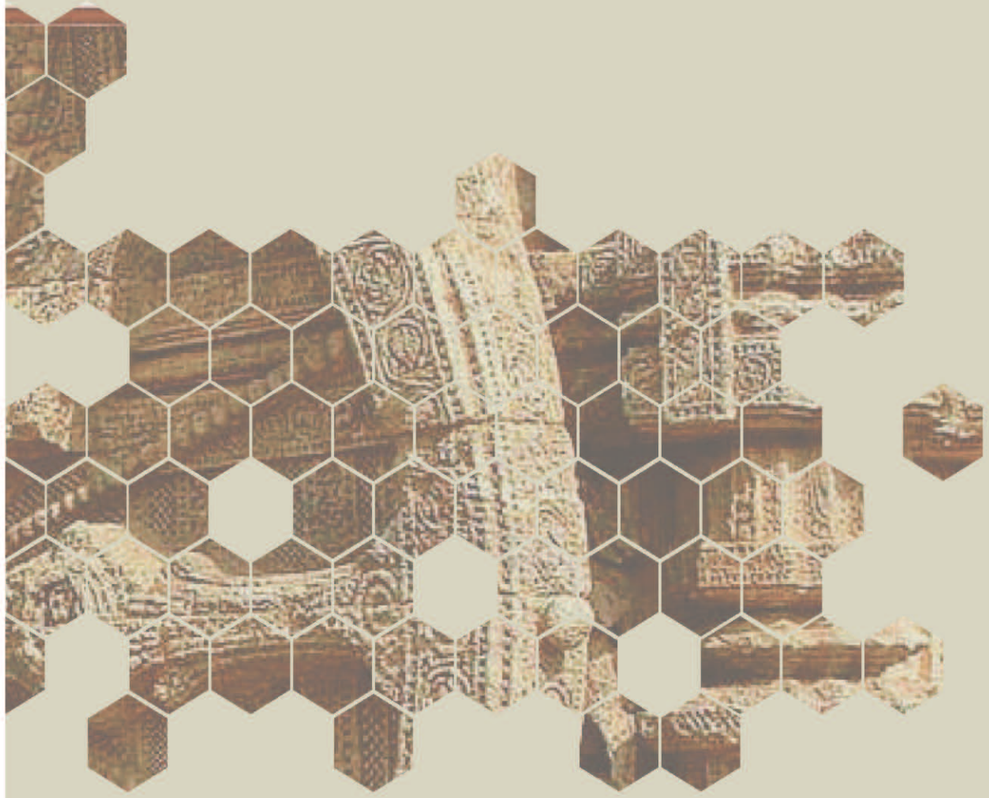

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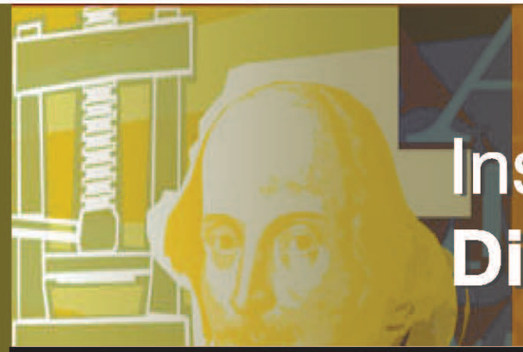
Linguistics & Phonetics



Institute of **Open** and **Distance Education**

Faculty of Arts

Linguistics & Phonetics

1MAENG5

DR. C.V. RAMAN UNIVERSITY
Chhattisgarh, Bilaspur
A STATUTORY UNIVERSITY UNDER SECTION 2(F) OF THE UGC ACT

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UNIT 1
LINGUISTICS

STRUCTURE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Linguistics is the scientific study of language, encompassing an analysis of its structure, development, diversity, and role in human society. As a discipline, linguistics seeks to understand the fundamental nature of language, exploring questions about how it is acquired, how it varies, and how it is used in various contexts. Linguistics breaks down language into its core components, such as sounds (phonetics and phonology), word formation (morphology), sentence structure (syntax), and meaning (semantics and pragmatics). These areas help linguists gain insights into the mechanics of language and reveal how languages shape and reflect human experience.

Beyond just understanding language mechanics, linguistics also explores how language influences thought, social interaction, and cultural identity. The field includes studies in sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, historical linguistics, and cognitive linguistics, each offering a unique perspective on how language functions in the human mind and within society. Additionally, applied linguistics leverages linguistic knowledge to address real-world issues,

such as improving language education, translation, artificial intelligence, and therapies for speech and language disorders.

Overall, linguistics is a diverse and dynamic field that illuminates the complexities of human communication, enhancing our understanding of not only language itself but also the intricate ways in which language shapes and is shaped by human nature and culture.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit the Learners ill able to:

1. Understand the Nature of Language
2. Analyze Language Structure
3. Understand Language Use in Context (Pragmatics)
4. Study Language Acquisition and Development
5. Explore Language Variation and Change
6. Understand the Relationship between Language and Thought (Cognitive Linguistics)
7. Apply Linguistic Knowledge
8. Document Endangered Languages

1.3 LINGUISTICS, ITS DEFINITION

Definition- Linguistics is the study of human speech. It systematically studies the structure and evolution of human language. As a scientific study, it investigates many distinct systems like the physical characteristics of speech sounds, how sounds function and combine how words and phrases are formed etc. Therefore it studies the nature of language. Linguistics is also concerned with all aspects of human behavior, physiology, and culture that interact with language.

Linguistics can be defined as the scientific study of the structure and development of language. The word is derived from the Latin words ‘lingua’ meaning ‘tongue’ and ‘istics’ meaning ‘knowledge’. It is concerned with how language is learned and the role of which in the life of the individual and the community. By observing the features of language, one can determine its development, how it functions today and how it is evolved.

1.4. LINGUISTICS AS A SCIENCE

The very nature of linguistics makes it scientific. In approach, nature and method linguistics is science because it is clear, systematic and scientific deductions are possible. What linguistics studies is language which is objective and variable. The different components of a language can be studied; the speech sounds are observable and analyzed, the manner and production of which

can also be analyzed. The linguistic collects and classifies the components of a language and each of which is evaluable individually or as a group. All these processes makes it scientific:

- Collection of data
- Classification
- Analysis
- Shows the relationship
- Verification and logical explanation
- Scientific deduction

A linguists follows these steps in the analysis of a language. He observes the features of language, classifies these features as being sound features of particular types, or words belonging to particular classes on the basis of similarity or difference with other sounds and words, like an empirical science. Here the methods of observation and experimentation are inductive.

At the same time, the problem of the role of the mental process of language arises. The formation and existence of language here becomes social factor, not scientific. Language is social science as well, the study of which is a form of social behavior and interaction among human beings in a community is also matters. Unlike empirical science, here the thinkers follow a deductive method where there is chance for hypotheses. According to this method the mind forms certain concepts or ideas beforehand in terms of which it interprets the data of observation and experience. Hence a preliminary hypothesis is formed which tries to prove a theory by applying it to the data.

Therefore, linguistics is both an empirical science and a social science. Different components of a language can be observed which offer concrete instances of objective and verifiable data from which logical deduction can be made. After the collection of data, a hypothetical assumption can also be possible to explain the data. This explanation can be accepted or rejected or modified in the course of time.

1.5 SCOPE OF LINGUISTICS

Linguistics is one of the fastest and expanding branches of knowledge. It covers a wide range of topics. It aims at studying the components of the language system and to ultimately arrive at an explanatory statement on how the system works. It is concerned with the description of language, study its nature and the establishment of theory of language. Earlier, the study of a language was considered as part of studying history of language. Therefore it was allied to many branches.

Linguistics, as a modern term, studies language as a self-enclosed and autonomous system, worthy of study in its own right. It involves a vast, complex, and systematic study, with different core areas such as phonology, phonetics, morphology, syntax and semantics. However, it is

allied with various other disciplines like sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, historical linguistics etc.

In modern linguistics, the activity of describing the language system is the most important, so modern linguistics is generally known as descriptive. It does not prescribe any specific rules in the description of language. Along with the nature of describing a language, modern linguistics extends its scope and it includes historical and comparative study of language.

1.6. LEVELS OF LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

As a systematic structure, language can easily be subdivided because it is hierarchical in nature. Different units constitute the system of language. Each unit can be divided into smaller unit until we get the smallest unit. As per this division, the smallest indivisible unit is sound. A single sound which cannot be divided into any further is called a phoneme. From phonemes, larger units are formed. Therefore a phoneme is the smallest unit.

When these units arrange sequentially, it begins with a phoneme. Two or more phonemes help to constitute a larger meaningful unit called morpheme. Similarly morphemes combine to form larger unit or words. Words combine to form a large unit or sentence and several sentences combine or interconnect to make a unified piece of speech or writing, which we call a text or discourse.

Phoneme
↓
Morpheme
↓
Word
↓
Sentence
↓
Text/discourse

At each level, certain rules are operating, so combination of different units occur and these rules are important to understand how combination takes place in each level. The rule of the speech sounds or phonology determine the combination of particular phoneme. Same the way the rule of the combination of sounds in a proper arranged way determines morphemes. Rules of sentence-formation determine the combination and positioning of words in a sentence. Each level is independent and is a system though they are linked.

While analyzing each level independently, the corresponding level of structure is also important as follows:

Levels of analysis Levels of structure

Phonetics & Phonology	→ Sound
Morphology	→ Word formation
Syntax	→ Sentence formation
Semantics	→ Meaning
Discourse	→ Connected sentences

Each level and each structure needs to be studied further.

1. **Phonetics** is the study and systematic classification of the sounds made in spoken utterance. It belongs to the practical application of science to language study. It studies how sounds are articulated by the human speech mechanism and received by the auditory mechanism, how sounds can be distinguished and characterized by the manner in which they are produced.

Key Subfields of Phonetics:

- **Articulatory Phonetics**: Focuses on how speech sounds are produced by the human vocal apparatus (e.g., the tongue, lips, teeth, and vocal cords).
- **Acoustic Phonetics**: Studies the physical properties of sound waves, including frequency, amplitude, and duration, that are associated with different speech sounds.
- **Auditory Phonetics**: Investigates how sounds are perceived by the listener's auditory system and interpreted in the brain.

Phonetics provides a systematic way to analyze speech sounds using the **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)**, a standardized system for transcribing sounds across languages.

2. **Phonology** studies the combination of sounds into organized units of speech, the formation of syllables and larger units. It describes the sound system of a particular language and the combination and distribution of sounds which occur in that language. Classification is made on the basis of the phoneme, the sound, e.g. /p/, /b/. These sounds combine with other sounds to produce meaningful units by following a rule. However, the rules of combination are different for different languages.

Key Concepts in Phonology:

- **Phonemes**: The smallest units of sound that can change the meaning of a word. For example, the sounds /p/ and /b/ are distinct phonemes in English because they differentiate words like "pat" and "bat."

- **Allophones**: Variants of a phoneme that do not change the meaning of a word. For example, the /p/ in "pat" (pronounced with a burst of air) and the /p/ in "spa" (without the burst) are allophones of the same phoneme.
- **Phonological Rules**: These are the patterns and regularities that govern how sounds are used in a particular language. For example, in English, vowels tend to be pronounced more clearly at the beginning of words (like the /i/ in "eat") and may be reduced to a schwa /ə/ in unstressed syllables (like in the second syllable of "banana").

Phonology also studies **sound patterns** and **phonological processes** such as assimilation, elision, and vowel reduction.

3. **Morphology** is the study and description of word formation in language. It studies the patterns of formation of words by the combination of sounds into minimal distinctive units of meaning called morphemes. Though a morpheme can be broken up, it will not make any meaning or sense. For example, 'pin' is a morpheme which is made up of the sounds /p/, /i/ and /n/. The proper arrangement of these sounds makes the morpheme 'pin', but its distinctive sounds do not produce meaning. Hence a word is produced by the combination of phonemes. From this single morpheme 'pin', other morphemes are possible by attaching suffix or prefix to single morpheme. From pin, it is possible to form the word 'pinned' (pin + ed) and 'unpinned' (un+ pin+ ed). Morphology studies the changes that take place in the structure of words e.g. the morpheme 'pin' changes to 'pinned'. This change signifies a change in tense. Morphological changes take place at the level of meaning.

   Words can also move in a way to form larger constituents. **Syntax** deals with this formation. It is the level at which we study how words combine to form phrases, phrases combine to form clauses and clauses join to make sentences. In sentences or clauses, the positioning of words is important and it functions as per a prescribed rule, that is, whether the word takes the role of noun/noun phrase, verb/verb phrase or adjective. A sentence is an arrangement of these words in a particular order. So syntax studies how each word functions and what is their role. This function and role determine the meaning of the sentence. For example, consider the word 'show', in each of the following sentences, it has different roles:

(a) They show me a picture

(b) The show begins at 8 am.

In sentence (a) the word 'show' functions as a main verb and in sentence (b) it does the role of a noun.

So, a mere arrangement of words does not convey meaning. It should be both grammatically and meaningfully correct. Therefore meaning is also important.

Key Concepts in Morphology:

- **Morphemes**: The basic building blocks of words.
- **Free Morphemes**: Morphemes that can stand alone as words (e.g., "book," "dog").
- **Bound Morphemes**: Morphemes that must attach to other morphemes (e.g., prefixes, suffixes like "un-" in "undo" or "-ed" in "walked").
- **Inflection**: The modification of a word to express grammatical features such as tense, number, or gender (e.g., "walk" to "walks," "cat" to "cats").
- **Derivation**: The creation of new words by adding affixes (e.g., "happy" to "unhappy").
- **Compounding**: The process of combining two or more free morphemes to create a new word (e.g., "toothbrush" from "tooth" and "brush").

  Morphology is important in understanding how words are formed and how they change in different grammatical contexts.

4. **Semantics** deals with the study of meaning. It deals with the relationship between a word and what it refers to. It also analyses the structure of meaning in a language, that is, how words similar or different are related. Semantics tries to give both word level and sentence level meaning and attempts to analyze and define the word which is abstract in nature. It is easy to define the word ‘snake’ denotatively, but difficulty arises at connotative level. Certain words imply or suggest rather than refer to. This very nature makes semantics a complex one, where the tone of the speaker or the manner of utterance determines meaning.

Key Concepts in Semantics:

- **Lexical Semantics**: The study of word meanings, including how words relate to each other (e.g., synonyms, antonyms) and how meanings can change over time.
- **Compositional Semantics**: The study of how the meanings of smaller units (words and phrases) combine to form the meaning of larger linguistic units (sentences, paragraphs).
- **Ambiguity**: A phenomenon where a word or sentence has multiple meanings depending on context (e.g., "bank" can refer to a financial institution or the side of a river).
- **Truth-Conditional Semantics**: A theory that focuses on the conditions under which a sentence can be considered true or false (e.g., "The cat is on the mat" is true if the cat is indeed on the mat).

  Semantics is crucial in understanding how language encodes meaning and how it allows for interpretation and communication.

5. Pragmatics: The Study of Language Use in Context

Pragmatics is the branch of linguistics that studies how context influences the interpretation of meaning in language. It looks at how speakers use language in real-life situations and how listeners understand meaning beyond the literal interpretation of words.

Key Concepts in Pragmatics:

- **Speech Acts**: Actions performed via language, such as requesting, promising, or apologizing (e.g., "Can you pass the salt?" is a request, not a question about ability).
- **Implicature**: Implicit meaning that is suggested or implied, rather than explicitly stated (e.g., "John didn't come to the party" may imply that he wasn't invited).
- **Deixis**: Words or phrases that require contextual information to be fully understood, such as pronouns ("he," "she," "they"), time expressions ("now," "tomorrow"), or place expressions ("here," "there").
- **Politeness Theory**: The study of how people use language to show respect and maintain social harmony, often through indirect speech acts or mitigation (e.g., using "please" or "could you" for politeness).

Pragmatics helps us understand how speakers adjust their language according to social roles, relationships, and communication goals.

6. Sociolinguistics: The Study of Language and Society

Sociolinguistics explores the relationship between **language and society**, focusing on how language varies and changes across different social groups, communities, and cultures. It examines the ways in which social factors such as class, gender, ethnicity, age, and region influence language use.

Key Concepts in Sociolinguistics:

- **Dialect**: A regional or social variety of language that has distinct features in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.
- **Code-Switching**: The practice of alternating between two or more languages or dialects depending on the social context or audience.
- **Language and Identity**: The role of language in shaping individual and group identities, and how language reflects and reinforces social boundaries.
- **Language Change**: How languages evolve over time, driven by social factors, technology, and cultural shifts.

Sociolinguistics helps us understand the role of language in society and how it reflects social structures, power dynamics, and cultural practices.

7. Psycholinguistics: The Study of Language and the Mind

Psycholinguistics is the study of how language is processed in the brain. It focuses on how people acquire, comprehend, and produce language. Psycholinguistics combines knowledge from linguistics and psychology to understand the cognitive processes involved in language use.

Key Concepts in Psycholinguistics:

- **Language Acquisition**: How children learn their first language, including the stages of language development and the role of input and interaction.

8. **Discourse** refers to a unit of language longer than a sentence. It looks at the form and function of language in conversation beyond morphemes and syntax. Language is used socially to convey broad social and historical meaning. Meaning is deciphered by the social conditions, who is using it, and under what conditions. Here meaning is context dependent because conversation involves situational knowledge.

9. **Semiology** or semiotics is the study of signs. The term owes much to Saussure and developed as part of structuralism in the 1970s. The concept of sign is seen as a combination of signifier and signified. Signifier is the sound of spoken word or string of letters on a page and signified is the concept or idea that a signifier evokes. Saussure here points out that there is no relationship between a word and what it designates; rather, the relationship is socially agreed. Meaning is arbitrary. We commonly agree that an object can be called in a way or not. It is called or named by someone in the past, hence there is no connection between an object and what it refers to. The meaning of any particular sign is defined by its relationship to other signs in the system. So a sign gets meaning because of its relationship with other sign.

10. Syntax: The Study of Sentence Structure

Syntax is the branch of linguistics that focuses on how words combine to form **grammatical sentences**. It examines the rules and principles that govern the structure of sentences and how words are arranged in a specific order to convey meaning.

Key Concepts in Syntax:

- **Word Order**: The arrangement of words in a sentence. For example, in English, the typical word order for declarative sentences is **Subject-Verb-Object** (SVO), as in "The cat (subject) chased (verb) the mouse (object)."
- **Syntactic Categories**: The different types of words or phrases in a sentence, such as noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), and adjective phrases (AP).
- **Constituency**: The idea that sentences are made up of smaller units (constituents), which can be words, phrases, or clauses. Constituents can be moved around to test the structure of the sentence (e.g., "The cat chased the mouse" vs. "The mouse was chased by the cat").
- **Transformations**: Changes to sentence structure that maintain the same underlying meaning, such as changing active to passive voice (e.g., "The dog bit the man" → "The man was bitten by the dog").

Syntax helps us understand how the structure of sentences impacts meaning and how different languages organize sentence elements.

All these help us to understand how each unit functions in independent way or in collaboration with other units.

Check your Progress:

Q1: What is the primary focus of linguistics?
A) Study of literature
B) Study of language structure and function
C) Study of human history
D) Study of animal communication

Q2: Which of the following is NOT a branch of linguistics?
A) Phonetics
B) Morphology
C) Geography
D) Syntax

Q3: Linguistics is considered a science because it:
A) Deals only with spoken language
B) Studies language based on systematic observation and analysis
C) Is only concerned with written language
D) Focuses on literary texts

Q4: What does the scope of linguistics include?
A) Only spoken communication
B) The study of how languages change over time
C) The study of animals' sounds
D) The study of social history

Q5: Which of the following is an example of a synchronic approach to linguistics?
A) Analyzing language changes over centuries
B) Studying a language at a specific point in time
C) Studying the origin of a language
D) Analyzing the history of a language

1.7. BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Linguistics is a very dynamic domain of study. It continues to evolve to new areas with development. It is applied to different fields of study because it cannot be constrained to language alone. There are many areas of human activity and knowledge in which language plays a part and linguistics is useful in these areas. This leads to the growth of many branches of linguistics.

Looking through a theoretical aspect, there are theories about languages and different levels of analysis. Some of these theories have an applied aspect which is concerned with the application

of that knowledge in areas such as the learning and teaching of languages, or correction and improvement of speech disorders, or in helping us to appreciate the use of language in literature. This shows the applicability of language in different areas of study. At personal level and social level the use of language may vary. Hence various branches of linguistics have grown. The following are some among them:

(a) Psycholinguistics

Language is the reflection of the inner world of man's mind. The mental process of a man is articulated through language. Psycholinguistics is an area that studies this mental process, thought pattern of man and concept formation through which the structure of human psychology is revealed. It helps to explore how meanings are understood by the human brain, how syntax and memory are linked, how messages are decoded and stored.

The influence of psychological factors such as fear, anxiety, trauma, intelligence etc. on language is also a matter of concern for psycholinguistics. What one speaks is not a mere utterance of speech sounds, rather it is a mental process, that is why words slip and error occurs at the time of speaking when the speaker is tensed. Dyslexia is a similar disability where some children make mistakes in reading. Psycholinguistics can offer some insights and corrective measures for this condition.
Psycholinguistics is also concerned with the acquisition of first language and other languages in later stage. It explores whether human brain has an inborn language ability structured in such a way that certain grammatical and semantic patterns are embedded in it, which can explain how all human beings are capable of learning a language.

In language learning, psycholinguistics has an important role which helps teachers to understand error production and individual differences among learners.

Neurolinguistics is a similar area that studies the physiological basis of language and language disorders such as stuttering, aphasia, loss of memory, etc.

(b) Ethnolinguistics

Ethnolinguistics is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the relation between linguistic and cultural behavior. It is part of anthropological linguistics that is concerned with the study of the interrelation between a language and the cultural behavior of those who speak it. Edward Sapir, the linguist, argues that no two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not the same world with different labels attached. According to this view, language is

essentially not what we see, but how we see things that influence our cognitive process. This idea is also called linguistic relativism.

The linguistic relativism has been further divided into two versions, strong and weak. While the strong version argues that language determines cognition and thought, the weak version argues only that language influences cognition and thought.

(c) Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the study of linguistic behavior as determined by sociocultural factors. It can be defined as the study of language in relation to the society, or more precisely the study of variation within speech community. It concerns with the part language plays in maintaining the social roles in a community.

Sociolinguistics states that language is not a single homogeneous entity, but has different forms in different situations. Different social conditions such as gender, class, education, occupation influence the language of a community. Even within a community, the language of a group of people varies from others; women do not speak like men, young people do not speak like old people and so on. This variation in speech community is the subject here. Variation in language occurs when speakers of the same language belong to different geographical regions. Thus variation is an integral and essential part of a language.

The relationship between language and society affects a wide range of encounters- from international relations to interpersonal relations. Certain cultures around the world expand their communication base. As a result intergroup and interpersonal relations take on escalating significance.

Sociolinguistics, the discipline, is interested in how we speak differently in varying social contexts and how we use specific functions of language to convey social meanings. Language variations and changes are concern for sociolinguists. They study how varieties of language are formed when the speakers belong to a geographical region, social class, social situation and occupation, etc. Varieties of a language that are formed in various geographical regions involve a change in the pronunciation as well as vocabulary. The following are the important **language varieties:**

Dialect is a regional variety of language distinguished by features of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. It is different from other regional dialects of the same language. The changes are seen in morphemes and in syntax. In some dialects of Atlantic states have ‘clim’, ‘clum’ and ‘clome’, instead of the word ‘climbed’. The British ‘lift’ becomes American ‘elevator’. ‘I have

seen anything' and 'I ain't seen nothing' is the syntax variation. British /vɪtəmɪn/ is American /vaɪtəmin/

Sometimes these changes may be present within the same geographical region due to the social differences between different economic sections, e.g. working class and aristocracy. These changes result in class-dialects. The study of the demarcation of dialect boundaries across a region and of specific features of each dialect is called **dialectology.** One dialect may be demarcated from another by listing a bundle of features which occur in a particular region.

Register is the way a speaker uses language differently in different circumstances. It is due to the specific area of human activity in which language is used. English language is used in different fields—of law, religion, science, sports etc. This variation is determined by such factors as social occasion, context, purpose, and audience.

Depending on grammar, syntax, and tone, the register may be extremely rigid or very intimate. One doesn't even need to use an actual word to communicate effectively. This kind of study is useful because it enables us to understand how language-use is tied to a social context. The notion of register is important in showing that language use in communication is not arbitrary or uncontrolled, but is governed by rules of situational and contextual appropriateness.

Diglossia is a situation in which two distinct varieties of a language are spoken within the same speech community. It is the use of two varieties of the same language in different social contexts. The two varieties are called *H* and *L* the first being used for high purposes and the second for low purpose. High purposes include sermons, political speeches, university lectures and news broadcasts, while low purposes include everyday conversations and speech in informal situations. It is not just switching between levels of diction in the same language.

Idiolect is a speech pattern of one individual at a particular period of time. It is a person's specific way of speaking. No two persons speak in exactly the same way and that each person's dialect is constantly undergoing change. A person's idiolect is all encompassing, in that it includes linguistic features and also being influenced by a wide range of other sources such as different language encounters, what they have read and listened to, where they have been schooled, and their jobs.

Isogloss is a boundary line between places or regions that differ in a particular linguistic feature. It can be a boundary between two different languages or the boundary between two different dialects of the same language.

Pidgin is a simplified speech used for communication between people with different languages. These are specialized languages deliberately created to facilitate communication with outsiders. This happens when people speaking two different languages have to work together, usually in some form of trade relation or administrative routine or a refugee situation. In such situation's

pidgins arise, more or less purposely made up of vocabulary items from each language, with mutual abandonment of grammatical complexities. Sometimes, as the result of relatively permanent settlement and the intermixture of two speech communities, a pidgin becomes the first language of later generations, ultimately displacing both the original languages. First languages arising in this way, from artificially created pidgins, are called **creoles**.

Creole is a natural language that is developed historically from a pidgin. The historical transition from a pidgin to a creole is called creolization. Creoles are subject to the natural processes of change like any other language and in the course of times creoles develop their own complexities. Sometimes the pidgin becomes stable and established and comes to be spoken even by the children of a community: the language has then become a creole and is used in all functional settings.

Code switching is a process of changing back and forth between two language varieties especially in a single conversation. Many speakers have control over at least two varieties of their language and many more have control over two languages. Such speakers will shift back and forth between their varieties depending on factors such as who they are talking to, where they are and what they are talking about.

Code mixing is a related process in which two languages are freely mixed in different situations which can be either formal or informal.

Bilingualism refers to the ability to use two languages and the bilingual individual speaks each language as proficiently as an educated native speaker. The term can refer to individuals as well as to an entire society. This is often referred to as an ideal type since few people are regarded as being able to reach this standard. **Multilingualism**, on the other hand, refers to the ability of an individual speaker, or a community of speakers to communicate effectively in three or more languages. Apart from these two, **polyglot** is a term, who is a person who can speak, read or write in several languages. What makes a linguist different from a polyglot is that the former will be able to explain the rules, syntax, and is interested in the science of language, while the latter may not necessarily be able to describe the language or know the rules of its syntax. However, many linguists happen to be polyglots too and all polyglots are not necessarily linguists.

1.8. DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO LINGUISTICS

It was Saussure who introduced two approaches to language; the synchronic and diachronic approaches .In the 19th century linguistic scholars had mainly been interested in historical aspects of language. This approach studies the development of languages over time, the connections between them, from our earlier records to the present day, and speculating about the origins of language itself. This is diachronic approach, which is the main concern of historical

linguistics. It is also concerned with observed changes in particular languages, classifying the languages into language families and developing general theories about the language changes.

Synchronic approach, on the other hand, concentrates on the patterns and functions of language in use today, with the emphasis on how meanings are maintained and established and on the functions of grammatical structures. This approach is introduced by the Swiss linguist Saussure in his *Course in General Linguistics*. Synchronic studies are descriptive in nature that describe, the study of how phonemes or morphemes of a language combine to form words and phrases and how proper syntax gives a sentence meaning.

Linguistics is Descriptive, not Prescriptive

Linguistics is descriptive in nature that describes how language is used. Linguistics is the scientific study of language and it considers its structure, grammar, syntax, and phonetics. Descriptive linguistics is concerned with describing the use of language by native or nonnative speakers without reference to proposed norms of correctness or advocacy of rules. This approach makes it modern.

Prescriptive approach, on the other hand, explains how the language should be used by the speakers. It is concerned with establishing norms of correct and incorrect usage. Descriptive linguistics values all varieties of language and language usage can vary according to varied speakers and such variation cab be observable in accent, vocabulary and style. Different dialects and jargons exemplify it. According to this view, there can be no backward or uncivilized and elite or pure languages. No language can be said to be richer than another. Here the concern of a modern linguist is the construction of a scientific theory of the structure of human language.

Since the descriptive approach basically focuses on identifying and explaining the varied use of the language according to the user, it does not explain what is correct and what is incorrect. It holds the view that a particular variety of language cannot be considered to be superior to the other varieties.

Prescriptive approach is usually held by the traditional grammarians. It prescribes rules on how a language should or ought to be used by the speakers. It consists of a set of rules that teach the speaker the most accurate and the correct manner to use the language, highlighting what should be used and what should be avoided. It attempts to enforce rules concerning correct or incorrect language usage. Prescriptive nature of language assumes that the written language is more fundamental than the spoken and that literary language, a particular form of written language, is purer and more correct than all other forms of language.

Langue and Parole

In language study, the concept of structure is relevant. To describe the structure of a language, it was Saussure who used the terms *langue* and *parole* to signify the rules or the system that forms a language and actual utterances of language, respectively.

Langue denotes a system of internalized, shared rules governing the vocabulary, grammar, and sound system of a language. *Parole* refers to the actual use of language in people's everyday lives, both written and spoken. *Parole* is inconsistent in nature, therefore, it can never really be studied. *Langue* is the social structure of language, means, how a particular language is arranged and the rules governing usage.

Parole is often equated with speech. The children develop their native tongue by hearing the language a number of times. After their first utterances, they gradually modify them by listening the language heard around them. From this utterance, the children learn the rules of the language, though mistakes occur. Through the frequent listening of the paroles around them, they begin to modify their own understanding of the langue, altering specific words, thereby gain the rules of the language.
Saussure illustrates the differences between the two by using the analogy of chess game. In playing the game, both players need to understand all steps, the way each piece moves and different strategies of the game. Understanding of this rule is the *langue* of the game. Based on this rules and moving of pieces the players make continuous choices that show their understanding of the rules. These movements are the *parole* of the game.

The concepts of langue and parole is similar to competence and performance of Noam Chomsky

Competence and Performance

Competence refers to the unconscious knowledge of grammar that allows a speaker to use and understand a language. It is the innate linguistic knowledge that allows a person to match sounds and meanings. It is the speaker's or hearer's knowledge of his language. Linguistic performance, on the other hand, is the actual use of language. The term was introduced by Noam Chomsky in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965).

Competence is a person's knowledge of his language, who mastered in it, so that it would be possible for him to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences and he is able to recognize grammatical mistakes and ambiguities. Performance is seen as a set of specific utterances produced by native speaker. The problems of memory limitation, distraction, shift of attention and errors may arise at the time of utterance and can be seen as a limitation of performance.

Chomsky's linguistic competence and performance is similar to Saussure's langue and parole. The difference between linguistic competence and linguistic performance can be illustrated by slips of the tongue, such as "self-instruct destruction" for "self-destruct instruction". Such a slip of the tongue does not mean that the person is poor in English rather, it is simply a mistake because of distraction or some other reason. Therefore linguistic performance is different from linguistic competence.

1.10. ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

A1: B) Study of language structure and function
A2: C) Geography
A3: B) Studies language based on systematic observation and analysis
A4: B) The study of how languages change over time
A5: B) Studying a language at a specific point in time

1.11. LET US SUM UP

Linguistics is the scientific study of language, encompassing a range of approaches to understanding how language is structured, used, and evolves over time. Unlike simply learning or using a language, linguistics analyzes language systematically, aiming to uncover the rules and principles that govern all languages, both spoken and signed. By studying language scientifically, linguists explore not only the structure of individual languages but also the cognitive and social factors that shape language use and development. This field provides insights into the nature of human communication and cognition, helping to answer fundamental questions about what makes language possible.

At its core, linguistics divides into several branches that explore specific aspects of language. **Phonetics** and **phonology** examine the sounds of language: phonetics focuses on how sounds are physically produced and perceived, while phonology studies how sounds function and interact within a given language. **Morphology** delves into the structure of words, exploring how the smallest meaningful units (morphemes) combine to form words. **Syntax** investigates how words are arranged to create phrases and sentences, governed by rules that differ across languages. **Semantics** and **pragmatics** address meaning—semantics explores the meaning of words and sentences, while pragmatics considers how meaning is influenced by context, such as the speaker's intentions and the relationship between speakers.

Linguistics also examines how language interacts with society and the mind. **Sociolinguistics** explores the social dimensions of language, studying how language varies with factors like

region, social class, age, and gender. This branch sheds light on dialects, language change, and the role of language in expressing identity. **Psycholinguistics** and **neurolinguistics** investigate how language is processed in the mind and brain, focusing on how people acquire language, understand spoken and written language, and produce language in real-time. These fields connect linguistics with psychology and neuroscience, examining how linguistic abilities develop from childhood and how language functions at a cognitive level.

In addition to its theoretical branches, linguistics has practical applications that make it relevant across many fields. **Applied linguistics** uses insights from linguistic theory to address real-world issues, such as language education, translation, and communication disorders. In technology, linguistic research contributes to advancements in natural language processing (NLP) and artificial intelligence, enabling machines to understand and generate human language. Historical linguistics explores how languages change over time and reconstructs ancient languages, helping to trace the origins and relationships of languages. As a result, linguistics provides valuable tools for preserving endangered languages, improving communication technologies, and developing language policies that respect linguistic diversity.

Overall, linguistics offers a comprehensive and interdisciplinary approach to understanding one of humanity's most essential capabilities: language. By examining language through its structure, cognitive underpinnings, social context, and historical change, linguistics reveals the complexity of communication and the universal patterns that connect diverse languages. Through this field, we gain insights into how language reflects our thoughts, our social relationships, and our shared human experience.

1.12. LESSON END ACTIVITY

1. Word Formation Exercises: In morphology, students can explore how words are created by breaking down complex words into their morphemes. A fun activity might involve creating new words by combining prefixes, suffixes, and roots, or analyzing compound words, acronyms, and affixes across languages. This helps students understand how meaning can change through word formation.

2. Pragmatic Role-Play: To understand how context shapes meaning, students can role-play different social scenarios. For example, they might practice giving directions formally and informally or simulate situations where indirect speech acts (like requests or apologies) are used. This activity shows how tone, intention, and social roles influence language interpretation.

1.13. GLOSSARY

- **Phonetics**: The study of the physical sounds of human speech, including their production, transmission, and reception.
- **Phonology**: The study of how sounds function within a particular language or languages.
- **Morphology**: The branch of linguistics that studies the structure and form of words in a language, including affixes, roots, and stems.
- **Syntax**: The set of rules, principles, and processes that govern the structure of sentences in a language.
- **Semantics**: The study of meaning in language, exploring how words and sentences convey meaning.
- **Pragmatics**: The study of how context influences the interpretation of meaning in communication.
- **Lexicon**: The complete set of words in a language, including their meanings and forms.
- **Phoneme**: The smallest unit of sound in a language that can distinguish words.
- **Morpheme**: The smallest grammatical unit in a language, either a word or a part of a word (e.g., prefixes, roots).
- **Allophone**: A variant of a phoneme that occurs in specific contexts without changing the meaning of the word.
- **Syntax Tree**: A diagram that represents the structure of a sentence according to syntax rules.
- **Consonant**: A speech sound produced with a significant constriction or closure in the vocal tract.
- **Vowel**: A speech sound produced without significant constriction of the air flow in the vocal tract.
- **Inflection**: The modification of a word to express different grammatical categories like tense, case, or number.
- **Derivation**: The process of creating new words by adding prefixes, suffixes, or other morphemes.
- **Prosody**: The patterns of rhythm, stress, and intonation in spoken language.
- **Sociolinguistics**: The study of how language varies and changes in social groups and communities.
- **Bilingualism**: The ability to speak and understand two languages fluently.
- **Code-Switching**: The practice of alternating between two or more languages or dialects within a conversation.
- **Diglossia**: A situation where two dialects or languages are used by a single language community under different circumstances.
- **Dialect**: A regional or social variety of a language with distinct vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.
- **Register**: A variety of language used for a particular purpose or in a particular social setting.

- **Pidgin**: A simplified language that develops as a means of communication between speakers of different native languages.
- **Creole**: A stable, natural language developed from a mixture of different languages.
- **Universal Grammar (UG)**: A theory by Noam Chomsky suggesting that the ability to learn language is innate to humans and that there is a common structure underlying all languages.
- **Transformational Grammar**: A type of grammar that describes a language's deep structures and the transformations used to produce surface structures.
- **Descriptive Grammar**: A linguistic approach that describes how a language is actually used, rather than prescribing how it should be used.
- **Prescriptive Grammar**: The set of rules and norms that dictate how a language should be used.
- **Corpus Linguistics**: The study of language as expressed in real-world text corpora.
- **Etymology**: The study of the origin and historical development of words.

1.14. QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

- What is the main aim of linguistics as a field?
- What are the primary differences between phonetics and phonology, and how do they contribute to our understanding of language sounds?
- How do the fields of morphology and syntax interact, and why is this interaction important for sentence formation?
- In what ways do semantics and pragmatics overlap, and how do they differ in interpreting meaning in language?
- What are some of the main characteristics of human language that differentiate it from other forms of communication?
- What are some of the fundamental properties of language that illustrate its complex nature?

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UNIT-2

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

STRUCTURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Language is a dynamic and evolving system, constantly adapting to the needs and influences of its speakers. The concepts of *language change*, *competence and performance*, and *theories of language acquisition* are crucial to understanding how languages develop, how they are used, and how they are learned. Language change explains the ways in which languages transform over time, influenced by cultural, social, and technological factors. *Competence and performance*, introduced by Noam Chomsky, provide a framework for understanding the distinction between a speaker's inherent knowledge of language and their actual use of it in real-life situations. Finally, *theories of language acquisition* delve into how humans, especially children, acquire the ability to comprehend and produce language, with various models emphasizing different influences, from innate biological mechanisms to social interactions.

2.2. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit the learners will be able to:

1. To identify and describe the different types and processes of language change, including phonological, lexical, and grammatical shifts.

2. To differentiate between linguistic competence (internalized knowledge) and performance (actual language use) and understand their implications for linguistics.
3. To review and compare major theories of language acquisition, such as behaviorist, nativist, interactionist, cognitive, and connectionist perspectives.
4. To analyze real-world examples of language change, competence, and performance in various linguistic contexts.
5. To understand the roles of innate cognitive structures and social interactions in language development.

2.3 LANGUAGE CHANGE

Language change is the process through which languages transform over time. This evolution can be observed at multiple linguistic levels, including phonology (sounds), morphology (word structure), syntax (sentence structure), semantics (meaning), and lexicon (vocabulary). Language change occurs due to social, cultural, and technological influences, as well as interactions between different language-speaking communities. Changes may be gradual, such as the shift in pronunciation, or more rapid, such as the adoption of new words due to technological advancements.

Example: A well-known example of language change is the transition from Old English (spoken around the 5th to 11th centuries) to Modern English. Old English sentences such as "Hwæt! Wē Gār-Dena in geardagum" (from *Beowulf*) are significantly different from contemporary English: "Lo! We of the Spear-Danes in days of yore." Over centuries, influences from Norse and Norman French reshaped English, adding new vocabulary and changing grammatical structures.

2.4 COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE

The concepts of competence and performance were introduced by linguist Noam Chomsky to distinguish between two fundamental aspects of language.

- **Competence** refers to a speaker's implicit, internalized knowledge of the rules and structure of their language. It encompasses grammar, vocabulary, and the ability to understand and form sentences, including those never encountered before. Competence is an idealized notion and is not affected by external conditions like memory limits or distractions.
- **Performance** refers to the actual use of language in concrete situations. It includes the production and comprehension of speech, which can be influenced by external factors such as attention span, fatigue, or social context. Performance reflects real-life communication, which may include errors, hesitations, and incomplete sentences.

Example: A person may have full competence in English, knowing the correct grammatical structures and vocabulary. However, during a public speech, their performance might include errors like mispronunciations or pauses due to nervousness, even though their competence remains unaffected.

2.5 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Theories of language acquisition aim to explain how humans, particularly children, learn to understand and produce language. Each theory provides different insights into the factors influencing language learning:

1. **Behaviorist Theory (B.F. Skinner)**:
    - This theory posits that language learning is a result of imitation, reinforcement, and conditioning. Children learn to speak by copying sounds, words, and sentences they hear from caregivers and receiving positive feedback for correct use.
    - **Example**: A child says "milk" when wanting a drink and is rewarded with milk. This positive reinforcement encourages the child to continue using the word.
2. **Nativist Theory (Noam Chomsky)**:
    - Chomsky argued that humans are born with an innate language ability, supported by an inborn *Language Acquisition Device (LAD)*. This mechanism enables children to learn language quickly and effectively, equipped with a universal grammar that applies to all languages.
    - **Example**: Children can often understand complex sentences and form grammatically correct new sentences without explicit teaching, suggesting an innate capacity.
3. **Interactionist/Social Interactionist Theory (Lev Vygotsky)**:
    - This theory emphasizes that language learning is driven by social interaction. Children acquire language through meaningful communication with caregivers and peers, with language development supported by social contexts.
    - **Example**: A caregiver's conversation with a child about toys during playtime helps the child link words with objects and actions, promoting language learning through interaction.
4. **Cognitive Theory (Jean Piaget)**:
    - Piaget suggested that language acquisition is part of overall cognitive development. Language learning depends on the child's ability to understand the world and develop mental structures.
    - **Example**: A child learns the concept of "more" after developing the cognitive ability to understand quantity, which helps them form sentences like "I want more cookies."

5. **Connectionist Theory**:
    - This theory posits that language learning is a result of the brain's ability to recognize patterns through exposure. Children form neural connections by hearing repeated language structures and identifying commonalities.
    - **Example**: A child frequently exposed to sentences like "The cat is sleeping" and "The dog is running" learns to understand and produce similar sentences by recognizing the pattern of subject-verb-object.

Conclusion: Each of these theories sheds light on different aspects of how language is acquired. The behaviorist theory highlights learning through reinforcement, while the nativist theory emphasizes innate capabilities. Interactionist and cognitive theories stress the importance of social and cognitive development, respectively, while connectionist theories focus on pattern recognition and repeated exposure. These varying perspectives help in understanding the complexity of language learning and its application to education and language development interventions.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q1. What term describes the process by which a language changes over time due to contact with other languages?
a) Divergence
b) Language shift
c) Borrowing
d) Simplification

Q2. The Great Vowel Shift in English primarily affected which aspect of the language?
a) Vocabulary
b) Syntax
c) Phonology
d) Morphology

Q3. Which of the following is NOT a cause of language change?
a) Social and cultural influences
b) Language contact
c) Preservation efforts by institutions
d) Technological advancements

Q4. In applied linguistics, "competence" is best described as:
a) The ability to produce grammatically correct sentences
b) Knowledge of a language's rules and structure

c) The actual use of language in real-life situations
d) A speaker's fluency in multiple languages

Q5. According to the behaviorist theory, how is language learned?
a) Through innate mechanisms specific to language
b) By reinforcement, imitation, and habit formation
c) By interacting socially with proficient speakers
d) By understanding the universal grammar rules

Q6. Which theory emphasizes the role of caregivers and the environment in language learning?
a) Behaviorist theory
b) Social Interactionist theory
c) Nativist theory
d) Connectionist theory

Q.7.. Which theory of language acquisition highlights the role of social interaction in learning a language?
a) Behaviorist theory
b) Social Interactionist theory
c) Nativist theory
d) Cognitive theory

Q.8. Which aspect of language acquisition is associated with the Critical Period Hypothesis?
a) Vocabulary growth continues throughout life
b) Grammar rules are learned early but refined later
c) Native-like proficiency in a language is harder to achieve after puberty
d) Phonetic discrimination remains stable throughout life

2.6. LINGUISTICS FALLACIES

Linguistic fallacies refer to errors in reasoning that arise when language is misinterpreted, manipulated, or used ambiguously. These fallacies can occur in arguments, communication, or even linguistic analysis. Understanding these fallacies is important in linguistics and other fields, as they can obscure meaning, create misunderstandings, or lead to faulty conclusions.

Types of Linguistic Fallacies:

1. **Equivocation**: This occurs when a word is used in two or more different senses within the same argument, leading to ambiguity and misinterpretation.

- **Example**: "A feather is light. What is light cannot be dark. Therefore, a feather cannot be dark." Here, the word "light" is used in two different senses: one as weight and the other as brightness.

2. **Amphiboly**: This is a fallacy that arises from ambiguous sentence structure. The ambiguity allows for multiple interpretations, often leading to confusion.
    - **Example**: "The police chased the man with a drone." This could mean either that the police used a drone to chase the man or that the man being chased had a drone.
3. **Composition and Division**:
    - **Composition**: The assumption that what is true for individual parts must be true for the whole.
        - **Example**: "Each brick in this building is small, so the building must be small."
    - **Division**: The opposite of composition, where it is assumed that what is true for the whole must be true for individual parts.
        - **Example**: "The team is the best in the league; therefore, each player must be the best in the league."
4. **Accent Fallacy**: This fallacy occurs when the meaning of a statement changes based on which word or phrase is emphasized.
    - **Example**: "I never said she stole the money." This sentence can mean different things depending on which word is stressed (e.g., "I *never* said she stole the money" versus "I never said *she* stole the money").
5. **False Analogy**: Using an analogy to argue for a conclusion that is not truly applicable to the analogy's context.
    - **Example**: "Language evolves like a biological species, so it must follow the same evolutionary rules." While language does change over time, equating it with biological evolution can lead to misconceptions about how linguistic change occurs.

Significance: Recognizing linguistic fallacies is essential in academic discourse, communication, and critical thinking. It allows individuals to identify flawed reasoning and enhances the clarity and effectiveness of arguments and analyses.

2.7. APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field that seeks to solve real-world problems related to language and communication. It goes beyond the theoretical study of language structure and usage to focus on practical applications in various domains such as education, language policy, translation, and language technology.

Core Areas of Applied Linguistics:

1. **Language Teaching and Learning**:
    - Applied linguistics provides frameworks and methodologies for effective language instruction. It integrates findings from cognitive psychology, sociolinguistics, and pedagogy to enhance teaching strategies and learning outcomes.
    - **Example**: The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach emphasizes interaction as both the means and goal of learning a language, promoting real-life communication skills over rote memorization.
2. **Second Language Acquisition (SLA)**:
    - SLA focuses on how individuals learn a language other than their native tongue. Applied linguistics explores factors that influence language learning, such as age, motivation, and learning environment.
    - **Example**: Research in SLA might investigate how immersive environments aid language acquisition compared to traditional classroom settings.
3. **Language Assessment and Testing**:
    - Developing reliable and valid language tests is an essential part of applied linguistics. These tests are used to measure language proficiency for educational placement, job qualification, and certification.
    - **Example**: The creation and improvement of standardized tests like the IELTS and TOEFL fall within the scope of applied linguistics.
4. **Translation and Interpretation**:
    - Applied linguistics examines the process of translation and interpretation to ensure accurate and culturally appropriate communication across languages.
    - **Example**: Applied linguistics may involve creating guidelines for translating idiomatic expressions or culturally specific references.
5. **Language Policy and Planning**:
    - Applied linguistics contributes to the development and implementation of policies that govern language use in societies. This may include decisions on official languages, language education policies, and the preservation of endangered languages.
    - **Example**: Applied linguists might work with government agencies to develop bilingual education programs or create strategies for revitalizing indigenous languages.
6. **Forensic Linguistics**:
    - This area applies linguistic knowledge to legal cases and investigations. It can involve analyzing the language used in written or spoken communication to determine authorship or detect signs of deception.

- **Example**: Analyzing ransom notes, legal documents, or witness statements to provide evidence in court cases.

Applications of Applied Linguistics:

- **Education**: Improving language curriculum, teaching materials, and pedagogical methods.
- **Technology**: Developing language-processing tools such as speech recognition software, machine translation, and grammar checkers.
- **Healthcare**: Enhancing communication between medical professionals and patients with limited language proficiency.
- **Business**: Addressing language and cultural barriers in global business environments.

Conclusion: Applied linguistics bridges the gap between linguistic theory and practical real-world applications. It plays a crucial role in addressing societal language challenges and improving communication across different contexts. By focusing on practical solutions, applied linguistics enhances language learning, supports effective language policies, and contributes to innovations in language technology.

2.8. LET US SUM UP

Language change, competence and performance, and theories of language acquisition are key areas in the study of linguistics. *Language change* refers to how languages evolve over time due to cultural, social, and external influences, as seen in the transformation from Old English to Modern English. *Competence* and *performance*, concepts introduced by Noam Chomsky, differentiate between a speaker's inherent knowledge of their language (competence) and their actual language use in real-life situations (performance). Finally, the *theories of language acquisition* provide different perspectives on how language is learned. The behaviorist theory emphasizes imitation and reinforcement, while the nativist theory points to innate language ability. The interactionist theory highlights social communication's role, the cognitive theory links language learning to overall mental development, and the connectionist theory focuses on pattern recognition through exposure.

2.9. LESSON END ACTIVITY

 Discussion Exercise:

- In groups, discuss examples of how your native language has changed over the past decade (e.g., new words, changes in meaning, or popular slang). Share your findings with the class.

 Role Play Activity:

- Create a skit showcasing a conversation that reflects a child acquiring language through social interaction. Highlight which theory of language acquisition (e.g., interactionist or behaviorist) is being demonstrated.

2.10. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. c) Borrowing
2. c) Phonology
3. c) Preservation efforts by institutions
4. b) Knowledge of a language's rules and structure
5. b) By reinforcement, imitation, and habit formation
6. b) Social Interactionist theory
7. b) Social Interactionist theory
8. c) Native-like proficiency in a language is harder to achieve after puberty

2.11. GLOSSARY

Language Change: The process by which a language evolves over time.
Competence: A speaker's internal knowledge of their language's grammar and structure.
Performance: The actual use of language in speech and writing, which may include errors.
Behaviorist Theory: A theory that language is learned through imitation and reinforcement.
Nativist Theory: A theory suggesting humans are born with an innate language capacity.
Interactionist Theory: A theory that emphasizes the role of social interaction in language development.
Cognitive Theory: A theory linking language acquisition to cognitive development.

Connectionist Theory: A theory proposing that language is learned through recognizing patterns from repeated exposure.

2.12. QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

Small Questions:

1. What is language change?
2. How can social factors influence language change?
3. Who introduced the concepts of competence and performance in linguistics?
4. What is linguistic competence?
5. What does the behaviorist theory of language acquisition propose?

6. Who is most associated with the nativist theory of language acquisition?

Long Questions:

1. Explain the different types of language change (e.g., phonological, grammatical, lexical) and provide examples for each.
2. Discuss the factors that contribute to language change and how they affect language over time.
3. Discuss the distinction between linguistic competence and performance with examples of how they manifest in real-life language use.
4. Explain the relationship between competence and performance in Chomsky's theory of language.
5. Compare the behaviorist and nativist theories of language acquisition, discussing their strengths and limitations.
6. How does the interactionist theory explain language acquisition in terms of social interaction, and what are its key contributions to our understanding of learning?

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UNIT 3

LANGUAGE

STRUCTURE

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Language is one of humanity's most remarkable and defining attributes. It is a structured system of communication that allows individuals to express thoughts, emotions, ideas, and information. Language transcends mere words; it is the foundation of culture, identity, and societal development. From the earliest symbols scratched into stone to the most sophisticated digital coding of the modern era, language has evolved as a dynamic and versatile tool.

Language is the cornerstone of human civilization, enabling us to think, express, and connect with one another. It is central to communication, social interaction, cultural identity, and knowledge sharing. The study of language provides insight into human cognition, societal structures, and the interconnectedness of cultures throughout history.

Key Themes:

- Language as a tool for communication and cultural preservation.
- The universality of language and its diversity across the globe.
- The evolution of language as a reflection of human progress.

Example:

- The historical evolution of languages like Latin into its Romance descendants (French, Spanish, Italian) demonstrates how language adapts to social and cultural changes over time.

3.2. OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, learners should be able to:

1. Understand the concept, nature, and scope of language.
2. Explore major theories about the origin of language.
3. Analyze the defining properties and characteristics of language.
4. Appreciate the dynamic and evolving nature of language.
5. Reflect on the societal and cultural impact of language as a medium of communication.

3.3. DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE

Language is the composition of the words, their pronunciation and the methods of combining them that are used and understood by a community. It is audible and articulates meaningful sounds produced by the action of vocal organs. Language makes use of symbols, words and gestures through which meaning is communicated. It is what makes us human. By acquiring the skills of a language, we come up a system of words, structure and grammar. Therefore language is not a mere collection of many words. It is the understanding of how words are related to each other and how these can be used for communication.

The fundamental aim of language is communication. From this base, we learn the ways to expand different language skills with complex phrases and sentences. This process speeds up from individual level to larger structures like culture and society. Hence we can express unique cultural patterns, customs, thereby make contact with other cultures and societies. We learn how different type of people across cultures and societies live and interact. Therefore language is unique.

The fundamental aim of language is communication by make use of spoken or written symbols. This very nature of language makes it, at the same time, a complex human phenomenon. This complexity makes a proper definition impossible**.** Different thinkers and linguists are attempting to define it and answering it in one way or another.

The following are some of the important definitions of language given by different thinkers, linguists and reference books.

Bloomfield is of the view that the totality of the utterances that can be made in a speech community is the language of that speech community. Here utterance of a particular language is focused, produced by the speakers of the native language. What Bloomfield stresses is form of the language and not meaning.

For Aristotle, the ancient thinker, speech sound is fundamental. According to Aristotle, language is a speech sound produced by human beings to express their ideas, emotions, thoughts, desires and feelings. That is, it is the sound that constitutes language.

Edward Sapir's definition is also focused on sounds. According to Sapir, language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires through a system of voluntarily produced sounds.

We know from the very nature of language that not only ideas but even emotions, feelings and desires are communicated. Therefore this definition does not cover the full range of language.
Saussure defines language a system of signs constituted by the signifier and the signified. There can be no relationship between a word and what it designates, that is objects and expressions are arbitrarily linked.
Noam Chomsky says the language is the inherent capability of the native speakers to understand the form and grammatical sentences. Here structural features of a language is given importance. Sentences are made up of limited components.

According to the definition of Encyclopedia Britannica, language is a system of conventional or written symbols through which human beings as members of social groups and participants in its culture, communicate.

Thus, we can say, language is a system of communication or arbitrary vocal sounds through which human beings communicate and interact with each other in their everyday life.

Language is more than just a tool for communication; it is a hallmark of human civilization, enabling the development of culture, science, and technology. Its complexity lies in its ability to adapt to abstract, concrete, emotional, and intellectual expressions.

Key Aspects:

1. **Human Exclusivity:**
   While animals communicate (e.g., bees through dance, whales through songs), only humans have the capacity for complex language involving syntax, semantics, and abstract thought.
2. **Multimodal Nature:**
   Language encompasses spoken words, written symbols, gestures, and even tone. For instance:

- Tone: “I’m fine” can mean different things depending on how it is said.
- Gestures: Nodding signifies agreement in most cultures but not in all.

3. **Language vs. Communication:**
   All language is a form of communication, but not all communication is language. Non-verbal cues, like facial expressions, lack the systematic rules that define language.

Key Elements of Language

1. **Definition:**
   Language is a system of symbols—spoken, written, or signed—used for communication within a community. It is characterized by its ability to convey abstract concepts, complex emotions, and detailed instructions.
2. **Nature:**
   Language is:
   - **Arbitrary:** There is no inherent connection between words and their meanings. For instance, the word "tree" varies across languages (*arbre* in French, *árbol* in Spanish).
   - **Systematic:** It follows rules (syntax, grammar) ensuring clarity and consistency.
   - **Dynamic:** It evolves over time, adopting new words, structures, and meanings.
3. **Purpose:**
   - To communicate: Share ideas, feelings, and information.
   - To connect: Build relationships and social bonds.
   - To preserve culture: Transfer knowledge and traditions across generations.

The Importance of Language in Society

1. **Expression of Identity:**
   Language reflects an individual’s cultural heritage, beliefs, and values. For example, dialects and accents often signify regional or social identities.
2. **Medium of Learning:**
   Through language, humans acquire knowledge, develop critical thinking, and innovate.
3. **Facilitator of Progress:**
   Language has been instrumental in the development of civilization—documenting history, advancing science, and enabling collaboration.
4. **Cultural Preservation:**
   Languages preserve traditions, stories, and wisdom unique to communities. Endangered languages, when lost, often take with them centuries of cultural knowledge.

Why Study Language?

- **Understanding Communication:** Studying language helps decode how humans connect and interact.
- **Exploring Diversity:** It reveals the vast diversity of human thought, as each language offers unique perspectives on the world.
- **Facilitating Globalization:** Proficiency in multiple languages bridges cultural gaps, promoting international cooperation.

3.4. THEORIES OF THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE

The question of the origin of language creates a dispute among the scholars. Saussure is skeptical about the question of the origin of language. Whether all languages have a common origin or not is a question to be answered. Human language is productive and in the course of time many of them declined and developed and some of them continue to evolve. It has been argued that imitation, rhythm, pains and pleasures, different gestures form the basis of language. The following are some of the important theories of the origin of language, though disputatious arguments exist.

1 The Bow-Wow Theory

As the name suggests, this theory focused on the idea of imitation, the imitation of natural sounds. It argues that the language began when our ancestors started imitating the sounds around them. Many sounds developed as words because of this imitation. This is technically referred to as onomatopoeia, marked by echoism as in words buzz, clang, cuckoo, splash, meow, bang. These sounds are imitated by the people of a community around them and gradually meanings are attributed to them.

But not all words are developed by imitating sounds. Relatively onomatopoeic words are restricted and they vary from one language to another. Moreover many onomatopoeic words are originated recently. The origin of the majority of words in a language cannot be explained by this theory. Except onomatopoeic words, the bow-wow theory does not have acceptability among the linguists.

2 The Ding-Dong Theory

This theory argues that the sounds people made were in harmony with the world around them. The language originated out of a natural correspondence between objects of sense perception and the vocal noises which were part of early humans' reactions to them. This concept was offered by the German linguist Max Muller. It argues that there is an innate tendency in man to imitate movements in nature, which is the rhythm of nature. Humans started naming objects, actions and

natural phenomena after a recognizable sound associated with them in real life. This is often referred to as sound symbolism. Hence 'crash' became the word for thunder and 'boom' for explosion.
Apart from some rare instances of sound symbolism, there is no persuasive evidence of an innate connection between sound and meaning.

3 The Pooh-Pooh Theory

Instinctive emotive cries, pain or pleasure may lead to the development of certain sounds and words. The pooh-pooh theory follows this trace. It argues that speech began with interjections. The interjection pooh-pooh is used to express contempt or disapproval. Other interjections develop from these are Oh! for surprise, ouch! for pain, and wow! for surprise.
No language contains very many interjections. The expressive noises people make as an emotional reaction can hardly be considered as words.

4 The Gesture Theory

Apart from spoken and written symbols, communication can be made by make use of body. The movement of the jaw, lips, hands, shoulder and eyes is used to convey in a communication. Before the origin and development of written and spoken symbols, humans made use of their body, which were a primitive form of communication. In many cultures nodding one's head signifies 'yes'.

For effective communication both verbal and nonverbal signals, which are carried out by the movement of body are required. In the absence of the latter, communication may be dull.

5 The Yo-He-Ho Theory

Language began as rhythmic chants, perhaps ultimately from the grunts of heavy work. According to yo-he-ho theory language evolved from the grunts, groans and snorts evoked by the group of people during a heavy physical work. While lifting a heavy object or pulling a heavy wood or cutting a hard object, the workers made sound alike as in 'yo-he-ho'. These sounds may stand for cooperation accompanied by appropriate gestures. This notion of language was propounded by Noire.
Though this notion may account for some of the rhythmic feature of the language, it doesn't go very far in explaining where words come from.

6 The Sing-Song Theory

It wasJespersen, the Danish linguist, who suggested that language may have developed from play, laughter, cooing, courtship, emotional mutterings and the like. He even suggests that

perhaps some of our first words were actually long and musical, rather than the short grunts or groans. However, the gap between the emotional and the rational aspects of speech expression does not consider here.

Most of these theories have similarities and disputable arguments. How language began still remains unsolved.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

A. **1. Which of the following best defines language?**

a) A random collection of sounds and symbols.
b) A system of symbols and rules used for communication.
c) A genetically inherited trait.
d) A set of gestures without any rules.

2. Which aspect of language ensures it is meaningful and organized?

a) Arbitrariness
b) Productivity
c) Rule-governed system
d) Reflexivity

3. What does it mean to say language is dynamic?

a) It changes over time.
b) It remains constant.
c) It depends on biology.
d) It only functions in spoken form.

4. Which theory suggests that language originated from imitating natural sounds?

a) Divine Source Theory
b) Natural Sound Theory (Bow-Wow Theory)
c) Gestural Theory
d) Biological Evolution Theory

5. What is the primary focus of the Social Interaction (Yo-He-Ho) Theory?

a) Language originated from divine intervention.
b) Language evolved during social tasks requiring cooperation.
c) Language emerged from genetic mutations.
d) Language is an imitation of animal sounds.

6. Which evidence supports the Biological Evolution Theory?

a) FOXP2 gene and fossilized hyoid bones.
b) Imitation of natural sounds.
c) Religious texts about language creation.
d) Work chants in communal labor.

3.5. NATURE AND PROPERTIES OF LANGUAGE

Language's properties demonstrate its complexity and adaptability, making it uniquely human.

1. Systematic and Rule-Governed:

Language rules ensure clarity and consistency. For example:

- In English, adjectives typically precede nouns ("a red car"), while in French, they often follow ("une voiture rouge").

2. Arbitrary:

Words are conventional symbols agreed upon within a linguistic community. However, exceptions like onomatopoeia (e.g., "boom," "hiss") show partial non-arbitrariness.

3. Dynamic:

Languages evolve through:

- **Lexical Borrowing:** Incorporation of foreign words (e.g., "sushi" from Japanese).
- **Semantic Shifts:** Words change meaning (e.g., "gay" once primarily meant "happy").
- **Phonological Changes:** Accents and pronunciations shift over generations.

4. Social Tool:

Language reflects societal norms and values. For example:

- Politeness markers differ: Japanese emphasizes honorifics (e.g., "san"), while English often uses modal verbs (e.g., "Could you…?").

5. Duality of Patterning:

This feature allows humans to combine a limited set of sounds into an infinite variety of meaningful words and sentences, giving rise to creativity in expression.

3.6. CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE

Each characteristic contributes to the richness of linguistic systems:

1. Productivity/Creativity:

Humans can create and understand entirely new sentences. For example:

- "Quantum computing will revolutionize artificial intelligence."
  This sentence uses existing words in a novel arrangement to express a new idea.

2. Displacement:

Allows discussion of:

- **Past events:** "Dinosaurs roamed the Earth millions of years ago."
- **Future possibilities:** "One day, humans might colonize Mars."
- **Imaginary concepts:** "Dragons breathe fire in ancient myths."

3. Cultural Transmission:

Language is learned, not inherited. For example:

- A Chinese child adopted by English-speaking parents will learn English, not Mandarin, as their native language.

4. Interchangeability:

Speakers and listeners can swap roles, unlike some animal communication systems where signals are one-way (e.g., mating calls).

5. Reflexivity:

Humans can analyze and discuss their language. Linguistics itself is an example of reflexivity, studying how language operates.

Let Us Sum Up

This section synthesizes the key points:

- Language is a complex, symbolic, and rule-governed system of communication.
- Its origins remain debated, with theories highlighting social, natural, and biological factors.
- Properties like productivity, displacement, and cultural transmission distinguish human language.
- Language is dynamic, reflecting human adaptability and creativity.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

B. 1. **What does the property of arbitrariness in language imply?**
a) Language sounds directly resemble their meanings.
b) There is no inherent connection between a word and its meaning.
c) Language can only be used for abstract ideas.
d) Language is genetically inherited.
2. **The property of displacement allows humans to:**
a) Discuss events or objects not present in the immediate environment.
b) Rearrange words in different patterns.
c) Combine sounds to create infinite meanings.
d) Transmit language through culture.
.3. **Which of the following illustrates the duality of patterning?**
a) Talking about past and future events.
b) Combining a limited set of sounds into infinite meaningful combinations.
c) The lack of connection between sounds and their meanings.
d) The use of cultural rules to transmit language.
4. **What does it mean to say that language is reflexive?**
a) It allows speakers to talk about the past and future.
b) It enables humans to use language to discuss and analyze language itself.
c) It is always systematic and rule-governed.
d) It depends on cultural transmission.
5. Which characteristic of language refers to its adaptability over time?
a) Interchangeability
b) Reflexivity
c) Dynamic nature
d) Creativity
6. Which characteristic distinguishes human language from animal communication?
a) Reflexivity and productivity
b) Arbitrariness and uniformity
c) Instinctive nature
d) Genetic transmission
7. What does it mean to say language is systematic?
a) Language evolves unpredictably.
b) Language follows organized and consistent rules.
c) Language only exists in spoken form.
d) Language is entirely dependent on biological factors.

3.7. LESSON AND ACTIVITY

Suggested Activities:

1. Research and present five borrowed words in your native language. Discuss their origins and meanings.
2. Write a short paragraph in your own words explaining one theory of language origin.
3. Analyze how modern technology (e.g., texting, social media) is influencing language evolution.

3.8. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

A. 1. b) A system of symbols and rules used for communication.
2. c) Rule-governed system
3. a) It changes over time.
4. b) Natural Sound Theory (Bow-Wow Theory)
5. b) Language evolved during social tasks requiring cooperation.
6. a) FOXP2 gene and fossilized hyoid bones.

B.1. b) There is no inherent connection between a word and its meaning.
2. a) Discuss events or objects not present in the immediate environment
3. b) Combining a limited set of sounds into infinite meaningful combinations.
4. b) It enables humans to use language to discuss and analyze language itself.
5. c) Dynamic nature
6. a) Reflexivity and productivity
7. b) Language follows organized and consistent rules.

3.9. GLOSSARY

- **Arbitrariness:** No inherent connection between words and their meanings.
- **Duality of Patterning:** The organization of sounds into meaningful units.
- **FOXP2 Gene:** A gene associated with the development of language capabilities.

3.10. TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. Define language and explain its symbolic nature.
2. Discuss the importance of duality of patterning with examples.
3. Compare the strengths and weaknesses of the Natural Sound Theory and Biological Evolution Theory.
4. What are the key properties of language? Explain with examples.
5. Which theory of language origin do you find most convincing, and why?

6. How does the cultural transmission property shape language learning?

3.11. REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT 4

LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM OF COMMUNICATION

STRUCTURE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Language is a fundamental and complex aspect of human life, serving as the primary medium through which we communicate thoughts, emotions, and ideas. It is not only a tool for expressing our immediate needs but also a rich vessel for sharing knowledge, building connections, and shaping cultures. Unlike other forms of animal communication, human language is characterized by its unique features such as arbitrariness, productivity, and displacement, allowing us to convey abstract concepts, discuss events that are not present, and create an infinite variety of sentences from a finite set of components.

At its core, language is composed of sounds or symbols that are governed by a set of rules enabling them to form meaningful structures. These structures range from simple words to complex sentences, encompassing the study of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Each language has its specific rules and patterns, yet the ability to learn and use language is universal across human cultures, hinting at a shared underlying cognitive framework.

Language is also inherently social. It evolves over time, adapting to the needs and changes of its speakers. It carries history and reflects the collective identity of a community. Through language, humans can pass down stories, beliefs, and traditions, maintaining a connection between past generations and future ones.

4.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit the leaners will be able to understand the following points are as follows:

1. **Analyze Structure**: To examine the structural aspects of language, including phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, for a comprehensive understanding of its components.
2. **Develop Comparative Skills**: To enable the comparison of different languages and dialects, enhancing insights into linguistic universals and variations.
3. **Enhance Communication**: To apply linguistic knowledge to improve language teaching, learning, and translation, enhancing effective communication across different languages.
4. **Study Evolution**: To research the historical and evolutionary aspects of language to understand its development over time and how languages change and adapt.
5. **Practical Applications**: To integrate linguistic insights into fields such as artificial intelligence, computational linguistics, and language processing technologies, contributing to advancements in human-computer interactions.
6. **Sociolinguistic Analysis**: To explore the social aspects of language, such as how it varies within different communities and is influenced by factors like age, gender, socioeconomic status, and geography.

4.3. LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM OF COMMUNICATION

Language as a system of communication is a structured method that humans use to share information, thoughts, feelings, and ideas. It is an organized set of symbols and rules that enables people to create meaningful messages. This system is built on several layers, including sounds (phonetics and phonology), word structure (morphology), sentence structure (syntax), and meaning (semantics and pragmatics). Each component works together, enabling the complex process of conveying and interpreting messages.

Structure and Components of Language:

1. **Phonetics and Phonology**: Language begins with sounds. Phonetics studies the physical sounds of speech, while phonology examines how these sounds function within a particular language. For example, in English, the sounds /p/ and /b/ are distinct phonemes that can change the meaning of a word (e.g., “pat” vs. “bat”).
2. **Morphology**: This is the study of the structure and form of words. Morphemes are the smallest units of meaning. For example, in the word “unbelievable,” “un-” is a prefix

meaning “not,” “believe” is the root word, and “-able” is a suffix meaning “capable of.” Morphology allows us to modify words to express different meanings or grammatical functions.

3. **Syntax**: Syntax refers to the rules that determine the structure of sentences. It governs how words are arranged to create meaningful sentences. For instance, “The cat chased the mouse” is a grammatically correct sentence in English, whereas “Chased mouse the cat” would not be. Syntax varies between languages, which can affect how information is structured and understood.
4. **Semantics**: This aspect of language deals with meaning. Semantics ensures that words and sentences convey the intended meaning. For example, “bachelor” refers to an unmarried man, but the context (such as cultural interpretation) may affect its connotations or implied meaning.
5. **Pragmatics**: Pragmatics involves understanding language in context, going beyond the literal meaning to grasp implied or inferred meanings. For instance, if someone says, “It’s cold in here,” they may not just be stating a fact but implying that they want the listener to close a window or turn on the heat.

Language as a Communication System:

Unlike other forms of communication (e.g., gestures or animal signals), language possesses unique properties such as **arbitrariness**, **displacement**, and **productivity**:

- **Arbitrariness**: The relationship between words and their meanings is often arbitrary. For example, there is nothing about the sound “dog” that inherently relates to the animal it represents.
- **Displacement**: Humans can talk about things that are not present in space or time. This allows people to discuss past events, future possibilities, or imaginary scenarios. For instance, someone can say, “Tomorrow, I will visit my grandmother,” which demonstrates displacement.
- **Productivity**: Language is highly productive, meaning users can create an infinite number of new sentences and ideas. Even with a limited vocabulary, language users can combine words in novel ways to express new thoughts, such as, “The blue dolphin sang a song under the moon.”

Example of Language as a Communication System:

Consider a conversation between two people discussing plans for a weekend trip:

- **Speaker 1**: “We should go hiking on Saturday. The weather is supposed to be great.”
- **Speaker 2**: “Sounds perfect! I’ll bring snacks and water.”

In this exchange, both speakers use the rules of syntax and word formation (morphology) to construct sentences. Semantics ensures the sentences make sense, and pragmatics allows them to understand the implied commitments and shared context (e.g., preparation for the hike).

This example highlights how language, as a system of communication, facilitates complex interactions by following structured rules while being adaptable and dynamic. It's a multifaceted tool that transcends basic information exchange, allowing for expressive, creative, and contextually rich communication.

4.4. LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM OF SYSTEMS

Language as a "system of systems" means that it is composed of several interrelated subsystems, each functioning together to create a coherent mode of communication. These subsystems include phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, all of which are integrated to allow the effective expression and comprehension of language. Each subsystem has its own set of rules and functions, but they operate in harmony to produce meaningful communication.

1. Phonological System:

Explanation: Phonology is the system of sounds in a language and how they are organized and used. This subsystem deals with phonemes, the smallest units of sound that can change meaning (e.g., /p/ and /b/ in "pat" vs. "bat"). Phonology also involves understanding how these sounds interact in speech, such as stress patterns and intonation.

Example: In English, the phoneme /s/ in the word "cats" indicates plurality. This phoneme interacts with other sounds in the language to conform to English pronunciation rules.

2. Morphological System:

Explanation: Morphology studies the structure of words and how they are formed using morphemes, the smallest units of meaning. Morphemes include roots, prefixes, and suffixes. This system allows the formation of words that carry specific meanings and grammatical functions.

Example: The word "unhappiness" is made up of three morphemes: "un-" (prefix meaning "not"), "happy" (root meaning "joyful"), and "-ness" (suffix turning an adjective into a noun). The morphological system helps speakers understand that "unhappiness" means the state of not being happy.

3. Syntactic System:

Explanation: Syntax refers to the rules that govern sentence structure, determining how words are combined to form sentences. The syntactic system enables speakers to create grammatically correct and meaningful sentences.

Example: In English, the sentence "The cat chased the mouse" follows the basic syntactic rule of Subject-Verb-Object (SVO). Changing the word order to "Chased the cat mouse" disrupts the syntax and makes the sentence nonsensical. Each language has its own syntactic rules that need to be followed to ensure clarity and comprehension.

4. Semantic System:

Explanation: Semantics deals with meaning at the level of words, phrases, and sentences. This system ensures that sentences convey meaning in a way that is understood by speakers of the language. Semantics involves the interpretation of word meaning and sentence meaning, including literal and figurative meanings.

Example: The sentence "Time flies like an arrow" is semantically coherent because speakers understand the figurative meaning of "flies" as moving quickly. This semantic interpretation is essential for understanding idiomatic expressions and metaphors.

5. Pragmatic System:

Explanation: Pragmatics focuses on language use in context. This system takes into account the speaker's intentions, the relationship between the speakers, and the situational context. Pragmatics ensures that communication goes beyond literal meaning to include inferred or implied meanings.

Example: If someone says, "Can you pass the salt?" in a dining context, the literal question is about the listener's ability to pass the salt. However, pragmatically, it is understood as a polite request for the salt, not an inquiry about ability. This interpretation relies on the shared understanding of social cues and context.

How These Systems Interact:

Each of these systems is interconnected and operates together to create a coherent language system. For instance, phonology and morphology work together when pronouncing a word. In the word "cats," the plural marker "-s" is pronounced /s/ due to phonological rules, but its use is determined by morphological rules. Syntax and semantics collaborate to form sentences that not only follow grammatical rules but also make sense. "The cat chased the mouse" is syntactically correct and semantically meaningful, while "The cat chased the happiness" is syntactically correct but semantically odd due to the choice of words.

Full Example:

Consider the sentence: "The children played joyfully in the park."

- **Phonology** ensures that the pronunciation of each word follows the rules of the language.
- **Morphology** identifies the structure of words, such as "played" (root "play" + past tense morpheme "-ed").

- **Syntax** arranges these words into a grammatically correct order: "Subject (The children) + Verb (played) + Adverbial phrase (joyfully in the park)."
- **Semantics** ensures the sentence makes sense by interpreting the words and phrases: children engaging in an activity in a specific place.

Pragmatics might add context, such as understanding that the sentence implies a happy scene without explicitly stating it.

In summary, language is a multifaceted system that enables complex human communication. Its characteristics of arbitrariness, productivity, and displacement allow for rich, varied, and meaningful interaction, while its social nature, symbolic function, and rule-governed structure make it a fundamental human tool that evolves with our societies. Understanding these aspects reveals how language not only conveys information but also shapes human experience and interaction.

4.5. HUMAN COMMUNICATION AND ANIMAL COMMUNICATION

Communication is a process by which information is exchanged. Any idea, feeling or instinct can be transmitted either by make use of written/spoken symbols or through gestures or groans. Therefore language is a fundamental gift that human beings are bestowed with. In the absence of a language, of course, we have our own methods to communicate. Here sounds can be utilized, body actions can be used through touch and gaze, and so basic things can be expressed. Have you thought of the way animals communicated? Animals do not have a structured language. But it does not mean that they do not communicate. While language helps humans to form a social organization, it is instinctive for animals.

The difference between human and animal communication lies in the following aspects.

1 Duality of Patterning

Human language has a fixed number of sound units called phonemes. When two or more phonemes combine systematically, a morpheme forms and it becomes meaningful. Thus human language has got two levels of patterning; the compounding of sounds and the compounding of words. For instance in English language, we have sounds like 'i','p' and 'n'. At individual level, none of these forms any meaning. But when they are arranged in a particular way such as 'pin' it produces a meaning. It shows, we have distinct sounds and distinct meanings. Any morpheme or a word can be divided into smaller units or further develop into phrases or sentences. Therefore sound is distinctive and its proper arrangement forms words and sentences.

Animals' sounds, on the other hand, cannot be arranged in this way like morphemes or words. Therefore their number of messages are limited. Their sounds denote their instincts aroused by reactions. Bees communicate with others by dancing and birds by calls and songs. Different

animals, in this way, communicate by make use of their body, cries and sounds but these sounds cannot be broken down into separate parts.

2 Creativity

Human beings are able to manipulate their linguistic resources to produce new expressions, novel utterances and sentences. There is no limit for the number of words in a sentence. Within an existing word, a new word is possible by alterations. People arrange and rearrange phonemes, morphemes, words, and phrases through which an infinite number of ideas can be expressed. This is also called the open-endedness of language.

However, the communicative systems of animals do not have this flexibility. Animal communication is a closed system. They cannot produce new signals to communicate novel events or experiences. Each signal in their system is fixed even the context/location/occasion is strange or new.

3 Arbitrariness

Human language is a symbolic system. The signs, or words, in language have no inherent connection to what they signify, or mean. The connection between a signifier and a signified is quite arbitrary. A sign may have multiple meaning based on the context. These signs can also be written with the symbols, or alphabet, of that language. Both verbal and written language can be passed down to future generations. Except some onomatopoeic words, there can be no connection between a word and what it designates.

Animal communication is not symbolic, which means ideas cannot be preserved for the future.

4 Displacement

Human language is a context free language. We can refer to past and future time, talk of real or imaginary situation. This peculiar feature of human language is called displacement. It is possible to imagine things that are not present. It is not possible in animal communication because it is a context bound language. Animals react to a stimulus in the immediate environment. They cannot relate events as their communication is designed for the moment.

5 Cultural Transmissions

Human beings brought up in different cultures, so they acquire different languages. Man can also learn other languages via the influence of other cultures. Moreover, a language with a written and spoken symbols is passed on from one generation to the next. Animals lack this capacity

because they are born with a set of fixed signals. Their communication ability is transmitted biologically, so they are unable to learn other languages.

Example: A simple human conversation demonstrates these features:

- **Person A**: "Remember the time we went to the mountains last year? I wish we could go again next month."
- **Person B**: "Yes! We can plan it. I'll check the weather forecast."

This exchange shows displacement (talking about past and future events), productivity (forming new sentences), and cultural transmission (language learned through interaction).

Human speech sounds can be arranged in infinite sequences, through which new meanings are possible, while animals have only a limited and fixed signals. There is more scope for ambiguities in human language, but in animal communication every sign has only one meaning. Human language is transferred to both written and spoken format, while animals lack this quality.

Animal Communication:

Animal communication, on the other hand, is generally more limited in scope and structure. While animals do communicate effectively within their species, their systems of communication lack the complexity of human language.

1. **Fixed Signals**: Animal communication often involves signals that are fixed in meaning. A dog's bark, for example, may indicate a warning or excitement, but it cannot express complex ideas or refer to abstract concepts like "next week" or "memories."
2. **Limited Productivity**: Most animal communication systems have a limited number of fixed signals that convey specific meanings. For example, bees use a "waggle dance" to communicate the location of food sources to other bees. While impressive, this form of communication does not allow for infinite combinations or the expression of new ideas.
3. **Immediate Context Only**: Animals typically communicate about the immediate present. For instance, a bird may use a specific call to warn of a predator but cannot "talk" about what happened yesterday or what might happen tomorrow.
4. **Instinctive Transmission**: Unlike human language, many forms of animal communication are instinctual and biologically inherited rather than culturally taught. This means that animals often use their communication systems without learning from older generations.

Example: A classic example of animal communication is the **bee waggle dance**. When a foraging bee finds food, it returns to the hive and performs a specific movement pattern that

indicates the direction and distance of the food source relative to the sun. While this demonstrates a high level of communication for an animal, it is limited to conveying only one type of information.

Key Differences:

- **Complexity**: Human language is infinitely more complex, with grammar, syntax, and semantics that allow for creative and detailed expression. Animal communication is simpler and typically limited to signals with specific meanings.
- **Flexibility and Creativity**: Human language allows for the creation of new words and expressions, whereas animal communication is mostly fixed and non-innovative.
- **Displacement and Abstraction**: Humans can talk about abstract concepts, past or future events, and things not present, which animals cannot do.

While animal communication is effective for the needs of various species, it lacks the depth and flexibility of human language. Human language's unique features—arbitrariness, displacement, productivity, duality of structure, and cultural transmission—enable it to be an unparalleled tool for complex communication, social bonding, and the transmission of knowledge and culture across generations.

4.6. SPEECH AND WRITING

Spoken and written languages are the two basic manifestations. While speech is spontaneous, writing is planned and conscious. The basic unit of a spoken language is sound, and for written language it is word and sentence. The unique feature of a language is that both are equally used for communication. The spoken form is to be uttered and written form is to be read. Speech comes first because children first learn to speak. Writing is usually permanent because it is recorded. Speech, on the other hand, is transient unless recorded.

Speech is primary in any language. Learning to speak appears to happen naturally within the home as it is used for immediate interaction, whereas learning to read and write is usually associated with the beginning of formal schooling. Speech develops from an informal context, therefore the complexity of which is different when it is compared to writing. The latter develops within a more formal context where conscious effort is required. The gradual improvement of the two depends more on the communicative situations.

Writing is usually permanent because it allows opportunities for more careful organization and more complex structures. It is usually represented by phonemic symbols or letters. Each of the letter or symbol represents a particular sound through which the meaning is generated. Once it is

recorded written text cannot be changed. It then helps to improve the reading skill of a child. The written material can be read repeatedly and can be used for future reference.

Spoken language, in the first phase of a child, is preplanned. It is spontaneous and rapid and it delivers at the moment. Therefore, what the child speaks is short and it may contain more sounds than words or phrases. It tends to be full of repetitions, incomplete utterances and pauses. Even the intonation pattern may vary, each of which may have a meaning and reflects the mood and reactions of the child. Here emotive expressions are more likely than denotation. Moreover, gestures and eye contact play a crucial role in conveying the intended ideas.

A written text can communicate across time and space for as long as the particular language and writing system is still understood, while speech is temporary unless it is recorded. The written text tends to be more complex as it allows longer sentences with many subordinate clauses. The mood, reactions and attitude can be conveyed through different punctuation marks. While reading a written document, there is limited scope for immediate feedback. It leads to the problem of clarity and one cannot fully depend on context for what a particular text carries. While the speech is instant and the listener/s is present, the problem of ambiguity is limited. Here context, the tone of the speaker and the delivery of speed play a major role. It helps the listener to understand the speech.

The greatest advantage of spoken language is that every community has a spoken language of their own. There are even communities where speech is the only means of communication and writing is unknown to them. In India, Tulu language is one which does not have written symbols.

To sum up, both spoken and written language are two ways of communication and the manifestation of a same system called language. Whatever the mode of communication, both of them depend more on clarity, quantity and relation. For listeners and readers, the success of a speaker and a writer lie more in effective communication. Therefore, one is not superior to another.

4.7. SYNCHRONIC, DIACHRONIC AND HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS

Linguistics, the scientific study of language, includes different approaches for examining how languages function and change over time. The study can be divided into **synchronic linguistics**, **diachronic linguistics**, and **historical linguistics**. Each focus on a unique aspect of language study, providing insights into how languages operate and evolve.

1. Synchronic Linguistics:

Explanation: Synchronic linguistics is the study of a language at a specific point in time, typically in the present or a fixed historical moment. This type of analysis looks at the structure and use of language without considering its historical development. Synchronic linguistics seeks

to understand the rules governing the language, including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics as they exist at that moment.

Example: A synchronic analysis of Modern English might examine the current pronunciation of words, grammatical structures like subject-verb agreement, or common idiomatic expressions. For instance, it would analyze how "She goes to work every day" adheres to present-day English grammar without delving into how the grammar or vocabulary came to be.

2. Diachronic Linguistics:

Explanation: Diachronic linguistics is the study of language change over time. This field investigates the evolution and transformation of languages by comparing different stages of a language or comparing related languages at various points in history. Diachronic linguistics examines changes in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and meaning to trace the development and patterns of change in a language or group of languages.

Example: Diachronic analysis would look at how English has evolved from Old English (e.g., *Hwæt! Wē Gār-Dena in geārdagum*) to Modern English (e.g., "Listen! We of the Spear-Danes in the days of yore"). Researchers may study how certain sounds changed (such as the Great Vowel Shift), how vocabulary expanded through contact with other languages, or how grammatical structures were simplified over time.

3. Historical Linguistics:

Explanation: Historical linguistics is a broader field that encompasses the study of language change over time and the relationships between different languages. It includes diachronic analysis but extends to reconstructing ancient languages and identifying language families. Historical linguists study how languages are related, tracing their evolution back to common ancestors and proposing theories about how proto-languages might have sounded or functioned.

Example: Historical linguistics often involves comparing cognates (words with a common origin) across languages to establish relationships and reconstruct ancestral languages. For instance, the English word "father," German "Vater," and Latin "pater" all share a common Indo-European root. Historical linguists use such comparisons to propose the structure and vocabulary of the Proto-Indo-European language.

Comparing Synchronic and Diachronic Approaches:

- **Synchronic linguistics** provides a snapshot of a language as it is used at one time, akin to taking a photograph of language structure. It helps us understand how speakers communicate and interpret meaning within that time frame.
- **Diachronic linguistics** is more like studying a time-lapse video, showing how language has shifted and developed across centuries. It uncovers patterns of change, such as sound shifts or the borrowing of words, and helps explain why languages today are the way they are.

Example of Both Approaches: Consider the English word "knight":

- A **synchronic analysis** would focus on its current pronunciation and meaning: /naɪt/ ("a man granted an honorary title of knighthood").
- A **diachronic analysis** would explore how the pronunciation evolved from Middle English /kniːxt/ (with a pronounced "k") and how the meaning shifted over time.

Applications of Historical Linguistics:

Reconstructing Proto-Languages: By comparing existing languages, linguists work backward to infer what ancient, unrecorded languages sounded like. For example, using similarities between related languages, they reconstruct Proto-Indo-European (PIE), believed to be the common ancestor of many European and Asian languages.

Studying Language Families: Historical linguists group languages into families, such as the Romance languages (Spanish, French, Italian), which all evolved from Latin. They analyze how these languages diverged and changed independently.

Example of Historical Study: The study of the Germanic languages can trace the evolution of Old English, Old High German, and Old Norse back to their common ancestor, Proto-Germanic. By understanding these relationships, historical linguists can map out how languages branched out and diversified.

- **Synchronic linguistics** examines language at a specific time without considering past changes.
- **Diachronic linguistics** studies the evolution and development of languages over time.
- **Historical linguistics** encompasses the broader study of how languages change and relate to one another, including reconstructing lost languages and tracing linguistic roots.

Each of these approaches provides valuable insights into understanding the nature, structure, and history of languages, helping linguists comprehend the complexities of human communication and its evolution over millennia.

4.8. LANGUAGE BORROWING

Language borrowing refers to the process by which one language adopts words, phrases, or other elements from another language. This can happen for various reasons, such as contact between speakers of different languages, trade, colonization, migration, or cultural exchange. Borrowing can affect all levels of language, including vocabulary, pronunciation, syntax, and even writing systems.

Types of Language Borrowing:

There are several types of language borrowing, depending on the nature and extent of the influence.

1. Lexical Borrowing (Vocabulary Borrowing):

Lexical borrowing is the most common form of borrowing and refers to the adoption of words from one language into another. These borrowed words can retain their original meaning, or they can acquire new meanings in the borrowing language.

- **Example**: The English word “pizza” comes from Italian, which in turn borrowed it from the dialect of southern Italy. This word maintained its original meaning (a type of dish) but was incorporated into English without any change in spelling or pronunciation.
- **Example**: English has borrowed many words from French, especially after the Norman Conquest in 1066. Words like “ballet,” “café,” and “menu” have been borrowed and integrated into everyday English.

2. Phonological Borrowing:

Phonological borrowing occurs when a language adopts not only words but also specific pronunciation features or sound patterns from another language. This type of borrowing may involve the adoption of foreign sounds, intonation patterns, or stress patterns.

- **Example**: The French word “genre” is borrowed into English, but its pronunciation (/ʒɑːnrə/) reflects a French influence, not the typical English pronunciation patterns. Some English speakers may struggle with this foreign phonological feature and might use an English-like pronunciation (/ˈʒɛnər/).

3. Syntactic Borrowing:

Syntactic borrowing involves the adoption of syntactic structures or word-order patterns from another language. This is less common than lexical borrowing but can happen through prolonged exposure or language contact.

- **Example**: In some English dialects, especially those influenced by African American Vernacular English (AAVE), syntactic structures like the use of "be" to indicate habitual action (e.g., "She be working" meaning "She is usually working") are borrowed from West African languages.

4. Loan Translations (Calques):

A loan translation, also known as a calque, occurs when a language translates the components of a foreign word or expression into its own language rather than directly borrowing the word itself. This is often done when there isn't an exact equivalent in the borrowing language.

- **Example**: The English phrase "skyscraper" was borrowed into several languages. In French, it became "gratte-ciel," which literally means "scrape-sky" (a direct translation of "sky" and "scrape"). This is a calque of the English term.
- **Example**: In Mandarin Chinese, the term "computer" is translated as "计算机" (jìsuàn jī), which literally means "calculating machine." This is a calque from English.

5. Cultural Borrowing:

Cultural borrowing refers to the borrowing of not just words or phrases but also concepts, practices, or customs that originate in a different culture. This often involves borrowing vocabulary associated with new technologies, foods, or social practices.

- **Example**: English has borrowed many words related to Japanese culture, such as "sushi," "kimono," or "karaoke," reflecting cultural exchange between the countries. These words have entered English because of the global spread of Japanese culture, especially in the late 20th and early 21st centuries.

6. Orthographic Borrowing:

Orthographic borrowing happens when a language adopts the writing system or script of another language. This can occur when one language adopts the script of another for the sake of convenience or due to historical events like colonization.

- **Example**: The Japanese writing system incorporates Chinese characters, known as kanji. Although Japanese is linguistically unrelated to Chinese, it uses Chinese characters in its written form alongside two native Japanese scripts, hiragana and katakana.

Reasons for Language Borrowing:

1. **Cultural Exchange**: When two or more communities interact, such as through trade, migration, or globalization, they influence each other's languages. Words related to food, technology, or customs are often borrowed.
    - **Example**: English has borrowed the word "sushi" from Japanese, as sushi became popular in many Western countries through cultural exchange.
2. **Technological and Scientific Advancements**: New inventions or discoveries often lead to the creation of new terminology, which is borrowed by other languages when they adopt the new technology.

    - **Example**: The word “robot” was borrowed from Czech into English when the term was popularized in the early 20th century.
3. **Colonization and Imperialism**: Colonial powers often imposed their language on colonized populations. This has led to substantial borrowing of vocabulary and even grammar.
    - **Example**: English borrowed many words from Indian languages, like "shampoo," "pajamas," and "bungalow," during the British colonization of India.
4. **Globalization**: In the modern era, globalization has increased communication between people across the world, leading to the borrowing of terms from languages like English into many other languages.
    - **Example**: Words like “internet,” “email,” and “software” are used in many languages worldwide, often without translation.

Effects of Language Borrowing:

Language borrowing can have several effects on both the borrowing and source languages:

- **Enrichment of Vocabulary**: Borrowing allows a language to expand its vocabulary, making it capable of expressing new ideas and concepts. For instance, English has adopted thousands of words from other languages, enriching its lexicon.
- **Language Simplification**: Borrowing can simplify a language by allowing speakers to use more efficient or concise terms from another language. For example, the widespread use of English words like "computer" or "smartphone" in other languages often replaces longer, more complex local terms.
- **Language Change**: Over time, borrowing can lead to shifts in pronunciation, meaning, and even grammar. For example, the pronunciation of borrowed words may be adapted to fit the phonetic system of the borrowing language.
- **Cultural Influence**: The words and phrases borrowed from other languages often bring cultural and social influences with them. This can impact not just vocabulary but also societal norms, values, and practices.

Language borrowing is an essential aspect of how languages evolve and interact with each other. Whether through the adoption of individual words, phrases, or even entire linguistic systems, borrowing reflects the dynamic and interconnected nature of human communication. As cultures and languages continue to interact through globalization, the process of language borrowing will likely continue to shape the evolution of languages around the world.

4.9. INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES ON ENGLISH-LATIN, FRENCH, SCANDINAVIAN, INDIAN

English has a rich history of borrowing words and linguistic features from various languages due to historical events such as invasions, trade, and colonization. Four significant sources of foreign influence on the English language are **Latin**, **French**, **Scandinavian languages**, and **Indian languages**. Each of these languages contributed to English in different ways, shaping its vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation over time.

1. Latin Influence on English:

Historical Context: Latin has had a profound impact on English, especially through the spread of Christianity and the influence of the Roman Empire. Latin was the language of the church, education, and scholarship for many centuries, and during the Renaissance, Latin became the dominant language of science and intellectual thought in Europe.

Areas of Influence:

- **Vocabulary**: A significant number of English words come directly from Latin, especially in areas related to religion, science, law, and government. Latin was the language of scholarly works, and many Latin words were adopted into English during the Middle Ages and Renaissance.
    - **Examples**:
        - *Religion*: "altar," "baptism," "priest" (from Latin *altare*, *baptismus*, *presbyter*).
        - *Science/Medicine*: "biology," "temperature," "hospital" (from Latin *biologia*, *temperatura*, *hospitale*).
        - *Law and Governance*: "justice," "legal," "evidence" (from Latin *justitia*, *legalis*, *evidentia*).
- **Latin-based Words through French**: In addition to direct borrowings, many Latin words entered English indirectly through French after the Norman Conquest in 1066. For example, "government" and "court" are derived from Old French, which, in turn, borrowed from Latin.

Example: The word "university" comes from the Latin *universitas*, meaning "a whole" or "a community." This was adopted into Old French before entering English.

2. French Influence on English:

Historical Context: The influence of French on English is one of the most significant due to the Norman Conquest in 1066. When the Normans (who spoke a variety of Old French) conquered England, they became the ruling class, and for several centuries, French was the language of the aristocracy, law, and culture in England, while English remained the language of the common people. This resulted in a massive infusion of French vocabulary into English.

Areas of Influence:

- **Vocabulary**: Many English words related to law, government, the arts, and food came from French. French contributed heavily to the English lexicon, especially after the Norman Conquest.
    - **Examples**:
        - *Law and Government*: "court," "judge," "parliament" (from Old French *court*, *juger*, *parlement*).
        - *Art and Literature*: "ballet," "genre," "portrait" (from French *ballet*, *genre*, *portrait*).
        - *Food*: "beef," "pork," "mutton" (from French *boeuf*, *porc*, *mouton*).
- **Grammatical Influence**: Although English grammar remained primarily Germanic, French had some influence on English syntax and the development of certain verb forms. For example, the use of auxiliary verbs like "have" (in forming perfect tenses) is influenced by French.

Example: The English word "government" derives from Old French *governer*, which itself was derived from Latin *gubernare*.

3. Scandinavian Influence on English:

Historical Context: The Viking invasions of England during the 8th and 9th centuries brought Old Norse, a North Germanic language, into contact with Old English. The Scandinavian settlers (mainly Danes) established their own kingdoms in parts of England, and Old Norse influenced the vocabulary, grammar, and syntax of Old English.

Areas of Influence:

- **Vocabulary**: Many English words related to law, navigation, and everyday life came from Old Norse. Scandinavian place names are also prevalent in parts of England that were settled by the Vikings.
    - **Examples**:
        - *Law and Governance*: "law," "legislation" (from Old Norse *lag*, meaning "law").
        - *Everyday Life*: "window" (from Old Norse *vindauga*, meaning "wind eye"), "sky" (from Old Norse *sky*).
        - *Place Names*: Many place names in England, particularly in the north, have Scandinavian origins, such as "Whitby" (from Old Norse *hvita* meaning "white" and *by* meaning "town").
- **Grammatical Influence**: The Old Norse influence on English also extended to grammar, especially the simplification of Old English's complex system of declensions. For instance, the English plural form *-s* (as in "cats") is partly a result of the influence of Old Norse, which also used *-s* for plural nouns.

Example: The word "sky" in English, derived from Old Norse *sky*, replaced the Old English word *heaven* in many contexts, especially in everyday speech.

4. Indian Influence on English:

Historical Context: The British colonization of India (from the mid-18th century until 1947) brought the English language into extensive contact with many Indian languages, including Hindi, Bengali, Tamil, and Urdu, among others. As a result, many words and phrases from these languages have entered English.

Areas of Influence:

- **Vocabulary**: English adopted numerous words related to Indian culture, food, clothing, flora, fauna, and social practices. Many of these words have become so common in English that they are used internationally.
    - **Examples**:
        - *Food*: "curry," "pajamas," "biryani" (from Hindi/Urdu *kari*, *pajama*, *biryani*).
        - *Cultural Terms*: "yoga," "karma," "guru" (from Sanskrit/Indian languages *yoga*, *karma*, *guru*).
        - *Flora and Fauna*: "bungalow" (from Hindi *bangla*), "jungle" (from Hindi *jangal*).
- **Colonial and Administrative Influence**: During British rule in India, English also adopted words related to administration, governance, and the military. Terms like "thug" (from Hindi *thag* meaning "swindler") or "loot" (from Hindi *lūṭ* meaning "plunder") reflect this influence.

Example: The word "pajamas" entered English from the Hindi word *pajama*, which itself came from Persian *pāy-jāma*, meaning "leg clothing."

The influence of **Latin**, **French**, **Scandinavian languages**, and **Indian languages** on English has been significant and enduring. Latin contributed to the development of scientific and academic vocabulary, French shaped legal, governmental, and cultural terms, Scandinavian languages impacted everyday vocabulary and grammar, and Indian languages introduced terms related to culture, food, and administration. This blend of influences has made English a highly adaptable and lexically rich language, with words and structures drawn from a variety of linguistic traditions.

4.10. ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

4.11. LET US SUM UP

Language is a complex and dynamic system of communication used by humans to express thoughts, emotions, and ideas. It consists of spoken, written, or signed forms that allow individuals to interact and convey meaning. Language is essential for social interaction, cultural identity, and the transmission of knowledge across generations. It is governed by a set of rules, known as grammar, which includes syntax (sentence structure), morphology (word formation), phonology (sound system), and semantics (meaning). The structure of language allows speakers to organize and produce an infinite number of sentences from a finite set of elements.

Language can be studied from different perspectives, including **synchronic linguistics**, which examines a language at a particular point in time, and **diachronic linguistics**, which looks at how a language evolves over time. **Historical linguistics** explores the relationships between languages and traces their development from common ancestors. Linguists also explore how languages interact with one another, often leading to **language borrowing**, where words or structures from one language are incorporated into another.

Languages also exhibit significant diversity and complexity, with over 7,000 languages spoken worldwide. Each language reflects the culture, history, and identity of its speakers. Moreover, the study of language extends beyond vocabulary and grammar to encompass **language acquisition**, how children learn language, and the **pragmatics** of language use, or how context influences communication. Overall, language is not just a tool for communication but a key element of human existence, shaping and reflecting our experiences, social structures, and interactions.

4.12. LESSON END ACTIVITY

Language Diversity and Influence Map

Materials Needed:

- Large sheet of paper or whiteboard
- Markers or colored pens
- Reference materials (optional)

Instructions:

- Identify and list the **major language families** (e.g., Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Afro-Asiatic, etc.).
- Choose **languages** within these families and connect them to their **geographical regions** (e.g., English, Spanish, and Hindi in the Indo-European family).
- Identify **foreign influences** on specific languages (e.g., Latin influence on English, French influence on English, etc.), marking these influences on the map.

Explain the following:

- The history of that language (e.g., origin, changes over time).
- Key influences (e.g., other languages, culture, historical events).
- Unique features of that language (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical structures).

Reflection:

- How do you think languages influence each other over time? Why is it important to understand language evolution and borrowing?
- What role does language play in defining cultural identity?

4.13. GLOSSARY

- **Language**: A system of communication using symbols (spoken, written, or signed) to convey meaning.
- **Phonology**: The study of the sounds of speech and how they function in a particular language.
- **Morphology**: The study of the structure of words and how they are formed from smaller units called morphemes.
- **Syntax**: The set of rules governing the structure of sentences and how words are arranged in a language.
- **Semantics**: The study of meaning in language, including how words, phrases, and sentences convey meaning.
- **Pragmatics**: The study of language use in context, including how context affects meaning and communication.
- **Lexicon**: The vocabulary or set of words known and used by a person or language community.
- **Grammar**: The set of rules that govern the structure of a language, including syntax, morphology, and phonology.
- **Dialect**: A variety of a language spoken by a particular group of people, often distinguished by vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.
- **Idiom**: A phrase or expression whose meaning is not predictable from the usual meanings of its words (e.g., “kick the bucket” meaning “to die”).
- **Bilingualism**: The ability to speak and understand two languages fluently.
- **Multilingualism**: The ability to speak and understand more than two languages.
- **Loanword**: A word borrowed from another language and incorporated into the vocabulary of the borrowing language (e.g., "piano" from Italian).
- **Syntax Tree**: A diagram used in linguistics to represent the structure of a sentence according to its syntax.
- **Connotation**: The additional meanings or emotions that a word suggests, beyond its literal definition.

- **Denotation**: The direct, literal meaning of a word or expression, without any emotional associations.
- **Phoneme**: The smallest unit of sound in a language that can distinguish words from each other (e.g., the difference between “bat” and “pat”).
- **Morpheme**: The smallest grammatical unit in a language, which can be a word or a part of a word (e.g., "un-" in “unkown” or "-ed" in “walked”).
- **Accent**: A distinctive way of pronouncing words, typically associated with a particular region, country, or social group.
- **Sociolinguistics**: The study of how language varies and changes in different social contexts and the social factors that influence language use.

4.14. TERM AND QUESTIONS

- How does language function as a system of communication, and what are its key components that allow humans to convey meaning?
- In what ways does human language differ from animal communication, particularly in terms of complexity, abstraction, and symbolic representation?
- How can language be described as a "system of systems," and what are the different subsystems involved, such as phonology, syntax, and semantics?
- What is the difference between synchronic and diachronic linguistics, and how does historical linguistics contribute to our understanding of language evolution?
- What is language borrowing, and how does it occur when one language adopts words or structures from another?
- How has Latin influenced the English language, especially in terms of vocabulary related to science, law, and religion?
- How did the Norman Conquest and French influence the English language, particularly in terms of vocabulary and sentence structure?
- What impact did the Scandinavian languages have on Old English during the Viking invasions, and how did this influence vocabulary and grammar?
- How did Indian languages, especially during British colonial rule, influence the English language, particularly in terms of vocabulary related to food, culture, and administration?

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UNIT-5

VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE

STRUCTURE

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Language is an essential tool for communication, shaping how individuals interact, share ideas, and build cultural connections. It is not static; it evolves to adapt to diverse social, cultural, and geographical contexts. This evolution results in the formation of various *forms and versions of a language*, each uniquely reflecting the identity, background, and circumstances of its speakers. The study of these language varieties provides insights into linguistic diversity and helps in understanding the dynamic nature of human communication. From regional dialects and accents to sociolects, idiolects, and registers, each form of language serves a distinct purpose and embodies a unique aspect of the speaker's identity and community.

5.2. OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit the leaners will learn to understand:

1. To identify and describe key forms of language varieties, including dialects, accents, sociolects, idiolects, registers, pidgins, and creoles.
2. To study the linguistic features that differentiate these varieties, such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and usage.
3. To investigate the historical, social, and environmental factors that contribute to the emergence and evolution of language variations.
4. To compare the role of formal (standardized) language versus informal (non-standardized) language in both spoken and written communication.
5. To assess how language varieties contribute to cultural identity and social interaction within specific communities.
6. To explore the impact of technological advancements, such as social media and digital communication, on modern language use and variation.
7. To create an awareness of the importance of respecting and preserving language diversity as part of cultural heritage and inclusivity in a globalized world.

5.3 LANGUAGE VARIETIES

Language varieties refer to the diverse forms and versions of a language used by different groups of speakers or in various situations. These variations highlight the adaptability and richness of language as it evolves to meet the needs of its users. One common form is the *dialect*, which reflects regional or social differences within a language and can be seen in distinct grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation patterns. For example, American English, British English, and

Australian English are all dialects of the English language. Similarly, *accents* are another type of language variety that indicate differences in pronunciation based on a speaker's regional or social background, such as a Southern U.S. accent or a Scottish accent.

Beyond regional distinctions, language varieties also include *sociolects*, which are specific to social classes or groups, and *idiolects*, which describe an individual's unique way of speaking based on their personal experiences and social interactions. The concept of *register* refers to changes in language based on context, such as using formal language in professional settings versus informal speech with friends. Other significant varieties include *pidgins*, which are simplified languages developed for communication between speakers of different native tongues, and *creoles*, which evolve from pidgins into fully developed native languages, such as Haitian Creole.

Language varieties are also influenced by cultural and social identity, with *ethnolects* representing the speech patterns of specific ethnic groups and *slang* emerging within subcultures to create a sense of belonging or novelty. *Diglossia* is a situation where two distinct versions of a language coexist within a community, often with one serving formal functions and the other for everyday communication. For instance, in Arabic-speaking countries, Modern Standard Arabic is used for formal purposes while regional dialects are spoken informally. Understanding these varieties is essential in the field of *sociolinguistics*, which studies how language interacts with society, culture, and social structures. This exploration reveals how language acts as a reflection of identity, social norms, and historical influences, showcasing its dynamic and multifaceted nature.

In sociolinguistics, language variety—also called lect—is a general term for any distinctive form of a language or linguistic expression. Linguists commonly use language variety (or simply variety) as a cover term for any of the overlapping subcategories of a language, including dialect, register, jargon, and idiolect. Each of these subcategories can look different depending on the region you're in or the cultural background of the person you're conversing with.

Background on Language Varieties

To understand the meaning of language varieties, it's important to consider how lects differ from standard English. Even what constitutes standard English is a topic of hot debate among linguists.

Standard English is a controversial term for a form of the English language that is written and spoken by educated users. For some linguists, standard English is a synonym for good or correct English usage. Others use the term to refer to a specific

geographical dialect of English or a dialect favored by the most powerful and prestigious social group.

Varieties of language develop for a number of reasons: differences can come about for geographical reasons; people who live in different geographic areas often develop distinct dialects—variations of standard English. Those who belong to a specific group, often academic or professional, tend to adopt jargon that is known to and understood by only members of that select group. Even individuals develop idiolects, their own specific ways of speaking.

5.3.1 DIALECT

The word dialect—which contains "lect" within the term—derives from the Greek words dia- meaning "across, between" and legein "speak." A dialect is a regional or social variety of a language distinguished by pronunciation, grammar, and/or vocabulary. The term dialect is often used to characterize a way of speaking that differs from the standard variety of the language. Sarah Thomason of the Linguistic Society of America notes:

> "All dialects start with the same system, and their partly independent histories leave different parts of the parent system intact. This gives rise to some of the most persistent myths about language, such as the claim that the people of Appalachia speak pure Elizabethan English."

Certain dialects have gained negative connotations in the U.S. as well as in other countries. Indeed, the term dialect prejudice refers to discrimination based on a person's dialect or way of speaking. Dialect prejudice is a type of linguicism—discrimination based on dialect. In their article "Applied Social Dialectology," published in "Sociolinguistics: An International Handbook of the Science of Language and Society," Carolyn Temple and Donna Christian observe:

> "...dialect prejudice is endemic in public life, widely tolerated, and institutionalized in social enterprises that affect almost everyone, such as education and the media. There is limited knowledge about and little regard for linguistic study showing that all varieties of a language display systematicity and that the elevated social position of standard varieties has no scientific linguistic basis."

Due to this kind of dialectic prejudice, Suzanne Romaine, in "Language in Society," notes: "Many linguists now prefer the term variety or lect to avoid the sometimes pejorative connotations that the term 'dialect' has."

Types of Lects

In addition to the distinctions discussed previously, different types of lects also echo the types of language varieties:

Regional dialect: dialect, a variety of a language that signals where a person comes from. The notion is usually interpreted geographically (regional dialect), but it also has some application in

relation to a person's social background (class dialect) or occupation (occupational dialect). The word dialect comes from the Ancient Greek dialektos "discourse, language, dialect," which is derived from dialegesthai "to discourse, talk." A dialect is chiefly distinguished from other dialects of the same language by features of linguistic structure—i.e., grammar (specifically morphology and syntax) and vocabulary. In morphology (word formation), various dialects in the Atlantic states have clim, clum, clome, or cloome instead of climbed, and, in syntax (sentence structure), there are "sick to his stomach," "sick at his stomach," "sick in," "sick on," and "sick with." On the level of vocabulary, examples of dialectal differences include American English subway, contrasting with British English underground; and corn, which means "maize" in the United States, Canada, and Australia, "wheat" in England, and "oats" in Scotland. Nevertheless, while dialects of the same language differ, they still possess a common core of features.

Although some linguists include phonological features (such as vowels, consonants, and intonation) among the dimensions of dialect, the standard practice is to treat such features as aspects of accent. In the sound system of American English, for example, some speakers pronounce greasy with an "s" sound, while others pronounce it with a "z" sound. Accent differences of this kind are extremely important as regional and class indicators in every language. Their role is well recognized in Great Britain, for example, where the prestige accent, called Received Pronunciation, is used as an educated standard and differences in regional accent, both rural and urban, are frequent. There is far less accent variation in Canada, Australia, and large parts of the United States.

Frequently, the label dialect, or dialectal, is attached to substandard speech, language usage that deviates from the accepted norm—e.g., the speech of many of the heroes of Mark Twain's novels. On the other hand, the standard language can also be regarded as one of the dialects of a given language, though one that has attracted special prestige. In a historical sense, the term dialect is sometimes applied to a language considered as one of a group deriving from a common ancestor. Thus, English, Swedish, and German are sometimes treated as Germanic dialects.

There is often considerable difficulty in deciding whether two linguistic varieties are dialects of the same language or two separates but closely related languages; this is especially true in parts of the world where speech communities have been little studied. In these cases, especially, decisions regarding dialects versus languages must be to some extent arbitrary.

Normally, dialects of the same language are considered to be mutually intelligible, while different languages are not. Intelligibility between dialects is, however, almost never absolutely complete. On the other hand, speakers of closely related languages can still communicate to a certain extent when each uses his own mother tongue. Thus, the criterion of intelligibility is quite relative. In more-developed societies the distinction between dialects and related languages is easier to make because of the existence of standard languages.

Sometimes sociopolitical factors play a role in drawing the distinction between dialect and language. Linguistic varieties that are considered dialects in one set of historical circumstances may be considered languages in another. Before the ethnic conflicts in the Balkans in the 1990s, Serbo-Croatian was viewed by its speakers as a single language consisting of several dialects, spoken in Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Croatia; afterward, local communities began to talk of Croatian and Serbian as distinct languages.

Among the synonyms for dialect, the word idiom refers to any kind of dialect, or even language, whereas patois, a term from French, denotes rural or provincial dialects, often with a deprecatory connotation. A similar term is vernacular, which refers to the common, everyday speech of the ordinary people of a region. An idiolect is the dialect of an individual person at one time. This term implies an awareness that no two persons speak in exactly the same way and that each person's dialect is constantly undergoing change—e.g., by the introduction of newly acquired words. Most recent investigations emphasize the versatility of each person's speech habits according to levels or styles of language usage.

Geographic dialects: The most widespread type of dialectal differentiation is regional, or geographic. As a rule, the speech of one locality differs at least slightly from that of any other place. Differences between neighbouring local dialects are usually small, but, in traveling farther in the same direction, differences accumulate. Every dialectal feature has its own boundary line, called an isogloss (or sometimes heterogloss). Isoglosses of various linguistic phenomena rarely coincide completely, and by crossing and interweaving they constitute intricate patterns on dialect maps. Frequently, however, several isoglosses are grouped approximately together into a bundle of isoglosses. This grouping is caused either by geographic obstacles that arrest the diffusion of a number of innovations along the same line or by historical circumstances, such as political borders of long standing, or by migrations that have brought into contact two populations whose dialects were developed in noncontiguous areas.

Geographic dialects include local ones (e.g., the Yankee English of Cape Cod or of Boston, the Russian of Moscow or of Smolensk) or broader regional ones, such as Delaware Valley English, Australian English, or Tuscan Italian. Such entities are of unequal rank; South Carolina English, for instance, is included in Southern American English. Regional dialects do have some internal variation, but the differences within a regional dialect are supposedly smaller than differences between two regional dialects of the same rank. In a number of areas ("linguistic landscapes") where the dialectal differentiation is essentially even, it is hardly justified to speak of regional dialects. This uniformity has led many linguists to deny the meaningfulness of such a notion altogether; very frequently, however, bundles of isoglosses—or even a single isogloss of major importance—permit the division of a territory into regional dialects. The public is often aware of such divisions, usually associating them with names of geographic regions or provinces or with some feature of pronunciation—e.g., Southern English or Russian o-dialects and a-dialects. Especially clear-cut cases of division are those in which geographic isolation has played the principal role—e.g., Australian English or Louisiana French.

Sociolect: Also known as a social dialect, a variety of language (or register) used by a socioeconomic class, a profession, an age group, or any other social group. Another important axis of differentiation is that of social strata. In many localities, dialectal differences are connected with social classes, educational levels, or both. More-highly educated speakers and, often, those belonging to a higher social class tend to use more features belonging to the standard language, whereas the original dialect of the region is better preserved in the speech of the lower and less-educated classes. In large urban centres, innovations unknown in the former dialect of the region frequently develop. Thus, in cities the social stratification of dialects is especially relevant and far-reaching, whereas in rural areas, with a conservative way of life, the traditional geographic dialectal differentiation prevails.

Educational differences between speakers strongly affect the extent of their vocabulary. In addition, practically every profession has its own expressions, which include the technical terminology and sometimes also the casual words or idioms peculiar to the group. Slang too is characterized mainly by a specific vocabulary and is much more flexible than an ordinary dialect, as it is subject to fashion and depends strongly on the speaker's age group. Slang—just as a professional dialect—is used mainly by persons who are in a sense bidialectal; i.e., they speak some other dialect or the standard language, in addition to slang. Dialectal differences also often run parallel with the religious or racial division of the population.

Ethnolect: A lect spoken by a specific ethnic group. For example, Ebonics, the vernacular spoken by some African-Americans, is a type of ethnolect, notes e2f, a language-translation firm.

Idiolect: According to e2f, the language or languages spoken by each individual. For example, if you are multilingual and can speak in different registers and styles, your idiolect comprises several languages, each with multiple registers and styles.

Dialectal change and diffusion

The basic cause of dialectal differentiation is linguistic change. Every living language constantly undergoes changes in its various elements. Because languages are extremely complex systems of signs, it is inconceivable that linguistic evolution could affect the same elements and even transform them in the same way in all localities where one language is spoken and for all speakers in the same locality. At first glance, differences caused by linguistic change seem to be slight, but they inevitably accumulate with time (e.g., compare Chaucer's English with modern English or Latin with modern Italian, French, Spanish, or Romanian). Related languages usually begin as dialects of the same language.

When a change (an innovation) appears among only one section of the speakers of a language, this automatically creates a dialectal difference. Sometimes an innovation in dialect A contrasts with the unchanged usage (archaism) in dialect B. Sometimes a separate innovation occurs in each of the two dialects. Of course, different innovations will appear in different dialects, so, in comparison with its contemporaries, no one dialect as a whole can be considered archaic in any

absolute sense. A dialect may be characterized as relatively archaic because it shows fewer innovations than the others, or it may be archaic in one feature only.

After the appearance of a new dialectal feature, interaction between speakers who have adopted this feature and those who have not leads to the expansion or the curtailment of its area or even to its disappearance. In a single social milieu (generally the inhabitants of the same locality, generation, and social class), the chance of the complete adoption or rejection of a new dialectal feature is very great; the intense contact and consciousness of membership within the social group fosters such uniformity. When several age groups or social strata live within the same locality and especially when people speaking the same language live in separate communities, dialectal differences are easily maintained.

The element of mutual contact plays a large role in the maintenance of speech patterns; that is why differences between geographically distant dialects are normally greater than those between dialects of neighbouring settlements. This also explains why bundles of isoglosses so often form along major natural barriers—impassable mountain ranges, deserts, uninhabited marshes or forests, or wide rivers—or along political borders. Similarly, racial or religious differences contribute to linguistic differentiation because contact between members of one faith or race and those of another within the same area is very often much more superficial and less frequent than contact between members of the same racial or religious group. An especially powerful influence is the relatively infrequent occurrence of intermarriages, thus preventing dialectal mixture at the point where it is most effective—namely, in the mother tongue learned by the child at home.

Unifying influences on dialects

Communication lines such as roads (if they are at least several centuries old), river valleys, or seacoasts often have a unifying influence. Also, important urban centres, such as Paris, Utrecht, or Cologne, often form the hub of a circular region in which approximately the same dialect is spoken. In such areas, the prestige dialect of the city has obviously expanded. As a general rule, those dialects, or at least certain dialectal features, with greater social prestige tend to replace those that are valued lower on the social scale.

In times of less-frequent contact between populations, dialectal differences increase; in periods of greater contact, they diminish. The general trend in modern times is for dialectal differences to diminish, above all through the replacement of dialectal traits by those of the standard language. Mass literacy, schools, increased mobility of populations, and, more recently, the ever-growing role of mass communications all contribute to this tendency. Naturally, the extent of such unifying action varies greatly in different linguistic domains. Also, the arrival of immigrant groups, especially in growing urban complexes, has increased dialect differentiation somewhat. Nevertheless, the most thorough example of linguistic force exerted by a single dominating civilization belongs to ancient times: in the Hellenistic era, almost all ancient Greek dialects were replaced by the so-called Koine, based on the dialect of Athens.

Mass migrations may also contribute to the formation of a more or less uniform dialect over broad geographic areas. Either the resulting dialect is that of the original homeland of a particular migrating population, or it is a dialect mixture formed by the leveling of differences between migrants from more than one homeland. The degree of dialectal differentiation depends to a great extent on the length of time a certain population has remained in a certain place. Thus, it is understandable that the diversification of the English language is far greater in the British Isles than, for example, in North America (especially if the number of dialectal differences is considered on a comparable area basis, such as the number per 1,000 square miles). In the United States itself much greater diversity is evident between dialects in old colonial America—along the Atlantic coast—than between dialects west of the Appalachians. It is also typical that phonological differences are more far-reaching in Switzerland between Swiss-German dialects than throughout the vast territory where the Russian language is spoken, extending from St. Petersburg to eastern Siberia. Such a situation results not only from migrations of the Russian population (as compared with the centuries of Swiss stability) but also from the contrasting geographic configurations: in Russia there is unobstructed communication in many directions; in mountainous Switzerland the territory is carved into small isolated units.

Migrations and, more rarely, geographic phenomena may in some areas cause a much stronger dialectal differentiation in one direction than in others. Isoglosses in the United States, for example, run predominantly in an east-west direction, reflecting the westward stream of migration during the colonization of areas west of the Appalachians. Similarly, the majority of isoglosses in Russia follow latitude, but in the opposite (west-east) direction.

Focal, relic, and transitional areas

Dialectologists often distinguish between focal areas, which provide sources of numerous important innovations and usually coincide with centers of lively economic or cultural activity, and relic areas, places toward which such innovations are spreading but have not usually arrived. (Relic areas also have their own innovations, which, however, usually extend over a smaller geographic area.) Relic areas or relic phenomena are particularly common in out-of-the-way regional pockets or along the periphery of a particular language's geographic territory. An example of a focal area in the United States is the Boston region, while rural Maine and New Hampshire and Cape Cod and Nantucket Island are typical relic areas.

The borders of regional dialects often contain transitional areas that share some features with one neighbor and some with the other. Such mixtures result from unequal diffusion of innovations from both sides. Similar unequal diffusion in mixed dialects in any region also may be a consequence of population mixture created by migrations.

In regions with many bilingual speakers (e.g., along the border between two languages), dialects of both languages will often undergo changes influenced by the other tongue. This is manifested not only in numerous loanwords but often also in the adoption of phonological or grammatical features. Such phenomena are particularly frequent in a population that once spoke

one language and only later adopted the second language. In extreme cases a so-called creolized language develops. (Creoles are pidgin languages that have become the only or major language of a speech community.)

5.3.2 IDIOLECT

An idiolect refers to an individual's unique way of speaking, influenced by their personal experiences, background, and social interactions. It encompasses specific word choices, speech patterns, and intonation that set one person apart from another, even within the same linguistic community. For instance, while two siblings raised in the same household might share a similar dialect, their idiolects may differ due to unique experiences such as friends they associate with, education, or exposure to media.

5.3.3 JARGON

Jargon refers to the specialized language of a professional or occupational group. Such language is often meaningless to outsiders. American poet David Lehman has described jargon as "the verbal sleight of hand that makes the old hat seem newly fashionable; it gives an air of novelty and specious profundity to ideas that, if stated directly, would seem superficial, stale, frivolous, or false."

George Packer describes jargon in a similar vein in a 2016 article in the New Yorker magazine:

“Professional jargon—on Wall Street, in humanities departments, in government offices—can be a fence raised to keep out the uninitiated and permit those within it to persist in the belief that what they do is too hard, too complex, to be questioned. Jargon acts not only to euphemize but to license, setting insiders against outsiders and giving the flimsiest notions a scientific aura.”

Pam Fitzpatrick, a senior research director at Gartner, a Stamford, Connecticut-based research and advisory firm specializing in high tech, writing on LinkedIn, puts it more bluntly:

"Jargon is waste. Wasted breath, wasted energy. It absorbs time and space but does nothing to further our goal of persuading people to help us solve complex problems."

In other words, jargon is a faux method of creating a sort of dialect that only those on this inside group can understand. Jargon has social implications similar to dialect prejudice but in reverse: It is a way of making those who understand this particular variety of language more erudite and learned; those who are members of the group that understands the particular jargon are considered smart, while those on the outside are simply not bright enough to comprehend this kind of language.

5.3.4 DIALECT BOUNDARIES AND DIGLOSSIA

Dialect Boundaries

Dialect boundaries are the demarcation lines that separate different dialects within a language. These boundaries are often marked by geographical features such as rivers or mountains, which historically limited interaction between groups of speakers. For example, in Italy, the Apennine Mountains have historically created natural barriers that resulted in distinct regional dialects within close proximity.

Diglossia

Diglossia refers to a situation where two distinct varieties of the same language are used under different conditions within a community. Typically, one variety is a "high" (H) form used for formal, official, or literary purposes, while the "low" (L) form is used for everyday communication. An example of diglossia is found in Arabic-speaking countries, where Modern Standard Arabic (H) is used in formal writing and media, while regional dialects (L) are spoken at home and in daily conversations.

5.3.5 STANDARD LANGUAGE

Standard languages arise when a certain dialect begins to be used in written form, normally throughout a broader area than that of the dialect itself. The ways in which this language is used—e.g., in administrative matters, literature, and economic life—lead to the minimization of linguistic variation. The social prestige attached to the speech of the richest, most powerful, and most highly educated members of a society transforms their language into a model for others; it also contributes to the elimination of deviating linguistic forms. Dictionaries and grammars help to stabilize linguistic norms, as do the activity of scholarly institutions and, sometimes, governmental intervention. The base dialect for a country’s standard language is very often the original dialect of the capital and its environs—in France, Paris; in England, London; in Russia, Moscow. Or the base may be a strong economic and cultural centre—in Italy, Florence. Or the language may be a combination of several regional dialects, as are German and Polish.

Even a standard language that was originally based on one local dialect changes, however, as elements of other dialects infiltrate into it over the years. The actual development in any one linguistic area depends on historical events. Sometimes even the distribution of standard languages may not correspond to the dialectal situation. Dutch and Flemish dialects are a part of the Low German dialectal area, which embraces all of northern Germany, as well as the Netherlands and part of Belgium. In one part of the dialectal area, however, the standard language is based on High German, and in the other part the standard language is Dutch or Flemish, depending on the nationality of the respective populations. In the United States, where there is no clearly dominant political or cultural centre—such as London or Paris—and where the territory is enormous, the so-called standard language shows perceptible regional variations in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. All standard languages are in any case spoken in a

variety of accents, though sometimes one particular accent (e.g., Received Pronunciation in Britain) may be most closely associated with the standard because of its shared social or educational origins.

In most developed countries, the majority of the population has an active (speaking, writing) or at least passive (understanding) command of the standard language. Very often the rural population, and not uncommonly the lower social strata of the urban population as well, are in reality bidialectal. They speak their maternal dialect at home and with friends and acquaintances in casual contacts, and they use the standard language in more formal situations. Even the educated urban population in some regions uses the so-called colloquial language informally. In the German-, Czech-, and Slovene-speaking areas of middle Europe, for example, a basically regional dialect from which the most striking local features have been eliminated is spoken. The use of this type of language is supported by psychological factors, such as feelings of solidarity with a certain region and pride in its traditions or the relaxed mood connected with informal behaviour.

In the end, language varieties come down to judgments, often "illogical," that are, according to Edward Finegan in "Language: Its Structure and Use":

> "...imported from outside the realm of language and represent attitudes to particular varieties or to forms of expression within particular varieties."

The language varieties, or lects, that people speak often serve as the basis for judgment, and even exclusion, from certain social groups, professions, and business organizations. As you study language varieties, keep in mind that they are often based on judgments one group is making in regard to another.

5.3.6. PIDGIN AND CREOLE

A **pidgin** is a simplified language that develops as a means of communication between speakers of different native languages who need to trade or interact but do not share a common language. Pidgins have limited vocabulary and simplified grammar. An example is Tok Pisin, initially developed in Papua New Guinea for trade purposes.

When a pidgin becomes established and is adopted as the native language of a community, it evolves into a **creole**. Creoles have more complex grammar and expanded vocabulary, making them fully functional languages. Haitian Creole, derived from French and African languages, is an example of a creole that developed from a pidgin and is now spoken by millions as their first language.

5.3.7. REGISTER AND STYLE

Register is defined as the way a speaker uses language differently in different circumstances. Think about the words you choose, your tone of voice, even your body language. You probably behave very differently chatting with a friend than you would at a formal dinner party or during a job interview. These variations in formality, also called stylistic variation, are known as registers in linguistics.

They are determined by such factors as social occasion, context, purpose, and audience. Registers are marked by a variety of specialized vocabulary and turns of phrases, colloquialisms, the use of jargon, and a difference in intonation and pace.

Registers are used in all forms of communication, including written, spoken, and signed. Depending on grammar, syntax, and tone, the register may be extremely rigid or very intimate. You don't even need to use an actual word to communicate effectively. A huff of exasperation during a debate or a grin while signing "hello" speaks volumes.

Style refers to the way language is used to convey a certain tone or mood, such as humorous, persuasive, or academic. An author may use a poetic style when writing literature and a straightforward style for news reporting.

5.4. LANGUAGE VARIATION

Language Variation

Language variation refers to the differences in speech based on factors like region, social class, ethnicity, age, or gender. It explains why language is not monolithic but diverse and ever-changing. For instance, younger generations may use slang that is unfamiliar to older generations.

Factors influencing variation:

- **Geographical Variation**: Different regions speak the same language but may use different words, phrases, and pronunciations (e.g., *soda* vs. *pop*).
- **Social Variation**: Social class or status influences how language is used. People may use different words or pronunciations based on their socio-economic group.
- **Situational Variation**: The context in which a conversation occurs (e.g., formal vs. informal settings) influences language use.

5.5. SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Sociolinguistics is the study of how language interacts with society, examining why these variations exist and how they function within a community. It explores topics such as language and identity, code-switching (changing between languages or dialects within a conversation), and

language prestige. For example, speakers in a bilingual community might switch between languages depending on the audience to convey social meaning or solidarity.

These aspects of language varieties collectively illustrate how language functions as a dynamic, multifaceted system that adapts to cultural, social, and individual needs. Understanding these elements helps appreciate linguistic diversity and its significance in communication and identity.

Sociolinguistics is the study of how language varies and changes in social contexts. It explores the relationship between language and society, examining how factors like class, gender, age, ethnicity, and occupation influence how individuals use language. It also looks at how social contexts—such as where a conversation takes place, who is involved, and the purpose of communication—shape language use. Sociolinguistics helps us understand the ways in which language reflects and reinforces social structures and inequalities.

Key Concepts in Sociolinguistics

1. **Language Variation**
   Sociolinguists examine how language differs according to various social factors, such as:
   - **Geographical Region**: Speakers from different regions may speak the same language but with distinct regional dialects.
   - **Social Class**: People from different social classes or socioeconomic backgrounds may use different forms of language, often marked by accent, vocabulary, or grammar.
   - **Age**: Younger generations often introduce new words, slang, and grammatical structures that differ from those used by older generations.
   - **Gender**: Sociolinguists study how language use differs between men and women, both in terms of speech patterns and the way language is socially assigned to gendered roles.
2. **Code-Switching**
   Code-switching refers to the practice of switching between different languages or dialects depending on the social situation, context, or audience. It often occurs in bilingual or multilingual communities. For example, a speaker might switch between English and Spanish, or between a formal and informal variety of a language.
   - **Example**: A bilingual person might speak English at work but switch to Spanish when talking with family.
3. **Language and Power**
   Sociolinguists investigate how language is tied to power dynamics in society. Language can reflect social hierarchies, such as:
   - **Prestige Languages**: Some dialects or languages are considered more prestigious or "proper" in certain societies (e.g., Standard English in many English-speaking countries).
   - **Language Discrimination**: Non-standard varieties or dialects can be stigmatized, leading to discrimination against speakers of those varieties.

- **Political and Social Movements**: Language can be a tool for social change, as seen in movements that promote linguistic rights for marginalized groups (e.g., the promotion of regional languages or dialects in areas where they are endangered).

4. **Register and Style**
   Sociolinguistics studies how people adjust their language based on social settings, roles, and relationships. This concept involves:
   - **Register**: The variety of language used for particular purposes or in specific situations (e.g., formal language in a courtroom vs. informal language among friends).
   - **Style**: Refers to an individual's choices in how they speak or write, reflecting their personal identity or group affiliation. People may use different styles depending on the context, such as formal writing versus casual speech.
5. **Sociolinguistic Theories**
   Several sociolinguistic theories explain how and why language varies in society:
   - **Labov's Sociolinguistic Variability**: William Labov's studies in the 1960s helped establish the concept that linguistic variables (pronunciations, grammar) vary according to social factors such as class and education. Labov's famous study of "r" pronunciation in New York City provided evidence for linguistic variation across social strata.
   - **Milroy's Network Theory**: This theory emphasizes how social networks influence language use. According to Milroy, people's language is shaped by the strength and structure of their social relationships (e.g., close-knit communities tend to maintain a more uniform dialect, while loose networks may show more variation).
   - **Bourdieu's Theory of Linguistic Capital**: Pierre Bourdieu argued that language is a form of social capital that can be used to gain prestige, influence, or power in society. The way people speak can either elevate or limit their social opportunities depending on how their speech aligns with the dominant linguistic norms.

Key Terms in Sociolinguistics

- **Dialect**: A variety of language spoken by a group of people based on region, class, or ethnicity.
- **Pidgin**: A simplified form of speech created for communication between groups who do not share a common language.
- **Creole**: A fully developed language that evolves from a pidgin and becomes the first language of a community.
- **Diglossia**: A situation in which two varieties of the same language are used in different social contexts (e.g., formal and informal varieties).

- **Language Ideology**: Beliefs about language, often tied to social values, that shape how people view different languages or dialects.

Applications of Sociolinguistics

1. **Education**
   Sociolinguistics informs how language is taught, especially in multilingual or multicultural settings. Understanding how students from different linguistic backgrounds may vary in their language usage can help educators design more inclusive and effective curricula.
2. **Social Justice and Linguistic Rights**
   Sociolinguistics plays a role in advocating for the linguistic rights of marginalized communities. For example, linguists may work to preserve endangered languages or challenge the social stigmas surrounding certain dialects.
3. **Forensic Linguistics**
   Sociolinguistic analysis is sometimes used in legal settings to determine authorship or authenticity of documents, assess testimonies, or analyze language in criminal investigations.
4. **Media and Communication**
   Sociolinguistics helps analyze language use in the media, including how language is used to represent social groups, construct identities, or perpetuate stereotypes.

5.6. LET US SUM UP

Language is a dynamic and complex system of communication that varies according to social, geographical, and contextual factors. Various **language varieties**, such as **dialects**, **idiolects**, **jargon**, and more, illustrate the diversity of language use within different communities.

- **Dialect** refers to regional or social variations of a language distinguished by pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.
- **Idiolect** represents an individual's unique use of language, influenced by personal experiences and context.
- **Jargon** refers to specialized language used by specific groups or professions, often to communicate more efficiently within a community.
- **Dialect boundaries** are the dividing lines between different dialects, often shaped by geographical or social factors.
- **Diglossia** is the coexistence of two varieties of a language within a community, used in distinct contexts (e.g., formal vs. informal).
- **Standard language** is the codified form of a language used in formal settings, such as education, media, and government.

- **Pidgin** and **Creole** are simplified and fully developed languages that emerge when speakers of different native languages need to communicate.
- **Register and style** are aspects of sociolinguistics that examine the variations in language based on context, audience, and personal choice.
- **Sociolinguistics** as a field studies the intersection between language and society, looking at how language varies according to social groups, identities, and power dynamics.

These concepts are essential to understanding how language functions in society and the factors that influence its evolution and use.

5.7. LESSON END ACTIVITY

To reinforce your understanding of the various language varieties and their implications in society, engage in the following activities:

1. **Identify Dialects**: Pick two dialects of your language or any language you're familiar with (e.g., American English vs. British English). Write down specific differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, or grammar that distinguish them.
2. **Jargon Use**: In your field of study or work, identify some common jargon. Explain what it means to someone who is unfamiliar with the field. Reflect on how jargon shapes communication within the community.
3. **Code-Switching**: Write a short dialogue where you switch between formal and informal language or between two languages (e.g., English and Spanish). Explain why you chose to switch and what social factors influenced your choice.
4. **Diglossia Observation**: If you're in a bilingual or multilingual community, observe the use of different language varieties in different social settings. Record instances of diglossia where a high variety is used in formal contexts and a low variety in informal settings.

5.8. GLOSSARY

- **Dialect**: A regional or social variety of a language distinguished by specific grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.
- **Idiolect**: The unique language usage of an individual.
- **Jargon**: Specialized language used by a specific group, profession, or community.
- **Dialect Boundaries**: The dividing lines where different dialects meet or transition.
- **Diglossia**: A situation where two varieties of a language are used in distinct social contexts (e.g., formal vs. informal).
- **Standard Language**: The official or formal variety of a language, often used in education, government, and media.

- **Pidgin**: A simplified language created for communication between speakers of different languages.
- **Creole**: A fully developed language that evolves from a pidgin and becomes the first language of a community.
- **Register**: Variations in language use depending on context, formality, and audience.
- **Style**: Individual choices in language use based on personal preference or social factors.
- **Sociolinguistics**: The study of the relationship between language and society, examining language variation and social factors influencing communication.

5.9. TERM AND QUESTIONS

- How does language variation reflect social identities and hierarchies in society?
- Can a **pidgin** or **creole** be considered as "legitimate" languages in their own right? Why or why not?
- In your community, are there any noticeable differences in language use across social classes or regions? Provide examples.
- How does the use of **jargon** affect communication within professional communities? Can it create barriers for outsiders?
- Discuss a situation where you observed **code-switching** or **diglossia**. How did the social context influence the language choice?

5.10.REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT-6

PHONETICS

STRUCTURE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This unit shall introduce the learner to the various components and processes that are at work in the production of human speech. The learner will also be introduced to the application of speech mechanism, Organs of Speech, Classification and Description of Speech Sounds, The Phoneme, The Allophones, The Syllable in other domains such as medical sciences and technology. After reading the module the learner will be able to distinguish speech from other forms of human communication and will be able to describe in detail the stages and processes involved in the production of human speech.

6.2. OBJECTIVES

After Reading this Unit the learners will be able to:

1. **To Classify Speech Sounds**
    - Identify and categorize sounds based on their articulatory and acoustic properties.
2. **To Examine Suprasegmental Features**
    - Analyze aspects like stress, intonation, and rhythm in speech.
3. **To Study Cross-Linguistic Sound Patterns**
    - Compare phonetic features across different languages and dialects.
4. **To Enhance Communication Tools**
    - Contribute to the development of speech recognition, synthesis, and linguistic databases.
5. **To Provide Practical Solutions**
    - Assist in diagnosing speech disorders and improving pronunciation in language learners.

6.3.PHONETICS

Phonetics Linguistic sounds are produced by pushing air from the lungs out through the mouth, sometimes by way of the nasal cavity. The movement of the air can then be manipulated by the anatomy of the mouth and throat to produce different sounds. In actual writing, the same sound may often be spelt different ways. For instance, George Bernard Shaw once pointed out that the word fish could as easily be spelt ghoti, since gh has the same sound in enough, o has the same sound in women, and ti has the same sound in nation. This makes sounds very hard to study without a more precise indication of what sounds we are referring to. The solution is to adopt a phonetic alphabet which always has the same spelling for the same sound. Linguists use phonetic alphabet called the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). In the IPA, the word fish would be spelt [fˋß]. Many IPA letters are the same as those of the English alphabet, so we place IPA spellings in square brackets to indicate that they are phonetic spellings. Note that many dictionaries give phonetic spellings as pronunciation guides, but not all dictionaries use the IPA. Likewise, the system of Phonics does not use the IPA. When looking at phonetic spellings, make sure you know what system you are using. Note also that linguists in the United States do not always follow the accepted international standard. For instance, most linguists in the United States would transcribe fish as [fˋš]. The individual differences will be described under the section on Phonology below. Consonants Consonants are produced by restricting and then releasing the flow of air in three ways: vibrating the vocal cords, changing the part of the anatomy which restricts the air flow, and changing the extent to which the air flow is restricted. Consonants with relatively little vibration of the vocal cords are called voiceless consonants. Consonants with relatively more vibration of the vocal cords are called voiced. Consonants fall into the following categories, depending on what part of the anatomy is used to restrict the air flow:

- Labial - Air flow is restricted with the lips.
- Dental - Air flow is restricted with the teeth.

- Labiodental - Air flow is restricted with the top teeth on the bottom lip (if both lips are used the sound is called bilabial).
- Alveolar -Air flow is restricted by placing the tongue on the hard plate (alveolum) behind the top front teeth.
- Palatal - Air flow is restricted by placing the tongue on the soft palate behind the alveolum.
- Velar -Air flow is restricted by placing the tongue far back in the mouth.
- Glottal -Air flow is restricted by tightening the folds in the vocal cords (glottis).

Consonants can also be categorized by the extent to which the air flow is restricted:

- Stop - Air flow is stopped and released quickly.
- Fricative - Air flow is released gradually.
- Affricate - Air flow is stopped and released gradually.
- Nasal - Air flow is channeled through the nasal cavity.
- Liquid - Air flow is channeled around the sides of the tongue.
- Glide - Air flow is only partially restricted (these sounds are often called semi-vowels).

Some languages have other categories, but only the ones above are the only ones that occur in English. Individual consonants can be made up of nearly any combination of the features above. For instance, [b] is a voiced labial stop and /s/ is a voiceless alveolar fricative.

phonetics, the study of speech sounds and their physiological production and acoustic qualities. It deals with the configurations of the vocal tract used to produce speech sounds (articulatory phonetics), the acoustic properties of speech sounds (acoustic phonetics), and the manner of combining sounds so as to make syllables, words, and sentences (linguistic phonetics).

Phonetics deals with:

- **Speech production**: How humans use their vocal apparatus to create sounds.
- **Sound transmission**: How these sounds travel through the air as sound waves.
- **Sound perception**: How listeners interpret and distinguish these sounds.

Unlike phonology, which examines the abstract rules and patterns governing sounds in specific languages, phonetics is concerned with the universal, physical aspects of speech.

Why is Phonetics Important?

Phonetics is essential for:

- **Language Learning**: Improving pronunciation and listening skills.
- **Speech Therapy**: Diagnosing and treating speech disorders.
- **Linguistic Research**: Understanding sound systems across languages.

- **Technology**: Developing speech recognition and synthesis tools.

Key Areas of Study in Phonetics

1. **Articulatory Phonetics**: How speech sounds are produced using the tongue, lips, and other vocal organs.
2. **Acoustic Phonetics**: The physical properties of speech sounds, such as pitch, loudness, and duration.
3. **Auditory Phonetics**: How the human ear and brain perceive and process speech sounds.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

The IPA is a standardized system used in phonetics to transcribe the sounds of any language. It allows linguists and language learners to accurately document and analyze speech sounds, regardless of writing systems.

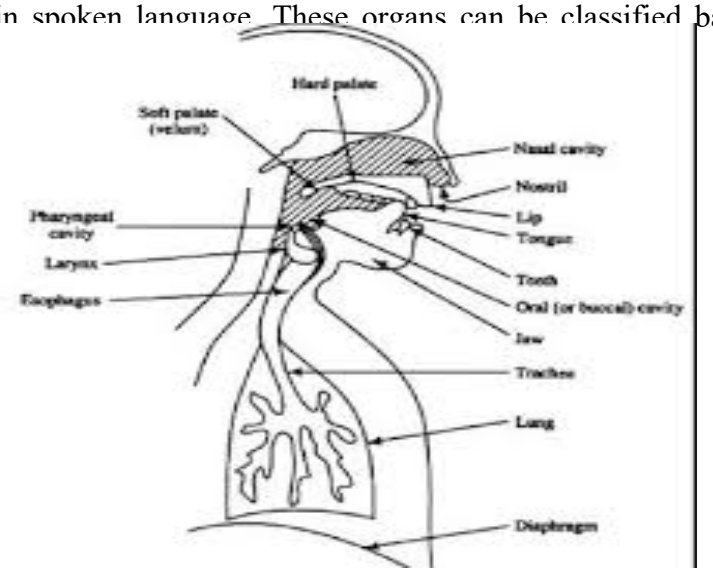
Phonetics bridges the gap between the physical world of sound and the cognitive processes of understanding speech. It plays a crucial role in linguistics and various practical fields like education, technology, and healthcare.

6.4 ORGANS OF SPEECH

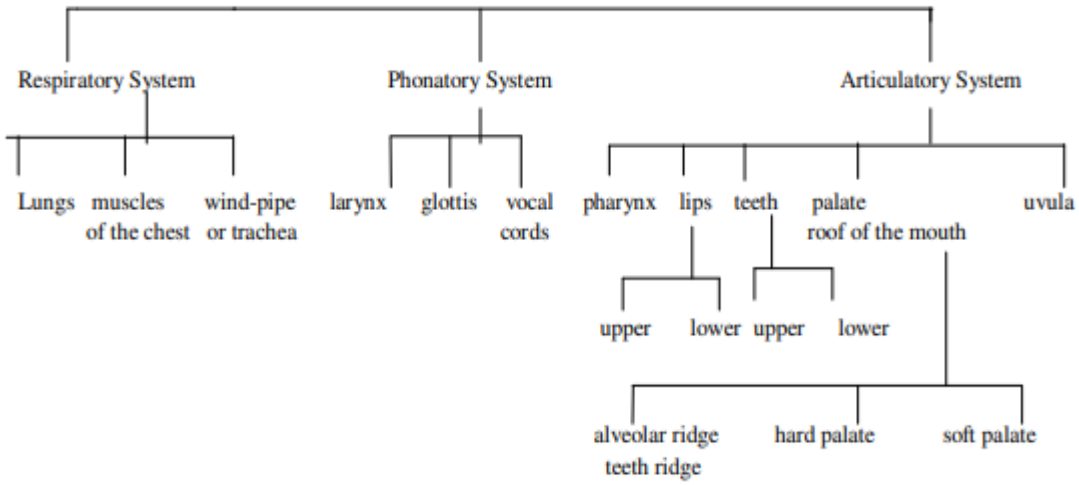
In order to understand speech mechanism, one needs to identify the organs used to produce speech. It is interesting to note that each of these organs has a unique life-function to perform. Their presence in the human body is not for speech production but for other primary bodily functions. In addition to primary physiological functions, these organs participate in the production of speech. Hence speech is said to be the 'overlaid' function of these organs. The organs of speech can be classified according to their position and function.

- **The respiratory organs** consist of: The Lungs and trachea. The lungs compress air and push it up the trachea.
- **The phonatory organs** consist of the Larynx: The larynx contains two membrane- like structures called vocal cords or vocal folds. The vocal folds can come together or move apart.
- **The articulatory organs** consist of**:** lips, teeth, roof of mouth, tongue, oral and nasal cavities

The organs of speech are parts of the human body that work together to produce the sounds used in spoken language. These organs can be classified based on their location and function into



Organs of Speech

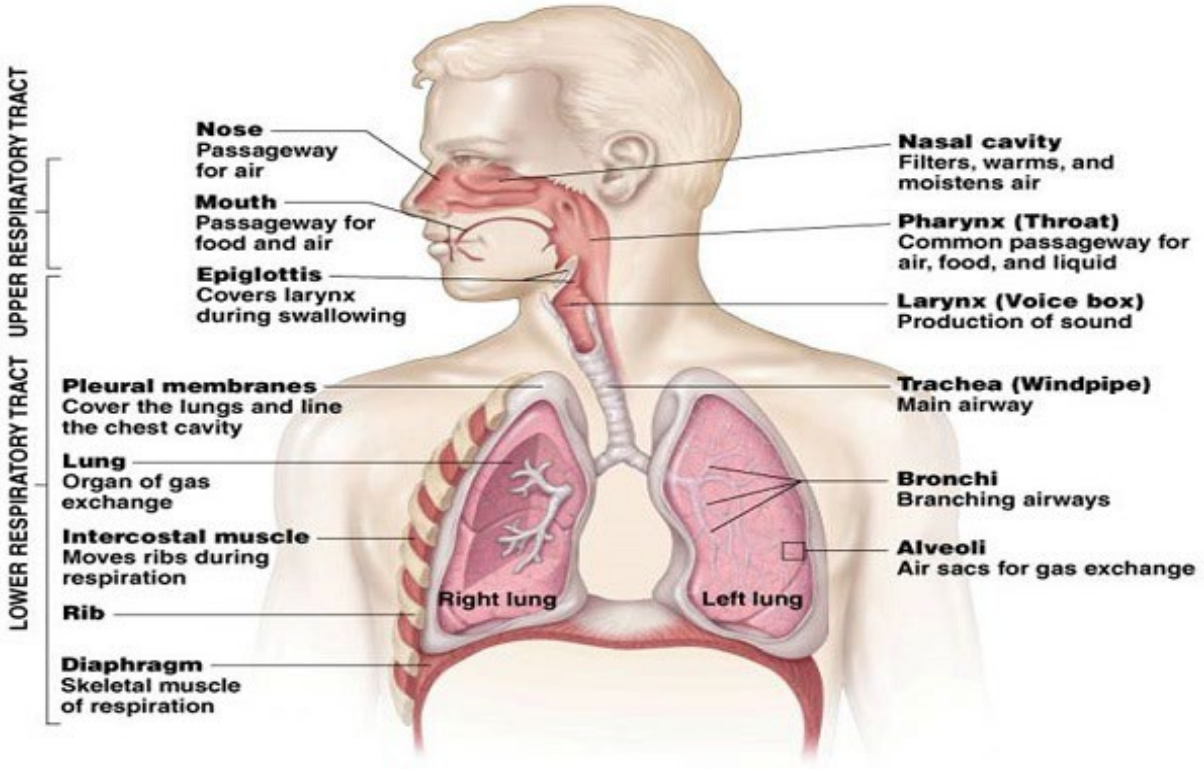


Each plays a specific role in the complex process of speech production.

1. The Respiratory System

The respiratory process involves the movement of air. Through muscle action of the lungs the air is compressed and pushed up to pass through the respiratory tract- trachea, larynx, pharynx, oral cavity, nasal cavity or both. While breathing in, the rib cage is expanded, the thoracic capacity is enlarged and lung volume is increased. Consequently, the air pressure in lungs drops down and the air is drawn into the lungs. While breathing out, the rib cage is contracted, the thoracic capacity is diminished and lung volume is decreased. Consequently, the air pressure in

the lungs exceeds the outside pressure and air is released from the lungs to equalize it. Robert Mannel has explained the process through flowcharts and diagrammatic representations given below:



Once the air enters the pharynx, it can be expelled either through the oral passage, or through the nasal passage or through both depending upon the position of soft movable part of the roof of the mouth known as soft palate or velum.

The respiratory system provides the airflow necessary for sound production. It includes:

- **Lungs**: The primary source of air for speech. When we exhale, air is pushed up through the vocal tract.
- **Trachea (Windpipe)**: The tube that connects the lungs to the larynx, allowing air to flow during speech.
- **Diaphragm**: A muscle below the lungs that controls breathing and provides air pressure for speech.

*Example**:***

- In producing a loud sound like shouting, the diaphragm contracts forcefully, pushing more air out through the lungs.

Egressive and Ingressive Airstream: If the direction of the airstream is inward, it is termed as 'Ingressive airstream. If the direction of the airstream is outward, it is 'Egressive airstream'. Most languages of the world make use of Pulmonic Egressive airstream. Ingressive airstream is associated with Scandinavian languages of Northern Europe. However, no language can claim to use exclusively Ingressive or Egressive airstreams. While most languages of the world use predominantly Egressive airstreams, they are also known to use Ingressive airstreams in different situations. For extended list of use of ingressive mechanism, you may visit Robert Eklund's Ingressive Phonation and Speech page at www.ingressive.info.

Egressive process involves outward expulsion of air. Ingressive process involves inward intake of air. Egressive and Ingressive airstreams can be pulmonic (involving lungs) or non-pulmonic (involving other organs).

Non-Pulmonic Airstreams: There are many languages which make use of non-pulmonic airstream. In these cases, the air expelled from the lungs is manipulated either in the pharyngeal cavity, or in the vocal tract, or in the oral cavity. Three major non pulmonic airstreams are:

- Ejective
- Implosive
- Clicks

In Ejectives, the air is trapped and compressed in the pharyngeal cavity by an obstruction in the mouth with simultaneous closure of the glottis. The larynx makes an upward movement which coincides with the removal of the obstruction causing the air to be released.

In Implosives, the air is trapped and compressed in the pharyngeal cavity by an obstruction in the mouth with simultaneous closure of the glottis. The larynx makes a downward movement which coincides with the removal of the obstruction causing the air to be sucked into the vocal tract.

In Clicks, the air is trapped and compressed in the oral cavity by lowering of the soft palate or velum and simultaneous closure of the mouth. Sudden opening causes air to be sucked in making a clicking sound. For a list of languages which use these airstream mechanisms you may visit https://community.dur.ac.uk/daniel.newman/phon10.pdf

While the process of phonation occurs before the airstream enters the oral or nasal cavity, the quality of speech is also determined by the state of the pharynx. Any irregularity in the pharynx leads to modification in speech quality.

The Phonatory Process: Inside the larynx are two membrane-like structures or folds called the vocal cords. The space between these is called the glottis. The vocal folds can be moved to varied distance. Robert Mannel has described five main positions of the vocal folds:

Voiceless: In this position the vocal folds are drawn far apart so that the air stream passes without any interference**.**

Breathy: Vocal folds are drawn loosely apart. The air passes making whisper like sound **Voiced:** Vocal folds are drawn close and are stretched. The air passes making vibrating sound.

Creaky: The vocal folds are drawn close & vibrate with maximum tension. Air passes making rough creaky sound. This sound is called 'vocal fry' and its use is on the rise amongst urban young women. However, its sustained and habitual use is harmful.

For more details on laryngeal positions, you may visit Robert Mannel's page- http://clas.mq.edu.au/speech/phonetics/phonetics/airstream_laryngeal/laryngeal.html

You may see a small clip on the vocal fry by visiting the link – http://www.upworthy.com/what-is-vocal-fry-and-why-doesnt-anyone-care-when-men-talk- like-that

The Mouth The mouth is the major site for articulatory processes of speech production. It contains active articulators that can move and take different positions such as the tongue, the lips, the soft palate. There are passive articulators that cannot move but combine with the active articulators to produce speech. The teeth, the teeth ridge or the alveolar ridge, and the hard palate are the passive articulators.

Amongst the active articulators, the tongue can take the maximum number of positions and combinations to. Being an active muscle, its parts can be lowered or raised. The tongue is a major articulator in the production of vowel sounds. Position of the tongue determines the acoustics in the oral cavity during articulation of vowel sounds. For the purpose of identifying and describing articulatory processes, the tongue has been classified on two parameters.

a. The part of the tongue that is raised during the articulation process. There are four markers to classify the height to which the tongue is raised

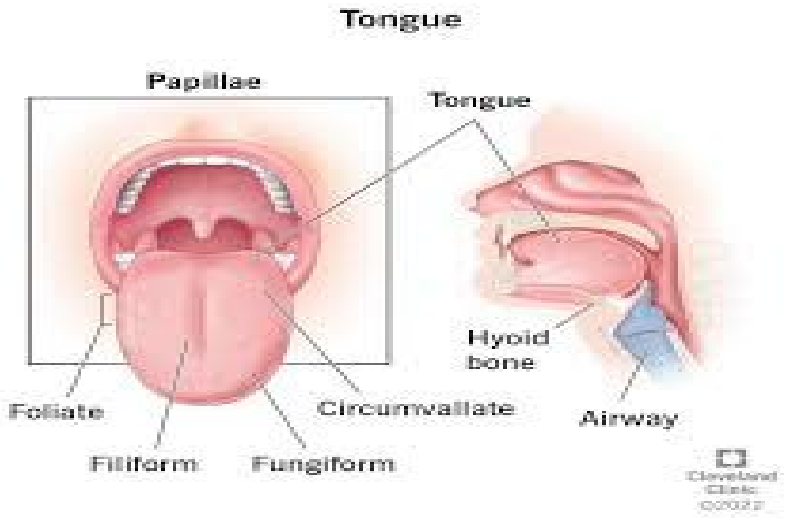
- Maximum height
- Minimum height
- Two third of maximum height

- One third of maximum height

b. The height to which the tongue is raised during the articulation process. Three main parts of the tongue are identified as Front, Back, and Center.

For the purpose of description the positions of the tongue are diagrammatically represented through the tongue quadrilateral.

- **Close:** The Maximum height is called the high position or the close position. This is because the gap between the tongue and the roof of mouth is nearly closed.
- **High-Mid or Half Close**: Two third of maximum is called high- mid position or half – close position
- **Low-Mid or Half Open:** One third of maximum is called low – mid position or half-open position
- **Low or Open:** The Minimum height is called the Low or the Open position. This permits the maximum gap between the tongue and the roof of mouth.



The tongue also acts as an active articulator on the roof of the mouth to create obstruction in the oral cavity.

Lips: The lips are two strong muscles. In speech production the movement of the upper lip is less than that of the lower lip. The lips take different shapes: Rounded, Neutral or Spread

Teeth: The Upper Teeth are Passive Articulators.

The roof of the mouth:

The roof of the mouth has a hard portion and a soft portion which are fused seamlessly. The hard portion comprises of the Alveolar Ridge and the Hard Palate. The soft portion comprises of the Velum and the Uvula. The anterior part of the roof of the mouth is hard and unmovable. It begins from the irregular surface called alveolar ridge which lies behind the upper teeth. The alveolar ridge is followed by the hard palate which extends up to the centre of the tongue. The posterior part of the roof of the mouth is soft and movable. It lies after the hard palate and extends up to the small structure called the uvula.

The soft palate: It is movable and can take different positions during speech production.

- **Raised position:** In raised position the soft palate rests against the back of the mouth. The nasal passage is fully blocked and air passes through the mouth
- **Lowered Position:** In lowered position the soft palate rests against the back part of tongue in such a way that the oral passage is fully blocked and air passes through the nasal passage.
- **Partially lowered Position:** In partially lowered position, the oral as well as the nasal passages are partially open. Pulmonic air passes though the mouth as well as the nose to create 'nasalized' sounds.

The hard palate lies between the alveolar ridge and velum. It is a hard and unmovable part of the roof of the mouth. It lies opposite to the centre of the tongue and acts as a passive articulator against the tongue to produce sounds. Sounds produced with the involvement of the hard palate are called palatal sounds.

The alveolar ridge is the wavy part that lies just behind the teeth ridge opposite to the front of the tongue. It acts as a passive articulator against the tongue to produce sounds. Sounds produced with the involvement of the Alveolar ridge are called Alveolar sounds. Some sounds are created with the involvement of the posterior region of the Alveolar ridge. These sounds are called post alveolar sounds. Sometimes sounds are created with the involvement of the hindmost part of the alveolar ridge and the foremost part of the hard palate. Such sounds are called palato alveolar sounds.

Air stream mechanisms involved in speech production

The flow of air or the airstream is manipulated in a number of ways during production of speech. This is done with the movement of the active articulators in the oral cavity or the larynx. In this process the air stream plays a major role in the production of speech sound. Air stream works on the concept of air pressure. If the air pressure inside the mouth is greater than the pressure in the atmosphere, air will escape outward to create a balance. If the air pressure inside the mouth is lower than the pressure outside because of expansion of the oral or pharyngeal cavity, the air will

move inward into the mouth to create balance. On the basis of the nature of the obstruction and manner of release, the following classification has been made:

Plosive: In this process there is full closure of the passage followed by sudden release of air. The air is compressed and when the articulators are suddenly removed the air in the mouth escapes with an explosive sound.

Affricate: In this process there is full closure of the passage followed by slow release of air.

Fricative: In this process the closure is not complete. The articulators come together to create a narrow passage. Air is compressed to pass through this narrow stricture so that air escapes with audible friction.

Nasal: The soft palate is lowered so that the oral cavity is closed. Air passes through the nasal passage creating nasal sounds. If the soft palate is partially lowered air passes simultaneously through the oral and nasal passages creating the 'nasalized' version of sounds. Lateral: The obstruction in the mouth is such that the air is free to pass on both sides of the obstruction.

Glide: The position of the articulators undergoes change during the articulation process. It begins with the articulators taking one position and then smoothly moving to another position.

2. The Phonatory System

The phonatory system generates voice by vibrating the vocal cords (vocal folds). It includes:

- **Larynx (Voice Box)**: Houses the vocal cords.
- **Vocal Cords (Folds)**: Two bands of tissue that vibrate when air passes through them, creating voiced sounds (e.g., [z], [b]).
- **Glottis**: The space between the vocal cords. The glottis can open (for breathing) or close (for voiced sounds).

*Example**:***

- The difference between the sounds [s] and [z] lies in voicing. [s] is voiceless (vocal cords do not vibrate), while [z] is voiced (vocal cords vibrate).

3. The Articulatory System

The articulatory system shapes the airflow into specific speech sounds. It involves several movable and immovable structures in the vocal tract.

Movable Articulators

1. **Tongue**:
   - The most versatile articulator.
   - Divided into parts: tip, blade, front, back, and root.
   - Used for forming consonants like [t], [k], and vowels like [i], [u].

   Example:

   - The tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge to produce [t].
2. **Lips**:
   - Used for creating bilabial sounds ([p], [b], [m]) and rounded vowels ([u], [o]).

   Example:

   - The lips come together to produce the bilabial stop [b] as in "bat."
3. **Soft Palate (Velum)**:
   - Controls the airflow between the oral and nasal cavities.
   - Raised for oral sounds ([k], [g]) and lowered for nasal sounds ([m], [n], [ŋ]).

   Example:

   - The velum is lowered to produce the nasal sound [n] as in "nose."
4. **Lower Jaw (Mandible)**:
   - Helps in opening and closing the mouth during speech.
   - Important for vowel articulation.

   Example:

   - Lowering the jaw produces open vowels like [a] in "father."
5. **Uvula**:
   - The small fleshy structure at the back of the velum.
   - Used for uvular sounds in some languages (e.g., French [ʁ] as in "rouge").

Immovable Articulators

1. **Teeth**:

- Serve as a point of contact for sounds like [f] and [v] (labiodental) or [θ] and [ð] (dental).

Example:

- The lower lip touches the upper teeth to produce the sound [f] as in "fun."

2. **Alveolar Ridge**:
   - The bumpy ridge behind the upper teeth.
   - Used for sounds like [t], [d], [s], and [z].

Example:

- The tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge to produce the sound [t] in "time."

3. **Hard Palate**:
   - The hard, bony structure forming the roof of the mouth.
   - Used for palatal sounds like [ʃ] in "shoe" and [j] in "yes."

Example:

- The front of the tongue approaches the hard palate to produce [j].

4. The Nasal Cavity

- Plays a role in producing nasal sounds.
- Air passes through the nose when the velum is lowered.

*Example**:***

- The sound [m] in "man" is nasal because the airflow is directed through the nose.

5. The Oral Cavity

- Shapes sounds using the tongue, lips, and other articulators.
- Responsible for the majority of speech sounds.

*Example**:***

- The sound [k] in "cat" is formed when the back of the tongue touches the velum in the oral cavity.

Summary Table of Organs and Their Roles

Organ	System	Role	Example

Lungs	Respiratory	Provides airflow	Speaking loudly
Vocal Cords	Phonatory	Vibrate to produce voiced sounds	[z] in "zebra"
Tongue	Articulatory	Shapes airflow for different sounds	[t] in "top"
Lips	Articulatory	Create bilabial or rounded sounds	[p] in "pat"; [u] in "blue"
Velum	Articulatory	Controls oral and nasal airflow	[k] in "kite"; [n] in "net"
Teeth	Articulatory	Serve as a contact point for sounds	[f] in "fun"
Alveolar Ridge	Articulatory	Contact point for alveolar sounds	[s] in "sun"
Hard Palate	Articulatory	Shapes sounds involving the tongue	[j] in "yes"
Nasal Cavity	Articulatory	Produces nasal resonance for sounds	[m] in "man"

6.4 THE SPEECH MECHANISM

Introduction: What is speech and why it an academic discipline?

Speech is such a common aspect of human existence that its complexity is often overlooked in day to day life. Speech is the result of many interlinked intricate processes that need to be performed with precision. Speech production is an area of interest not only for language learners, language teachers, and linguists but also people working in varied domains of knowledge. The term ‘speech’ refers to the human ability to articulate thoughts in an audible form. It also refers to the formal one sided discourse delivered by an individual, on a particular topic to be heard by an audience.

The history of human existence and enterprise reveals that ‘speech’ was an empowering act. Heroes and heroines in history used ‘speech’ in clever ways to negotiate structures of power and overcome oppression. At times when the written word was an attribute of the elite and noble classes ‘speech’ was the vehicle which carried popular sentiments. In adverse times ‘speech’ was forbidden or regulated by authority. At such times poets and ordinary people sang their ‘speech’ in double meaning poems in defiance to authority. In present times the debate on an individual’s ‘right to free speech’ is often raised in varied contexts. As an academic discipline Speech Communication gained prominence in the 20th century and is taught in university departments across the globe. Departments of Speech Communication offer courses that engage with the

speech interactions between people in public and private domain, in live as well as technologically mediated situations.

However, the student who peruses a study of 'mechanism of speech production' needs to focus primarily on the process of speech production. Therefore, the human brain and the physiological processes become the principal areas of investigation and research. Hence in this module 'speech' is delimited to the physiological processes which govern the production of different sounds. These include the brain, the respiratory organs, and the organs in our neck and mouth. A thorough understanding of the mechanism of speech production has helped correct speech disorders, simulate speech through machines, and develop devices for people with speech related needs. Needless to say, teachers of languages use this knowledge in the classroom in a variety of ways.

Speech and Language

In everyday parlance the terms 'speech' and 'language' are often used as synonyms. However, in academic use these two terms refer two very different things. Speech is the 'spoken' and 'heard' form of language. Language is a complex system of reception and expression of ideas and thoughts in verbal, non-verbal and written forms. Language can exist without speech but speech is meaningless without language. Language can exist in the mind in the form of a thought, on paper/screen in its orthographic form; it can exist in a gesture or action in its non-verbal form, it can also exist in a certain way of looking, winking or nodding. Thus speech is only a part of the vast entity of language. It is the verbal form of language.

Over the years Linguists have engaged themselves with the way in which speech and language exists within the human beings. They have examined the processes by which language is acquired and learnt. The role of the individual human being, the role of the society/community/the genetic or physiological attributes of the human beings all been investigated from time to time.

Ferdinand de Saussure a Swiss linguist who laid the foundation for Structuralism declared that language is imbibed by the individual within in a society or community. His lectures delivered at the University of Geneva during 1906-1911 were later collected and published in 1916 as *Cours de linguistique générale*. Saussure studied the relationship between speech and the evolution of language. He described language as a system of signs which exists in a pattern or structure. Saussure described language using terms such as '*langue*' '*parole*' and *'langage*'. These terms are complex and cannot be directly translated. It would be misleading to equate Saussure's '*langage*' with 'language'. However at an introductory stage these terms can be described as follows:

American linguist Avram Noam Chomsky argued that the human mind contains the innate source of language and declared that humans are born with a mind that is pre-programmed for language, i.e., humans are biologically programmed to use languages. Chomsky named this inherent human trait as 'Innate Language'. He introduced two other significant terms: 'Competence' and 'Performance'

'Competence' was described as the innate knowledge of language and 'Performance' as its actual use. Thus the concepts of 'Innate Language' 'Language Competence' and 'Language Performance' emerged and language came to be accepted as a cognitive attribute of humans while speech came to be accepted as one of the many forms of language communication. These ideas can be summarized in the chart given below:

In the present times speech and language are seen as interdependent and complementary attributes of humans. Current research focuses on finding the inner connections between speech and language. Consequently, the term 'Speech and Language' is used in most application based areas.

From Theory to Application

It is interesting to note that the knowledge of the intricacies of speech mechanism is used in many real life applications apart from Language and Linguistics. A vibrant area in Speech and Language application is 'Speech and Language Processing'. It is used in Computational Linguistics, Natural Language Processing, Speech Therapy, Speech Recognition and many more areas. It is used to simulate speech in robots. Vocoders and Text to speech function (TTS) also makes use of speech mechanism. In Medical Sciences it is used to design therapy modules for different speech and language disorders, to develop advanced gadgets for persons with auditory needs. In Criminology it is used to recognize speech patterns of individuals and to identify manipulations in recorded speech patterns. Speech processing mechanism is also used in Music and Telecommunication in a major way.

What is Speech Mechanism?

Speech mechanism is a function which starts in the brain, moves through the biological processes of respiration, phonation and articulation to produce sounds. These sounds are received and perceived through biological and neurological processes. The lungs are the primary organs involved in the respiratory stage, the larynx is involved in the phonation stage and the organs in the mouth are involved in the articulatory stage.

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The Brain

The brain plays a very important role in speech. Research on the human brain has led to identification of certain areas that are classically associated with speech. In 1861, French physician Pierre Paul Broca discovered that a particular portion of the frontal lobe governed speech production. This area has been named after him and is known as Broca's area. Injury to this area is known to cause speech loss. In 1874, German neuropsychiatrist Carl Wernicke discovered that a particular area in the brain was responsible for speech comprehension and remembrance of words and images. At a time when brain was considered to be a single organ, Wernicke demonstrated that the brain did not function as a single organ but as a multi pronged organ with distinctive functions interconnected with neural networks. His most important contribution was the discovery that brain function was dependent on these neural networks. Today it is widely accepted that areas of the brain that are associated with speech are linked to each other through complex network of neurons and this network is mostly established after birth, through life experience, over a period of time.

Why do children below the age of 5 years display different patterns and levels of speech and language use even if they are of the same age? Why do adults display similar patterns irrespective of age? Why are children more adept at learning new languages than adults?

It has been observed that chronology and patterning of these neural networks differ from individual to individual and also within the same individual with the passage of time or life experience. The formation of new networks outside the classically identified areas of speech has also been observed in people who have suffered brain injury at birth or through life experience. Although extensive efforts are being made to replicate or simulate the plasticity and creativity of the human brain, complete replication has not been achieved. Consequently, complete simulation of human speech mechanism remains elusive.

The speech mechanism refers to the biological systems and processes that enable humans to produce speech. It involves a coordinated effort among three key systems: the **respiratory system**, the **phonatory system**, and the **articulatory system**. Each system has specific roles in generating, modifying, and shaping speech sounds.

1. The Respiratory System

The respiratory system provides the air pressure and airflow required to produce speech sounds. It consists of:

- **Lungs**: The primary source of air, which acts as the energy for sound production.
- **Trachea**: The windpipe that carries air from the lungs to the larynx.
- **Diaphragm**: A large, dome-shaped muscle below the lungs that controls breathing.
- **Intercostal Muscles**: Muscles between the ribs that assist in inhalation and exhalation.

Role in Speech:

- During **inhalation**, the lungs fill with air. During **exhalation**, air is expelled, providing a steady stream of airflow needed to generate speech sounds.
- Controlled breathing allows speakers to adjust loudness and sustain phrases without running out of breath.

Example:

- The amount of air pushed out can determine the volume of speech. Whispering requires less airflow, while shouting needs a stronger air stream.

2. The Phonatory System

The phonatory system is responsible for producing the vocal sounds. It is located in the throat and includes:

- **Larynx (Voice Box)**: Houses the vocal cords (folds).
- **Vocal Cords**: Flexible bands of muscle that vibrate when air passes through them, creating sound.
- **Glottis**: The space between the vocal cords.

Role in Speech:

- **Voiced Sounds**: Produced when the vocal cords vibrate (e.g., [b], [d], [z]).
- **Voiceless Sounds**: Produced when the vocal cords do not vibrate (e.g., [p], [t], [s]).
- Pitch is adjusted by tightening or loosening the vocal cords.

Example:

- The difference between [s] in "sip" (voiceless) and [z] in "zip" (voiced) is whether the vocal cords vibrate during sound production.

3. The Articulatory System

The articulatory system shapes the sounds generated by the respiratory and phonatory systems into distinct speech sounds. This system includes the vocal tract, which comprises:

- **Oral Cavity**: Contains movable and immovable articulators that shape sounds.
- **Nasal Cavity**: Resonates sounds when the velum (soft palate) is lowered, allowing airflow through the nose.
- **Pharynx**: A tube-like structure above the larynx that directs airflow to the oral or nasal cavities.

Key Articulators:

1. **Tongue**: The most versatile articulator, divided into the tip, blade, front, and back. It creates sounds like [t], [k], and vowels.
    - **Example**: The tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge to produce [t] in "top."
2. **Lips**: Used to create bilabial sounds ([p], [b]) and rounded vowels ([u]).
    - **Example**: The lips come together to produce the bilabial stop [b] in "bat."
3. **Velum (Soft Palate)**: Controls airflow between the oral and nasal cavities. Raised for oral sounds ([g]) and lowered for nasal sounds ([n]).
    - **Example**: The velum is lowered to produce the nasal [m] in "man."
4. **Teeth**: Serve as a point of contact for sounds like [f] and [v].
    - **Example**: The lower lip touches the upper teeth to produce [f] in "fun."
5. **Hard Palate**: The roof of the mouth, used for sounds like [j].
    - **Example**: The front of the tongue approaches the hard palate to produce [j] in "yes."
6. **Alveolar Ridge**: The bony ridge behind the upper teeth, used for sounds like [s].
    - **Example**: The tongue tip touches the alveolar ridge to produce [s] in "sun."
7. **Jaw (Mandible)**: Controls the opening and closing of the mouth.
    - **Example**: The jaw lowers to articulate open vowels like [a] in "father."

Role in Speech:

- The articulators work together to modify the airflow and vibrations into specific consonants, vowels, and suprasegmental features like stress and intonation.

4. Suprasegmental Features of the Speech Mechanism

Suprasegmental features enhance speech by adding rhythm, melody, and emphasis. These include:

- **Stress**: Emphasis on certain syllables or words.
  - **Example**: The word "record" is stressed differently as a noun ([ˈrɛk.ɚd]) and a verb ([rɪˈkɔrd]).
- **Intonation**: The rise and fall of pitch in speech.
  - **Example**: A rising intonation at the end of a sentence often indicates a question.
- **Rhythm**: The pattern of stresses and pauses in speech.
  - **Example**: English tends to have a stress-timed rhythm, where stressed syllables occur at regular intervals.

The Speech Mechanism Process

1. **Initiation**: Air is expelled from the lungs (respiratory system).
2. **Phonation**: The airflow vibrates the vocal cords to produce sound (phonatory system).
3. **Articulation**: The sound is shaped into distinct speech sounds by the articulators (articulatory system).
4. **Resonance**: The oral and nasal cavities enhance the quality of the sound.

The speech mechanism is a sophisticated and coordinated system involving respiration, phonation, and articulation. Each component plays a vital role in producing the wide variety of sounds used in human languages. Understanding the speech mechanism not only aids in linguistic studies but also supports applications in speech therapy, language teaching, and voice technology.

Speech mechanism is a complex process unique to humans. It involves the brain, the neural network, the respiratory organs, the larynx, the oral cavity, the nasal cavity and the organs in the mouth. Through speech production humans engage in verbal communication. Since earliest times efforts have been made to comprehend the mechanism of speech. In 1791 Wolfgang von Kempelen made the first speech synthesizer. In the first few decades of the twentieth century scientific inventions such as x-ray, spectrograph, and voice recorders provided new tools for the study of speech mechanism. In the later part of the twentieth century electronic innovations were followed by the digital revolution in technology. These developments have made new revelations and have given new direction to the knowledge of human speech mechanism. In the digital world an understanding of speech mechanism has led to new applications in speech synthesis. Speech mechanism studies in present times are divided into areas of super specialization which focus intensively on any specialized attribute of speech mechanism.

6.5 CLASSIFICATION AND DESCRIPTION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

The concept that speech is primary and writing is secondary has changed the way of English Language Teaching. This chapter deals with speech sounds and classification of speech sounds in relation with consonants.

Being able to describe a consonant sound has many benefits.

- If you're teaching English as a second language, knowing how consonants are pronounced will help you to show your students where and how to make the sounds themselves.
- If you're a student learning English as a second language, you'll be able to sound more like a native English speaker if you know how and where English consonants are made.
- If you're a therapist, you'll be able to help your patients to produce the sounds.

- **Speech Sounds: Meaning and Definition**

- Because sounds are present in all languages regardless of orthography, linguists needed a way to represent the same sounds in different languages, no matter in which language they occur. Sounds are described not by how they sound to the ear, but rather how they are produced in the vocal tract. Sounds are produced my moving the articulators (things that can be moved) within the vocal tract (lips, tongue, etc). Speech involves producing sounds from the voice box. In English, there are no one- to -one relations between the system of writing and the system of pronunciation. The alphabet, which we use to write English, has 26 letters but in English speech sounds are approximately 44.The number of speech sounds in English varies from dialect to dialect.

- To represent the full spectrum of sounds without using different orthographic systems, a universal alphabet of sounds has been developed. Let's not forget that Phonemes in oral languages are not physical sounds, but mental abstractions of speech sounds. A phoneme is a family of speech sounds (phones) that the speakers of a language think of as being, and usually hear as, the same sound. A perfect alphabet is the one that has one symbol for each phoneme. The IPA, or International Phonetic Alphabet uses a single symbol for each specific sound. Sometimes these symbols match the letters in English, which represent these sounds. Sometimes they do not.

English Phonemes

Infants begin making sounds at birth; those early sounds in the form of cries can be easily recognized. As the infant continues to mature, cooing and babbling noises develop into consonants and vowel sounds. These early pre-consonantsand pre vowel sounds gradually become shaped into words. But phoneme development in neonates for purpose of speech generally begins between the first and second birthdays.

Phoneme is the basic linguistic unit, denoted by a character enclosed with forward slashes or square braces (e.g. the symbol /i/ represents the vowel sound heard in the word team). Phonemes may be classified and described according to a number of criteria. They may be divided, for example, into vowels and consonants. In a language the number of phonemes is fixed. Meaning depends heavily on the inter- relationship of phonemes and morphemes. That's why modern linguistics studies language as a system. It studies phonemes at the lowest level and sentences at the highest level through syllables, morphemes, words and phrases.

In PHONETICS, consonants are discussed in terms of three anatomical and physiological factors:

1. The state of the glottis (whether or not there is VOICE or vibration in the larynx),
2. The place of articulation (that part of the vocal apparatus with which the sound is most closely associated),
3. And the manner of articulation (how the sound is produced).

Articulators above the larynx

All the sounds we make when we speak are the result of muscles contracting. The muscles in the chest that we use for breathing produce the flow of air that is needed for almost all speech sounds; muscles in the larynx produce many different modifications in the flow of air from the chest to the mouth. After passing through the larynx, the air goes through what we call the vocal tract, which ends at the mouth and nostrils; we call the part comprising the mouth the oral cavity and the part that leads to the nostrils the nasal cavity. Here the air from the lungs escapes into the atmosphere. We have a large and complex set of muscles that can produce changes in the shape of the vocal tract, and in order to learn how the sounds of speech are produced it is necessary to become familiar with the different parts of the vocal tract. These different parts are called articulators, and the study of them is called articulatory phonetics.

The pharynx is a tube, which begins just above the larynx. It is about 7 cm long in women and about 8 cm in men, and at its top end it is divided into two, one part being the back of the oral cavity and the other being the beginning of the way through the nasal cavity. If you look in your mirror with your mouth open, you can see the back of the pharynx.

ii)The soft palate or velum is in a position that allows air to pass through the nose and through the mouth. Often in speech it is raised so that air cannot escape through the nose. The other important thing about the soft palate is that it is one of the articulators that can be touched by the tongue. While making the sounds k, À the tongue is in contact with the lower side of the soft palate, and we call these velar consonants.

iii)The hard palate is often called the “roof of the mouth”. Its smooth curved surface can be felt with the tongue. A consonant made with the tongue close to the hard palate is called palatal. The sound j in ‘yes’ is palatal.

iv)The alveolar ridge is between the top front teeth and the hard palate. Its shape can be felt with the tongue. These can be only seen by dentists with the help of a very small mirror used by them. Sounds made with the tongue touching here (such as t, d, n) are called alveolar.

v)The tongue is a very important articulator and it can be moved into many different places and different shapes. It is usual to divide the tongue into different parts, though there are no clear dividing lines within its structure: tip, blade, front, back and root. (This use of the word “front” often seems rather strange at first.)

vi)The teeth (upper and lower) are shown at the front of the mouth, immediately behind the lips. The tongue is in contact with the upper side teeth for most speech sounds. Sounds made with the tongue touching the front teeth, such as English are called dental.

vii.The lips are important in speech. They can be pressed together (when we produce the sounds p, b), brought into contact with the teeth (as in f, v), or rounded to produce the lip-shape for vowels like uà. Sounds in which the lips are in contact with each other are called bilabial, while those with lip-to-teethcontact are called labiodental.

Speech sounds are the basic units of spoken language. They are classified and described based on how they are produced, their acoustic properties, and their function in language. Linguists primarily use the **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** to systematically represent these sounds. Speech sounds are broadly categorized into **vowels** and **consonants**, with each group further subdivided based on specific articulatory and acoustic criteria.

1. Classification of Speech Sounds

A. Vowels

Vowels are speech sounds produced without significant obstruction of the airflow in the vocal tract. The tongue, lips, and jaw shape the oral cavity to modify resonance.

Classification Criteria:

1. **Height of the Tongue**:
    - High (Close): Tongue is close to the roof of the mouth (e.g., [i] in "seat").
    - Mid: Tongue is positioned between high and low (e.g., [e] in "set").
    - Low (Open): Tongue is far from the roof of the mouth (e.g., [a] in "father").
2. **Backness of the Tongue**:
    - Front: Tongue is positioned towards the front of the mouth (e.g., [i]).
    - Central: Tongue is in the middle (e.g., [ə] in "sofa").
    - Back: Tongue is positioned towards the back of the mouth (e.g., [u] in "boot").
3. **Lip Rounding**:
    - Rounded: Lips form a circular shape (e.g., [u]).
    - Unrounded: Lips are spread or neutral (e.g., [i]).
4. **Tenseness**:
    - Tense: Produced with greater muscle tension (e.g., [i]).
    - Lax: Produced with less tension (e.g., [ɪ] in "bit").

Example:

- [i] in "seat" is a high, front, unrounded, tense vowel.
- [a] in "father" is a low, back, unrounded vowel.

B. Consonants

Consonants are produced with a significant obstruction of airflow in the vocal tract. They are classified based on **place of articulation**, **manner of articulation**, and **voicing**. Consonant is a speech sound produced by completely or partly stopping the air being breathed out through the mouth.(Hornby: Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary).

Consonant is a speech sound which is pronounced by stopping the air from flowing easily through the mouth, especially by closing the lips or touching the teeth with the tongue. (Cambridge University Press.: Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary). IPA (International Phonetics Alphabets) describes English consonants based on:
A. Voicing;
B. Place of articulation; and

C. Manner of articulation.

Describing Consonant Sounds

Consonant sounds are described by 3 things:

1. Is the sound voiced or voiceless? **VOICING**
2. Where is the sound constricted? **PLACE OF ARTICULATION**
3. How is the airstream constricted? **MANNER OF ARTICULATION**

Let us deal these facts in details.

Step 1: The first thing to state in describing a consonant is to indicate whether the sound is **VOICED or VOICELESS**

- voice sounds = vocal folds vibrate
- voiceless sounds = vocal folds do not vibrate (try this: put your hand on your throat when you pronounce the sound. If you feel a vibration, the sound is voiced.)

Step 2: The second thing is to tell **where in the vocal tract the sound is articulated** (the place of articulation)

Step 3: The third thing is to say **how the air stream is modified by the vocal tract** to produce the sound (manner of articulation)

Voiced and Unvoiced Consonants: Consonants may also involve vibration of the vocal folds, as in the phoneme /v/, heard in the word *voice*. Such consonants are called voiced consonants, while consonants such as the /f/ of the word *fish* are referred to as unvoiced, since the vocal folds are simply held open during the production of these sounds.

The consonants may also be divided along a number of lines. Fricative consonants, or spirants, such as the aforementioned /f/ of *fish* and /s/ of *sit*, are marked by a steady, turbulent flow of air at a constriction created somewhere in the vocal tract other than at the vocal chords. Stop consonants, or plosives, on the other hand, such as the /p/ of *push* or the /g/ of *goat*, are produced by the build-up and sudden, explosive release of air pressure at some point in the vocal tract. Fricatives and stop consonants may be either voiced or unvoiced. Certain terms used in the description of speech sounds may be applied to both vowels and consonants.

Nasal sounds are those in which the nasal cavity plays a role in the transmission and broadcast of the vocal sound, whereas non-nasal sounds occur when the nasal cavity is cut off from the

vocal tract by the velum during sound production. Continuants are those speech sounds that involve the continuous, steady flow of air from lungs to the environment, while stops involve the complete closure or obstruction of the vocal cavities at some point in the production of the sound.

Finally, there are some classes of phonemes that do not fit neatly into the vowel- consonant classification scheme described above. The sounds /l/, /r/, /m/, /n/, and /ng/, for example, though often thought of as consonants, are referred to as liquids or semi- vowels. The sounds /w/, /y/, and /h/ are referred to as transitionals in [Fletcher 1953]. Speech sounds referred to as affricates consist of a plosive or stop consonant immediately followed by a fricative or spirant, such as the German .

Place of Articulation

Bilabial – uses both lips to create the sound such as the beginning sounds in pin, bust, well and the ending sound in seem**.**

Labiodental – uses the lower lip and upper teeth; examples include fin and van.

Dental/interdental – creates sound between the teeth such as the and thin.

Alveolar – is a sound created with the tongue and the ridge behind the upper teeth; examples include the beginning sounds of tin, dust, sin, zoo, and late and the /n/ in scene.

Palatal – uses the tongue and the hard palate to create the following sounds: shin, treasure, cheep, jeep, rate and yell.

Velar – makes the sound using the soft palate in the back of the mouth; sounds include kin, gust, and the -ng in sing**.**

Glottal– is a sound made in the throat between the vocal cords such as in the word hit Manner of Articulation

The manner of articulation means how the sound is made using the different places of articulation, tongue placement, whether the sound is voiced or unvoiced and the amount of air needed.

Stops – air coming from the lungs is stopped at some point during the formation of the sound. Some of these sounds are unvoiced, such as pin, tin, and kin; some of these are voiced, such as bust, dust and gust.

Fricatives – restricted air flow causes friction but the air flow isn't completely stopped. Unvoiced examples include fin, thin, sin, shin, and hit; voiced examples include van, zoo, the, and treasure**.**

Affricates – are combinations of stops and fricatives. Cheap is an example of an unvoiced affricate and jeep is an example of a voiced. An affricate is a consonant which begins as a stop (plosive), characterized by a complete obstruction of the outgoing airstream by the articulators, a buildup of air pressure in the mouth, and finally releases as a fricative, a sound produced by forcing air through a constricted space, which produces turbulence when the air is forced through a smaller opening. Depending on which parts of the vocal tract are used to constrict the airflow, that turbulence causes the sound produced to have a specific character (compare pita with pizza, the only difference is the release in /t/ and /ts/). There are two types of affricate in English. For an interactive example of each sound (including descriptive animation and video), click this link, then in the window that opens, click affricate, and select the appropriate sound.

Nasals – as expected, the air is stopped from going through the mouth and is redirected into the nose. Voiced examples include seem, seen, scene, and sing.

Liquids – almost no air is stopped; voiced exampled included late and rate.

Glides – sometimes referred to as "semi-vowels," the air passes through the articulators to create vowel like sounds but the letters are known as consonants. Examples include well and yell.

Consonant Classification Chart

A consonant classification chart shows where the different consonant sounds are created in the mouth and throat area. This is important especially when trying to help children or adults learn to speak properly if they have speech problems.

A consonant classification chart shows where in the mouth different consonant sounds derive and how much air is needed to create the sounds. For this reason, the chart often has the location of the sound (place) across the top and the way the sound is produced (manner) down the side.But before that I will like to quote

‘’To summarize, the consonants we have been discussing so far may be described in terms of five factors: 1. state of the vocal folds (voiced or voiceless); 2. place of articulation; 3. central or lateral articulation; 4. soft palate raised to form a velic closure (oral sounds) or lowered (nasal sounds); and 5. manner of articulatory action. Thus, the consonant at the beginning of the word sing is a (1) voiceless, (2) alveolar, (3) central, (4) oral, (5) fricative; and the consonant at the end of sing is a (1) voiced, (2) velar, (3) central, (4) nasal, (5) stop. On most occasions, it is not necessary to state all five points. Unless a specific statement to the contrary is made, consonants are usually presumed to be central, not lateral, and oral rather than nasal. Consequently, points (3) and (4) may often be left out, so the consonant at the beginning of sing is simply called a voiceless alveolar fricative. When describing nasals, point (4) has to be specifically mentioned and point (5) can be left out, so the consonant at the end of sing is simply called a voiced velar nasal.’’

A consonant is a speech sound that is articulated with complete or partial closure of the vocal tract. Examples are :

- [p], pronounced with the lips;
- [t], pronounced with the front of the tongue;
- [k], pronounced with the back of the tongue;
- [h], pronounced in the throat;
- [f] and [s], pronounced by forcing air through a narrow channel (fricatives); and
- [m] and [n], which have air flowing through the nose (nasals).

Since the number of possible sounds in all of the world’s languages is much greater than the number of letters in any one alphabet, linguists believe (IPA) to be a unique and unambiguous symbol to each attested consonant. In fact, the English alphabet has fewer consonant letters than English has consonant sounds, so digraphs like “ch”, “sh”, “th”, and “zh” are used to extend the alphabet, and some letters and digraphs represent more than one consonant. For example, the sound spelled “th” in “this” is a different consonant than the “th” sound in “thin”. (In the IPA, they are transcribed [ð] and [θ], respectively.)

Contrasting with consonants are vowels that we will study in the next chapter.

Questions Regarding Consonants: In the case of consonantal articulations, a description must provide answers to the following questions:

- Is the airstream set in motion by the lungs or by some other means? (pulmonic or non-pulmonic)
- Is the airstream forced outwards or sucked inwards? (egressive or ingressive)
- Do the vocal folds vibrate or not? (voiced or voiceless)

- Is the soft palate raised, directing the airstream wholly through the mouth, or lowered, allowing the passage of air through the nose? (oral, or nasal or nasalized)
- At what point or points and between what organs does closure or narrowing take place? (place of articulation)
- What is the type of closure or narrowing at the point of articulation? (manner of articulation)

Classification Criteria:

Place of articulation means the study of which organs of speech are involved in the production of speech sounds and what role they play in their pronunciation. Consonants can be classified according to the Place of Articulation, Manner of Articulation and Voicing.

I) Bilabial: Bilabial sounds are produced by pressing two lips together. For example / p, b, m, w/ are bilabial sounds.

II) Alveolar: Alveolar sounds are produced by raising the tip & blade of the tongue towards the alveolar ridge. For example, / t, d, n, l, s, z/ are alveolar sounds.

III) Velar: Velar sounds made by touching the back of the tongue to the soft palate called the velum. For example, /k, g, ŋ / are Velar sounds.

IV) Labio- Dental: These sounds are produced when the lower lip is raised towards the upper front teeth. For example, / f, v / are Labio- dental sounds.

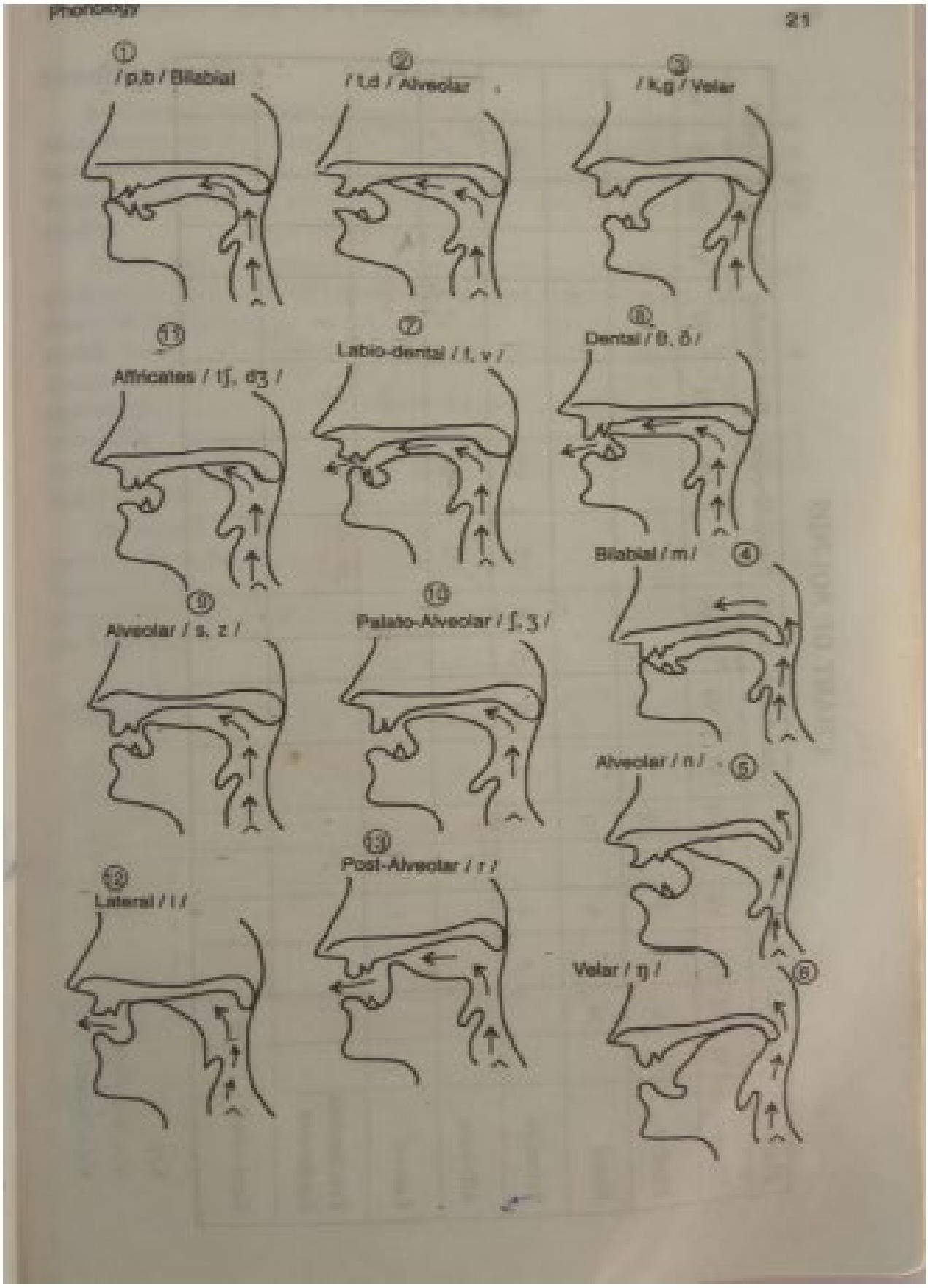
V) Dental: Dental sounds are produced by touching the tip of the tongue to upper front teeth. For example, / θ, ð / are dental sounds.

VI) Palato – alveolar: These sounds are produced when the tip and blade of the tongue is raised towards the alveolar ridge simultaneously the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. e.g. / ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ /

VII) Post alveolar: tip of the tongue is raised very close towards the back of alveolar ridge, for e.g /r/

VIII) Palatal: The front of the tongue is raised towards hard palate. for e.g /j/

IX) Glottal: The sound is produced at the glottis and the vocal cords are the articulators. for e.g /h/ Following figures show the place of articulation of consonants.


① / p,b / Bilabial
② / t,d / Alveolar
③ / k,g / Velar
⑦ Labio-dental / f, v /
⑧ Dental / θ, ð /
⑪ Affricates / tʃ, dʒ /
Bilabial / m / ④
⑨ Alveolar / s, z /
⑫ Palato-Alveolar / ʃ, ʒ /
Alveolar / n / ⑤
⑬ Post-Alveolar / r /
⑩ Lateral / l /
Velar / ŋ / ⑥

2.The Stricture involved in the articulation of speech sounds The stricture is the technical term used for the position taken up by the active articulator in relation to the passive articulator. It reveals the nature of the air stream passage at a particular point in the vocal tract. Following are different types of strictures involved in the articulation of speech sounds

• Complete Closure and sudden release of the lung air: The stricture may be one of complete closures. By complete closure we mean that there is a firm contact of active articulator with passive articulator and thus prevent the lungs air from escaping through the mouth. There is the blockage of the lung air behind the closure. Sounds produced with the stricture of complete closure are called plosive sounds. e.g. / p, b, t, d, k, g,/

Fig. 9 Articulation of the plosive sounds/t,d/. The tip and blade of the tongue in firm contact with the teeth ridge and soft palate in its raised position.

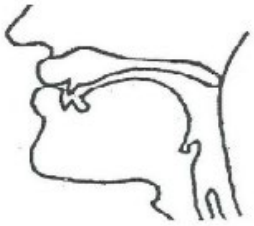


Fig. 10 Articulation of the plosive sounds /p,b/. The two lips are in firm contact and the soft palate is raised.

Fig. 11 Articulation of the plosive sounds /k,g/. The back of the tongue and the soft palate are in firm contact with each other. The soft palate is raised.

- Complete Closure and slow release of the lung air: When the active articulator is removed slowly from the passive articulator slight friction is heard. Sounds produced with this kind of stricture are called affricates. For example, / tʃ, dʒ / .

• Complete oral closure: Sometimes the stricture may be of complete oral closure. By this stricture we mean that the active and passive articulators are in firm contact with each other. For instance, for Nasal sounds, there is a complete oral closure and the soft palate is lowered allowing the air to escape through the nose. e.g. nasal sounds / m/, /n/, /ŋ/.

Fig. 12 Articulation of the nasal consonant /m/. The closure of the lips (oral closure). The soft palate is lowered and the nasal passage is open.

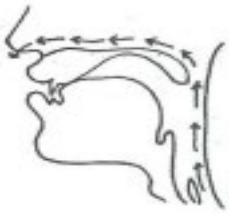


Fig. 13 Articulation of the nasal consonant /n/. The blade of the tongue and the teeth-ridge in firm contact, effecting the oral closure.The soft palate is lowered and the nasal passage is open.

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Fig. 14 Articulation of the nasal sound /ŋ/. The oral closure is effected by the back of the tongue and the soft palate, which are in firm contact. The soft palate is lowered and the nasal passage is open.

• Partial Closure: The stricture may one of the partial closures. It is seen when the lungs air escapes along the sides of the tongue without friction as they are lowered. For example lateral /l/.

Fig. 17 Articulation of the lateral sound /l/. The tip and blade of the tongue are in firm contact with the teeth ridge. Soft palate in its raised position.

- Close Approximation: For fricative sounds, there is no closure anywhere but narrowing only e.g. /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/. In the production these sounds the two articulators are brought very close to each other so that the lungs air escapes a narrow gap with audible friction.

Fig. 15 Articulation of the fricative sounds that begin the words /s/ and /z/. The velic closure effected by the raised soft palate. The narrow gap between the blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge.

Fig. 16 Articulation of the fricative consonants /f/ and /w/. The soft palate is raised. The narrow gap between the lower lip and the upper front teeth (the passive articulators).

- Open Approximation: Open approximation means that the oral tract is somewhat more open than in close approximation, so that there is no friction. For /r/ this kind of stricture is used.

Fig. 18 Articulation of the approximant represented by the Devnagari letter /w/ as in wet. The gap between the lower lip and the upper front teeth.

We can summaries the classification of consonants as follows:

Classification	Manner/ Stricture of Articulation	Examples
Plosive / Stop	Complete closure in the mouth and sudden release of lung air through the mouth.	/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/
Nasal	Complete oral closure in the mouth, the air escapes through the nose	/m/, /n/, /ŋ/
Fricative	Narrowing with audible friction, close approximation.	/f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/
Affricate	Complete oral closure and slow release of the lung air.	/tʃ/, /dʒ/
Frictionless-continuant	No closure but slight narrowing open approximation.	/ r /
Lateral	Partial Closure	/ l /
Semi vowel	Slight narrowing but no friction, open approximation.	/ j, w /

2. Voicing

On the basis of voicing, sounds can be classified into voiced and voiceless sounds. Voiceless consonants are usually articulated with open glottis. For example, voiceless sounds. e.g. / p, t, k, f, θ, S, ʃ tʃ, h, / and when the vocal cords are held loosely together, the lung air can escape through them and the vocal cords are set into vibration. Such vibration creates a voice. The sounds produced in this manner are called voiced sounds. For instance all vowels and consonant sounds like / b, d, g , m, n, ŋ v, ð z, ʒ, dʒ l, r, j, w / are voiced sounds.

Three term labels of consonants:

/p/	is	a	voiceless bilabial plosive
/b/	is	a	voiced bilabial plosive
/t/	is	a	voiceless alveolar plosive
/d/	is	a	voiced alveolar plosive
/k/	is	a	voiceless velar plosive
/g/	is	a	voiced velar plosive
/m/	is	a	voiced bilabial nasal
/n/	is	a	voiced alveolar nasal
/ŋ/	is	a	voiced velar nasal
/f/	is	a	voiceless labio-dental fricative
/v/	is	a	voiced labio-dental fricative
/θ/	is	a	voiceless dental fricative
/ð/	is	a	voiced dental fricative
/s/	is	a	voiceless alveolar fricative
/z/	is	a	voiced alveolar fricative
/ʃ/	is	a	voiceless palato-alveolar fricative
/ʒ/	is	a	voiced palato-alveolar fricative
/h/	is	a	voiceless glottal fricative
/tʃ/	is	a	voiceless palato-alveolar affricate
/dʒ/	is	a	voiced palato-alveolar affricate
/l/	is	a	voiced alveolar lateral
/r/	is	a	voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant
/j/	is	a	voiced Palatal semi-vowel
/w/	is	a	voiced bilabial semi-vowel

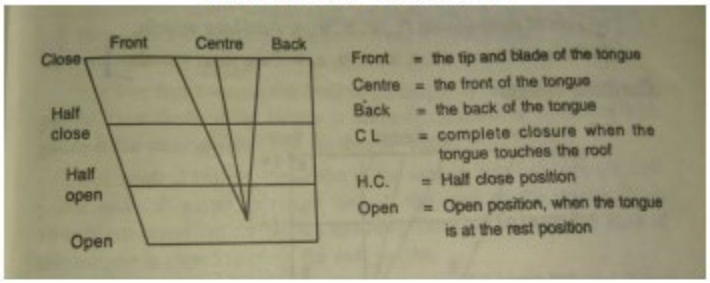
VOWELS IN ENGLISH

In English there are 20 vowel sounds. They are classified into pure vowels and diphthongs. There are 12 pure vowels and 08 diphthongs. Pure vowels are single vowel sounds. They are also called Monophthongs, Diphthongs, on the other hand are called vowel glides or gliding vowels. (Gliding means moving from one place to another)

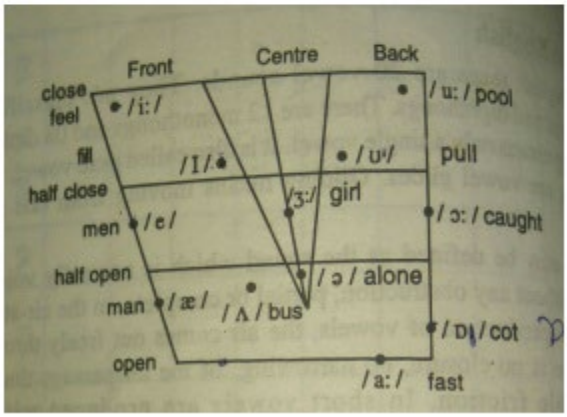
Vowel may be defined as the sound which is normally voiced and produced without any obstruction, partial or complete, in the air-stream. It means in the production of vowel sounds, the air comes out freely through the mouth. There is no closure, no narrowing of the air-passage that would cause audible friction. In short vowels are produced with open approximation. The vocal cords vibrate for all vowels. All English vowels are oral. The soft palate is raised for oral sounds. There is no friction.

To describe vowels, we usually draw three points in the horizontal axes: Front, centre and back. These points refer to the part of the tongue which is the highest. We can draw four points referring to the height on the vertical axes: close, half close, half open and open. They are represented in the following figure.

FIGURE OF VOWEL SOUNDS



If you look at the inside of the face from one side, (here left side) it looks like this shape and that is why this is used as to represent vowel diagram. Vowels are indicated by thick dots · in the diagram



Description and Classification of vowels:

Vowels are normally described with the help of following points:

1. The position of the tongue (i.e part of the tongue which is raised) : For the production of vowels, the tongue can take different positions. We have front vowels, central vowels and back vowels. For instance, For front vowels, the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate for central vowels, the centre of the tongue is raised towards the roof of the mouth and for back vowels, the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate.

2. Height of the tongue: This point deals with the four different tongue positions: close, half close, half open and open.

3. Position of the lips: In the articulation of vowel sounds, the lips take various positions. e.g spread (unrounded), neutral or rounded e.g. front vowels, the lips are spread or unrounded including back vowel/ a:/, For central vowels, the lips are neural. (i.e. nor spread nor rounded) and for back vowels, the lips are in rounded shape.

4. Length of vowels: (long / short): The length is marked by two dots (:) after vowel. If there are dots, the sounds are long, if not the sounds are short. e. g. / i: / is a long vowel and / I / is a short vowel.

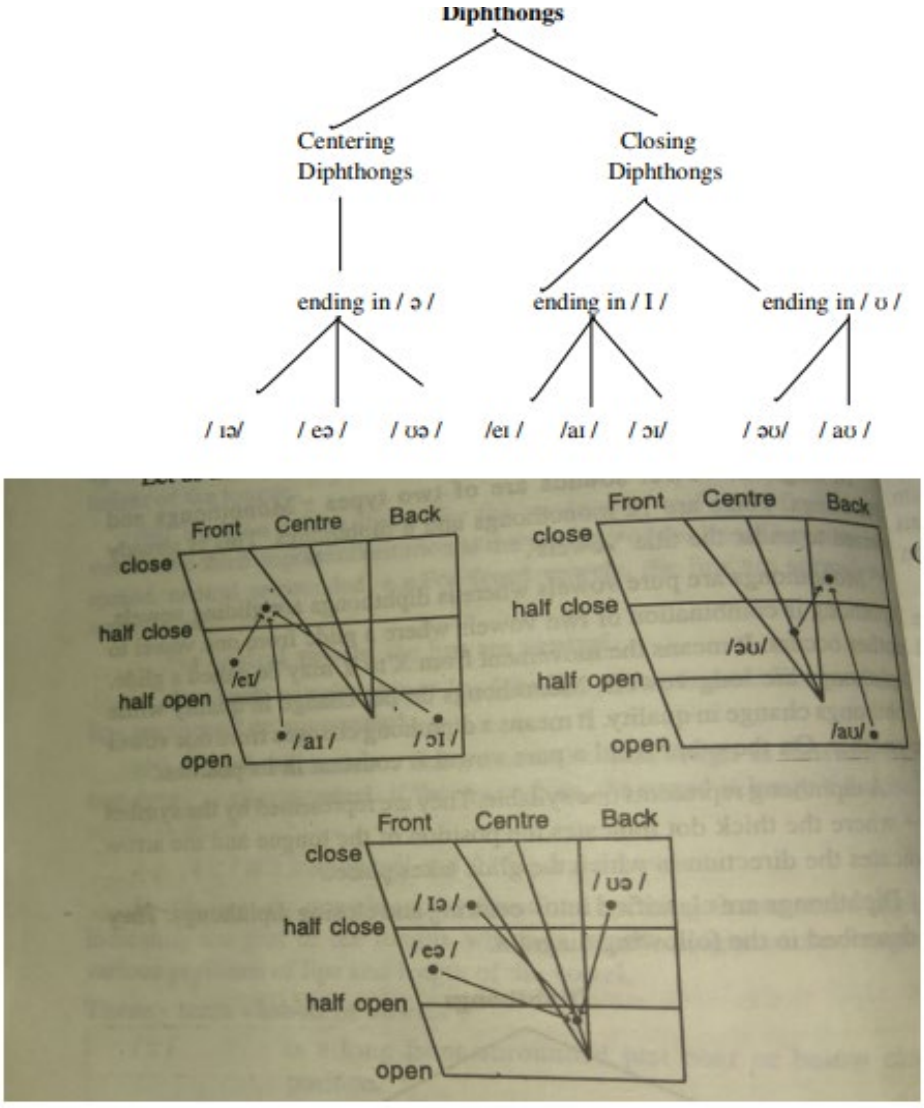
The vowels can be described by using three-term-labels indicating the points mentioned above.

Three-term-labels of vowels:

/ i: /- front spread/ unrounded just below close.
/ I /- centralized front spread/ unrounded just above half close .
/ e / - front spread/ unrounded between half close and half open.
/ æ / - front spread /unrounded just below half open.
/ a: /- back spread /unrounded on the open.
/ ɒ /- back rounded just above open.
/ɔ:/ - back rounded between half close and half open.
/ ʊ /- centralized back rounded just above half close.
/ u:/ - back rounded just below close.
/ ʌ / - central neutral between half open and open.
/ ə /- central neutral just below half open position.
/ ə: /- central neutral between half close and half open position.

DIPHTHONGS IN ENGLISH

Diphthongs are classified into: Centering and Closing diphthongs. They are described in the following diagram.



Given below is the description of diphthongs in terms of three- term – labels:

a) / eɪ / : In this closing diphthongs, the tongue glides from /e/ (front spread/ unrounded between half close and half open) to /I/ (centralized front spread/unrounded just above half close).
b) / aɪ /: In this closing diphthongs, the tongue glides from /a:/ /(front spread open) to / I / (centralized front spread just above half close)
c) / ɔɪ /: In this closing diphthongs, the tongue glides from / ɔ / (back rounded just above open) to / I / (centralized front spread just above half close)
d) / ɪə/ : In this centering diphthongs, the tongue glides from / I / (centralized front spread just above half close) to the final /ə/ (central neutral just below half open).
e) / eə /: In this centering diphthongs, the tongue glides from / e/ (front spread between half close and half open) to the final /ə/(central neutral just below half open).

f) / ʊə /: In this centering diphthongs, the tongue glides from / ʊ/ (centralized back rounded just above half close) to the final /ə/ (central neutral just below half open)
g) / əʊ /: In this closing diphthongs, the tongue glides from / ə / (central neutral between half close and half open) to / ʊ/ (centralized back rounded just above half close).
h) / aʊ/ : In this closing diphthongs, the tongue glides from / a: / (back spread open position) to / ʊ / (centralized back rounded just above half close).

Manner of Articulation: How the airflow is modified.

- **Stop (Plosive)**: Complete blockage followed by release (e.g., [p], [t], [k]).
- **Fricative**: Narrow passage causes friction (e.g., [f], [s], [ʃ]).
- **Affricate**: Combination of a stop and a fricative (e.g., [ʧ] in "chair").
- **Nasal**: Air escapes through the nose (e.g., [m], [n]).
- **Lateral**: Air flows around the sides of the tongue (e.g., [l]).
- **Approximant**: Articulators come close but do not create friction (e.g., [w], [j]).

2. **Voicing**: Whether the vocal cords vibrate.
   - **Voiced**: Vocal cords vibrate (e.g., [b], [d], [g]).
   - **Voiceless**: Vocal cords do not vibrate (e.g., [p], [t], [k]).

Example:

- [p] in "pat" is a voiceless, bilabial stop.
- [v] in "van" is a voiced, labiodental fricative.

2. Description of Speech Sounds

A. Articulatory Description

Articulatory phonetics focuses on how speech sounds are physically produced. For example:

- [t]: Voiceless, alveolar, stop.
- [m]: Voiced, bilabial, nasal.

B. Acoustic Description

Acoustic phonetics describes speech sounds based on their physical properties:

1. **Frequency**: The pitch of the sound.
2. **Amplitude**: The loudness of the sound.
3. **Duration**: The length of time the sound is produced.

Example:

- Vowels like [i] have a high frequency and clear resonance, while consonants like [t] are shorter with abrupt acoustic patterns.

3. Additional Speech Sound Features

A. Suprasegmental Features

1. **Stress**:
   - Some syllables are pronounced more prominently than others.
   - Example: In "record," the stress differentiates the noun ([ˈrɛk.ɚd]) from the verb ([rɪˈkɔrd]).
2. **Intonation**:
   - The rise and fall of pitch during speech.
   - Example: A rising intonation at the end of "You're coming?" indicates a question.
3. **Length**:
   - Some sounds are held longer than others.
   - Example: [iː] in "beat" vs. [ɪ] in "bit."
4. **Tone** (in tonal languages like Mandarin):
   - The pitch contour of a syllable changes its meaning.
   - Example: The syllable *ma* can mean "mother" or "horse" depending on tone.

Distinction Between Vowels and Consonants

Feature	Vowels	Consonants
Airflow	Unobstructed	Obstructed
Primary Articulators	Tongue and lips	Multiple articulators (tongue, lips, teeth, etc.)
Acoustic Properties	Clear resonance, longer duration	Noisy or abrupt, shorter duration
Example	[a], [e], [i], [o], [u]	[p], [t], [s], [m], [ʃ]

The classification and description of speech sounds are essential for understanding the structure of spoken language. By analyzing articulatory, acoustic, and functional properties, linguists can describe sounds systematically across all languages. This knowledge has practical applications in language teaching, speech therapy, and technology like speech recognition.

6.6 CONSONANTS AND VOWELS

Consonants and Vowels: Full Explanation with Examples

Speech sounds are broadly categorized into **consonants** and **vowels**, forming the foundation of spoken language. These categories are defined based on the **articulatory processes** involved in their production, the degree of airflow obstruction, and their role within syllables.

1. Consonants

Definition**:**

Consonants are speech sounds produced with a significant **obstruction or constriction** of airflow in the vocal tract. They typically occur at the edges of syllables and rely on specific interactions between the articulators (e.g., tongue, lips, teeth, etc.).

Classification of Consonants

Consonants are classified based on three primary articulatory features:

1. **Place of Articulation**
2. **Manner of Articulation**
3. **Voicing**

1. Place of Articulation

This describes where in the vocal tract the airflow is obstructed.

Place of Articulation	Description	Examples
Bilabial	Both lips come together	[p], [b], [m], [w]
Labiodental	Lower lip touches the upper teeth	[f], [v]
Dental	Tongue touches the upper teeth	[θ] (thin), [ð] (this)
Alveolar	Tongue touches the alveolar ridge	[t], [d], [s], [z], [n], [l]
Postalveolar/Palatal	Tongue approaches the hard palate	[ʃ] (shoe), [ʒ] (measure)
Velar	Back of the tongue touches the soft palate	[k], [g], [ŋ] (sing)
Glottal	Air passes through the glottis	[h], [ʔ] (glottal stop)

2. Manner of Articulation

This refers to how the airflow is modified as it passes through the vocal tract.

Manner of Articulation	Description	Examples
Stop (Plosive)	Complete blockage of airflow followed by release	[p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g]
Fricative	Air passes through a narrow constriction, causing friction	[f], [v], [s], [z], [ʃ]
Affricate	Combination of a stop and a fricative	[ʧ] (chop), [ʤ] (judge)
Nasal	Air escapes through the nose	[m], [n], [ŋ]
Lateral	Air flows around the sides of the tongue	[l]
Approximant	Articulators come close but do not create friction	[w], [j], [ɹ] (run)

3. Voicing

This describes whether the vocal cords vibrate during sound production.

- **Voiced Consonants**: Vocal cords vibrate.
  Examples: [b], [d], [g], [v], [z]
- **Voiceless Consonants**: Vocal cords do not vibrate.
  Examples: [p], [t], [k], [f], [s]

Examples of Consonants

1. [p]: A **voiceless bilabial stop** as in "pat."
2. [s]: A **voiceless alveolar fricative** as in "sun."
3. [m]: A **voiced bilabial nasal** as in "man."

2. Vowels

Definition**:**

Vowels are speech sounds produced with an **unobstructed flow of air** through the vocal tract. The sound is shaped by the position of the tongue, the shape of the lips, and the openness of the oral cavity. Vowels form the **nucleus** of syllables.

Classification of Vowels

Vowels are classified based on four primary features:

1. **Tongue Height**
2. **Tongue Backness**
3. **Lip Rounding**
4. **Tenseness**

1. Tongue Height

Refers to how high or low the tongue is in the mouth during vowel production.

- **High (Close)**: Tongue is near the roof of the mouth.
  Example: [i] as in "seat."
- **Mid**: Tongue is positioned midway.
  Example: [e] as in "set."
- **Low (Open)**: Tongue is far from the roof of the mouth.
  Example: [a] as in "father."

2. Tongue Backness

Refers to how far forward or backward the tongue is in the mouth.

- **Front**: Tongue is towards the front.
  Example: [i] as in "seat."
- **Central**: Tongue is in the middle.
  Example: [ə] as in "sofa."
- **Back**: Tongue is towards the back.
  Example: [u] as in "boot."

3. Lip Rounding

Refers to whether the lips are rounded or unrounded.

- **Rounded**: Lips form a circular shape.
  Example: [u] as in "boot."
- **Unrounded**: Lips are spread or neutral.
  Example: [i] as in "seat."

4. Tenseness

Refers to the degree of muscle tension in the vocal tract.

- **Tense**: Greater muscle tension.
  Example: [i] as in "seat."
- **Lax**: Lesser muscle tension.
  Example: [ɪ] as in "bit."

Examples of Vowels

1. [i]: A **high, front, unrounded, tense vowel** as in "seat."
2. [a]: A **low, central, unrounded vowel** as in "father."
3. [u]: A **high, back, rounded, tense vowel** as in "boot."

Comparison of Consonants and Vowels		
Feature	**Consonants**	**Vowels**
Airflow	Obstructed or partially blocked	Unobstructed
Articulators	Multiple (e.g., tongue, lips, teeth)	Primarily tongue and lips
Role in Syllable	Occur at the edges	Form the syllable nucleus
Voicing	Can be voiced or voiceless	Typically voiced
Examples	[p], [t], [k], [s], [m]	[i], [a], [u], [o], [e]

Examples in Words

1. **Consonants**:
   - [k] in "cat" (voiceless velar stop).

- [z] in "zebra" (voiced alveolar fricative).

2. **Vowels**:
   - [æ] in "cat" (low, front, unrounded vowel).
   - [oʊ] in "go" (mid, back, rounded diphthong).

Consonants and vowels are fundamental components of human speech, each playing unique roles in language. Consonants involve varying degrees of airflow obstruction, while vowels allow free airflow and are shaped by resonance. Together, they create the diversity of sounds used in languages worldwide, enabling effective communication.

6.7 THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET

The **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** is a system of standardized symbols used to represent the distinct sounds (phonemes) of spoken language. Each symbol in the IPA corresponds to a specific sound, regardless of the language in which it occurs. The IPA was created by the International Phonetic Association to provide a consistent, universal way of transcribing speech sounds across all languages. It enables linguists, language learners, speech therapists, and other professionals to accurately represent and analyze pronunciation, eliminating the confusion caused by varying spelling systems in different languages.

THE MAIN USES OF THE IPA:

The **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** is used in various fields for different purposes, all of which involve accurately representing and analyzing speech sounds. Here are the main uses of the IPA:

1. Language Learning and Teaching

The IPA helps language learners understand the correct pronunciation of words, especially when spelling doesn't match pronunciation (e.g., in languages like English). By using the IPA, students can:

- **Learn accurate pronunciation**: Understand how to pronounce words based on their IPA transcriptions.
- **Compare sounds**: Compare the sounds of their native language with those of a foreign language to avoid mispronunciation.
- **Master difficult sounds**: Identify and focus on sounds that are difficult to pronounce in a second language.

2. Linguistic Research

Linguists use the IPA to transcribe the speech sounds of different languages, allowing for:

- **Cross-linguistic comparison**: Researchers can compare phonetic systems across languages, studying the similarities and differences in speech sounds.
- **Language documentation**: In endangered or lesser-known languages, the IPA is used to accurately record pronunciation and preserve languages for future study.
- **Phonetic analysis**: The IPA helps linguists study the phonetic properties of sounds, such as articulation, acoustics, and how sounds change over time.

3. Speech Therapy

Speech therapists use the IPA to:

- **Diagnose speech disorders**: Accurately document how a patient pronounces words, helping to identify specific articulation issues or speech disorders (e.g., stuttering, mispronunciations).
- **Track progress**: Monitor and track the improvement of speech sounds over time as a person undergoes therapy.
- **Guide treatment**: Provide precise instructions and exercises for improving speech articulation based on IPA transcriptions.

4. Dictionary and Pronunciation Guides

The IPA is used in dictionaries and pronunciation guides to:

- **Represent word pronunciation**: Provide users with a clear, standardized way to understand how words are pronounced.
- **Clarify regional accents**: Represent different accents or dialects of the same language, showing how pronunciation may vary.
- **Guide pronunciation in language textbooks**: Offer a consistent method for showing the correct pronunciation of words.

5. Accent and Dialect Study

In sociolinguistics, the IPA is used to:

- **Document accents and dialects**: Record regional variations in speech, allowing for the study of how dialects differ in terms of sounds, stress, and intonation.
- **Analyze language change**: Help track changes in pronunciation over time and study how accents evolve in different communities.

6. Phonetic Transcription for Music and Poetry

The IPA can be used in:

- **Musicology**: To transcribe the pronunciation of lyrics in different languages for opera singers, musicians, or language teachers.
- **Poetry**: For poets who need to show exact pronunciation, rhythm, or rhyme schemes in transcriptions.

7. Computer Science and Speech Recognition

In computational linguistics, the IPA is used to:

- **Develop speech recognition systems**: Transcribe spoken language accurately to train systems for recognizing and processing natural language.
- **Improve text-to-speech technology**: Use IPA transcriptions to generate more natural-sounding speech in applications like virtual assistants and AI systems.

The **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) Chart** is organized to represent the different sounds used in human languages. It includes symbols for **consonants**, **vowels**, and **suprasegmentals** (such as stress and tone), with each symbol representing a specific sound. Below is a general overview of the IPA chart:

Consonants **(Pulmonic Sounds)**

Plosives

- **Bilabial**: [p] (voiceless), [b] (voiced)
- **Alveolar**: [t] (voiceless), [d] (voiced)
- **Velar**: [k] (voiceless), [g] (voiced)

Nasals

- **Bilabial**: [m] (voiced)
- **Alveolar**: [n] (voiced)
- **Velar**: [ŋ] (voiced)

Fricatives

- **Labiodental**: [f] (voiceless), [v] (voiced)
- **Dental**: [θ] (voiceless), [ð] (voiced)
- **Alveolar**: [s] (voiceless), [z] (voiced)
- **Post-alveolar**: [ʃ] (voiceless), [ʒ] (voiced)
- **Glottal**: [h] (voiceless)

Affricates

- **Post-alveolar**: [tʃ] (voiceless), [dʒ] (voiced)

Approximants

- **Alveolar**: [ɹ] (voiced)
- **Palatal**: [j] (voiced)
- **Labial-velar**: [w] (voiced)

Lateral Approximant

- **Alveolar**: [l] (voiced)

Vowels

The vowel chart is arranged based on the position of the tongue during articulation. The dimensions are:

1. **Height**: High, mid, low
2. **Backness**: Front, central, back
3. **Roundness**: Rounded or unrounded

Front Vowels

- **Close (High)**: [i] (as in *see*), [y] (rounded version of [i])
- **Close-mid**: [e] (as in *bed*), [ø] (rounded version of [e])
- **Open-mid**: [ɛ] (as in *bed*), [œ] (rounded version of [ɛ])
- **Open (Low)**: [æ] (as in *cat*)

Central Vowels

- **Close (High)**: [ɨ] (a high central unrounded vowel, like the "i" in some dialects of English)
- **Close-mid**: [ə] (as in *sofa*, a schwa sound)
- **Open-mid**: [ʌ] (as in *cup*)
- **Open (Low)**: [ɐ] (a low central rounded vowel)

Back Vowels

- **Close (High)**: [u] (as in *boot*), [ʉ] (rounded version of [i])
- **Close-mid**: [o] (as in *goat*), [ɔ] (as in *law*)

- **Open-mid**: [ɑ] (as in *father*)
- **Open (Low)**: [ɒ] (as in *dog* in British English)

Suprasegmentals

These represent features of speech that apply to larger units like syllables or words.

- **Stress**:
  - Primary stress: [ˈ]
  - Secondary stress: [ˌ]
- **Length**:
  - Vowel length: [ː] (indicating a long vowel)
- **Tone**:
  - High tone: [˥]
  - Mid tone: [˦]
  - Low tone: [˩]
- **Intonation**: The pattern of pitch changes across a sentence, often represented with a variety of marks above and below the transcription.

Diacritics

Diacritics are used to modify sounds, usually to show a specific feature of pronunciation, such as aspiration or nasalization. Some common diacritics include:

- **Nasalization**: [ã] (indicating nasalized vowel)
- **Aspiration**: [pʰ] (as in *pit* in English, indicating a puff of air after the sound)
- **Voicing**: [t̬] (indicating that a normally voiceless sound is voiced)
- **Length**: [tː] (indicating a doubled or prolonged sound)

Other Symbols

- **Click consonants**: [ʘ], [ǃ], [ǀ], [ǁ] (used in languages like Xhosa and Zulu)
- **Pharyngeal and Glottal Sounds**: [ʔ], [ʕ], [ʔ]

6.8. THE PHONEME

In linguistics—aka, the study of language—a phoneme is the smallest sound unit in a language that is capable of conveying a distinct meaning, such as the *s* of *sing* and the *r* of *ring*. Adjective: phonemic.

A phoneme is a minimal distinctive unit of sound. The word “minimal” connotes that the sound cannot be subdivided into smaller units. The word “distinctive” means that each phoneme

is distinct from the other in a native speaker's mind, and helps the speaker/listener distinguish one word from the other.

Example.

/t/ sound in tar, star, writer, eighth

/b/ sound in bar, dub, rubber

Phonemes are the broader level representations of a group of sounds that are supposed to be varying because of their phonological distributions. In this sense a phoneme is supposed to be the 'underlying form' for the various 'surface forms' that feature in a language. So while the surface forms are what a speaker/hearer really encounters, phonemes are their abstract identities.

Phonemes are language-specific. In other words, phonemes that are functionally distinct in English (for example, /b/ and /p/) may not be so in another language. (Phonemes are customarily written between slashes, thus /b/ and /p/.) Different languages have different phonemes.

A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that distinguishes one word from another word in a language. There are many different phonemes in the English language, each contributing to the distinct sounds of words. This chart shows all the phonemes used when speaking English.

s sat	t tap	p pan	n nose	m mat	a ant	e egg	i ink	o otter
g goat	d dog	c k click	r run	h hat	u up	ai rain	ee knee	igh light
b bus	f farm	l lolly	j jam	v van	oa boat	oo cook	oo boot	ar star
w wish	x axe	y yell	z zap	qu quill	or fork	ur burn	ow now	oi boil
ch chin	sh ship	th think	th the	ng sing	ear near	air stair	ure sure	er writer

Examples of Phonemes and Observations

Here are 10 examples of phonemes commonly taught in primary school:

1. **/b/** as in bat
2. **/k/** as in cat
3. **/d/** as in dog
4. **/f/** as in fish
5. **/g/** as in goat
6. **/h/** as in hat
7. **/m/** as in man
8. **/n/** as in nap
9. **/p/** as in pig
10. **/t/** as in top

- "The central concept in phonology is the phoneme, which is a distinctive category of sounds that all the native speakers of a language or dialect perceive as more or less the same...[A]lthough the two [k] sounds in *kicked* are not identical—the first one is pronounced with more aspiration than the second—they are heard as two instances of [k] nonetheless...Since phonemes are categories rather than actual sounds, they are not tangible things; instead, they are abstract, theoretical types or groups that are only psychologically real. (In other words, we cannot hear phonemes, but we assume they exist because of how the sounds in languages pattern as they are used by speakers.)" (Thomas E. Murray, *The Structure of English: Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology*. Allyn and Bacon, 1995)
- "Two points need to be stressed: (1) the most important property of a phoneme is that it contrasts with the other phonemes in the system, and hence (2) we can only speak of the phoneme of some particular speech variety (a particular accent of a particular language). Languages differ in the number of phonemes they distinguish...but every valid word in every language necessarily consists of some permissible sequence of that language's phonemes." (R.L. Trask, *A Dictionary of Phonetics and Phonology*. Routledge, 2004)

An Alphabetical Analogy: Phonemes and Allophones

- "The concepts of phoneme and allophone become clearer by analogy with the letters of the alphabet. We recognize that a symbol is *a* despite considerable variations in size, colour, and (to a certain extent) shape. The representation of the letter *a* is affected in handwriting by the preceding or following letters to which it is joined. Writers may form the letter idiosyncratically and may vary their writing according to whether they are tired or in a hurry or nervous. The variants in the visual representations are analogous to the allophones of a phoneme, and what is distinctive in contrast to other alphabetic letters is analogous to the phoneme." (Sidney Greenbaum, *The Oxford English Grammar*. Oxford University Press, 1996)

Differences Between Members of a Phoneme

- "We cannot rely on the spelling to tell us whether two sounds are members of different phonemes. For example...the words *key* and *car* begin with what we can regard as the same sound, despite the fact that one is spelled with the letter *k* and the other with *c*. But in this case, the two sounds are not exactly the same...If you whisper just the first consonants in these two words, you can probably hear the difference, and you may be able to feel that your tongue touches the roof of the mouth in a different place for each word. This example shows that there may be very subtle differences between members of a phoneme. The sounds at the beginning of *key* and *car* are slightly different, but it is not a difference that changes the meaning of a word in English. They are both members of the same phoneme." (Peter Ladefoged and Keith Johnson, *A Course in Phonetics*, 6th ed. Wadsworth, 2011)

Phones

- Phones are the sounds in a language. Number of phones in a language is the total number of sounds that are allowed by a language in its inventory. Languages have two levels of representations:
- Orthographic, which is the written form
- Phonetic, which is the spoken form

The phonetic representation is the representation of sounds (phones) of a language. The relationship between the two representations is not always direct or one to one. For example, a single orthography (letter) may be realized as two or more different sounds (and hence leading to two or more phones for the same):

Example 1.

- The letter s is realized in four different ways in the following examples:
- /s/ as in slow, sin
- /z/ as in dogs, busy
- /ʃ/ as in sure, sugar
- /ʒ/ as in pleasure, vision

Example 2.

- The letter c is realized in two different ways in the following examples:
- /k/ as in cat, cow

- /s/ as in facade, cell

Again, two different letters (that might have had two different spoken forms in history) might have a single phonetic identity:
Example 1.

- The voiced alveolar nasal /n/ is realized in spelling as
- n as in need, now
- nn as in funny, running
- gn as in gnaw, sign
- kn as in knife, know
- pn as in pneumonia, pneumatic

Example 2.

- The voiceless labiodental fricative /f/ is realized in spelling as
- 1. f as in fan, fire
- 2. ff as in offer, affair
- 3. ough as in cough, rough
- 4. ph as in photo, graph

Thus it is clear that phonetic representations are independent of the written representations, and hence phones need to be looked at in isolation to the latter.

6.9. THE ALLOPHONES

Allophones are non-meaningfully distinct variations within phonemes that do not provide a contrastive difference with each other. These are the sound variations that will fail the minimal pair test. While there are many tiny variations within the phonemes we make while we speak, many of these are two unimportant or unnoticeable to discuss. Here instead we will see some examples of "complementary distribution."

CONTRASTIVE VS COMPLEMENTARY DISTRIBUTION

Phonemes occur in contrastive distribution with each other. For example, a /p/ and a /t/ can both occur at the beginning of a word in English, such as "pin" and "tin." Because these two sounds contrast with each other, we recognize these two words as distinct in meaning (they pass the minimal pair test). Therefore, /p/ and /t/ are each phonemes that will contrast with each other when placed in identical positions.

Other sounds, however, are found in complementary distribution, meaning that they never occur in identical positions and so will never contrast with each other. These sounds will therefore not be recognized as individual phonemes, but will be allophones, of the same phoneme — non-meaningfully distinct or non-contrastive variants of a single phoneme.

As an example of complementary distribution, the word "pin" begins with the phoneme /p/. When we examine this sound in more detail, we find that it comes with a heavy breath of air: it is an aspirated example of the phoneme /p/, which we can write as [p^h]. All examples of the phoneme /p/ in English that occur in word-initial position will also be aspirated. If we compare it with the /p/ found in the word "spin," we will find that this /p/ does not have aspiration, so we can write it as [p]. Both [p^h] and [p] are allophones of the phoneme /p/ which are non-contrastive because they will never occur in identical positions. [p^h] occurs in word-initial positions, while [p] occurs following [s]. A third allophone of /p/ occurs in word-final position, such as in the word "tip." This /p/ is often pronounced "unreleased," i.e., with no opening of the lips after they close. It can be written as [p̚]. This [p̚] will never be found in word-initial position. Instead of contrasting, then, these three examples of /p/ complement each other to make up the entire set of realizations of the phoneme /p/.
Another way to think of the distinction between phonemes and allophones is that phonemes provide a mental concept for listening while the allophone is the real-world production of the concept.

OTHER EXAMPLES OF ALLOPHONES

/t/ (voiceless, dental stop)

The phoneme /t/ has the same three variants as /p/ above, as you can see in the words *top, stop*, and *pot*, but it has others as well, such as those found in the words *writer* and *written*. In the first of these, the /t/ is medial (in the middle of a word) and occurs after a stressed syllable. In this position in American English the /t/ is often produced by a simple alveolar flap, produced by a quick "flap" or "tap" of the tongue against the alveolar ridge; it is thus called an alveolar flap. The symbol for this sound is [ɾ]. This sound sounds very much like a [d], so much so that for most people, the words *writer* and *rider* are difficult to distinguish from each other. British speakers, however, preserve the [t] here, so that *writer* and *rider* can be distinguished. Another allophone of /t/ is found in the pronunciation of the word *written*. Most American English speakers do not actually use an alveolar sound at all for the /t/ in this word, but instead stop the air in the glottis, the space between the vocal cords: this is the glottal stop, written [ʔ]. It is heard in the word "uh-oh," which in IPA would be written something like [ʔə ʔo]. In American English, it appears as an allophone of /t/ whenever the /t/ occurs after a stressed syllable and before /n/ (as in *kitten, mitten, bitten*); some pronunciations of *didn't* also use it for the medial /d/. In some dialects of British English, it occurs before or after the approximants /l/ and /ɹ/, as in the words *bottle* [bɒʔəl], *forty* [fɔɹʔi], etc. American English speakers sometimes use it for words that end with /t/. For example, people might say *at* as either [æt̚] with an unreleased /t/ or as [æʔ]

with the glottal stop. This makes a total of five common allophones for the phone /t/: [t^h], [t], [t̚], [ɾ], and [ʔ].

The various surface manifestations of a phoneme are known as allophones of that phoneme. For example, the phoneme /p/ in English is realized in more than one way:

/p/ as in pin

/p/ as in tap

It is evident that the same phoneme /p/ in English is realized differently in these two different words. The sound in the beginning of a syllable is usually aspirated and is represented as [p^h] in phonetic representation. The other allophone that is also the underlying form (phonemic form) of the two sounds is [p], is differently realized. The different realizations are contingent to different phonetic environments. Allophones of an individual phoneme have mutually exclusive phonetic environments. It is because of the environment that an individual allophone is supposed to sound different from (or same as) its 'underlying form' or from other allophones of its family. Thus, allophones are said to be in complementary distribution. Please keep in mind that a complementary distribution should not be mistaken for 'optional distribution' as such a case would lead to a free-variation rather than an allophonic variation. Phonemes, on the other hand, are in contrastive distribution and usually have phonetically overlapping environments. Another thing to note would be that the underlying form (phonemic) for a group of sounds is always one of the sounds that are represented on the surface. Allophones of a phoneme, in addition to having a mutually exclusive phonetic environment, should also have some phonetic resemblance. Two sounds which are too dissimilar phonetically cannot form the allophones of a single phoneme. Also, sounds that are recognized as allophones in one language because of their complementary distribution might be recognized as two distinct phonemes in another language. For example, in Hindi, the two sounds [p] and [p^h] are separate phonemes. We shall talk about this in detail in the next section.

Minimal Pair

A minimal pair is a pair of words that are alike except for one phonological unit, and carry distinct meanings. Thus the pair /tar/ and /bar/ are minimal pairs as they differ only in their initial consonants and have distinct meanings. Minimal pairs are used to find two phones that are phonemically distinct in a language. As in the above example, the substitution of /t/ with /b/ brings about a difference in meaning to the minimal pair they create, so /t/ and /b/ are two separate phonemes in this language. We can see why [p] and [p^h] are separate phonemes in Hindi. We have seen that [p] and [p^h] are allophones in English. In the previous section we

have also said that [p] and [p^h] are separate phonemes in Hindi. Why? This is because we can form a minimal pair [pəl] "moment" and [p^həl] "fruit" using the two sounds in Hindi.

Principles for Phonemic Analysis

Two important principles utilized for forming the inventory of a language and for putting two sounds as one under a single phoneme or as two under different phonemes have already been discussed in the sections on phoneme and allophone. They are the principle of contrastive distribution and the principal of complementary distribution. Let us discuss them in detail.

1. Principle of Contrastive Distribution

This principle employs minimal pairs to find different phonemes in a language. A contrast in meaning would give separate phonemes of the language. In case we don't get a contrast from a pair that looks just like a minimal pair, we would call it a case of free variation.

2. Principle of Complementary Distribution

Two sounds that occur in different phonetic environments and never appear to be in the same environment as the other, i.e. when the environment in which one sound appears is exclusive of the one in which the other one appears, the sounds are said to be in complementary distribution. Sounds in complementary distribution are taken as allomorphs of the same phoneme if they show a certain affinity on the phonetic level.

6.10. HOMONYMS

In linguistics, **homonyms** are words which are either *homographs*—words that have the same spelling (regardless of pronunciation)—or *homophones*—words that have the same pronunciation (regardless of spelling)—or both. Using this definition, the words *row* (propel with oars), *row* (a linear arrangement) and *row* (an argument) are homonyms because they are homographs (though only the first two are homophones); so are the words *see* (vision) and *sea* (body of water), because they are homophones (though not homographs).

A more restrictive and technical definition requires that homonyms be simultaneously homographs *and* homophones—that is, they have identical spelling *and* pronunciation but different meanings. Examples include the pair *stalk* (part of a plant) and *stalk* (follow/harass a person) and the pair *left* (past tense of *leave*) and *left* (opposite of *right*).

A distinction is sometimes made between true homonyms, which are unrelated in origin, such as *skate* (glide on ice) and *skate* (the fish), and polysemous homonyms, or polysemes, which have a shared origin, such as *mouth* (of a river) and *mouth* (of an animal).

The relationship between a set of homonyms is called **homonymy**, and the associated adjective is **homonymous**, **homonymic**, or in Latin, **equivocal**. Additionally, the adjective *homonymous* can be used wherever two items share the same name, independent of how closely they are related in terms of their meaning or etymology. For example, the word "once" (meaning "one time") is homonymous with the term for "eleven" in Spanish (*once*).

The word *homonym* comes from the Greek ὁμώνυμος (*homonymos*), meaning "having the same name," compounded from ὁμός (*homos*) "common, same, similar" and ὄνομα (*onoma*) "name."

Several similar linguistic concepts are related to homonymy. These include:

- **Homographs** (literally "same writing") are usually defined as words that share the same spelling, regardless of how they are pronounced.] If they are pronounced the same then they are also homophones (and homonyms) – for example, *bark* (the sound of a dog) and *bark* (the skin of a tree). If they are pronounced differently then they are also heteronyms – for example, *bow* (the front of a ship) and *bow* (a ranged weapon).
- **Homophones** (literally "same sound") are usually defined as words that share the same pronunciation, regardless of how they are spelled. If they are spelled the same then they are also homographs (and homonyms); if they are spelled differently then they are also **heterographs** (literally "different writing"). Homographic examples include *rose* (flower) and *rose* (past tense of *rise*). Heterographic examples include *to*, *too*, *two*, and *there*, *their*, *they're*. Due to their similar yet non-identical pronunciation in American English, *ladder* and *latter* do not qualify as homophones, but rather **synophones** or **homoiophones**.
- **Heteronyms** (literally "different name") are the subset of homographs (words that share the same spelling) that have different pronunciations (and meanings). Such words include *desert* (to abandon) and *desert* (arid region); *tear* (to rip) and *tear* (a drop of moisture formed in one eye); *row* (to argue or an argument) and *row* (as in to row a boat or a row of seats – a pair of homophones). Heteronyms are also sometimes called **heterophones** (literally "different sound").
- **Polysemes** are words with the same spelling and distinct but *related* meanings. The distinction between polysemy and homonymy is often subtle and subjective, and not all sources consider polysemous words to be homonyms. Words such as *mouth*, meaning either the orifice on one's face, or the opening of a cave or river, are polysemous and may or may not be considered homonyms.

- **Capitonyms** are words that share the same spelling but have different meanings when capitalized (and may or may not have different pronunciations). Such words include *polish* (make shiny) and *Polish* (from Poland); *march* (walk in step) and *March* (the third month of the Year) and the pair: *reading* (using a book) and Reading (towns in, among other places, England).

A homonym which is both a homophone and a homograph is **fluke**, meaning:

- A fish, and a flatworm.
- The end parts of an anchor.
- The fins on a whale's tail.
- A stroke of luck.

These meanings represent at least three etymologically separate lexemes, but share the one form, **fluke**. Fluke is also a capitonym, in that Fluke Corporation (commonly referred to as simply "Fluke") is a manufacturer of industrial testing equipment.

Similarly, a river **bank**, a savings **bank**, a **bank** of switches, and a **bank** shot in the game of pool share a common spelling and pronunciation, but differ in meaning.

The words **bow** and **bough** are examples where there are two meanings associated with a single pronunciation and spelling (the weapon and the knot); two meanings with two different pronunciations (the knot and the act of bending at the waist), and two distinct meanings sharing the same sound but different spellings (**bow**, the act of bending at the waist, and **bough**, the branch of a tree). In addition, it has several related but distinct meanings – a bent line is sometimes called a '**bowed**' line, reflecting its similarity to the weapon. Even according to the most restrictive definitions, various pairs of sounds and meanings of **bow**, **Bow** and **bough** are homonyms, homographs, homophones, heteronyms, heterographs, c apitonyms and are polysemous.

- **bow** – a long stick with horse hair that is used to play certain string instruments such as the violin
- **bow** – to bend forward at the waist in respect (e.g. "bow down")
- **bow** – the front of the ship (e.g. "bow and stern")
- **bow** – a kind of tied ribbon (e.g. bow on a present, a bowtie)
- **bow** – to bend outward at the sides (e.g. a "bow-legged" cowboy)
- **Bow** – a district in London
- **bow** – a weapon to shoot projectiles with (e.g. a bow and arrow)

A **lime** can refer to a fruit or a material. A **mold** (**mould**) can refer to a fungus or an industrial cast.

The words *there*, *their*, and *they're* are examples of three words that are of a singular pronunciation, have different spellings and vastly different meanings. These three words are commonly misused (or, alternatively, misspelled).

- **there** – "The bow shot the arrow **there**," he said as he pointed.
- **their** – "It was **their** bow and arrow." the Mother said.
- **they're** – **They're** not going to get to shoot the bow again after puncturing the tire (tyre) on Daddy's car. (Contraction of They and Are.)

The words **metal** and **mettle** are polysemes and homophones, but not homographs.

6.11. DIACRITIC

A **diacritic** (also **diacritical mark**, **diacritical point**, **diacritical sign**, or **accent**) is a glyph added to a letter or to a basic glyph. The term derives from the Ancient Greek διακριτικός (*diakritikós*, "distinguishing"), from διακρίνω (*diakrínō*, "to distinguish"). The word *diacritic* is a noun, though it is sometimes used in an attributive sense, whereas *diacritical* is only an adjective. Some diacritics, such as the acute ⟨ó⟩, grave ⟨ò⟩, and circumflex ⟨ô⟩ (all shown above an 'o'), are often called *accents*. Diacritics may appear above or below a letter or in some other position such as within the letter or between two letters.

The main use of diacritics in Latin script is to change the sound-values of the letters to which they are added. Historically, English has used the diaeresis diacritic to indicate the correct pronunciation of ambiguous words, such as "coöperate", without which the <oo> letter sequence could be misinterpreted to be pronounced /ˈkuːpəreɪt/. Other examples are the acute and grave accents, which can indicate that a vowel is to be pronounced differently than is normal in that position, for example not reduced to /ə/ or silent as in the case of the two uses of the letter e in the noun *résumé* (as opposed to the verb *resume*) and the help sometimes provided in the pronunciation of some words such as *doggèd*, *learnèd*, *blessèd*, and especially words pronounced differently than normal in poetry (for example *movèd*, *breathèd*).

Most other words with diacritics in English are borrowings from languages such as French to better preserve the spelling, such as the diaeresis on *naïve* and *Noël*, the acute from *café*, the circumflex in the word *crêpe*, and the cedille in *façade*. All these diacritics, however, are frequently omitted in writing, and English is the only major modern European language that does not have diacritics in common usage.

In Latin-script alphabets in other languages, diacritics may distinguish between homonyms, such as the French *là* ("there") versus *la* ("the"), which are both pronounced /la/. In Gaelic type, a dot over a consonant indicates lenition of the consonant in question. In other writing systems, diacritics may perform other functions. Vowel pointing systems, namely the Arabic harakat and

the Hebrew niqqud systems, indicate vowels that are not conveyed by the basic alphabet. The Indic virama (◌् etc.) and the Arabic sukūn (◌ْ) mark the absence of vowels. Cantillation marks indicate prosody. Other uses include the Early Cyrillic titlo stroke (◌҃) and the Hebrew gershayim (״), which, respectively, mark abbreviations or acronyms, and Greek diacritical marks, which showed that letters of the alphabet were being used as numerals. In Vietnamese and the Hanyu Pinyin official romanization system for Mandarin in China, diacritics are used to mark the tones of the syllables in which the marked vowels occur.

In orthography and collation, a letter modified by a diacritic may be treated either as a new, distinct letter or as a letter–diacritic combination. This varies from language to language and may vary from case to case within a language.

In some cases, letters are used as "in-line diacritics", with the same function as ancillary glyphs, in that they modify the sound of the letter preceding them, as in the case of the "h" in the English pronunciation of "sh" and "th". Such letter combinations are sometimes even collated as a single distinct letter. For example, the spelling sch was traditionally often treated as a separate letter in German. Words with that spelling were listed after all other words spelled with s in card catalogs in the Vienna public libraries, for example (before digitization).

Among the types of diacritic used in alphabets based on the Latin script are:

- accents (so called because the acute, grave, and circumflex were originally used to indicate different types of pitch accents in the polytonic transcription of Greek)
  - ◌́ – acute (Latin: *apex*); for example ó
  - ◌̀ – grave; for example ò
  - ◌̂ – circumflex; for example ô
  - ◌̌ – caron, wedge; for example ǒ
  - ◌̋ – double acute; for example ő
  - ◌̏ – double grave; for example ȍ
- one dot
  - ◌̇ – an overdot is used in many orthographies and transcriptions; for example ȯ
  - ◌̣ – an underdot is also used in many orthographies and transcriptions; for example ọ
  - ◌·◌ – an interpunct is used in the Catalan *ela geminada* (l·l)
  - ◌̇ – a dot above right is used in Pėh-ōe-jī
  - tittle, the superscript dot of the modern lowercase Latin ⟨i⟩ and ⟨j⟩
- two dots:
  - two overdots (◌̈) are used for umlaut, diaeresis and others; (for example ö)
  - two underdots (◌̤) are used in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and the ALA-LC romanization system

    - ◌ː – triangular colon, used in the IPA to mark long vowels (the "dots" are triangular, not circular).
- curves
    - ◌̆ – breve; for example ŏ
    - ◌̑ – inverted breve; for example ô
    - ◌̓ – sicilicus, a palaeographic diacritic similar to a caron or breve
    - ◌̃ – tilde; for example õ
    - ◌̓ – titlo
- vertical stroke
    - ◌̩ – a subscript vertical stroke is used in IPA to mark syllabicity and in Rheinische Dokumenta to mark a schwa
    - ◌̍ – a superscript vertical stroke is used in Pe̍h-ōe-jī
- macron or horizontal line
    - ◌̄ – macron; for example ō
    - ◌̲ – underbar
- overlays
    - ◌ ◌̵ – vertical bar through the character
    - ◌̷ – slash through the character; for example ø
    - ◌̶ – crossbar through the character
- ring
    - ◌̊ – overring: for example å
- superscript curls
    - ◌̓ – apostrophe
    - ◌̔ – inverted apostrophe
    - ◌̒ – reversed apostrophe
    - ◌̉ – hook above (Vietnamese: *dấu hỏi*)
    - ◌̛ – horn (Vietnamese: *dấu móc*); for example ơ
- subscript curls
    - ◌̣ – undercomma; for example ș
    - ◌̧ – cedilla; for example ç
    - ◌̡ ◌̢ – hook, left or right, sometimes superscript
    - ◌̨ – ogonek; for example ǫ
- double marks (over or under two base characters)
    - ◌͝◌ – double breve
    - ◌͡◌ – tie bar or top ligature
    - ◌◌ – double circumflex
    - ◌͞◌ – longum
    - ◌͠◌ – double tilde

- double sub/superscript diacritics
  - ◌𝅜 – double cedilla
  - ◌𝅛 – double ogonek
  - ◌̎ – double diaeresis
  - ◌͂ – double ypogegrammeni

The tilde, dot, comma, titlo, apostrophe, bar, and colon are sometimes diacritical marks, but also have other uses.

Not all diacritics occur adjacent to the letter they modify. In the Wali language of Ghana, for example, an apostrophe indicates a change of vowel quality, but occurs at the beginning of the word, as in the dialects *'Bulengee* and *'Dolimi*. Because of vowel harmony, all vowels in a word are affected, so the scope of the diacritic is the entire word. In abugida scripts, like those used to write Hindi and Thai, diacritics indicate vowels, and may occur above, below, before, after, or around the consonant letter they modify.

The tittle (dot) on the letter ⟨i⟩ or the letter ⟨j⟩, of the Latin alphabet originated as a diacritic to clearly distinguish ⟨i⟩ from the minims (downstrokes) of adjacent letters. It first appeared in the 11th century in the sequence *ii* (as in *ingeníi*), then spread to *i* adjacent to *m, n, u*, and finally to all lowercase *i*s. The ⟨j⟩, originally a variant of *i*, inherited the tittle. The shape of the diacritic developed from initially resembling today's acute accent to a long flourish by the 15th century. With the advent of Roman type it was reduced to the round dot we have today.

6.12. ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

6.13. LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we learned about the **organs of speech** and their role in sound production. We also examined the classification of speech sounds, including consonants and vowels. Consonants are articulated by blocking or restricting airflow in various ways, while vowels are produced with a more open airflow. We discussed the importance of the **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** in accurately representing speech sounds across different languages. Understanding the speech mechanism and sound classification is foundational to studying linguistics and phonetics.

6.14. LESSON END ACTIVITY

To reinforce the concepts covered in this lesson, try the following activities:

1. **Identify Consonants and Vowels**:
   Write a list of words in your native language and classify the sounds in each word as consonants or vowels. For each consonant, try to identify its place, manner, and voicing. For each vowel, note its height, backness, and roundness.
2. **IPA Transcription Practice**:
   Choose a word and practice transcribing it using the IPA symbols. For example, transcribe the word "cat" (/kæt/) and break it down into its constituent phonemes. Try transcribing a sentence in your native language.

6.15. GLOSSARY

1. **Consonant**: A speech sound produced by restricting or blocking airflow at various points in the vocal tract.
2. **Vowel**: A speech sound produced with minimal obstruction to the airflow, characterized by the position of the tongue and lips.
3. **Place of Articulation**: The point in the vocal tract where airflow is constricted to produce a sound (e.g., bilabial, dental).
4. **Manner of Articulation**: The way in which the airflow is restricted during the production of a sound (e.g., plosive, fricative).
5. **Voicing**: Whether the vocal cords vibrate during the production of a sound (e.g., voiced vs. voiceless).
6. **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)**: A standardized system of symbols representing the sounds of spoken language.
7. **Phoneme**: The smallest unit of sound in a language that can distinguish meaning.

6.16. TERM AND QUESTIONS

1. **What are the main organs involved in speech production?**
2. **How are consonants classified based on manner of articulation? Provide examples.**
3. **Explain the role of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) in transcription.**
4. **What is the difference between a consonant and a vowel?**
5. **Provide an example of a word and transcribe it using IPA symbols.**

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BLOCK- II

UNIT 7

SYLLABLE

STRUCTURE

7.12. INTRODUCTION

This lesson explores essential concepts related to syllable structure, consonant clusters, and syllabic consonants, all of which are fundamental to understanding how sounds combine to form syllables and words in speech. We will also look at the importance of these features in the phonetic structure of language, which influences both pronunciation and linguistic analysis.

7.13. OBJECTIVES

By the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

1. Understand the concept of **syllabic consonants** and their role in phonology.
2. Comprehend the structure of syllables and how they are formed.
3. Identify and analyze **consonant clusters** in different languages.
4. Apply your knowledge to transcribe words using phonetic notation, focusing on syllable structure and consonant clusters.

7.3.THE SYLLABLE

When we describe phonemes, we see discrete units of sounds and not a continuous flow of sound segments like the way language naturally exists. This continuity is not random in a language and sounds are organized in the formation of bigger structures such as words. That is to say, when we pronounce a word like potato, the sound [p^h] is not realized freely. It can only be articulated as a string of sounds [p^h + ə] in this case. These larger organised sequence of sounds that are produced as a unit while speaking are called syllables. Since syllables contain more than one segment of sounds, these are identified as the suprasegmental features of the language. Divisons of syllables are intuitive to native speakers, and they know where one syllable ends and the other begins.

Example

plant /plɑ:nt/

plantain /plɑ:n-tɪn/ photograph /fəʊ-tə-grɑ:f/

Syllables are usually marked with hyphens. The first word, plant, contains one syllable. It is monosyllabic; plantain has two syllables and is therefore termed disyllabic; the word photograph has three syllables and is termed trisyllabic.

While there have been numerous attempts to define the syllable, a satisfactory definition is still to be agreed upon by linguists. Hosali and Parasher classify attempts to define the syllable based on two approaches (2-3):

1. The phonetic approach (which may be based either on the prominence theory or the pulse theory)

2. The linguistic approach

According to the prominence theory, some sounds in an utterance are more prominent than others. In the word similarity /sɪmɪlærətɪ/ for example, the peaks of prominence are marked by the vowel sounds /ɪ, ɪ, æ, ə, ɪ/. Since the number of peaks of prominence decide the number of syllables, the word has five syllables. The pulse theory (or chest pulse theory) focuses on muscular activities and lung movements in the process of speech. It has been experimentally observed that the number of chest pulses, accompanied by increase in air pressure, can determine the number of syllables produced. Both these theories have their limitations. The sonority theory is another approach to explain the syllable.

SYLLABIC CONSONANTS

A **syllabic consonant** is a consonant that functions as the nucleus (the central sound) of a syllable, instead of a vowel. In many languages, the nucleus of a syllable is typically a vowel, but certain consonants, especially liquids and nasals, can act as syllabic elements.

- **Examples of syllabic consonants** include:
  - In English: The sound **/l/** in "bottle" ([ˈbɒtl̩]) and the sound **/n/** in "button" ([ˈbʌtn̩]).
  - In some languages like Polish or Hindi, syllabic consonants are common in everyday speech.

These syllabic consonants usually occur in unstressed syllables, and their pronunciation is different from typical consonants. For example, the "n" in "button" is pronounced as a syllabic consonant, making the word sound like "but'n.".

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is a syllabic consonant?
2. How is a syllable structured?
3. What is a consonant cluster?

SYLLABLE STRUCTURE

Syllables are made up of consonant and vowel sounds. While a vowel sound is the nucleus of the syllable, consonant sounds usually serve the peripheral positions. A syllable can be divided into two parts, onset and rhyme, where rhyme is further divided into nucleus and coda. Onsets are the initial positions in a syllable taken by consonant(s). They act as the releasing factor. Rhyme has the nucleus as its first position, which is filled in by a vowel, and then one or several consonants may take the coda position. A syllable may not have onset or coda or both. Sometimes, syllables take consonant sounds in their nuclear position. Such consonants are called syllabic consonants. A syllable cannot have more than one vowel. When two vowel sounds come together, they are realised as a single vowel sound known as dipthong.

Syllables which end in vowel sounds and have no coda are known as open syllables. Syllables are termed close if the coda position is fulfilled.

Types of Syllables

Using the symbols V for vowel sounds and C for consonant sounds, let us look at the various types of syllables that can occur in English:

1. V
air /eə/
a /ə/, /eɪ/
2. VC
am /æm/
eat /ɪ:t/
3. CV
tea /tɪ:/
no /nəʊ/
4. CVC
cut /kʌt/
king /kɪŋ/
5. CCV
clay /kleɪ/
cry /kraɪ/
6. CCCV
spray /spreɪ/
screw /skru:/
7. CCCVC
scream /skrɪ:m/
street /strɪ:t/
8. CCCVCC
screamed /skrɪ:md/
strange /streɪndʒ/
9. CCCVCCC
strands /strænds/
strengths /streŋθs/
10. VCCCC
pre-empts /empts/
11. CVCCCC
tempts /tempts/
texts /teksts/
12. CCVCCCC
twelfths /twelfvθs/
13. CCVCCC
brands /brænds/
trunks /trʌnks/
14. CCVCC
crates /kreɪts/
snacks /snæks/

15. CVCC
tents /tent/
rains /reɪns/
16. VCC
and /ænd/
ask /a:sk/

Consider the following examples:

mutton /mʌ-tn/

rhythm /rɪ-ðm/

In both these words, the second syllable is marked CV although the final sound in both words is a consonant. As stated earlier, in some syllables the consonant functions as the nucleus of the syllable. Such consonants are known as syllabic consonants.

CONSONANT CLUSTERS

In English, it is possible to have up to three consonants at the beginning of the syllable and up to four consonants after the nucleus. The sequence of consonants occuring together at the beginning of the syllable or at the end of the syllable are known as consonant clusters. This can be represented as follows: (CCC) V (CCCC)

Consonant clusters are groups of two or more consonants that appear together in a syllable, without any vowels in between. These clusters can occur at the beginning (onset) or end (coda) of syllables.

1. **Onset Clusters**:
    - These appear at the start of syllables.
    - Example: "stop" → /st/ (onset cluster)
2. **Coda Clusters**:
    - These occur at the end of syllables.
    - Example: "text" → /kst/ (coda cluster)

Consonant Clusters in Different Languages:

- English has many complex consonant clusters, especially at the beginning and end of syllables. For instance, "str" in "street" or "spl" in "splash."

- Other languages, like Hawaiian, typically do not have consonant clusters, and each syllable tends to have a vowel (e.g., "kai" for "sea").

Consonant clusters can sometimes cause difficulty for non-native speakers of a language, especially when the language they speak does not have as many clusters.

ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- **What is a syllabic consonant?**
    - A syllabic consonant is a consonant that acts as the nucleus of a syllable, instead of a vowel.
- **How is a syllable structured?**
    - A syllable consists of three main parts: the onset (initial consonants), the nucleus (vowel or syllabic consonant), and the coda (final consonants).
- **What is a consonant cluster?**
    - A consonant cluster is a group of two or more consonants appearing together in a syllable, without any vowels in between.

LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we explored key concepts in phonology, such as **syllabic consonants**, **syllable structure**, and **consonant clusters**. We discussed how syllables are made up of an onset, nucleus, and coda, and how consonant clusters can form in both the onset and coda positions. Understanding these structures is essential for analyzing spoken language and improving pronunciation.

LESSON END ACTIVITY

Activity 1:

- Identify syllabic consonants in the following words and write their IPA transcription: "button," "bottle," "chicken," "garden."

Activity 2:

- Break down the following words into syllables, identify the onset, nucleus, and coda, and mark any consonant clusters: "light," "bricks," "strong," "streets."

GLOSSARY

1. **Syllabic Consonant**: A consonant that functions as the nucleus of a syllable.
2. **Onset**: The initial consonant or consonant cluster in a syllable.
3. **Nucleus**: The central vowel or syllabic consonant in a syllable.
4. **Coda**: The consonant or consonants that appear after the nucleus in a syllable.
5. **Consonant Cluster**: A sequence of two or more consonants in a syllable without intervening vowels.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Define a syllabic consonant and give examples from English.
2. Explain the three parts of a syllable and provide examples.
3. What is a consonant cluster, and where can they occur in a syllable?
4. How do syllabic consonants differ from regular consonants?
5. Break down the word "strength" into its syllables and identify the onset, nucleus, and coda.

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UNIT 8

SUPRASEGMENTAL FEATURES

STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Language is a powerful tool for communication, and the clarity of speech plays a vital role in its effectiveness. Beyond individual speech sounds (segmental features), **suprasegmental features** govern the rhythm, melody, and overall flow of speech. These features, such as stress, intonation, and rhythm, contribute significantly to conveying meaning, emotion, and emphasis. Understanding suprasegmental aspects is crucial for effective communication, especially in a global language like English, where variations in stress, intonation, and rhythm can affect comprehension and fluency.

OBJECTIVES

This unit will help the students to:

1. Define and explain the concept of **suprasegmental features** in phonetics and phonology.
2. Explore the specific features of stress, intonation, assimilation, and rhythm in speech.
3. Understand the rules of word stress and their influence on meaning.

4. Analyze strong and weak forms and their significance in connected speech.
5. Examine how accent and rhythm contribute to fluency in communication.
6. Provide practical activities and examples for applying these concepts in spoken English.

STRESS AND INTONATION

Stress

Stress is the relative emphasis placed on syllables in a word or words in a sentence. It impacts meaning and rhythm in English and is vital for clear communication.

1. **Word Stress**:
    - A syllable in a word is stressed by making it louder, longer, and often higher in pitch.
    - Examples:
        - *CONtract* (noun) vs. *conTRACT* (verb).
        - *PREsent* (noun) vs. *preSENT* (verb).
    - Incorrect stress can cause confusion, especially with minimal pairs like the above.
2. **Sentence Stress**:
    - Certain words in a sentence (typically **content words** like nouns, verbs, adjectives) are stressed, while **function words** (prepositions, articles, conjunctions) are often unstressed.
    - Example:
        - **Neutral Stress**: *She is GOING to the PARK.*
        - **Emphatic Stress**: *She is GOING to the PARK (not staying home).*

Intonation

Intonation is the rise and fall of the voice across phrases or sentences. It carries additional meaning, such as mood, attitude, or sentence type.

1. **Types of Intonation**:
    - **Falling Intonation**: Used in statements, commands, and WH-questions.
        - Example: *I want to go to the STORE.* (falling at the end)
    - **Rising Intonation**: Often used for yes/no questions and to indicate uncertainty.
        - Example: *Are you COMING?* (rising at the end)
    - **Fall-Rise Intonation**: Used to express doubt, politeness, or incompleteness.
        - Example: *I suppose we could try.*
2. **Intonation and Meaning**:
    - *You're going.* (falling → a statement)
    - *You're going?* (rising → a question)
    - *You're going…* (fall-rise → hesitation or suggestion)

ASSIMILATION

Assimilation occurs when sounds change to make speech easier and faster. It reflects how the sounds of words interact in connected speech.

1. **Types of Assimilation**:
    - **Progressive**: A sound is influenced by a preceding sound.
        - Example: *dogs* /dɒgz/ (the /z/ matches the voiced /g/).
    - **Regressive**: A sound is influenced by a following sound.
        - Example: *input* → [ɪmpʊt] (the /n/ changes to match the bilabial /p/).
    - **Reciprocal**: Both sounds affect each other.
        - Example: *don't you* → [dəʊntʃu].
2. **Examples in Everyday Speech**:
    - *Green park* → [griːn pɑːk] may become [griːm pɑːk].
    - *Good boy* → [gʊd bɔɪ] may become [gʊb bɔɪ].

WORD ACCENT

Definition:

Word accent refers to the prominence of a syllable in a word. English is a stress-timed language, and the placement of stress is not fixed, which makes it different from syllable-timed languages like French or Spanish.

Accent is taken from a Latin word accentus that can mean tone, intensity or signal. The word 'accent' as used in modern English has broader connotations and can be utilized for more than one linguistic feature. In our daily life, we use the term 'accent' to refer to the way a speaker speaks a language. And that is how we refer to the term 'accent' in a social/sociolinguistic domain. However, when we talk about the term 'accent' as in 'word accent' we are concerned about the general feature of a language that has to do with the relative prominence/emphasis/intensity of various components of speech. It is in this sense the term 'accent' shall be used in the discussion that follows. Accent is the intensity or prominence given to a certain syllable within a word, or certain words within a phrase or a sentence. Thus accent can be lexical (within the word) or prosodic (within the sentence).

What is Word Accent

Word accent or word stress or lexical stress is the prominence that is given to a certain syllable within a word by providing it a greater intensity that can result in features such as increased loudness. A syllable that shows relative prominence is said to be stressed, accented or tonic, while the other syllables that are relatively less prominent in speech are unstressed, accented or

atonic. One should keep in mind that the use of the word "tonic" is different from the "tone" that is a phonemic distinction in many languages.

Types of Word Accent

Word accent can have its types. Languages can have a fixed word accent, variable word accent, or a regular word accent. In languages that have a fixed word accent, the position of the accented syllable is fixed. As for instance, a language with a penultimate word stress will almost always have its penultimate syllable as stressed (Polish), and same way there will be languages that will have their stress on the first syllable only (Icelandic). Other languages that have a variable word accent, like English, have a less predictable stress system, and factors like etymology, morphology and grammar of the word decide which syllable would be accented. Such variations in the position of stress can bring a contrast to the meaning of a word. Thus stress can be phonemic in such languages.

Example

permit, permit (n, v)

insight, incite

Some other languages have neither a fixed word accent, nor do they show a variable word accent. Such languages have words where the stress is marked with some simple rules. These rules are highly predicable in nature, and so these languages are supposed to have a regular word accent (Latin, for example).

Languages might show stress in their writing system as well. Some languages like Spanish use diacritics to mark the accent.

Word accent in English

Languages with variable word accent, like English, show a random position of stress. Stress in English is not fixed – it is not tied to any particular syllable. The position of stress is mostly learnt by the speaker. There are rules depending on the type and constituents of the words, but not without exception. There are various words where native speakers have different opinions about which syllable should be accented, e.g. TeleVIsion, TELivision Some languages have only one level of stress. Some others have more than one level of stress. When languages allow more than one stress, we can see two stressed syllables in a word, primary and secondary. Primary stress is on the most prominent and intensified syllable; secondary stress is

attributed to the syllable whose intensity is more than the other syllables but lower than the one with the primary stress. Linguists like Chomsky and Halle have described four levels of stress in English, but there is no consensus on this issue among other linguists. In fact, the case for English being analyzed using only one level of stress is well argued by many linguists.

Significance:

1. Changes in stress can alter meaning.
    - Example: *DEsert* (a barren area) vs. *deSERT* (to abandon).
2. Stress is influenced by:
    - **Prefixes and Suffixes**:
        - Prefixes like *un-* or *re-* are often unstressed (e.g., *unHAPPY*, *reWRITE*).
        - Suffixes like *-ic*, *-tion*, and *-ity* shift stress to the syllable before them.
            - *eCONom → ecoNOMic*
            - *reLIable → reliability*

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is assimilation in speech?
2. How does word stress differ between nouns and verbs?
3. What is the role of intonation in speech?

THE RULES OF STRESS

English stress placement is governed by general patterns, though there are exceptions. Here are some rules:

1. **Monosyllabic Words**: Typically, the word is fully stressed (e.g., *cat, go*).
2. **Disyllabic Words**:
    - **Nouns and Adjectives**: Stress is usually on the first syllable (*TAble, PREtty*).
    - **Verbs and Prepositions**: Stress is usually on the second syllable (*beCOME, aBOVE*).
3. **Polysyllabic Words**:
    - Stress depends on suffixes and prefixes, as mentioned earlier.

Stress in Compounds:

- Compounds often stress the first element.
    - Example: *GREENhouse* (a building) vs. *green HOUSE* (a house painted green).

STRONG AND WEAK FORMS

In connected speech, function words like *and, but, have, can, must* often appear in their **weak forms** to maintain the rhythm and fluency of speech.

1. **Strong Forms**:
    - Occur when the word is emphasized or stressed.
        - Example: *I CAN do it* /kæn/.
2. **Weak Forms**:
    - Occur in natural speech when the word is not emphasized.
        - Example: *I can do it* /kən/.

Examples of Weak Forms:

- *And*: /ænd/ (strong), /ən/ or /n/ (weak).
- *Have*: /hæv/ (strong), /əv/ or /v/ (weak).

ACCENT AND RHYTHM IN CONNECTED SPEECH

Accent:

Accent refers to the way pronunciation varies based on regional, social, or individual factors. It includes differences in:

- **Phonemes**: *bath* may be pronounced /bɑːθ/ (British RP) or /bæθ/ (American English).
- **Intonation**: Some accents have distinctive intonation patterns.

Rhythm:

1. **Stress-Timed Rhythm**:
    - English has a **stress-timed rhythm**, where stressed syllables occur at regular intervals, and unstressed syllables are compressed.
        - Example: *The CAT ran UP the HILL.*
    - This contrasts with **syllable-timed languages** like Spanish, where each syllable takes about the same amount of time.
2. **Features of Connected Speech**:
    - **Linking**: Sounds are connected between words.
        - Example: *Law and order* → /lɔːr ənd ɔːdə/.
    - **Elision**: Omission of sounds for fluency.
        - Example: *friendship* → /frɛnʃɪp/.
    - **Intrusion**: Adding a linking sound between vowels.

- Example: *go on* → /gəʊ wɒn/.

Connected Speech Example:

- Written: *I want to go to the park.*
- Spoken: /aɪ wɒnə gəʊ tə ðə pɑːk/.

Mastering suprasegmental features is crucial for natural, intelligible speech. They:

1. Convey meaning and emotion (intonation, stress).
2. Ensure fluency (assimilation, weak forms).
3. Shape the unique rhythm of English (accent, stress-timing).

ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- **What is assimilation in speech?**
  - Assimilation is when a sound becomes more similar to an adjacent sound in connected speech, making pronunciation easier.
- **How does word stress differ between nouns and verbs?**
  - Nouns typically stress the first syllable (e.g., **‘computer**), while verbs usually stress the second syllable (e.g., **to re’port**).
- **What is the role of intonation in speech?**
  - Intonation helps convey meaning beyond the words themselves, such as expressing emotion, questioning, or signaling the end of a sentence.

LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we covered the essential aspects of prosody in speech, including **stress**, **intonation**, **assimilation**, **word accent**, and **rhythm in connected speech**. We explored how these features contribute to the natural flow of language and enhance communication. Understanding these concepts is crucial for improving both pronunciation and comprehension in spoken English.

LESSON AND ACTIVITY

A**ctivity 1**:

- Listen to a recording of a conversation and identify the rising and falling intonations. Transcribe the dialogue and mark the stressed syllables.

Activity 2:

- Take the word "record" and use it in both its noun and verb forms. Identify the stress pattern and the changes in pronunciation.

GLOSSARY

1. **Stress**: The emphasis placed on certain syllables or words.
2. **Intonation**: The variation in pitch during speech.
3. **Assimilation**: The process by which sounds become more like adjacent sounds.
4. **Word Accent**: The emphasis placed on specific syllables in a word.
5. **Rhythm**: The pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables in speech.
6. **Linking**: The connection of sounds between words in connected speech.
7. **Elision**: The omission of sounds in connected speech.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the rules for placing stress on nouns and verbs in English?
2. How does assimilation affect the pronunciation of words in connected speech?
3. What are the main intonation patterns in English, and how do they influence meaning?
4. Give an example of a sentence where strong and weak forms are used.

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UNIT 9

MORPHOLOGY

STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that deals with words their internal structure and how they are formed. The German poet, novelist, playwright and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749-1832) coined the term morphology in the nineteenth century in a biological context. This word is of Greek origin. The term 'morph' means shape or form and morphology means the study of forms.

Thus Morphology attempts to explain and account for the following:

- How words are created in a particular language
- What is the appropriate form of a word given its location in a particular sentence
- What governs the use of the correct form in a particular sentence

OBJECTIVES

BLOCK- III

This unit deals with the basic concepts in morphology. The primary intension of this unit is to enable the students to develop an insight into the word structure and word formation. The module is both theoretical and practical in nature. It is theoretical as it provides the students with considerable knowledge of morphological terms and processes. It is practical as it helps the students to develop their skills in morphological analyses. The essential reading and the additional reading list will help the students to have an in-depth understanding of the topic. The multiple choice questions and other exercise questions will help them to assess their knowledge and better understanding of the module.

MORPHEMES

Like phonemes, **morphemes** are distinct grammatical units from which words are formed. But unlike phonemes, morphemes have unique meanings. For instance, the words *seen* /sin/ and *lean* /lin/ are distinguished by one phoneme, but the phonemes /s/ and /r/ have no inherent meanings themselves. On the other hand, when you put the phonemes /d¿g/ together, they form a unit that has a different meaning from the unit formed by /kæt/: *dog* vs. *cat*. A morpheme is not the same thing as a word, though. For instance, the string of phonemes /d¿gz/ (*dogs*) means something different from /d¿gd/ (*dogged*) or /d¿gi/ (*doggy*). Furthermore, the /z/, /\d/, and /i/ seem to mean more or less the same thing in /legz/ (*legs*), /ræg\d/ (ragged), and /köti/ (*kitty*). But /z/, /\d/, and /i/ are not words. The logical conclusion is that each of these words has two morphemes with meanings like "plural", "having the quality of", and "affectionate diminutive". Likewise, it seems logical to conclude that the words *dogs* and *legs*, *dogged* and *ragged*, and *doggy* and *kitty* share common morphemes.

We can identify a morpheme by three criteria:

1. It is a word or part of a word that has meaning.
2. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.
3. It recurs in differing word environments with a relatively stable meaning.

Take the word *straight* /stret/. It is obviously recognised as a word by English speakers. Although we can divide it up in all sorts of ways (*trait* /tret/, *rate* /ret/, *ate* /et/), they all mean something different and leave us with meaningless remainders like /s-/, /st-/, and /str-/. The unit /stret/ occurs with relatively stable meaning in words like *straighten*, *a straight line*, and *straightedge*. Thus it fits the criteria for a morpheme. Likewise, consider the words *bright* (light) and *brighten* (make light). We might conclude that the *–en* in *brighten* is a morpheme with a causative meaning, and we certainly find that elsewhere in words like *deepen*, *soften*, *stiffen*.

A note on how to represent morphemes: Morphemes are normally represented using their most common English spelling surrounded by curly brackets: for instance, the morpheme in the simple word dog is represented {dog}. This is called **morphemic transcription**. Note that it refers to the meaning, not the pronunciation. What happens when the same morpheme has multiple pronunciations, as with the plural *–s*, pronounced /s/ in words like *cats* and /z/ in words like *dogs*? You use the same transcriptions. So *cats* would be represented as {cat} + {-s pl} and {dogs} would be represented {dog}+ {-s pl}. The "-" and "pl" are not strictly necessary, but they may help clarify the meaning. For instance, consider the word "walks" in "He walks in the park". Here the /s/ does not mean "plural"; it means "present tense". In both cases, the morpheme can only be attached to another morpheme, which is what the "-" indicates. By placing these extra markers in your morphemic transcription, you make it more clear. Often this is necessary because some morphemes sound the same but mean something difference. The "plural" and "present tense" morphemes are one example. Another is the /\r/ sound in *wider* and *baker*, which has two different meanings: "comparative" and "agent" (i.e. "one who does something"). The words would be transcribed {wide} + {-er comparative} and {bake} + {-er agent} In some cases the same morpheme may have two different spellings, as in *baker* and *actor*. The latter would be transcribed {act} + {-er agent}.When performing morphemic transcriptions, you should include as much information as you feel necessary in order to assure that your reader knows which morphemes you are talking about.

Classification of Morphemes:

Morphemes can be classifies into two types:

Free morpheme and bound morpheme.

(i) Free morphe me: Free morphemes are the words that can stand alone and work independently like for example: cat, dog, car, tree.

(ii) Bound morpheme: Bound morphemes are those which cannot stand alone and work independently. It occurs only in combination with other morphemes or root. For example: -un, -s, -er, -ing, -tion, – ly.

Classification of bound morpheme:

Affixes: Affixes are always bound morphemes that are attached to a word. Affixes in a word are assigned for the grammatical function. Affixes are added to a word or root of a word to change the meaning. Affixes can be further classified onto various types based on the position they occur in a word.

Prefix: It is the letter or group of letters that is always placed at the beginning of a word. It precedes the base.

For example: un-necessary, illogical, re-start, ir-regular.

Suffix: It follows the base. Suffixes are placed at the end of a word. For example: cleanli- ness, regular- ly, play- ing, play-er.

Circumfix: They occur on both sides of the base. One part appears before the base and the other part appears after the base. For example: un- mind- ful, in the Malay root word -adil ”fair” both the prefix ”ke” and suffix ”an” can be added to form the circumfix ke-adil-an ”fairness”.

Infix: It is placed within the base itself.

For example: d-um-ater which means wiser is an example from the Tagalog language. Further classifications of affixes are: Derivational morphemes, and Inflectional morphemes.

Derivational morpheme : Derivational morphemes are those which change the part of speech or meaning when combined with a root. Generally the affixes used with the root word are bound morphemes.

For example: Verb to Noun: sing – singer

Noun to adjective: length – long

Adjective to Adverb: happy – happily

Adjective to Verb: creative – create

Inflectional morpheme : Inflectional morphemes are those morphemes that do not change part of speech or meaning. It indicates the syntactic or semantic relation between different words in a sentence.

For example: wait to wait-ed, dog to dog-s, play to play-ing.

Portmanteau morpheme: Portmanteau morphemes are those morphemes which contain more than one meaning but cannot be further broken into separate morphemes.

E.g. she (3rd person+singular+feminine+subject)

Empty morphemes: Empty morphemes are those morphemes that have structure or form but have no semantic content.

For example: cran in the word cran-berry, berry has meaning of its own but cran doesn't have any semantic content.

Zero morphemes: Zero morphemes are those morphemes that are physically not present in the word, yet fulfil the grammatical requirement of the language. In the zero morphemes the null morpheme is added to the root, therefore it has a function but no form. For example: the verb put has same form in both past and present. Similarly the word cut has same form in both past and present. In the word sheep, the plural form is also sheep. The word sheep gets attached to a null plural morpheme, which changes the meaning but doesn't change the form.

Clitics: Clitics are morphemes that have phonological dependency on a neighbouring word but whose syntax is word like. They are syntactically independent but phonologically dependent and always bound on some other form. Clitics often have grammatical rather than lexical meaning. They belong to closed classes like pronouns, prepositions, determiners and conjunctions. They are usually appearing at the edge of a word, outside derivational and inflectional affixes. For example: the contraction of the morpheme is, as in 'what's happening?' or the contracted forms of the auxiliary verbs in I'm and we've are Clitics. Clitics can be of two types: proclitics and enclitics. Proclitics occur at the beginning of the morpheme that is before the host and enclitics occur at the end of a morpheme that is after its host.

Word: A word is the minimal free unit. A word may consist of a single morpheme as in red, white, boy, run or more than one as in redness, boys, running, quickly, Word can be used in different senses: as a physical unit and as a semantic entity. The physical entities, the written or spoken forms of a word are called **word forms**. In other words, word forms are the physical realization of lexemes. For example: 'talk', 'talked', 'ta lking' are different word forms of the word 'talk'. Words can be combined together to form phrases, clauses and sentences. Spoken words are made up of units of sound called phonemes, and written words of symbols are called graphemes.

Lexeme: Lexeme is a term used to refer to the idea that inflected forms which are also words themselves are still variants of a single word. It is the basic unit of meaning. The headwords or the vocabulary that are given in a dictionary are the lexemes. It includes all the inflected forms of a word.

For example: Play- ‘plays’, ‘playing’, ‘player’, ‘play’

Morph: A morph is the physical form representation of some morpheme in a language. It is the recurrent distinctive sound (phoneme) or sequence of sounds (phonemes). For example: the word infamous is made up of three morphs – in- fam-eous which represents one single morpheme. Langendoen defines it ”as a specific pronunciation associated with a specific meaning such that the pronunciation cannot be broken down into meaningful parts whose meanings combine to form the meaning of the whole.”

For example: the word ‘no’, there is no distinction between the morpheme and the morph as there is only one meaning associated with the pronunciation.

Discontinuous morpheme: Discontinuous morphemes are those morphemes that are interrupted by the insertion of another morphological unit. For example: Circumfixes.

Allomorph: They are the group of morphs that are the realization of the same morpheme. Just as an allophone is the variation of a single phoneme, an allomorph is a variety of a single morpheme.

For example: the English noun plural morpheme has the following allomorphs: -z as in dogs, -s as in cats, -Iz as in buses.

Suppletion: In suppletion the allomorphs of a morphe me are phonologically unrelated. For example: go-went, is-was, bad-worse-worst, one-first, good/better.

Root: A root is the basic lexical unit of a word, which contains the most significant aspects of semantic content. A root cannot be further reduced into smaller parts. Roots are the lexical morphemes and the base to which grammatical derivational morphemes are added to form a complex word. A root is that part of a word that is remaining after all the affixes are removed. It is the basic part that is remaining in a lexeme.

For example: in the word ‘untouchables’ the root is ‘touch’ , the suffix -able, prefix -un and another suffix -s are added to the root . ‘Play’ is the root form of ‘plays’, ‘playing’, ‘played’, ‘player.’ Some lexemes have more than one root. A root can also be a stem. As it is said “All roots can be base but not all bases are roots.”

Stem: Stem is a part of word that occurs before any inflectional affix. It is related to only inflection.

For example: 'touch' is the stem in the word 'to uched.' Bases can be called stems in inflectional morphology.

Base: A base is any form of a word to which affixes of any kind can be added. It yields a more complex form of a word. The affixes attached to a base can be inflectional affixes selected for syntactic reasons or derivational affixes which alter the meaning or the grammatical category of the base.

For example: a root like 'girl' can be a base since it can be attached to various other affixes like ' -s' as in girls '- ish' as in girlish.

Nida's principles for the identification of morphemes

(i) **Nida's Principle 1**: Forms, which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonemic form in all their occurrences constitute a single

Example: '-er' in singer, player, writer, teacher.

(ii) **Nida's Principle 2**: Forms, which have common semantic distinctiveness, but which differ in phonetic form may constitute a morpheme provided the distribution of formal differences is phonologically

For example: – z as in dogs, -s as in cats, -Iz as in buses respectively constitute a morpheme but their occurrences are phonologically conditioned.

(iii) **Nida's Principle 3**: Forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness, but which differ in phonetic form in such a way that their distribution cannot be phonologically defined constitute a single morpheme, if the forms are in a complementary

(iv) **Nida's Principle 4**: An overt formal difference in a structural series constitutes a morpheme, if in any number of such series the overt formal difference and a zero structural difference are the only significant features for distinguishing a minimal unit of phonetic semantic

For example: both 'books' and 'deer' are plurals, but one has the plural marker '-s' and the other has a null morpheme 'Ø' as the plural marker. According to Nida's 4th principle the plural marker '-s' and the other plural marker 'Ø' constitute the same morpheme.

(v) **Nida's Principle** 5: Homophonous forms are identifiable as the same or different morphemes based on the following conditions:

- Homophonous forms with distinctively different meanings constitute different morphemes. For example: pair, pare and pear constitute different morphemes.
- Homophonous forms with related meanings constitute a single morpheme if the meaning classes are paralleled by distributional differences. For example: 'run' in the expression 'they run' and 'their run.'

(vi) Nida's Principle 6: A morpheme is isolable if it occurs under the following conditions:

- In isolation
- In multiple combinations, in atleast one of which the unit with which it is combined occurs in isolation or in other combination.
- In a single combination, provided the element with which it is combined occur in isolation or in other combinations with non-unique constituents. For example: Morphemes like 'cran', 'rasp' etc. which occurs only in single combinations like cranberry, raspberry.

Morphophonemic processes:

Assimilation: Assimilation is the process in which one sound becomes more similar to another neighbouring sound under the influence of that neighbouring sound. The changes are classified as total-partial assimilation, progressive-regressive and contact-distant.

Total Assimilation- If a sound becomes completely identical to another by taking all the phonetic features that change is a total assimilation. For example: Latin septem 'seven' > Italian sette.

Partial Assimilation- Partial assimilation occurs when the assimilating sound acquires some of the features and doesn't become identical. For examp le: Old English efn 'even' > West-Saxon emn.

Progressive Assimilation- Forward spread of the feature in assimilation is known as progressive assimilation. A sound becomes more like the preceding sound. In progressive assimilation which is also known as perseverative assimilation the source of assimilation is the first sound in the sequence. For example: The English plural is either /z/ or /s/ when it occurs after a non-sibilant sound. The voicing feature is taken from the final consonant of the base. For example: "tape" pronounced as "tate"

Regressive Assimilation- Backward spread of feature in assimilation is termed as regressive assimilation. A sound becomes more like a following sound. In regressive assimilation also known as anticipatory assimilation the source of the assimilation is the second sound in the sequence.

For example: “tape” pronounced as “pape”

in + logical → illogical

Contact Assimilation- If the sound undergoing change and conditioning sound are immediately adjacent to each other then it is called contact assimilation. For example: the English word sixth [sIksT] [s] becomes dental under the influence of the adjoining [T].

E.g., in + possible → impossible

Distant Assimilation- If the sounds undergoing the changes are not adjacent to each other, it is called distant assimilation. E.g., penk^{w}e → k^{w}ink^{w}e

Reciprocal assimilation- If there is a mutual influence between the two phonemes it is known as reciprocal assimilation. When such a change results in a single segment with some features of both components, it is known as coalescence or fusion.

Dissimilation- If the sounds undergoing the changes become less similar to each other it is known as dissimilation. This can apply to sounds that were originally identical, or sounds that we re originally similar. In general, dissimilation refers to a process of two things becoming increasingly dissimilar. One popular example for describing this process is where various words in English, such as ‘marble’, take on an ‘l’ sound, where for instance, the original French word was ‘marbre’.

Gemination- It refers to the change which produces a sequence of two identical consonants from a single starting consonant. For example: osaa “he/she knows” becomes ossaa “he/she knows” (Finish).

De-Gemination- when a sequence of two identical consonants is reduced to a single occurrence. As in ‘immature’ the double /m/ in the spelling is pronounced as a single /m/.

Lengthening – It refers to the change in which some sounds usually vowels are lengthened in some context. For example: balk ‘brother- in- law’ becomes ba:lk ‘brother- in- law’ (Q’eqchi)

Shortening- It refers to the change in which some sounds usually vowels are shortened in some context.

Ablaut/Apophony- It refers to the alteration of sounds within a word that indicates grammatical information. For example: drink, drank, drunk.

Word Formation processes:

Compounding: It is the process of word formation that involves the combination of two complete already existing word forms into a single compound. The category of the entire compound is determined by its head. Endocentric and exocentric are the terms used to describe semantically headed and semantically non- headed compounds respectively.

Endocentric compounds : If AB is a compound of A and B, in endocentric compounds, AB is an instance of B. In this type of compounds the final element serves as the head of the compound and the reaming elements provide additional information. The head determines the basic syntactic or semantic category of the compound. The non-head stem, in endocentric compounds specifies a sub- category of the referents denoted be the head of the compound. For example: Chess table (a types of table), sky blue (a shade of blue).

Exocentric compounds: In this type of compounds AB is neither A nor B but a C somehow that is associated with A and B. Exocentric compounds do not have an overt semantic head. For example: Pickpocket (It is not related to pocket in any sense but it is a thief who steals from others pocket).

Copulative Compounds: In this type of compounds AB is A and B. Both A and B share the same status. They are written with a hyphen. Copulative compounds are also known as coordinative (dvandva) compounds. For example: producer-director.

Clipping: It is the word formation process which refers to the reduction of a word to one of its parts. For example: gas (gasoline). Clipping can be of four types.

Back clipping/Apocopation: here the initial part of the word is retained and the final part of the word is deleted. For example: exam (examination).

Fore clipping: It refers to the phenomenon in which the initial part of the word is deleted and the final part is retained. For example: phone (telephone).

Middle clipping: here the middle part of the word is retained. For example: flu (influenza).

Complex clipping: here one part of the original compound remains intact. For example: cablegram (cable telegram).

Blending: It is a word formation process in which a new word is formed by combining parts of two other words where the meaning of the new word is a combination of the meaning of the two words. For example: 'smog' derived from 'smoke' and 'fog' and contains meaning of both the words,'brunch' (breakfast+ lunch), 'motel' (motor+ hotel), 'newscast' (news+ broadcast).

Backformation: It is a process in which new words are formed by the removal of what looks like a typical affix in the language. For example: edit from editor, donate-donation, babysitter-babysit.

Coining: It is the invention of new words. For example: Xerox, Nylon.

Acronyms : These are the words created from the initial letters of several words or word parts in a phrase or name. The pronunciation of the words differs from the full forms for which they stand. For example: radar, UNO, TOEFL, NASA, AIDS.

Borrowing: It is the process in which new words are taken from some other language. The terms that are borrowed is known as loan words. For example: 'piano' is a borrowed term from Italian language.

Derivation: It is the process of forming new words from already existing ones by the addition of affixes. The derived word may not be in the same category of the root and it will be semantically distinct from the root. For example: establishment from establish.

Conversion: It is the process of word formation in which a new word is created from an already existing word without any change in the form. The category of the word is changed keeping the form same. For example: the adjective clean is converted to the verb clean, (verb) to hit – (noun) a hit, (noun) a sign – (verb) to sign.

Incorporation: It is the phenomenon in which a word usually a verb or preposition is compounded with another element typically a noun, pronoun or adverb.

For example: babysit.

Eponyms : A person after whom a discovery, invention, place, etc., is named for example: Cook Islands (James Cook).

Reduplication: It is the process of formation of new words either by doubling the entire word or only a part of the word. Full reduplication happens when the exact repetition of a sound or word takes place whereas partial reduplication involves constant ablaut or vowel alteration. For example: gin 'ourselves' – gingin 'we to us', so-so, bye-bye, hotch-potch, zig- zag.

Lexical Morphology: The lexical Morphology and Phonology model was introduced by Paul Kiparsky and K.P Mohanan. It involves the treatment of language with a symbiotic relationship between morphological and phonological rules. The central principle of lexical morphology is that the morphological component of the grammar is organized in a series of hierarchical strata. The English affixes are classified into two broad classes on the basis of their phonological behaviour. Affixes that do not result in any phonological variation on the base to which they are attached are called neutral affix. For example: – less, -ness. The affixes that cause an effect on the segmental and supra-segmental structure of the base to which they are attached are called the non-neutral affix. For example: -ec, -ee. The basic principle of lexical morphological model is the level-ordering hypothesis. It is assumed that the affixes are added to the base at different strata or levels and each stratum has associated with it a set of morphological rules that do the word building.

Auxilation: It is the process of development of lexical items into auxiliaries.

ALLOMORPHS

When a single morpheme takes more than one form, as the {-s pl} morpheme does, each form is called an **allomorph**. Here is another example: the indefinite article *a* also occurs as *an* in certain circumstances. There is only one morpheme {a} with two allomorphs /e/ (or /\/) and /æn/. Most allomorphs are phonemic variants; that is, they are slightly different pronunciations of the same morpheme. In many cases, the choice of allomorph depends on where the morpheme occurs in the word. For instance, in the present tense verb *talks* the {-s present tense} allomorph is /s/, but in *begs* it is /z/. In many cases the choice of allomorph is determined by the presence of another morpheme. For instance, in the word *pronounce* the allomorph of {nounce} (which means something like "say") is /nauns/, but in *pronunciation* it is /n\ ns/ because of the morphemes at the end of the word. (Many of my students in fact mispronounce and misspell the word *pron<u>u</u>nciation* as *pron<u>ou</u>nciation*. This is an unconscious simplifying of the morpheme into only one allomorph.) Another example is the change of stress in words like *átom* and *atómic* (the "´" indicates which syllable is stressed). Not only does the stressed syllable change when you add {-ic}, but some of the phonemes change. The morpheme {atom} in fact has two allomorphs: /´æt\m/ and /\t´¿m/.

The phenomenon of allomorphy (that is, the existence of multiple allomorphs for a single morpheme) occurs for a large number of reasons. Sometimes the reason is phonological

assimilation (as in *cats* and *dogs*). Sometimes allomorphs were created by phonological processes that took place in the past. For instance, {wolf} has the allomorphs /w¬lf/ and /w¬lv/ (in the plural *wolves*). The reason is that sometime around five hundred years ago /f/ became /v/ before the {-s pl} morpheme: hence we have variants like *wife*/*wives* and *leaf*/*leaves*. The process is no longer active, which is why we say the *Toronto Maple Leafs*, not the *Toronto Maple Leaves*. About the same period in history, /e/ and /«/ changed to /i/ in stressed syllables, although we still spell these vowels as if they were pronounced the old way (in words like *see*, *flee*, etc.). However, the change did not occur if the stressed syllable was followed by two more syllables, so we end up with morphemes like {supreme} with two allomorphs /suprim/ and /supr«m/ (*supreme*/*supremacy*). A similar process also explains the allomorphy in words like *divine*/*divinity* and *pronounce*/*pronunciation*. We could also call the vowel changes in the past tenses of some verbs allomorphs of the normal past tense inflection, as in the forms *talk*/*talked* and *run*/*ran*. So we would transcribe them something like {talk} + {-ed past tense} and {run} + {-ed past tense}.

Difficulties in Morphemic Analysis

Here are some problems to be aware of.

1. Tom may think of *automobile* as one morpheme meaning "motor car", where as Dick, is aware of two morphemes *auto-* (self) and *mobile* (moving), and he thinks that *automobile* is a combination of them. Not everyone may recognise every morpheme.
2. Persons may know of a given morpheme but differ the degree to which they are aware of its presence in various words. For instance, most English speakers know the agentive suffix /-\r/ (spelt <er, ar, or>) meaning "one who, that which", and recognise it in countless words like *singer* and *actor*. But many may only dimly sense the morpheme in *professor* and may overlook it entirely in *voucher*, *cracker*, and *tumbler*. This awareness will vary with different individuals.

Why are there differences in the awareness of morphemes. Education can provide one explanation. After all, you might be able to see *nose* and *nasal* containing the same morpheme, but what about *nuzzle* or *nasturtium*. Look these up in the dictionary, and the relationship will be clear as daylight. However, historical change in language contributes a great deal to out perception of ‘morphemeness’. For instance, words like *troublesome* and *lonesome* seem like they are composed of two morphemes. But what about *winsome*? Since *win* is not a free morpheme which has a meaning related to *winsome*, it can hardly be called the base of the word. We have to conclude that *winsome* only has one morpheme. But the origin of the word tells all: it comes from Old English *wynnsum* ‘joyous’, and the morpheme *wynn* ‘joy’ was then, but no longer, usable as a free morpheme. Likewise the word *ungainly* might seem to be composed of two morphemes *un-* and *gainly*. But what exactly does *gainly* mean? You’ll find it in dictionaries meaning ‘graceful’, but it will normally be marked as obsolete. So, if we’re talking about the

here and now, should we consider *ungainly* to consist of one or two morphemes? A variety of historical developments in meaning can obscure our perceptions of morphemic status. Often the only way to recognise the presence of some morphemes is through the study of the history of the English language and of foreign languages from which English has borrowed vocabulary (primarily Latin, Greek, and French). A good dictionary which gives the **etymology** (or origin) of words can help. However, when analysing morphemes in present-day English, it is important to consider whether the morphemes of the past are still recognisable today. The word *daisy* is probably only recognisable as one morpheme by most people today, but it was once three. Your dictionary will reveal that the word comes from *day's eye*.

LET'S CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Can an English word have more than one prefix? Give examples. More than one suffix? For example? More than one of each? Give examples. Divide the examples you collected into their root, derivational, and inflectional morphemes. 2. Check your dictionary to see how it deals with inflected and derived word forms. Does it list all the inflections of regular inflected words? Just irregular ones? Does it accord derived forms their own entries or include them in the entries of the forms from which they are derived? 3. Does your dictionary list bound morphemes? Which kinds?

Words

Every word must have at least one morpheme, but it may have more than one. Morphemes that can stand alone and have meaning as a word are called **free morphemes**. Morphemes that cannot stand alone but must be attached to another morpheme to have meaning are called **bound morphemes**. Hence there is a major difference between morphemes like *bright* {bright}, a free morpheme, and {–en}, a bound morpheme.

AFFIXES

A **base** is the part of the word that carries its principal meaning. Often it can be a free morpheme, such as {bright}, but it can also be bound. Most bases that are bound morphemes come in words of foreign origin. For example, the {sent} in *consent* and *dissent* has nothing to do with "sending"; it comes from the Latin word *sentire* "to feel".

A word must contain one base and may contain one or more other bound morphemes called **affixes**. An affix is a generic term for a bound morpheme that is not a base. If it occurs before the base it is called a **prefix**. If it occurs after the base, it is called a **suffix**. There is also a type of affix called an **infix**, which actually goes in the middle of the base. These are very rare in English, but two important examples are the vowel changes in *man*/*men* an *run*/*ran*. Clearly

these vowel changes represent plural and past tense morphemes. We'll be looking at these in another context later on.

Some important observations:

1. Prefixes and suffixes can be piled on top of each other, as in *insubordinate*:

prefix	prefix	base	suffix	suffix
{in-}	{sub-}	{ord}	{-in}	{-ate}

2. Infixes can only occur within the base, which is not possible to represent easily in standard morphemic notation:

singular	plural	present tense	past tense
*m**a**n* {man}	*m**e**n* {man} + {-s pl}	*r**u**n* {run}	*r**a**n* {run} + {-ed past tense}

Derivational and Inflectional Affixes

Some affixes have the effect of creating new words, although the end result may or may not have a closely related meaning. For instance, the affix {-en} added to {gold} will produce *golden*, the adjective form of *gold*. The prefix {con} added to {sent} will produce *consent*, whereas the prefix {dis} added to {sent} will produce *dissent*, quite a different meaning! Affixes of these types are called **derivational morphemes**. Sometimes derivational morphemes change the part of speech, converting, say a verb to a noun or vice versa (like *break*/*breakage*), or a noun to an adjective (like *day*/*daily*). Sometimes they derive a new word of the same part of speech like *camp*/*camper*. They can even have feminine meaning, like *fiancé*/*fiancée* or *baron*/*baroness*. Sometimes they have diminutive meanings like *dog*/*doggy*, *cat*/*kitten*. English has a great variety of derivational suffixes, in part because it has borrowed many from other languages. **Note: derivational morphemes are always prefixes or suffixes**.

Inflectional affixes (or just **inflections**) are morphemes which supplement the meaning of the base with information about the grammatical significance of the word in a particular sentence. Consider the following sentences.

1. The boy played with the dog/dogs.
2. The boy's dog played with him.
3. The boy plays/played with the dog.

4. The boy is happy/happier/happiest when playing with the dog.

The introduction of the underlined inflections does not change the basic meanings of the words but does give us essential information such as "How many?", "When?", and "How much?"

The inflectional system in English can be summarized as follows:

Inflection	Name	Examples
Noun Inflections {-s pl} {-s poss}	 Noun Plural Noun Possessive	 dogs, bushes boy's, boys', men's*
Verb Inflections {-s 3rd sg pres} {-ing vb} {-ed past} {-d past part}	3rd Person Singular Present Present Participle Past Tense Past Participle	runs, catches discussing chewed chewed, eaten**
Adjective Inflections {-er comp} {-est super}	 Comparative Superlative	bolder, sooner, nearer boldest, soonest, nearest

* English spelling distinguishes the possessive from other {-s} morphemes using apostrophes, but this is not in the pronunciation.
** -en is a very common variation from {–d} in the past participle. We'll talk about the reasons for this below.

Note: inflectional morphemes are always suffixes or infixes. Suffixes that do not have one of the inflectional meanings listed above are not inflectional; they are derivational.

Inflections often have allomorphs such as /s/ and /z/ for {-s pl}, or even the so-called zero-allomorph in words like "two *sheep*" and "two *fish*", where the plural morpheme is not pronounced, or in words like *ran*, where the {-ed past} morpheme is an infix. Some students find it confusing to represent these allomorphs with the more common English spellings *–s* and *–ed*. If you find this confusing, you may omit the spellings and just write {noun plural}, {past tense}, {comparative}, etc. All that is really important is that you be clear which morpheme you are indicating.

Historically, English had many more inflexions, and some of them still occur infrequently. Here are some examples;

1. Noun plurals: *ox*/*oxen*, *child*/*children*, *man*/*men*, *sheep*/*sheep*.
2. 3rd person singular present: *speaketh*, *pleaseth*.
3. Past participle: *driven*, *caught*, *slept*.

PREFIXS

Affixes that attach to the beginning of a word. They modify or change the meaning of the base word. You can provide examples like:

- **Un-**: Changes the meaning to the opposite (e.g., "known" becomes "unknown").
- **Re-**: Indicates repetition (e.g., "do" becomes "redo").
- **Dis-**: Often implies negation or reversal (e.g., "agree" becomes "disagree").

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. **Q**: What is the difference between a free morpheme and a bound morpheme?

WORD FORMATION

At the end of the day, morphemes combine into the linguistic units we identify as words. Exactly how we identify them as words is something that really isn't known. The nature of the problem is illustrated by variations in English spelling. For instance, *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary* lists the words *woodchuck* and *woodcock* as one word, but on the same page lists *wood duck* and *wood louse* as two. Are there any formal criteria for differences in the printed form? In fact, many combinations of free morphemes are written as two words in English where they would be written as one word in German.

For our purposes it is not important to dwell on how we identify words, since most of the time we intuitively identify words. If you want a test which is generally successful, try pausing between potential words. If you can insert a pause without stranding a meaningless (and therefore probably bounded) morpheme before or after the potential word, it probably is a word. There is one way this test yields lousy results. English contains many verbs consisting of two parts: verbs like *call up* (telephone), *keep on* (continue), *take off* (depart). If you separate the two parts, the meaning changes. Although we spell these verbs as two words, they are really one word. The part we spell separately is called a particle. Generally, these particles occurred at the

beginning of the word (in *forget* and *begin*, for instance) in the early history of English; however, from the nineteenth century onwards words with the particle at the end of the word have developed in large numbers. We'll be looking at these verbs in greater detail later.

Simple, Complex, and Compound Words

A **simple word** consists of a single free morpheme: like *slay*, *flea*, *long*, or *spirit*. **Complex words** consist of either two bound morphemes (*matricide*, *televise*, *exclude*, *cosmonaut*), or a bound morpheme and a free morpheme (*lioness*, *telephone*, *eraser*, *pyromania*). **Compound words** consist of two free morphemes.

Compound words bear a strong resemblance to grammatical constructions consisting of more than one separate word. In fact, they often imply concepts that can be expressed by grammatical constructions:

1. subject + verb earthquake (when the earth quakes)
2. verb + object killjoy (someone who kills joy)
3. verb + adverbial downpour (when something pours down)
4. subject + adjective high chair (a chair that is high)

Innumerable jokes have been based on word plays which pun on the resemblance of compound words with grammatical constructions consisting of two separate words. Here's one: "So the cannibal chief says to his victim, 'What did you do for a living?' The victim replies, 'I was an associate editor.' The chief answers, 'Cheer up. After tonight you'll be an editor-in-chief'" Normally compound words can be distinguished from grammatical constructions by different stress patterns. For instance, "It was a hard ball" is stressed differently from "They play hardball".

Word Etymologies

We now get to look at the interesting subject of how words are formed historically. Many of you notice that new words are created all the time, but fewer of you probably think about the fact that this has been going on for centuries. What is old now was once new. Some words, including many of our everyday words can actually be traced back some 5,000 years or more (though you have to reverse all the phonological changes that they've been subjected to). In addition, many words in English have been borrowed from other languages like French and Latin. Any good dictionary will give you the origin or **etymology** of a word, whether it goes back to Old English, the earliest form, or whether it has been borrowed from another language.

But English speakers do not rely on the current stock of vocabulary and borrowing from other languages. There are a number of other processes by which new words are created. We'll quickly go through a numbers of them.

1. Borrowing: loanwords as just described.
2. Compounding: we've already discussed this.
3. Derivation: by adding derivational suffixes to word bases, new word can be created. Examples are: *dis-advise*, *de-plane*, *tele-play*, *eco-system*, *counselor-ship*, and *Mc-Anything*.
4. Invention: some words are totally made up by stringing together meaningless phonemes. Examples are *Kodak*, *nylon*, *dingbat*, *goof*, and *blurb*.
5. Echoism: words whose sound suggests their meaning. Examples such as *hiss*, *peewee*, *clang*, *quack*, *whisper*. This is often called *onomatopoeia*.
6. Clipping: words created by cutting off the beginning or the end of a word, or both, leaving a part to stand for the whole. Examples are: *lab*, *dorm*, *prof*, *exam*, *plane*, *phone*, *flu*, *fridge*, *sitcom*, *math(s)*. Cf. Also US English *pissed*.
7. Acronymy: *acronyms* are words formed from the initials or beginning sounds of a succession of words Examples are: *MP* (Member of Parliament or military police), *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation), and *radar* (radio detecting and ranging).
8. Blending: words formed by fusing two words into one. Examples are: *brunch*, simulcast, *motel*, *smog*.

Here are two more. *Back-formation* is when a word consisting of two bound morphemes has one of the morphemes removed, turning the remaining bound morpheme into a free one. For instance, if you ask, "What does a *feeper* do?" the answer is, "He feeps." Historically, many words have been created like this. The words *peddlar*, *beggar*, *swindler*, and *editor* all pre-existed the verbs *peddle*, *beg*, *swindle*, and *edit*, which were created from them. *Folk etymology* is when a new word is created to explain an historical form of the word which the speaker doesn't understand. Some examples will demonstrate what I mean. The word *female* comes from French *femelle*, Latin *femella*. It does not contain the morpheme {male}, but rather {fem} (woman) + {ella} (diminutive). However, from the fourteenth century on, English speakers began to associate the string of phonemes /mel/ in this word with the morpheme {male} and so altered the spelling. Another example is the term "net ball" in tennis. The term is actually "let ball", which preserves a now obsolete meaning *let* (prevented). In *Hamlet* I.4, for instance, Hamlet says to his two friends who are holding him back from following his father's ghost: "Unhand me, gentleman. / By heaven I'll make a ghost of him that lets me." The word is entirely different from the word *let* meaning "to allow". A novice tennis player unfamiliar with the term might understand it as *net*, since /l/ and /n/ are not far apart in sound, and *net* makes sense where *let* does not. *Real tennis* is another example. *Real* is the Old French spelling for "royal".

Form-Class Words and Structure-Class Words

Some words cannot have affixes, derivational or inflectional, attached to them (some examples

are words like *can*, *may*, *will*, *shall*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*). Words which can change their form through the addition of derivational or inflectional affixes are called **form-class words**: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Words which are incapable of changing through inflexion or derivation are called **structure-class words**: prepositions, conjunctions, and the like. Some words straddle the divide between the two classes, so we examine each separately.

ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: What is the difference between a free morpheme and a bound morpheme?

- **A**: A free morpheme can stand alone as a word (e.g., "book"), while a bound morpheme must attach to a base word (e.g., "un-" in "unhappy").

LET US SUM UP

This is a brief recap of the entire lesson, where you emphasize the key concepts covered:

- Morphology is the study of word structure and how words are formed from morphemes.
- Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units of language, and they can be free or bound.
- Affixes (prefixes and suffixes) modify or change the meaning of words.
- Word formation processes, like derivation and compounding, contribute to the richness of vocabulary.

LESSON AND ACTIVITY

Here, you could provide an engaging exercise or activity to reinforce the lesson:

- Ask students to break down words into their constituent morphemes.
- Have them create new words by adding prefixes or suffixes to given root words.
- Create a word formation challenge where they form compound words from given nouns or adjectives.

GLOSSARY

1. **affix:** an inflectional or derivational morpheme; to attach an inflectional or derivational morpheme to an expression.
2. **allomorph:** variant phonological representation of a morpheme.
3. **auxiliary verb:** a verb other than the main verb of a clause.
4. **base:** part of word to which an affix may be attached; may but need not be a root morpheme.

5. **bound morpheme:** a morpheme that must be attached to another morpheme.
6. **constituent:** a unified part of a construction (e.g., of a word, phrase, or sentence).
7. **conversion:** derivational relationship between two words of different parts of speech but without any formal marking of the difference.
8. **coordinative compound:** a compound word that denotes an entity or property to which both constituents contribute equally; e.g., bittersweet refers to a quality which is both bitter and sweet.
9. **derivation:** process of changing a word from one part of speech to another or from one subclass to another, typically by making some change in form.
10. **endocentric compound:** a compound word that denotes a subtype of whatever is denoted by the head. Armchair represents a type of chair; breathtest represents a kind of test.
11. **exocentric compound:** a compound word that denotes a subtype of a category that is not mentioned within the compound; e.g., pickpocket represents a kind of person, not a kind of pocket nor a kind of pick.
12. **free morpheme:** a morpheme that need not be attached to another morpheme, but can constitute a word on its own.
13. **head:** the main constituent of a compound, which may be modified by the compound's other constituents.
14. **inflectional morpheme:** a bound morpheme that signals a grammatical function and meaning in a specific sentence, e.g., plural {-s}, past tense {-ed}, comparative {-er}, superlative {-est}.
15. **morph:** a minimal meaningful form, regardless of whether it is a morpheme or allomorph.
16. **morpheme:** the smallest part of a word that has meaning or grammatical function.
17. **prefix:** a bound morpheme attached before a root.
18. **realization:** the representation of one or more abstract elements (e.g., morphemes) by concrete elements (e.g., sounds); e.g., women represents the morphemes {woman} + {plural}.
19. **root:** the basic constituent of a word, to which other morphemes are attached.
20. **suffix:** a bound morpheme attached after a root. suppletion: irregular inflectional forms of a word resulting from the combination of historically different sources; e.g., go/went.

TERMINAL QUESTIONS

These are final assessment questions that help evaluate the students' understanding:

- What is the difference between a free morpheme and a bound morpheme? Provide examples.
- How do affixes contribute to word formation? Give examples of both prefixes and suffixes.
- Describe a scenario where allomorphs might appear in language.

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UNIT- 10

SEMANTICS

STRUCTURE

Introduction

This section introduces the concept of **semantics**—the study of meaning in language. Semantics is central to understanding how language conveys meaning, not just through individual words but also through their relationships and how they are used in context.

Example **Introduction**:
Semantics deals with the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. Words can carry multiple meanings depending on their context, and the study of semantics helps us understand these nuances. This chapter will explore key aspects of meaning, including relationships between words (such as synonyms and antonyms), how meanings shift over time, and how context influences interpretation.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit the learners will be able to:

1. Identify and define **synonymy**, **antonymy**, **hyponymy**, **polysemy**, **ambiguity**, and **semantic change**.

2. Explain how words can have multiple meanings based on context.
3. Recognize and analyze examples of semantic changes over time.
4. Develop the ability to distinguish between different types of word meanings and their relationships.

SYNONYMY

Synonymy refers to the relationship between two words that have similar meanings. It is an important concept because it highlights how different words can be used to express similar ideas.

- **Full Synonyms**: Words that can be substituted for each other without changing the meaning (e.g., "big" and "large").
- **Near Synonyms**: Words with similar meanings but slightly different connotations or contexts (e.g., "happy" and "joyful"—both positive, but "joyful" may imply a deeper or more intense feeling).

Example:

- "Car" and "automobile" are synonyms, but "car" is the more commonly used term, while "automobile" may sound more formal.

ANTONYMY

Antonymy refers to the relationship between words that have opposite meanings. There are different types of antonyms, depending on how their opposites are defined.

- **Gradable Antonyms**: Words that exist on a spectrum (e.g., "hot" vs. "cold").
- **Complementary Antonyms**: Opposites where one thing cannot be both true and false at the same time (e.g., "alive" vs. "dead").
- **Relational Antonyms**: Opposites that are defined by a reciprocal relationship (e.g., "teacher" vs. "student").

Example:

- **Gradable**: "Tall" vs. "short"
- **Complementary**: "True" vs. "false"
- **Relational**: "Buy" vs. "sell"

HYPONYMY

Hyponymy is the relationship where the meaning of one word is a more specific instance of a more general category. A **hyponym** is a word whose meaning is included within the meaning of a broader category, the **hypernym**.

- **Example**:
  - "Dog" is a hyponym of "animal" (since "dog" is a specific type of "animal").
  - "Rose" is a hyponym of "flower."

POLYSEMY

Polysemy occurs when a single word has multiple meanings that are related by extension. The meanings of a polysemous word are usually connected in some way, often through metaphorical or historical shifts.

- **Example**:
  - The word "bank" can refer to a **financial institution** ("I went to the bank"), or the **side of a river** ("The boat was anchored at the bank").
  - Both meanings are connected by the notion of a "place of accumulation."

CHECK YOUR ANSWERS

Question: What is the difference between **gradual** and **complementary** antonyms?

AMBIGUITY

Ambiguity arises when a word, phrase, or sentence can have multiple meanings depending on the context. Ambiguity can occur at the word level (**lexical ambiguity**) or sentence level (**syntactic ambiguity**).

- **Lexical Ambiguity**: A word has multiple meanings (e.g., "bat" as a flying mammal or as a piece of sports equipment).
- **Syntactic Ambiguity**: A sentence can be interpreted in multiple ways due to its structure (e.g., "I saw the man with the telescope").

Example:

- "I went to the bank" could mean either a **financial institution** or the **side of a river**, depending on context.

SEMANTIC CHANGES

Semantic changes refer to the way word meanings evolve over time. These changes can occur due to shifts in culture, society, technology, and language use.

Types of semantic changes:

- **Broadening**: A word's meaning becomes more inclusive (e.g., "holiday" used to mean a religious day but now refers to any day of celebration).
- **Narrowing**: A word's meaning becomes more specific (e.g., "meat" once meant "food" in general, now refers specifically to the flesh of animals).
- **Amelioration**: A word takes on a more positive meaning (e.g., "knight" used to mean a servant, but now refers to a person of high rank).
- **Pejoration**: A word takes on a more negative meaning (e.g., "villain" once referred to a farm worker, but now means a wicked person).
- **Shift**: A word's meaning changes entirely (e.g., "gay" used to mean happy, but now primarily refers to sexual orientation).

ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Question: What is the difference between **gradual** and **complementary** antonyms?

Answer: Gradable antonyms exist on a spectrum (e.g., "hot" vs. "cold"), while complementary antonyms are opposites that have no middle ground (e.g., "alive" vs. "dead").

LET US SUM UP

- Semantics helps us understand the meanings of words and how they interact in different contexts.
- Synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, and polysemy are all important relationships between words.
- Ambiguity arises when words or sentences can have more than one interpretation.
- Words change meaning over time through broadening, narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, and shift.

LESSON AND ACTIVITY

This section involves interactive activities that reinforce the lesson's concepts. It encourages students to apply what they've learned.

Example Activity:

- **Synonymy Exercise**: Ask students to list synonyms for the word "happy" and discuss the subtle differences between them.
- **Polysemy Exercise**: Have students identify polysemous words and use them in different contexts.
- **Ambiguity Exercise**: Provide ambiguous sentences and have students identify different possible meanings.

GLOSSARY

A glossary provides clear definitions of key terms from the lesson. It's a helpful reference for students as they review the material.

Example Glossary:

- **Synonymy**: The relationship between words with similar meanings.
- **Antonymy**: The relationship between words with opposite meanings.
- **Hyponymy**: The relationship where a more specific word is a type of a more general word.
- **Polysemy**: When a single word has multiple meanings that are related by extension.
- **Ambiguity**: When a word, phrase, or sentence has multiple interpretations.
- **Semantic Change**: The process by which word meanings evolve over time.

TERM AND QUESTIONS

What is the difference between **narrowing** and **broadening** in semantic change? Provide examples.

Explain the difference between **gradable** and **complementary** antonyms with examples.

How does **polysemy** differ from **ambiguity**?

REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READING

1. **Semantics"** by John I. Saeed
2. **"Meaning and the Lexicon"** by Diane Blakemore
3. **JSTOR articles on semantics** for more in-depth exploration of word meaning and change.

UNIT- 11

DEVIATION

STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

This lesson explores various linguistic and literary devices—**Deviation**, **Foregrounding**, **Parallelism**, **Inversion**, and **Verbal Repetition**—which are fundamental in enhancing textual and poetic expression. By understanding these concepts, learners will appreciate how writers manipulate language to convey meaning, evoke emotions, and captivate audiences.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit leaners ill be able to:

1. Understand the concepts of **Deviation**, **Foregrounding**, **Parallelism**, **Inversion**, and **Verbal Repetition**.
2. Analyze the effects these devices have on communication and literary artistry.
3. Recognize and identify these techniques in literary texts.
4. Apply these techniques in creative writing or literary analysis.

DEVIATION

Definition:
Deviation occurs when a writer deliberately breaks linguistic norms or conventions for effect. This could mean inventing new words, violating grammatical rules, or using unusual structures.

Types of Deviation:

1. **Lexical Deviation**: Creating or altering words.
    - Example: *"He faced the unfaceable."* (invented word: "unfaceable")
2. **Grammatical Deviation**: Breaking grammar rules.
    - Example: *"Her silence loud, her absence present."* (grammatical inconsistency creates tension and emphasis)
3. **Graphological Deviation**: Manipulating text layout or punctuation.
    - Example: Concrete poetry, where the text forms a visual shape.
4. **Phonological Deviation**: Altering sound patterns.
    - Example: The use of onomatopoeia or unconventional rhyme schemes.
5. **Semantic Deviation**: Using paradox, metaphor, or oxymoron.
    - Example: *"The deafening silence filled the room."*

Effect:

- Captures attention by creating surprise or novelty.
- Encourages readers to think deeper about the meaning.
- Often used in poetry, advertising, and creative writing.

FOREGROUNDING

Definition:
Foregrounding is the technique of making certain elements in a text stand out to draw the reader's attention. This is achieved through **deviation** or **parallelism**.

Techniques:

1. **Deviation**: As described earlier, breaking norms to highlight an element.
2. **Parallelism**: Repetition of structures or ideas for emphasis.

Examples:

- In poetry: *"The sky wept, the earth sighed, the wind howled."* (personification combined with parallelism foregrounds nature's emotional reaction).
- In prose: *"He was not merely alive; he was vividly alive."*

Effect:

- Makes the text more engaging and memorable.
- Forces the reader to focus on key themes or ideas.

PARALLELISM

Definition:
Parallelism involves repeating similar grammatical structures in sentences or phrases to create rhythm, balance, or symmetry.

Types of Parallelism:

1. **Syntactic Parallelism**: Repetition of sentence structures.
    - Example: *"To know her was to love her, to love her was to lose her."*
2. **Semantic Parallelism**: Repetition of ideas with variation.
    - Example: *"He fought bravely, he lived fiercely, and he died honorably."*

Effect:

- Enhances readability and flow.
- Reinforces relationships between ideas.
- Often used in persuasive writing, speeches, and poetry.

INVERSION

Definition:
Inversion, also known as **anastrophe**, involves reversing the usual word order in a sentence to achieve emphasis or stylistic effect.

Examples:

1. **Poetic Inversion**:
    - *"In the night sky, a million stars shone bright."*
2. **Dramatic Inversion**:
    - *"Powerful you have become; the dark side I sense in you."* (from *Star Wars*)

Effect:

- Creates a formal or dramatic tone.
- Directs attention to particular words or phrases.
- Common in poetry and rhetorical writing.

VERBAL REPETITION

Definition:
Repetition is the deliberate use of the same word or phrase multiple times to emphasize an idea or create rhythm.

Types of Verbal Repetition:

1. **Anaphora**: Repetition at the beginning of clauses.
    - Example: *"I have a dream..."* (Martin Luther King Jr.)
2. **Epiphora**: Repetition at the end of clauses.
    - Example: *"See no evil, hear no evil, speak no evil."*
3. **Symploce**: Combination of anaphora and epiphora.
    - Example: *"When we win, we celebrate; when we lose, we reflect."*

Effect:

- Makes the message memorable and persuasive.
- Establishes rhythm and unity in a text.

Here's the **expanded version** of the lesson plan, with detailed explanations, examples, and activities:

LET'S SUM UP

This lesson explored five key linguistic and stylistic devices:

- **Deviation**: Breaking linguistic norms to create surprise.
- **Foregrounding**: Highlighting elements to draw attention.
- **Parallelism**: Repeating patterns for balance and emphasis.
- **Inversion**: Reversing word order for dramatic effect.
- **Verbal Repetition**: Repeating words or phrases for rhythm and emphasis.

These devices are fundamental tools in both creative and rhetorical writing, helping writers to engage their audience and convey meaning effectively.

LESSON AND ACTIVITY

Activity 1: Identify examples of each technique in a provided literary text (e.g., a poem or excerpt).

Activity 2: Write a short poem or paragraph using at least three of the devices discussed.
Activity 3: Discuss how these devices affect the tone and meaning of a selected passage.

GLOSSARY

- **Deviation**: A deliberate departure from standard language or norms.
- **Foregrounding**: Highlighting specific elements in a text for emphasis.
- **Parallelism**: Repetition of similar grammatical structures.
- **Inversion**: Reversing normal word order.
- **Verbal Repetition**: Recurrence of words or phrases to emphasize meaning.

TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. How does deviation enhance creativity in literature?
2. Why is foregrounding effective in drawing attention to specific ideas?
3. What are the similarities and differences between parallelism and verbal repetition?
4. Can you find examples of inversion in contemporary speech or writing?
5. Which device do you think is most impactful and why?

REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READING

1. Leech, G. N. (1969). *A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry*. Longman.
2. Simpson, P. (2004). *Stylistics: A Resource Book for Students*. Routledge.
3. Short, M. H. (1996). *Exploring the Language of Poems, Plays and Prose*. Longman.
4. Jakobson, R. (1960). *Linguistics and Poetics*. MIT Press.
5. Practical examples from literary works by Shakespeare, Frost, and Eliot.

BLOCK- IV

UNIT – 12

SYNTAX

STRUCTURE

12.1 INTRODUCTION

English grammar forms the structural foundation of the English language, guiding how words are organized and combined to create meaning. As a comprehensive set of rules, grammar encompasses a wide range of components, including syntax (sentence structure), morphology (word formation), phonology (sound patterns), and semantics (meaning). Mastering English grammar is essential for effective communication, as it ensures clarity, coherence, and accuracy in both spoken and written language. Whether used for everyday conversations, academic writing, or professional correspondence, a strong grasp of grammar helps convey ideas more precisely and enhances comprehension among listeners and readers.

The development of English grammar has evolved over centuries, influenced by various linguistic and cultural shifts. Rooted in Germanic origins and significantly shaped by Latin and French, the grammar of English has adapted to become a flexible system that accommodates new

vocabulary, expressions, and structures. This adaptability has contributed to its status as a global lingua franca. Despite being perceived as complex, English grammar can be understood more easily when broken down into its essential elements: parts of speech, sentence structures, tenses, and punctuation. These elements create a framework that learners and speakers rely on to construct meaning and express thoughts effectively.

Understanding English grammar is not just about memorizing rules but also about applying them contextually and learning the nuances that native speakers take for granted. From identifying the roles of subjects and predicates to mastering different verb forms and agreement, grammar is crucial for navigating both basic and complex language structures. Additionally, proficiency in grammar supports language learners in developing confidence and competence, enabling them to read and write more proficiently, participate in discussions, and advance in academic and professional settings. Thus, learning and refining English grammar skills is an ongoing journey that fosters better communication and enriches one's linguistic capabilities.

Syntax is the study of how words combine to form sentences and convey meaning. It focuses on sentence structure and the relationships between words and phrases. This lesson delves into fundamental syntactic concepts such as Immediate Constituent (I.C.) analysis, determiners, clauses, noun and verb phrases, verb patterns, finite and non-finite verbs, and minimal vs. non-minimal structures. Additionally, we explore the article system and its features in English.

13.2. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

By the end of this lesson, learners will be able to:

1. Understand the fundamental concepts of syntax.
2. Analyze sentence structures using Immediate Constituent (I.C.) analysis.
3. Identify and use determiners, noun phrases, and verb phrases correctly.
4. Differentiate between finite and non-finite verbs, minimal and non-minimal forms.
5. Apply knowledge of verb patterns and article features in sentence construction.

13.3. I. C. ANALYSIS

Immediate Constituent (I.C.) Analysis

Explanation: Immediate Constituent (I.C.) Analysis is a method in linguistics used to break down a sentence into its simplest parts or constituents to understand its hierarchical structure. This analysis helps linguists and language learners see how words group together to form phrases, and how phrases combine to make sentences. By decomposing sentences, I.C. analysis makes it easier to identify grammatical relationships and understand sentence construction.

The main idea behind I.C. analysis is that sentences are composed of smaller units that can be divided into two main parts at each level of analysis. These parts, called *constituents*, can themselves be divided further until reaching the smallest meaningful units, or *morphemes*.

Purpose:

- To identify hierarchical relationships within a sentence.
- To analyze how words group together to form phrases and clauses.

Process of I.C. Analysis:

1. **Start with the full sentence** and identify its main components.
2. **Divide the sentence into its immediate constituents**—the largest chunks that make sense grammatically.
3. **Further divide those chunks** into smaller constituents until the sentence is fully broken down into individual words or morphemes.

Example: Consider the sentence:

- "The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog."

Step-by-step I.C. Analysis:

1. **Initial division**: Divide the sentence into the subject and predicate:
    - **Subject**: "The quick brown fox"
    - **Predicate**: "jumps over the lazy dog"
2. **Further division of the subject**:
    - Break "The quick brown fox" into:
        - **Determiner (Det)**: "The"
        - **Noun phrase (NP)**: "quick brown fox"
3. **Further division of the predicate**:
    - Break "jumps over the lazy dog" into:
        - **Verb (V)**: "jumps"
        - **Prepositional phrase (PP)**: "over the lazy dog"
4. **Further division of the prepositional phrase**:
    - Break "over the lazy dog" into:
        - **Preposition (P)**: "over"
        - **Noun phrase (NP)**: "the lazy dog"
5. **Division of the noun phrase "the lazy dog"**:
    - Break into:
        - **Determiner (Det)**: "the"

        - **Adjective (Adj)**: "lazy"
        - **Noun (N)**: "dog"

Complete Breakdown:

- Sentence: "The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog."
    - Subject: "The quick brown fox"
        - Det: "The"
        - NP: "quick brown fox"
    - Predicate: "jumps over the lazy dog"
        - V: "jumps"
        - PP: "over the lazy dog"
            - P: "over"
            - NP: "the lazy dog"
                - Det: "the"
                - Adj: "lazy"
                - N: "dog"

Benefits of I.C. Analysis:

- **Clarifies Sentence Structure**: By breaking down a sentence into its components, one can easily see the roles of different words and phrases.
- **Aids in Language Learning**: Understanding the structure of a sentence helps learners build correct sentences and improves grammatical knowledge.
- **Assists in Parsing Complex Sentences**: I.C. analysis is particularly useful for analyzing complex sentences with multiple clauses and phrases.

Applications:

- **Teaching and Learning**: I.C. analysis is used in educational contexts to teach students how to parse and understand sentence structures.
- **Computational Linguistics**: This method is applied in natural language processing (NLP) for tasks such as syntactic parsing and sentence diagramming.
- **Linguistic Research**: I.C. analysis helps linguists study the syntax and structure of different languages and dialects.

In summary, Immediate Constituent Analysis is a powerful tool for understanding the internal structure of sentences by systematically breaking them down into their parts. Through this method, one can better grasp how words and phrases combine to create meaningful language.

Example:
Sentence: *The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog.*

I.C. Analysis:

- [The quick brown fox] [jumps over the lazy dog]
- [The] [quick brown fox]
- [jumps] [over the lazy dog]

13.4. DETERMINERS

Definition: Determiners are words that introduce nouns and provide context about the noun in terms of quantity, specificity, possession, or definiteness. They play a crucial role in English grammar by clarifying what the noun is referring to, whether it is something specific or general, singular or plural, or owned by someone.

Types of Determiners: Determiners can be categorized into several types, each serving a different function:

1. **Definite and Indefinite Articles**:
    - **Definite Article**: *the* – used to refer to a specific noun that is known to both the speaker and the listener.
        - **Example**: *The* cat on the sofa is sleeping.
    - **Indefinite Articles**: *a, an* – used to refer to a non-specific noun.
        - **Example**: I saw *a* cat in the yard. (It could be any cat.)
2. **Demonstratives**:
    - These indicate the relative distance or position of the noun in relation to the speaker.
    - **Examples**: *this, that, these, those*
        - *This* book is interesting. (near)
        - *Those* chairs are broken. (far)
3. **Possessive Determiners**:
    - These show ownership or possession.
    - **Examples**: *my, your, his, her, its, our, their*
        - *Her* dog is very playful.
        - *Their* house is at the end of the street.
4. **Quantifiers**:
    - These express quantity or amount.
    - **Examples**: *some, any, few, many, much, several, a lot of*
        - There are *many* students in the class.
        - She has *some* apples in her bag.
5. **Numbers**:

- Cardinal numbers (e.g., *one, two, three*) act as determiners to indicate specific quantities.
  - **Example**: He has *two* sisters.
- Ordinal numbers (e.g., *first, second, third*) indicate position or order.
  - **Example**: This is his *first* job.

6. **Distributive Determiners**:
   - These refer to members of a group individually or collectively.
   - **Examples**: *each, every, either, neither*
     - *Each* student must submit the assignment.
     - *Neither* option is suitable.
7. **Interrogative Determiners**:
   - Used to ask questions related to the noun.
   - **Examples**: *which, what, whose*
     - *Which* dress do you prefer?
     - *Whose* car is parked outside?

Examples of Determiners in Sentences:

- **Definite Article**: *The* sun rises in the east.
- **Indefinite Article**: She bought *an* orange at the market.
- **Demonstrative**: *These* cookies are delicious.
- **Possessive**: *My* brother is a doctor.
- **Quantifier**: We need *more* time to complete the project.
- **Number**: She received *three* gifts for her birthday.
- **Distributive**: *Every* member of the team contributed to the project.
- **Interrogative**: *Whose* idea was this?

Position of Determiners:

Determiners typically appear before the noun they modify. They can also come before any adjectives that describe the noun.

- **Example**: *The* small brown dog barked loudly.
  - *The* (determiner) comes before *small brown* (adjectives) and *dog* (noun).

Importance of Determiners:

1. **Clarifying Nouns**: Determiners help specify which noun is being discussed, making communication clearer.
2. **Indicating Quantity and Ownership**: They show whether a noun is owned by someone or how many of the noun are being talked about.

3. **Essential in Sentence Structure**: Determiners are necessary for constructing sentences that are grammatically correct and meaningful.

Common Errors with Determiners:

1. **Omitting Determiners**: Non-native speakers often omit determiners, leading to incorrect sentences.
    - Incorrect: Dog is barking.
    - Correct: *The* dog is barking.
2. **Using the Wrong Determiner**: Choosing an inappropriate determiner can change the meaning or make the sentence sound awkward.
    - Incorrect: I need *a* information.
    - Correct: I need *some* information.

Determiners are essential parts of English grammar that help provide clarity, specify meaning, and indicate relationships between nouns and the rest of the sentence. By understanding the various types of determiners and their uses, speakers and writers can construct clearer and more accurate sentences.

13.5 WORD CLAUSES

Definition: In grammar, a *clause* is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate (verb) and functions as a part of a sentence. Clauses are the building blocks of sentences and can stand alone as independent sentences or be part of a larger sentence as dependent or subordinate elements.

Types of Clauses

1. **Independent Clauses**:
    - An independent clause, also known as a *main clause*, expresses a complete thought and can stand alone as a sentence. It contains both a subject and a predicate.
    - **Example**: *The sun set behind the mountains.*
        - Subject: *The sun*
        - Predicate: *set behind the mountains*
2. **Dependent (Subordinate) Clauses**:
    - A dependent clause does not express a complete thought and cannot stand alone as a sentence. It must be connected to an independent clause to form a complete sentence. Dependent clauses often begin with subordinating conjunctions (e.g., *because, although, when, if*) or relative pronouns (e.g., *who, which, that*).
    - **Example**: *Although it was raining, we went for a walk.*

- Dependent clause: *Although it was raining*
- Independent clause: *we went for a walk*

Types of Dependent Clauses

1. **Noun Clauses**:
   - Function as a noun within the sentence. They can act as the subject, object, or complement.
   - **Example**: *What she said* was surprising.
     - Here, *What she said* acts as the subject of the sentence.
2. **Adjective (Relative) Clauses**:
   - Modify nouns or pronouns and provide additional information about them. These clauses usually begin with relative pronouns such as *who, whom, whose, which, that*.
   - **Example**: The book *that I borrowed from the library* was fascinating.
     - *That I borrowed from the library* modifies *the book*.
3. **Adverbial Clauses**:
   - Function as adverbs, modifying a verb, adjective, or another adverb. They usually begin with subordinating conjunctions such as *because, although, when, since*.
   - **Example**: We left early *because we were tired*.
     - *Because we were tired* explains why *we left early*.

Examples of Word Clauses in Sentences:

- **Independent Clause**:
  She enjoys reading novels.
  This clause expresses a complete thought and can stand alone as a sentence.
- **Noun Clause**:
  I believe that he will succeed.
  The clause *that he will succeed* acts as the object of the verb *believe*.
- **Adjective Clause**:
  The teacher who inspires me most is Mr. Johnson.
  The clause *who inspires me most* modifies the noun *teacher*.
- **Adverbial Clause**:
  We will start the meeting when everyone arrives.
  The clause *when everyone arrives* modifies the verb *start*, explaining when the action will take place.

Functions and Uses of Clauses

- **Constructing Complex Sentences**: Clauses are essential for forming complex and compound-complex sentences that express detailed and nuanced ideas.
- **Adding Specific Information**: Dependent clauses, especially adjective clauses, provide additional information that enriches the sentence without the need for separate sentences.
- **Providing Cause, Time, and Conditions**: Adverbial clauses are particularly useful for expressing conditions, reasons, and time relationships within sentences.

Examples of Clauses with Explanations:

1. **Complex Sentence with a Noun Clause**:
    - *She didn't know what he was thinking.*
        - The clause *what he was thinking* functions as the object of *know*.
2. **Complex Sentence with an Adjective Clause**:
    - *The car, which he bought last year, is already having problems.*
        - The clause *which he bought last year* adds information about *the car*.
3. **Complex Sentence with an Adverbial Clause**:
    - *I will call you as soon as I arrive.*
        - The clause *as soon as I arrive* tells when the action of calling will take place.

Common Mistakes with Clauses:

1. **Fragment Sentences**: A dependent clause without an independent clause results in a fragment, which is an incomplete sentence.
    - Incorrect: *Because she was late.*
    - Correct: *Because she was late, she missed the train.*
2. **Comma Usage with Clauses**:
    - Use commas to set off non-restrictive (non-essential) adjective clauses.
        - Correct: *The museum, which we visited yesterday, was impressive.*
    - Do not use commas for restrictive (essential) clauses.
        - Correct: *The book that I need is on the table.*

Understanding the structure and function of word clauses is essential for mastering sentence composition in English. Independent and dependent clauses allow writers and speakers to express complex ideas clearly and effectively. By recognizing how different clauses function within sentences, learners can improve their writing, make more varied and intricate sentences, and enhance their overall communication skills.

13.6 NOUN PHRASE

Definition: A *noun phrase* is a group of words that functions as a noun in a sentence. It consists of a noun as the main word (or *head*), along with any modifiers that describe or give more information about the noun. These modifiers can include determiners, adjectives, prepositional phrases, and other descriptors.

Noun phrases can serve various roles in a sentence, such as the subject, object, or complement. Understanding how to construct and identify noun phrases is essential for creating more detailed and nuanced sentences.

Components of a Noun Phrase

1. **Head Noun**:
    - The main word in the noun phrase that indicates what the phrase is about.
    - **Example**: In *the large brown dog*, the head noun is *dog*.
2. **Modifiers**:
    - Words or groups of words that add detail to the head noun. They can appear before or after the head noun.
    - **Types of Modifiers**:
        - **Determiners**: Articles (*the, a, an*), possessive pronouns (*my, your*), demonstratives (*this, that*), and quantifiers (*some, many*).
            - **Example**: *The* car, *my* friend, *several* books.
        - **Adjectives**: Words that describe or modify the noun.
            - **Example**: *A bright blue sky*, *delicious homemade cookies*.
        - **Prepositional Phrases**: Phrases that provide additional context about the noun.
            - **Example**: *The book on the table*.
        - **Relative Clauses**: Clauses that provide more information about the noun.
            - **Example**: *The man who lives next door*.

Examples of Noun Phrases in Sentences

1. **Simple Noun Phrase**:
    - *Cats are playful.*
        - The noun phrase *Cats* acts as the subject of the sentence.
2. **Noun Phrase with Determiner and Adjective**:
    - *The old house stood at the end of the street.*
        - The noun phrase *The old house* includes a determiner (*The*) and an adjective (*old*) modifying the head noun (*house*).
3. **Noun Phrase with Prepositional Phrase**:
    - *The painting on the wall is beautiful.*
        - The noun phrase *The painting on the wall* includes the prepositional phrase *on the wall* that modifies the head noun *painting*.

4. **Noun Phrase with Relative Clause**:
    - *The students who studied hard passed the exam.*
        - The noun phrase *The students who studied hard* includes the relative clause *who studied hard* providing additional information about *the students*.

Roles of Noun Phrases in Sentences

1. **Subject**:
    - *The tall giraffe* reached for the highest leaves.
        - Here, *The tall giraffe* is the subject of the sentence.
2. **Direct Object**:
    - She bought *a new laptop*.
        - *A new laptop* functions as the direct object of the verb *bought*.
3. **Indirect Object**:
    - He gave *his friend a gift*.
        - In this case, *his friend* acts as the indirect object, receiving *a gift*.
4. **Complement**:
    - My dream is *to travel the world*.
        - The noun phrase *to travel the world* serves as the complement of the subject *My dream*.

Complex Noun Phrases

Noun phrases can become more complex by adding multiple layers of modifiers:

- **Example**: *The beautiful antique vase in the museum's main exhibit* was crafted in the 18th century.
    - **Breakdown**:
        - **Head noun**: *vase*
        - **Modifiers before the noun**: *The beautiful antique*
        - **Modifiers after the noun**: *in the museum's main exhibit* (prepositional phrase)

Expanding and Reducing Noun Phrases

Expanding Noun Phrases: To create more detailed sentences, you can add modifiers to expand a noun phrase.

- **Simple**: *The dog* barked.
- **Expanded**: *The large brown dog with a wagging tail* barked loudly.

Reducing Noun Phrases: Reducing complexity can make sentences more concise. This often involves omitting unnecessary modifiers or condensing relative clauses.

- **Original**: *The man who is standing by the door* is my father.
- **Reduced**: *The man standing by the door* is my father.

Common Mistakes with Noun Phrases

1. **Misplaced Modifiers**:
    - Placing modifiers in the wrong position can lead to confusion.
    - Incorrect: *A picture of a bird by the artist* (unclear if the bird or picture is by the artist).
    - Correct: *A picture by the artist of a bird*.
2. **Overuse of Modifiers**:
    - Overloading a noun phrase with too many adjectives or descriptors can make it cumbersome.
    - Simplify when necessary for clarity.

Noun phrases are fundamental components of sentences that serve multiple roles, from subjects to objects and complements. By understanding how to construct and modify noun phrases effectively, one can improve sentence variety, clarity, and overall communication skills in writing and speech.

13.7 VERB PHRASE

Definition: A *verb phrase* is a group of words that functions as the predicate of a sentence. It consists of a main verb and any auxiliary (helping) verbs, along with modifiers, complements, or objects. Verb phrases can be simple, consisting of only a main verb, or complex, including auxiliary verbs and other components.

Verb phrases are essential for indicating the action, state, or occurrence in a sentence. They provide information about *tense*, *aspect*, *mood*, and *voice*.

Components of a Verb Phrase

1. **Main Verb**:
    - The central part of the verb phrase that expresses the main action or state.
    - **Example**: In *She runs*, the main verb is *runs*.
2. **Auxiliary (Helping) Verbs**:
    - Verbs that accompany the main verb to form different tenses, aspects, moods, or voices. Common auxiliary verbs include *be, have,* and *do*.

- **Example**: *is running*, *has eaten*, *did play*.
- Modal auxiliary verbs (e.g., *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must*) add meaning related to possibility, permission, or obligation.
- **Example**: *She can swim*, *They must leave*.

3. **Modifiers**:
   - Adverbs or adverbial phrases that modify the verb to provide additional information about time, manner, frequency, or place.
   - **Example**: *He quickly finished the assignment*.
4. **Complements and Objects**:
   - Words or phrases that complete the meaning of the verb.
   - **Example**: *She gave him a gift* (where *him* is the indirect object and *a gift* is the direct object).

Examples of Verb Phrases in Sentences

1. **Simple Verb Phrase**:
   - *They sing beautifully.*
     - The verb phrase is *sing*, and it expresses the action in the present simple tense.
2. **Verb Phrase with Auxiliary Verbs**:
   - *He is eating lunch.*
     - The verb phrase *is eating* includes the auxiliary verb *is* and the main verb *eating*, indicating the present continuous tense.
3. **Verb Phrase with Modal Verbs**:
   - *She might go to the party.*
     - The verb phrase *might go* includes the modal verb *might* and the main verb *go*, indicating possibility.
4. **Verb Phrase with Complements**:
   - *They consider him a genius.*
     - The verb phrase *consider him a genius* includes the main verb *consider* and its complement *him a genius*, completing the action.
5. **Verb Phrase with Modifiers**:
   - *He has been working diligently on the project.*
     - The verb phrase *has been working* includes auxiliary verbs *has* and *been*, the main verb *working*, and the adverb *diligently* as a modifier.

Functions of Verb Phrases

1. **Expressing Tense**:
   - Verb phrases indicate when an action takes place: past, present, or future.
   - **Example**: *She will arrive tomorrow.* (future tense)

2. **Indicating Aspect**:
    - Aspect shows whether an action is completed or ongoing (progressive, perfect, or perfect progressive).
    - **Example**:
        - *She has read the book.* (perfect aspect)
        - *She is reading the book.* (progressive aspect)
        - *She has been reading the book.* (perfect progressive aspect)
3. **Showing Voice**:
    - Verb phrases indicate whether the subject is performing the action (active voice) or receiving the action (passive voice).
    - **Example**:
        - *The chef cooked the meal.* (active voice)
        - *The meal was cooked by the chef.* (passive voice)
4. **Expressing Mood**:
    - Verb phrases can express different moods, such as indicative (statements), imperative (commands), and subjunctive (hypothetical or wishes).
    - **Example**:
        - *If she were here, she would help.* (subjunctive mood)

Examples of Complex Verb Phrases

1. **Progressive Aspect**:
    - *They are studying for their exams.*
        - The verb phrase *are studying* includes the auxiliary verb *are* and the main verb *studying*, indicating an ongoing action.
2. **Perfect Aspect**:
    - *I have completed my assignment.*
        - The verb phrase *have completed* includes the auxiliary *have* and the main verb *completed*, showing that the action is finished.
3. **Modal with Perfect Aspect**:
    - *She should have called earlier.*
        - The verb phrase *should have called* includes the modal verb *should*, auxiliary *have*, and main verb *called*, indicating that an action was expected but did not happen.

Common Mistakes with Verb Phrases

1. **Incorrect Use of Auxiliaries**:
    - Using the wrong auxiliary verb can change the meaning or lead to grammatical errors.
    - Incorrect: *She have finished the task.*

- Correct: *She has finished the task.*

2. **Confusing Tenses and Aspects**:
   - Mixing tenses inappropriately can make sentences unclear.
   - Incorrect: *He is went to the store.*
   - Correct: *He has gone to the store.*
3. **Omitting Auxiliary Verbs**:
   - Omitting an auxiliary when needed for certain tenses or aspects results in an incomplete verb phrase.
   - Incorrect: *She reading a book.*
   - Correct: *She is reading a book.*

Verb phrases are fundamental components of English sentence structure, providing the necessary detail to convey actions, states, and occurrences accurately. By understanding how to form and use verb phrases correctly, including their components and functions, speakers and writers can create sentences that are grammatically sound and express nuanced meaning.

13.8 VERBAL GROUP

A *verbal group* is a grammatical unit in a sentence that includes the main verb along with any auxiliary (helping) verbs, and can sometimes include other elements such as modal verbs or participles. The verbal group forms the predicate of a sentence, providing information about what the subject is doing or what is happening to the subject.

Components of a Verbal Group

A verbal group consists of the following elements:

1. **Main Verb (Lexical Verb)**:
   - The main verb is the core of the verbal group, and it carries the primary meaning of the action or state. It can be a simple verb (e.g., *run*, *eat*) or a verb in a more complex form.
   - **Example**: In *She reads books*, the verb *reads* is the main verb.
2. **Auxiliary (Helping) Verbs**:
   - Auxiliary verbs are used with the main verb to form different tenses, aspects, moods, or voices. Common auxiliary verbs include *be*, *have*, and *do*. Modal verbs such as *can*, *should*, *might*, and *must* can also be part of a verbal group.
   - **Example**: In *She has been reading*, *has been* is an auxiliary verb group.
3. **Modal Verbs**:
   - Modal verbs (e.g., *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must*) express necessity, possibility, ability, or permission. They can appear in the verbal group before the main verb.

- **Example**: In *She might go to the party*, the modal verb *might* modifies the main verb *go*.

4. **Participles**:
   - The present participle (-ing form) and past participle (typically ending in -ed, -en, or irregular forms) are often used in combination with auxiliary verbs to form continuous and perfect tenses.
   - **Example**: In *She is running*, *running* is the present participle, and *is* is the auxiliary verb.
5. **Infinitive**:
   - The infinitive form of the verb (e.g., *to read, to eat*) can be part of a verbal group when used after certain verbs, adjectives, or nouns.
   - **Example**: In *She decided *to leave*, the infinitive *to leave* is part of the verbal group.

Examples of Verbal Groups in Sentences

1. **Simple Verbal Group**:
   - *She sings beautifully.*
     - The verbal group here is *sings*, which is the main verb.
2. **Verbal Group with Auxiliary Verbs**:
   - *They have been working on the project.*
     - The verbal group *have been working* includes two auxiliary verbs: *have* (perfect aspect) and *been* (progressive aspect), along with the main verb *working*.
3. **Verbal Group with Modal Verb**:
   - *She can swim very well.*
     - The verbal group *can swim* includes the modal verb *can* and the main verb *swim*, indicating ability.
4. **Verbal Group with Present Participle**:
   - *She is reading a book.*
     - The verbal group *is reading* includes the auxiliary verb *is* (present continuous tense) and the present participle *reading*.
5. **Verbal Group with Past Participle**:
   - *He has finished his homework.*
     - The verbal group *has finished* includes the auxiliary verb *has* (present perfect tense) and the past participle *finished*.
6. **Verbal Group with Infinitive**:
   - *He wants to leave the party early.*
     - The verbal group *wants to leave* includes the main verb *wants* and the infinitive verb *to leave*.

Types of Verbal Groups

1. **Simple Verb Group**:
    - A simple verb group consists of just one main verb.
    - **Example**: *They run every morning.*
2. **Complex Verb Group**:
    - A complex verb group consists of the main verb along with auxiliary and/or modal verbs.
    - **Example**: *She has been studying for three hours.*
        - The verb group *has been studying* is complex, involving the auxiliary verbs *has* and *been* along with the main verb *studying*.
3. **Perfect and Progressive Verb Groups**:
    - Perfect verb groups express completed actions (using the auxiliary verb *have*), while progressive verb groups express ongoing actions (using the auxiliary verb *be*).
    - **Example**:
        - *He has finished his homework.* (Perfect)
        - *He is doing his homework.* (Progressive)
4. **Modal Verbs in Verbal Groups**:
    - Modal verbs can combine with the main verb to indicate possibility, necessity, ability, or permission.
    - **Example**: *She must attend the meeting.*
        - The verb group *must attend* includes the modal verb *must* and the main verb *attend*.

Functions of Verbal Groups

1. **Expressing Tense**:
    - Verb groups are used to express when an action occurs (past, present, future).
    - **Example**: *She will go to the store.* (Future tense)
2. **Indicating Aspect**:
    - Aspect shows the duration or completion of an action (perfect, progressive, etc.).
    - **Example**:
        - *She is running every day.* (Progressive aspect)
        - *She has finished her work.* (Perfect aspect)
3. **Mood and Modality**:
    - Verb groups with modal verbs express necessity, possibility, or permission.
    - **Example**: *You must study for the test.* (Obligation)
4. **Voice**:
    - Verbal groups can indicate active or passive voice.
    - **Example**:

- Active: *The chef cooked the meal.*
- Passive: *The meal was cooked by the chef.*

Common Mistakes with Verbal Groups

1. **Incorrect Word Order**:
   - In questions or negative sentences, auxiliary verbs are often placed before the subject.
   - Incorrect: *She eating not lunch.*
   - Correct: *She is not eating lunch.*
2. **Omission of Auxiliary Verbs**:
   - In some tenses or moods, auxiliary verbs are essential for the proper construction of a sentence.
   - Incorrect: *She working hard.*
   - Correct: *She is working hard.*
3. **Misuse of Modal Verbs**:
   - Modal verbs are often misused with certain tenses or subjects.
   - Incorrect: *She can to sing.*
   - Correct: *She can sing.*

A *verbal group* is a crucial element in sentence structure that combines the main verb with auxiliary and modal verbs, forming the complete predicate. The use of verb groups allows speakers and writers to convey a wide range of meanings, such as actions, states, possibilities, and time frames. Understanding how to form and use verbal groups correctly is essential for mastering English grammar and producing clear, accurate sentences.

13.9 VERB PATTERNS

Verb patterns refer to the specific ways in which verbs are used in combination with other words (such as nouns, pronouns, objects, or other verbs) to form grammatically correct sentences. In English, verbs follow specific patterns depending on their meaning, tense, voice, and whether they require objects or complements.

Verb patterns are important because they help determine which type of structure a sentence will follow. For example, some verbs require direct objects, while others do not. Some verbs are followed by infinitive verbs (to + verb), while others are followed by gerunds (-ing form of the verb).

Types of Verb Patterns

1. **Verb + Infinitive (to + verb)**: Some verbs are followed by an infinitive verb (i.e., *to* + *verb*), often indicating a purpose, intention, or future action. Common verbs that are followed by an infinitive include *want*, *need*, *decide*, *plan*, *hope*, and *expect*.
    - **Example**:
        - *She wants to go* to the concert.
        - *They decided to leave* early.

    Note: Some verbs can be followed by either a bare infinitive (without "to") or a full infinitive. For example:

    - *She made him do his homework.* (bare infinitive)
    - *She wants him to do his homework.* (infinitive with "to")
2. **Verb + Gerund (verb + -ing)**: Certain verbs are followed by a gerund (the verb form ending in -ing), which functions as a noun. These verbs often relate to activities, experiences, or preferences. Common verbs followed by a gerund include *enjoy*, *mind*, *avoid*, *consider*, and *suggest*.
    - **Example**:
        - *I enjoy reading* books.
        - *He suggested going* to the park.

    Note: Some verbs have different meanings depending on whether they are followed by an infinitive or a gerund.

    - *Stop*:
        - *I stopped smoking.* (finished the activity)
        - *I stopped to smoke.* (paused to do the activity)
3. **Verb + Object + Infinitive**: Certain verbs require both a direct object and an infinitive to complete their meaning. These verbs often imply giving permission, making decisions, or ordering someone to do something. Common examples include *ask*, *tell*, *advise*, *permit*, and *order*.
    - **Example**:
        - *She *asked* him *to help* her with the project.
        - *The teacher *told* us *to read* the chapter.
4. **Verb + Object + Gerund**: Some verbs are followed by both a direct object and a gerund. These verbs often involve actions related to preventing or allowing an activity. Common verbs that follow this pattern include *enjoy*, *mind*, *suggest*, *recommend*, and *deny*.
    - **Example**:
        - *She accused him of lying.*
        - *I *forbid* you *from swimming* in the lake.

5. **Verb + that-clause**: Many verbs are followed by a clause beginning with "that," often reporting speech or thoughts. These verbs include *say*, *suggest*, *claim*, *believe*, *think*, and *agree*.
    - **Example**:
        - *She *said* that she *would come* later.
        - *I *believe* that he *is innocent*.
6. **Verb + Preposition + Gerund**: Some verbs require a preposition before the gerund. These combinations are often idiomatic and include verbs like *look forward to*, *be interested in*, *accuse of*, and *succeed in*.
    - **Example**:
        - *She is looking forward to meeting you.*
        - *They are interested in studying abroad.*
7. **Verb + Bare Infinitive (without "to")**: Certain verbs are followed by a bare infinitive, which means the infinitive form of the verb without "to." These verbs typically involve making requests, causing actions, or allowing actions. Common verbs followed by the bare infinitive include *let*, *make*, *help*, and *see*.
    - **Example**:
        - *She let him go home early.*
        - *I helped him finish the homework.*

Examples of Common Verb Patterns

1. **Verb + Infinitive**:
    - *She wants to become a doctor.*
    - *They plan to visit Paris next year.*
2. **Verb + Gerund**:
    - *He enjoys playing basketball.*
    - *We considered staying at home.*
3. **Verb + Object + Infinitive**:
    - *He asked her to marry him.*
    - *The boss ordered the employees to complete the project by Friday.*
4. **Verb + Object + Gerund**:
    - *I accused her of stealing my lunch.*
    - *She warned him against running in the street.*
5. **Verb + that-clause**:
    - *She believes that they will succeed in their project.*
    - *I suggested that he take a break.*
6. **Verb + Preposition + Gerund**:
    - *He is interested in learning new languages.*
    - *They are good at solving problems.*
7. **Verb + Bare Infinitive**:

- *She made him apologize for the mistake.*
- *I helped her carry the boxes.*

Verb Patterns with Specific Examples

1. **Verbs that take Infinitives**: Some verbs are typically followed by the infinitive form of another verb. These verbs generally express desires, intentions, or actions that are yet to happen.
   - **Examples**: *want*, *decide*, *hope*, *plan*, *expect*, *need*.
     - *He wants to play* soccer.
     - *We plan to travel* next summer.
2. **Verbs that take Gerunds**: Some verbs are usually followed by the gerund form, especially those that express preferences or actions that are happening or completed.
   - **Examples**: *enjoy*, *mind*, *avoid*, *suggest*, *stop*.
     - *She enjoys running* every morning.
     - *They suggested going* to the beach for the weekend.
3. **Verbs that take either Infinitive or Gerund (with a change in meaning)**: Certain verbs can be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, but the meaning changes depending on the choice.
   - **Example 1**: *stop*:
     - *I stopped smoking.* (Finished smoking)
     - *I stopped to smoke.* (Paused to smoke)
   - **Example 2**: *remember*:
     - *I remembered locking the door.* (I recall the action of locking the door.)
     - *I remembered to lock the door.* (I didn't forget to lock the door.)

Understanding verb patterns is crucial for constructing grammatically correct and clear sentences in English. By recognizing which verbs take infinitives, gerunds, or other patterns, learners can express themselves more accurately. Verb patterns are also essential for mastering sentence structure and conveying actions, states, or intentions effectively.

13.10 FINITE AND NON-FINITE FORMS

In English grammar, verbs can be classified into two main forms: **finite** and **non-finite**. These two forms play different roles in a sentence and have different grammatical properties. Understanding the difference between finite and non-finite forms is crucial for constructing correct and meaningful sentences.

Finite Verbs

A **finite verb** is a verb that shows agreement with the subject of the sentence in terms of **person** (first, second, or third) and **number** (singular or plural). Finite verbs are also inflected for **tense** (present, past, future) and **modality** (indicative, imperative, subjunctive).

Key Characteristics of Finite Verbs:

- **Tense**: Finite verbs indicate when an action happens (present, past, etc.).
- **Agreement**: Finite verbs agree with the subject in number and person.
- **Person**: The verb changes form according to the subject (I, you, he/she/it, we, they).
- **Modal Verbs**: Modal verbs like *can*, *should*, *might* are finite when used in sentences.

Examples of Finite Verbs:

1. **Tense**:
    - *She **plays** the piano every day.* (Present tense)
    - *He **played** football yesterday.* (Past tense)
2. **Agreement**:
    - *I **am** going to the store.* (First-person singular)
    - *They **are** studying for the test.* (Third-person plural)
3. **Modal Verbs**:
    - *You **should** eat your vegetables.* (Present, second-person singular)
    - *They **can** help you with your homework.* (Third-person plural)

Examples of Finite Verbs in Sentences:

- *She **writes** emails every morning.* (finite verb *writes*, present tense, third-person singular)
- *They **have** completed their assignments.* (finite verb *have*, present perfect tense, third-person plural)
- *I **will read** this book tonight.* (finite verb *will read*, future tense, first-person singular)
- *You **spoke** too quickly.* (finite verb *spoke*, past tense, second-person singular)

Non-Finite Verbs

A **non-finite verb** is a verb that does not show agreement with the subject and does not change according to tense or person. Non-finite verbs are typically used as verbals (gerunds, infinitives, or participles), and they do not serve as the main verb in a sentence. Non-finite verbs are used in various ways, including forming verb phrases, clauses, or other parts of speech.

Key Characteristics of Non-Finite Verbs:

- **No tense**: Non-finite verbs do not indicate when the action happens.

- **No agreement**: Non-finite verbs do not change based on the subject.
- **Verbals**: Non-finite verbs can function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs in the sentence.
- **Forms**: The three main forms of non-finite verbs are the **infinitive**, **gerund**, and **participle**.

Types of Non-Finite Verbs:

1. **Infinitive**:
    - The infinitive form of a verb is the base form of the verb preceded by the word "to" (e.g., *to eat*, *to sing*, *to play*).
    - Infinitives are used after certain verbs, adjectives, and nouns, and they can also express purpose, intention, or result.

    Examples:

    - *I want **to learn** French.* (infinitive verb *to learn*)
    - *She promised **to help** us.* (infinitive verb *to help*)
2. **Gerund**:
    - A gerund is the -ing form of a verb that functions as a noun in the sentence (e.g., *eating*, *swimming*, *reading*).
    - Gerunds are used after certain verbs, prepositions, and adjectives, and they often express activities, actions, or processes.

    Examples:

    - *I enjoy **reading** books.* (gerund *reading*)
    - *He is interested in **playing** football.* (gerund *playing*)
3. **Participle**:
    - A participle is a verb form that functions as an adjective or part of a verb phrase. There are two types of participles: the **present participle** (ending in -ing, e.g., *eating*, *running*) and the **past participle** (usually ending in -ed or irregular forms, e.g., *eaten*, *written*, *gone*).
    - **Present participles** are used to form continuous tenses or as adjectives.
    - **Past participles** are used to form perfect tenses, passive voice, or as adjectives.

    Examples:

    - *The **barking** dog woke me up.* (present participle *barking* used as an adjective)
    - *The **broken** glass was on the floor.* (past participle *broken* used as an adjective)
    - *They have **eaten** already.* (past participle *eaten* used in perfect tense)
    - *She is **running** fast.* (present participle *running* used in continuous tense)

Differences Between Finite and Non-Finite Verbs

1. **Tense and Agreement**:
    - **Finite verbs** show tense and agree with the subject.
        - *She **writes** letters.* (finite verb)
    - **Non-finite verbs** do not show tense or agreement.
        - *She **enjoys writing** letters.* (non-finite verb: gerund)
2. **Function in the Sentence**:
    - **Finite verbs** serve as the main verb in a clause and express an action or state that is related to the subject.
    - **Non-finite verbs** cannot serve as the main verb and instead function as noun phrases, adjective phrases, or adverbial phrases.
3. **Usage in Clauses**:
    - **Finite verbs** are used in main clauses and subordinate clauses.
    - **Non-finite verbs** are used in participial phrases, infinitive clauses, or gerund clauses.

Examples of Sentences with Finite and Non-Finite Verbs

1. **Finite Verb Example**:
    - *She **is eating** dinner right now.* (Finite verb: *is eating* - shows tense and agreement)
    - *They **have visited** the museum.* (Finite verb: *have visited* - shows present perfect tense)
2. **Non-Finite Verb Examples**:
    - *He wants **to join** the team.* (Non-finite verb: *to join* - infinitive)
    - *I enjoy **reading** books.* (Non-finite verb: *reading* - gerund)
    - *The **broken** window needs fixing.* (Non-finite verb: *broken* - past participle used as an adjective)

Understanding the difference between **finite** and **non-finite verbs** is essential for mastering English sentence structure. Finite verbs serve as the core verbs in sentences, reflecting tense and subject-verb agreement, while non-finite verbs, which include infinitives, gerunds, and participles, function differently in a sentence, often as noun phrases, adjective phrases, or part of complex verb constructions. By recognizing these forms, one can write and speak more effectively in English, ensuring proper verb use in a variety of contexts.

CHECK YOUR ANSWERS

- **Question**: What is the difference between **finite** and **non-finite** verbs?

13.11 MINIMAL AND NON-MINIMAL; ARTICLE FEATURES

In linguistics, the terms **minimal** and **non-minimal** are used in a variety of contexts to describe different aspects of language structures. Here, we will explore the concepts of **minimal** and **non-minimal** in relation to syntactic structures, particularly focusing on **article features** in English grammar.

Minimal and Non-Minimal: Basic Concepts

1. **Minimal**:
   In the context of linguistics, a "minimal" form generally refers to the simplest possible unit or structure that fulfills a grammatical function. Minimal forms often refer to elements that are required to form a correct sentence or clause but without any additional modifiers or embellishments. The minimal structure in a sentence might consist of a **subject** and a **verb**, or a **noun phrase** and a **verb phrase**, where no additional elements (like adjectives or adverbs) are included.
2. **Non-Minimal**:
   On the other hand, a "non-minimal" form includes additional elements or modifiers that expand or enrich the sentence. These elements are not strictly necessary for the basic grammatical correctness of the sentence but serve to provide more information, nuance, or detail. Non-minimal structures could include extra nouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, or other elements that go beyond the minimum requirement.

Article Features in English Grammar

Articles are essential components in English grammar. They are used to specify or introduce nouns, indicating whether a noun is definite or indefinite. Articles are divided into two types: **definite articles** and **indefinite articles**.

1. **Definite Article: "the"**
   - The definite article "the" is used to refer to a specific or known item, usually something that both the speaker and listener are familiar with.
   - It is used before singular and plural nouns, regardless of whether the noun is countable or uncountable.

   Example:

   - *The book on the table is mine.* (refers to a specific book that both the speaker and listener know)
   - *The cars parked outside belong to my neighbors.* (refers to specific cars that are known to both speaker and listener)
2. **Indefinite Articles: "a" and "an"**

- The indefinite articles "a" and "an" are used to refer to a non-specific item or something that is being mentioned for the first time.
- "A" is used before words that begin with a consonant sound (e.g., *a dog*, *a car*).
- "An" is used before words that begin with a vowel sound (e.g., *an apple*, *an hour*).

Example:

- *I saw **a** dog in the park.* (refers to any dog, not a specific one)
- *She wants to buy **an** umbrella.* (refers to any umbrella, not a specific one)

Minimal and Non-Minimal Article Features

1. **Minimal Article Features**:
   In minimal structures, the article is used in its most basic form with no additional modifiers or descriptive elements. This typically occurs when articles precede singular or plural nouns without additional adjectives, determiners, or qualifiers.

   Example of Minimal Structure:

   - ***A** cat sat on the mat.* (Here, *a* is the indefinite article, and the noun *cat* is the minimal unit in the noun phrase. There are no adjectives or other modifiers modifying the noun.)
   - ***The** dog barked loudly.* (Here, *the* is the definite article, and *dog* is the noun, which is in its minimal form with no additional description.)

   In these examples, the articles serve their fundamental function: introducing a noun or indicating its specificity.

2. **Non-Minimal Article Features**:
   In non-minimal structures, the article is often followed by additional words that modify or specify the noun in more detail. These structures may include adjectives, adjectives with determiners, or complex noun phrases that provide more information than the basic noun alone.

   Example of Non-Minimal Structure:

   - ***A** big, fluffy cat sat on the mat.* (Here, *a* is followed by two adjectives, *big* and *fluffy*, which provide more information about the noun *cat*.)

- ***The*** *red car in front of the house belongs to my friend.* (Here, *the* is followed by *red*, an adjective, and *in front of the house*, a prepositional phrase that further modifies the noun *car*.)

In these examples, the article "a" or "the" is still present, but the noun phrase is enriched with additional descriptive elements, making the structure non-minimal. The noun phrase now includes not just a noun but also modifiers and/or qualifiers that give additional meaning.

Understanding Minimal and Non-Minimal in Sentences

In sentence construction, minimal and non-minimal forms are used to balance clarity and detail. While minimal forms provide a simple, clear structure, non-minimal forms offer richer, more specific information.

- **Minimal Sentence Example**:
  - ***The*** *cat ran.* (Simple subject-verb-object structure with a definite article and noun. The sentence is grammatically complete but without any extra details.)
- **Non-Minimal Sentence Example**:
  - ***The*** *black cat with the white paws ran quickly down the street.* (Here, *the* is still the definite article, but the noun phrase *black cat with the white paws* is much more detailed, making the structure non-minimal. Additionally, the adverb *quickly* modifies the verb *ran*, further adding to the richness of the sentence.)

Summary of Minimal and Non-Minimal Article Features

1. **Minimal Articles**:
   - The article is followed by a noun, without additional modifiers.
   - The noun phrase is simple, serving to identify or introduce the noun.
   - Examples: *a cat*, *the book*.
2. **Non-Minimal Articles**:
   - The article is followed by one or more modifiers such as adjectives, prepositional phrases, or relative clauses.
   - These additional elements make the noun phrase more specific or descriptive.
   - Examples: *a big house*, *the red car in the driveway*.

In conclusion, understanding the distinction between **minimal** and **non-minimal** forms in English allows us to appreciate how articles function in sentence structures. **Minimal article usage** provides simplicity and clarity, while **non-minimal article usage** enhances the depth and

specificity of information. Both forms are essential in communication, depending on the context and the level of detail the speaker or writer wishes to convey.

13.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- **Question**: What is the difference between **finite** and **non-finite** verbs?
- **Answer**: Finite verbs show tense and agreement with the subject, while non-finite verbs do not show tense or agreement.

13.12 LET US SUM UP

English grammar is the system of rules that governs how words are structured, combined, and used to form meaningful sentences. It provides the framework that ensures effective communication and clarity in writing and speech. At its core, grammar includes a variety of components, such as parts of speech, sentence structure, verb tense, articles, and modifiers, each contributing to the overall organization and meaning of language.

The basic building blocks of English grammar are **parts of speech**, which include nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Each part of speech plays a specific role in a sentence. For instance, **nouns** represent people, places, or things, while **verbs** indicate actions or states of being. **Adjectives** describe nouns, and **adverbs** modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, providing more detail and context.

Sentence structure refers to how words are arranged to create meaningful sentences. In English, the most common sentence structure is **Subject-Verb-Object** (SVO), where the subject performs the action (verb) on the object. Sentences can also be more complex, including subordinate clauses and conjunctions that connect different parts of the sentence, allowing for more detailed expression of ideas.

Tenses are another important aspect of English grammar. They express the timing of an action, and English grammar uses past, present, and future tenses to indicate when something happens. Each tense has different forms, such as simple, continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous, allowing for further nuance in how actions are described in time.

Articles—"a," "an," and "the"—are used before nouns to define the specificity of the noun. The indefinite articles "a" and "an" refer to non-specific or general items, while the definite article "the" points to something specific or already known to both the speaker and listener. Proper use of articles is essential for conveying the right meaning in sentences.

Modifiers, including adjectives and adverbs, add detail to nouns and verbs. Adjectives modify nouns (e.g., *a tall building*), while adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (e.g., *she sings beautifully*). These modifiers enrich the language, making communication more precise and colorful.

In addition to these core components, **syntax** governs the arrangement of words in a sentence, ensuring clarity and correctness. English grammar also requires **subject-verb agreement**, meaning that the subject and verb must match in number and person. This helps ensure that the sentence is grammatically sound.

Finally, **punctuation** plays a crucial role in English grammar, helping to separate ideas, indicate pauses, and clarify meaning. Marks like periods, commas, question marks, and exclamation points are essential for expressing the intended message effectively.

In conclusion, English grammar is fundamental to constructing clear, accurate, and effective communication. By understanding and applying its rules, speakers and writers can convey ideas with precision, ensuring that their messages are easily understood by their audience.

In this lesson, we explored the essential aspects of syntax:

1. **I.C. Analysis** for understanding sentence structure.
2. The roles of **determiners** in modifying nouns.
3. **Word clauses** and their functional types.
4. The structure and function of **noun phrases** and **verb phrases**.
5. **Finite and non-finite verbs**, **verb patterns**, and **minimal/non-minimal forms**.
6. The use of **articles** in English.

These concepts form the foundation for analyzing and constructing grammatically sound and meaningful sentences.

13.13 LESSON END ACTIVITY

1. **Activity 1: Sentence Analysis**
    - Provide sentences for learners to break down using I.C. analysis.
    - Example: Analyze *"The young boy quickly climbed the tall tree."*
2. **Activity 2: Identifying Elements**
    - Identify determiners, clauses, and phrases in sample sentences.
    - Example: Find the noun phrase in *"The old man with a cane walked slowly."*
3. **Activity 3: Creative Writing**

- Write a short paragraph using all the discussed elements, ensuring a mix of minimal and non-minimal structures, noun phrases, and verb patterns.

13.14 GLOSSARY

1. **I.C. (Immediate Constituent) Analysis**:
   A syntactic method of breaking down a sentence into its constituent parts (such as noun phrases, verb phrases) to understand its structure and how different components work together.
2. **Determiners**:
   Words used before a noun to indicate specific or non-specific reference, quantity, or possession. Examples include articles (*the, a, an*), demonstratives (*this, those*), possessives (*my, their*), and quantifiers (*some, many, few*).
3. **Word Clauses**:
   A type of grammatical unit that consists of a subject and a predicate. Clauses can function as independent (main clauses) or dependent (subordinate clauses), and they express a complete thought or part of a thought.
4. **Noun Phrase**:
   A group of words centered around a noun that functions as the subject, object, or complement in a sentence. A noun phrase may consist of a noun alone or be expanded with determiners, adjectives, and other modifiers.
   Example: *The quick brown fox*.
5. **Verb Phrase**:
   A part of a sentence that includes the verb and any auxiliary or modal verbs, and sometimes direct or indirect objects.
   Example: *Has been waiting* in the sentence *She has been waiting for hours*.
6. **Verbal Group**:
   A group of words in a sentence that functions as the verb. It may consist of one main verb or include auxiliary (helping) verbs to indicate tense, aspect, or mood.
   Example: *Was running* in *She was running late*.
7. **Verb Patterns**:
   The different ways in which verbs can be combined with objects, complements, and modifiers to create complete meanings. Common patterns include transitive verbs (taking an object), intransitive verbs (not taking an object), and ditransitive verbs (taking both a direct and an indirect object).
   Example:
8. Transitive: *She reads books*.
9. Intransitive: *He sleeps*.
10. Ditransitive: *She gave him a gift*.
11. **Finite and Non-Finite Forms**:

12. **Finite Verbs**: Verbs that are marked for tense, number, and person. They form the main verb of a sentence.
    Example: *She plays tennis* (finite verb: *plays*).
13. **Non-Finite Verbs**: Verbs that do not indicate tense, number, or person. These are typically in the base form, infinitive, or participle form.
    Example: *She likes to play tennis* (non-finite verb: *to play*).
14. **Minimal and Non-Minimal**:
15. **Minimal**: Refers to the simplest structure in a sentence or phrase, containing only the essential elements needed for grammatical correctness.
    Example: *She runs* (minimal).
16. **Non-Minimal**: Refers to sentences or phrases with additional words or modifiers that provide more detail or nuance.
    Example: *She runs very fast* (non-minimal, with an adverb modifying the verb).
17. **Article Features**:
    The use of articles (*a, an, the*) in front of nouns to indicate definiteness or indefiniteness. "The" is used to refer to something specific, while "a" and "an" are used for non-specific or general references.
    Example: *I saw a cat* (indefinite), *The cat is sleeping* (definite).

13.15 TERM AND QUESTIONS

Short Question:

1. What is the function of a determiner in a sentence?
2. What is a clause in grammar?
3. What is a noun phrase?
4. What does a verb phrase consist of?
5. What is a verbal group?
6. What is meant by a verb pattern?
7. What is the difference between finite and non-finite verbs?
8. What is the difference between minimal and non-minimal structures in a sentence?
9. What are the three types of articles in English?

Long Questions

1. How does I.C. (Immediate Constituent) analysis help in understanding the structure of a sentence? Provide an example.
2. Explain the difference between definite and indefinite articles, and provide examples of how each is used in a sentence.
3. Describe the difference between an independent clause and a dependent clause, and provide an example of each in a sentence.

4. How does a noun phrase function in a sentence? Provide an example with a determiner and an adjective.
5. Identify the verb phrase in the following sentence: "She has been working on the project all day," and explain the role of each part.
6. Explain how a verbal group is different from a verb phrase, and provide an example from a sentence.
7. Discuss the different verb patterns (transitive, intransitive, ditransitive) and give examples of each.
8. Explain with examples the difference between finite and non-finite verb forms, and how each functions in a sentence.
9. Define minimal and non-minimal structures and give an example of each in a sentence.
10. Explain the role of articles in English grammar, with examples of when to use definite and indefinite articles in a sentence.

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UNIT - 14

STYLISTICS

STRUCTURE

14.1 INTRODUCTION

Stylistics is the linguistic study of style in language, focusing on how language choices create meaning, convey emotions, and produce aesthetic effects in texts. It bridges linguistics and literary criticism, analyzing features like **collocation**, **pragmatics**, **presupposition**, **implicature**, **metaphor**, and **felicity conditions**. Stylistics provides tools to uncover layers of meaning and enrich our understanding of language in both literary and non-literary contexts.

14.2. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

By the end of this lesson, learners will:

1. Define stylistics and describe its nature and scope.
2. Understand and apply concepts like collocation, pragmatics, presupposition, implicature, metaphor, and felicity conditions.
3. Analyze the role of implicature in literature to uncover hidden meanings.

4. Enhance critical thinking and analytical skills in interpreting language use.

14.3. STYLISTICS: NATURE AND SCOPE

Definition:
Stylistics studies the ways in which linguistic features are used to create meaning and stylistic effects.

Nature:

- Combines **linguistic analysis** with **literary interpretation**.
- Focuses on **form** (syntax, phonology, lexis) and **function** (pragmatics, semantics).

Scope:

1. **Descriptive Stylistics**: Explores how language is used in a given text.
2. **Evaluative Stylistics**: Judges the effectiveness of language use.
3. **Comparative Stylistics**: Compares stylistic features across texts or authors.
4. **Pedagogical Stylistics**: Aids in teaching literature and language through stylistic analysis.

14.4. COLLOCATION

Definition:
Collocation refers to the habitual pairing of words in language. Words that commonly occur together form strong collocations, contributing to naturalness in language use.

Examples:

- Strong collocation: *fast food*, *commit a crime*.
- Weak collocation: *quick food*, *perform a crime*.

Importance:

- Enhances readability and flow in texts.

14.5. PRAGMATICS

Definition:
Pragmatics examines how context influences the interpretation of meaning, focusing on implied meanings rather than explicit expressions.

Key Concepts:

- **Context**: The circumstances of communication (physical, social, cultural).
- **Speaker Intentions**: The intended meaning behind words.

Example:

- Literal meaning: *Can you open the window?*
- Pragmatic meaning: A polite request to open the window.

14.6. PRESUPPOSITION

Definition:
Presupposition refers to the implicit assumptions or background beliefs required for a statement to be meaningful.

Examples:

- *Have you finished the book?* (Presupposes that the person has started the book.)
- *The queen of England visited.* (Presupposes there is a queen of England.)

Effect in Literature:

Presupposition adds layers of meaning by leaving certain information unstated, encouraging readers to infer.

14.6. IMPLICATURE

Definition:
Implicature refers to implied meanings that arise from context and shared knowledge, often extending beyond literal interpretations.

Grice's Cooperative Principle:

Effective communication relies on adherence to these maxims:

1. **Quality**: Be truthful.
2. **Quantity**: Provide the necessary amount of information.
3. **Relation**: Stay relevant.
4. **Manner**: Be clear and concise.

Example:

- Statement: *It's quite warm in here.*
    - Implicature: *Please turn on the fan.*

14.7. METAPHOR

Definition:
Metaphor is a figure of speech where one concept is described in terms of another, creating vivid imagery and deeper meanings.

Examples:

- *The world's a stage.* (Life is likened to a theatrical performance.)
- *Her voice was a melody.* (Evoking the beauty of her voice.)

Effect in Literature:

Metaphors enrich literary texts by:

- Engaging readers' imaginations.
- Conveying abstract concepts in relatable terms.

14.8. FELICITY CONDITIONS

Definition:
Felicity conditions are the social and contextual requirements for speech acts (e.g., requests, promises) to be effective and valid.

Examples:

- A promise:
    - Speaker intends to fulfill the promise.
    - Listener believes in the speaker's commitment.

Effect in Literature:

Felicity conditions illuminate character relationships, social norms, and intentions through dialogue.

14.10. IMPLICATURE IN LITERATURE

Definition:
Implicature in literature refers to meanings implied through context, subtext, and shared cultural knowledge.

Examples:

- In Hemingway's *Hills Like White Elephants*, the dialogue implies a tense negotiation about abortion without explicitly stating it.
- Shakespeare often uses implicature to reveal characters' hidden motives.

Effect:

- Encourages active interpretation by readers.
- Adds depth and subtlety to character interactions and themes.

14.11. SUMMARY

This lesson covered the following:

1. The **nature and scope** of stylistics.
2. Key linguistic features: **collocation**, **pragmatics**, **presupposition**, **implicature**, **metaphor**, and **felicity conditions**.
3. The role of **implicature in literature**, creating layers of meaning and engaging readers.

These concepts are essential for analyzing and appreciating both literary and non-literary texts.

14.12. LESSON AND ACTIVITY

Activity 1: Identifying Collocations

- Provide examples of sentences with correct and incorrect collocations.
- Example: *She made a decision* (correct) vs. *She performed a decision* (incorrect).

Activity 2: Pragmatic Analysis

- Analyze the implied meaning in statements or dialogues.
- Example: *"Nice job!"* (Can imply praise or sarcasm, depending on context.)

Activity 3: Exploring Metaphors

- Analyze metaphors in poetry or prose.
- Example: Interpret the metaphor *"Hope is the thing with feathers"* by Emily Dickinson.

Activity 4: Literary Implicature

- Discuss subtext in excerpts from literature.
- Example: Analyze the implied meaning in conversations from *Pride and Prejudice*.

14.13. GLOSSARY

- **Stylistics**: Study of linguistic style in texts.

- **Collocation**: Habitual word pairings.
- **Pragmatics**: Study of meaning in context.
- **Presupposition**: Implicit assumptions in statements.
- **Implicature**: Implied meanings beyond literal words.
- **Metaphor**: Figurative language linking concepts.
- **Felicity Conditions**: Social/contextual rules for speech acts.

14.14. TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. Define stylistics and explain its scope.
2. What are collocations? Provide examples.
3. How does presupposition shape the interpretation of a statement?
4. Explain Grice's Cooperative Principle with examples.
5. Discuss the role of metaphor in enhancing literary meaning.
6. How does implicature function in literature? Give examples.

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CHAPTER 14

POETRY ANALYSIS

STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Poetry has long been a medium for exploring the complexities of human experience, often utilizing literary devices that challenge logic and conventional reasoning. This document delves into the use of the irrational in poetry, alongside concepts such as oxymoron, paradox, pun, and metaphor. By analyzing these elements, readers can better appreciate how poetry operates on multiple levels to convey depth and meaning.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1. To understand the role of irrational elements in poetry.
2. To analyze the literary devices of oxymoron, paradox, and pun.
3. To explore the structure and function of metaphors, including their grind and tenor.
4. To develop skills for analyzing and interpreting metaphors in poetry.
5. To enhance appreciation for the connotative power of words in poetry.

THE IRRATIONAL IN POETRY

Poetry often embraces irrationality to evoke emotion, mystery, and transcendence. By defying logic, poets can create profound and unexpected connections. Examples include surreal imagery, dream-like sequences, and juxtapositions of disparate ideas. This irrationality allows poetry to resonate with the subconscious, engaging readers on a deeper emotional level.

OXYMORON

- **Definition**: A figure of speech that combines contradictory terms to create a paradoxical effect.
- **Purpose**: Highlights complexity and adds depth by juxtaposing opposing ideas.
- **Examples**: “Sweet sorrow” (Shakespeare), “jumbo shrimp.”

PARADOX

- **Definition**: A seemingly self-contradictory statement that reveals a deeper truth upon reflection.
- **Purpose**: Engages readers in critical thinking and uncovers hidden layers of meaning.
- **Examples**: “The only constant is change” (Heraclitus), “Less is more.”

PUN

- **Definition**: A play on words exploiting multiple meanings or similar sounds for humor or rhetorical effect.
- **Jingle as Pun**: Puns are often employed in jingles and advertising to make phrases memorable. Example: “The best part of waking up is Folgers in your cup.”

SYLLOPSIS

- **Definition**: Syllopsis refers to the condensation of complex ideas into a succinct form, often seen in poetry where intricate themes are encapsulated in a few lines.
- **Usage in Poetry**: It allows poets to convey profound insights with brevity, encouraging readers to delve into multiple interpretations.
- **Example**: "I am large, I contain multitudes" (Walt Whitman).

THE GRIND AND TENOR OF METAPHOR

- **Structure of Metaphor**:
    - **Tenor**: The subject being described.

- **Vehicle**: The image used to convey meaning.
- **Grind**: The friction or tension between the tenor and vehicle, enriching the metaphor with complexity.

ANALYZING METAPHOR

1. **Identify the Tenor and Vehicle**: Determine the subject and the image representing it.
2. **Examine Literal vs. Figurative Meanings**: Explore how the metaphor shifts understanding.
3. **Context and Connotations**: Analyze how the metaphor fits within the poem and what associations it evokes.

CONNOTATION

- **Definition**: The implied or suggested meanings associated with a word beyond its dictionary definition.
- **Impact**: Adds emotional resonance and layers of meaning to poetry.
- **Example**: The word "home" suggests warmth, safety, and family, beyond its literal meaning.

SUMMARY

This document explored the irrational in poetry and various literary devices that poets use to convey depth and meaning. Through oxymoron, paradox, pun, metaphor, and connotation, poetry challenges readers' perceptions, evokes emotions, and stimulates intellectual engagement.

LESSON AND ACTIVITY

1. **Lesson**: Discuss examples of irrationality and paradox in famous poems.
2. **Activity**: Select a metaphor from a poem and analyze its tenor, vehicle, and connotations.

GLOSSARY

- **Irrational**: Defying logic or reason.
- **Oxymoron**: A combination of contradictory terms.
- **Paradox**: A self-contradictory statement revealing a deeper truth.
- **Pun**: A play on words for humorous or rhetorical effect.
- **Tenor**: The subject in a metaphor.

- **Vehicle**: The image used to describe the tenor.
- **Connotation**: Implied or suggested meanings of a word.

TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. Define oxymoron and provide two examples.
2. Explain the concept of the grind in a metaphor.
3. How does irrationality enhance the emotional impact of poetry?
4. Analyze the metaphor in the line: “Hope is the thing with feathers” (Emily Dickinson).

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