) Anapaestic – In this form, two unaccented syllables are followed by an accented one ( ). For example:

I am monarch of all I survey.   - Cowper

(b) Dactylic – It consists of an accented syllable followed by two unaccented ones ( ). For example:

Take her up tenderly - Hood

(c) Amphibrachic – In this metrical form, the accented syllable comes between the two unaccented ones ( ). For example:

Most friendship is feigning.

Most loving mere folly.

    - Shakespeare

Thus, following are the principal metrical forms in English prosody:

Prosodic Name

1. Iambic

2. Trochaic

3. Anapaestic

4. Dactylic

5. Amphibrachic

es of speech

Figures of speech are like 'language ornaments' which are used to make any piece of writing (prose or poetry) more forceful and impressive. Writers very often use them to create an impact on the mind of the reader. They are such an indispensable part of literary writing that some critic has rightly referred to figures of speech as the 'great fertilizers of language'. However, they should not be used forcibly by the writer. Otherwise, their effect is lost. Rather, they should come naturally in a piece of writing 'as leaves to a tree'.

Let us now discuss some of the figures of speech commonly used by writers.

1. Simile – In this figure of speech, two dissimilar objects or actions are compared together by the use of connective words — as, like or than. For example, as green as a leaf, He is brave like a lion.

   In a simple simile, the likeness is explained briefly and directly. For instance, I wandered lonely as a cloud (Wordsworth). In the Epic or Homeric simile, the similarity is first stated and then elaborated:

   Deep in the shady sadness of a vale

   Far sunken from the healthy breath of morn,

   Far from the fiery noon, and eve's one star,

   Sat gray-hair'd Saturn, quiet as a stone,

   Still as the silence round about his lair;

   Forest on forest hung about his head

   Like cloud on cloud.

2. **Metaphor** – In a metaphor, the likeness between two things is only implied and not stated directly. For example: The camel is the ship of the desert or Chaucer is the morning star of English poetry. The difference between a simile and a metaphor is that in a simile, the comparison is clearly stated whereas in a metaphor, the comparison is only hinted at. A mixed metaphor combines two or more diverse metaphors and is applied to the same object as in 'I smell a rat but I will nip it in the bud'. Here mischief has been first compared to a rat and then to a flower.

3. **Personification** – The attribution of human characteristics or feelings to inanimate objects or abstract ideas is called personification. For example, the following lines from Robert Frost:

And like the flowers beside them chill and shiver,
Will like the flowers beside them soon be gone.

4. **Pathetic Fallacy** – It is a special kind of personification in which nature is strongly personified by poets so as to taking an interest in human action as in the following example:

Earth felt the wound, and Nature from her seat,
Sighing through all her works, gave signs of woe,
That all was lost.

5. **Apostrophe** – Apostrophe is a figure of speech in which a personified abstract idea or inanimate object or even an actual person (who is not present on the scene) is directly addressed, as if it or he were actually present. For example:

Busy old fool, unruly Sun. (Donne)
Milton! Thou should'st be living at this hour. (Wordsworth)

6. **Allegory** – It is the narration of a story or incident under the guise of another which is suggestively similar. In an allegory, often, personified qualities are used to tell the story which has moral implications. The two greatest examples of allegory in English are Spenser's Faerie Queene and Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress in which virtues and vices are personified and introduced.

Similar to allegory are **Parables** and **Fables**. A parable is an earthly story with a spiritual meaning and gives a moral or spiritual truth. There are many parables in the New Testament which were used by Christ to teach his disciples.

A fable is a short story with a moral which is usually given at the end. It has animals as characters rather than human beings. For example, Aesop's Fables or stories from the *Panchatantra*.

7. **Synecdoche** – It is a figure of speech in which (i) a part is used for the whole or, (ii) the whole is used for the part or, (iii) a species is used for the genus or (iv) the genus for a species or, (v) the concrete for the abstract or, (vi) the abstract for the concrete.

Examples:

(i) I have several hands to help me. (people)
(ii) India has won the match. (the Indian team)
(iii) Silver and gold have I none. (wealth)
(iv) He was killed in action. (battle)

(v) Let the fox in him be killed. (cunning)

(vi) Let not ambition mock their useful toil. (ambitious people)

8. Metonymy – In metonymy, the term for one thing is useful for another with which it has become closely linked in experience. For instance, the crown or scepter has come to stand for the king; Shakespeare for his plays; Keats for his poetry, etc.

9. Transferred Epithet – It is a figure of speech in which an adjective or adverb is transferred form the word to which it belongs to another with which it is associated. For example, a blind prayer does not mean that the prayer is blind but that it is unanswered. Similarly, weary way does not refer to the weariness of the way but the traveller.

10. Euphemism – When we avoid the use of an unpleasant expression and use one which is relatively more pleasant instead, it is called euphemism. For example:

    He breathed his last. (died)

11. Irony – Irony refers to the use of words which connote the opposite of what is really meant. It is used for emphasis as when Antony refers to Brutus and the other conspirators who killed Caesar as honourable men in *Julius Caesar*.

12. Hyperbole – It is an exaggerated statement used for powerful impression. For example, I am tired to death.

13. Oxymoron – In this figure of speech, two terms opposite in meaning are juxtaposed in one phrase. Though it appears to be absurd, it has a subtler meaning.

    Example: And all its aching joys are no more.

14. Paradox – It is a statement that sounds absurd or untrue but is found to be true or plausible on deeper thought.

    Example: He who goes against the fashion is himself its slave. (Logan Pearsal Smith)

15. Antithesis – In this figure of speech, two phrases are brought into a symmetrical contrast by being balanced against each other. For example: United we stand, divided we fall.

16. Rhetorical Question – It is a speech, worded in the form of a question, whose answer can only be either a strong affirmative or a strong negative and the answer is quite obvious from the question itself. For example:

    (i) Here was a Caesar! When comes such another?

    (ii) Have you taken leave of your senses?   (Shakespeare)

17. Exclamation – Exclamation is a figure of speech which expresses our sudden intense emotions of joy or sorrow. For example:

    What a piece of work is a man! How noble in reason! How infinite in faculty! In form and moving how express and admirable! In action how like an angel! In apprehension how like a god!
                                                  (Shakespeare)

18. Inversion – In this figure of speech, the word order is inverted for rhetorical effect as in Keats's 'Much have I travelled in the realms of gold'.

19. Pun – It is a play on words that are similar in sound but different in meaning. It also occurs if the same word is used in two different senses. For example:

(i) If a woman loses her husband, she pines for a second. (second-a short while; a second husband)

(ii) In Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*, when a cobbler is asked about his profession, he replies that he is a mender of bad soles (soles of shoes and souls of human beings).

20. Onomatopoeia – It is the association of sound with sense. There are many words like whisper, thud, bang, hush whose meaning is evident from the sound. They are used for the sake of effect.

21. Innuendo or Insinuation – It is subtler than irony and consists in an indirect hint of an injurious nature told in an artful manner. When William Temple was on his death bed, he refused to have medical help saying, 'I do not consult physicians for I hope to die without them'. What he implied was that doctors more often than not send people to death, so he did not require their services.

22. Epigram – Epigram is much like paradox, the only difference being that it is more precise and brief. It conveys much meaning in a very few words. It catches the attention of the reader and forces him to delve deeper into the meaning of the statement. For example:

    (i) *Cowards die many times before their death.*

    (ii) *The child is the father of man.*

23. Climax – In this figure of speech, different ideas are arranged in ascending order of importance, the least important/impressive coming first and the most important/ impressive coming last. Example:

    You blocks, you stones, you worse than senseless things.　　　(Shakespeare)

24. Anti-climax or Bathos – It consists in a sudden fall from the more important/ impressive to the less important/ impressive, from the dignified to the ordinary, often with a ludicrous effect, which may not be always intentional. Example:

    Not louder shrieks by dames to heaven are cast

    When husbands die or lap dogs breathe their last.　　　(Pope)

25. Chiasmus – In this figure of speech, the order of the words in the first of two parallel clauses is reversed in the second. Example:

    (i) Beauty is truth, truth beauty.　　　(Keats)

    (ii) He was a rake among scholars and a scholar among rakes.　　　(Macaulay)

26. Circumlocution or Periphrasis – It is a round-about way of speech or writing, more popular in poetry than in prose. For example:

    (i) The shining leather that encased the limb (= boot) -　　　Pope

    (ii) Moving isles of winter (= icebergs) -　　　Tennyson

27. Pleonasm – Pleonasm consists in the use of more words than are necessary to convey the meaning intended. For example: One single piece of this will be enough.

    It can, however, be used for the sake of emphasis as in, 'Lest at any time they should see with their eyes and hear with their ears.'

28. Tautology – It is similar to Pleonasm in that it involves the use of two or more phrases for conveying the same meaning as in 'Pray and beseech' and 'Last will and testament'. The distinction between the two is that while tautology adds a superfluous word in the same grammatical place, pleonasm repeats the idea in a different place.

29. Litotes – It is a deliberate understatement made for the sake of a stronger effect. In it an affirmative statement is made by the use of the negative or the opposite. For example: She has no mean stature among her colleagues (i.e, a great stature).

30. Prolepsis – It is a figure of speech in which future events are anticipated. For example, in Keats's *Isabella*:

> So the two brothers with their murdered man
> Rode past fair Florence

The murdered man here means the man whom the brothers intended to kill.

4.3 RHYTHM AND INTONATION OF ENGLISH

Intonation

Voiceless sounds: When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded, the sounds produced are described as voiceless sounds. Examples are sounds in English – sit, sheet, fever, think.

Voiced sounds: When the vocal cords are loosely held together, when the air passes through it, it makes the vocal sound called vibrate. The sounds created in this manner are called voiced sounds. For example, the consonantal sounds in English such as veil, these, zoo, me, nose are all voiced sounds.

During the course of our speech, the spoken sounds occur together one after the other to produce meaning in terms of what the individual words (morphs) mean. They also create meaning by the music that is created in the tone in which we utter those words. Based on the vibration of the vocal cords, a certain musical rhythm and note is created. This determines the pitch of our voice. The higher the frequency of vibration, the higher is the pitch of the voice; and the lower the frequency, the lower is the pitch.

You must have noticed that the pitch of your voice is not constant as you speak. There is modulation, in the sense that the pitch keeps changing. In every kind of conversation (barring a few, such as the prayers in church which is in a monotone) there is always the modulation of voice. According to Kreidler (1989), English utterances are seldom spoken in monotones. For one, native English speakers produce melodies of varying kinds, with the rising and falling voice. Such melodies are technically called intonation. These patterns of variation are called tones. These tones bring about a change of meaning of an utterance or a change of meaning in a word. Languages in which tones can bring about a change in the meaning of an utterance or word are known as intonation languages.

Many phonologists believe that another important component of intonation is the phenomenon called prominence. Speakers make some syllables more noticeable than others. Such action is usually accomplished by pronouncing syllables louder and longer, assigning them a different pitch, or articulating their phonemes—especially the vowels—more distinctly. Prominence is also referred to as emphasis, focus, main stress, nucleus, or tonic accent. It is equally important to stress that pitch level, pitch movement and prominence are all relative values.

Intonational functions

Intonational choices made by speakers carry linguistic information and perform a variety of functions. Though researchers of intonation suggest

intonation, the common practice is to take Halliday's model of three functions of intonation as a general practice:

(i) Grammatical

(ii) Discourse or informational

(iii) Attitudinal

(i) Grammatical intonation

Grammatical intonation helps to identify the grammatical structure in speech. This is similar to the role of punctuation in writing. Grammatical intonation also helps us in identifying clause and sentence units and contrasts questions/ statements. According to Halliday, grammatical intonation relates to the grammatical mood (question/statement, etc.) as well as the modality (possibility, validity, etc.). Roach believes, 'Grammatical intonation helps language speakers and learners to recognize the grammar and syntactic structures, e.g., boundaries between phrases, clauses and sentences. It also facilitates our knowledge of the differences between questions and statements' as well as the intricacies of grammatical subordination.'

(ii) Discourse or informational intonation

Discourse or information entails the kind of response to be expected. In normal communication, intonation is used at the place of syntax (sentence). As people communicate primarily through language, intonation should be studied at the discourse level. Recent phonological research defines intonation as a speaker's way of organizing and relating meanings throughout the discourse. More significantly, this approach interprets various meanings based on the choices of the speaker. Almost all intonational choices are tied to the context in which they occur. In contrast to the linguistic universality of grammar, it is impossible in the discourse approach to isolate a speech from its context and, hence, make reasonable generalizations about intonational meaning. We can say that discourse intonation provides a tool for the four options associated with tone units: prominence, tone, key and termination. Each one adds a different type of information.

- Prominence is a syllable on which there is a major pitch movement.
- Tone pitch movements are distinguished by their particular direction: falling, rising, fall-rise, rise-fall.
- Key is the relative pitch level chosen by speakers for each tone unit. Three choices are proposed: low, middle and high.
- Termination is a low, middle or high pitch level choice made by speakers at the beginning or end of a tonal unit.

Gradually, there is a shift in focus towards adopting the discourse view of intonation, particularly in teaching new language learners. Hewings (1995) opines that the discourse view of intonation tends to view speech as 'a purpose-driven activity where speakers and hearers cooperate to reach the desired goal of shared understanding'. It also refers to the common ground that exists between speaker and hearer as the area in which their world views converge.

Although discourse intonation has some difficulties for pedagogical application and its adapted and simplified version for teaching purposes, it seems to be most

viable and convincing of all intonational functions available at the moment. Moreover, its well-developed model provides us with a strong systematic framework within which teachers and students can study intonation.

(iii) Attitudinal intonation

We use intonation as a chief means of expressing our attitude, emotions and thoughts. The researchers of intonation point out those patterns with a narrow range of frequency variations. These are the most unpleasant to our ears, while smooth changes in one direction are generally less pleasant. They also point out differences in the judgements according to the grammatical category of the sentence. Statements could be pleasant with either a final rise or fall while questions and commands were pleasant only with a final rise (Fry, 1974). Citing descriptions from *Nine ways of saying yes* by Crystal and Allen, it can be pointed out that the problems of the attitudinal meaning of tone are as follows:

- The imprecision of the descriptions: It is difficult to be precise about emotional nuances. For example, it is difficult to differentiate the meanings 'detached, unemotional statement of fact' and 'routine, uncommitted comment; detached and unexcited.'

- It results in the form where any tone can mean anything, depending on the context. This is a serious problem for a systematic description.

- The meaning of an intonation choice may depend on associated gestures or facial expressions.

In fact, almost any emotion can be accompanied by any tone. Without lexical or contextual information or other vocal clues, it becomes almost impossible to reliably label a tone as displaying a particular attitude or emotion. Generally speaking, discussions of the function of intonation in English often centre on the relation between intonation and attitudes. In fact, the main function of intonation is analyzed by many phonologists as conveying attitudes. Many other factors, such as loudness, quality of voice, speed of delivery and facial and bodily gestures also contribute significantly to the conveying of attitude. The result of all this is that we cannot really say anything constructive about intonation and attitude.

Now, let us get into some discussion on the four tone pitch movements—falling tone, rising tone, falling–rising tone and rising–falling tone to understand how they work in our conversation in day–to–day language.

Falling tone

The following types of sentences are generally uttered with a falling tone:

Statements (matter of fact, complete and assertive)	He is always punctual
Commands	Shut the door
Invitations	Do come in and sit down
Exclamations	What a beautiful painting
Wh Questions	Where has he gone?
Tag Questions	She is rather late, isn't she?

Rising tone

The following types of sentences are generally uttered with a rising tone:

Yes or no type polarity questions	Are they coming for dinner
Alternative questions	Do you like tea or coffee?
Requests	Come here for a moment
Non-terminal tone unit	As soon as he arrives --------- I will let you know
Non-polarity type or Wh questions expressing politeness, friendliness, personal interest	How's your father?
Repetition question	Ram told me about it. Who told you?
Commands intended to sound like request	Shut the door.
Statement intended to be questions	He's not coming.

Falling–Rising tone

The following types of sentences are generally uttered with a falling–rising tone:

One which picks out part of the foregoing context.	(I thought you both spoke Spanish) My brother does.
Statement which shows partial agreement and a kind of reservation on part of the speaker.	She hasn't done very well (you must admit).
Statement intended to be a warning reproach or to express concern	You must not come late (warning).
Statement intended to be a correction of the information received.	(He speaks six languages). He speaks four.
Non-terminal tone-group.	Generally we go out on Saturdays.
Imperative meant to be a pleading request	Do complete this by tomorrow.

Rising–falling tone

The following types of sentences are generally uttered with a rising–falling tone:

Statements showing enthusiastic agreement	(Do you like this colour?) Yes.
Exclamations expressing sarcasm, irony	Good Morning (Ironical)
Questions showing suspicion, indignation, incredulity or mockery.	What has he been up to? (suspicious)

It is advantageous to learn the intonation of any language as it performs three functions:

- present recorded utterances in the target language which learners are to imitate,
- evaluate a learner's response with regard to pitch, volume and tempo, and
- display a learner's degree of deviation from agreed-on settings.

4.4 BASIC SENTENCE STRUCTURE AND ITS CONSTITUENTS

We use words to speak or write. These words are generally used in groups. For example, Jack and Jill went up the hill. Such a group of words which makes complete sense is called a sentence. It can be of four types:

(a) Declarative or assertive as in "The boy kicked the ball".
(b) Interrogative as in 'Who kicked the ball'?
(c) Imperative as in 'Kick the ball'.
(d) Exclamatory as in 'Hurrah! He kicked the ball.'

When we make a sentence, we name some person or thing and say something about that person or thing. For example, Ram kicked the ball. Here, Ram is the person who is named and kicked the ball is what is said about Ram. Hence, Ram is the subject and what is said about him, kicked the ball, is the predicate. Every sentence thus, has a subject and a predicate.

Phrases

A phrase is a group of words which makes sense but not complete sense. For example:

Jack and Jill went up the hill.

Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.

Examples of phrases

There are hundreds of phrases in the English language. Below are some commonly used phrases:

1. **Point-blank:** To say something directly or rudely, without explaining or apologizing. *Example:* The company owner told the workers point-blank that their demands could not be met.

2. **So-so:** Not very satisfactory. *Example:* My new job is so-so but I cannot afford to give it up.

3. **Chit-chat:** Small talk or unimportant conversation. *Example:* The boss asked them to stop their chit-chat and get on with their work.

4. **See-saw:** Something that goes up and down. *Example:* The Indian rupee has been see-sawing for the last one year.

5. **Black-and-white:** Something which is extremely clear. *Example:* The employees have been told in black-and-white that they have to deliver or quit.

6. **Dos and don'ts:** The rules. *Example:* A good driver always follows the do's and don'ts of driving.

7. **Haves and have-nots:** Those who are rich and those who are not. *Example:* In India, there is a wide gap between the haves and have-nots of the population.

8. **Ins and outs:** The details. *Example:* As I don't know the ins and outs of the situation, I can't really comment on it.

9. **Pros and cons:** Advantages and disadvantages. *Example:* One must consider all the pros and cons before buying a new car.

10. **Tried and tested:** Something which has been well tested. *Example:* Drinking green tea is a tried and tested way of improving the digestion.

11. **Ups and downs:** Very good times and very bad times. *Example:* He has had a lot of ups and downs in his business.

12. **Flesh and blood:** One's close family. *Example:* You must help your brother – after all, he's your flesh and blood.

13. **By and large:** Generally. *Example:* By and large, people prefer quality products to low prices.

14. **Dead and buried:** Something that is not going to happen again. *Example:* Their long dispute is now dead and buried.

15. **Wine and dine:** To entertain someone lavishly. *Example:* The Chopras are known for wining and dining their guests.

16. **Bread and butter:** The main source of income, or the most important issue. *Example:* Making shoes was the poor shoemaker's bread and butter.

17. **Spick and span:** Very clean and tidy. *Example:* Mrs Khanna's house is always spick and span.

18. **A bit much:** Something that is excessive or annoying. *Example:* All that violence in today's movies is a bit much.

19. **Bad egg:** A person who cannot be trusted. *Example:* Don't hire that man – he is a bad egg.

20. **Behind bars:** To be in prison. *Example:* Corrupt people find themselves behind bars one day.

Every language has a basic sentence pattern. In the English language, the basic sentence pattern is Subject – Verb – Object (SVO). For example, in the sentence *The boy broke the pen*, the boy is the subject, broke is the verb and the pen is the object.

Noun Phrase (NP)

In keeping with the SVO pattern, every sentence in the English language has a Noun Phrase (NP) and a Verb Phrase (VP). The NP can have a wide range of grammatical constituents which can also be represented with the help of a tree diagram. For example:

(i) NP – Article + Noun (A girl)

(ii) NP – Determiner + Noun (The girl)

(iii) NP – Article + Adjective + Noun (A beautiful girl)
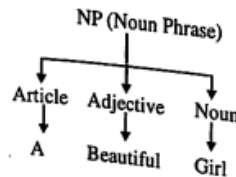
(iv) NP – Determiner + Adjective + Noun (The beautiful girl)
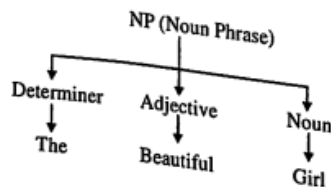
Determiner

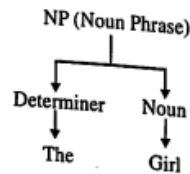A **determiner** is a noun-modifier that shows the reference of a noun or noun-phrase in the context, rather than attributes expressed by adjectives. This function is usually performed by articles, demonstratives, possessive determiners or quantifiers.

Determiners are independent words that precede the rest of the noun phrase. In other languages, determiners are prefixed or suffixed to the noun, or even change the noun's form. For example, in Swedish *bok* book', when definite, becomes *boken* 'the book' (suffixed definite articles are common in Scandinavian languages), while in Romanian *caiet* 'notebook' becomes *caietul* 'the notebook'.

Some constructions, such as those that use names of school subjects don't use a determiner. This condition is called the 'zero determiner'.

The determiner function is not only carried out by the determiner class of words but can also be filled by words from other entities.

1. Basic determiners are words from the determiner class (for example, the girl, those pencils) or determiner phrases (e.g. almost all employees, more than two problems)

2. Subject determiners are possessive noun phrases (for example, his daughter, the boy's friend)

3. Minor determiners are simple noun phrases (for example, what colour curtain, 'this' size shoes) and prepositional phrases (under twenty meters, up to twelve people).

A determiner establishes the reference of a noun or noun-phrase, including quantity, rather than its attributes as expressed by adjectives. Despite this tendency, determiners have a variety of functions in English such as being modifiers in adjective phrases and determiner phrases, and even markers of coordination.

This word class, or part of speech, exists in many languages, including English, though most English dictionaries still classify determiners under other parts of speech. Determiners usually include articles, demonstratives, possessive determiners, quantifiers, and cardinal numbers depending on the language.

Determiners form a closed class of words that number about 50 (not counting the cardinal numerals) and include:

- **Alternative determiners:** another, other, somebody else, different
- **Articles:** a, an, the
- **Cardinal numbers:** zero, one, two, fifty, infinite, etc.
- **Degree determiners:** many, much, few, little, couple, several, most
- **Demonstratives:** this, that, these, those, which
- **Disjunctive determiners:** either, neither
- **Distributive determiners:** each, every
- **Elective determiners:** any, either, whichever
- **Equative determiners:** the same
- **Evaluative determiners:** such, that, so
- **Exclamative determiners:** what lovely hair!
- **Existential determiners:** some, any
- **Interrogative and relative determiners:** which, what, whichever, whatever
- **Mutual determiners:** a lot of, many, several, much
- **Negative determiners:** no, neither
- **Personal determiners:** we students, you guys
- **Possessive determiners:** my, mine, their, your etc.
- **Quantifiers:** all, few, many etc.
- **Sufficiency determiners:** enough, sufficient, plenty
- **Uniquitive determiners:** the only
- **Universal determiners:** all, both

All of these determiners can be grouped under the following categories:

- **Definite determiners:** These determiners refer back to a specific already-established entity (cardinals, demonstratives, equatives, evaluatives, exclamatives, relatives, personals, possessives, uniquitives).

- **Indefinite determiners:** These determiners broaden their referent to one not previously mentioned, otherwise newly introduced into discourse (disjunctives, electives, existentials, interrogatives, negatives, universals).

Determiners as different from adjectives

According to traditional English grammar, adjectives were called determiners. There are, however, a number of key differences between determiners and adjectives.

In English, articles, demonstratives, and possessive determiners cannot co-occur in the same phrase, while any number of adjectives are typically allowed.

Example: A huge red Italian hat.

1. Most determiners cannot occur alone in predicative complement position but most adjectives can.

    Example: The worker is joyful.

2. Most determiners are not gradable while adjectives typically are.

    Example: small, smaller, smallest

3. Some determiners have corresponding pronouns, while adjectives don't.

    Example: Everybody likes something unique.

4. Adjectives can modify singular or plural nouns, while some determiners can only modify one or the other.

Determiners as different from pronouns

Determiners such as this, all, and some can often occur without a noun. In traditional grammar, these are called pronouns. There are, however, a number of key differences between such determiners and pronouns which are as follows:

1. Pronouns may occur in tag questions. Determiners cannot.

    Example: This is beautiful, isn't it?

2. In phrasal verbs, pronouns must appear between the verb and the particle. Determiners may occur after the particle.

    Example: Break it down

3. All pronouns have distinct possessive forms while determiners do not.

    Example: This is hers/mine/theirs

Modification

Verb Phrase

We have established that a sentence consists of a Noun Phrase (NP) and a Verb Phrase (VP): S = NP + VP

The constituents of the Noun Phrase have been discussed. Let us now discuss the modifications of the Verb Phrase.

Verb Phrase (VP) – Verb + Noun Phrase (NP)

Or

VP – Verb + NP

VP – Verb + Determiner + Noun

Verbs form the second largest word forms after nouns. They denote action and are therefore, also called action words. For example, walk, climb, talk, sing. Verbs have three grammatical types – lexical, auxiliary and modal.

Lexical verbs form an open class and include most verbs like run, eat, breathe. Auxiliary verbs form a closed class and consist of words like be, do and have. The main function of auxiliary verbs is to add information to other lexical verbs. Modal verbs consist of words like can, could, shall, should, will, would, must, may, might etc. They add information to lexical verbs about degrees of certainty and necessity.

A verb phrase contains the following optional features:

- A modal verb (e.g., *will*)

- The verb *have* to express perfect aspect (created by the auxiliary 'have' and the '-ed' participle form of the lexical verb referring to a time period that includes the present moment). For example, *He might have walked home today*.

- The verb *be* to express progressive aspect (referring to uncompleted action and consists of the auxiliary *be* form and the *-ing* form of the lexical verb). For example, *are going*.

- The verb *be* to express passive voice (formed with the auxiliary 'be' and the '-ed' participle form of the lexical verb). For example, *She was criticized by her friends*.

The modal comes first followed by the auxiliary or several auxiliaries and finally the lexical (main) verb. A verb phrase which is a combination of modals and auxiliaries is structured usually in the following order: modal verb >> perfect *have* >> progressive *be* >> passive *be* >> Lexical verb. Whichever verbs are used in the verb phrase, the first verb is conjugated for tense, person and number.

Adjective Phrase

An adjective is a word that describes or qualifies a noun/pronoun. An adjective phrase can consist of:

A single adjective – The girl is *beautiful*.

An adjective which has been modified by an adverb phrase – The girl is **truly** *beautiful*.

An adjective which has been complemented by a prepositional phrase – The girl is *beautiful* **to look at**.

For example:

- **Adjectives of quality** describe the noun, for example, small, good, honest, clever, pretty, thin.

- **Adjectives of quantity** answer the question 'how much'." They are used with uncountable nouns, for example, much, little, some, all, any, whole, sufficient.
- **Adjectives of number** answer the question 'how many'?
- **Demonstrative adjectives** point out which person or thing is meant.
- **Possessive adjectives** show possession, for example, his, her, their, whose, when, etc.
- **Interrogative adjectives** are used with nouns to ask questions, for example, what, which, whose.

The adjective phrase is a group of words, without a finite verb, which describes a noun and functions like an adjective.

For example:

- The boy **in the blue** shirt is my brother.
- She wore a necklace **made of pearls and rubies**.
- Anita is a girl **with a friendly nature**.

In the above sentences, the three groups of words in bold describe the nouns boy, necklace, and girl; so they are adjective phrases.

An adjective can sometimes be changed into an adjective phrase.

For example:

A village road	—	A road through the village
A blank page	—	A page with no writing on it
A silk dress	—	A dress made of silk
An intelligent man	—	A man of intelligence
A rich woman	—	A woman of wealth
A smiling face	—	A face with a smile on it

Some more examples of adjective phrases used in sentences are as follows.

- This book has stories about our freedom fighters.
- He is a student of great promise.
- He is a man of great courage.
- Only a person with plenty of money can afford to travel around the world.
- A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

Care must be taken to place an adjective phrase next to the noun it describes, or you may get absurd sentences.

For example:

The dog chased the man with the curly tail.

The chair was sold by the man with a broken seat.

The two adjective phrases, with the curly tail and broken seat describe the dog and the chair respectively, and so should have been placed next to the dog and the chair.

The correct sentences should read:

> The dog with the curly tail chased the man.
>
> The chair with the broken seat was sold by the man.

Adverb Phrase

An adverb is a part of speech which modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adverbs perform a wide range of functions and are particularly important for indicating time, manner, place, degree, and frequency of an event, action, or process. An adverb phrase can:

> Act as an adverb in a sentence – She came home *too suddenly*.
>
> Modify verbs – She **talks** *too loudly*.
>
> Modify adjectives – She was so tired that she fell into a *really* **deep** sleep.
>
> Modify adverbs – She fell *very* **heavily**.

For example:

- Harry worked hard. (Here, *hard* modifies the verb *worked*.)
- It is bitterly cold today. (Here, *bitterly* modifies the adjective *cold*.)
- They behaved rather noisily. (Here, *rather* modifies the verb *noisily*.)

In the above sentences *hard*, *bitterly* and *rather* are adverbs.

An adverb phrase is a group of words without a finite verb, which does the work of an adverb.

For example:

He spoke *rudely*; we can say, he spoke *in a rude manner*.

'Rudely' is an adverb and modifies the verb 'spoke'. Similarly, 'in a rude manner' modifies the verb 'spoke'. The only difference is that instead of a single word 'rude', we have used a group of words to convey the same meaning.

Therefore, a group of words which does not include a finite verb and which does the work of an adverb, is known as an adverb phrase.

Some examples of adverb phrases are as follows:

- next month
- in the morning
- at the end of this road
- with great care
- with great fury
- in a short period

Instead of using a single word, we are using a group of words to do the same thing, that is, modify a verb.

Just as there are several types of adverbs, there are various types of adverb phrases.

For example:

- He searched all over the place for his keys. (**Adverb phrases of place** (shows where)]

- We shall begin the journey soon after sunrise. [**Adverb phrase of time** (shows when)]
- He spoke in a dignified manner. [**Adverb phrase of manner** (shows how)]
- Barking dogs seldom bite. [**Adverb of frequency** (shows how often)]
- I am almost ready. [**Adverb of degree or quantity** (shows how much or to what degree)]
- I do not like milk. [**Adverb phrase of assertion** (shows affirmation or negation)]
- When will he return? [**Interrogative adverb** (used to ask questions)]
- She was, hence, given a punishment. [**Adverb of reason** (shows case or reason)]

An adverb phrase, like an adverb, can also modify an adjective or an adverb.

For example:

- Fruit is *good* for *health*. ('for health' modifies the adjective 'good;.)
- He spoke *well* on the *whole*. ('On the whole' modifies the adverb 'well'.)
- He came *yesterday*, late in the *evening*. ('Late in the evening' modifies the adverb 'yesterday')

Some important adverbial phrases

1. **Above all**—*most important of all.* Send to me all these things and *above all* don't forget to wire me.

2. **After all**—*whatever may be against it.* You must help him in his distress; *after all*, he is your own brother.

3. **As it were**—*in other words ; speaking metaphorically.* After a meeting with his beloved, he was, *as it were*, flying in the air.

4. **Again and again, over and over again, time and again**—*repeatedly, often.* I dialled his number *again and again* but every time I found his telephone engaged.

5. **At large**—*unconfined.* The murderer is still *at large* and the police are hotly after him.

6. **Above board**—*honest and unconcealed.* His conduct has been entirely *above board* and your criticism of him is quite unjustified.

7. **At the eleventh hour**—*at the last moment.* He was coming with us but *at the eleventh hour* he changed his mind.

8. **At any rate, at all events**—*whatever may happen.* In this matter, you must help your friend *at any rate.*

9. **At a stretch**—*continuously.* Yesterday, I worked for ten hours *at a stretch.*

10. **By and by**—*after a little while soon.* Don't be impatient, you will come to know everything *by and by.*

11. **Before long**—*in a short time.* Please be seated: I'll be here *before long.*

12. **By the by or way**—*incidentally.* Yes, I'll come to you tomorrow. *By the way,* my brother has come back from England.

13. **Few and far between**—*rare, scarce.* Even though he lives in the same city, his visits to us are *few and far between.* My holidays are *few and far between.*

14. **Far and away, out and out**—*beyond all comparison*. Murty is *far and away* the best player in the team.

15. **Far and near or wide**—*in all directions*. Soon the news spread *far and wide*.

Prepositional Phrase

A preposition is a word which shows the relation between persons or things mentioned in a sentence. A prepositional phrase is formed when a preposition combines with its complement. For example:

> They are related *to one another*.

> The mouse fell *into the well*.

A comprehensive list of prepositional phrases combining with their specific complements are as follows:

- at (a) high speed
- at (the) risk (of)
- at / by one's side
- at / for a fraction of
- at / from the outset
- at / in the end
- at / on sight
- at a glance
- at a loose end
- at a loss
- at a low ebb
- at a moment's notice
- at a price
- at a rate of
- at a speed of
- at a standstill
- at all costs
- at all events
- at an advantage
- at any cost
- at any rate
- at breakfast
- at ease (with)
- at face value
- at fault
- at full strength

- at hand
- at heart
- at home (with)
- at issue
- at large
- at least
- at length
- at liberty
- at most
- at night
- at noon
- at odds with
- at once
- at one's best
- at one's discretion
- at one's disposal
- at one's leisure
- at one's request
- at peace / war (with)
- at play
- at present
- at random
- at sea
- at the / in front of
- at the age of
- at the beginning
- at the expense of
- at the foot of
- at the hands of
- at the height of
- at the latest
- at the mercy of
- at the peak of
- at the same time
- at the thought of
- at the time of
- at the top of
- at this juncture

- at times
- at war with
- at work
- behind the scenes
- by (any) chance
- by / under the name of
- by / with luck
- by accident
- by air /sea /land
- by all accounts
- by all means
- by any standard
- by appointment
- by birth
- by check
- by coincidence
- by courtesy of
- by definition
- by degrees
- by design
- by dint of
- by far
- by force
- by hand
- by heart
- by law
- by marriage
- by means of
- by mistake
- by my watch
- by nature
- by no means
- by oneself
- by order of
- by process of
- by profession
- by reason of
- by request

- by rights
- by sight
- by surprise
- by the side of
- by virtue of
- by way of
- for / in a good cause
- for / to the benefit (of)
- for a (good) reason
- for a change
- for certain / sure
- for fear of
- for good
- for granted
- for hire
- for lack of
- for life
- for love
- for my / your, etc. part
- for real
- for the good of
- for the sake of
- for want of
- from experience
- from memory
- in (no) time
- in / at the forefront of
- in / on demand
- in / out of focus
- in / out of one's element
- in / out of prison
- in / out of season
- in / out of stock
- in / out of touch (with)
- in / out of use
- in / with difficulty
- in / within sight (of)
- in a deep sleep

- in a flash
- in a heap
- in a hurry
- in a mess
- in a pile
- in a sense
- in a temper
- in abeyance
- in abundance
- in accordance with
- in action
- in addition to
- in advance
- in agony
- in agreement with
- in aid of
- in all likelihood
- in an instant
- in an uproar
- in answer to
- in anticipation of
- in arrears
- in awe of
- in blossom
- in brief
- in bulk
- in cash
- in character
- in charge of
- in code
- in collaboration with
- in combination with
- in comfort
- in command of
- in common
- in comparison with
- in compensation for
- in conclusion

- in confidence
- in confinement
- in confusion
- in conjunction with
- in connection with
- in consequence of
- in contact with
- in contrast with / to
- in control of
- in convoy
- in custody
- in danger
- in debt
- in decline
- in defense of
- in detail
- in disgrace
- in disguise
- in disorder
- in dispute
- in distress
- in doubt
- in due course
- in duplicate
- in earnest
- in effect
- in error
- in essence
- in excess of
- in exchange for
- in existence
- in fact
- in fairness to
- in favor of
- in fear of
- in flames
- in flower
- in full

- in future
- in gear
- in general
- in good / bad condition
- in good faith
- in hand
- in harmony (with)
- in haste
- in hiding
- in high spirits
- in honor of
- in horror (of)
- in ink / pencil
- in isolation
- in its infancy
- in jeopardy
- in keeping with
- in labor
- in league with
- in length
- in line with
- in love with
- in memory of
- in mid-air
- in mind
- in moderation
- in mourning (for)
- in name
- in office
- in one's absence / presence
- in one's spare time
- in operation
- in opposition to
- in origin
- in other words
- in pain
- in Parliament
- in particular

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- in person
- in pieces
- in place of
- in possession of
- in poverty
- in practice
- in preference to
- in preparation for
- in principle
- in private
- in progress
- in proportion to / with
- in public
- in pursuit of
- in quantity
- in question
- in reality
- in recognition of
- in relation to
- in reply to
- in reserve
- in residence
- in respect of
- in response to
- in retrospect
- in return
- in revenge for
- in reverse
- in ruins
- in safety
- in somebody's interest
- in somebody's opinion
- in search of
- in secret
- in self-defense
- in settlement of
- in short
- in silence

- in small change
- in store for
- in succession
- in support of
- in suspense
- in sympathy with
- in tears
- in terms of
- in terror
- in the absence of
- in the aftermath
- in the balance
- in the case of
- in the course of
- in the distance
- in the event of
- in the extreme
- in the eyes of
- in the flesh
- in the form of
- in the habit of
- in the interests of
- in the lead
- in the light of
- in the long run
- in the making
- in the meantime
- in the midst of
- in the mood for
- in the name of
- in the night
- in the open
- in the process of
- in the right
- in the seclusion of
- in the shade
- in the space of
- in the wake of

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- in the way of
- in the wrong
- in theory
- in time for
- in times of
- in town
- in trouble
- in tune with
- in turmoil
- in turn
- in two minds
- in twos / threes / tens
- in uniform
- in unison
- in vain
- in view of
- in vogue
- in words
- of the opinion
- off / on duty
- off school
- off duty
- off their rocker
- off their meds
- on (the) watch (for)
- on / behind schedule
- on / off the record
- on / off the road
- on / under oath
- on / under pain of
- on /of the air
- on /off balance
- on a diet
- on a journey / trip / cruise
- on a   large / small scale
- on a pension
- on a regular basis
- on a spree

- on account of
- on an expedition
- on an island
- on approval
- on average
- on bail
- on behalf of
- on board
- on business
- on condition that
- on credit
- on display
- on edge
- on end
- on file
- on fire
- on foot
- on good terms
- on guard
- on hand
- on horseback
- on impulse
- on leave
- on loan
- on no account
- on occasion
- on one's (own) terms
- on one's own
- on one's own initiative
- on order
- on paper
- on parade
- on patrol
- on principle
- on purpose
- on reflection
- on remand
- on sale

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- on second thoughts
- on show
- on strike
- on suspicion of
- on the agenda
- on the assumption
- on the brink of
- on the dot
- on the edge of
- on the eve of
- on the grounds of
- on the horizon
- on the hour
- on the increase
- on the job
- on the move
- on the off-chance
- on the outskirts
- on the part of
- on the phone
- on the point of
- on the run
- on the strength of
- on the stroke of
- on the tip of
- on the top of
- on the understanding that
- on the verge of
- on the way to
- on time
- on tiptoe
- on trial
- on vacation
- out of / in fashion
- out of / in print
- out of / in step
- out of breath
- out of context

- out of control
- out of curiosity / jealousy / love /hatred
- out of date
- out of doors
- out of duty
- out of hand
- out of ideas
- out of one's mind
- out of order
- out of pity
- out of place
- out of practice
- out of reach
- out of respect for
- out of sight
- out of spite
- out of stock
- out of the ordinary
- out of the question
- out of work
- through no fault of
- to / on the contrary
- to an extent
- to date
- to excess
- to one's astonishment
- to one's credit
- to one's dismay
- to sb's face
- to the / this day
- to the accompaniment of
- to the best of
- to the detriment of
- to the exclusion of
- to the full
- to the satisfaction of
- under / in the circumstances
- under age

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- under arrest
- under consideration
- under construction
- under cover of
- under discussion
- under lock and key
- under one's protection
- under orders
- under pressure
- under regulations
- under repair
- under strain
- under stress
- under suspicion
- under the command of
- under the impression that
- under the influence (of)
- under the misapprehension
- under treatment
- with / in reference to
- with / without success
- with a view to
- with an eye to
- with regard to
- with regret
- with respect to
- with the aid of
- with the compliments of
- with the exception of
- with the help of
- with the intention of
- within / out of earshot
- within / without reason
- within grasp
- within limits
- within one's budget
- within one's power
- within one's rights

- within reach (of)
- within site
- within walking / striking distance
- without (a) doubt
- without a break
- without a hitch
- without delay
- without exception
- without fail
- without foundation
- without precedent
- without question
- without respite
- without warning

Sentence patterns

In English, the Subject-Verb-Object pattern does not change even when we combine several sentences into a single sentence. For example:

(a) The sculptor is skillful.

(b) The sculptor created the statue.

(c) The statue is beautiful.

All the three sentences are based on the subject-verb-object pattern. Let us combine the three sentences:

The sculptor who is skillful created the statue which is beautiful.

In the above sentence, we have avoided the repetition of the word *sculptor* and *statue* twice. Instead, we have used the words *who* and *which*, both of which are pronouns.

When we represent this sentence with the help of a tree diagram, the complexity of the sentence structure becomes clear though the sentence structure remains the same, i.e, subject-verb-object.

The analysis of the above sentence shows that no matter how many sentences and in whatever way sentences are combined into a single sentence in English, the basic sentence structure is on the pattern of Subject-Verb-Object.

Clause types

A group of words which forms a part of a sentence and contains a subject and a predicate is called a clause. For example: I think that *the painting is beautiful.*

Clauses are classified as:

(a) Independent clause - An independent clause is one which has a subject and a predicate without any words or phrases that associate the function of that clause to another clause. An independent clause includes relatively simple sentences. For example:

My mother cooked my favourite dish.

I bought a red car.

(b) Dependent clause or subordinate clause – A dependent or subordinate clause is one which has a subject and a predicate with a word or phrase that associates the function of that clause to another clause, causing the first clause to become dependent upon the other clause for its greater meaning. Here, some words are added or even a phrase that causes the entire clause to function in a broader sense, such as cause or background. For example:

- Because it was my birthday, my mother cooked my favourite dish.
- Although I like red motorbikes, I bought a red car.

Subordinate clauses can be further classified as:

- Noun clause
- Adjective clause
- Adverb clause

Noun clause

A noun clause behaves like a noun. Noun clauses can perform different functions in a sentence, such as:

(a) the subject of a verb

(b) the object of a verb

(c) the complement of a verb

(d) the object of a preposition

(e) the apposition to a noun or pronoun

Examples of each type of noun clause are given as follows:

(a) When a noun clause comes before a verb and answers the question:

What? – then the noun clause is the *subject of a verb*.

Example: What we eat and drink affects our health.

(b) When a noun clause comes after a verb and answers the question: *What?* – then the noun clause is the *object of a verb*.

Example: She told me she would go to the party.

Example: He has not decided yet which course to study.

(c) When a noun clause comes *directly* after a verb and answers the question:

What? – then the noun clause is the *complement of a verb*.

Example: I don't believe what he told us.

Example: She could not fully express what she felt.

(d) When a noun clause comes *directly* after a preposition and answers the question: *What?* – then the noun clause is the object of a preposition.

Example : The doctor told me to exercise daily.

Example: My brother is auditioning for a part in the new play.

(e) When a noun clause tells us more about a noun or pronoun, then it is said to be the apposition to a noun or pronoun. Such a noun clause is generally located in the middle of a sentence.

Example: Mrs Sethi, our class-teacher, is a wonderful lady.

Example: Shahjahan, the Mughal emperor, loved art and beauty.

Adjective clause

An adjective clause is a subordinate clause that behaves like an adjective, qualifying a noun or pronoun in the sentence. Remember that an adjective clause always begins with who, whom, whose, that, which, when, where, or why.

Examples

- The paintings which are in the museum are under extreme security.
- The girl who won the contest is my best friend.
- The student whom the principal praised is the head boy.
- The mountains that you see in the distance are the Nilgiris.

Adverb clause

An adverb clause is a subordinate clause that behaves like an adverb, qualifying a verb in the sentence. Adverb clauses can be of nine types:

(a) adverb clause of time

(b) adverb clause of place

(c) adverb clause of manner

(d) adverb clause of result

(e) adverb clause of reason

(f) adverb clause of concession

(g) adverb clause of purpose

(h) adverb clause of condition

(i) adverb clause of contrast or comparison

Examples of each type of adverb clause are given as follows:

(a) Adverb clause of time

Example: Tell me when you will be ready.

(b) Adverb clause of place

Example: Please put the books back where you found them.

(c) Adverb clause of manner

Example: He behaves as if he owns the place.

(d) Adverb clause of result

Example: The scene was so beautiful that we could not take our eyes off it.

(e) Adverb clause of reason

Example: Since he was already late, he took a taxi.

(f) Adverb clause of concession

Example: Although she eats well, she is unable to put on weight.

(g) Adverb clause of purpose

Example: We must work hard so that we may progress fast.

(h) Adverb clause of condition

Example: If the weather is fine on Saturday, we will go for a picnic.

(i) Adverb clause of contrast or comparison

Example: While Akram is good at acting, Asif is a great mimic.

Combining messages: Subordination and coordination

Coordination and subordination are the two rules of English through which the language users use conjunctions to join sentences or independent clauses to make new compound sentences. In other words, we can say that coordinating and subordinating principles help us in making a compound sentence. It also avoids repetition and makes a conversation or writing interesting. Though it is generally said that one should use simple English, it does not mean that one should always try to use simple sentences. If one does so, then one's language becomes very repetitive and does not become sonorous to the listener or the reader. Therefore, it is significant that we merge together or combine the simple sentences wherever possible into compound sentences so that our language brings out its beauty. The compounding of sentences is usually done with some conjunctions. Language scholars have figured out that in English there are two categories of conjunctions through which we make compound sentences. Depending on the conjunctional category, the scholars have divided compounding into two major categories:

1. Coordination
2. Subordination

1. **Coordination and coordinating conjunctions:** Coordinating conjunctions connect or join independent clauses which are at the same level of importance in a single sentence. They avoid paragraphs composed of many short, repetitive simple sentences. Seven different coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, for, nor, or, so,* and *yet*) allow us to create relationships between clauses:

And	To combine two similar ideas together	*Shyam went to the sweet shop and to the tailor.*
But	To join two contrasting ideas together	*I thought I failed in the exam, but it turned out that I didn't.*
Yet	To join two contrasting ideas	*I was helpless, yet I somehow sailed through the problems.*
Or	To join two alternative ideas together	*I will go to a movie or to a cafe.*
Nor	To join two negative alternatives together	*He does not want to watch a movie, nor does he want to play.*
So	To join clauses in a cause and effect relationship	*He forgets to bring the passes, so we had to miss half the show while we went home to get them.*
For	To join clauses in a cause and effect relationship and indicate *a reason why* something happens	*My friends often confide in me, for I know how to keep a secret.*

2. **Subordination or subordinating conjunctions:** A subordinate clause depends upon the independent clause to have its meaning. Therefore, the subordinate clause is called dependent clause. The subordinate clause can be identified by the presence of a subordinating conjunction such as *after, although, before, once* and *whenever.*

Cause		Examples
because, as, since	'Because,' 'as' and 'since,' are used to begin a clause which gives the reason for something happening. 'Because' is used when the reason is the most important: 'As' and 'since' are used when the reason is established.	I came late because I met with an accident. Since/ as you don't like trekking, then you shouldn't come with us.
so that	'So that' is used to indicate the effect of something:	So that I can reach the examination hall in time, I asked the driver to come early.

Concession and Comparison		
although, though, even though, as though	'Though' is the most casual of these terms used to show contrast. 'Even though' is used to show strong surprise. 'As though' is used to suggest that something is highly unlikely to happen. It is used in casual rather than formal writing.	Even though the particular causes of global warming are not clear to me, I do understand the consequences. I was called up by the Police as though I was a witness to the crime.
as	'As' is used to show similarities.	As you are the love of his life. Ram is the love of Sita's life.
while, whereas	'While' and 'whereas' is used to show contrast, but not contradiction.	While white wine is good with fish and chicken, red wine is better with meat.

Condition		
even though, though, although	These three subordinating conjunctions are used to indicate a contrast. 'Though' is the least formal of the three. 'Even though' means 'despite that fact that' and is stronger than 'though' and 'although' in emphasizing a condition for something.	Even though I was exhausted, I had to study for my exam.
if, even if	'Even if' points to particular conditions and means 'whether or not.'	Even if you were my best friend, I would not go out with you.
provided that, as long as	'As long as' is less formal version of 'provided that', used to indicate a condition for something happening.	As long as you pay the rent, you can stay.
unless	'Unless' is used to specify a negative condition.	Unless you give me a reason for your failure, your privileges remain withdrawn.

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Place		
where, wherever	'Where' identifies the place	Wherever we go, we could find a bore.
Time		
after	'After' refers to an event or action that occurs after another event	After she had a surgery, she felt better.
as soon as, as long as	'As long as' is used to emphasize a particular duration of time. 'As soon as' is used to point to something that will happen upon the completion of something else.	As long as you live in this house, you will abide by my rules. As soon as you finish your dinner, you may have desert.
before	'Before' refers to an event or action that must occur before another event or action can take place.	Before you go for the surgery, you should do all possible medical tests.
until, till	'Until' means up to the time or a certain event. 'Till' is similar to 'until,' but less formal.	You cannot eat, until you finish your studies. Till the war is over, the soldiers won't leave.
whenever	'Whenever,' (sometimes 'if' and 'when,') is used to indicate a repeated occurrence of something when certain conditions arise.	Whenever I drive, I feel exhausted.
while, as, when	'While', 'as,' and 'when' indicate that things are happening simultaneously. 'While' is used to emphasize long duration. 'As' and 'when' are used to describe short events: 'As' is also used to show the consequence of another.	As I was writing my assignment, my friend called me to inform that the last date is postponed. While you were out celebrating, I was home cleaning the house. As you get older, you get wiser.

Syntax: English transformational grammar

Syntax can simply be defined linguistically as the study of sentences and their structures. In the early 1950s, Zelling Harris, a linguist, put forward systematic and non-mechanical study of language from the point of view of sentence which was taken up by Noam Chomsky, his student. Chomsky came up with a new approach called the generativist view of language or generative grammar. Chomsky argued that a theory of language must have linguistic explanation as one of its primary goals. It must be related to properties of the human mind, as only human beings are capable of using language in a creative and purposeful manner. Syntax occupied a central positive in the study of generative grammar. It is an abstract body of rules and principles that tells us how the words, phrases and sentences of a language are constructed.

A generative grammar of a language consists of the following components:

- A lexicon, a set of rules or a rule schema, to represent phrase structure
- A number of modular sub-theories that contain principles obeyed by expressions in the language
- Transformational rules
- A logical form for each expression

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Phrase structure

The syntactic structure of a sentence can be represented as an inverted tree diagram. Its hend is sentence (S), which then branches into its immediate NP (Noun Phrase) and VP (Verb Phrase). Each of the constituents of NP and VP then can branch into its syntactic constituents. Let us take the example of the sentence, 'The boy kicked the ball.' The phrase structure of this sentence can be represented as a diagram in the following manner :

```
                        Sentence
                  /                \
          Noun Phrase           Verb Phrase
          /        \            /          \
    Article      Noun       Verb        Noun Phrase
       |          |          |          /        \
                                    Article      Noun
                                       |           |
      the         boy        kicked    the        ball
```
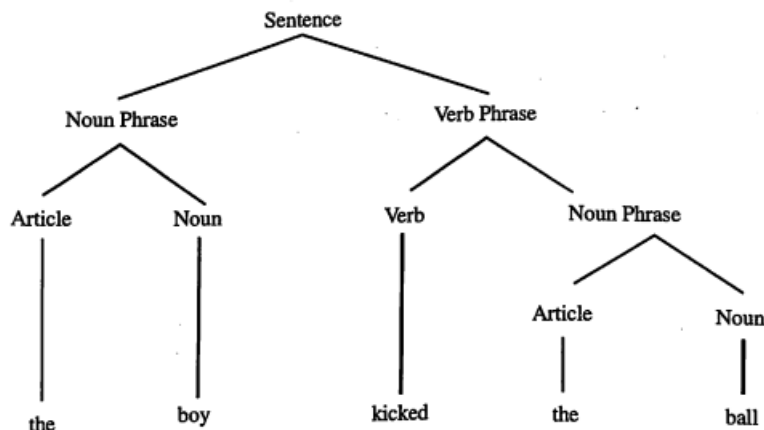
Phrase structure rules in transformational grammar

In Chomsky's transformational (generative) grammar, two basic types of syntactic rules are proposed:

1. Phrase structure rules

2. Transformational rules

The phrase structure tree of the sentence, 'The boy kicked the ball' will be as follows:

(a) S – NP + VP   (Sentence – Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase)

(b) NP – Art + N   (Noun Phrase – Article + Noun)

(c) VP – V + NP   (Verb Phrase – Verb + Noun Phrase)

(d) NP – Art + N   (Noun Phrase – Article + Noun)

A selection of PS rules of English

PS rules describe how syntactic categories/phrases combine to form larger constituents in a given language.

Sentence/clause-level PS rules (English has quite a fixed clause-level PS rule)

1. S NP VP (a sentence is obligatorily comprised of a NP and a VP)

   [NP The students] [VP attended their lectures].

   But some sentences also contain an auxiliary:

2. S NP Aux VP

   The students will take exams.

   The auxiliary is optional; we can indicate this with (...).

3. S NP (Aux) VP

   where ( ) indicates an optional constituent

   VP-related PS-rules (more variation here)

4. VP V

   talked

5. VP V Adv

   talked loudly

6. VP V NP

   ate their desserts

7. VP V NP PP (Adv)

   put the book on the table (wearily)

8. VP V (S)

   know (the students attended their lectures)

   So, a VP must contain a verb, but can also contain a lot of other phrases (...):

9. VP ! V (NP) (PP)(Adv) (S)

   NP-related PS-rules (lots of options)

10. NP N

    books

11. NP ! Adj N

    unopened books

12. NP ! Det Adj N

    the unopened books

13. NP ! Det Adj N PP

    the unopened books on the table

    So NP must contain N but can also contain a lot of other phrases

14. NP ! (Det) (Adj) N (PP)

Source: http://www.ling.cam.ac.uk/li1/syntax/Li1_Syntax_2.pdf

Deep and surface structures

Often, sentences are ambiguous as we are not able to figure out what they mean. For example, in the sentence, 'Old man and woman are going', we are not sure whether old is an adjective only for man or also for the woman. Therefore, it is usually said that any grammatical analysis is divided into two parts. One part talks about the superficial or apparent structure of sentences, and the other about the sentences' underlying structure. The deep structure is abstract and allows the native speaker of a language to understand the sentence. It may then be said that the deep structure expresses the semantic contents of a sentence, whereas the surface structure of a sentence determines its phonetic form. Transformation functions as a link between the deep structure of sentences and their surface structures. For example, in the sentence, 'Visiting doctors can be a nuisance', the surface structure does not make the meaning clear. If we go to the deep structure of the sentence it may either mean—(i) We visit doctors and can be a nuisance. Or, it may mean (ii) Doctors visit us and they can be a

nuisance.

The meaning of the sentence only becomes clear when we do an immediate constituent analysis of the sentence. In this example, it is unclear as to whether the word 'nuisance' is intended for the visit or for doctors. Similarly, in the sentence, 'old man and woman are going', we are not sure as to whether in the adjectival phrase, 'old man and woman', old stands for man and woman. Let us do an immediate constituent analysis of the phrase 'old man and woman', and figure out the meaning.

In the first case we can say that:

S – AP + V (Old man and woman + are going)

AP – Aj + NP (old + man and woman)

In the second case:

S – AP + V (Old man and woman + are going)

AP – AP + N (old man + woman)

When we do immediate constituent analysis like this through phrase structure, there is no ambiguity in the sentence. In the first case, the adjective 'old' is both for man and woman, and in the second case, the man is old but the woman is not.

Thus, the surface structure of a sentence may have its ambiguity but when we go to the deep structure of a sentence the ambiguity vanishes and it helps us in understanding the signification of the sentence.

Basic transformation

Interrogative

Questions form a basic type of sentence in any language. The difference in word order in questions has to be captured by a very different kind of rule from a phrase structure rule. The transformational rule called the question word movement rule or Wh–movement rule operates on a deeper representation to move the question word to the front of the sentence. The name Wh–movement comes from generative grammar, where a wh–word begins at some other place in a sentence and moves to the front. But along with it there are also a number of other elements in a sentence that show the special word order found in questions.

Let us try to discuss Wh–movement through an example. The interrogative sentence is 'What do you stitch shirts with?'

Most interrogative sentences operate on a hidden or 'deeper' representation to move the question word 'what' to the front of the sentence:
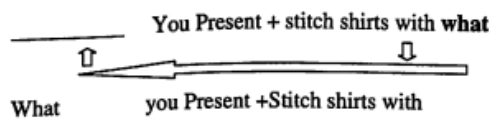
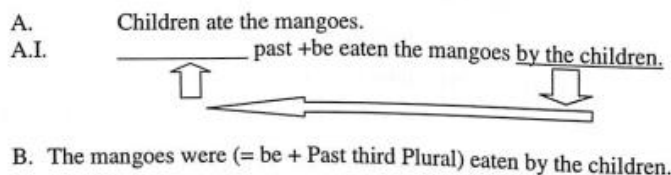In the next step there is a subject–auxiliary inversion:

What do+Present you stitch shorts with

This is the S-structure representation. From here, we come to the interrogative sentence—'What do you stitch shorts with?'

Passive

Passive transformation is derived from the deep structure of the active sentence (which is sometimes thought to be a sub-type of the transformation of NP movement). Let us illustrate passivization through an example. In the following example, the passive sentence B, is derived from the deep structure representation (sentence A.I) of the active sentence A.

A.   Children ate the mangoes.
A.I.   _____ past +be eaten the mangoes <u>by the children.</u>

B. The mangoes were (= be + Past third Plural) eaten by the children.

Negative

Negation is an important area of study of syntax as it affects not only the structure of the sentence but also the meaning. In English, there are two kinds of negation:

1. The morphological prefixes such as *un-*, *in-*, *im-*, and *dis-* are used to express the opposites of the meaning of certain individual words. In these cases, the sentential meaning is not negated but the meaning of the individual word is negated.

2. In the other case, known as syntactic negation, the effect is the change of meaning of the affirmative sentence.

For example:

Affirmative sentence: I am very happy with you

Negative sentences: A:Ram is very unhappy with you.

                       B: Ram is not very happy with you.

In the first case, it is clear that Ram is unhappy, whereas in the second sentence, it may be that Ram is either unhappy or not as happy as he should be.

Contraction

'Contraction' is the term used to describe the phenomena where one word is reduced and apparently affixed to another. For example, when *have not* is realized as *haven't*, or *we have* as *we've* or when *want to* is realized as *wanna*.

There are different kinds of contraction in English. One of the most common among them is the 'finite auxiliary contraction'. In this case, finite auxiliaries (*have*, *be*, and modals *will* and *would*) appear to contract with elements to their left, as in:

- We*'ve* eaten the mango.
- We*'re* eating the mango.
- We*'ll* eat the mango.
- We*'d* eat the mango.

It involves the apparent contraction of the auxiliaries with something to its left. The finite auxiliary contracts with whatever is to its left.

The other well-known contraction is that of 'want to' as 'wanna'. For example,

- Who do you wanna dance with?
- Who do you wanna dance?

There are some analyses that claim that wanna is only possible when 'want' and 'to' are adjacent. There are other analyses in which the scholars feel that it is no contraction at all, at least not in the phonological or syntactic sense. 'Wanna' under this analysis is formed in the lexicon, and it is inserted in the syntax just like an ordinary verb.

ACTIVITY

Choose any poem and anaylse its rhythm and intonation pattern.

4.5 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have leant that:

- The parts or units into which words are divided while pronouncing them are called syllables. The vowel sounds in the word constitute the syllables while the consonantal sounds associate themselves with the preceding or following vowels or to both. A syllable can thus be defined as a group of sounds with one vowel and one or more than one consonant sounds.

- Stress or accent is the force of voice with which a syllable is pronounced. Stress denotes the pitch of voice and marks out the syllable or syllables that receive greater emphasis from the rest in a word. The stress generally falls on the root syllable and not on a prefix or a suffix. It is denoted by the mark ( ) placed either on the vowel sound of the stressed syllable or at the end of it. The symbol for unstressed syllable is ( ).

- The word *prosody* is taken from the Greek word *prosodia* which means a song put to music. It is defined as the science of versification and is the systematic study of the principles and practice of foot, metre, rhyme and stanza.

- A continuous reading of poetry does not create the desired effect. Poetry has a rhythm which occurs only when there is a regulated alternation of syllables, stressed and unstressed. Each regular combination or group of accented and unaccented syllables is called a *measure* or *foot*. In each foot, there must be at least one accented syllable and one or two unaccented syllables.

- *Metre* is the succession of regularly accented groups of syllables called measures or feet in a recognized standard length. The number of feet in a poetic line determines the metre, i.e., if there are two feet, it is dimeter, three feet is trimeter and so on. Thus, a metric line is named according to the number of feet composing it.

- Figures of speech are like 'language ornaments' which are used to make any piece of writing (prose or poetry) more forceful and impressive. Writers very often use them to create an impact on the mind of the reader.

- When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded, the sounds produced are described as voiceless sounds. Examples are sounds in English – sit, sheet, fever, think.
- When the vocal cords are loosely held together, when the air passes through it, it makes the vocal sound called vibrate. The sounds created in this manner are called voiced sounds. For example, the consonantal sounds in English such as veil, these, zoo, me, nose are all voiced sounds.
- In keeping with the SVO pattern, every sentence in the English language has a Noun Phrase (NP) and a Verb Phrase (VP).
- A determiner is a noun-modifier that shows the reference of a noun or noun-phrase in the context, rather than attributes expressed by adjectives. This function is usually performed by articles, demonstratives, possessive determiners or quantifiers.
- A group of words which forms a part of a sentence and contains a subject and a predicate is called a clause.

4.6 KEY TERMS

- **Accent:** The force of voice with which a syllable is pronounced.
- **Clause:** A group of words which forms a part of a sentence and contains a subject and a predicate.
- **Determiner:** A noun-modifier that shows the reference of a noun or noun-phrase in the context.
- **Foot:** Regular combination or group of accented and unaccented syllables.
- **Metre:** The succession of regularly accented groups of syllables called measures or feet in a recognized standard length.
- **Syllable:** The parts or units into which words are divided while pronouncing them.

4.7 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Stress or accent
2. Prosody is defined as the science of versification and is the systematic study of the principles and practice of foot, metre, rhyme and stanza.
3. Measure or foot
4. Grammatical
5. Prominence
6. Intonation presents recorded utterances in the target language which learners are to imitate.
7. Noun Phrase (NP) and a Verb Phrase (VP).
8. Determiner
9. Contraction
10. Clause

4.8 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is a metre?
2. Explain any two major metrical forms.
3. Discuss any two figures of speech.
4. Distinguish between voiced and voiceless sounds.
5. What are the three functions of intonation according to Halliday?
6. What is the function of a 'determiner'?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the major metrical forms.
2. Explain in detail any four figures of speech.
3. Write a short note on intonational functions.
4. Explain the four tone pitch movements.
5. What do you understand by a basic sentence structure? What are its constituents? Explain with examples.

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