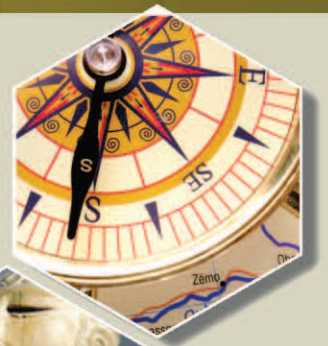


Institute of Open and Distance Education

Faculty of Arts

Linguistics & Phonetics

Linguistics & Phonetics



1MAENG5



Dr. C.V. Raman University
Kargi Road, Kota, BILASPUR, (C. G.),
Ph. : +07753-253801, +07753-253872
E-mail : info@cvru.ac.in | Website : www.cvru.ac.in



DR. C.V. RAMAN UNIVERSITY

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Compiled, reviewed and edited by Subject Expert team of University

1. Dr. Om Prakash Tiwari

(Associate Professor, Dr. C. V. Raman University)

2. Dr. Gurpreet Kour

(Associate Professor, Dr. C. V. Raman University)

3. Dr. Anupa Thamas

(Assistant Professor, Dr. C. V. Raman University)

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Dr. C.V. Raman University

Kargi Road, Kota, Bilaspur, (C. G.),

Ph. +07753-253801, 07753-253872

E-mail: info@cvru.ac.in

Website: www.cvru.ac.in

Unit-I

The word 'Linguistics' has been derived from Latin *lingua* (tongue) and *istics* (knowledge or science). Etymologically, therefore, linguistics is the scientific study of language. But it is the study not of one particular language but of human language in general. It studies language as a universal and recognizable part of human behaviour. It attempts to describe and analyze language. The field of linguistics comprises understanding of the place of language in human life, the ways in which it is organized to fulfil the needs it serves, and the functions it performs.

So linguistics is that science which studies the origin, organisation, nature and development of language descriptively, historically, comparatively and explicitly, and formulates the general rules related to language. Diachronic (historical) linguistics studies the development of language through history, through time, for example, the way in which French and Italian have evolved from Latin. Synchronic linguistics investigates how the people speak and use language in a given speech community at a given time. In Comparative linguistics one is concerned with comparing two or more different languages.

Linguistics, therefore, is the science that describes and classifies languages. The linguist identifies and describes the units and patterns of the sound system, the words and morphemes, and the phrases and sentences, that is the structure of language, as completely, accurately, and economically as possible.

Linguistic Levels

By 'linguistic levels' is meant the levels of language structure. There is a considerable difference among the linguisticians about the number and terminology of linguistic levels. Robert Ball (1969 : 32) recommends three levels-phonology (phonemics-phonetics), morphology and syntax. R.H. Robins (1971 : 11) mentions phonology, grammar and semantics. Hockett (1973: 137 - 138) advocates the following five levels which he calls subsystems:

- (i) *The grammatical system: a stock of morphemes, and the arrangements in which they occur;*
- (ii) *The phonological system: a stock of phonemes, and the assignments in which they occur;*
- (iii) *The morphophonemic system: the code which ties together the grammatical and the phonological system;*

- (iv) *The phonemic system: the ways in which sequences of phonemes are converted into sound waves by the articulation of a speaker, and are decoded from the speech signal by a hearer;*
- (v) *The semantic system: which associates various morphemes, and arrangements in which morphemes can be put, with things and situations, or kinds of things and situations.*

Hockett calls the first three of the above "central" subsystems, and the last two "peripheral" subsystems.

Such a labelling of names, however, should not lead one to confusion. There are no basic differences about the structure of language. Such a classification is done by the linguist for the sake of convenience in the study of the subject-matter, i.e. language which is a complex phenomenon. All these levels are inter-related aspects of his subject-matter, quite often over-lapping. Any separation or classification should not be treated as rigid or opaque. A linguist has to describe human language, and human beings do not use just one level of it at a time.

There are three aspects of language activity, or three types of pattern in language, the material, the structural and the environmental leading to three separate linguistic levels-SUBSTANCE, FORM AND CONTEXT. "The substance is the raw material of language; auditory (PHONIC substance) or visual (GRAPHIC substance). The form is the organization, the internal structure, it is grammar + lexis. The context is the relationship between form and situation, which we call meaning (Semantics). The linguistic science has to explain language at all these levels. These levels are explained below:

(i) **Phonetics:** Phonetics is the study of speech processes including the anatomy, neurology and pathology of speech, the articulation, classification and perception of speech sounds. Phonetics is a pure science and need not be studied in relation to a particular language, but it has many practical applications; e.g. in phonetic transcription, language teaching, speech therapy, communications engineering. Some phoneticians consider phonetics to be outside the central core of linguistics proper, but most would include it under the heading 'linguistic science.'. The linguistic aspects of phonetics, i.e., the study of sound systems of particular languages is part of phonology.

The study of phonetics can be divided into three main branches, ARTICULATORY PHONETICS, the study of the movement of the speech organs in the articulation of speech, ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, the study of the physical properties of speech sounds such as frequency and amplitude in their transmission, and AUDITORY PHONETICS, the study of hearing and the perception of speech sounds.

Laboratory Phonetics-Experimental phonetics or instrumental phonetics are general terms for phonetic studies which involve the use of mechanical and electronic apparatus. Several sophisticated instruments are used in modern times for this purpose.

Phonetics Substance-Phonetic substance, as opposed to the visual or graphic material of written language, refers to the auditory aspects or sound features of spoken language, as studied by articulatory, acoustic and auditory phonetics.

Phonology-Phonology is the study of speech sounds of a given language and their function within the sound system of that language. It covers both phonemics (synchronic phonology) and diachronic phonology (sound changes in the history of a given language). So phonology is the functional phonetics of a particular language, and is of great help in the learning of that language.

(ii) **Grammatical Level**-Grammatical level comprises of (a) SYNTAX, and (b) MORPHOLOGY.

(a) **Syntax**-Syntax is that branch of grammar which is concerned with the study of the arrangement of words in sentences and of the means by which such relations as inflexion, word order, etc., are shown. It is the grammar of sentence.

(b) **Morphology**-Morphology is that part of syntax or grammar which is concerned with the study and analysis of the structure, form and classes of words. It includes not only synchronic studies (morphemics), but also the history and development of word-forms (diachronic morphology). Morphology is the grammar of word.

(iii) **Semantics**-Semantics is the study of meaning and its manifestation in language. Formerly meaning was studied under philosophy and logic. But now it has become a part of the linguistic study. Its smallest unit is "sememe", the minimum functional unit of meaning. But sememe cannot be established with the same type of precision as phonemes, morphemes, and syntactic units.

Is Linguistics a Science?

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Like all other sciences linguistics has a well-defined subject matter viz. natural languages living or dead; it employs careful methods to observe, record and analyse the various phenomena related to its subject matter and hopes to present unprejudiced, objective and verifiable descriptions. The approach and methodology of linguistics is scientific. It is as inductive as a science could be, and is based on observations, formation of hypothesis, testing, verification, tentativeness and predictiveness. Like a scientist a linguist observes his data. Some of his methods of observation include simple listening, phonetic transcription, and the use of various instrument, such as oscillograph, soundspectograph, kymograph,

chromograph, phonograph, laryngoscope, endoscope, sonograph, autophonoscope, breathing flask, strobolaryngoscope, electric vocal tract, pitchmeter, intensitymeter, speechstretcher, formant graphing machine, etc. Records and cassettes made in these ways help in various kinds of objective description. A linguist has his language laboratory too.

Again, like a scientist a linguist develops hypotheses, makes generalized statements and tests them against the facts of languages. When a linguist or a phonetician makes a statement about languages, he makes it on the basis of observation. First he observes linguistic events. He finds some similarities and contrasts on the basis of which he makes sound generalizations. On the basis of these generalizations hypotheses are formulated to account for the events. These are tested by further observations, and out of them is constructed a theory of how language works. From the theory are derived methods for making statements about linguistic events. The statements link the theory to the events it is set up to account for, and they can now be evaluated by reference both to the theory and to the events; the best statements are those which make maximum use of the theory to account most fully for the facts.

The linguist also hopes to be in position to make prediction about unobserved linguistic data on the basis of those observed, and build a general theory which would explain and relate all the facts to be found in individual languages. Predictions about grammars and dictionaries can be made by him. And finally like a true scientist, he is constantly engaged in discovering more about languages in refining his methods of investigation, and in constructing better theories. He also tries to find out linguistic universals.

Like any scientific discipline, linguistics too is not static. Viewpoints and theoretical methods in the field, change even in fundamental ways from time to time, and different aspects come to receive primary focus at different times. Linguistics has more than its share of unresolved controversies and unsolved questions, which is a part of its fascination and challenge.

Finally, the closeness of Linguistics with other natural sciences like mathematics, physics, physiology, biology, zoology, etc., is another proof of its scientific nature. 'It touches on physics through acoustics, on physiology through the structure of the human vocal organs, on zoology through the comparative study of the communicative systems of living beings.' A glance on any book on transformational-generative grammar would convince any objective onlooker how linguistics is becoming more and more scientific. Furthermore, as mentioned by R.H. Robins, linguistics in its operations and statements is guided by three canons of science: (1) exhaustiveness, the adequate treatment of all the relevant material (2) consistency, the absence of contradiction between different parts of the total statement, and within the limits imposed by

the two preceding principles; and (3) economy, whereby, other things being equal, a shorter statement or analysis employing fewer terms is to be preferred to one that is longer or more involved. Consequently, linguistics is getting more and more technical and sophisticated every day. Yet it is not a pure science. Its position, says R.A. Hall, is between the natural and social sciences, like that of geology. To Robins it is an 'empirical science', and within the empirical sciences it is one of the social sciences', because its subject matter concerns human beings and is very much different from that of natural sciences.

Nevertheless, linguistics is the scientific study of language. It may be inductive or deductive; it is, however, objective, precise, tentative and systematic; it is concerned with reportable facts, methods, and principles; it works by means of observations, hypotheses, experiments and tests, postulates, and inferences; it makes generalization and predictions; it formulates theories; its products are descriptive, verbal or algebraic statements about language.

Branches of Linguistics

- *Applied Linguistics*
- *Psycholinguistics*
- *Sociolinguistics*
- *Computational Linguistics*
- *Descriptive Linguistics*
- *Cognitive Linguistics*
- *Historical Linguistics*
- *Comparative Linguistics*
- *Etymology*
- *Stylistics*
- *Neurolinguistics*
- *Paralinguistics*

Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics is applying theoretical linguistics to actual data. Once applied linguistics seemed boundless, including the study of first language acquisition and computational linguistics.

Applied linguistics then means many things to many people. But today, International Association of Applied Linguistics popularly known as AILA describes applied linguistics "as a means to help solve specific problems in society.....applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a "role." In Layman terminology, applied linguistics may be understood as that branch of language learning that, applies the findings and the techniques from

research in linguistics and related disciplines to solve practical problems., 'The major areas of Applied Linguistics are explained below.'

Sociolinguistics is connected to so many aspects of Linguistics, sociology, and politics. It is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms" expectations, and, context on the way language is used. Sociolinguistics overlaps to a considerable degree with pragmatics'.

It highlights the changes that take place due to certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, etc., and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social class or socio-economic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place (dialect), language usage varies among social classes, and it is these sociolects that sociolinguistics studies.

Pragmatics is the study of the ability of natural language speakers to communicate more than that is explicitly stated by words. The ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning is called pragmatic competence. An utterance describing pragmatic function is described as metapragmatic. For example, a person wanted to ask someone else to stop smoking. This can be achieved by using several utterances. The person could simply say, 'Stop smoking, please!' which is direct and with clear semantic meaning; alternatively, the person could say, 'Whew, this room could use an air purifier' which implies a similar meaning but is indirect and therefore requires pragmatic inference to derive the intended meaning.

Forensic linguistics is the name given to a number of sub-disciplines within applied linguistics, and which relate to the interface between language, the law and crime. Translation may be taken as the most significant area on which research concentrates.

Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics is an interdisciplinary field wherein many of the fields such as psychology, cognitive science, and linguistics play major role. Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, and understand language. Initially psycholinguistics was concerned with largely philosophical ventures because of lack of cohesive data on the functioning of human brain. Modern research makes use of biology, neuroscience, cognitive science, and information theory to study how the brain processes language and attaches meaning to the same.

Computational Linguistics

Computational linguistics is an interdisciplinary field dealing with the statistical and/or rule-based modelling of natural language from the point of view of computer usage. Traditionally, computational linguistics

was performed by computer scientists who had specialized in the application of computers to the processing of a natural language. But the modern research has shown that human language is much more complex than previously thought, so computational linguists often work as members of interdisciplinary teams, including linguists (specifically trained in linguistics), language experts (persons with some level of ability in the languages relevant to a given project), and computer scientists. In general computational linguistics draws upon the involvement of linguists, computer scientists, experts in artificial intelligence, cognitive psychologists, mathematicians, and logicians, amongst others.

Descriptive Linguistics

Descriptive linguistics is the work of analyzing and describing how language is spoken (or how it was spoken in the past by a group of people in a speech community. All scholarly research in linguistics is descriptive; like all other sciences, its aim is to observe the linguistic world as it is, without the bias of preconceived ideas about how it ought to be. Modern descriptive linguistics is based on a structural approach to language, as exemplified in the work of Bloomfield and others.

Cognitive Linguistics

Cognitive linguistics is the school of linguistics that understands language creation, learning, and usage as best explained by reference to human cognition in general. It is characterized by observance to three central positions. First, it denies that there is an autonomous linguistic faculty in the mind; second, it understands grammar in terms of conceptualization; and third, it claims that knowledge of language arises out of language use.

Cognitive linguists argue that knowledge of linguistic phenomena—i.e., phonemes, morphemes and syntax—is essentially conceptual in nature. Moreover, they argue that the storage and retrieval of linguistic data is not significantly different from the storage and retrieval of other knowledge and use of language in understanding employs similar cognitive abilities as used in other non-linguistic tasks.

Historical Linguistics

Historical linguistics also known as diachronic linguistics describes changes in any particular language. It is also concerned with reconstructing the prehistory of languages and determining their relatedness, grouping them into language families (comparative linguistics). It also develops general theories about how and why language changes in different speech communities. One of its thrust area is to study the history of words, i.e. etymology.

Comparative Linguistics

Comparative linguistics (originally known as comparative philology) is a branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages in order to establish their historical relatedness. Languages may be related by convergence through borrowing or by genetic descent.

Genetic relatedness implies a common origin or proto-language, and comparative linguistics aims to construct language families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages.

Etymology

Etymology is the study of the history of words-when they entered a language, from what source, and how their form and meaning have changed over time. The word 'etymology' itself comes from the Ancient Greek (etumologia) (etumon), 'true sense' + (logia), 'study of', from (logos), 'speech, oration, discourse word'.

In languages with a long detailed history, etymology makes use of philology, the study of how words change from culture to culture over time. However, etymologists also apply the methods of comparative linguistics to reconstruct information about languages that are too old for any direct information (such as writing) to be known. By analyzing related languages with a technique known as the comparative method, linguists can make inferences, about their shared parent language and its vocabulary. In this way, word roots have been found which can be traced all the way back to the origin of, for instance, the Indo-European language family.

Stylistics

Stylistics is the study of varieties of language whose properties position that language in context. For example, the language of advertising, politics, religion, individual authors etc., or the language of a period in time, all belong in a particular, situation. In other words, they all have 'place'.

Stylistics also attempts to establish principles capable of explaining that particular choices made by individuals and social groups in their use of languages, such as socialisation, the production and reception of meaning, critical discourse analysis and literary criticism.

Other features of stylistics include the use of dialogue, including regional accents and people's dialects, descriptive language, the use of grammar, such as the active voice or passive voice, the distribution of sentence, lengths, the use of particular language registers, etc.

Neurolinguistics

Neurolinguistics is the science concerned with the human brain mechanisms underlying the comprehension, production and abstract knowledge of language, be it spoken, signed or written. As an interdisciplinary endeavour, this field straddles the borders between linguistics, cognitive science, neurobiology and computer science, among others. Researchers are drawn to the field from a variety of backgrounds, bringing along a variety of experimental techniques as well as widely varying theoretical perspectives.

Paralinguistic

Paralanguage refers to the nonverbal elements of communication used to modify meaning and convey emotion. Paralanguage may be expressed consciously or unconsciously, and it includes the pitch, volume, and, in some cases, intonation of speech. Sometimes the definition is restricted to vocally produced sounds. The study of paralanguage is known as paralinguistics.

In some of the cases the term 'paralanguage' is used as a cover term for body language, which doesn't refer to speech and paralinguistic phenomena in speech.

Keeping in view the interdisciplinary relationship between Linguistics and other branches of knowledge with which it is associated David Crystall has explained various types of linguistics, each type named after the branch of knowledge with which it is connected or on whose method and concepts it bases its conclusions. These types, as enumerated by Crystal are as follows:

(i) **Anthropological Linguistics:** The study of language variation and use in relation to the cultural patterns and beliefs of the human race, as investigated using the theories and methods of anthropology.

(ii) **Applied Linguistics:** The application of linguistic theories, methods, and findings to the elucidation of language problems that have arisen in other domains. The term is especially used with reference to the field of foreign language learning and teaching, but it applies equally to several other fields, such as stylistics, lexicography, translation, and language planning, as well as to the clinical and educational fields below.

(iii) **Biological Linguistics:** The study of the biological conditions for language development and use in human beings, with reference both to the history of language in the human race and to child development.

(iv) **Clinical Linguistics:** The application of linguistic theories and methods to the analysis of disorders of spoken, written, or signed language.

(v) **Computational Linguistics:** The study of language using the techniques and concepts of computer science, especially with reference to the problems posed by the fields of machine translation, information retrieval, and artificial intelligence.

(vi) **Educational Linguistics:** The application of linguistic theories and methods to the study of the teaching and learning of a language (especially a first language) in schools and other educational settings.

(vii) **Ethnolinguistics :** The study of language in relation to ethnic types and behaviours, especially with reference to the way social interaction proceeds.

(viii) **Geographical Linguistics:** The study of the regional distribution of languages and dialects, seen in relation to geographical factors in the environment.

(ix) **Mathematical Linguistics:** The study of the mathematical properties of language, using concepts from such fields as algebra, computer science, and statistics.

(x) **Neurolinguistics :** The study of the neurological basis of language development and use human beings, especially of the brain's control over the processes of speech and understanding.

(xi) **Philosophical Linguistics:** The study of the role of language in the elucidation of philosophical concepts, and of the philosophical status of linguistic theories, methods, and observations.

(xii) **Psycholinguistics :** The study of the relationship between linguistics behaviour and the psychological processes (e.g. memory, attention) thought to underline it.

(xiii) **Sociolinguistics:** The study of the interaction between language and the structure and functioning of society.

(xiv) **Statistical Linguistics:** The study of the statistical or quantitative properties of language.

(xv) **Theolinguistics :** The study of the languages used by biblical scholars, theologians, and others involved in the theory and practice of religious belief.

Descriptive, Historical and Comparative Linguistics

General linguistics includes a number of related subjects involved in the study of language as understood in the preceding paragraphs. General linguistics can broadly be divided into three sub-divisions-descriptive linguistics, historical linguistics and comparative linguistics.

1. Descriptive linguistics is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given

set of speakers at a given time. The time may be present. The time may equally well be the past, where adequate written records are available. Nor is the descriptive study of a particular language concerned with the description of other languages at the same time. Descriptive linguistics is often regarded as the major part of general linguistics, and certainly the fundamental aspect of the study of language.

2. Historical linguistics is the study of developments in languages in the course of time. It is the diachronic study of the language. It studies language change, and the causes and results of such changes as have occurred from time to time.

3. Comparative linguistics is concerned with comparing from one or more points of view two or more different languages. Comparative linguistics traces the evolution of language and, by comparing one with another, establishes the relationships between them. This comparison is generally done between the languages which are genetically related, that is, those that have developed from some common source.

Comparative and historical linguistics may be said to have begun in 1786, the date when Sir William Jones made the famous statement pointing out that Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Celtic and Germanic appeared to have sprung from a common source. The old name for the subject was Comparative Philology.

Broadly speaking, language is a means of communication. It is through this means that the interaction between human beings takes place. In any interaction of human beings the total cultural surroundings of the communicants come into the picture. Language itself is a system of human culture, in fact the most important system. Once language was man's possession, culture, his unique adaptive mechanism, became possible. Without language, says H.L. Smith, there could be no culture, and man remained hominoid, with language, and culture he became hominine.

For cultural propagation, man is privileged. Of all creatures on earth, he alone can talk and express himself through language. It is this unique asset with him which distinguishes him from the stupid beast, because it is the basis and bond of society. 'Man is a social animal', remarked Aristotle long ago, and he is 'a social animal' by virtue of language. Society cannot exist without language any more than language can without society. Society and language are thus correlated. Evidently, language is a social product, coming into being with the first community, developing with the increasing needs and demands of civilization, and disappearing when society disappears. Language is, in fact, the index of the progress of a society from its primitive stage to an advanced one. Its vocabulary increases with the growth, stability, and expansion of the society (English being a living example of it).

Language has been defined variously. According to one, it is 'the means of expression of human thought.' Trench calls it 'fossil poetry or history'. Henry Sweet considers it as 'the expression of thought by means of speech sounds'. Tylor thinks of it in terms of 'outward manifestations of inward workings of the mind'. Sayce equates it with 'significant sound, the outward embodiment and expression, however imperfect, of thought'. Malinowski takes it as the necessary means of communication without which social action is impossible'. A.S. Diamond characterizes it as 'the embodiment of all the advances in thought of an our human ancestors-a diary of their day-to-day thoughts'. And lastly, M. Schlauch regards it as 'a fundamental means of preserving, transmuted and continuously enriching the achievements of human culture.

From the foregoing definitions it is clear that language is a very valuable and yet a very delicate thing. Usually, it has immense scope of modification and expansion. Dynamism is a prerequisite of a living language. For being effective and up-to-date, it should always be ready to accommodate new elements and novel ideas into it. The moment it ceases to do so, it becomes what is ordinarily called a 'dead' language.

From the very beginning of his life, man shows his naive interest in language, at least in its spoken form. There are two forms of language-spoken and written. These two forms can be easily differentiated. In the first place, the spoken form is more inclusive than the written form. According to Diamond, the written part of a speech may or may not bear a record of "an oral language of song". In truth, an oral language of song is to be found among some of the most primitive peoples of all mankind; even some aboriginal tribes of Australia have nouns and adjectives only used in song. In the second, the written form is a later product of man as an art as well as a means of social activity. The written language is an attempt to represent the spoken language by visual symbols. Thirdly, the written language is often more artistic and more precise, and as such it excludes the fragmentary sentences, the slang, the not-yet-accepted words, grammatical forms, syntax, and meaning of today that may become the accepted language of tomorrow. Fourthly, the spoken language does not necessarily require educated people to make itself intelligible, but the written language does require such people.

To study language, therefore, we must bear in mind a few important facts. The first is that language and culture are closely knitted and that it is a social product. The second is that it has no independent physical entity of its own, but consists merely of several types of sounds mutually exchanged by man living in a community. The third is that it is forever changing and dynamic. As for the English language, it is spoken today over a large part of the world with some local divergences called 'dialects'. The U.K., the U.S.A., Canada, and Australia are its native speakers, whereas the speakers of this language in other countries

employ it as a second language besides their mother tongues, as we in India do. The English language does not consistently maintain a correspondence between the written and spoken forms. It has numerous dialects (based on territorial differences) and registers (based on class or professional differences). Despite all this diversity, English is today a major language of international communication. In the words of D. Crystal, it is "the official language of education and government in many countries" and "certainly the most widely learned second language".

Every language has a history of its own. The English language is no exception to this generality. It has a very rich historical and cultural tradition. The entire culture of English is enshrined in its pages; the proud history, of the nation is writ large in its literature and language. To be specific, the history of the English language with which we are concerned here dates back to the 5th or 6th century A.D. when the diverse nomadic tribes—the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes—crossed into Britain from without and settled down there permanently. The original inhabitants of Britain called Celts were now pushed to a subordinate position. With the coming of Christian missionaries, the English (or the Angles) came into close contact with those who spoke Latin and, after the Norman Conquest, with those who spoke various forms of a language derived from Latin. To Latin Greek was added with the Renaissance and, later still, by their memorable political associations with various countries of the world.

The language historians have advanced several theories of the origin of language. But before going into these theories, we would look into the Biblical account of the origin of language which is contained in the second chapter in the book of Genesis. According to this account, "the Lord God formed man of dust from the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; and man became a living being." Afterwards he created trees and rivers. And then "out of the ground the Lord God formed every beast of the field and every bird of the air, and brought them to the man to see what he would call them; and whatever the man called every living creature, that was its name. The man gave names to all cattle; and to the birds of the air, and to every beast of the field" It is an account of the birth of language in man, who is placed at the centre of the world.

Besides the Biblical theory, there are many more sophisticated theories of the modern world as to the origin of language. One of these theories is onomatopoeic and is irreverently called the 'bowwow theory' by Max Muller. This theory supposes that primitive words were imitative of sounds, that man imitated the barking of dogs and thereby obtained a natural word with the meaning of 'dog' or 'bark'. Renan objects to this theory on the ground that it seems rather absurd to set up this

chronological sequence: first the lower animals are original enough to cry and roar, and then comes man, making a language for himself by imitating his inferiors. But, "this is logically possible," says Jespersen.

This noted philologist says further that man would surely imitate not only the cries of inferior animals, but also those of his fellow-men. The salient point of this theory is that sounds produced by one creature could be used to characterize that creature. As the theory stands, it "sees the origin of speech in the imitation of natural sounds". This accounts for the names of a number of birds, for example, the cuckoo, hoopoe, peewit, and curlew. This theory forms a part of the larger subject of 'sound symbolism'. Max Muller and Dwight Whitney have nothing to say for the theory, but Sayce goes so far as to refer to the 'probable onomatopoeic origin of the greater part of our vocabulary.'

Another familiar theory of the origin of language is the 'dingdong theory'. At one stage it was upheld by Max Muller but later it was abandoned. It sought to explain the correspondence between sound and sense, by a law of nature, a mysterious law of harmony, that everything that is struck rings and rings in a peculiar way. The words 'Zigzag' and 'dazzle' may be cited as examples. Reduplications for the sake of emphasis, as in 'a big man', may come under this head.

A third well-known theory of the origin of language is the 'pooh-pooh theory'. This theory assumes that language originated in the cries or interjections of human beings. But "This is an unhelpful doctrine", since language begins where interjections end. In fact, man still utters cries and interjections, but their significance is always affective, expressing fear, surprise, despair, misery, pain or joy. Moreover, each phonetic element in language has an intellectual significance. And it is not only the meaning but also the phonetic character of language that differs as the poles from cries and interjections. The latter are inarticulate; they are neither vowels nor consonants in the sense in which language consists of vowels and consonants. Exclamations like 'oh', 'bah', 'fie' and 'pshaw' may be taken as examples of this theory. It is, however, clear that the theory stands on a very slippery ground.

A fourth famous theory of the origin of language is the 'gesture theory', which was formulated and advanced by Wilhelm Wundt and Sir Richard Paget. Wundt proposed that the earliest means of communication between human beings was the gesture of the hand. Paget stressed the role of the mouthgesture in articulation. Sayce rightly refers to 'the way in which gestures precede spoken language, and lead on to the latter'. It is true that a gesture cannot become a word or a sentence, but it may influence them greatly. It still holds a pre-eminent place in dramatic literature and has an edge over spoken language. Any communication with the deaf and blind is possible by means of gestures

or motions. Sir Percy Nunn in his book, *Education, its Data and First Principles*, develops this theory in full, and Macdonald Critchley deals with it elaborately in his work, *The Language of Gesture*. They seem to point out that in saying 'I' and 'me' the lips are drawn inwards as if hinting at the speaker, and in saying 'you' and 'thou' the lips are moved outwards as if hinting at the person addressed. Similarly, in saying 'here' and 'there' the lips are drawn inwards and thrown outwards respectively.

The theories discussed so far are the principal theories of the origin of language. In addition to these, there are a few more theories, and we would concentrate on them henceforth.

Noire enunciated the 'yo-he-ho theory'. He saw the source of speech in acts of joint or common work, in which, during intense physical effort, cries or sounds partly consonantal might be emitted. Such sounds might come to be associated with the work performed and so become a symbol for it; the first words would accordingly mean something like 'heave' or 'haul'.

Another theory to be mentioned was adduced over a century ago in the early days of modern linguistics. In 1823 was published in Edinburgh *The History of the European Languages* by Alexander Murray, D.D. It was published from his papers after his death, and had he lived longer, he would have certainly made further progress. In this work he states 9 words which he calls the foundations of language'. They were uttered at first, and probably for several generations, in an insulated manner. The circumstances of the actions were communicated by gestures and variable tunes of the voice, but actions themselves were expressed through suitable monosyllables.

The last theory of the origin of language was proposed some years ago by the Danish linguist, Otto Jespersen. This language expert says, 'we must imagine primitive language as consisting (chiefly, at least) of very long words, full of difficult sounds, and sung rather than spoken'. It is the strangest of all theories, but deserves serious thought because of the learning of the author. Jespersen, unlike many other linguists of his day, was not prepared to accept the view that the origin of speech is unknowable. He suggested that "there once was a time when all speech was song, or rather when these two actions were not yet differentiated" According to him, "Language was born in the courting days of mankind; the first utterances of speech I fancy to myself like something between the nightly love-lyrics of puss upon the tiles and melodious love-songs of the nightingale." This experience was felt by him in his previous book, *Progress*, but the idea was suggested to him by Charles Darwin, who wrote *The Descent of Man*. The theory of Jespersen is such as stands or falls as a whole.

All the theories noted above are only partially true and do not seem to satisfy fully the intelligentsia. As they are many, they frustrate

any attempt at arriving at an acceptable and convincing solution. For the present, we may rest content with ample knowledge of the theories alone.

There are three kinds of language. They are : (1) monosyllabic or isolating, (2) agglutinative, and (3) inflectional or, polysyllabic. The first kind of language has no prefixes or suffixes and no formally distinguished parts of speech. Chinese is its glaring example. In this language the same word may, without change, be used as a noun, as a verb, as an adjective, or as an adverb.

In the second kind of language, ideas are expressed by glueing words into compounds which are often cumbersome and lengthy. Each such compounded word has the force of a sentence, e.g. 'Achichillacachocam', which means the place where people weep because the water is red. Finish, Turkish and Hungarian and some most savage tongues usually contain such words.

The third kind of language have such roots as are generally modified by prefixes and suffixes. The variation of form which words undergo in order to adapt themselves to different relations is known as 'inflection'. To this class belong Greek, Latin, German and English.

The above classification is a morphological one. Another classification is geneological based on historical relationship. The historical relationship may be shown by comparing grammar and vocabulary. In case the systems of grammar have a close resemblance to one another, it may be safely inferred that such languages are interrelated. The historical relationship usually rests upon: (1) the similarity of grammatical structure, and (2) the fundamental identity of roots.

As for functions of language, they are three in number. Of the three functions, the first is the imparting of information of one or the other kind. Information includes propaganda of all kinds and even deliberate misinformation. It is said that language is mostly informative in character. All sciences are so because they unfold the truths to us.

Besides the 'informative' function, language has two more functions to perform-the 'expressive' and the 'directive'. Poetry is the finest example of the 'expressive' function of language. Poets do not communicate mere information, but also their feelings and attitudes. When Robert Burns compares his love to a red rose newly sprung in June, or to a melody sweetly played in tune, he is employing the 'expressive' language in order to drive home the same feelings to his readers. Lovers also employ this type of language. The enchanted worshippers fervently praying to God or intently reciting the verses of

the 23rd Psalm (in the Old Testament) also make use of this kind of language to express their feelings of awe and wonder.

All expressive language has two constituent elements: (1) the attitude or feeling of the speaker, and (2) the evoking of the same attitude or feeling in the hearer. Sometimes these two elements may combine, as in the case of the lover wooing his lady or the orator delivering his speech to the audience.

The third basic function of language is to check some overt actions of men. The most explicit illustration of the 'directive' language are commands and requests. It is to be found in a mother telling her child to offer its prayers before retiring to bed, and in a housewife asking the milkman to leave her pot at the door. Commands are the authoritative directions and may be transformed into requests by adding a 'please' at the beginning of sentences or by mildly changing the pitch of the voice.

At times the three functions of language may combine, and hence a comparative study of these becomes inevitable. A poem, for instance, may be taken to be both informative and directive; similarly, a sermon may also be directive and expressive at the same time. Though there are no watertight classifications as to the function of language, yet for all practical purposes the above-noted threefold classification holds good.

There are different approaches to language, but two of them are the most fruitful. These two approaches are known as diachronic and synchronic. The first approach is concerned with the historical development of a language, while the second one with the state of a language at a given time. In the 19th century, the approach to language was primarily diachronic, but in the 20th century the emphasis shifted to the other one. The reason for the shift of emphasis is that more attention is paid today to languages whose history is little known so far. These languages are being spoken by such people as have not played a prominent part in the drama of world history. But these languages are of considerable interest to a linguist, who will have to resort, willynilly, to the synchronic approach. But this should not lead one to construe that the synchronic approach is the only true and scientific approach. The other approach is equally important, for it is on the base of a real knowledge of the past that we can build a bright future (to use an Eliotian expression). Languages like Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, German and English provide ample historical material to a serious student. There is no reason why these two approaches should come into conflict with each other. De Saussure, who thoroughly studied these two approaches, wanted that they should always be kept distinct. Both the approaches are necessary for language study.

The Importance of the Historical Approach

All natural languages, of which English is one out of nearly 3,000 now being spoken throughout the human world, should be studied in their historical perspectives. The obvious aim of the historical study of a language is to inform the student not only about the anatomy and physiology of the language, but also about its phylogeny and ontogeny. This kind of study is not possible in case of artificial languages, which are framed up for a definite purpose. Moreover, the rules of an artificial language e.g. Esperanto, are laid down before the language itself is used. On the contrary, the rules of grammar and syntax follow a naturally grown language.

But, why should one study a language historically? Or, what are the benefits of studying a language in successive stages? The answer is the historical approach to language is necessary for the study of the history of one's country, society and culture. This approach also enables one to know exactly the great written records of one's national history and the time monuments of one's culture and civilization. Furthermore, such an approach makes one liberal and tolerant, especially when one comes across the fact that the rules of grammar are not fixed and that language is a flexible and dynamic thing.

Another question related to the above is: What method should a student of language, particularly of the English language, follow to be on the right track? The reasonable answer to this question comes from C.L. Wrenn. First of all, the beginner should get a clear idea of the main principles of language study with the help of such works as those of Sweet, Sapir, Wyld, Bloomfield, and Jespersen. Then these principles should be related to ways of thinking and philosophy, as is illustrated in Sweet's *A New English Grammar*. Thereafter, one should have a clear understanding of the main points in general phonetics and a mastering of the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association. It is then that one can write down any sound one hears accurately. For practice one may go to Daniel Jones's *The Pronunciation of English*. The same author's *English Pronouncing Dictionary* is also of great help.

Then, a formal historical grammar such as that of Sweet should be attempted, followed by a straightforward history of the language such as those of Baugh in America or the late H.C. Wyld in England.

As the next step, one should cultivate the habit of using *The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*. This is on historical lines, as the Dictionary shows the differing senses words have had during the whole Modern English period. Then, one should go to *The New English Dictionary* with its ten large volumes and its supplementary. The fascinating study of etymology can be explored in W. W. Skeat's *Principles of English Etymology*.

After that, one should read a few original texts from all periods of the language to have some first-hand knowledge about it. For this one can study Sweet's Anglo-Saxon Primer and his First Steps in Anglo-Saxon to be followed by Sweet's or Wyatt's Anglo-Saxon Reader. To study Middle English, one should take up Sweet's First and Second Primers of Middle English to be followed by A.S. Cook's Literary Middle English Reader. For the Modern English period, a selection should be made from literary masterpieces.

One should then take up some general histories of the language with confidence. H.C. Wyld's Historical Study of the Mother Tongue, Henry Bradley's The Making of English, Otto Jespersen's Growth and Structure of the English Language, and O.F. Emerson's The History of the English Language are extremely useful. One can then study profitably Sweet's New English Grammar and C. T. Onions's Advanced English Syntax.

Following are the various characteristics of Language-

(i) **Language is Symbolic.** If we treat language as a system within which other sub-systems work, then we have to refer to 'symbols' that are governed by specific rules and combined into various processes. What exactly do we mean by language being symbolic? It is not so difficult to understand the symbolic nature of language. Human beings make use of sounds for conveying messages to each other, organising their activities, governing the society effectively, expressing their personal wishes, desires, dreams, ambitions, thoughts and fantasies. Out of an infinite number of possibilities of producing speech sounds only a few are selected and assigned meaningful functions. This use of sounds is symbolic.

Looking at it a little more broadly, communication of any sort heavily depends upon symbolization; whether we see a red cross on a van or a building; railway and highway signs with school or level crossing marked; or the traffic light signals; or a man waving urgently at a distance; someone whistling softly or loudly under the window; a repeated gentle clap; clearing of throat; or gentle headshakes - and numerous other ways of communicating more than through words - we are showing our fine understanding of the significance of symbolising the messages. The message in language is converted into sound in the following way.

$A \rightarrow X$ (arrow stands for 'becomes' or 'is converted into'). Symbolization in this context is the 'conversion of something from the universe of ideas or concepts into something capable of bridging the gap between sender and receiver' (Chafe).

In another place Wallace L. Chafe says,

'The conversion of meanings into sounds allows human beings to transfer ideas from one to another. Ideas, I assume, have some kind of electrochemical existence in the nervous systems of individuals. Whatever their representations there may be, they cannot pass from one person to another in that form, for there is no direct neural connection between two separate organisms, no pathway over which ideas can travel in their original state. Language, like other communicative devices, provides a means of bridging the gap by converting ideas into a medium which does have the capacity to pass between one nervous system and another.'

There is nothing in language that can directly be related to the physical reality. Such onomatopoeic words as crash, rumble, flash, splash, dazzle, glare, flare, frizzle, crackle, sizzle, mumble, howl, etc show some kind of relation to the things they represent, some attributes of the things each mirrored in the words, but upto a limit. The symbolic character of language leads us to another feature of it - its arbitrariness.

(ii) **Language is Arbitrary.** Its very symbolic character makes language arbitrary, the connection between the word (sound combination) or a sound unit itself (symbol for the sound unit) and the thing it stands for is unexplainable. Why should voiceless bilabial plosive be symbolised /p/ is difficult to answer. Different languages have different signs for similar phonetic features which make a sound, [p] is symbolised differently in English, Russian, Hindi, Urdu and Bengali. It is purely arbitrary and has no logical explanation. So with several other sounds that are differently symbolized. There is no inherent connection between a word and what it stands for. In a word like tree or sky there is little in the written or spoken symbolisms to tell us anything about the object they stand for.

On the level of grammar plural morpheme is assigned arbitrarily different phonetic shapes. In English, French, German and Russian plurals are made in ways that cannot be predicted if each of these languages is not known. Another manifestation of the arbitrary character is the gender category to which different words belong. In Hindi and other Indian languages, it is too cumbersome. Two different Hindi words for leg are /per/ and /tan/; the first one is masculine and the second feminine. There is no explanation why this is so. Similarly, for moustache Hindi word /mutfh/ is feminine, so is /da:dhi/ for beard. But /ba:l/ 'hair' and /hoth/ 'lip' are masculine. All the Hindi words (and many borrowed lexemes too) are thus arbitrarily put into masculine and feminine categories. Learning this language is also learning these gender classes because corresponding verbs, possessive pronominal and modifying adjectives also change their gender forms according to which nouns occur.

This offers a perfect picture of the arbitrary nature of language.

Another curious picture is presented by the way different meanings emerge from word over a long period of time. 1) Meanings expand, i.e. a word acquires greater area of semantic references, or 2) they contract, i.e. number of semantic references drops. 3) meanings also totally change: a word may refer to a completely new thing, discarding the original meaning it had.

- (i) *'Bird' 'pig' originally meant 'young birdling' and 'young swine'. The meaning today indicates an expansion of this connotation. The words refer to any bird or any swine.*
- (ii) *The process of specialization or contraction of meaning is exemplified in such words as 'meat' and 'counterfeit'. Etymologically, meat is a 'portion of food measured out'. In old English its meaning broadened out from 'portion of food' to simply 'food'. Today once again the word has a specialized meaning, 'flesh used as food', which emerged in the 14th century. To counterfeit meant to 'copy, reproduce', conveying no idea of fraud. This is the sense used by Shakespeare in *The Merchant of Venice* where he uses the expression 'Fair Portia's counterfeit' in Act III, scene iii for the likeness of Portia that Bassanio discovers when he opens the casket.*
- (iii) *There are cases in which original meanings are replaced by newer meanings. Cunning originally meant 'knowing' and Knave was just a boy; nice etymologically meant 'foolish', and villain meant 'a slave serving in country house or villa'.*

Though changes in meaning can be explained by considering and analysing historical factors, most of the semantic associations appear quite arbitrary.

A prominent area in which linguistic arbitrariness is noticeable is orthography. It is difficult to explain logically the relationship between a sound unit and its phonetic or graphic representation. English spelling system displays a surprising degree of waywardness to a layman. A sound is often seen to be differently represented in different words.

However, this should not lead a young learner to form the opinion that English language is totally chaotic. It is very much a language based on principles that obey rules and processes of occurrence that make it easy to describe scientifically.

(iii) **Language is conventional.** People who use a language share its features of structure and rules. There may be noticed slight ideolectal differences and divergences, but that does not make their mutual speech act unpredictable. The overall system and patterns of the particular language are largely shared. There appears to be a tacit agreement about the use of these among the speakers. In this respect language is

conventional. This is the feature that stabilises the language systems and makes them available for the accurate description even on the basis of a single speaker as an informant.

(iv) **Language is Creative and Unique.** In spite of many universally shared attributes such as symbolic and arbitrary character of language, each language is unique. Its phonology is specific to itself; its morphology and syntactical patterns are explainable in terms of the uniqueness of the particular language. The form-classes and functional categories, for example, of English are not shared by Hindi. Among various dialects of Hindi also we find similar individual characteristics, Western Hindi and Eastern Hindi show such differences.

It has been pointed out by linguists that though the rules and the 'standard interlocking of the phonological, grammatical and lexical systems' are limited, it enables us to produce an infinite variety of expressions and utterances. By mastering rules about generative processes the user of a language can create such sentences and higher forms of construction as have never before been attempted. This imaginative possibility has been exploited by the poets and writers to extend the awareness and deepen insight into things in a way totally new. Great creative writers in English language, beginning with the unknown authors of *Beowulf*, and Chaucer, Langland, Earl of Surrey, Bacon, Shakespeare, Webster, Milton, Donne, Dryden, Swift, Defoe, Fielding, Jane Austen, Walter Scott to Dr. Johnson, Bronte sisters, Dickens, Thackeray, Maugham, Forster, O Henry and so on, have each one of them used to the maximum this unique creative possibility.

Language shows certain inherent features of design. These features set it apart from other forms of communication, particularly, animal communication. The famous American linguist Charles F. Hockett identified the following design features:

- i) *Duality*
- ii) *Productivity*
- iii) *Arbitrariness*
- iv) *Interchangeability*
- v) *Displacement*
- vi) *Specialization*
- vii) *Cultural transmission*

Duality. The language that human beings use consists of two sub-systems - sound and meaning. A finite set of sound units can be grouped and re-grouped into units of meaning. These can be grouped and re-grouped to generate further functional constituents of the higher hierarchical order. We can produce sentences through this process of combining units of a different order. Animal calls do not show such duality, they are unitary.

Productivity. A speaker may say something that he has never said before and be understood without difficulty. Man uses the limited linguistic resources in order to produce completely novel ideas and utterances. Fairy tales, animal fables, narratives about alien unheard of happenings in distant galaxies or non-existent worlds are perfectly understood by the listeners.

Inter-changeability. This feature implies that the roles of the speaker and hearer can be exchanged without any problem. In fact, any user of language is both a listener and a speaker. In the animal world some animals are endowed with this ability while others are not.

Displacement. One can talk about situations, places and objects far removed from one's present surroundings and time. We often talk about events that happened long time ago and at a distant place: bombing incident in Ireland's Londonderry twelve years' back, for instance; or the sinking of the Spanish Armada in the sixteenth century. Bees, of course, perform dances about the source of nectar that is also removed from the place of dance (beehive). But they cannot convey what happened in the previous season through their dance features. Human beings, however, can narrate events in which they were not involved.

Specialization. Speech is a specialised activity, it can be used in a detached manner. We can talk about an exciting experience or incident while at the same time doing something else, like peeling potatoes, or shaving or similar other situations. One may not feel hungry, yet talk about appetizing events such as preparing food or eating. Language, as we can see, does not have direct physical consequence. On the other hand, other communicative features of human behaviour (stimuli) may have the triggering reaction (response), 'if one sees' one's wife setting the table at the right time of the day, one knows that dinner is about to be served, and one may wash one's hands and go to the dining room. The table setting activity has the direct physical consequence that the table is set, ready for dinner. The triggering consequences are that the other members of the family are alerted' (Gleason). Animal communication systems show similar stimulus-response relationship. Language is also used to this effect, but a very special feature of it is its specialised use which we have discussed above.

Cultural transmission. Language of a speech community must be learned by speakers individually. Facts about language are handed down from person to person and generation to generation through cultural transmission, Man is said to be 'innately disposed to learn language'; but he must learn a particular language. His innate competence helps him master the unique features of a specific language. This also means that there has to be teaching to the young speakers. In this way language is transmitted from one generation to another.

Animals do not 'learn' their call systems from their elders or other members. How does a cat mew is genetically determined, so two cats belonging to different places will use the same calls. They will be mutually intelligible. But a Russian monolingual using his language will not be understood by an Indian monolingual. They must learn one another's language in order to be able to communicate.

Language plays a great role in our life. Perhaps because of its familiarity, we rarely observe taking it rather for granted as we do breathing or walking. The language has remarkable effects and includes much of what distinguishes from the animals, but language has no place in our educational programme or in the speculations of our philosophers.

It is easy to define language in vague terms as "there is a magic in the spoken word", "Language is one the greatest glories of man" But to define a language with precision is far less easy than to define acid or any other chemical term. All the numerous definitions of language given by various thinkers bring out different aspects of language and supplement one another in making us understand all the facts of language. A language by which we mean a spoken language may be defined as "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which human beings communicate and co-operate with one-another". The broadest definition is that language is a form of human communications. Language is certainly human and human only. Insects, birds, animals also communicate but not in a spoken language.

In human speech we make use of our vocal organs for articulation of definite sounds which when arranged according to set pattern form the words of a given language. Language as long as it lives and is in actual use, is a continuing development in a state of constant flux. There are, therefore, differences in languages between two or more points in space. Language like other activities of man is subject to various kinds of pressures from changing circumstances, migration, changes in the cultural system of a people, contact with peoples speaking different languages, changing needs are some of the causes that bring about changes in language. Thus many words and expressions go out of use or change their meaning. Many new other words are introduced. Thus an original unified tongue diversified and splits up into many dialects. With the passage of time each dialect develops more and more peculiarities and is more differentiated from other dialects as well as from the original tongue. At length the dialects become so differentiated from each other and from the original tongue that the casual observer can find nothing common among them. Most of the languages of India and Europe, for example, descended from what is called Proto Indo-European and are interrelated, but before the end of the eighteenth century nobody could think these languages had anything in common.

This kind of diversification of a language has occurred many times in human history and this is why there are today about three thousand languages. There are some circumstances however in which the conventionally educated person discusses linguistic matters. Occasionally he debates questions of "correctness" whether it is better. His discussions of such things follow a fairly rigid pattern. If possible, he looks to the conventions of writing for an answer as, say for the question whether *at* is to be pronounced in words like 'often' or 'soften'. Mostly a person tries to settle the matter by a kind of philosophical reasoning which operates with terms such as "subject", "object", "predicate" and so on. This is the common sense way of dealing with linguistic matters. Like much else that masquerades as common sense, it is in fact highly sophisticated and derives at no great distance from the speculations of ancient and medieval philosophers. It is only within the last century or so that language has been studied in a scientific way, by careful and comprehensive observation, the few exceptions will occupy us in a moment. Linguistics, the study of language, is only in its beginning. Many people have difficulty at the beginning of language study.

The ancient Greeks had the gift of wondering at things that other people take for granted. They speculated boldly and persistently about the origin, history and structure of language. Our additional love about language is due largely to them. In Greek, as in English however, most words resist this kind of analysis. Thus *early* ends like *manly*, but the rest of the word is obscure, *woman* resembles *man*, but what is the first syllable? Then there is a residue of short simple words that do not resemble others - words such as *man*, *boy*, *good*, *bad*, *eat*, *run*.

The Analogists believed that the origin and the true meaning of words could be traced in their shape, the investigation of this they called etymology. These etymologies show us, at any rate, that the Greeks realised that speech forms change in the course of time. In systematic study of this change modern students have found the key to most linguistic problems. The ancient Greeks studied no language but their own; they took it for granted that the structure of their language embodied the universal forms of human thoughts, perhaps of the cosmic order.

For the medieval scholars, language meant classical Latin as it appears in books, we find few traces of interest in any other form of speech. The horizon widened at the time of Renaissance. At the end of the Middle Ages the study of Greek came back into fashion. Soon afterward, Hebrew and Arabic were added. What was more important some scholars in various countries began to take an interest in the language of their own time. The era of exploration brought a superficial knowledge of many languages. Some even compiled grammars and dictionaries of exotic languages. Spanish priests began this work as early

as in the sixteenth century, to them we owe a number of treatises on American and Philippines language. These works can be used only with caution, for the authors, untrained in the recognition of foreign speech-sounds, could make no accurate record, and, knowing only the terminology of Latin Grammar. Down to our own time persons without linguistic training have produced work of this sort, aside from the waste of labour, much information has in this way been lost.

The Indian grammar presented to European eyes, for the first time, a complete and accurate description of a language, based not upon theory but upon observation. Moreover the discovery of Sanskrit disclosed the possibility of a comparative study of languages. To begin with the concept of related languages was strikingly confirmed by the existence in far off India, of a sister of the familiar languages of Europe, witness, for example, the Sanskrit equivalents of the words:

mata	'mother'
dvace	'wo'
trayah	'three'
asti	'He is'

The insight into linguistic structure which one got from the accurate and systematic Hindu grammar, until now, one had been able to see only vague and fluid similarities, for the current grammars, built on the Greek model, did not clearly set off the features of each language. The Hindu grammar taught Europeans to analyse speech forms.

The first great book on general linguistics was a treatise on the varieties of human speech by Wilhelm Von Humboldt (1767-1835) which appeared in 1836. Some students saw more and more clearly the natural relation between descriptive and historical studies lost convincing in this respect was the historical treatment of language. On the one hand the need of descriptive data as prerequisite for comparative work was here self-evident, on the other hand the result showed that the processes of linguistic change were the same in all languages regardless of their grammatical structure. The comparative study of Finno-Ugrian languages began as early as 1799, and has been greatly elaborated. The merging of these two streams of study, the historical comparative and the philosophical descriptive, has made clear some principles that were not apparent to the great Indo-Europeanists of the nineteenth century as represented, say, by Hermann Paul.

The only useful generalizations about language are inductive generalizations. Features which we think ought to be universal may be absent from the very next language that becomes accessible. Some features, such as for instance the distinction of verb-like and noun-like words as separate parts of speech, are common to many languages, but lacking in others. The fact that some features are at any rate, widespread

is worthy of notice and calls for an explanation; when we have adequate data about many languages, we shall have to return to the problem of general grammar and to explain these similarities and divergences, but this study, when it comes, will be not speculative but inductive. As to change in language, we have enough data to show that the general processes of change are the same in all languages and tend in the same direction. Even very specific types of change occur in much the same way, but independently, in the most diverse languages. These things, too, will some day, when our knowledge is wider, lend themselves to systematic survey and to fruitful generalization.

A branch of family is a smaller group, which has, besides the characteristics of the larger division, a certain peculiarity in words and in form not known to other members of the family. There are in all about one hundred families of languages known to the philologist. Of these only four, the Semitic, the Hermitic, the Ural-Altaiic and the Indo-European families have been systematically investigated. The remaining families are made up of the aboriginal dialects of America and Africa, where the lack of literature and the language changes going on, prevent the arrangement into well-defined groups. Comparative philology has proved that English belongs to a great family of related languages. Various names have been suggested to designate this family. In books written about sixty years ago, the term 'Aryan' coined by Max Muller from Sanskrit word 'Arya' was commonly employed and had the great advantage of being brief. On the other hand, it was open to the objection that none of the European peoples are known to have applied it to themselves and that philologists used it in a narrower sense and do designate it to languages located in India and Iran. The more common term is 'Indo-Germanic,' in great favour among many German philologists, which gives more emphasis (undue importance) to the Germanic languages and which by ignoring the two great cultural languages, Greek and Latin, of early Europe becomes absurd. The term most fit and widely employed at present is 'Indo European' and it is fairly convenient suggesting the geographical extent of the family. "Most of the territory of Europe and some parts of Asia are occupied today by the very same group of languages which engaged the attention of Bopp and Rask and Grimm and others. This is of course the Indo-European group."

The Indo-European Family of Languages

The parent tongue from which the Indo-European languages have sprung had already become divided and scattered before the dawn of history. When we meet various types of people by whom these languages are spoken, they look to have lost all memory and records of their former

association. This division includes eight branches, each of which has several sub-divisions.

(Baugh gives nine branches, separating Indian and Iranian.)

These eight branches are as follows :

1. The Aryan Branch. It consists of two groups-the Indian and the Iranian.

A. Indian. That Sanskrit was one of the languages of this group was first suggested in the second half of the 18th century and fully established by the beginning of the 19th. The Indian group is represented by the archaic language of the Brahminic Scriptures, or the Vedas, the oldest portions of which were written perhaps as early as 2000 B.C. Nearer to this is Sanskrit proper, the representative of a lost dialect very much like the Vedic Sanskrit, though it died out as a spoken language three centuries before Christ, became the literary language of India and has been handed down to us in-a fixed form. Mention may also be made of Prakrit, Pali, modern Indian dialects descended from Sanskrit, that is, Hindi, Bengali, Marathi and lastly gipsy (or gypsy) dialect. The gipsies are of Indian origin.

B. Iranian. The Iranian is so called from Iran, the ancient name of the country from Khurdistan to Afghanistan. The two ancient tongues belonging to it are the Persian of the inscriptions of Darisis and Xerxeus and the so called Zend, the language of the Avesta. Other forms are Pehlevi from 226 A.D. to 651 A.D. Parsi and modern Persian, the first great national work of which was the Shahnama, written by Firdausi, who died in 1020 A.D. Modern Persian owing to the Norman Conquest of the 7th century A.D. is saturated with Arabic, and its records go much farther back than those of any European language except Greek.

2. The Armenian. Crossing the boundary between Europe, and Asia, we meet the second branch-the Armenian. Its sole representative is the old Armenian, once spoken in the region south of the Caucasus and the north part of Asia Minor. It dates from the 5th century. A.D. when it was used in the Christian books of the Armenians, and was long regarded as belonging to the Iranian branch.

3. The Hellenic Branch. It is so called from the Hellenes, the inhabitants of Hellas, the names by which the Greeks have always designated themselves. The dialects making up the Hellenic family are: (a) Reolic, (b) Doric, (c) Ionic, and (d) Attic.

The literary language common to all the Greeks sprang from the Attic in the 5th century B.C. This is the form that has come down to us. The dialects are known to us mainly through inscriptions.

4. The Albanian Branch. It connects the Hellenic and Italic branches and represents the ancient Illyrian language. It is spoken in the region north-west of Greece.

5. The Italic Branch. To this branch belongs the Latin dialect, the literary language of ancient Rome, known to us from about 300 B.C. It sprang up from the dialect 'Laticum'. Side by side there existed a popular language, the vulgar Latin, which, as spoken in the provinces, changed into the modern Romance languages, the most important being Italian, French, Spanish and Portuguese. The influence of the Italic branch upon English has been very great as regards vocabulary. This is specially true of the classical Latin and French. Italian and Spanish also have contributed to it a large number of words, in all about half of the words used in English come from Italian and Spanish languages.

6. The Celtic Branch. The Celtic was originally spoken over Portugal, Spain, France and England, but was later replaced by the Romance-languages mentioned in category no. 5 and English. This branch includes three groups

(a) the Gallic (b) the Brittanic, and (c) the Gaelic.

A. The Gallic is little known to us except through names quoted by Greek and Latin authors, or through inscriptions and coins.

B. The Brittanic includes the Cymric or Welsh, the Cornish and the language spoken in N.W. France.

C. To the Gaelic belong the Irish, the Scotch, the Gaelic and the language now spoken in the north of Ireland.

7. The Balto-Slavonic Branch. The Baltic group consists of Prussian, which died in the 17th century, Lithuanian, and Lettish. The Slavic group includes the languages spoken over a large portion of Eastern Europe. Of this branch, Russian is the most important.

Russian belongs to the eastern division, of which the most, ancient is Bulgarian. The principal languages of the western division are Polish and Ukrainian.

8. The Teutonic Branch. To this branch belongs the English language together with German, Dutch, Finnish, and the Scandinavian languages. Its oldest representative is Gothic, preserved to us in a partial translation of the Bible by Bishop Ulfilas, who lived from 310 A.D. to 381 A.D. Norse or-Scandinavian was a single speech in the period of the Vikings (800-1000 A.D.). Its oldest records are inscriptions, dating from perhaps the 4th century. Other members of this branch are Old Saxon and Old High German. The Aryan languages have been in existence for thousands of years and each has changed inwardly and has also required much from the neighbours, with whom the great migration brought them into contact. Hence the number of words that can be shown to be still common to all the members of the family is comparatively small. Among these are numerals from 1 to 10, the words father, mother etc. and many of the most common things and actions.

Thus, the English, word 'Brother' is closely akin to Dutch 'Broeder', the Danish 'Broder' and the German 'Bruder'. These correspond to Latin word 'Fratr' and Greek 'Phrator'. The Old Irish was 'Brathiar' and the modern Russian is 'Brat'. The corresponding Sanskrit word 'Bhratri' has given us the Hindi word 'Bhrata' : so that practically the same word is used for this relationship in the region from Calcutta to Iceland. To this region we may now add New Zealand, Australia, North and South America and the southern part of Africa.

Conclusion. Among the language-families of whose connections we are certain, the Indo-European family occupies the first place in numbers and cultural importance. It includes more than half of the world's total population.

English and the Teutonic Languages

The Teutonic Languages form a branch of the larger Indo-European family. The Teutonic or Germanic languages are being spoken today in Germany, Holland, Scandinavia, the Flemish parts of Belgium and Great Britain. Thus, English is closely linked, on the one hand, with the other seven branches of the Indo-European family, and on the other, with German. Old English has been described as the brother of Dutch and Frisian and the half-brother of Scandinavian languages. It is also the first cousin of German, the second cousin of Greek and Latin. When we speak of German or Germanic here, it is the primitive form of German or Germanic that is implied.

English is related to Low German in the same way as Dutch, Frisian or Flemish. High German, which has given us Modern German, is the same to West German as Low German to it. West Germanic, East Germanic and North Germanic are the three distinct by-products of Primitive or Common Germanic, which is the parent-stock. East Germanic is represented by the Gothic tongue, which has given us Bishop Ulfilas's translations of the Bible (4th c.). Similarly, North Germanic, which is also known as Old Norse, is represented by Danish, Swedish, Icelandic and Norwegian which are grouped together as the Scandinavian languages, having records which date back to the fourth century A.D.

Now we shall study in brief the principal characteristics of the Teutonic languages. They are as under :

1. *A great consonantal change or the shifting of consonants.*
2. *The Teutonic accent of words.*
3. *A two-fold declension of adjectives.*
4. *The verbal system.*

These characteristics are clearly noticeable in the older periods of the Teutonic languages, although no inconsiderable traces of them are still to be found in all the members of this group.

1. Consonantal Change, or the First Great Shifting of Consonants. The consonantal system operating in the Indo-European family of languages is not so well-preserved in any other language as in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin. It is to be found, with considerable regularity, in all other languages of the family but Teutonic. The last one, therefore, stands by itself by reason of characteristic consonantal differences. Even a most superficial examination of the classical languages shows that there are many words which have similar meanings and some resemblance in form, while in other respects they differ from English words. Examples are Latin word 'frater', English word 'brother'; Sanskrit 'bhu' English 'be'; Skt, 'dant', Latin 'denth', English 'tooth', and so on and so forth.

This first great Consonant Shift is often called 'Grimm's Law'. It was a Danish scholar, named Erasmus Rask, who first indicated the possibility of a regular shifting of some Indo-European consonants to some other consonants in the Teutonic languages. He found out the great resemblance between words like Skt. 'pita' and Eng. 'father-', Skt. 'kwa' and Eng. 'who', etc. He had hinted at a certain law of sound-change, which was later systematically discovered and propounded by his worthy disciple, Jacob Grimm. It is worthwhile to point out that Grimm's Law did not include all the Indo-European consonants which underwent a change in the Germanic languages. So, it was later modified and completed by one, named Karl Verner, who was a disciple of Grimm.

2. The Teutonic Accent of Words. The second great feature of the Teutonic languages is their accent of words. In the Indo-European parent-language, the accent was free or variable, that is, it might rest on any part of a word according to context and meaning. The stress often changed in the same word from the root to the ending and back again. This free accent of the parent-speech is best preserved in Sanskrit and somewhat less perfectly in Greek. This free accent was, no doubt, retained in the earliest Teutonic, but before long (i.e., before the time of the earliest written document) it was replaced by a fixed stress, resting regularly upon a particular part of the word. Normally, the Teutonic accent rested on the root syllable of a word, but in nouns and adjectives and in verbs, derived from either, it rested on the first syllable of the word, whether it was a root or a prefix. This may well explain the loss of the unstressed last syllables in Teutonic in due course of time, and thereby becoming shorter than their Indo-European ancestors.

3. A Two-fold Declension of Adjectives. The third characteristic of the Teutonic languages is a two-fold declension of adjectives, making a difference in their use. In the Teutonic languages every adjective might be declined with two sets of ending according to its use in certain

syntactised relations in the sentence. Thus, the strong form, as it was called by Grimm, was employed when the adjective was used in the predicate relation. The adjective took the weak form when it was used as a substantive.

4. The Verbal System. The fourth characteristic of the Teutonic languages in their earliest forms is their verbal system.. The German verbal system is different from that of the other Indo-European languages in many respects. Grimm divided the Germanic verbs into two distinct classes: (1) strong verbs that indicate their tense-change of vowel following a regular series as in sing, sang, sung, or ring, rang, rung. This series of vowel variation indicating a change of tense is also known as Ablaut series; (2) Weak verbs that are derived from other words, such as 'to fight' from the noun 'fight'. These weak verbs are to be distinguished by adding a dental suffix like, -d -ed, or-t to the verb as in miss-missed, work-worked, pass-past. In the Indo-European parent-languages there is an elaborate system of verb-conjugations, dealing with and expressing all the different 'aspects' of an action, particularly noticeable in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, but this is not so in case with the Teutonic tongues, which have a simplified verbal system with only two tenses, the present and the past. The deficiency arising out of this system in Teutonic is, to some extent made up with the help of auxiliary verbs and compound tenses. This device has added force and fire, flexibility and subtlety to the Teutonic languages.

Finally, we can sum up the following :

1. *That English is a member of the Indo-European family;*
2. *That it belongs to the Teutonic group;*
3. *That it was introduced into Britain by the nomadic tribes from the Continent (viz., Germany);*
4. *That it is essentially a Low German dialect; and*
5. *That we couldn't properly use the terms English or England in connection with the language before the mid of the fifteenth century.*

Language as a System of Communication

Language is the most powerful and permanent medium of communication. It is true that communication takes place even without language. For example, traffic, signals, road signs, emblems, do convey their messages and dumb & deaf also communicate through their own symbols. Braille alphabets have their own significance in communication. But none of the above mentioned modes can touch even the half the

facility or glory that has been bestowed to language. Beyond doubt, language is called the best medium of self expression.

Language facilitates the sharing of thoughts, Ideas, emotions, etc. It is the mode that is used to instruct, share, motivate, suggests, I advice, govern other people. With the help of language, one can store and transmit his opinion, knowledge and experience and hence it serves as the root on which the strong building of progress settles. It is through language only that experiments, flaws and experiences of one generation are communicated to the next one and the ever going journey of human evolution continues and civilization progresses. It is the

link that joins part with present and present with future. Hence, the significance of human existence in its totality may be understood and lived through language.

Human Language and Animal Communication

It is a widely acknowledged fact that most of the animals are bestowed with inter and intra-species communication systems to share their ideas. As a substitute of human language animals indulge into various activities like crying, hosting, cooking, dancing etc. But it is an apparent fact that these activities aren't as purpose serving as is language.

The basic factor that distinguishes animal symbols from human language is the contrast of limited dimension and varied scope. Animal communication is very limited in both quality as well as dimension. On the other hand, human- language can never be limited into any limited periphery.

Hence, it can be stated that animal communication is devoid of complexity, creativity, novelty productivity of human language. Animal communication is a closed, unextendable and unmodifiable system. For example, animals use the same communication system that they used to use ages ago. Hence, novelty, innovation and variety which are significant parts of human language are thoroughly absent from animal communication. Nobody can ever come to know the exact number of sentences available in a language so in the case with number of conceptual units and possible symbols in human language. That is the reason due to which human language is called open-ended, extendable and modifiable. If we analyze human language and animal communication linguistically, we will come to know that the former is a complex system whereas later is not. The former is conditioned by time and geography whereas latter is not touched by these two factor at all.

The system of messages used by animals is unaltered through out the ages whereas about human language is said

सात कोस पर बदले पानी

कोस कोस पर बानी ।

Hence, the impact Of geography on human language is apparant. Human language is acquired by effort and therefore it gets modified by social interaction.

An experiment in the field of psychology unravels another aspect related to language & communication. If a human child is estranged from human community for a very long time and he is left to live in forest, he will never be able to acquire human language rather he will learn the language of the animals of that particular zone. Hence, it can be stated that animal communication is instinctive and inherited whereas human language is not.

Human language is blessed with a wider range of flexibility, modification, productivity, variety creativity than animal communication.

The major differences between human language and animal communication can be understood with the help of the following table:

Human Language	Traits/ Features	Animal Communication
1. Open	As a system	Closed
2. Infinite	Range	Narrow,
3. Extendable & Modifiable	Alteration	Un extendable and unmodifiable
4. Yes	Flexibility	No
5. Abundant	Variety	No
6. Non-instinctive	—	Instinctive
7. Acquired	Heritage	Inherited
8. Conditioned by it	Impact of Geography	No impact
9. Huge	Creativity Novelty	No
10. Plays a major role	Grammar	No
11. Cognitive & Behavioural	Cognizame	Only Behavioural
12. Descriptive & Narrative	—	Non-descriptive & Non-narrative.

Language as a System of Systems

Language may be understood as a systematic arrangement of symbols. Though these symbols are finite yet it is the varied arrangement of theirs only that conveys meaning. It may also be understood that whenever the meaningful arrangement is not there it lacks somewhere or the other in arrangement.

If we try to analyze systems of any language the two very broad heads are phonological and grammatical systems. These major branches

are further divided into various sub-branches. For example, 'Phonology' further explores Organs of Speech, Phoneme, Syllable, Vowel, Consonant, Rhythm, Rhyme, Stress, Intonation etc. On the other hand 'Grammatical System' is further studied as morphological system and syntactic system. And in these two systems again we study the sub-systems of morpheme, morphs, allomorphs, or system related to singular plural, mood, of tense, of word formation etc. Hence, in one system 'language' endless sub-systems are available.

Moreover, by 'systematic' we can deduce that the speakers use certain specific combinations. For example, we can find that both 'b' & 'z' sounds are available in English language. Yet we won't find any word that begins with 'bz'. Similarly, hundreds of rules can be traced about words.

While analysing sentences, we can find that "The girl went to schools" conveys complete meaning whereas 'irl hte nwn't ot cshool' won't be able to make sense. Here, the noteworthy thing is that a little change in letter have moved the complete meaning. Thus, it can be concluded that all language, though linear in their visual manifestation, have a dual system of sound and meaning.

In other words, we can say that language is the systematic arrangement (system) of linguistic units which correlate word and meaning. Hence, each language must be analyzed as a special system that conveys its message within the framework of structure and meaning. Above all the point to be remembered is that every language is meaningful and this 'meaning', is the gift of its system & sub-systems.

Language changes is not static. Changes affect it at all levels in its chronological development.

There are two types of change that we broadly notice, one that can be marked from area to area. Hindi, for example, shows variation from one place to another; Hindi spoken in east Bihar shows marked difference from the one spoken in west D.P. Another type of variation pertains to the changes coming over a language with time. Such names as OIA, MIA, NIA, Old High German, Old Church Slavonic, Old English, Middle English, etc. indicate the need to mark and differentiate different stages of linguistic growth with a view to mark one set of features from another.

Language renews itself by shedding old forms and adopting new ones. The pace of social progress regulates to some extent the pace of linguistic changes too; linguistic adjustability is remarkable in that a language can readily change itself to become an effective medium of expression of a community's needs, aspirations, dreams and desires. That is why we see changes in a language. English language in our times is

characterised by unusual emphasis on the qualities of precise, objective and plain logical expression because the society itself is guided by a heightened level of scientific perception that promotes objectivity and logicality in expression and shows intolerance towards florid elaborateness that was the high point of Victorian style.

Differences can be due to several linguistic processes.

(1) We may evidence changes in the phonemic structure and (2) lexical repertoire (3) Grammatical and (4) morphological changes may also occur. (5) Meaning also shows changes in different manners, both in the lexical and the grammatical elements.

While internal linguistic factors work inexorably to bring about permanent changes, a language may be radically affected by its resorting to heavy borrowing from external sources. Large scale word borrowings are a common feature among languages that come into contact with other languages. English presents an example in this respect where words from such far - flung sources as Arabic, Persian, Hindi, Italian, Spanish, Swahili, Maori, Dutch, Greek, Danish, Russian, Chinese, Turkish, Japanese and Dravidian languages have been borrowed and accepted. An interesting feature of this type of borrowing is that for certain English nouns the adjectives come from loan languages - sea-marine; sun-solar; salt-saline; tooth-dental; mouth-oral, etc. With words some sounds also tend to make inroads in the language. The English /ə/ as we hear it in garage, leisure, rouge may have come from French. Hindi has borrowed some Persian sounds. Borrowing thus is one of the prominent mechanisms of linguistic change.

Change may also occur through certain processes taking place within the language, such as loss or addition of sounds, words new coinages by re-employing the old forms, contracting or expanding meaning, and a few other processes. Such changes are classified as Internal change.

Sound Changes

Through the passage of time a sound or a group of sounds may give place to another sound or group of sounds. A sound or sounds may totally disappear, or change partially. We have the example in OE /a:/ changing to ME /o:/ which changed to New or Modern English /ou/ or /əu/, as is seen in the changes occurring in the pronunciation of the forms of the words 'stone' and 'boat'. Similarly, changes are recorded to have occurred in certain accented vowels and diphthongs (æ, a, o, u, ea, io) that were followed by an l and j. This led to α and α becoming e, and i becoming u, ee, e and so on. Palatal diphthongization is a process of sound change whereby an OE a and e that were preceded by certain palatal consonants (c, g, / ə/, sc) were to diphthongise - ea and ie. Thus Latin ca seus 'cheese' became OE ciese. As has been mentioned earlier

sound changes may be due to languages coming into close contact, or other social-cultural reasons like absorption of large chunks of population belonging to different communities, and imposition of alien rule. Long years of Muslim and Moghul rule in India have introduced new sounds such as labio-dental fricative /f/ as contrasted with the bilabial /p^h/, and /z/, /q/ and so on. The Scandinavian invasion of England in the eighth and ninth centuries led to the introduction of sk in skirt, skull, screech and so on. The four fricatives of the OE /fθsx/ were split into six fricatives voiced and voiceless /fvθðsz/ in Modern English phonemic system. The OE /ȳ/ and /χ/ disappeared completely in Modern English.

Grammatical Changes

Languages show a tendency to develop from the complex structural pattern to a simplified system, shedding the old function classes and categories. A glance at the progression of Sanskrit from Vedic to classical form, or of Sanskrit to Pali-Prakrit may tell us a lot about this evolutionary fact. English language is no exception to this principle. The old elaborate case-system, the gender inflections, the three-fold number system and a characteristic affixal pattern have all undergone drastic changes. Most of them can no longer be recognised. For instance the OE dual number for pronoun, apart from the singular and plural forms has been lost in Mod. E.

	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nom	ic	wit (we two)	we
Gen	min	uncer	user (ure)
Dat	mē	unc	us
Acc	mē	un	us (usic)

Similarly, OE had fully inflected definite article.

	Singular		Plural	
	Masc	Fem	Neut	all genders
Nom	se	seo	ðæt	ða
Gen	ðæs	ðæ re	ðæs	ðara
Dat	ðæm	ðæere	ðæm	ðæm
Acc	ðone	ða	ðæt	ða
Instr	ðy, ðon		ðy, ðon	

Modern English has lost this system, only the and the demonstrative pronoun survive. The gender system has also been discarded. The OE prefix for- (resembling German ver-) was used to intensify meaning of verb forhand, forcleave, forshake, foravail, forbar,

forcover, forgab. Modern English carries only a limited number of these words. The prefix for- is no longer freely used, but come as if fixed with the words - as in forbid forstall, forgive, forget, etc.

While some grammatical particles disappeared at different stages in English, new particles appeared and established themselves. Talking about Old English's capacity to create new coinages out of the existing elements, Baugh and Cable say. 'The language at this stage shows great flexibility, a capacity for bending old words to new uses. By means of prefixes and suffixes a single root is made to yield a variety of derivatives, and the range of these is greatly extended by the ease with which compounds are formed... The word mod which is our word mood (a mental state), meant in, Old English 'heart', 'mind', 'spirit', and hence 'boldness' or 'courage', sometimes 'pride' or haughtiness'. Let us see how different constructions were made by adding particles and words to this word.

modig (adjective) 'spirited, bold, high-minded, arrogant'

modiglic (adj.) magnanimous

modiglice (adv.) boldly, proudly

modignes (noun) magnanimity, pride

modigian 'to be indignant'

modfull haughty

modileas spiritless

modecraeft intelligence

modlufu affection (lufu is love)

modecraeftig intelligent

modcaru sorrow

unmod despondency

modleast want of courage

madmod folly

heahmod 'proud, noble'

modhete hate

There have been found other derivations like *modefa*, *modge panc*, *modgeponc*, *modgepoht*, *modgehygd*, *modgemyad*, *modhord*, etc.

This tendency still continues as can be seen in newer formations in technical areas.

'In Modern medical usage certain Greek suffixes like -itis, and -osis have acquired new 'slant' in order to meet new needs. The feminine adjectival suffix -itis in Greek corresponding to the masculine -ites which has become -ite in English words like *semitite*, *Darwinite*, *Keralite*, and

selenite 'dweller in the moon' is an example. This -itis form was frequently used with the feminine substantive nosos 'disease' expressed or understood: arthritis (nosos) 'disease of the joints', nephritis (nosos) 'disease of the kidneys'. Later the suffix was used to denote exclusively those diseases, which are characterised by inflammatory conditions' (Simeon Potter).

Similarly, English has borrowed -isis meaning normal state, condition or process; -logue, -ous, -an, -at, -on (in kenotron, dynatron), and a host of other suffixes from Greek and Latin sources, and adapted them to newer requirements.

These adaptive processes active within a language never cease to produce changes in it, though it may be several decades before concrete results are visible.

Lexical Changes

This is a very wide area and highly susceptible to influences. Stocks of lexical items come and go out of a language, subject to external conditions such as the speech community coming into contact with other cultures and communities, an alien language being suddenly imposed on it (like French was thrust upon English from 1200 to 1500 A.D.), large scale borrowing of linguistic elements along with particular systems of thought and philosophy, arts and sciences into a particular country, and so on. England has been visited by races from Germania, Scandinavia and France. Its people went outside to expand trade and commerce, and establish empire over more than half the globe. These and other socio-cultural factors have made the language very flexible, liberal and highly adaptive, welcoming linguistic elements from various sources without reservation, resistance or bias of any kind.

English is replete with words of German, French and Greek origins; besides it is not at all difficult to locate Icelandic, Slavic, Hindustani, Persian, Chinese, Philipino and even Dravidian words.

Nevertheless, borrowing is only one of the ways whereby lexical changes are effected; often we see another mechanism at work, i.e., creating new words out of available resources or reviving the ancient forms. In present day Hindi we find scores of new coinages from Sanskrit words like abhiyantrik, aapravajan, adhiniyam, vipanan, etc. Compounding in English has recently been observed to be very active as a word-formative process. We daily hear such expressions as fun-world, water-sports, sky-jumping, upbeat, down-town, hang-gliding, hung-parliament, sky-scraper, etc. Commercial advertising requires to keep things fresh and novel; old wornout expression, even those commonly used words may produce the opposite results - therefore, compounded expressions clutter the write ups used for the ads - 'No more mad rush-to-flush!'; 'Blue-loo confidence'; 'Turn heads with your

satin-smooth arms and legs'. Journalism today is freely promoting the compounding process and almost everyday we hear a new coinage: so easy and so eye-catching! OE possessed an extra-ordinary ability for creating self-explanatory compounds such as eye-thurl 'eye hole' for window, dagred 'day red' for dawn, eorpcraft 'earth craft' for geometry, leohtfat 'light vessel' for lamp and fotadl 'foot disease' for gout.

Semantic Change

Though older forms may remain in the language, their sense is lost and new semantic references are established. There are several reasons for the semantic change. Changed meanings are sometimes recognised, sometimes the original meaning is lost and has to be traced.

The English word wealth originally meant 'weal', 'welfare' or wellbeing and not worldly goods and riches as it has come to denote today. The word touchy has nothing to do with 'touch' but derives from tetch meaning 'a fit of petulance, anger or tantrum'. Semantic changes occur in three different ways;

- i. *the original meaning is completely replaced by new meaning.*
- ii. *the original meaning is narrowed.*
- iii. *the original meaning is further expanded.*

Mechanisms of Language Change

A number of factors are responsible for bringing about language change. The major ones are as follows:

1. Sound change
2. Borrowing (both internal and external)
3. Analogy
4. Metathesis

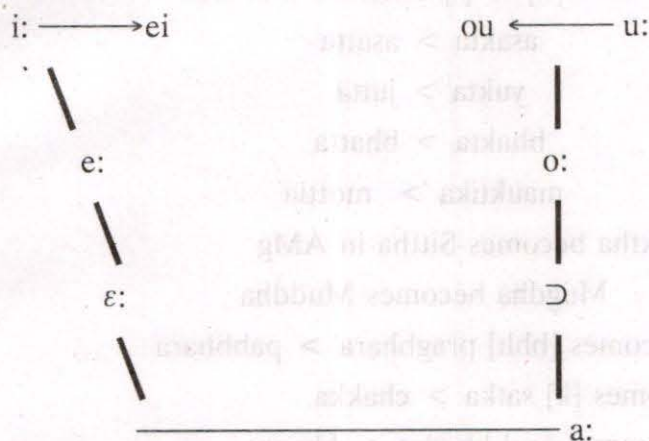
Sound Change

We have some idea of how changes in the habits of pronunciation can produce over a long period of time changes that remain permanently in the language. The beginnings in this respect are always modest and a matter of non-significant deviations. These may become endemic and lead to a restructuring of the phonemic system triggering off other changes.

In the Middle English there were seven long vowels; but a tendency to diphthongize them began which led to a shuffling of the vowels around. This phenomenon is known as the Great Vowel Shift. In Chaucer's time the long vowels still retained their continental value [a] was articulated as [a:] in father, [e] was pronounced like [ɛ] in there and not as ee in seat. 'But in the fifteenth century a great change is seen to

be underway. All the long vowels gradually came to be pronounced with a greater elevation of the tongue and closing of the mouth, so that those that could be raised (a, e, e, o, o) were raised, and those that could not without becoming consonantal (i,u) became diphthongs.

The shift or shuffling around can be seen in the following diagram.



Based on Potter's model

As /i:/ became diphthongised, the next lower vowel took its place, which was filled by the new lower vowel and in this manner the shifting went on. How different periods in the history of English show changes in vowel pronunciation can be understood by looking at the following table.

Chaucer's age	Shakespeare's age	Today	
li:f	leif	laif	life
de:d	di:d	di:d	deed
dɛ:l	de:l	di:l	deal
na:mð	nɛ:m	neim	name
hɔ:m	ho:m	houm	home
mo:n	mu:n	mu:n	moon
hu:s	hous	haus	house

Perhaps the Great Vowel Shift is responsible for the confusion in the use of the vowel symbols in spelling. Before it the spelling was more or less fixed. When the vowel quality showed changes the spellings did not change too and ceased to represent the exact correspondence between symbols and the sounds.

We also notice in ME the absence of many diphthongs that once enriched the OE sound system.

A significant mechanism of phonetic change is the process of assimilation.

Here it would be relevant to give examples of the tremendous role played by phonetic assimilation in bringing about sound changes in MIA from OIA.

The OIA [k] + [t] becomes tt in MIA.

asakta > asatta

yukta > jutta

bhakta > bhatta

mauktika > mottia

Similarly, Siktha becomes Sittha in AMg

Mugdha becomes Muddha

[g] + [bh] becomes [bbh] pragbhara > pabbhara

[t] + [k] becomes [k] satka > chakka

[d] + [g] becomes [gg] khadga > khagga

sadguna > chagguna

sadgunaka > chaggunaa

[tra] becomes [tta] in MIA e.g., tratyati > tu ttai. After a long vowel [tra] frequently becomes [ya]

gatra > gaya

gotra > goya

dhatri > dhai

patri > pai

A. L. P. Smith has pointed out in his book "The English Language" that "the main additions to the English Language, additions so great as to change its character in a fundamental way, were from French, first of all from the Northern French of the Norman conquerors and then from the literary and learned speech of Paris". Even before the Norman Conquest, the English had become acquainted with the Norman culture and way of life because of the social, political and ecclesiastical intercourse between the two nations, following upon the marriage of the English King, Ethelred the Unready, to a Norman princess. During the reign of Edward the Confessor, several Norman nobles were placed in important positions in England and the fortified buildings in which they stayed were known as 'castels' (castles). 'Capun' (capon) and "bacun' (bacon) are two other words introduced at the time and they serve to suggest the greater luxury of French cooking which was new to the English.

After the Conquest:

After the Conquest, we find a stream of French words entering the English vocabulary and they suggest the influence of an occupying power over a conquered people. 'Prisun' (prison), "tur" (tower), 'market', 'rent', justice' etc. have been thus introduced into the language. After the Norman conquest, we find the church, the courts of law, the art of war, trade with the continent and the pastimes of the aristocracy becoming Norman French in terminology. The Peterborough Chronicle written in 1155 employs such terms as 'acorden' (to come to agreement), 'bataille' (battle), 'curt' (court), 'cuntess' (countess), 'tresoe' (treasure), 'carited' (charity), 'pis' (peace), 'miracle' and 'processiun' (procession).

In the 13th Century :

With the loss of Normandy and other French possessions of King John in the 13th century, the contact with France was much weakened. Meanwhile the English and the Normans had become merged into one people and in another hundred years English had become accepted as the National language of the country in place of Norman French which ever since the Conquest had been the language of the ruling class. Frenchified terminology now became restricted to the courts of law. Among the French legal terms which were retained and are still in use, are 'plaintiff', 'defendant', 'privilege', 'distrain', 'tort', 'maltesance'. A new impulse was given to the French influence in the beginning of the 13th century because of the dominant place which France had come to assume in matters of culture and literature.

The dialect of French which was becoming culturally important, was the Central or Parisian French which was very different in pronunciation from the Norman French from which English had already borrowed innumerable words. Now a series of Central French words like 'chancellor', 'charity', and 'chattle' were introduced into English though their Norman French equivalents 'canceler', 'carited' and 'cattle' were already known to the English. 'Guardian' and 'warden', 'guarantee' and 'warrant' are two pairs of words in which the first term is from Central French and the second from Norman French. Thus the dialectal diversities in the French language have enriched the English vocabulary with a great number of synonyms or what are almost synonyms. Among the French loans from 1100 to 1300 the following words may be taken as representative of different objects or ideas 'castel', 'prisun', 'chapel', 'grace', 'merci', 'service', 'miracle', 'religion', 'werre' (war), 'bataille' (battle), 'lamp', 'beast'!

In the 14th Century :

The 14th century witnessed a great increase in the number of French Loans. These were no longer limited in use to the educated or upper class but had become integral parts of the language. This is

illustrated in the first stanza of the "Prologue" where Chaucer, writing in the conversational style of London, employs 14 French words. During this period we find that there is a very high proportion of French loan words relating to hunting, cooking, and the art of war, in English vocabulary. It is also seen that in many an instance the older English word have survived along-side of its French equivalent with a slight difference of meaning. This together with the practice of retaining the Norman French equivalents of the latter Central French loans, partly accounts for the large number of synonyms and near-synonyms in English.

in the 15th and 16th centuries:

While French influence on the language was general and widespread during the Middle-English period, it was no longer so after the beginning of the 16th century. Though, like Latin, French continued to be the source of new words, the French loans after the 15th century were confined to particular classes of technical words restricted in use to the better educated people. The 16th century borrowings, for instance, were mostly technical terms relating to war, and the common man had little to do with these.

In The 17th Century :

The 17th century is significant in the history of the French loans as it was a period of very close contact between the English and the French in matters of Literature and social intercourse. One of the subjects which engaged the attention of satirists and playwrights of the Restoration period was the indiscriminate imitation of all things French by the "smart set" in London. Dryden's play "Marriage a'la mode" is entirely devoted to satirising of the Frenchified fashionable woman of the age. Words like 'dagoon', 'stockade', 'reprimand', 'ballet', burlesque', 'tableau', 'chagrin', 'champagne' 'coquette', 'liaison', 'verve' 'cortege', 'native', 'decor', 'forte', 'soup' and 'quart' are representative of the 17th century borrowings from French.

In The 18th And 19th Centuries:

While the 18th century was also rich in the French 'entrants' into English vocabulary the 19th century was the richest of all in these. Along with the usual borrowings of military terms we find those relating to diplomacy and those called forth by the French Revolution. Among the 18th Century loan words may be mentioned 'emigre', guillotine', 'regime', 'corps', 'sortie', 'espionage', 'depot fusilade'... 'bureau', 'canteen', 'coterie', 'bellesletters', 'brochure', 'rouge', liquor', 'picnic', 'etiquette', 'ennui', 'police' and 'coup'. The 19th century witnessed a rich harvest of French loans. These include along with the usual military terms those relating to art and letters, textiles and furniture. 'Barrage', 'communiqué' 'chassis', 'reticule', 'resume', 'cliche', 'rococo',

'renaissance', 'baton', 'matinee', 'motif', 'premiere', 'rosette', 'fichu', 'profile', 'negligee', 'beret', 'restaurant', 'menu', 'chief', 'souffle', 'chauffeur', 'elite', 'debutante', 'fiancee', 'chic', 'attache', 'clientele', 'prestige', 'impasse', 'dossier', 'debacle', and 'raison d'etre' are examples of 19th century French entrants into English vocabulary.

As the list above indicates, they include along with military terms, terms relating to furniture, literature, art, dress, food, social-life, fashion, and diplomacy. The two world wars have helped the process of borrowings from French. 'Garage', 'revue', 'vers libre', 'hangar', 'camouflage' and 'limousine' are among the modern borrowings. The kind of objects and ideas denoted by the French loans made during the two centuries following the Norman conquest tell their own story of the conquering Normans and their authority over the conquered English. Wamba the jester in Scott's *Ivanhoe* points out how the living animals like ox, sheep, calf, swine and deer have continued to bear the English names even after the Conquest while the flesh of these animals used as food has been referred to by French words like 'beef', 'mutton', 'veal', 'pork', 'bacon' and 'venison'.

Sources of Present Words :

This is explained by the fact that the Anglo-Saxon serf had the care of these animals while alive but on being turned into meat they were eaten by his French masters, and had to be distinguished by their French names. It is also significant that 'master', 'servant', 'butler', 'buttery', 'bottle', 'dinner', 'supper', 'banquet' are all French words. So also are the terms relating to law, government and property. That is how words like 'court', 'assize', 'judge', 'jury', 'justice', 'prison', 'jail', 'parliament', 'bill', 'act', 'council', 'tax', 'custom', 'royal', 'prince', 'city', 'mayor', 'rent', are all seen to be of French origin. The terms relating to titular ranks of the nobility, have also come from French. 'Duke', 'Marquis', 'Viscount', 'baron', are all examples of French titles. The English title 'earl' was retained, as it was equivalent to the French 'count'. But as there was no English term for the wife of the earl the French word 'countess' was borrowed. The English 'knight' was also retained as it was seen to be easier and shorter in pronunciation than the French 'chevalier'.

Terms relating to war were naturally adopted from the language of the conquerors. "War, itself is a French word. So are 'battle', 'assault', 'siege', 'standard', 'banner', 'armour', 'harness', lance,' 'fortress', 'tower' etc. The superiority of the French in industrial civilization is indicated by the borrowing of French terms for denoting the commonest designations of tradesmen and artisans. The smith, the baker, the skinner are still known by their Old English names. But the butcher, the barber, the carpenter, the cutter, the draper, the grocer, the mason, the tailor are all called by French names. However, the English 'shoe-maker', has

not been superseded by the French 'cord-winer' or 'corviser', probably because the English term is familiar and self-explanatory. Terms relating to family relationship outside the immediate circle of the household have been borrowed from French. Thus 'uncle', 'aunt', 'nephew', 'niece', 'cousin', have all come from French. The terms 'grandsire' and grandame, characteristic of the French spoken in England have been replaced in the 15th century by the half English words 'grandfather' and 'grandmother'. The use of the French prefix was extended to grand son and grand daughter also in Elizabethan times. Mother-in-law and father-in-law, though compounded of English words are literal translation of old French designations. It is interesting to note that the different parts of the body excepting 'face' have retained their Old English names. The French word 'face' was adopted in place of the Old English synonyms like 'onlete', 'onesene' or 'wlite', because it was easier to pronounce.

Pronunciation Of Loan Words :

On examining the French loan words from the earlier times to the present day we notice that the earlier loans are fully English in their pronunciation. The latter borrowing on the other hand retain their French pronunciation and stress to a very great extent. There is no definite standard by which we can decide how to pronounce these late entrants into the English vocabulary. Some of them like 'envelope', 'avalanche', and 'vase' have more than one pronunciation-one English and the other as nearly French as possible. Words like 'promenade', 'mirage', 'rouge', 'ballet', 'debris' etc. retain their French pronunciation and stress more or less-intact. The earlier loans like 'table', 'chair', 'lake', etc. can hardly be recognized now as French words by their pronunciation. But later loans like 'connoisseur', 'amateur', 'chef', 'valet', and 'garage' show very little "Englishing" in their pronunciation and retain much of their French sounds. Again unlike the earlier loans like 'honour', 'favour', 'virtue' and 'reason' the later loans have not adopted the English system of stress. Words like 'bagatelle', 'bizarre', 'facade', 'menage' etc. show a stressed final syllable which is quite alien to English. Some older loan words have had their pronunciation and spelling re-formed on the model of the later French loans. Thus the word 'bisket' in older English, has been given the modern spelling 'biscuit'. Similarly the word 'police' has had its accent changed in accordance with the French tradition. This is the result of attempting to keep to an ideal of correctness which is rather false and quite unwarranted. English speech has been enriched all through its history by its power of assimilating borrowed elements and making them harmonise with the real core of the language. Scholars like L.P. Smith feel that when we come across a French loan in two forms such as 'quarrette' and 'quartet', 'employe' and 'employee', 'foci' and 'focuses',

formulae and 'formulas' the form which is the English and assimilated one, should always be preferred.

Of all the languages in the world, English perhaps has the most heterogeneous and most varied vocabulary. This vast vocabulary includes a large proportion of foreign words borrowed from different languages both ancient and modern. Chief among the languages which have thus enriched the English vocabulary are Latin, French and Scandinavian. The borrowings from Latin which had begun in pre-historic times while the Anglo-Saxons were still in their continental homes, continued through the Old English period and attained large proportions in the 14th and 15th centuries. It has continued without interruption ever since, with the result that about one fourth of the Latin vocabulary has already been translated into English, either directly or by way of French.

The adoption of Latin words by the Anglo-Saxon tribes had begun long before they left their continental homes and settled in England. Like other Germanic tribes, the Angles, Saxons and Jutes had been in contact with the civilization of Rome, and this had resulted in borrowings like street, wine, butter, pepper, cheese, silk, pound, mile, mint etc. Having settled in Britain these Germanic tribes borrowed from the Romanized Celtic words like Latin 'castra' (which survives in place names like 'Chester', 'Winchester', 'Doncaster' and Leicester) and Latin 'gigantum' (giant).

The coming of Christianity to England brought with it innumerable Latin terms used by the Roman missionaries for expressing ideas relating to Christian beliefs and Christian way of life. Thus, words like 'minister' (From Latin 'monasterium'), monk (from Latin 'monachus'), 'bishop' (from Latin 'episcopum') found their way into English vocabulary. Besides these Latin words relating to Christianity there were some other additions to the English vocabulary which were made from native words and were given new meanings in accordance with the Christian faith. Thus the Old English word 'Eastron' relating to the festival of the goddess 'Eastru' was used to mean the Christian festival of Easter celebrating the Resurrection of Christ. Another Old English word which received a new meaning at this stage, was 'bletsian' meaning to sprinkle with blood. This word came to express the meaning of the Latin 'benedicere' (to bless with the sign of the cross).

The largest number of Latin loans in Old English were introduced as a result of the Latin learning and science brought to English through the revitalizing of church life in the 10th century. The names of many herbs and trees were thus received into English from Latin. But most of them have not survived in modern English. During the Old English period Latin had come to enrich the English vocabulary by the many translations of Latin compound words. Thus Latin 'evangelicem' came

to be translated into Old English as good spell and Latin 'trinitatum' was translated into Old English 'Orynes'. Even Latin technical terms of grammar like 'participle' and 'preposition' came to be translated into 'daelnimend' and 'foresetenys'. The influence of Latin on English during the Middle English period is rather hard to determine. At the time French was the dominating source for new words and French is only one of the developments of Latin in mediæval times. It is difficult to distinguish between words taken directly from Latin into English and those which have been borrowed from French which in turn had been derived from Latin. Those which are definitely known to have been taken directly from Latin include 'pauper', 'proviso', 'equivalent', 'legitimate', 'index', 'simile', 'memento', 'tolerance' is believed to have been borrowed at this time. While at the beginning of the Middle English period English was still a comparatively unmixed language the innumerable borrowings from Latin and French made it pass into the mixed or heterogeneous state very soon. The direct influence of Latin on English has been most deeply felt during the period beginning with the reign of Henry VIII. It was specially strong at the time of the Renaissance. As the language representing European culture Latin has influenced English throughout its history with many fluctuations. The mediæval Latin from which many words were borrowed into English was spoken by the clergy and learned men of the country. The historical and devotional books were mostly written in it. As the church employed it for her services and the learned men wrote in it, it was a living language unlike the Latin of the classics which came to be studied at the Renaissance.

During the 16th to the 18th century it was the usual practice to write scientific and philosophical works in Latin. This accounts for the prevailing tendency to consider Latin as the source for new words, relating to scientific and philosophical ideas. This tendency has met with strong opposition from the advocates of a "chose, naked, natural way of writing." But the practice of coining new words from Latin elements for expressing technical or scientific ideas has been continued into modern times. Unfortunately the modern coiners of new Latin terms are not possessed of the good classical education which their forefathers in the 16th and 17th centuries had received. Soon after the Renaissance there had been a re-modelling of English schools so that men chosen for education went to schools where Latin was the medium of instruction, and classical language and literature were the chief subjects of study. Hence it was natural for educated men in Queen Elizabeth's time to use Latin words and affixes freely in their conversation. It was equally natural for 17th century writers to use Latinate terms in their works. The writings of Milton and Sir Thomas Browne seem to us quite profuse in their use of un-English Latin terms. Those, however, would not have appeared so un-English to contemporary readers. Among the Latin

words which have been borrowed during the modern English period, we find that 'exit', 'genius', 'area', 'fungus', 'miser', 'circus', 'vacuum', 'medium', 'ignoramus', 'vagary' belong to the 16th century. The 17th century borrowings include torpor, specimen, arena, apparatus, focus, album, complex, minimum, status, lens, pendulum, etc. In the 18th century were borrowed nucleus, inertia, aibi, ultimum, extra, insomnia, bonus, via, deficit.

The 19th century was marked by Latin loans, like opus, ego, moratorium, referendum and babillus. In addition to those and other Latin words which have been taken over unchanged, there are thousands of words which have been Anglicized by taking on native endings or reductions. Latin suffixes like -ate (as in eradicate)-ic (as inelastic) and -al (as in formal) have now become part of the language. When we speak of learned words adopted from Latin into French and from French into English during the period from the 9th century to 14th century we have to remember that they were taken not from classical Latin, but from the Low Latin which was a living language used by scholars all over Europe. Though these words are mainly classical in form, many of them, especially the abstract nouns, have been formed by the addition of terminations in the medieval Latin. A scholar of the period writing in English when wishing to use a Latin word invariably followed the model of the Latin words already adopted from French.

The result was that he altered the Latin word as if it had first been introduced into French and then borrowed from French into English. Hence it is now quite impossible for us to decide from the form of the Latin loans of the period whether they have been taken direct from Latin or have been borrowed indirectly by way of French. Regarding the reforming of the Latin loans in English, there is no absolute rule save that of convenience and usage. The nouns are usually taken from the stem of the accusative, and verbs from that of the past participle. But we find the nominative form of nouns in 'terminus', 'bonus', 'stimulus' etc. while the ablative form appears in 'folio'. In nouns like 'memorandum' and 'innuendo' the gerund is seen while the different parts of the verb appear in 'veto' and 'affidavit'. 'Recipe' is actually taken from the imperative from the verb directing the apothecary to take certain drugs. 'Dirge' is formed of another imperative taken from the service for the dead. The form of the Latin words in English and French, and more particularly in English, has been affected by the self-conscious and unwarranted actions of some scholars in the past. They made certain capricious attempts to restore Latin words in English to shapes more in accordance with their original spelling. In doing this they were taking advantage of a general feeling that the popular forms of the words were wrong. Thus 'h' was added to words like 'umble', honour, abit (humble, honour, habit). The letter 'b' was inserted in 'debt' thereby reminding one of its derivation from Latin 'debitum'. Similarly, the relation

between Latin 'fallere' and English 'fault' was established by inserting the 't' in 'fault'. The letter 'p' was inserted in 'receipt' to show its relation with Latin 'receptium'.

Though these changes in spelling do not always affect, the pronunciation in certain words, like fault, vault, assault etc. the pedantically inserted letter has come to be pronounced. Till the 19th century the 'h' was not pronounced in 'humble', 'hospital' etc. 'Fault' had rhymed with 'thought' in the 18th century. Among the more inexcusable errors introduced into English spelling by old pedantry are the 'd' in advance, advantage (more properly avance, avantage) and the 'c' in scent and scissors which should have been spelt 'sent' and 'sissors'. Though Latin is no longer a subject of study in English schools a glance at any but the latest grammar book will convince us how the whole set up and terminology of English grammar have been influenced by Latin. On account of the Latinate tradition it has long been considered wrong to say in English, "It is me". Latin grammar requires that the verb 'to be' must always take the nominative after it, while usages like 'It is me'. 'It is her' are perfectly in keeping with the genius of the English language. So long as English grammar was dominated by the Latin tradition, 'It is me' was considered incorrect. But modern grammar books like W. S. Allen's "Living English Structure", have already accepted the native usage as correct and thus broken away from the Latin influence. But in matters like prosody Latin tradition still prevails. Hence we find terms like iambs, trochees and dactyls in English prosody though these terms properly relate to quantitative notions of syllables as in Latin prosody. They are inappropriate to English where metre is based on stress or emphasis. The fact that we still speak in terms of iambs and trochees and dactyls in English prosody shows how "the ghost of the Latinate tradition still haunts our study of English.

Near the end of the Old English period, the Danes came to England. They were the inhabitants of Scandinavia and Denmark, one time neighbours of the Anglo-Saxons and closely related to them in language and blood. For some centuries, the Scandinavians had been a quiet people. But in the eighth century a change, possibly economic, possibly political, occurred in this area and made them restless and adventurous. They began a series of attacks upon all the lands adjacent to the North Sea and the Baltic. Their activities began in plunder and ended in conquest. The Swedes established a kingdom in Russia; Norwegians colonized parts of the British Isles, the Faroes and Iceland, and from there pushed on to Greenland and the coast of Labrador; the Danes founded the dukedom of Normandy and finally conquered England in the beginning of the eleventh century under their wise and spirited king, Cnut. The king of Denmark began to rule England, Norway and the greater part of the Scandinavian world from his English capital.

As these unusual achievements were possible due to the daring sea-rovers, who are commonly known as Vikings (from Old Norse 'Vic', a bay, thence 'one who came out, or frequented, inlets of the sea') the period from the mid of the eighth century to the beginning of the eleventh century is popularly known as the Viking Age.

There are three well marked stages of the Scandinavian attacks upon England, as may be seen below-

- (1) *the period of early raids, beginning according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle in 787 and continuing until about 850. The raids of this period were simply plundering attacks upon towns and monasteries near the coast.*
- (2) *the period that includes the work of large armies and is marked by widespread plundering in all parts of the country and by extensive settlements, extending from 850 to 878.*
- (3) *the period of political adjustment and assimilation from 878 to 1042. During this period, the Danes agreed to accept Christianity and were gradually absorbed into the general mass of the English population.*

In a majority of cases, the Danish and the Scandinavian forms were, at the time of the settlement of the Danes in England, almost identical. Their modes of speech were nearly the same. As the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes came closer due to the historical facts, their languages also left their marks on each other. Chronologically, the Scandinavian influence upon the English language is the third important loan element. The Danes first settled down in Northumbria, whence they spread rapidly over northern and eastern England. The Norse element into the English vocabulary has special significance as making the temporary union of the important divisions of the Teutonic race. Yet the determination of the exact boundaries of the Norse loan-element is, in some respects, as difficult as in the case of the Celtic. The language of the Danes was so like that of their English cousins that in the union of the two races, the English form or meaning was modified by the Danish speech. A glaring instance in this regard is the word 'get', which seems to be from the Danish, with an initial 'g', while in O.E. it was to be pronounced as 'yet'. Similarly, there came about a change in meaning in case with certain words as a result of the two speeches coming closer; for example, the word 'dream' in a result of the two speeches coming closer; for example, the word 'dream' in O.E. meant 'joy or pleasure'. The Scandinavian word meant a 'vision of the O.E. meant 'vision of the night'. Thus, while the form of the word 'dream' is English, its sense is Norse. So powerful was the Danish influence that not only nouns, adjectives and verbs were borrowed, but even pronouns as 'they', 'them', 'their' also came from the same source. The word 'till' may be English, but the frequency of its present use may be due to the Norse influence.

Furthermore, the northern England was very close to Scandinavia and there was a literary influence in a greater degree than has been recognized so far and the extent of the Scandinavian element into English is, today, a matter of conjecture more than of knowledge.

While Norse words began to enter the spoken language in the times of the Danish supremacy, they entered but slowly into the written language and hence only a few appear before the close of the O.E. period. Many more words are found after 1200c. Examples of those words which have come down to modern times are : call, crave, fellow, fellow, haven, husband, hustings, knife, law, take, and wrong. Besides these, Dr. Skeat mentions in his Etymological Dictionary some five hundred words of Norse origin. From no other foreign language has English borrowed such a large proportion of simple everyday words as from the language of the Danes.

It is almost impossible to give absolute criteria for the determination of the Norse words in English, but some indications are these-

(1) *In Teutonic words the sound combination of 'sk' (sometimes 'sc') points to the Norse origin. Examples are : sky, scarce, score, scan, scrap, scream, scrab, scowl, skulk, skin, skull, scant, bask, etc. From Teutonic words we must, however, separate Old French words which had a great resemblance with Scandinavian.*

(2) *Teutonic words with hard 'k' or 'g' where genuine English words would have 'y', 'j' or 'ch' may be regarded as of Norse origin; examples are : give, gift, get, guest; also the words drag, dregs, egg, flag, leg, log are of Norse origin because they have the final hard 'g' instead of 'y' or 'j' sound. Norse words with initial 'k' are 'kid' and 'kirk'.*

(3) *Teutonic words with 'ei' or 'ai' are also Norse. Examples are : hail, raid, raise, reindeer, swain, gait, their, wait, etc.*

(4) *Personal names ending in 'son' are Norse, e.g. Gibson, Johnson, Thomson. The place-names, nearly over 600, ending in '-by' are Norse, such as in 'Grimsby', 'Whitby', 'Derby', 'Rugby' and 'Thoresby'. The Danish word 'by' means 'farm' or 'town'. Some three hundred names like 'Althorp', 'Bishopsthorpe', 'Gawthorpe', 'Linthorpe' contain the Scandinavian word 'thorp' (village). An almost equal number contain the word 'thwaite' (an isolated piece of land), such as in 'Appethwaite', 'Braithwaite', 'Cowperthwaite', 'Langthwaite', and 'Satterthwaite'. About a hundred places bear names ending in 'toft' (a piece of ground), such as in 'Brinmtoft', 'Eastoft', 'Langtoft', 'Lowestoft', and 'Nortoft'. We have other suffixes, too, that go into the making of numerous names; some of these are : teen, ton (corrupt for 'town'), bury (village).*

Now we shall try to find out the spheres of human life, activity or knowledge in which the ruling Scandinavians were able to teach the English. The first one is-

- (a) *the loan words that relate to war and more particularly to navy in which the foreigners were supreme.*
- (b) *we find many Scandinavian words dealing with administration. The Danes re-organized the administrative machinery and introduced a powerful law throughout the kingdom. The very word 'law' is Scandinavian.*
- (c) *As the culture of the Scandinavian settlers had not been of a higher order than that of the English, nor it had been of a lower order, many Norse words of everyday life are found in English which are purely of a democratic character. These words do not belong to the section of learned people as in case of Latin, nor to the rich, the ruling, the refined, the aristocratic, the upper class as in case of French. They are rather used by the high and the low alike.*
- (d) *The Scandinavian words are mostly short and their shortness is in harmony with the monosyllabic character of the native stock as a whole. Owing to this fact, they are far less felt as foreign words than any other. They touch most significant aspects of the greatest importance pertaining to high and low alike.*

Apart from the above, the Scandinavian element is to be felt in English grammar. We have such pronouns as 'they', 'them', 'their' from this source. One more Scandinavian pronoun is 'same'. We also find such pronominal adverbs as 'hethen', 'thethen', 'whethen' (hence, thence, 'whence') which displaced the native forms 'heonan', 'thanan', 'hwanan'. Similarly, the conjunction 'though' and the prepositions 'from' and 'till' come from the Scandinavian stock. The fusion of the two languages not only influenced syntactical relations, but also introduced a new tendency of speaking English flexibly, without caring much for its correct usage. Thus the simplification of English grammar was due to the Scandinavian settlers, who cared little to learn English correctly in every minute particular. Beyond a shadow of doubt, rules for the omission or retention of the conjunction are nearly the same in both the languages. The use of 'shall' and 'will' and the universal place of the genitive case before its nouns (whereas O.E., like German, placed it very often after it) are due to Scandinavian influence. "It is in the districts where the Danes were settled that the English language became first simplified, so that in the process of development their speech was at least two centuries ahead of that of the south of England."

Speaking of the importance of the Scandinavian element into English, Dr. Otto Jespersen has observed, "Englishman cannot thrive or be ill or die without Scandinavian words; they are to the language what

bread and eggs are to their fare". According to Dr. Wright, thousands of Scandinavian words are still a part of the everyday speech of the north and east of England and in a sense, are just as much a part of the living language as those that are found in other parts of the country and have made their way into the literature. He says: "It is a remarkable fact that the O.E.D. contains 1154 simple words beginning with 'sc' are 'sk'. The Scandinavian influence was considerable. Because of its extent and the intimate way in which the borrowed elements were incorporated, it is one of the most interesting of the foreign influences that have contributed to the English language."

Language Borrowing Processes

Language borrowing has been an interest to various fields of linguistics for some time. (Whitney 1875, deSaussure 1915, Sapir 1921, Pedersen 1931, Haugen 1950, Lehmann 1962, Hockett 1979, Anttila 1989) In the study language borrowing, loanwords are only one of the types of borrowings that occur across language boundaries. The speakers of a language have various options when confronted with new items and ideas in another language. Hockett (1958) has organized the options as follows.

(1) Loanword

Speakers may adopt the item or idea and the source language word for each. The borrowed form is a Loanword. These forms now function in the usual grammatical processes, with nouns taking plural and/or possessive forms of the new language and with verbs and adjectives receiving native morphemes as well.

(2) Loanshift

Another process that occurs is that of adapting native words to the new meanings. A good example from the early Christian era in England is Easter, which had earlier been used for a pagan dawn goddess festival. Other Loanshifts in English include God, heaven, and hell.

(3) Loan-translation

A Loan-translation or Calque occurs when the native language uses an item-for-item native version of the original. "Loanword" itself is a loan-translation of the German lehnwort, marriage of convenience is from the French, and long time no see is a somewhat altered version from the Chinese. An example from the earliest Christian era is gospel, from good (good) and spella (story; book). The Latin source was related to evangelist (from good plus message plus the ending -ist for person). Good Book and Holy Writ and so on can be seen as loan-translations of the native form godspella or "gospel".

(4) Loan-blend

A Loan-blend is a form in which one element is a loanword and the other is a native element, as in the borrowed *preost* (priest) plus the native *-had* (hood) in Old English to produce *preosthad* (priesthood).

Each of these four categories is relevant to the overall study of the scale of receptivity, but for the purposes below only the loanword category is relevant.

The History of English and American English

English is one of the world's most prominent languages. Its history is interesting for many reasons, including its flexibility in borrowing from other languages, a flexibility that has enriched its vocabulary over the centuries. Many studies have been done of these foreign elements in English. Jespersen's book (Jespersen 1946) on the history and development of English provided a foundation upon which many others based their own studies of loanwords in English.

The history starts Celtic speakers who were conquered by the Romans about a half century BC. Latin was the language of England for centuries until various Germanic tribes - the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes - began to enter England in some numbers in the 5th century. These Germanic speakers borrowed few of the Celtic words; other Celtic lexical borrowings (also called loanwords or loans) came later, such as: *clan*, *colleen*, *leprechaun*, *shillelagh*, and *slogan*. In the earliest centuries "English" was the Germanic language brought over, one which already had identifiable loanwords when it arrived in England. Many Latin words were in the vocabulary, such as *wine* (L. *vinum*) and *calic* (L. *calicem*, now *chalice*). The adoption of many words relating to cooking suggests the wholesale adoption of Roman food preparation: *cook* (L. *coquus*), *kitchen* (L. *coquina*), and foods such as *pear*, *peach*, *plum*, *beet*, *mint*, *pepper*, and so on.

The next major influence on English occurred after St. Augustine journeyed to England in 597 AD and Christianized the country. Many Church-related words from the Latin entered the language, some before Augustine but the majority later. Early borrowings included *church*, *minister*, *devil*, and *angel*. The terminology of the Church system was adopted along with the religion: *pope*, *bishop*, *priest*, *monk*, *nun*, *Mass*, and many more.

At the end of the 8th century, Scandinavians ("Vikings") began small raids on England, followed later by colonization. Many place names, personal names, and general vocabulary from Scandinavian languages (Danish, Norwegian) were established during the next centuries. The language borrowings from these speakers are interesting because they are at times borrowings of the "same" word centuries later.

[In technical terms these re-borrowings are doublets.] For example, Old English *scyrte* ("shirt") was borrowed as Scandinavian *skyrta* ("skirt"). The two forms came to mean different types of wearing apparel.

The next set of invaders was the Normans (French), who represented a more refined culture. From 1066 AD for a few centuries, French became the language of government and of the upper classes in English society. Other than OE king and queen, essentially all current English words related to government are from the French, including (government), reign, 54 Intercultural Communication Studies XIV: 2 2005 Hoffer - Language Borrowing country, and state. In terms of social ranking, court titles, and the like, English borrowed most titles: duke, marquis, baron, countess, court, and noble. The advanced military superiority of the French is reflected in the wholesale borrowing of military terms, such as: war, peace, officer, lieutenant, sergeant, soldier, and admiral.

Even as Danish law provided some English vocabulary earlier, French control provided several basic legal terms, including court, jury, judge, defendant, and attorney. French, a descendant of Latin, provided another stratum of Latin-derived borrowings in the area of the vocabulary of religion: religion, savior, trinity, angel, saint, and many other related words. A somewhat different and sometimes amusing result is found in the area of food. The lower classes tended the animals, which have their English names: cow, sheep, swine, and deer. As food, the meat appeared on the table of the owner with French names: beef/veal, mutton, pork/bacon, and venison. The upper class English, however, did not use many French words in their written English in the early part of the French occupation. (Jespersen 1946). By Chaucer's time, however, several hundred frequently used words had entered English vocabulary permanently.

Latin, as the language of learning in Europe for many centuries, had an impact during the Renaissance. From the 14th century, Latin, and to a lesser degree, its sister classical language, Greek, have been a continuous source of loanwords. The most obvious places to see Latin borrowings used in English are the terminologies used in biology, botany, and chemistry. The taxonomy and the available compound words are from Latin. Most of the world's scientific community uses Latin as the universal language (or at least terminology) of science.

As English traders spread across the globe during the seafaring centuries, thousands of words from world languages were borrowed and became part of the English lexicon. Various dictionaries document the later state of borrowings into the English language. For information on the earlier centuries of English language use, the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is an invaluable resource. The list below is only

suggestive of the paths followed by much of English vocabulary. More examples are given in Appendix A.

Arabic: alcohol, alembic, algebra, algorithm, alkali

Chinese: ginseng, japan ("varnish"), ketchup, kowtow

German: carouse, cobalt, feldspar, frankfurter, gneiss

Italian: artichoke, balcony, bandit, burlesque, casino

Japanese: banzai, bushido, geisha, geta, haiku

Russian/Slavic: czar, glasnost, intelligentsia, mammoth

Spanish: albino, alfalfa, alligator, anchovy, armada

English in North America

The growth of American English added words that enriched the lexicon from other sources. Various Native American ("Indian") languages have contributed words, as have the Black Americans.

Native American (various tribes): bayou, caribou, hickory, hogan, hominy, igloo,

lagniappe, moccasin, moose, muskrat, opossum, pecan, persimmon

Black American: banjo, goober, gorilla, gumbo, jazz, jigger, juke

Mexico has contributed not only Spanish words in a variety of meaning areas such as the cattle industry and food, but also words from the native languages of Mexico as well. Mexico has reinforced the Spanish loans and has contributed vocabulary from the indigenous population. Of especial interest are those loans associated with the cattle industry and the Southwest U.S.A.

Borrowing in the English Language

Where two different languages have contact over a certain period of time they will surely influence each other. Words might be taken over from one language and are adopted to the other. This process is called borrowing. Throughout its long history English had contact with many different languages such as Old Norse, French, and Latin, but also with the colonial languages.

The reasons for a language such as English to borrow words from other languages are manifold. Katamba remarks in this context that there is no purely linguistic reason for borrowing. According to him no limit exists to the number of words that can be generated in any language (Katamba, 1994; 195). But still, whenever the need for a new term arises, due to the contact between people from different cultures, the formation of a neologism, composed of elements of the own language, is only rarely done. One reason for borrowing a suitable word from another language

is the need to find a term for an unfamiliar thing, animal, or cultural device. Then borrowing seems to be the easiest solution to this problem.

Another reason for just borrowing a term might also be the question of identity. This is especially the case with bilingual speakers who, by using a foreign element in their speech, make a statement about their own self-perception (cf. Katamba, 1994; 195). In this context code-switching also plays an important role. If a word is habitually used in code-switching, it perhaps might pass over from one language to the other and then eventually even become fully integrated. In such a way for example the Yiddish word *schmaltz* ('cloying, banal sentimentality') has been introduced to (American) English (Katamba, 1994; 196).

Moreover, a further, often underestimated reason for borrowing is prestige. Katamba notes here that people have "always liked to show off" (Katamba, 1994; 194). Gibbon remarks in this discussion that the prestige question could even be one of the, if not the major reason for borrowing, because people would only take loan words from other languages if they believed that either the device/object for which the denotation is taken over or the language, from which the term comes, itself is prestigious (cf. class notes). Gramley holds that such terms mostly come from those languages he calls "languages of classical learning", i.e. Latin or Greek (Gramley, 2001; 24). Not only are whole words borrowed together with their meanings, but also new words, namely neologisms, are generated on the basis of morphemes borrowed from those languages. In English a product of such a process is *telephone* (from 2 Greek *tele-* meaning 'afar, far off' and *phone* meaning 'sound, voice') (cf. class notes). Gramley goes on mentioning the controversial discussion which has been lead about the words being taken over from those "classical languages" to English. On the one hand they serve to enrich the language, but on the other hand the words make certain stylistic registers more inaccessible to the masses. The meaning of some of these highly prestigious words is often not directly obvious to the average speaker of English, and thus, their meaning has to be learned. For example the adjective *visible*, meaning 'able to be seen' has no direct association to the verb *to see*, and therefore the link between these two has to be established by learning. Gramley therefore calls such words as *visible* "hard words" (Gramley, 2001; 25). Those loans, especially some from Greek and Latin, which are felt to be pretentious or/and obscure by the average speaker of English are found to be denoted as "ink-horn terms" (Gramley, 2001; 25).

Amongst the above mentioned reasons for borrowing from foreign languages, the most obvious and maybe also the most profound one is the introduction of new concepts for which there are no suitable words in the task language. Concerning this, Katamba writes that that at various periods in world history different civilisations have been pre-eminent in one field or another (like for example sciences, trade,

military, and medicine). According to him, the normal course of development was then that the language of this civilisation became the lingua franca for that specific field during the period of their pre-eminence (Katamba, 1994; 195). This is also reflected by the concentration of borrowings in certain semantic fields from that language to others². In the Middle Ages the Arabic world was advanced in many sciences and thus, a lot of words have been passed on during this time to other languages and also to English. Some of the best known examples are alchemy, alcohol, and algebra³. Many of those Arabic terms have not been borrowed directly into English, but were gradually passed on to English from other languages. Katamba mentions the typical way that many scientific Arabic words took. English often acquired them from French, which took them over from Spanish and Spanish finally had borrowed them directly from Arabic (Katamba, 1994; 196).

What gets obvious here is a very basic distinction that can be made between borrowings. Direct borrowing is when a language takes over a term directly from another language. The English word omelette is an example for direct borrowing because it has been taken over from French (French: omelette) directly, without any major phonological or orthographical changes (Katamba, 1994; 191). In contrast to that, indirect borrowing takes place when a certain word is passed on from the source language to another (as a direct borrowing), and then from that 1 A more complete word history can be found under: <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/telephone> 2 For examples see my table on Effects of other Languages on English' 3 Again for nearer information see Effects of other Languages on English' 3 language is handed over to another and from this one maybe even to another. This process may go hand in hand with the development that the word, each time it is passed on from one language to another, is adjusted phonologically/orthographically to make it fit to the phonological/orthographical system of the recipient language (cf. Katamba, 1994; 192). The Turkish word kahveh has been passed on to Arabic as kahva, from there the Dutch borrowed it as koffie and finally it was taken over by the English in the form coffee (cf. Katamba, 1994; 191). In this context, Katamba reminds us that there is danger of misunderstandings or alternations in the meaning, the more indirect a term is borrowed. In English there exists the term howitzer ('light gun'). It entered the language from Dutch and they had borrowed it from the Czech original houfnice which means 'catapult' (Katamba, 1994; 192).

To complicate matters even further, there is another distinction between the kinds of borrowings, i.e. the distinction between loanwords and loanshifts. Most of the examples discussed above are loanwords. That means, they have been imported/ adopted from another language,

either directly or indirectly, and might have undergone phonological/orthographical changes.

Loanshifts (= loan translations/ calques) on the other side are formed in a quite different way. Here the borrowing is done by translating the vocabulary item or rather its meaning into the receiving language. Such a loanshift is the German word *Übermensch* which has been translated into English as *Superman*. Moreover, the term *loanword* itself is a loan translation from the German *Lehnwort* (Katamba, 1994; 194).

Generally, it has to be remarked, as Ball does, that the borrowing of a word into another language is always a gradual process which takes quite some time (quoted in Hussey, 1995; 34). This gradual might even lead to the result that foreign words which are borrowed become 'nativised', in the case of English then 'anglicised'. Thus, they then become indistinguishable from indigenous English terms (cf. Katamba, 1994; 199) or as Jespersen has put it so nicely, with a quotation full of Norse loan words which a native speaker of English would not detect as foreign elements: "An Englishman cannot thrive or die or be ill without Scandinavian words; they are to the language what bread and eggs are to the daily fare" [*italics my emphasis*] (quoted in Geipel, 1971; 69).

Every speech community learns from its neighbours, objects both natural and manufactured, pass from one community to the other and so do patterns of action such as technical procedures, warlike practice, religious rites or fashions of individual conduct. This spread of things and habits is studied by ethnologists, who call it cultural diffusion. The child who is learning to speak may get most of his habits from some person say, his mother, but he will also hear other speakers and take some of his habits from them. Even the basic vocabulary and the grammatical features which he acquires at this time do not reproduce exactly the habits of anyone older person. Throughout his life, the speaker continues to adopt features from his fellows, and these adoptions, though less fundamental, are very copious and come from all manner of sources. Some of them are incidents in large scale levellings that affect the whole community. The adoption of features which differs from those of the main tradition, is linguistic borrowing. For instance, when the speaker uses an [a] for the same old phoneme in the word 'father' and in more elegant variant of the word 'rather' the historian infers that somewhere along the line of transmission these forms must have come in from speakers of a different habit.

Within the sphere of borrowing, we distinguish between the dialect borrowing where the borrowed features come from within the same speech area and cultural borrowing, where the borrowed features

come from a different language. This distinction cannot always be carried out, since there is no absolute distinction to be made between dialect boundaries and language boundaries.

If the original introducer or a later user has good command of the foreign language, he may speak the foreign form in foreign phonetics, even in its native context. The phonetic substitution vary in degree for different speakers and on different occasions, speakers who have not learned to, produce French phonemes are certain to make it. The historian will class it as a type of adaptation. In phonetic substitution the speakers replace the foreign sounds by the phonemes of their language. In so far as the phonetic systems are parallel, this involves only the ignoring of minor differences. When the phonetic systems are less alike, substitution may seem surprising to members of the lending community. In the case of ancient speech, phonetic substitution may inform us as to the acoustic relation' between the phonemes of two languages. If the borrowing people is relatively familiar with the lending language or if the borrowed words are fairly numerous, then foreign sounds which are acoustically variant from any native phoneme may be preserved in a more or less accurate rendering that violates the native phonetic system.

The adoption of foreign sounds may become quite fixed. The phonetic system has been permanently altered by borrowing. Where phonetic substitution has occurred, increased familiarity with the foreign language may lead to a newer, more correct version of a foreign form. A similar adjustment may take place, at a longer interval of time, if the borrowing language has developed a new phoneme that does better justice to the foreign forms. The influence of literate persons works also against a faithful rendering. In the first place, the literate person who knows nothing of the foreign language but has seen the written notation of the foreign form, interprets the latter in terms of native orthography. This relation is further complicated by literate persons who know something of the foreign pronunciation and orthography. The borrowed words, aside from foreign sounds, often violate the phonetic pattern. In some languages a descriptive analysis will recognize, further, a layer of semi foreign forms which have been adapted up to a conventional point.

When the adaptation is completed as in 'chair', anciently borrowed from old French, the foreign origin of the form has disappeared and neither the speaker nor consequently a relevant description can distinguish it from native forms. The historian, however, who is concerned with origins will class it as a loan form. Thus 'chair' in the present state of the language, is an ordinary English word but the historian, taking the past into view, classes it as loan word. The borrowed form is subject to the phonetic changes that occur after its adoption. This factor is distinct from phonetic substitution and other adaptive changes. Thus, we must suppose that an old French form like 'vision'

was taken into medieval English with some slight amount of no longer traceable phonetic substitution and that it gave rise to a successful adaptive variant, with stress on the first syllable. Further changes which led to the modern English are merely the phonetic changes which have occurred in English since the time when this word was borrowed. These two factors, however, can always be distinguished. After a number of borrowings, there arose a fairly regular relation of adapted English forms to French original. A new borrowing from French could be adapted on the model of the older loans. The phonetic development of borrowed forms often shows us the phonetic form at the time of borrowing and accordingly the approximate date of various sound changes. The Slavic borrowings, accordingly, in spite of its actual deviation, confirms on reconstruction of the old Germanic form and in addition to this enables us to date the pre-Slavic changes after the time of early borrowing from Germanic, which history tell us, occurred from round 250 to round 450 A.D. Moreover, the second and third syllables of the Slavic form show the same adaptation as the old English.

The south-German change of [t] to affricate and sibilant types shows us, in fact, a remarkable instance of dating by means of borrowed forms. A primitive Germanic type is represented by the Gothic word which translates the Greek words. History tells us that in the first half of the sixth century, Theodric the Great, the Gothic emperor of Italy, extended his rule to Danube. We conclude that the German word is a borrowing from Gothic and accordingly that at the time of borrowing, primitive Germanic [t] in Bavarian German had already changed towards a sibilant.

Grammatically, the borrowed form is subjected to the system of the borrowing language, both as to syntax and as to the indispensable inflections and the fully current, 'living' constructions of composition and word formation. Less often, simultaneous borrowing of several foreign forms saves this adaptation. On the other hand, native grammatical constructions, which occur at the time of borrowing only, in a few traditional forms will scarcely be extended to cover the foreign word. After complete adaptation the loan-word is subject to the same analogies as any similar native word. When many forms are borrowed from one language, the foreign forms may exhibit their own grammatical relations. Thus, the Latin-French semi learned vocabulary of English has its own morphological system. The analogies of this system may lead to new-formation. When an affix occurs in enough foreign words, it may be extended to new formations with native material. If why loans have been made from some one language, the foreign structure may even attract native words in the way of adaptation. In some German dialects, including the standard language, we find native words assimilated to Latin-French accentuation.

The speakers who introduce foreign things may call them by the native name of some related object. In adopting Christianity, the Germanic peoples kept some of the heathen religious terms. 'God, heaven, hell' were transferred to the new religion. Needless to say, the levelling to which these terms owe their uniform selection in various Germanic languages is only another instance of borrowing. If there is no closely equivalent native term, one may yet describe the foreign object in native words. If the foreign term itself is descriptive, the borrower may reproduce the description, this occurs specially in the abstract domain. Many abstract technical terms are merely translations of Latin and Greek descriptive terms. The process, called loan translations, involves a semantic change. The native terms or the components which are united to create native terms evidently undergo an extension of meaning. The more literate and elevated style in all the languages of Europe is full of semantic extensions of this sort, chiefly in ancient Greek models with Latin and often also French or German as intermediaries. The Latin usage of a similar compound may be a loan-translation.

A great deal of grammatical terminology has gone through this process. With a very peculiar extension, the ancient Greek grammarians used the term 'a fall' at first for 'in flecational form' and then especially for 'case form'.

The transferences are sometimes so clumsily made that we may say they involve a misunderstanding of the initiated form. The ancient Greek grammarians called the case of the verbal goal by the term which means 'the case pertaining to what is effected' employing an adjective derived from effected with an ultimately underlying noun 'cause'. This term was chosen evidently, on account of constructions like 'he built a house' where 'house' in Indo-European syntax has the position of a verbal goal.

Cultural loans show us what one nation has taught another. The recent borrowings of English from French are largely in the sphere of women's clothes, cosmetics and luxuries. Cultural loans of this sort may spread over a vast territory from language to language, along with articles of commerce. The factor of widespread cultural borrowing which interferes with our reconstruction of the primitive Indo-European vocabulary in cases like that of the word hemp. The early contact of the Germanic speaking peoples with the Romans appears in a layer of cultural loan-words that antedates the emigration of the English. On the other hand, the Roman soldiers and merchants learned no less from the Germanic peoples. This is attested not only by Roman writers, occasional use of Germanic words but far more cogently, by the presence of very old Germanic loan words in the Romance languages.

Cultural borrowing speech forms is ordinarily mutual. It is one-sided only to the extent that one nation has more to give than the other. In the missionary period from the seventh century onwards old English borrowed Latin terms relating to Christianity, such as Church, minister angel, devil apostle, bishop, priest and imitated Latin semantics in the way of loan translations, but old English gave nothing at this time in return, The Scandinavian languages contain a range of commercial and nautical terms from low German. In spite of cases like these, we can usually distinguish between ordinary cultural borrowing and the intimate borrowing which occurs when two languages are spoken in what is topographically and politically, a single community. This situation arises for the most part by conquest, less often in the way of peaceful migration.

Intimate borrowing is one-sided: we distinguish between the upper or dominant language, spoken by the conquering or otherwise more privileged group and the lower language spoken by the subject people or, as in the United States by humble immigrants. The borrowing goes predominantly from the upper language to the lower, and it very often extends to speech forms that are not connected with cultural novelties.

Some of the locations have become conventionally established in American immigrant German. The phonetic grammatical and lexical phases of these borrowings deserve far more study than they have received. The assignment of genders to English words in German or Scandinavian has proved a fruitful topic of observation. The practical background of this process is evident. The upper language is spoken by the dominant and privileged groups, many kinds of pressures drive the speaker of the lower language to use the upper language. Ridicule and serious disadvantages punish his imperfections. In speaking the lower language to his fellows, he may go so far as to take pride in garnishing it with borrowings from the dominant speech. In most instances of intimate contact, the lower language is indigenous and the upper language is introduced by a body of conquerors. The latter are often in a minority; the borrowing rarely goes on at such headlong speed as in our American instance. Its speed seems to depend upon a number of factors. If the speakers of the lower language stay in touch with speech-fellows in an unconquered region, their language will change less rapidly. The fewer the invaders, the slower the pace of borrowing. Another retarding factor is cultural superiority, real or conventionally asserted of the dominated people. Even among our immigrants educated families may keep their language for generations with little admixture of English.

The same factors apparently, but with some difference of weight, may finally lead to the diverse of one or the other language. Numbers count for more here than in the matter of borrowing. Among immigrants

in America, extinction, like borrowing, goes on at great speed. If the immigrant is linguistically isolated, if his cultural level is low and above all if he marries a person of different speech, he may cease entirely to use his native language and even lose the power of speaking it intelligibly. English becomes his only language though he may speak it very imperfectly, it becomes the native language of his children. They may speak it at first with foreign features, but outside contacts soon bring about a complete or nearly complete correction. In other cases the immigrant continues to speak his native language in the home, it is the native language of his children, but at school age or even earlier, they cease using it, and English becomes their only adult language. Even if their English keeps some foreign colouring, they have little or no command of the parental language. In the situation of conquest the process of extinction may be long delayed.

The lower language may survive and the upper language die out. If the conquerors are not numerous, or especially if they do not bring their own women, this outcome is likely. In less extreme cases the conquerors continue, for generations to speak their own language, but find it more and more necessary to use also that of the conquered. The conflict of languages may take many different turns. The whole territory may be speaking the upper language. It is the lower language which borrows predominantly from the upper. If the upper language survives it remains as it was except for a few cultural loans, such as it might take from any neighbour. The Romance languages contain only a few cultural loan words from the languages that were spoken in their territory before the Roman conquest. English has only a few cultural loan-words from the Celtic languages of Britain.

On the other hand, if the lower language survives, it bears the marks of the struggle in the shape of copious borrowings. English with its loan-words from Norman-French and its enormous layer of semi-learned vocabulary. The conflict between the two languages did not affect the phonetic or grammatical structure of English, except in the sense that a few phonemic features, and many features of the morphological system of French were kept in the borrowed forms. The lexical effect was tremendous.

The presence of loan words in a wider semantic sphere than that of cultural novelties enables us to recognize a surviving lower language and this recognition throws light not only upon historical situations but also, thanks to the evidence of the loan words themselves, upon the linguistic features of an ancient time. Much of our information about older stages of Germanic speech comes from loan-words in languages that once were under the domination of Germanic speaking tribes. These loan-words occur not only in such semantic spheres as political institutions, weapons, tools and garments, but also in such as animals, plants, parts of the body, minerals, abstract relations, and adjective

qualities. Since sound changes which have occurred in Finnish differ from those which have occurred in the Germanic languages these loan words supplement the results of the comparative method, especially as the oldest of these borrowings must have been made round the beginning of the Christian era, centuries before our earliest written records of Germanic speech. In all the Slavic languages we find a set of Germanic loan-words that must have been taken accordingly into pre-Slavic. The Great Migrations, Germanic tribes conquered various parts of the Roman Empire. At this time Latin already contained a number of old cultural loan-words from Germanic; the new loans of the Migration Period can be distinguished in part, either by their geographic distribution or by formal characteristics that point to the dialect of the conquerors.

The most extensive borrowing in Romance from Germanic appear in French. The French borrowings beginning with the name of the country France. pervade the vocabulary. Repeated domination may swamp a language with loan-words. The European Gipsies speak an Indo-Aryan language, it seems from their language that this language figured always as a lower language and taker of loan-words. The model of the upper language may affect even the grammatical forms of the lower. The anglicisms say, in the American German of immigrants find many a parallel in the languages of dominated people, thus steam is said to have largely the syntax of the neighbouring German though the morphemes are Latin. In English we have not only Latin, French affixes, as in 'eatables', 'murderous', but also a few foreign features of phonetic pattern. Non-destructive tracts of phonemes do not seem to be borrowed, when a change of political or cultural conditions, the speakers of the lower language may make an effort to cease and even to wide the borrowing. The Germans have waged a long and largely successive campaign against Latin, French loan-words and the Slavic nations against German.

Besides the normal conflict with the upper language, if it survives, remaining intact and the lower language, if it survives bearing off a mass of loan-words and loan-translations or even syntactic habits, we find a number of cases where something else must have occurred, Theoretically there would seem to be many possibilities of our accentric outcome. Aside from the mystic version of the subtraction theory it seems possible that a large population, having imperfectly acquired an upper language might perpetuate its version and even crowd out the more original type spoken by the upper class. On the other hand, we do not know the limit to which a lower language may be altered and yet survive. Finally it is conceivable that a conflict might end in the survival of a mixture so evenly balanced that the historian could not decide which phase to regard as the main stock of habit and which as the borrowed admixture.

The Scandinavian elements in English however, do not conform to the type which an upper language leaves behind. They are restricted to the intimate part of the vocabulary: egg, sky, oar, skin, gate, bull, bent, skirt, fellow, husband. The adverb and conjunction though is Scandinavian and so are the pronoun forms 'they, their, them' the native form. Scandinavian place names abound in northern England. We do not know what circumstances led to this peculiar result. The languages at the time of contact were in all likelihood mutually intelligible. Perhaps their relation as to number of speakers and as to dominance differed in different localities and shifted variously in the course of time.

Some features of the normal type of the Romance languages have been explained as reflections of the languages that were superseded by Latin. It would have to be shown that the features in question actually date from the time when speakers of the earlier languages, having imperfectly acquired Latin, transmitted it in this shape to their children. Actually, the peculiar traits of the Romance languages appear at so late a date that this explanation seems improbable unless we resort to the mystical version of the substructure theory.

Indo-Aryan speech must have been brought into India by a relatively small group of invaders and imposed in a long progression of dominance, by a ruling caste, Some, at least, of the languages which were superseded must have been akin to the present day non-Aryan linguistic stocks of India. The principal one of these stocks, use a domal senses of stops. The Indo-Aryan languages exhibit also an ancient confusion of [l] and [r] which has been explained as due to substrata. They possessed only one or neither of these sounds. The noun-declension of Later Indo-Aryan shows a reformation by which the same case endings are added to distinct stems for the singular and plural, this replaced the characteristics Indo-European habit of different sets of case endings, as the sub-distinction between singular and plural, added to one and the same stem. In other parts of the world too, we find phonetic or grammatical features prevailing in unrelated languages. This is the case with some phonetic and morphologic 'peculiarities appear in similar extensions.

Where we observe the historical process, we occasionally find phonetic and grammatical habits passing from language to language without actual dominance. At the end of the Middle Ages, large parts of the English, Dutch, and German areas included the socially favoured dialects. There remains a type of aberrant borrowing in which we have at least the assurance that an upper language has been modified, though the details of the process are no less obscure.

The English (now largely Americans) gypsies have lost their language and speak a phonetically and grammatically normal variety of sub-standard English among themselves. However they use anywhere

from a few dozen to several hundred words of the old Gipsy language. These words are spoken with English phonemes and English inflection and syntax. They are terms for the very commonest things and include grammatical words, such as pro nouns. They are used interchangeably with the English equivalents older recordings show great numbers of these words, apparently a long speech could be made almost entirely in Gipsy words with English phonetics and Grammar.

Speakers of a lower language may make so little progress in learning the dominant speed), that the masters in communicating with them resort to 'baby talk'. During the colonization of the last few centuries, Europeans have repeatedly given jargonized versions of their language to slaves and tributary peoples.

Very often whole groups of speakers agree in adopting or favouring or disfavouring a speech-form. Within age-group, an occupational group, or a neighbourhood group, a term of speech will pass from person to person. The borrowing of speech habits within a community is largely one-sided, the speaker adopts new forms and favouritisms from some people more than from others. In any group some persons receive more invitation than others, they are the leaders in power and prestige. Vaguely defined as they are, the different groups make similarly one-sided adoptions. Every person belongs to more than one minor speech-group. A group is influenced by the persons who along some other -line of division, belong to a dominant class. Among his occupational companions, for example, a speaker will imitate those whom he believes to have the highest social standing. To take the extreme case, when a speaker comes in contact with persons who enjoy much greater prestige he eagerly imitates not only their general conduct, but also their speech. Here the direction of levelling is most plainly apparent. The humble person is not imitated, the lord or leader is a model to most of those who hear him. In conversation with him, the common man avoids giving offence or cause for ridicule; he suppresses such of his habits as might seem peculiar and tries to ingratiate himself by talking as he hears. Having conversed with the great, he himself may become a model in his own group for those who have not had that privilege.

The adjustments are largely minute and consist in the favouring of speech form more often than in the adoption of wholly new ones. A great deal of adjustment probably concerns non-distinctive variants of sounds. In our community with its tradition about the "correctness" of speech-forms, the speaker asks "which form is better"? instead of asking "with which persons shall I agree in speech?" In the main however, the process does not rise to the level of discussion. Every speaker and on a larger scale, every local of social group acts as imitator and as a model

as an agent in the levelling process. No person and no group acts always in one or the other capacity, but the privileged castes and the central and dominating communities act more often as models and the humblest classes and most remote localities more often as imitators.

The important historical process in this levelling is the growth of central speech forms that spread over wider and wider areas. These favoured speech forms will be such as are current in all or most of the local groups; if no one form is predominant the choice will fall usually upon the form that is used in the central town. When the villager goes home, he continues to use one or another of these new locutions and his neighbour will imitate it, both because they know source and because the speaker who has visited the central town has gained in prestige at home. At second, third and later hand, these locutions may pass to still more remote persons and places. The central town becomes a speech centre whose forms of speech when there is not too much weight against them, become the better forms for a whole area of the surrounding country.

As commerce and social organisation improve this process repeats itself on a larger and larger scale. Each centre is imitated over a certain area. A new concentration of political power elevates some of these centres to a higher rank; the lesser centres themselves now imitate the main centre, and continue to spread both its forms and then their own over their petty spheres. This development took place in the Middle Ages in Europe. At the end of the medieval period, countries like England, France and Germany contained a number of provincial speech centres though even by that time in England and in France the capital city was taking the rank of a supreme speech centre for the whole area.

A similarity of speech in a district of any size may date from the time when the speech community first spread over this district. In very many instances, however, we know that a uniformity does not date from the time of settlement. Some students see in this a reason for giving up our classifications and insist that a phonetic change spreads in this irregular fashion. This statement is inconsistent with the original application of the term "phonetic change" to phonemic parallelism in cognate speech forms. Accordingly, we should have to devise a new classification or else to find some way of reconciling the two kinds of phenomena that are included in the new use of the term "phonetic change" and the spread by borrowing of resultant variants, is the only formula that has so far been devised to fit the facts.

Even when a uniform could represent the type that was imported in the original settlement, we may find upon closer investigation that this feature has merely overlaid an older diversity. This may be disclosed by isolated relic forms or by the characteristic phenomenon of hyper-forms. An isogloss tells us only that there has occurred somewhere

and at some time a sound Change, an analogic-semantic change or a cultural loan, but the isogloss does not tell us where or when this change occurred. The form which resulted from the change was spread abroad and perhaps pushed back. The present area of a form may even fail to include the point at which this form originated. It is a very native error to mistake isoglosses for the limits of simple linguistic changes. The results of dialect geography tell us of linguistic borrowing.

If the geographic domain of a linguistic form is due to borrowing we face the problem of determining who made the original change. A cultural loan or an analogic semantic innovation may be due to a single speaker more often, doubtless it is made independently by more than one. Perhaps the same is true of the non-distinctive deviations which ultimately lead to a sound change, but this matter is more obscure, since the actual linguistically observable change is here the result of a cumulation of minute variants.

The linguist's classification of changes into the three great types of phonetic change, analogic semantic change, and borrowing is a classification of facts which results from minute and complicated processes. The processes themselves largely escape our observation; we have only the assurance that a simple statement of their results will bear some relation to the factors that created these results since every speaker acts as an intermediary between the groups to which he belongs. Differences of speech within a dialect area are due merely to a lack of mediatory speakers. The influence of a speech centre will cause a speech form to spread in any direction until, at some line of weakness in the density of communication, it ceases to find adopters. Different speech forms with different semantic values, different formal qualifications and different rival forms to conquer will spread at different speeds and over different distances. The advance of the new form may be stopped. Moreover, by the advance of a rival form from a neighbouring speech-centre or perhaps merely by the fact that a neighbouring speech centre uses an unchanged form.

Increases in area and intensity of unification are due to a number of factors which we sum up by saying that the economic and political units grow larger and that the means of communication improve. We know little about the details of this process of centralisation because our evidence consists almost entirely of written documents and in this matter especially, misleading to begin with, they are in Europe mostly couched in Latin and not in the language of the country. In the non-Latin records of the English and Dutch German areas, we find at the outset that is from the eighth century on provincial dialects modern standard languages which prevail within the bounds of an entire nation, supersede the provincial types. These standard languages become more and more uniform as time goes on. In most instances they have grown out of the provincial type that prevailed in the upper class of the urban centre that

became the capital of the unified nation. Modern standard English is based on the London type, the modern standard French on that of Paris. This origin is reflected in the fact that the documents of standard German until well into the eighteenth century are far less uniform and show many more provincial traits than those of English or French, the same can be said of the standard language as it is spoken today.

The modern state then possesses a standard language, which is used in all official discourse and in all written notations. As soon as a speech group attains or seeks political independence or even asserts its cultural peculiarity, it works at setting up a standard language. The details of the rise of the great standard languages such as standard English are not known because written sources do not give us a close enough picture. In its early stages, as a local dialect and later as a provincial type, the speech which later became a standard language, may have borrowed widely. Even after that before its supremacy has been decided, it is subject to infiltration of outside form.

The standard language influences the surrounding dialects at wider range and more pervasively as it gains in prestige. It affects especially provincial centres and through them their satellite dialects. This action is relatively slow. We have seen that a feature of the standard language may reach outlying dialects long after it has been superseded at home. In the immediate surroundings of the capital the standard language acts very strongly; the neighbouring dialects may be so permeated with standard forms as to lose all their individuality. The standard language takes speakers from the provincial and local dialects. The humblest people make a pretence at acquiring it, but with the spread of prosperity and education, it becomes familiar to a larger and larger stratum. Both in the gradual assimilation of lesser dialects and in the conversion of individuals and families to standard speech, the result is usually imperfect and is to be described as sub-standard or in the favourable case, as provincially coloured standard. The evaluation of these types varies in different countries, in England they are counted inferior and their speakers are driven toward a rigid standardization, but in the United States or in Germany, where the standard language belongs to no one local group, the standard is less rigid and a vaguely defined range of varieties enjoys equal prestige.

The study of the written records tells us about the centralization of speech and the rise of standard languages. The spellings of medieval manuscripts seem very diverse to the modern student. At the end of the Middle Ages as the use of writing increases, the provincial types of orthography become more and more fixed. In syntax and vocabulary the message of the written record is unmistakable, and it exerts a tremendous effect upon the standard language.

It is only archaic writings that lead to change in actual speech. If there is any rivalry between speech forms, the chances are weighted in favour of the form that is represented by the written convention, with the spread of literacy and the great influx of dialect speakers and sub-standard speakers into the ranks of standard speakers, the influence of the written form has grown. The school teacher, coming usually from humble class and unfamiliar with the actual upper class style, is forced to the pretence of knowing it, and exerts authority over a rising generation of new standard speakers. A great deal of spelling-pronunciation has become prevalent in English and in

French. The influence of written notation works through the standard language but features that are thus introduced may in time seep down into other levels of speech.

Among the French forms that were borrowed by English during the period after the Norman Conquest, there were many of these learned French borrowings from the Latin of books. The literate Englishmen, familiar with both French and Latin, got into the habit of using Latin words in the form they had as French most servants. In later time, the English writer continued to use Latin words. In making these loans, we alter the Latin graph and pronounce it in accordance with a fairly well-fixed set of habits. These habits are composed of:

- (1) *The adaptations and phonetic renderings that were conventional in the French use of book Latin words round the year 1200.*
- (2) *Adaptations that have become conventional in the English usage of Latin French forms, and*
- (3) *Phonetic renderings due to English sound change that have occurred since the Norman time.*

Both the Romance languages and English can borrow not only the actual Latin words but even the medieval scribal coinages. The Romans borrowed the words from Greek, we can do the same altering the Greek word in accordance with the Roman's habit of Latinization.

Unit-II

Language Varieties (Register, Style and Dialect)

Undoubtedly, language is a human phenomenon. It is not easy, but it is as significant as anything in life and society. Language is one of the best means of communication.

So far as the varieties of English are concerned, they depend on places and societies in which they are spoken. For example, in English, American English, British English, Canadian English may be called the

varieties of English. Same is the case with other regional languages. The same language difference of one state differs from the language of other states.

The abstract system of language is called language, and what are speak called parole. It varies from person to person. Parole and langue combinedly form language.

Language has been defined in many ways by many scholars. E. Sapir opines that language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols.

Henry Sweet says that language is the expression of ideas by means of speech sounds combined into words.

N. Chomsky, maintains, *"When we study human language, we are approaching what some might call 'human essence', the distinctive qualities of mind that are so far as we know, unique to man."*

Thus, it is clear that language is a means of communication. It is arbitrary, symbolic, systematic, vocal, extendable and modifiable.

Registers

Registers refer to 'stylistic functional varieties of a dialect or language'. Certain varieties of language are associated neither with groups nor individuals. They are occasion-oriented. Registers in a way are associated with discourses. The focus is given on the subject matter and its usage and the field of discourse. It may be related to various activities such as sports, films, law, etc. Registers are said to be referring to the manner of discourse.

It is maintained that a user of language changes his style, grammar and words according to the, situation, time and occasion. In other words, the whole linguistic dealing is subject to the context.

When we talk of 'Register Switching', we mean to refer to their situational roles of a speaker. Let us justify the situation by an example. A teacher while teaching in the class uses a different kind of language and vocabulary i.e. one kind of register, and when he talks to his colleagues and school friend his registers are different. When he comes home and speaks to his wife he uses another register, and again another one while talking to his children and neighbours. So in the case with a doctor. He/she has to deal with different people in different situation, and he uses different registers. The example of an advocate is also the same. He/she uses a different register while pleading the case in the court of law. It is entirely different form when he uses a register while speaking to his own fellow friends sitting in the bar room.

In this regards, the observation of Sandra Harris-Ken Morgan is noteworthy, *"The boundaries between them are far from sharp and clear. There is an enevitable overlap and interrelatedness. Dialect and idiolect may become registers of an individual."*

There is certainly a great affinity between situation and the use of language in respect of registers. This is the reason why the language of one profession and trade differs from that of the other. The social context also plays an important role. There may exist many registers according to the social contexts.

Even different section and columns of newspapers observe different registers. The language and vocabulary of the Editorial, general news column, sports column and trade and business columns are different from one another. Different registers are needed there to give emphasis as well as clarity of information, and make the concept clear to the readers. In other words, it can be said that the diction, structure and semantic features of any article or subject are determined according to its need and significance alongwith pragmatic vision in life and the world around.

The modification of speech is a significance aspect of register. In other words, one has to change one's language, pitch of voice and other aspects of expression while talking to anyone according to the situation, post, rank and position, etc. Thus, situational factors play a significant role while speaking to someone and somewhere. A disciplined speaker can easily change his register accordingly. In it, an individual's experience, social pattern and other qualities are remarkable, when he changes the registers.

The style, syntax and vocabulary affect the expression. The language of a legal document in comparison to an ordinary one is certainly complex in style. Its diction is also different. We can find a variety of expressions such as 'wherein', 'aforesaid', 'here in after', and 'hereunder', etc. It can be called a specialised register.

Apart from above, we can see different registers being used in journalism, advertisement commerce and industry. Everything depends on the need and utility of the subject and the register used for conveying the requisite messages etc. We can ever refer to the medical science and the advertisement reforming to many medicines in which special registers are used to attract the readers and buyers of medicines. Thus, it can be said that the use of registers are of paramount importance. Regarding advertisement, G. L. Brooks opines, "In advertisements inflated language is used to make commonplace products seem glamorous."

The Style

A style is a way of doing a piece of work. It may refer to live life, arrange a thing, write something or even manage any programme or activity.

In the same way, there are styles of speech or writing something in any language. So far as linguistic style is concerned, it varies from language to languages and person to person. The significance of place, cannot be overlooked while referring to the style of a language spoken by people. The concept of style can be studied according to subjectwise "With reference to language, the concept of style is the adaptation of language for particular purposes; occasions and context."

It is remarkable to understand that utterance in any languages must have harmony with the purpose, occasion and context about which the speaker speaks.

According to Roman Jakobson, "The functions of language are: Informative, Emotive, Poetic, Directive, Metalingual and Phatic."

Jakobson's model to verbal communication has following summary with reference to his six functions of language :

1. *Context (Informative)*
2. *Addresser (Emotive)*
3. *Texts or Utterance (Poetic)*
4. *Language/Code (Metalingual)*
5. *Contact (Phatic).*

There are different ways of addressing people on different occasion i.e. formal or informal. The addresser and the addressee have their own significance in both a formal and informal note of address.

In formal addresses, generally, third person is used. But, sometimes second person is also used. The use of first person is considered quite different.

For Examples :

- (i) *Mr. Ravi is requested to complete the assigned task within given time to avoid any inconvenience to the subscriber.*
- (ii) *You are requested kindly to look into the matter, and help the suffering humanity.*
- (iii) *I request you to attend the meeting and raise your issues before the director.*

In common discussion of daily use, the speaker and the one to whom the speaker speaks, should be identified. The dialogues spoken

by speakers should have identificatory features. The following example will make the students understand the identificatory features:

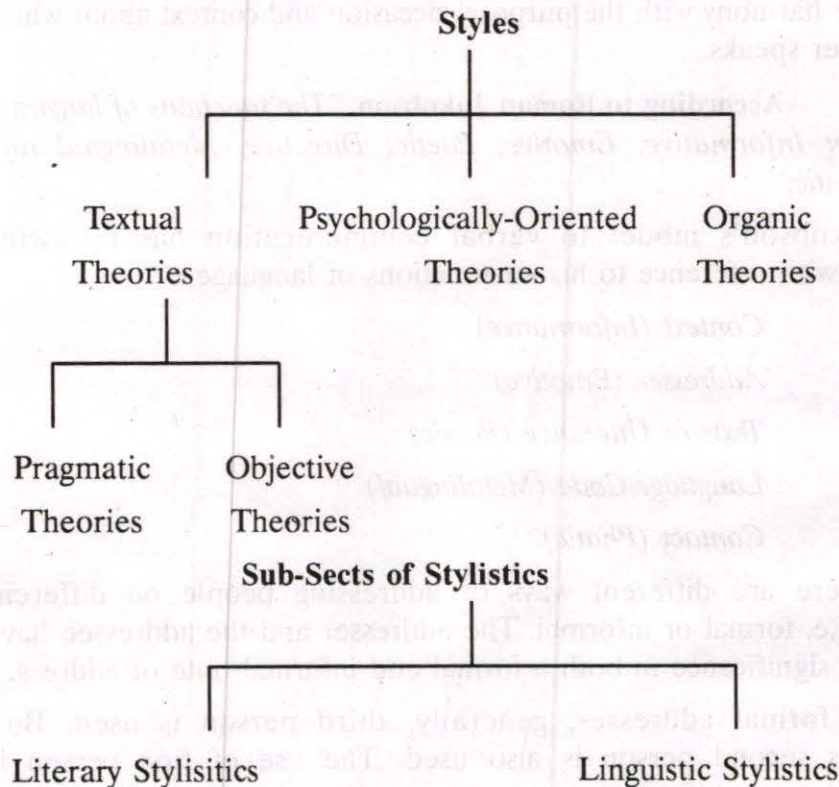
"Any student, other than that of this college, who is found in the premises without permission, shall be punished."

Or

Application received after 7th march, 2009 shall not be entertained.

In both the examples stated above, it clearly shows that these are notices, and are in passive structure.

Thus, we can say that stylistics is the study of style. There are three types of style.



To sum up, it can be said that there is no unified stylistic model that can cover up all dimensions of style. It is true that stylistics functions as a discipline to literary outpourings as well as interpretations. Stylistics help a lot in various justificatory and criticism of literary pieces.

The Dialect

Introduction (Idiolect) : 'Descriptive Linguistics' deals with the design of the language of some community, ignoring certain kind of inter-group differences. These differences are generally found in any language spoken by people. 'Synchronic Linguistics' includes descriptive

linguistics alongwith some other aspects of language, particularly synchronic dialectology.

In fact, generally speaking, the totality of speech habits of a person at one time constitutes an idiolect. There are, of course, certain exceptions too.

It is clear that no two persons are identical in their speeches. There ought to be certain differences of grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, etc. Hence, the unique linguistic system that an individual possesses is known as idiolect.

Dialect : David Crystal opines that, "Dialects can be seen as an abstraction, deriving from an analysis of a number of idiolects; and languages; in turk, are an abstraction deriving from a number of dialects."

It is maintained that on getting something common from the idiolects of a group of individuals, a dialect is formed. It means, in other words, a social variety within a single language is a dialect. Of course, it certainly differs in phonology, grammar and lexis from the parent language. A standard language is supposed to have different dialect. People belonging to any background-urban or rural, generally, speak dialect. There is nothing like standard or non-standard dialect, so far as linguists are concerned. It is the class-conscious society which has the consideration of standard or sub-standard or, non-standard dialect or language. They have their own considerations of prestiges in the perspective of language.

It is seem that the people speaking different dialects of the same language are able to understand each other.

The concept of nearness generates familiarity between speakers, and distance breads alienation. It is also often seen that the dialects of a language often share a common written language; It is also seem that certain political, social and other aspect also affect the dialect spoken by people, especially at a time and at a place.

There are many aspects which constitute dialects. The only difference or similarity in account does not affect dialects. Of course grammatical and lexical difference also affect dialects.

To sum up, it can be said that dialects are spoken by all classes of society irrespective of time, place and situation.

If someone approached me and said, "Please teach me English". I would ask the person "Which English do you want me to teach? There is the English of Science and Technology, the English of the classical literature, and the English used in official documents, and the spoken

English of whose there are many varieties. Now, which English do you want to learn."

The word, 'English' is an abstraction. It refers to a wide range of different forms of communication. However, these forms have enough in common. So we can apply the generic term 'English' to all of them. This is similar to using the word 'animal' to refer to a whole lot of creatures despite their being tall or short, big or small, thin or fat. This is because we identify some features common to an of them. Thus, English is a language in the sense that it is not Hindi or Urdu or Sanskrit. If we want to understand a language, we must look a little more closely at the nature of the varieties within that language.

We divide the variability of a language in four parts:

1. *Idiolect*
2. *Dialect.*
3. *Isogloss*
4. *Standard Language or Register Language.*

1. Idiolect: The members of a speech community have extremely uniform attitude to their language, but their actual individual language behaviour is very variable. In fact, no two persons speak the same variety of a language. Each has his own idiosyncratic and indexical features. The speech of one person is different in some variable degree from every other speaker of his language. Thus, the language of each individual is unique and peculiar to him. This language of the individual is called his idiolect.

Idiolect is an individual's personal variety of the community language system and is thus identifiable pattern of speech characteristics of an individual. It denotes the speech of the individual in its totality. One's idiolect is one's total command or knowledge of one's language.

2. Dialect: A dialect is made up of idiolects of a group of speakers in a social, regional, or temporal sub-division of a speech community. Language is a socially learned behaviour and yet it is shaped creatively by individuals. It is a social, rather than a biological aspect of human life. It is an acquired rather than an innate skill. As a result, variations in language behaviour are but natural. Language behaviour can vary not only from one individual to the next, but also one sub-section of speech community to another. Thus, each language has a network of varieties within it. We have varieties of English, Hindi, Tamil, Bengali and so on.

Language may be said to vary along three different Parameters-Space, time and social class. People of different' social, economic, occupational or cultural groups in the same community show variations in speech. A regional, temporal and social variety within a single language is called a dialect. Thus, a dialect is a variety of language.

Sufficiently different to be considered a separate entity but not different enough to be classed as a separate language. A dialect differs in pronunciation, vocabulary and to some extent in grammar from other dialects of the same language.

A dictionary of linguistics by Pie and Gaynor defines dialect as a specific form of a given language, spoken in a certain locality or geographical area. It is widely different from the standard literacy form of that language, as to pronunciation, grammatical construction and idiomatic use of words, to be considered a distinct entity, yet not sufficiently distinct from other dialects of the language as to be regarded as a different language. Thus, language is a complex network of its dialects just as a dialect is a complex network of its idiolects.

3. **Isoglosses** : An isogloss is a line on a linguistic map that separates the areas in which the language differs with respect to a given feature. It is the line that marks the boundaries within which a given linguistic feature or phenomena can be observed. We may think of a number of isoglosses that roughly coincide as indicating a dialed boundary. There is no necessary relation between one isogloss and the other. They criss-cross, and diverge and often present a rather bewildering picture.

4. **Standard Language**: Language exists in form of its dialect. Any dialect is powerful enough to meet all the demands that are made on it. Thus, one dialect can hardly be more adequate than others. However, it so happens quite often that some one dialect of a language comes to enjoy a special prestige in the community as a whole. This dialect is then regarded as Standard Language. For example, R.P. of England is usually the most widely accepted variety of English. The reasons for its wide acceptance may vary from political to economic, commercial, social" historical and cultural. However, the significant point is that it is the most widely accepted variety of the language. Any deviation from the usages in this dialect is considered "incorrectness" or "sub-standardness".

It should be born in mind that other regional and social dialects of a language are no less organized than so-called Standard Language. So they should not be rated as sub-standard language, it is for consideration other than linguistics that standard language is regarded as "more correct", "more adequate" or "purer than less prestigious dialects".

Much modern linguistic research, particularly within the paradigm of generative grammar, has concerned, itself with trying to account for differences between languages of the world. This has worked on the assumption that if human linguistic ability is narrowly constrained

by human biology, then all languages must share certain fundamental properties.

In generativist theory, the collection of fundamental properties all languages share are referred to as universal grammar (UG). The specific characteristics of this universal grammar are a much debated topic. Typologists and non-generativist linguists usually refer simply to language universals, or universals of language.

Similarities between languages can have a number of different origins. In the simplest case, universal properties may be due to universal aspects of human experience. For example, all humans experience water, and all human languages have a word for water. Other similarities may be due to common descent : the Latin language spoken by the Ancient Romans developed into Spanish in Spain and Italian in Italy; similarities between Spanish and Italian are thus in many cases due to both being descended from Latin. In other cases, contact between languages - particularly where many speakers are bilingual can lead to much borrowing of structures, as well as words. Similarity may also, of course, be due to coincidence. English much and Spanish mucho are not descended from the same form or borrowed from one language to the other. Nor is the similarity due to innate linguistic knowledge.

Arguments in favour of language universals have also come from documented cases of sign languages (such as Al-Sayyid Bedouin Sign Language) developing in communities of congenitally deaf people, independently of spoken language. The properties of these sign languages conform generally to many of the properties of spoken languages. Other known and suspected sign language isolates include Kata Kolok, Nicaraguan Sign Language, and Providence Island Sign Language.

Sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of Sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language while the, latter's focus is on the language's effect on the society. Sociolinguistics overlaps to a considerable degree with pragmatics.

It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc., and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place (dialect), language usage varies among social classes, and it is these sociolects that sociolinguistics studies.

The social aspects of language were in the modern sense first studied by Indian and Japanese linguists in the 1930s, and also by Gauchat in Switzerland in the early 1900s, but none received much attention in the West until much later. The study of the social motivation of language change, on the other hand, has its foundation in the wave model of the late 19th century. The first attested use of the term Sociolinguistics was by Thomas Callan Hodson in the title of a 1939 paper. Sociolinguistics in the West first appeared in the 1960s and was pioneered by linguists such as William Labov in the US and Basil Bernstein in the UK.

Applications of Sociolinguistics

For example, a sociolinguist might determine through study of social attitudes that a particular vernacular would not be considered appropriate language use in a business or professional setting. Sociolinguists might also study the grammar, phonetics, vocabulary, and other aspects of this sociolect much as dialectologists' would study the same for a regional dialect.

The study of language variation is concerned with social constraints determining language in its contextual environment. Code-switching is the term given to the use of different varieties of language in different social situations.

William Labov is often regarded as the founder of the study of sociolinguistics. He is especially noted for introducing the quantitative study of language variation and change, making the sociology of language into a scientific discipline.

The Speech Community

A speech community is identified as a group of people who form a community, e.g., a village, a region, a nation; and who have at least one speech variety in common. In bilingual and multilingual communities people would usually have more than one speech variety in common (Richards, Platt, Weber: 266). As C.F. Hockett says, 'Each language defines a speech community: the whole set of people who communicate with each other, directly or indirectly, via the common language'.

However, there are difficulties in the way of precisely identifying a speech community. John L. Gumperz feels that 'verbal interaction is a social process in which utterances are selected in accordance with socially recognised norms and expectations. It follows that linguistic phenomena are analysable both within the context of language itself and within the broader context of social behaviour. In the formal analysis of language the object of attention is a particular body of linguistic data abstracted from the settings in which it occurs and studied primarily

from the point of view of its referential function. In analysing linguistic phenomena within a socially defined universe, however, the study is of language usage as it reflects more general behaviour norms. This universe is the speech community: any human aggregate characterised by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage. Most groups of any permanence, be they small bands divided by face-to-face contact, modern nation divided into small sub regions, or even occupational associations or neighbourhood gangs, may be treated as speech communities, provided they show linguistic peculiarities that warrant study. The verbal behaviour of such groups always constitutes a system'. (381) In reality the boundaries between speech communities may not be sharp enough.

Bilinguals, those who possess command over two languages and function as contact for people of different communities, primarily belong to one speech community, because one of the two languages they possess may show a partial command. Political boundaries are irrelevant in forming speech communities. English, for example, is not only the language of England but is spoken in many parts of the British Commonwealth and U.S.A. Switzerland is one political unit but its speakers use four different languages, French, German, Italian and Rhaeto-Romance. The size of the speech communities varies from the very small to the very large, with the speakers either concentrated in one place or scattered over different areas. These days some speech communities are very large; Chinese and English have millions of speakers, so have Russian, Spanish and German. C.F. Hockett reports that the other extreme case is where a speech community becomes reduced to only two or three speakers. According to him Chitimacha, an American Indian language, had only two speakers in the late 1930s. In New Guinea small villages or groups of villages are reported to have their own languages. Depending on various factors, the speech communities may expand with the members of speakers rising, or may reduce with the languages going out of use.

Domains of use

It is common place in linguistics that language shows changes and variations in accordance with the changes in social situations and contexts. Though a speech community may speak one language or dialect, on the scale of social functions it shows variations. Such societal variations are observable in the type of language used at home within family set-up, in the office, in market place, in administration, academic centres, law-courts, college and university campuses, etc. This led J.C. Catford to pronounce that the concept of a 'whole language' is so vast and heterogeneous that it is not operationally useful for many linguistic purposes, descriptive, comparative and pedagogical. It is, therefore, 'desirable to have a framework of categories for the classification of

'sub-languages' or varieties within a total language' (1965 : 83). These various areas of activity listed above which determine the variety of a language determine domain, in which one particular speech variety or a combination of several speech varieties is regularly used.

The Dictionary of Applied Linguistics describes domain as a 'group of related speech situations. For instance, situations in which the persons talking to one another are members of the family, e.g. mother and children, father and mother, elder sister and younger sister, would all belong to the family domain. In bilingual and multilingual communities, one language may be used in some domain and another language in other domains. For example, Puerto Ricans in the USA may use Spanish in the family domain and English in the Employment Domain'. (87) J.A. Fishman argues, 'Domains enable us to understand that language choice and topic, appropriate though they may be for analyses of individual behaviour at the level of face-to-face verbal encounters are related to widespread sociocultural norms and expectations... The appropriate designation and definition of domains of language behaviour obviously calls for considerable insight into the socio-cultural dynamics of particular multilingual speech communities at particular periods in their history'. (J.A. Fishman: 19).

A couple of centuries ago scholars tended to distinguish between the polite and vulgar English. And early in the fifth decade of this century serious attempts were made to understand social varieties of English by studying the U and non-U English, that is, upper class and non-upper class English. Such studies reflect the 'relationship between language and social class. Social provenance of users and social dialect are appropriate categories for looking at such relationships' (Sussanne-Gregory : 6).

Verbal repertoires and switching

A speaker may have at his command speech varieties such as languages, dialects, sociolects, styles and registers. It is generally found that with education the verbal repertoire expands, as the speakers' awareness of the suitability of use of the variety increases. On the contrary, an uneducated or absolutely illiterate being shows the least awareness about the suitability of the verbal repertoire. Sometimes a person may know more than one language, but he may not be able to use his full verbal repertoire. For example, some one may know both Marathi and Hindi, but having shifted to Lucknow or Kanpur may not get a chance to use Marathi at all. It would continue to be part of his or her verbal repertoire but it does not belong to the speech repertoire of the community, that of Lucknow or Kanpur.

When a speaker or a writer changes from one language or language variety to another, he resorts to switching. This behaviour has been discussed on page. In bilingual situations where speakers have a

comfortable command over two languages (Hindi and English among educated speakers in India, for example), it is normal for speakers to quickly switch between Hindi and English. Switching is also seen when one speaker asks in one language and the other speaker answers in another. 'A person may start speaking one language and then change to another one in the middle of his speech, or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence'. Such cases of switching are numerous in India in the bilingual zones like Nagpur (Marathi-Hindi-English), Delhi (Punjabi-Hindi-English), Jamshedpur (Hindi-Bengali-English), etc.

Language Maintenance and Language Loyalty

In bilingual or more frequently in multilingual situations one language is used by the dominant group while other language or languages are relatively reduced in importance and currency. Many factors appear to determine to what degree is the language used by the individual or the groups.

If the minority language is an official language it may continue to be maintained and developed along normal lines. In India Urdu has been declared a second language in some Hindi speaking states. It also receives government support and encouragement in many ways. It is a case of language maintenance. So is the case of Sanskrit. In spite of the fact that it is hardly used in personal or public situations, it is promoted by media and government. Besides, many private/public bodies are concerned about its well-being and maintenance. It is also one of the subjects in schools, colleges and universities and quite a number of people study it. Several other languages like Arabic, Persian, Pali, Prakrit, German, French, Russian that do not have substantial number of speakers/users are maintained in this manner through academic and government aided agencies.

Involved in this whole effort of maintenance is the factor of language loyalty also. By this is meant the retention of a language by its speakers, who are usually in a minority in a country where another language is the dominant language. As John L. Gumperz says, 'We speak of language loyalty when a literary variety acquires prestige as a symbol of a particular nationality group or a social movement. Language loyalty tends to unite diverse local groups and social classes whose members may continue to speak their own vernaculars within the family circle. The literary idiom serves for reading and for public use, and embodies the cultural tradition of a nation or sector thereof. Individuals choose to employ it as a symbol of their allegiance to a broader set of political ideals than that embodied in the family or Kin groups.' (385-86) Thus we see that 'loyalty' is a subjective element, and often gets projected in vigorous forms aimed at maintaining the 'purity' and 'higher standard' of the language. This again is determined by 'how many speakers of the language live in the same area'. Bilingual speakers migrating to places

where the use of their language is either nil or greatly reduced, face the problem of maintaining their language. Maharashtrians having migrated to such distant places as Bihar, Bengal and Rajasthan have been found to assiduously retain Marathi though after a period of time the language, specially the spoken one, tends to develop linguistic features that diverge from the native forms. At such places, separated from the source place, language loyalty is seen in more intense form. Language loyalty and language maintenance can be seen as part of the attempt by minority speakers to maintain their general ethno-cultural identity. Observing their festivals and religious occasions, holding meetings, discussions, seminars and conferences to highlight their cultural values, publishing newspapers and journals, and other social activities promote language loyalty.

Because of its inherent psycho-social potential, language loyalty may become a political issue in modernising society, when hitherto socially isolate minority groups become mobilised. Their demands for closer participation in political affairs are often accompanied by demands for language reforms or for rewriting of the older official code in their own literary idiom. This situation becomes even more complex when socioeconomic competition between several minority groups gives rise to several competing new literary standards as in many parts of Asia and Africa where language conflicts have led to civil disturbances and political instability.' (Gumperz : 385-6)

Dialect

For the non-specialists the word 'dialect' denotes 'lesser' types of language and they tend to think of it as 'language's poor country cousin'. It is common to come across such bias regarding dialect.

However, the student of linguistics must discard such an attitude. A dialect is associated with the 'regional, temporal or social variety within a single language' with differences in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary from the standard language' (Varshnay). Prominent aspects of a dialect are (i) variations from the standard language, and (ii) the scale along which these variations occur. The form that can be considered dialect must show differences in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. These variations may be regional (or geographical) in which geographical area marks off one dialect from another or social. Social and role factors act as determinants of particular variety or varieties in social dialects; one can also find a historical one, in which a particular time phase shows differences from another specific time phase in the same speech form.

Generally speaking, dialects denote speech form used by the people of a particular geographical area within a speech community. As the Dictionary of Linguistics describes,

'Dialect is a specific form of a given language spoken in a certain locality or geographic area, showing sufficient differences from the standard of literary form of that language, as to pronunciation, grammatical construction, and idiomatic use of words, to be considered a distinct entity, yet not sufficiently distinct from other dialects of the language to be regarded as a different language'. (A. Pie and Frank Gaynor)

What is emphasized above is the regional variety or the difference along the geographical area. Hindi, for example, is spoken from Punjab in the west to Bihar in the east. But we know how it differs from one place to another; or what we hear in Ranchi is totally different from the speech of Darbhanga or Samastipur. Dialect speakers, then, by and large, belong to the same geographical area and share the linguistic peculiarities characteristic of that area. Scholars have prepared the dialect or linguistic atlases (for example, Linguistic Atlas of England, edited by Harold Orton, Steward Sanderson, John Widdowson, 1978) in which with the help of isoglosses particular features are marked in a particular region. Isogloss is the means whereby we can mark the 'geographical boundaries of usage'. (Hockett-473). In dialect often the 'lines representing the different isoglosses sometimes appear to crisscross in the wildest manner. Yet one also discovers many instances in which a number of isoglosses run along roughly together. Such bundle of isoglosses constitutes a more important dialect boundary than does any isolated isogloss. A region bounded by bundles of isoglosses is often called a dialect area and may be given a name. The classic example of an isogloss bundle is that which runs east and west across Germany, Belgium and Holland, separating the Low German area to the north from the High German area to the south'. (Hockett) As is clear here isogloss indicates dialect boundary, a zone of significant transition in speech. In actual fact, it is only a convenient way of showing such transitions. In reality such precise changes are not available, that is why H.A. Gleeson cautioned us against relying too literally on isogloss readings.

Idiolect

When we talk about dialects we must take into account idiolects, the speech habits of a single individual, who speaks the same language (or dialect) as others in the same region. The concept of idiolect presupposes that interpersonal differences exist, that such differences are always to be found in any language spoken by more than one person, since no two people have exactly the same set of speech habits.' In other words, each individual in a speech community speaks in a characteristically individual way and makes certain choice of words that are his. Idiolect underscores the personal peculiarities. As Susanne Carroll and Michael Gregory point out, 'Most of us will recognise favourite expressions that we use habitually or that we hear others using.

But we may also have preferences or tendencies to use specific syntactic form and typical pronunciations'.

In bilingual situations an individual may possess two idiolects, one that is his mother tongue, and the other that he learns, L₁ and R L₂. Both the languages may show personal characteristics or idiolectal traits. Charles Hockett says, 'A language is a collection of more or less similar idiolects. A dialect is just the same thing, with this difference; when both terms are used in a single discussion, the degree of similarity of the idiolects in a single dialect is presumed to be greater than that of all the idiolects in the language'.

There is a considerable flexibility in the application of the terms language and dialect. While in England regional varieties such as east of Midlands or Kentish, or East Anglian, are without difficulty called dialects, the Scottish variety or Irish variety are not. English as written and spoken in America is, however, not called a dialect of English, but is recognised as American Language, as distinct from the British English. There is little recognisable difference between the American and Canadian varieties, yet both are called different Englishes and not dialects. So are other 'national varieties' like the Australian English, South African, Indian, West Indian, etc.

'For many the term dialect refers first and foremost to regional or geographical variation, whether one is referring to British, American, Indian, or Nigerian English, and often it is opposed to 'language'. However, a close examination of the structural differences between 'languages' like Dutch, German and Danish, and 'dialects' like Swiss or Austrian German reveals that the distinction sometimes may be more political, historical or cultural than linguistic'.

Sociolect

As language forms a continuum in time (diachronic variability) determining 'temporal dialects', and physical area, it also forms a continuum along social scale reflecting a social continuum. This is called social dialect or sociolect. It is defined as 'a variety of a language (a dialect) used by people belonging to a particular social class. The speakers of a sociolect usually share a similar socio-economic, and/or educational background' (Longman's Dictionary of Applied Linguistics).

Sociolect presents the finest example of language being a social entity, one of the potential tools whereby inter-personal contacts and relationships are forged, arranged and re-arranged continuously in a finely modulated manner that normally escapes our notice. That a person has many roles to play in society and goes on switching his behaviour almost automatically as the external contexts and situational needs change must reflect in his correspondingly changing linguistic codes as well. But broadly, sociolect is about the class-belonging of the speaker. The upper class and non-upper class in British English or lower and

middle class American or Canadian English differs considerably in accent, choice of words, prosodic features and sentence structure and other markers. What one says will largely be determined by where one fits in the hierarchy'.

Valuable studies have been done to understand self-monitoring and varying perception of situation - appropriate language and also how intra-individual variation cuts across class division. There has also been seen to develop increasing tolerance of the dialectal variations which have been weakened by industrialization and urbanisation. This has in turn, led to formation of larger social groups. Mass media and spread of education have played a significant role in removing negative attitudes towards regional differences. B.B.C. itself has 'moved away from a de rigueur use of r.P.' 'Recent psychological testing ... reveals that linguistic attitudes with respect to socially significant variables are generalized through out the community. Speakers who use stigmatized variables seem unaware of this fact and possess the same negative attitudes towards their own language as do other speakers'. (Gregory-Carroll: 20)

Diglossia

Within a community two or more languages may exist side by side, and the speakers may use each one for different purposes. This is known as diglossia. One of the varieties may be used for formal occasions, for official communication, education, law, literature, etc., while the other form may be used at home, with friends, when shopping, and so on. The former is a nonstandard variety and is called High variety or H-variety, the latter a usually non-prestige variety is called the Low-variety or L-variety. India presents a fine example of diglossic situation in which in some states Khari Bali is used on formal occasions and public situations and the local dialects are used at home.

Pidgin

Simply speaking, pidgin is a compromise language, a sort of working solution to the communication problem between two divergent speech communities that come into contact for specific business purposes. In the beginning pidgin originated when the British or yankee merchants went across to China for trade. It was an impossible situation with both Chinese and European unable to understand each other. Deliberately, then, the European merchants devised a system of broken English on the mistaken assumption that it was easier for the Chinese to understand'. The Chinese imitated this in order to establish some kind of link. For trade purposes, then, this became an accepted conventional system and grew into a regular medium; what came to be known as Chinese Pidgin English. Pidgin itself is a distortion of the word business.

All over the world under similar situations compromise languages arose in the same way. Though they are all not based on English, these

are known as pidgin. However, when this becomes conventionalized, it tends to go beyond business purposes and contexts and becomes lingua franca. Its use and application become wider, being spoken by an increasing number of people as their first language'. (Varshnay)

'Sometimes it happens that a pidgin becomes the main language of a community and acquires native speakers. If this occurs, the language is known as creole and while it remains mixed and simplified in a technical, linguistic sense- it is no longer impoverished or restricted, as it is used by its speakers for all the purposes speakers need to use their native language for. Thus a creole is a perfectly normal language, except that its history may be somewhat unusual'. In the area of Papua-New Guinea, the creolization process (the acquaintance of native speakers) is only just beginning, while in and around the Atlantic, creoles are well-established'. (Trudgill-Hannah : 96). Creoles are used in the Carribean, Haiti, Mauritius, Papua-New Guinea, St. Helena, the Soloman Islands and the New Hebrides. Black vernacular English of America is also a creolized language with its varieties in Liberia and the Dominican Republic.

Most illustrative is the case of West African countries where trade activities initiated by English merchants and colonists gave rise to simplified varieties of English or English-based pidgins 'bearing heavy imprint of African languages'. Later on, these English-based pidgins became dominant, displacing the languages of other European colonial nations. In a multilingual situation West African pidgins functioned as a kind of lingua franca. Though the trade conditions have changed to-day, these creoles are used in Cameroon, Sierra Leone and other countries. African slaves, who were often shipped off to far-flug countries, also developed pidgins which became the first languages of their children and grand children.

The Jamaica speech in the middle of the eighteenth century shows a continuum between the African speech of newly imported slaves and the standard English speech of trading company officials (Dick Leith, 187). The blacks who settled in Jaimaica spoke a kind of creole along with the freed slaves, the poor white people, and local English dialects of the freshly arrived British officials as also the typical speech habits of planters and trades people. In the mid-nineteenth century when slavery came to an end, Standard English came to be taught in Jamaican Schools. Naturally, the creole, which is actually a continuum of the early pidgin speeches, got a secondary dialect position while the people tried to acquire the Standard English.

Jamaica creole has such admixture of diverse vocabularies as the Hindi word roti for bread, African jook for pierce, English dialect words such as maliflaking for beating and Standard English word Look/or for visit.

Linguistic Peculiarities of Pidgin

Pidgin is marked by certain linguistic peculiarities,

- (i) *the phonemic system is extremely loose with great variation in pronunciation.*
- (ii) *it possesses a limited vocabulary, reflecting the limited functional uses of the speech, but capable of conveying many meanings.*
- (iii) *it can borrow heavily from other languages to expand its word stock.*

As Hockett notes, 'In many parts of Melanesia, where there are literally hundreds of distinct native languages, the widest imaginable variety of activities in the realm of politics, sport, literature, religion and education are conducted in Melanesian Pidgin English'.

Chinese Pidgin English has a predominance of English words, very few Chinese words, and 'scattering of Spanish and Portuguese words'.

- (iv) *However, pidgins have been discovered to have a systematic grammar. The case, class and categories of the original language may be reduced or altered to suit the need, the inflections are often deleted.*

Standard Language

In a country or speech community where different dialects are in use, growth of a 'standard' form is a matter of social acceptance and sanction. Generally, the dialect that belongs to the mightier ruling class, holding social prestige and glamour, is sought to be imitated by 'lesser' classes. William Labov has pointed out that lower- middle class shows a tendency to use more 'prestige' forms in formal discourse, than does the upper-middle class. This is called hypercorrection which is the case of propagation of linguistic change. It is not a question of how many people speak the standard variety, but the institutional support it gets - its use in schools, media, government, administrative and army functions, literature, and so on.

A standard dialect, then 'has the highest status in a community or nation and is usually based on the speech and writing of educated native speakers of the language'. It is this variety that is taught in schools, described in dictionaries and grammars and taught 'to non-native speakers. Standard American English is the standard variety, and British English is the Standard British English. Since what a speaker 'says on any occasion is in part a reflection of his social identity', he would like to be identified with the class or stratum that wields prestige, status and power. If he fails to do so, he runs the grave risk of being relegated to unimportance. As Gregory-Carroll say, some North American Indians, for instance, donot use the same verbal strategies as do whites and the

consequence of this can be serious for their children, particularly those attending white schools' (22).

Growth of Standard English

We have already noted the historical stages of the growth and development of English Language. At different stages, battle for dominance and power put one tribe or community of people on top to be displaced by another after a period of time. Through this see-saw of tussle for supremacy one tribe's speech gains upper hand and becomes the norm. Treating this phenomenon in a wider sense r.A. Hall Jr. writes, 'A standard behaviour pattern, whether linguistic or non-linguistic, is usually regarded as necessarily unitary, admitting of relatively small deviation. There have been a few exceptions to insistence on a single linguistic form, but they are found, in general, in artificial situations, involving particular literary genres. In old Provencal Lyric poetry, forms and phonetic developments from several different dialects were in free alternation ... In ancient Greece, different dialects were used for different types of literary productions ... and in Middle Indic drama, members of each caste spoke the appropriate variety of Sanskrit or Prakrit... The simplest type of linguistic variation is regional, and hence the choice of standard has usually been made among local dialects of any given language... This problem has usually been settled by choosing the dialect of the administrative centre of the region involved'.

In the Old English period, there existed four major dialects; Northumbrian, Mercian, West-Saxon and Kentish. In the eighth century it was the Northumbrian that led; it is in this dialect that the literature of the period was written 'for the history of the country caused this West-Saxon to become by the tenth century the accepted language for most vernacular literary purposes. Even the literature of other dialects such as was most of the poetry, was re-copied into the 'standard' West-Saxon which, with local modification, has become a sort of common literary language all over the country' (Wrenn). Even grammar and dictionaries in that period were based on this dialect.

Mercian replaced it for a short period and then the West Saxon. Till the time of King Edward the Confessor, Winchester was the centre of political activities which also made it the linguistic centre of England. But King Edward favoured London and Westminster, which caused London to grow as 'the centre of commercial, political, legal, and ecclesiastical life towards the end of the century. London had a heterogeneous population coming from all over the country... They spoke a mixed dialect. Proximity of Oxford and Cambridge also influenced the city to develop a new dialect'. Another factor that helped London develop a mixed dialect of its own was the East Anglian trade (in wood and cloth) with close connection with the East Midlands. The result was a London dialect that was largely East Midland, 'in character while

retaining an under layer of the original south-eastern of its geographical position. E.E. Wardale observes, 'by the end of the ME period the language in London shows such a mixture of forms from East Midland, South west and Kentish that it may be said to form a dialect of its own, the London dialect'. Its written language was emulated and copied by all. It came to provide the standard in literary language, though the process is said to have been completed only towards the end of the sixteenth century.

The east and west Midland dialects showed distinct linguistic characteristics. Till the 13th century when King William I died, West Midland was the dominant language in Cathedral cities of Hereford and Worcester. This was a direct descendant of Old Mercian. Around the 13th century East Midland rose to prominence. It was the dialect of 'the court, of the city of London and of both universities, Oxford and Cambridge' (Potter: 18). Geoffrey Chaucer wrote in this dialect with notable scattering of Kentish and Southern peculiarities. Gower and Wyclif also wrote in this dialect. Regarding the standard form prevalent in this period E.J. Dobson says, 'that any conception of a standard form of English, either written or spoken, was consciously held in the fourteenth century is very doubtful' (419).

By the end of the ME period London's position in the country's politics and culture enabled it to lead the whole country.

English had to face a stiff struggle for recognition against Latin which was still considered the language of prestige. 'The revival of learning' only made things difficult for English. 'Latin and Greek were not only key to the world's knowledge, but the languages in which much highly esteemed poetry, oratory, and philosophy were to be read. And Latin, at least, had the advantage of universal currency, so that the educated all over Europe could freely communicate with each other, both in speech and writing, in a common idiom'. But there was a class of scholars in England that defended the use of English and advocated its propagation. Ascham, Wilson, Elyot, Puttenham, Richard Mulcaster, all argued, 'But why not all in English, a tung of it self both depe in conceit, and frank in deliverie? I donot think that any language, be it whatsoever, is better able to utter all arguments, either with more pith, or greater planesse, then our English tung is, if the English utterar be as skilful in the matter, which is to utter: as the foren utterer is'.

Exposure to the great wealth of Latin and Greek learning made the English scholars only more determined in their nationalistic love for English. 'I Love Rome, but London better, I favor Italic but England more, I honor the Latin, but I worship the English'.

This spirit gaining strength everyday let loose a spate of translations of almost all the available classical works - Thucydides, Xenophone, Herodotus, Plutarch, Plato, Seneca, Cicero, Epictetus,

Aristotle, Terence, Homer, Horace, Ovid, Virgil, and the rest. A standard in linguistic refinement

and perfection was thus set comparison to which was the only way to improve the language.

As for spoken language M.L. Samuels says, 'there is no question of a spoken standard in the fifteenth century. We are concerned with the spoken language only in so far as any written standard must be ultimately based on it; but the evolution and spread of Standard English in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries was primarily through the agency of writing, not speech, ... The importance of early London written English in this evolution has been overrated: consultation of any of the large classes of documents at the Public Record Office will show clearly that, until 1430-5, English is the exception rather than the rule in the written business of administration, after that, there is a sudden change, and the proportions are reversed, from a mere trickle of English documents among thousands in Latin and French, to a spate of English documents.' (409) As another scholar says in the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries the standard speech was much more limited in extent, 'not only was its penetration of the North only incipient, and confined rather to spelling and vocabulary than to pronunciation, but also, south of the Trent, it was used by a far narrower range of people than in later times' (EJ. Dobson).

It is only towards the period marking the transition between the 17th and the 18th centuries that a standard form of spoken English is believed to have begun to emerge. London had already acquired the strength and prestige as the political, social and cultural centre. Other dialects had faded out of the competition. London presented a model of stability and standard. Robert Burchfield says, 'Between 1476 and 1776 the language had been set down in writing with every kind of burgeoning ornamental device and subtle constructive power by some of the greatest of English writers. A standard language had been established, and it was admired and imitated in the provinces, that is by writers who did not happen to live in London. Side by side with the majestic prose of Bacon, Raleigh, Donne, Milton, Thomas Browné, Jeremy Taylor, Edward Gibbon and many other great writers, stood the undecorated work of the new urban scientific writers, beginning with the 'mathematical plainness' of the Royal Society's ideal of prose and defined by Bishop Sprat.' (33)

It is significant to note that in Chaucer, Townley and Caxton's work ample evidence is available to show that dialectal differences often formed good subject of humorous treatment and that the royal officials were expected to use southern English, i.e. that Southern English was becoming the recognised official language.

In the end we must note that the problems concerned with the establishment of a standard language are of three kinds: the choice of a variety to be preferred above others; the areas of human activity in which it is to be used; and the achievement of recognition for the new standard. 'In the normal slow rise of West European standard languages over several centuries, these problems present themselves in relatively mild form; and in such a way that they are resolved without excessive difficulty... In the sudden 20th century acceleration of the development of new standards, however, these problems present themselves all at once, calling for immediate resolution even when, as in some instances, not all the relevant factors are known to have reached a definitive condition (R.A. Hall Jr. : 142).

The British Isles abound in dialectal variations marking geographical regions and areas. 'But only one form is the standard language, one that is taught to the foreigners, whose individuality and importance went hand in hand with the fortunes of London, and of people who moved into the London area.... Historically, it contains some elements from the south-west, especially Kent, and some from the east midlands as far north as the city of Lincoln. But for the most part its constituent elements are those that came to be accepted as the 'best' form of speech among educated speakers in London itself'.

This standard variety is spoken by the educated people and taught everywhere. This is understood all over England even by those who use regional dialects. Outside England it is recognised in Delhi, Beijing, Moscow or Kuala Lumpur as the standard variety. In the countries where the British ruled and English is used to-day in educated society, clubs, educational centres radio and T.V. and in government work, it is this London variety.

Registers

Certain varieties of language can be associated 'neither with groups nor individuals, but with the occasions when they are used'. It is marked by the use 'by a particular group of people, usually sharing the same occupation (e.g. doctors, lawyers) or the same interests (e.g., stamp collectors, baseball fans) : a particular register often distinguishes itself from other registers by having a number of distinctive words, by using words or phrases in a particular way (e.g. in tennis: deuce, love) and sometimes by special grammatical constructions (e.g. legal language). Registers are 'stylistic functional varieties of a dialect or language'. The focus is on the use and the subject-matter - the field of discourse, a jargon of the sports, films, law and so on, and the medium- mode of discourse, whether it is in the form of a written material, printed message, or recorded message, etc. Registers also refer to the level of formality or the manner of discourse (an aspect of grammar, lexis, phonology, etc.). If the user is in focus, 'then we are more concerned

with differences, with register switching, and the total situation which prompts the user to alter his language in significant ways and match the particular linguistic features to the overall, contextual meaning, with all its subtleties.' (Sandra Harris - Ken Morgan: 42).

Register switching involves considering changes in the situational roles of the speaker, a doctor talking to his patients uses one register, discussing a point with his colleagues uses another, lecturing in a classroom makes use of a third kind of register, returning home talks to his wife, father and children changes to a totally different register, and finally upon meeting his old childhood friend speaks yet different register. One can easily picture a person sometimes speaking his native dialect also when talking to his servants or native people. As Sandra Harris - Ken Morgan observe, 'The boundaries between them are far from sharp and clear.' There is an inevitable overlap and interrelatedness. Dialect and idiolect may become registers of an individual. Writing about the Liverpool dialect Sandra Harris and Morgan say: 'Dialect may indeed function as a register' ... one of the most obvious groups of words to study is that with naval origins. The Liverpool dialect naturally has a great many of these. 'Go hard astern' is colloquially used as advice to give up. The phrase can be seen to derive from the naval order to turn around and is used similarly in civilian life. 'Scuppered' has been adopted also from the merchant navy term to mean finished or defeated. The phrase 'hung drawn and scuppered' has long been used in the dialect to imply that a person deserves punishment. 'Sling the hook' is a term widely used to express annoyance or dissatisfaction. Originally dockers would cry, 'Sling the hook' before finishing work, the hook being their unloading tool. During the early part of this century when there was much discussion over docker's wages the cry was heard frequently during strikes and has since become incorporated into the 'dialect'. (42)

Here we see a fine example of register forming the core vocabulary of a dialect. When we talk of registers we recognise certain relationships between features of situation and use of language. These linkages make the language of one trade different from the other. These differences emphasize the differences in the social context. There will thus be as many registers as there are social contexts, 'register, as the configuration of several contextual features, can draw attention to what changes in situation and context alter what features of language and the reciprocity of this relationship' (Gregory Smith - Sussane Carroll).

A look at different sections of a newspaper discloses different registers, in trade and commerce column, sports page, art and cinema section, political news and so on. Each of these areas has developed its own diction, structure and semantic features. 'An important aspect of register is the modification of speech to indicate Our attitude towards

the subject under discussion or towards the person we are talking to. This can be done by modifying the pitch, the loudness and the tempo of the voice' (G.L. Brooks). Situational factors exert direct control over the kinds of registers. A person in full control of himself shows ability to shift quickly and appropriately from one register to another. 'So register range will be reverted in idiolect. Social patterns will also be revealed by the individual's capacity to shift registers in so far as an individual's experience is to some degree a function of vertical and horizontal social stratification.'

The Language of legal documents is immediately recognised by its stiff style, high-flown diction and complex syntax. 'A legal document is prolix because its author is trying to secure complete coverage of a given area of meaning, and the style becomes involved as a result of the author's attempt to achieve a precise definition of this area'. Intricate systems of cross-reference, coordination of a great many near-synonyms, singular and plural forms of the same nouns, prefixed and suffixed prepositions, i.e., aforesaid, here in after, hereby, hereof, hereunder, mark this variety. It is so specialised a register that its use in any other context appears quite alien or out of place. It is easy to recognise a legal, medical or technical professional register in a gathering by the manner the speaker easily and naturally intersperses his conversation with the professional jargon. While a layman may speak of 'kidney problem', a medic would refer to it as 'renal problem', or 'cardiovascular blockage' for an ordinary man 'heart problem'.

In advertising, journalism and commerce join to form a world of make believe where the buyer is enticed by the use of language of fabulous promises and near impossible claims. Here are a few examples:

(1) 'I wasn't born a princess. But my father turned me into one. There's something magical in the way diamonds transformed me. I wonder if it's their sparkle that makes me feel so special. Or the thought that I'm so loved, so precious to my parents. And, believe it or not, something as eternally beautiful as a diamond costs surprisingly less than I imagined. I was just another girl-next-door but things, changed, once I was touched by my diamond'.

(2) 'A moisturising lotion for clothes. Because your clothes are your second skin. Just as your skin becomes dull and lifeless after working, so do your clothes. Which is why they need comfort, care, comfort after wash conditioner has a unique international formula that coats your clothes with a protective layer. Making your clothes feel so much softer against your skin. While its perfume gives them a lingering fragrance. So, if you want your washing machine to have the power to keep your clothes looking good longer, just add ...'

(3) Youthful and vibrant. Yet timeless and elegant. This is the essence of radiant beauty. A radiant new face. A radiant new you ... The new range of high performance products cares for your skin's special needs. And helps bring out your inner glow'.

As G.L. Brooks says, 'In advertisements inflated language is used to make commonplace products seem glamorous'. (101)

Code

The word 'code' is normally used in place of speech variety, language or dialect. It has more neutral connotation than these words. People also use 'code' when they want to stress the uses of a language or language variety in a particular community. For example, a Puerto Rican in New York city has two codes: English and Spanish. He or she may use one code (English) at work and the other code (Spanish) at home or when talking to neighbours' (Longman's Dictionary of Applied Linguistics: 42). This kind of use of different dialects or languages is also called code-selection. For instance, a Chinese in Singapore 'may use Hokkien (a Southern Chinese dialect) at

home, Singapore English at work, and Bazaar Malay to Indian or Malay stall-holders at the market'. What code a speaker selects may depend upon his/her age, level of education, sex, his/her social background and that of the hearer. Code-switching is seen when (i) a person speaks in one variety, dialect or language and the hearer answers in another; or (ii) two languages, varieties or dialects may be used simultaneously - a sentence or part of a sentence in one language, and rest of it, or another sentence in another code. This is common in bilingual situations, as, for example, in India. This author has observed-code-switching common among speakers in the city of Nagpur where Marathi and Hindi are the two dominant languages. Most of the Marathi speakers can, with equal felicity, use Hindi also. Code-switching between Hindi-Marathi is common as non-participating observation in restaurants, colleges, schools, market places, buses, trains and other public places reveals. Among the educated people trilingual code-switches between Hindi-Marathi-English is also common. In such code-switching an interesting factor seen is the building up of a wider range of mixed vocabulary where words of one language reinforce those of other languages, helping them to derive shades of meaning from different languages. Thus a common vocabulary emerges in which English-Marathi, or English-Hindi, or Marathi-Hindi or English-Hindi-Marathi vocabularies share a common context, connotational values and semantic area. This kind of code-switching can exist in all the bi- or pluri-lingual situations. In such cases the languages differ somewhat in quality from its variety used away from the bi- or pluri-lingual situations. This is shown in the diagram.

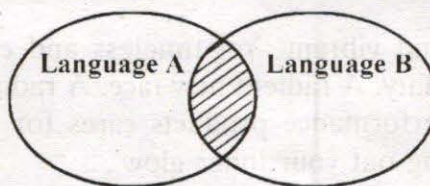


Fig. 1

In this diagram the shaded part represents the languages in contact where considerable mutual exchange on different levels takes place, affecting both the languages L_A and L_B . The unshaded areas represent languages that are not affected. This phenomenon underscores that 'language has a referential function, it names and describes things in the environment; language has a social function, establishing roles and relationships; language has its Own way of doing things and relating to the rest of our behaviour'. (Smith-Carroll: 78).

The British educational Sociologist Basil Bernstein uses code slightly differently. He means by it 'different ways of conveying in a social context'. Bernstein identifies two types of code namely, elaborated code and restricted code. His theory is discussed in detail on page 107.

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The concept of code has therefore two facts - the semiotic and the linguistic. Both the speech models and the semiotic functions are referred to as universalistic or particularistic.

Universalistic meaning is meaning made verbally explicit. The addresser does not assume that the addressee knows the meaning. It tends therefore to be individual and personal. The particularistic meaning, on the other hand, is verbally implicit.

Language Variation and Sociolinguistics

Study of language in its cultural and social contexts is the field of Sociolinguistics. It focuses on the relationship between language and society. The complexity of human society is directly reflected in the complex patterning of linguistic codes and registers underlining the fact that it is 'patterned, and it is embedded in the human social experience' (Sussanne Gregory). As Catford says, 'the concept of a 'whole language' is so vast and heterogeneous that it is not operationally useful for many linguistic purposes, descriptive, comparative and pedagogical. It is, therefore, desirable to have a framework of categories for the classification of 'sub-languages' or varieties within a total language'.

The major concern of the science of linguistics has till recent years, been the scientific study of 'language per se, isolated from the

actual contexts of its application and use. A typical approach has, therefore, developed out of this preoccupation with treating language as an 'ideal object', a 'laboratory thing', that kept the extra-linguistic 'concerns deliberately out of the purview of the defined limits of the subject. One cannot for sure say whether it was a reaction to this purist rigidity, or just an inevitable extension of the linguistic perception so far forcibly limited, the focus, in recent years, has been seen to shift to the question of 'how the language is used. Every text - that is, everything that is said or written - unfolds in 'some context of use; furthermore, it is the uses of language that, our tens of thousands of generations, have shaped the system' (Halliday: 2). The clue was taken from Edward Sapir's dictum 'the essence of language consists in the assigning of conventional, voluntarily articulated sounds or of their equivalents to the diverse elements of experience' (Sapir: 11). This view, expanded and developed by a group of scholars, emphasized the function of language as a communication medium which 'permits rapid and firmly graded variation essential to a communication system of a high degree of complexity' (Wallace L. Chafe.). The challenge posed by the task of studying language in the real social and communicational contexts has been baffling, for the linguistic variability and fine gradation manifested were determined and regulated by the subtle situational factors. 'So there is needed a set of situational categories for the description of those socio-situational features which correlate with subsets of linguistic features'.

In the nineteenth century comparative historical linguistics dominated mainly because 'at the end of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries, historical romanticism and evolutionism was part of the intellectual climate (JR Firth: 177 : 1909). Linguistics at that time was the outstanding example of this climatic. The finest example of the revolutionary shift to the empirical point of view of the study of speech and language in living human being in contemporary society is the famous Geneva scholar Ferdinand de Saussure's Durkheimian structuralism. 'De Saussure, thinking in Durkheimian terms, regarded social facts as *sui generis* and external to and on a different plane from individual phenomena' (Firth). He felt that the group constrains the individual and a group culture determines a great deal of his humanity'. However, before him, the famous modern French linguists such as Meillet, Brunot and Vendrye's, and the Slav scholars working with Baudouin de Courtenay and later Trubetzkoy and the Circle linguistique de Prague had begun preparing grounds for the Saussurean linguistics. Saussure considered the whole object of the science of linguistics the study of *la langue* - the language, a language as linguistic activity emanating from a *un sujet parlant*. Each speaker or listener is a *sujet par/ant* who speaks 'reasonable language suitably constrained by the right group and his thoughts determined by the

culture of that group'. La parole, the linguistic behaviour is the function of le sujet parlant 'But la langue, une langue, anything socially established, is a function of lamasse parlante'.

This viewpoint leads to the consideration of linguistics as a group of related techniques for the handling of language events. As J.R. Firth says, 'In the most general terms we study language as part of the social process, and what we may call the systematics of phonetics and phonology, of grammatical categories or of semantics, are ordered schematic constructs, frames of reference, a sort of scaffolding for the handling of events. The study of the social process and of single human beings is simultaneous and of equal validity and for both, structural hypotheses are proved by their own social functioning in the scientific process of dealing with events. Our schematic constructs must be judged with reference to their combined tool power in our dealings with linguistic events in the social process... A key concept in the technique of the London group is the concept of the context of situation'. (1969)

It was Malinowski, the famous anthropologist, who first used the phrase, the context of situation. Speech process is central in it. The following categories have been identified in a context of situation.

A. The relevant features of participants:

persons, personalities

(i) *The verbal action of the participants*

(ii) *The non-verbal action of the participants*

B. The relevant objects

C. The effect of the verbal action

This places language with the social human nature and considers 'persons' rather than individuals. To quote J.R. Firth once again, 'Linguistics may learn something from the sciences which treat human beings as separate natural entities in their psycho-biological characters, but it is mainly interested in persons and personalities as active participants in the creation and maintenance of cultural values among which languages are its main concern.'

Thus 'the idea of language is not necessarily confined to a formally defined symbolic code but could refer to any culturally patterned way of conveying sense impressions. These points are made in order to stress the centrality of communication to social life, and the need to take a very wide view of what human communication actually is.' (Denis McQuail: 3:1978).

These various investigations and studies in the social contexts of linguistic behaviour led to the growth of Sociolinguistics. J.B. Pride and Janet Holmes believe that 'sociolinguistics has been established as a

distinct discipline for some years, comprehending the study of the structure and use of language in its social and cultural contexts'.

It has largely benefitted and continues to benefit from the advancements made in sociological and anthropological studies. The better we understand our social structure and patterns of relations, the closer and more mutually dependent do these domains appear. Sociolinguistics deals with a wide range of behavioural areas from the simple usage variations on an individual level to the dialectal variation, bi- and multilingualism, development of standard forms, status and responses of minority groups, the problems of the effect of S₁ on L₂, professional registers, codes, slang, deliberate scaling down of codes as in pidgins and creoles, role of sex, age, and role models, 'problems related' to interference, code-switching, dialect-switching, and the typical sociolectal problems, language used by different media, in advertisements, news reporting, T. V. and radio - the entire gamut of socio-cultural forces is taken into consideration by sociolinguistic studies. Dick Leith says that 'the demands of speakers on their language are no more than those associated with the customary, local needs of small, technologically simple societies. A larger, more centralised society will make new demands on its language or languages, as specialised institutions - administrative, legal.

Micro and Macro-Sociolinguistics

A major concern of sociolinguistics is the extreme variability of language in use. Variability is observable along a number of axes, spatial, role-models, behaviour in multilingual settings and also certain domains. There are several other levels at which variation in speech is seen. However, a linguist always needs to determine major domains that determine language choice. Schmidt-Rohr in 1932 identified nine domains in their study of non-German speaking populations in various types of contact settings (Fishman: 19). They suggested family, playground and street, the school (subdivided into language of instruction, subject of instruction, and language of recess and entertainment), the church, literature, the press, the military, the courts and the governmental administration. These nine domains provided a model, and later on more were added by Frey, Mak, Dohrenwend and Smith.

Domains are understood as institutional contexts or socio-ecological cooccurrences. Within these cluster 'interaction situations'. Through our understanding of domains we can relate linguistic choices to the larger sociocultural norms and expectations. The population of a speech community is thus segmented into users of a specific language style appropriate to the particular topic of the individual domains. On the other hand the study of language behaviour of children calls for consideration of different domains.

Macro-sociolinguistics is concerned with the relations or patterning of relations between one wide domain or another, 'they' are as real as the very social institutions of a speech community and indeed they show a marked paralleling with such major institutions (Fishman). Speakers of one domain show a tendency to share 'common linguistic patterns - players on a football ground, for example, or teacher's language choice in class-room. One can notice variability across domains, a lecturer's language-choice in class-room can be contrasted with that outside it, say, in college gathering, or within family. College gathering, family and class room thus constitute three different domains determining three linguistic styles. What must be recognised thus is the reality of domain of language-and-behaviour in terms of existing norms of communication apparatus. 'The high culture values with which certain varieties are associated and the folksian values with which others are congruent are both derivable from domain-appropriate norms governing characteristic verbal interaction.

Micro-sociolinguistics concerns itself with the study of variation within a larger framework (or domain) by classifying particular elements in face-to-face situations. The sociolinguist must collect data from the individual speakers, whatever his topic; and must analyse the particular features. He can classify the issues only after having analysed these particular features. All this activity falls within micro-linguistics. Thus micro-linguistics includes the detailed study of inter-personal communication, speech events, e.g. sequencing of utterances and also those investigations which relate variation in the language used by a group of people to social factors. Macro linguistics, on the other hand, includes study of language choice in bilingual or multilingual communities, language planning, language attitudes, etc. They are also considered part of the sociology of language.

Newly freed countries where more than one language (dialect) is used, face the question of agreeing on a standard national language. Sociolinguists have come to see an active role for themselves in this area. Let us consider the following statement, 'standard languages which symbolize feelings of unification, separateness and prestige, sometimes qualify as national languages. Some of the recurrent aspects of this perplexing but important field of study are what are or could be some of the roles of 'languages of wide communication' (such as English, or French, or Russian) not only as national languages but also as affecting other national languages? How can or should less widely used languages expand, both formally and functionally? What principles should govern the choice of languages at various levels in the educational system of a country? And so on.' (Pride-Janet Holmes 8-9).

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Bilingualism

Bilingualism exists where people readily acquire a second language 'if they need one; and if they have access to its speakers. (Leith: 12). The factors responsible for this can be various: the children of the people who intermarry will be bilingual; the second language fulfills greater social needs than the speaker's first language, migration of people to other countries creates a situation of bilingualism, as part of employment and trade conditions. However, Hymes states that 'No normal person, and no normal community is limited in repertoire to a single variety of code...', and Gumperz believes, 'In many multilingual societies the choice of one language over another has the same signification as the selection among lexical alternate in linguistically homogeneous societies.'

Bilingualism is, therefore, a situation where two entirely different languages are spoken. The speaker faces a choice between two languages. The famous scholar Joan Robin's monumental work on the bilingual situation in Paraguay presents a typical case. In this country the Spanish and the American Red Indian language, Guarani, vigorously hold their own and are engaged in a tenacious competition. Guarani is in serious competition with Spanish for the loyalty of the population (Burling: 100).

Another striking case is that of bilingualism in India. Since there are many regional languages here, and most of them possess strong historical tradition of oral and written literature, the diglossic areas present remarkable bilingual situation. Punjabi-Khariboli area, Maithil-Bengali area, Marathi-Hindi area, Oriya-Bengali area, Marathi-Konkani and Marathi-Kannad area, and so on. V.K. Gokak describes bilingualism as the 'practice of making alternate use of two languages'. He sees a 'trilingual situation in the country. 'English was part of this bilingual situation in India till Hindi was recognised as an official language at the centre. The situation has developed into a trilingual one since then... We can assume, then, that a trilingual situation is inevitable in the country where the mother tongue of the child is identical with its regional language. Where it is not the child tends to face a bilingual situation bypassing the original languages in favour of Hindi'. English thus introduces a peculiar situation putting demands on the speaker's educational upbringing. English has received varying degrees of emphasis from time to time.

Linguistic, Sociolinguistic and Social codes

The shift of interest that we have witnessed recently in the direction of language in use, or language being considered as behaviour 'relating the participants in a speech event to their environment, to each other and to the medium of communication itself', has thrown up many issues of crucial importance to linguistic analysts. It is easy to see the

relationships. As Michael Gregory and Susanne Carroll say, 'Words change their meaning according to context. Word-meaning is neither fixed nor stable. Word meaning can be considered to be meaning-in-use, the 'living' word as it appears in situation. Meaning realised in recurrent and typical situations can itself be seen as part of a larger system of meaning to which members of the community have access. This system of potential meaning is the culture itself. When we say that language is choice we suggest that language-in-use implies the selection of all possible meanings inherent in this extensive meaning-system called culture.'

The growth and development of linguistic science have been along rigorous scientific lines. Its tools and methods are time-tested. With a fine scientific eye it has been able to isolate and study the units of language and formulate its principles and theories. But when the scientific linguist observed the samples of utterances in actual social reality or realities, he found variations and fluctuations for which he had no explanation in the existing corpus of knowledge. It is difficult to reconcile this fluctuation with the notion that there is a fixed set of rules which speakers follow. It is not surprising, therefore, that many conscientious linguists felt it was their duty to ignore this 'purely social' variation, and concentrate on the more rigid 'central core' of the language' (Jean Aitchison: 52).

On the other hand anthropologists and sociolinguists have always been interested in human verbal behaviour. The impact of Ferdinand de Saussure is quite clear. He felt that 'the group constrains the individual and the group culture determines, a great deal of his humanity'. Sociolinguists give equal importance to social codes and linguistic codes, and seek to discover links between the two. In the words of Denis McQuail, 'We know from daily experience that the simple model of communication between two individuals cannot represent the variety of communication situations in social life. For example, communication between family members takes the form of an intricate interplay of contact connecting pairs, triads or larger numbers and governed by an equally intricate set of unstated understandings and expectations'.

Social structural system and culture are systems of meanings. They defy scientific explanations. Their complexities are overlaid with other complexities, because social structure and culture 'incorporate' all possible meaningful behaviours (linguistic or otherwise) possible within that society, the beliefs and attitudes associated with it, including the arts and sciences as we usually think of them'. 'Culture of a society is the way of life of its members; the collection of ideas and habits which they learn, share and transmit from generation to generation' (M. Haralambos). This complex socio-cultural network of values provides the basic meaning complexes to the language user. In 1936 Benjamin

Lee Whorf pronounced that linguistics is concerned with meaning. This is the position from which sociolinguists see themselves facing the problem of analysing the correlation of linguistics and sociological phenomena. The problem has not easily been solved as stated. Firth, Halliday, Hasan, Trudgill, David Sankoff, Shana Poplack and many others have been trying to evolve techniques and methods to locate and describe the correlations and the mechanisms of changes such correlations result in. Most scholars have drawn upon sociological and other descriptive techniques which have proved highly useful. For example, William Labov, interested in observing language change in the present, used surprisingly simple technique, of interviewing the sales people without their knowing that they were being interviewed, and quietly noting down the required information which comprised his primary data.

Labov's Analysis

William Labov, the American linguist, conducted two interesting studies, one in New York shopping centres, and the other on the island of Martha's Vineyard, which have become model works in the field. These studies performed the difficult work of charting fluctuations and reinforce the belief that language change is observable, and 'the variation and fuzziness which so many linguists tried to ignore are quite often indications that changes are in progress'.

Dr. Labov observed the fluctuating use of r in the New York speech in such words as car, bear, beard. In common observation it was found that New York speakers sometimes inserted r in these words and others, and sometimes did not. So, the randomness in the matter, as the general opinion went, was rejected by Labov. 'He rather worked on the hypothesis that it is not a matter of pure chance, but must be correlated with social status. Labov selected Manhattan department stores, from top, middle, and low price and fashion range. For the study of top class shop he selected Saks Fifth Avenue, for middle-priced level he chose Macys, for the low class one he selected Klein's, close to the lower Eastside, 'a notoriously poor area'. William Labov went into these shops as a customer, asked certain questions in which r occurred; pretended that he had not heard properly the first time, asked again, carefully noted down the presence or absence of it; age and sex of sales person were also noted. He went to other counters and repeated the performance. Similar questions were asked at the middle-range and low range shops. In this manner he obtained a total of 264 interviews. The results thus obtained confirmed his 'hunch' that in the New York speech insertion of r was related to the social prestige factor. Percentage of r inclusion in the high-range Saks store was higher than in Macy's, which showed a comparatively higher percentage of its occurrence than in Klein's. New York upper class educated speakers include r in such words as car, bear, beard, card, while the lower classes omit it. At the lower level in the

casual speech r appeared to be omitted, but when asked to repeat, the speakers became conscious and emphatic; so they showed a 'significantly higher percentage of r's. As Jean Aitchison observes, 'Labov suggested that the reinsertion of r was an important characteristic of a new prestige pattern which was being superimposed upon the native New York pattern. This is supported by description of New York speech in the early part of the century, which suggests that r was virtually absent at this time - a fact observable in films made in New York in the 1930s' (56). It is interesting to note that till the eighteenth century, English speakers showed a tendency to insert r, but this was lost around the middle of the nineteenth century. In New York pronunciation also this is a recent cultivation; its rise was witnessed in the 1940s and 1950s. Perhaps, desire to forge a distinct un-British identity led to the conscious cultivation of this feature. That could be the reason why in unconscious casual times one witnesses absence of r.

William Labov went on to expand the study on a larger area 'obtaining speech samples from different socio-economic, ethnic, age and sex groups, in a variety of language styles. These extended studies again confirmed his thesis that r insertion in words such as bear, beard is socially prestigious, since it occurs more frequently in the casual and formal speech in the upper and middle class than in the lower social classes. A further indication of social prestige is that more careful the speech style, the more likely r is to be pronounced. Obviously, when people speak slowly and carefully, they remember to insert an r which they feel should be there.

Martha's Vineyard Studies

Another pioneering study conducted by Prof. Labov is known as 'Martha's Vineyard Study'. Martha's Vineyard is an island, part of Massachusetts, three miles off the east coast of mainland. It has a permanent population of about six thousand. Around fifty thousand tourists visit the island in summer, and concentrate largely on the DownIsland in the eastern region. The Central and the western areas are inhabited mainly by the local population. Labov noted that a few decades earlier a linguist had visited the island and having interviewed some members, had noted that in the pronunciation of these people the diphthongs in such words as high, pie, night, trout, house, etc. the first vocalic element [a] + [i] and [a] + [u], showed a shift towards becoming [ə] as in American but.

[au] → [əu]

[ai] → [əi]

Labov systematically interviewed a cross-section of local population, dividing it into three age-groups and occupational classes - those engaged in the traditional fishing activity and those in the service industries attending to the summer visitors. The results showed that the

population was not aware that change in pronunciation was taking place. Secondly, in the rural areas in the western parts change was more noticeable than in the eastern part. Speakers from 31 years to 45 years of age showed greater tendency to change than older people, and least of all was it seen in people over 75 years of age. Also those less than 30 years showed comparatively lesser change. Labov argued that a distinct change in diphthong pronunciation was taking place in Martha's Vineyard more noticeably than in the mainland America. These changes radiated from a small group of islanders and spread to more extensive areas, particularly those of English descent.

The research also indicated that the changes did not occur all of a sudden, someone did not suddenly decide to alter his/her speech, and others took it up. Rather, the tendency was always there. Only some people exaggerated it and made it their habit. Thus the new diphthong was always there as a form of old-fashioned element. One can compare it to the characteristic 'American sounds', which are nothing but conservative tendencies of the 18th century pronunciation, which speakers in England had long ago outgrown, but the Americans stuck to; at some time, Martha's Vineyard had begun showing loss of the diphthongs when contact with the summer visitors increased. But those old generation speakers while confined to their part of the land, did not establish any contact with the 'modern'. Down Island clung to the older tendencies. They showed resistance to changes in other features of behaviour too and thus exemplified the qualities of strength, tenacity, dour close-knit mentality who could oppose the incursions of outside fun-loving tourists.

'The next generation down island admired these old fisherman, who appeared to exemplify the virtues traditional to Martha's Vineyard, they were viewed as independent, wilful, physically strong, courageous. They epitomized the good old yankee virtues, as opposed to the indolent consumer-oriented society of summer visitors. This led a number of Vineyarders to sub-consciously imitate the speech characteristics of the fishermen in order to identify themselves as 'true islanders' (Aitchison: 74).

Clearly, the tendency to change linguistically is related to certain cultural attitudes in this particular instance as well as in the New York r experiment. The island of Martha's Vineyard presents a relatively simple social structure. Resentment toward and dislike of the tourist population are also quite unconcealed and simple. This created in the local people a desire to preserve their cultural values. That is why the speech feature which is embedded in old habits caught on with the younger speakers of ages between 30 and 45 years. Interestingly, those who wished to stay on the islands for good showed greater inclination to adopt the changed diphthongs as they had greater need to identify themselves with the locals. In this way change establishes a norm.

In the complex social scenario of New York, speaker's use of r is clearly related to the prestige values of upper middle class which are approximated by those below this class. Here also, New Yorkers adopted r out of a growing awareness of themselves as 'being American, and, requiring an American Standard on which to model themselves'.

Baby talk, foreigner talk

One of the major theories of origin of pidgins suggest that the source language speakers, in order to make themselves properly understood, resorted to gross simplification of their sentence structure and vocabulary. This process resembles in broad terms the way a child is taught his language by his parents. The native speakers of the base language make it so simple that the non-native learners can easily acquire it. Leonard Bloomfield, the famous American linguist, called this baby talk process: 'This 'baby-talk' is the master's imitation of the subject's incorrect speech... The subjects in turn, deprived of the correct model, can do no better now than acquire the simplified 'baby talk' version of the upper language. The result may be a conventionalized jargon'.

This process is also described by others as foreigner talk. Londoners would often be found to talk to foreign tourists in broken English in order to make them understand the required message, how to get to the zoo, for example. Foreigner talk is based on imitation of the learner's errors. 'There is no evidence that speakers of the base language ever listen critically or attentively to non-native speakers. Foreigner talk, therefore, has its source mainly in the preconceived notion of people who think they are imitating foreigners, but are in fact spontaneously creating the simplified talk themselves. (Aitchinson: 195)

Language change and Language Decline

The great Greek philosopher Heraclitus had said as early as in the sixth century, 'Everything rolls on, nothing stands still'. This wisdom has been echoed down the centuries by men active in different walks of life, from scientists to social thinkers to medicine men to philosophers, and linguists too. Poets and litterateurs have constantly lived under the overiding sense of uncertainty and transience because time is ever in flight and the world is never the same. In the words of Omar Khayyam,

Alas, that Spring should vanish with the Rose!

That youth's sweet-scented Manuscript should close!

The Nightingale that in the Branches sang!

Ah, whence, and whither flown again, who knows!

It is not easy to understand why man has found it difficult to reconcile with change, though he has always understood that 'since 'tis Nature's law to change constancy alone is strange' (John Wilmot, Earl

of Rochester). Like all things in life, language also changes. 'It is part of the general flux. There can never be a moment of true stand still in language ... By nature it is a continuous process of development', said Wilhelm Von Humboldt, the great German philosopher-linguist. It would be a great surprise if language did not show changes, while everything else changed at varying rates.

It is human tendency to ignore changes that occur in language as aberrations in need of correction. Those who argue that linguistic changes are inevitable, as well as those who frown upon them, resenting and resisting any deviations from the norm, consider symptoms of transformation as signs of ignorance, sloppiness, laziness or as often happens, simply a matter of vulgar habits of expression. 'One has only to see how fierce is the reaction of those who see in someone talking differently a violation of the norm and quick attempts to suggest prescriptive rules are made. Letters to the editors have been written in newspapers and magazines on deviant trends, move to debase and vulgarize language. Jean Aitchison quotes a reviewer, writing in 1978 edition of the Pocket Oxford Dictionary, announced that his 'only sadness is that the current editor seems prepared to bow to every slaphappy and slipshod change of meaning'. She says, 'the author of the book published in 1979 compared a word which changes its meaning to a piece of wreckage with a ship's name on it floating away from a sunken hulk'. The book was entitled *Decadence*' (17).

Efforts of Jonathan Swift to 'fix our language forever' led him to submit A proposal for correcting, improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue, to the Earl of Oxford, Lord Treasurer of England in 1712. In this historical document he stresses the need to check the growing tendency to deviate from the prescribed grammatical norms. These deviations were often seen and deplored by the eighteenth century scholars as 'abuses and absurdities'. Dr. Samuel Johnson's attitudes in this regard are too well-known to need any mention except that he was particularly intolerant of what he believed to be 'barbarous corruptions' and 'licentious, idioms', etc. Such resistance to changes and desire to keep language in a permanent state of perfection have always been seen to drive men to formulate ways and means to artificially keep it refined.

However, changes are produced by forces that cannot be resisted by artificial means. What begins as isolated instances of variation escalates and spreads to larger number of speakers. Certain habits get rooted and then are finally accepted as norms. Older elements and habits enjoy lesser currency, with the number of users dwindling till they completely fade out of language. Thus we know that Dr. Johnson condemned the word *lesser* as a barbarous corruption, and so nowise also. Today, however, no one thinks so about these words. What he, on the other hand, tried to establish as respectable *latinate* or *classical*

formations never really were accepted, and, therefore, died a natural death. Obviously these pundits failed to understand the essential nature of language, that it goes through similar life cycles of birth, growth and decay as any organism does, which the German scholar Franz Bopp supported in these words, 'languages are to be considered organic natural bodies, which are formed according to fixed laws, develop as possessing an inner principle of life, and gradually die out...' This extremely simple view of linguistic progress [or decay?] is not accepted in our times by more scientific-minded linguists who wish to describe the exact mechanism of language growth; but formation of new languages through various diachronic processes and their being taken over by a newer, more different variety, has never been denied.

As our account of the studies conducted by William Labov and Basil Bernstein and others engaged in sociolinguistic researches reveal, changes in time begin as changes seen in the present in a particular speech community. Labov was interested in showing that it is not impossible to 'capture' those changes in the present that are only seen in their consequences over a period of time. These historical changes that create new sounds, morphemes, syntactic relations and habits of speech, do not occur suddenly. Rather, he felt, they are to be understood by exploring those variations and deviations, those tendencies to violate or break the norms which some speakers always exhibit and others resent. This tug of war and the controversial practices are what in the long run produce 'permanent changes' in a language. Till as recently as 1958 a scholar like Charles Hockett felt, 'No one has yet observed sound change. We have only been able to detect it via its consequences... A nearly direct observation would be theoretically impossible, if impractical, but any ostensible report of such an observation so far must be discredited'.

Later linguists felt, however, that it is these fluctuations, these variations exhibited under numerous socio-cultural conditions that conceal the clue to the problem. They were interested in observing that 'the grammatical rules of a language are likely to alter slightly from region to region... Parallel to geographical variation, we find social variation. As we move from one social class to another, we are likely to come across the same type of alteration as we noted from region to region, only this time co-existing within a single area'.

One of the major points William Labov worked to prove through his New York and Martha's Vineyard studies is that what we notice as variations in accent or sound feature or any of the several linguistic features may be a pointer that language is undergoing a change. A careful analysis might show us in which direction is the change taking place.

Reasons for the spread in favour of a specific feature or set of features could be many. Generally they can be described in this way.

- (i) *a tendency to imitate the upper class speaker's habits.*
- (ii) *the need to sound/appear like the majority speakers of the community.*
- (iii) *need to be accepted by the majority and counted as one of them.*
- (iv) *to assert one's identity and resist the majority tendencies due to particular psychological factors, i.e. dislike, bias against, etc.*

Pidginization is one form of language spread

Pidgins have been discussed in detail in this volume (page 84). The birth of pidgins has been a topic of serious study by scholars. Hugo Schuchardt and Robert A. Hall have made significant contributions in the field. It tends to arise on trade routes - along the coast of West Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific Islands. Pidgins are fine examples of how a language spreads and is used in a completely changed form. English forms the base of many Pacific and West African pidgins, while those in the Caribbean are French-based. The speakers simplify the European merchant's language. The New Guinea or Melanesian pidgins, for instance, have simplified the English words and changed their grammatical categories in this manner.

mi go	'I go'	you go	'you go'
mi lukim yu	'I see you'	yu lukim mi	'you see me'

In these pidgins one word usually expresses a wide range of possessive pronominal categories 'my', 'your', 'our', etc. as in these sentences.

papa bilong mi	'my father'
gras bilong het	'hair' ('grass of head')
gras bilong solwara	'seaweed' ('grass of salt-water')
papa bilong yu	'your father'

The 19th century linguists condemned these pidgins as unworthy of serious attention. So, attempts to study them were discouraged. But advancement in linguistic perception and theories created a new ground work.

Scholars felt that pidgins are the best examples of a fruitful interaction between language and society and results of definite socio-cultural imperatives. Pidgins are viewed as languages in embryo. It may die out, or survive to become a full-fledged language with a consistent phonology, grammar and syntax of its own. Therefore, it has been pointed that pidgin must not be equated with broken language.

When a pidgin is learned as the first language or the mother tongue, it becomes creole. Creole is, therefore, defined as one-time pidgin which has become the mother tongue of speech community. 'A pidgin is no one's first language, whereas a creole is'.

The Sapir- Whorf hypothesis

In their exploration of various types of correlation between culture and language, scholars have come out with different hypotheses. These hypotheses indicate the ways to understand the complex relations language and society have. One established and more controversial theory of this kind is known as Sapir- Whorf hypothesis. This is named after two scholars of linguistics and anthropology, Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and Benjamin Lee Whorf. Sapir's over-riding interest in linguistic determinism operating in culture has been mentioned in volume one and this one also. He recognized linguistic relativity converging with cultural relativity. This is embodied in the following extract.

'Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression for their society... The fact of the matter is that the 'real world' is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the groups. No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The words in which different societies live are distinct words, not merely the same words with different labels attached.'

Benjamin Lee Whorf who was a student of Sapir continued studying the matter. He argued that 'language patterns and cultural norms... have grown up together, constantly influencing each other. But in this partnership the nature of the language is the factor that limits free plasticity and rigidifies channels of development in the more autocratic way'. It is not difficult to see the deterministic role of language in bringing about cultural transmission. It is only through the linguistic medium that this happens.

One major problem about this hypothesis is that in terms of objective proofs and through rigorous methods Whorfian hypothesis is difficult to prove, though intuitively one can see the natural link. As William Bright says, 'in particular, no correlations can be traced between language and world view until specific world - views are themselves

defined in terms of observable behaviour'. Whorf spent plenty of time in Mexico studying the Red Indian speeches. His well known analysis of the Hopi's linguistic structure led him to propose that it (structure) is compatible with a world view involving a peculiar relation between subjective and objective experience, but he tends to assume rather than to demonstrate that Hopi actually hold such a view of the world'. William Bright suggests the following modification of Whorf's thesis,

'In so far as languages differ in the ways they encode objective experience, language users tend to sort out and distinguish experiences differently according to the categories provided by their respective languages. These cognitives will tend to have certain effects on behaviour'.

Basil Bernstein's work

A notable contribution in relating social factors to language variation and the variability functioning as an indicator of one's cognitive abilities was that of the British sociologist Basil Bernard Bernstein. Born in 1924, his extensive researches dominated the sociolinguistic thinking in the 1960s and 1970s. He is considered pioneer in research in the description of varieties of speech within a language community. He concentrated on dialect studies which rest on a key assumption that language learning is 'determined by social environment and by the verbal and non-verbal expressions of speakers'. His paper 'Language and social class' (1960) puts forward the idea that speakers (particularly children) raised in culturally disadvantaged environments and exposed to non-standard dialects show stunted cognitive abilities, compared to speakers of the middle and upper classes.

Bernstein examined 'class-based variabilities and their implications for language fluency and learning'. He reformulated and revised some of his earlier concepts and put forth the terms elaborated code and restricted code.

He uses code slightly differently. He means by it 'different ways of conveying in a social context. Restricted code has a limited vocabulary, reduced range of vocables, an abundance of question tags, and greater use of pronouns like he and she. Basing his observations on the middle-class and working class boys Bernstein argued that the latter tended to use only the restricted code. This restricted their language and thinking behaviour. Elaborate gesticulations, hand gestures and facial expressions reinforce the verbal communication. The speakers assume that the other communicants share, their, emotional states and attitudes. This code showed less fluency and was what he called highly static. It has narrower range of language alternatives, 'often tended to

be predictably formulaic, and exhibited highly individuated utterances. It is characterised by 'a simplified grammatical system, poor syntactic forms, repetitive use of common conjunctions, little use of subordination, a rigid and limited selection of adjectives and adverbs, reinforcement statements following what was immediately said, and a tendency to confound reason and conclusion in statements'. Bernstein found that the middle class boys used both codes comfortably and with equal ease. These speakers showed fluency in the 'elaborated code'. They possessed a wide range of 'syntactic and lexical alternatives', had a level of verbal dexterity and greater manipulative power in regulating and organising what is spoken. This means that they manifested greater use of conjunctions and subordinate elements in sentences, prepositions, 'a frequent use of indefinite and third person pronouns and the use of expressive symbolism to discriminate meaning within speech segments'. The sentence structures are more complex and there is found greater use of I and adjectives. It is more explicit, 'speakers using it do not assume the same degree of shared attitudes and expectations on the part of the addressee'. Elaborated code is considered to be 'open and liberating'. It shows capacity to exploit full range of language possibilities. Restricted code is inhibiting and restrictive.

The famous sociolinguists Gregory Smith and Sussanne Carroll feel that these two types of code reflect two different principles of semantic organization. 'Each code orients the user to a specific type of meaning which is itself a function of the type of relationship that the user enters into... The codes, elaborated and restricted, are acquired through exposure to different speech models. They embody two types of meaning. The concept of code has, therefore, two facets - the semiotic and the linguistic. Both the speech models and the semiotic functions are referred to as universalistic or particularistic.'

Bernstein's findings created a lot of controversy. Some linguists believe that his opinions are linguistically insignificant. They also felt uncomfortable at one's dialect being related to cognitive abilities. 'Some questioned his conclusion as too extreme, and based on limited observation, others simply rejected the anti-egalitarian notion of social class.'

Language change is the phenomenon whereby phonetic, morphological, semantic, syntactic, and other features of language vary over time. All languages change continually. At any given moment the English language, for example, has a huge variety within itself: descriptive languages call this variety synchronic variation. From these different forms comes the effect on language, over time known as diachronic change. Two linguistic disciplines in particular concern themselves with studying language change: historical linguistics and

sociolinguistics. Historical linguists examine how people in the past, used language and seek to determine how subsequent languages derive from previous ones and relate to one another. Sociolinguists study the origins of language changes and want to explain how society and changes in society influence language:

Causes of Language Change

1. Economy; Speakers tend to make their utterances as efficient and effective as possible to reach communicative goals. Purposeful speaking therefore involves a trade-off of costs and benefits.

2. Analogy

3. Language contact

4. The medium of communication

5. Cultural environment ; Groups of speakers will reflect new places, situations, and objects in their language, whether they encounter different people there or not.

Korossy (1993, 1997) extended the theory of knowledge structures by separating competence and performance. Competence means skills or abilities that enable a persons to solve a problem, and cannot be observed directly. Performance is the behaviour, e.g. the answer that is given, and can be observed.

Of course, competence, demands and performance are related. However, competences are properties of persons, while demands are properties of problems. While a demand requires a competence to fulfill it, the relationship is not a one to one relation. For example, the demand "add two natural numbers" may be met by adding mentally, by adding with the help of paper and pencil or by operating a pocket calculator.

Similarly, when a performance of a person is observed, it is not obvious what underlying competences have contributed to the solution.

Thus Korossy introduced two spaces: a competence space on a set of (elementary) competences, and a performance space on a set of items. These spaces have the same properties as knowledge spaces, and also prerequisite and surmise relations exist. A state in the competence space describes the competences a person has, while a state in the performance space is given by the set of items that the person can master.

By identifying the relationships between competences and performance on the items, an interpretation function and a representation function can be defined. The interpretation function maps a problem or an item to the set of all competence states that allow for solving the problem. Vice versa, the representation function maps a

competence state to the set of problems which can be mastered with the competences of this state (Korossy 1993, 1997). Please note that it is sufficient to determine one of these functions as the other one can be derived (Korossy, 1996).

In any case, the interpretation function (or the representation function) has to be adjusted when items become obsolete or are inserted into the performance space. The same holds for new competences that might be added to the set of competences, enlarging the competence space. This is simply due to the fact that the domain of the functions changes.

If a new competence is added, the procedure and the problems for determining the new competence space are similar to that for knowledge spaces as relationships between the new and the old competences should be used to avoid a large increase of the number of competence states. Furthermore, for each of the items has to be checked whether the new competence opens up new ways of solving the item. If so, the interpretation function (or the representation function) has to be updated because now there are more competence states which allow for solving this item. For example, in the elementary school pupils are forbidden to use pocket calculators. Later in high school the competence "using a pocket calculator" comes into play. This competence enables the pupils to solve items of the type "addition of natural numbers", but also "addition of real numbers". This means the interpretation function has to be changed for both item types.

For deleting a competence from the competence space, the same procedure as deleting an item from a knowledge space is used (see section 5).

If a new item is added to the domain, the following cases may occur:

1. *The new item can be solved with the existing competences. In this case, the value of representation function has to be augmented by the new item for all competence states that allow for solving the new item. This means that the result of the interpretation function for the new item will be the set of all competence states that allow for solving the new item, as expected.*
2. *Mastering the new item requires new competences. Now both the steps for adding new competences (see above) and a new item have to be performed.*

The difference between competence and performance

Chomsky separates competence and performance; he describes 'competence' as an idealized capacity that is located as a psychological or mental property or function and 'performance' as the production of

actual utterances. In short, competence involves "knowing" the language and performance involves "doing" something with the language. The difficulty with this construct is that it is very difficult to assess competence without assessing performance.

Is it important to make a distinction between competence and performance?

Noting the distinction between competence and performance is useful primarily because it allows those studying a language to differentiate between a speech error and not knowing something about the language. To understand this distinction, it is helpful to think about a time when you've made some sort of error in your speech. For example, let's say you are a native speaker of English and utter the following:

Is this error due to competence or performance? It is most likely that as a native speaker you are aware how to conjugate irregular verbs in the past but your performance has let you down this time. Linguists use the distinction between competence and performance to illustrate the intuitive difference between accidentally saying swimm~~ed~~ and the fact that a child or non-proficient speaker of English may not know that the past tense of swim is swam and say swimm~~ed~~ consistently.

Competence and performance apply to the language

As we have learned, competence and performance involve "knowing" and "doing". In the recent past, many language instruction programs have focused more on the "knowing" (competence) part of learning a language wherein words and sentences are presented and practiced in a way to best help learners internalize the forms. The assumption here is that once the learners have 'learned' the information they will be able to use it through reading, writing, listening and speaking. The disadvantage of this approach is that the learners are unable to use the language in a natural way. Having been trained to learn the language through "knowing", learners have difficulty reversing this training and actually "doing" something with the language. In brief, it is difficult to assess whether the learners' insufficient proficiency is due to limitations of competency or a lack of performance.

In order to focus learners more on the "doing" part of learning, which allows a more accurate measure of learners' language proficiency, a more communicative approach to teaching can be used. This type of approach concentrates on getting learners to do things with the language. If we think of B-SLIM we can see that this relates to the Getting It and Using It stages of the model. By encouraging students to eventually "learn through the language" as opposed to strictly learning the language there is a more balanced focus on both competence and performance.

Competence and Performance

A distinction introduced by Chomsky into linguistic theory but of wider application. Competence refers to a speaker's knowledge of his language as manifest in his ability to produce and to understand a theoretically infinite number of sentences most of which he may have never seen or heard before. Performance refers to the specific utterances, including grammatical mistakes and non-linguistic features like hesitations, accompanying the use of language. The distinction parallels Varela's distinction between organization and structure. The former refers to the relations and interactions specifically excluding reference to the properties of the refi's components, whereas the latter refers to the relations manifest in the concrete realization of such a system in a physical space. Competence like organization describes the potentiality of a system. Performance like structure describes the forms actually realized as a subset of those conceivable. (Krippendorff)

Though their fundamental basis is evident in both Sapir and Saussure's work, the terms Competence and Performance were initially formulated by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s to define the scope of linguistic enquiry. Chomsky wanted to associate language structure to a template common amongst all languages (which he called 'Universal Grammar') to prove that the existence of 'the language gene' (i.e.: that language utilisation is an inherent human attribute). As well as this, Chomsky wished to provide support for his ideas on 'Generative Grammar' by formulising a "fully explicit and mechanical outline of the rules governing the construction of the English language"¹. Thus the following ideology was formed²:

- (i) **Linguistic Performance** - *The individual interpretation of language in its usage.*
- (ii) **Linguistic Competence** - *Cognitive skills necessary for the construction and understanding of meaningful sequences of words. This consists of:*
- (iii) **Grammatical Competence** - *Ability to utilise lexical & syntactic patterns.*
- (iv) **Communicative Competence** - *Ability to communicate with clarity.*
- (v) **Creative Competence** - *Ability to exploit the others uniquely.*

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. Language acquisition usually refers to first-language acquisition, which studies infants'

acquisition of their native language. This is distinguished from second-language acquisition, which deals with the acquisition (in both children and adults) of additional languages.

The capacity to successfully use language requires one to acquire a range of tools including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and an extensive vocabulary. Language might be vocalized as speech or manual as in sign. The human language capacity is represented in the brain. Even though the human language capacity is finite, one can say and understand an infinite number of sentences, which is based on a syntactic principle called Recursion. Evidence suggests that every individual has three recursive mechanisms that allow sentences to go indeterminately. These three mechanisms are: relativization, complementation and coordination.

The capacity to acquire and use language is a key aspect that distinguishes humans from other beings. Although it is difficult to pin down what aspects of language are uniquely human, there are a few design features that can be found in all known forms of human language, but that are missing from forms of animal communication. For example, many animals are able to communicate with each other by signaling to the things around them, but this kind of communication lacks the arbitrariness of human vernaculars (in that there is nothing about the sound of the word "dog" that would hint at its meaning). Other forms of animal communication may utilize arbitrary sounds, but are unable to combine those sounds in different ways to create completely novel messages that can then be automatically understood by another. Hockett called this design feature of human language "productivity". It is crucial to the understanding of human language acquisition that we are not limited to a finite set of words, but, rather, must be able to understand and utilize a complex system that allows for an infinite number of possible messages. So, while many forms of animal communication exist, they differ from human languages, in that they have a limited range of non-syntactically structured vocabulary tokens that lack cross cultural variation between groups.

A major question in understanding language acquisition is how these capacities are picked up by infants from the linguistic input. Input in the linguistic context is defined as "All words, contexts, and other forms of language to which a learner is exposed, relative to acquired proficiency in first or second languages". Nativists find it difficult to believe, considering the hugely complex nature of human languages, and the relatively limited cognitive abilities of an infant, that infants are able to acquire most aspects of language without being explicitly taught. Children, within a few years of birth, understand the grammatical rules of their native language without being explicitly taught, as one learns grammar in school. A range of theories of language acquisition have been proposed in order to explain this apparent problem. These

theories, championed by the likes of Noam Chomsky and others, include innatism and Psychological nativism, in which a child is born prepared in some manner with these capacities, as opposed to other theories in which language is simply learned as other cognitive skills, including such mundane motor skills as learning to ride a bike. The conflict between the theories assuming humans are born with syntactic knowledge and those that claim all such knowledge is the product of learning from one's environment is often referred to as the "Nature vs. Nurture " debate. Some think that there are some qualities of language acquisition that the human brain is automatically wired for (a "nature" component) and some that are shaped by the particular language environment in which a person is raised (a "nurture" component). Others, especially evolutionary biologists, strongly object to assuming syntactic knowledge is genetically encoded and provided by automatic wiring of the brain.

The theories of language acquisition are: Skinner's theory, Chomsky's theory and the Social Interactionist theory.

(1) Skinner's theory

Skinner, who was a Behaviorist, argued that language acquisition is like any kind of cognitive behavior - it is learnt by reinforcement and shaping. He also calls this operant conditioning - where the child goes through trial-and-error, in other words, where the child tries and fails to use correct language until it succeeds; with reinforcement and shaping provided by the parents gestures (smiles, attention and approval) which are pleasant to the child. Parents, whom ignore unfamiliar sounds and show increased attention to the reinforced phonemes, extinguish the acquisition of phonemes and morphemes. The morphemes then become refined into words by shaping. Parents' accuracy will lead to total extinguishment of "baby" pronunciation and finally, by selective reinforcement and behavior shaping, words will be shaped into telegraphic two-word sentences, later into sentences until the full language has been acquired. Skinner differentiated between two types of verbal responses that a child makes. One of them, the mand is verbal behavior that is reinforced by the child receiving something it wants. For example, when the child sees a chocolate, it can show its own demand by calling out "choc". As the child used appropriate verbal behavior, he then receives chocolate and reinforcement. The other one is tact, which is verbal behavior caused by imitating others. For instance, when a parent points at an object and says "ball", the child imitates this word and the parent will then approve, which is just another form of reinforcement.

(2) Chomsky's theory

Chomsky, who was a linguist, argues that the ability of language acquisition is innate; therefore taking a biological approach-stand. Children will automatically acquire language by being exposed to it.

There is no need for operant conditioning. This ability is supported by, what Chomsky calls a LAD (innate language acquisition device) an inbuilt mechanism that automatically allows a child to decode any spoken language it hears around it. Chomsky suggests that all languages share a similar deep structure despite the differences in their surface structure. For instance, "I did the homework" and "The homework was done by me" have the same deep structure but differ in the surface structure. The LAD supplies humans with the transformational grammar, which simply means the process of translating underlying meaning into speech. Children use these rules but will sometimes make errors, such as goed and comed (went and came). These are errors in performance not in competence, Chomsky claims.

(3) Social Interactionist Theory

Supporting that the development of language comes from the early interactions between infants and caregivers, the Social Interactionist theory holds a more social factor-stand, including the ideas of the two previous theories. Snow suggested proto-conversations, which she called the conversations exchange between the caregiver and the infant. Trevarthen used pre-speech. However, probably one of the most known theorists here might be Bruner. He gave more significance to pragmatics, rather than the development of grammar. He suggested LASS - where turn taking of a conversation between a caregiver and an infant is necessary for development. The Social Interactionist theory does not neglect the previous theories, but gives an additional social perspective of language acquisition.

Comparing & Contrasting

Skinner and Chomsky's theories contradict each other by Skinner suggesting that the behavior of language is learnt like any other cognitive behavior - and Chomsky holding a stand of language being innate - born with the ability. The Social Interactionist theory gives an additional perspective, more of in social terms and does not exclude either Skinner's or Chomsky's theories. However, the Social Interactionist theory is concerned more by the pragmatics of the language, unlike Chomsky whom gives a greater deal of significance to the development of grammar.

Even though the Skinner and Chomsky theories can be related to the Social Interactionist theories, the divisions of all of these three are different - the Social Interactionist theory is social constructivist - where the acquisition of language has its roots in the earliest infant-caregiver conversations. Yet, all of these theories are involved with some form of mechanism - either child directed speech, language acquisition device or language acquisition support system. Both Chomsky and Skinner's theories were made during the mid-1950s (1954), whereas the Social Interactionist theory came approximately

twenty years later than so, basing its additional theory on the possible two theories.

How language acquisition is related to memory.

Types of Memory

Language acquisition has to be stored in memory, in order for us to speak - know what to speak, the context and how to speak (putting words in relevant order). We use different kinds of memory functions for different use of our language acquisition. The sensory memory concerns with senses, relevant to language acquisition - memorizing by the hearing system, also known as the echoic memory. This is kind of like an afterimage. This is when information travels through the brains and gets interpreted. The short-term memory is used for chunking the material that we have received - such as for studying a test or reading a text - how much can we remember out of what we read? The long-term memory is used for storing unlimited information. Long-term memory has been suggested to mainly encode meaning, which can relate to our language acquisition in the sense that we use the long-term memory to make sense out of what we talk - so that we just don't throw different words without any context or meaning. "Door ball me come now," for instance, are all correct words that are not of any context or meaning because of its order and choices of words. We know the meaning of these words because they are stored in the long-term memory.

Types of Encoding

There are three encoding types of memory - two of them that relate to language acquisition. The procedural memory is knowing how to do things; in this case, knowing how to talk. We are not consciously able to describe how we do them and we never seem to forget them (how many of us have forgotten how to talk?) Declarative memory concerns with the information we can describe or report. This type includes two parts (semantic and episodic memory) where one of these is related to language acquisition. The semantic memory concerns with what a word means (long-term memory).

Multi-store Model of Memory

The multi-store model of memory relates to language acquisition - on how language is acquired. We receive language through our sensory memory, but some of that information gets lost. Then this encodes and undergoes to the short-term memory, where some information gets lost (if not rehearsed). Through rehearsal, this information gets stored into our long-term memory, which explains how and why we can remember things by repeating them, i.e. studying for an exam.

(2.) Personally, I believe the combined version of the theories of Piaget, Vygotsky and Sapir-Whorf. Piaget believed that language only describes thought and that certain concepts had to develop before

language could meaningfully describe them. Sapir-Whorf claimed that language determines thought. However, I do not believe that language determines; it rather influences thought and doesn't only describe thought but does so along with influencing thought. This is simply because language expresses the thoughts. We all don't get the thoughts from somewhere and think similarly; there has to be more to it. We all are individual and unique. All thoughts cannot be innate as we experience life and gain thoughts from the external world as well.

Theories Of Language Acquisition : Presentation Transcript

1. Theories of Language Acquisition In a broader sense, various theories and approaches have been emerged over the years to study and analyze the process of language acquisition. Four main schools of thought, which provide theoretical paradigms in guiding the course of language acquisition are: Imitation, Nativism or Behaviorism : based on the empiricist or behavioral approach Innateness or Mentalism : based on the rationalistic or mentalist approach Cognition : based on the cognitive-psychological approach Motherese or Input: based on the maternal approach to language acquisition

2. Imitation Language has long been thought of a process of imitation, and reinforcement Imitation theory is based on an empirical or behavioral approach Main Figure: B. F. Skinner Children start out as clean slates and language learning is process of getting linguistic habits printed on these slates Language Acquisition is a process of experience Language is a 'conditioned behavior': the stimulus response process Stimulus Response Feedback Reinforcement

3. Thus, Children learn language step by step Imitation Repetition Memorization controlled drilling Reinforcement Reinforcement can either be positive or negative

4. **Popular View-** Children learn to speak by imitating the utterances heard around them and analogy Children strengthen their responses by the repetitions, corrections, and other reactions that adults provide, thus language is practice based General perception is that there is no difference between the way one learns a language and the way one learns to do anything else Main focus is on inducing the child to behave with the help of mechanical drills and exercises Learning is controlled by the conditions under which it take place and that, as long as individual are subjected on the same condition, they will learn in the same condition

5. Two Kinds Of Evidence Used To Criticize Behaviorist Theory First Evidence: Based on the kind of language children produce first piece of evidence taken from the way children handle irregular grammatical patterns While encountering irregular items, there is a stage when they replace forms based on the regular patterns of language

Gradually they switch over to the process of 'analogy' - a reasoning process as they start working out for themselves. Second Evidence: Based on what children do not produce. The other evidence is based on the way children seem unable to imitate adult grammatical constructions exactly. Best known demonstration of this principle is provided by American Psycholinguist David McNeill (1933). Child: Nobody don't like me. Mother: No, say 'no body likes me'. Child: Nobody don't like me (eight repetitions of this dialogue). Mother: No, now listen carefully: say 'no body likes me'. Child: Oh! No body don't likes me. Thus, language acquisition is more a matter of maturation than of imitation.

6. Nativist or Innateness Theory. Limitations of Behaviorist view of language acquisition led in 1960's to the alternative 'generative' account of language. Main Argument: Children must be born with an innate capacity for language development. Main Figure: Bloomfield & Noam Chomsky. Children are born with an innate propensity for language acquisition, and that this ability makes the task of learning a first language easier than it would otherwise be. The human brain is ready naturally for language in the sense when children are exposed to speech, certain general principles for discovering or structuring language automatically begin to operate.

7. Chomsky originally theorized that children were born with a hard-wired language acquisition device (LAD) in their brains. He later expanded this idea into that of Universal Grammar, a set of innate principles and adjustable parameters that are common to all human languages. The child exploits its LAD to make sense of the utterances heard around it, deriving from this 'primary linguistic data' - the grammar of the language. LAD is exploited to explain the remarkable speed with which children learn to speak, and the considerable similarity in the way grammatical patterns are acquired across different children and languages. According to Chomsky, the presence of Universal Grammar in the brains of children allow them to deduce the structure of their native languages from 'mere exposure'. Primary data is then used to make sentences or structures after a process of trial and error, correspond to those in adult speech.

8. The child learn a set of generalizations or rules governing the way in which sentences are formed in the following sequence: Primary Linguistic Data, The Adult Speech, General Language Learning Principles, Grammatical Knowledge, The Rules, Child's Speech, Input, LAD, Output.

9. Two distinct views about how LAD functions. LAD provides children with a knowledge of linguistic universals such as the existence of word order and word classes. LAD provides children only general procedures for discovering language to be learned.

10. Innate Theory is criticized for The role of adult speech can not be ruled out in providing a means of enabling children to work out the regularities of language for themselves It has proved difficult to formulate the detailed properties of LAD in an uncontroversial manner, in the light of the changes in generative linguistic theory that have taken place in later years, and meanwhile, alternative accounts of the acquisition process have evolved that there are principles of grammar that cannot be learned on the basis of positive input alone The concept of LAD is unsupported by evolutionary anthropology which shows a gradual adaptation of the human body to the use of language, rather than a sudden appearance of a complete set of binary parameters (which are common to digital computers but not to neurological systems such as a human brain) delineating the whole spectrum of possible grammars ever to have existed and ever to exist. The theory has several hypothetical constructs, such as movement, empty categories, complex underlying structures, and strict binary branching, that cannot possibly be acquired from any amount of input. Mentalists' emphasis on the rule-learning is over-enthusiastic

11. The Universal Grammar Approach According to Noam Chomsky, UG focuses to answer three basic questions about human language: (1) What constitutes knowledge of language? (2) How knowledge of language is acquired? (3) How is knowledge of language put to use? 'Knowledge of language' stands in UG for the subconscious mental representation of language which underlies all language use UG L 1 L 2

12. What Constitutes Knowledge of Language and how it is acquired ? UG claims that all human beings inherit a universal set of principles and parameters which control the shape human language can take Chomsky's proposed principles are unvarying and apply to all human languages similar to one another; in contrast, parameters possess a limited number of open values which characterize differences between languages The biologically endowed UG equip the children naturally with a clear set of expectations about the shape of the language according to a predetermined timetable and atrophies with age

13. Competence and Performance Chomsky (1965) provides a distinction between competence and performance - between the underlying ability which allows linguistic behavior to take place and the behavior itself Linguistic competence is concerned with the child's grammar, the linguistic input and construction of the grammatical structures Performance deals with the nature of child's rule system; the psychological processes the child uses in learning the language, and how the child establishes meaning in the language input

14. Principles and Parameters Principles According to UG, the learner's initial state is supposed to consist of a set of universal principles

common to all human languages Structure Dependency This principle states that language is organized in such a way that it crucially depends on the structural relationships between elements in a sentence Words are regrouped into higher-level structures which are the units which form the basis of language All languages are made up of sentences which consist of at least a Noun-Phrase and a Verb-Phrase, which in turn optionally contain other phrases or even whole sentences The hierarchical nature of human language is a part of human mind therefore children use computationally structure-dependent rules Your cat is friendly Is your cat friendly? UG focuses on the structural relationships rather the linear order of words

15. Parameters Determine the ways in which languages can vary Head Parameter Specifies the position of the head in relation to its compliments within phrases for different languages Each phrase has a central elements that is called 'Head'; in the case of NP head is a noun, and in the case of VP head is a verb English is a Head-First language because head of the phrase always appears before its compliments whilst Japanese is a Head-Last language because the compliments precede the head inside phrases Example: Ewa kabe ni kakatte imasu (picture wall on is hanging) The picture is hanging on the wall

16. Criticism of UG Theory Linguistically, this approach's primary concern is only syntax Semantics, Pragmatics and discourse are completely excluded UG is concerned exclusively with the developmental linguistic route. Social and psychological variables are ignored UG approach is methodological. The theory is preoccupied with modeling of competence. The study of naturalistic performance is not seen as a suitable source to analyze mental representations of language

17. Transformational Model of Chomsky Deep structure and surface structure In 1957, Noam Chomsky published Syntactic Structures, in which he developed the idea that each sentence in a language has two levels of representation - a deep structure and a surface structure Surface Structure represents the Physical properties of language The deep structure represented the core semantic relations of a sentence, and was mapped on to the surface structure (which followed the phonological form of the sentence very closely) via transformations. Chomsky believed that there would be considerable similarities between languages's deep structures, and that these structures would reveal properties, common to all languages, which were concealed by their surface structures.

18. Transformations had been proposed prior to the development of deep structure as a means of increasing the mathematical and descriptive power of Context-free grammars Deep structure was devised largely for technical reasons relating to early semantic theory Minimalism Chomskyeen Minimalism aims at the further development

of ideas involving economy of derivation and economy of representation in Transformational Theory Economy of derivation is a principle stating that movements (i.e. transformations) only occur in order to match interpretable features with uninterpretable features. Economy of representation is the principle that grammatical structures must exist for a purpose, i.e. the structure of a sentence should be no larger or more complex than required to satisfy constraints on grammaticality

19. An additional aspect of minimalist thought is the idea that the derivation of syntactic structures should be uniform ; that is, rules should not be stipulated as applying at arbitrary points in a derivation, but instead apply throughout derivations Transformations The usual usage of the term 'transformation' in linguistics refers to a rule that takes an input typically called the Deep Structure (in the Standard Theory) or D-structure (in the extended standard theory or government and binding theory) and changes it in some restricted way to result in a Surface Structure (or S-structure) In TGG, Deep structures were generated by a set of phrase structure rules Transformations actually come of two types: (i) the post-Deep structure kind, which are string or structure changing X NP AUX Y X AUX NP Y

20. (ii) Generalized Transformations They take small structures which are either atomic or generated by other rules, and combine them like embedding etc. In the Extended Standard Theory and government and binding theory, GTs were abandoned in favor of recursive phrase structure rules (ii) Generalized Transformations (GTs).

21. Cognitive Theory Main Argument : Language Acquisition must be viewed within the context of a child's intellectual development Linguistic structures will emerge only if there is an already established cognitive foundation Before children can use linguistic structures, they need first to have developed the conceptual ability to make relative judgments Most influential figure : Genevan Psychologist Jean Piaget (1896-1980) who proposed the model of cognitive development Focuses on exploring the links between the stages of cognitive development and language skills The links have been clearly shown for the earliest period of language learning (up to 18 months), relating to the development of what Piaget called 'sensory motor' intelligence, in which children construct a mental picture of a world of objects that have independent existence During the later part of this period, children develop a sense of object permanence and will begin to search for the objects that they have seen hidden

22. Cognitive theory is criticized for: it is highly difficult to show precise correlations between specific cognitive behaviors and linguistic features at the very early stage of language acquisition as the children become linguistically and cognitively more advanced in the course of time

23. Input Theory The studies of Motherese in the 1970's focused upon the maternal input Main Argument: Parents do not talk to their children in the same way as they talk to other adults and seem to be capable of adapting their language to give the child maximum opportunity to interact and learn Main Figure: C. A. Ferguson (1977) The utterances of the parents are considerably and subconsciously simplified especially with respect to grammar and meaning and sentences are shorter The meanings conveyed by mothers are predominantly concrete and there is a more restricted range of sentences

24. Extra information is provided that would be considered unnecessary while talking otherwise Sentences are expanded and paraphrased There is also an expressive and affective element in motherese, manifested in the form of special words and sound; in the form of diminutive and reduplicative words

25. Criticism on Motherese theory It is difficult to show correlations between the features of motherese and the subsequent emergence of these features in child speech More problematic area is to provide evidence about causes of correlations because only occasional correlations have been found between specific linguistic structures, though often with an appreciable gap between the use of a feature by mother and its subsequent use by the child Maternal Input structures are very closely tailored to the needs of the child The child may receive linguistic stimulation from the people other than mother and father.

Linguistic fallacies, or fallacies in the language, are due to the ambiguity of or lack of preciseness in the words or phrases used to express ideas. It is this ambiguity that leads one into making wrong conclusions or inferences.

There are six linguistic fallacies: equivocation, amphiboly or amphibology, accent, composition, division, and figure of speech or parallel-word construction. Composition and division are sometimes treated as one fallacy; we have found a very good discussion on the difference of the two.

1. Equivocation

A fallacy that results from using a word or phrase in more than one sense, playing with a double meaning, or changing the connotation or meaning of a word in the course of the argument, all the while implying the a [sic] the word means exactly the same thing all the way through the argument.

Examples:

- (i) *Only a man can reason. Since Mary is not a man, she cannot reason.*

- (ii) *A plane is a carpenter's tool, and the Boeing 737 is a plane, hence the Boeing 737 is a carpenter's tool.*

2. Amphibology / Amphiboly

A fallacy which is committed by using a statement which allows two interpretations either because of the physical grammatical structure (syntax) of the sentence, or because a word or phrase can have two possible meanings, causing the entire statement to be understood in two different ways.

Examples:

- (i) *That book cannot be understood by a single person.*
(ii) *Save soap and waste paper.*

3. Accent

A fallacy that occurs when emphasis is used to suggest a meaning different from the actual content of the proposition.

Examples:

- (i) *My spouse must be cheating on me -- he told me "I don't really love you now."*
(ii) *"They think it will work." vs. "They think it will work."*

4. Composition

A fallacy characterized by arguing (a) that what is true of each part of a whole is also (necessarily) true of the whole itself, or (b) what is true of some parts is also (necessary) true of the whole itself.

Examples:

- (i) *The human body is made up of atoms, which are invisible. Therefore, the human body is invisible.*
(ii) *A car made from the highest quality part from every other car in the world would be a really great automobile.*

5. Division

A fallacy characterized by arguing that what is true of a whole is (a) also (necessarily) true of its parts and/or (b) also true of some of its parts.

Examples:

- (i) *The community of Pacific Palisades is extremely wealthy. Therefore, every person living there is (must be) extremely wealthy.*
(ii) *People are made out of atoms. People are visible. Therefore, atoms are visible.*

6. Figure of Speech or Parallel-Word Construction

A fallacy characterized by] ambiguities due to the fact that different words in Greek (and in Latin) may have different cases or genders even though the case endings or gender endings are the same. Since this is not widespread in other languages or since it coincides with other fallacies (e.g. equivocation, see above) writers tend to interpret it very broadly.

Examples:

- (i) *"Activists have been labeled as idealists, sadists, anarchists, communists, and just about any name that can come to mind ending in -ist, like samok-ist, saba-ist, bad-ist, and of course, who could forget devil-ist?" (The writer has the unsaid argument that any name ending in -ist is viewed as "trouble-makers" by our society.)*
- (ii) *An introductory book on philosophy has an appendix entitled "List of Isms" the proceeds to list the schools of thought in philosophy. (Not all words that end in -ism is a school of thought: take for example, syllogism.)*

Though the term "applied linguistics" has traditionally been associated with the scientific study of such areas as TESOL, TEFL, TESL, language teaching and learning, applied linguists do a variety of things: The basic idea is, as the definition implies, to contribute to the real-world issues.

(i) Applied linguistics began life in the 1950s as a postgraduate qualification. Its initial target, largely language teaching, has always been practical, policy-oriented. Its preparation at postgraduate level has been multidisciplinary and, as in mathematics, there is a continuing tension between pure (general, theoretical) linguistics and applied linguistics. It does not expect its conclusions to be buttressed with certainty (and it is unclear whether theoretical linguistics or any other social science can expect that, either). For applied linguistics, there is no finality: the problems such as how to assess language proficiency, what is the optimum age to begin a second language, what distinguishes native and non-native speakers, how we can treat memory loss, these problems may find local and temporary solutions but the problems recur. No doubt, once again, the same may be said of theoretical linguistics: whether all grammars are fundamentally one grammar; what the relation is between the sign and the referent; answers are partial, never final--the problems remain."

(ii) "Applied linguistics is an area of work that deals with language use in professional settings, translation, speech pathology, literacy, and language education; and it is not merely the application of linguistic

knowledge to such settings but is a semiautonomous and interdisciplinary... domain of work that draws on but is not dependent on areas such as sociology, education, anthropology, cultural studies, and psychology."

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of study that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, linguistics, psychology, computer science, anthropology, and sociology.

Domain

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field. Major branches of applied linguistics include bilingualism and multilingualism, computer-mediated communication (CMC), conversation analysis, contrastive linguistics, sign linguistics, language assessment, literacies, discourse analysis, language pedagogy, second language acquisition, lexicography, language planning and policy, interlinguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, forensic linguistics and translation. Major journals of the field include *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *Applied Linguistics*, *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, and *Language Learning*.

History

The tradition of applied linguistics established itself in part as a response to the narrowing of focus in linguistics with the advent in the late 1950s of generative linguistics, and has always maintained a socially accountable role, demonstrated by its central interest in language problems.

Although the field of applied linguistics started from Europe and the United States, the field rapidly flourished in the international context.

Applied linguistics first concerned itself with principles and practices on the basis of linguistics. In the early days, applied linguistics was thought as "linguistics-applied" at least from the outside of the field. In the 1960s, however, applied linguistics was expanded to include language assessment, language policy, and second language acquisition. As early as the 1970s, applied linguistics became a problem-driven field rather than theoretical linguistics. Applied linguistics also included solution of language-related problems in the real world. By the 1990s, applied linguistics has broadened including critical studies and multilingualism. Research of applied linguistics was shifted to "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue."

United States

In the United States, applied linguistics also began narrowly as the application of insights from structural linguistics-first to the teaching of English in schools and subsequently to second and foreign language teaching. The linguistics applied approach to language teaching was promulgated most strenuously by Leonard Bloomfield, who developed the foundation for the Army Specialized Training Program, and by Charles C. Fries, who established the English Language Institute (ELI) at the University of Michigan in 1941. In 1948, the Research Club at Michigan established *Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics*, the first journal to bear the term applied linguistics. In the late 1960s, applied linguistics began to establish its own identity as an interdisciplinary field concerned with real-world language issues. The new identity was solidified by the creation of the American Association for Applied Linguistics in 1977.

United Kingdom

The British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) was established in 1967. Its mission is "the advancement of education by fostering and promoting, by any lawful charitable means, the study of language use, language acquisition and language teaching and the fostering of interdisciplinary collaboration in this study [...]"

Australia

Australian applied linguistics took as its target the applied linguistics of mother tongue teaching and teaching English to immigrants. The Australia tradition shows a strong influence of continental Europe and of the USA, rather than of Britain.

Applied Linguistics Association of Australia (ALAA) was established at a national congress of applied linguists held in August 1976.

Japan

In 1982, the Japan Association of Applied Linguistics (JAAL) was established in the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) in order to engage in activities on a more international scale. In 1984, JAAL became an affiliate of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA).

Definitions

Applied linguistics is not easy to define because people would think of many things when it comes to applied linguistics. In fact, those who practice applied linguistics do not agree upon a certain definition. Therefore, there is a gap that needs to be filled in terms of defining applied linguistics. The definition problem is due to the lack of agreement on what is that to be applied?" A mediation between theory

and practice "as Kaplan and Widdowson," a synthesis from a variety of disciplines including linguistics" as Hudson said, "presupposition of linguistics because a person cannot apply what he does not know" as Corder implied.

In addition, an extreme area of applied linguistics that is called critical applied linguistics highlights the following concerns and issues like identity, ethics, disparity, desire and the reproduction of otherness that have not been up to now considered to be connected to applied linguistics. What have been mentioned is an attempt to use applied linguistics concerns and activities to explain and analyze what applied linguistics methods and purposes are. This is called the ostensive definition approach.

These ostensive views have a problem because they really do not help in creating syllabuses in applied linguistics and they do not help in determining what things that are needed to be included in the profession. Those who argue for a dictionary definition believed that applied linguistics has a core do not accept ostensive definitions. For example, Widdowson claims that applied linguistics has got a core and he rejects the claim that says that applied linguistics is a mixture of many disciplines.

Widdowson and Cook believed that "the task of applied linguistics is to mediate between linguistics and language use". Another definition of applied linguistics by Guy Cook is "the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in that real world". However, the scope of applied linguistics is still not clear. He tried to create boarder lines to the areas of concern in applied linguistics as consisting of language and education, language, work and law and language, information and effect. The most important thing is that applied linguistics must be protected from the claim that says that language is everywhere, then applied linguistics is the science of everything.

Source and Target

An important question that must be asked that is what the sources of applied linguistics are. Of course, it is obvious that once applied linguistics is mentioned, the first thing that comes to a person's mind is simply linguistics. This because applied linguistics is associated with linguistics. However, linguistics is not the only source that applied linguistics takes from. Although, linguistics plays an important role in applied linguistics, applied linguistics has other sources such as psychology, sociology, education, measurement theory and so on. Another important question is what the target of applied linguistics is. It is clear that the main target of applied linguistics has to do with language teaching. In addition, language teaching includes speech therapy, translation and language planning. By accepting the following

working definition that is, "applied linguistics is the theoretical and empirical investigation of real - world problems in which language is the central issue". These real - world problems include the following failure and success, ability and disability, ethical and cultural, gender issues, technology and lack of resources, difficulty and simplicity and child and adult.

Emergence of the term Applied Linguistics

In 1948, there was a journal, which was founded in Michigan University and called Language Learning. This journal was the first journal that carried the term-applied linguistics. It was mentioned in an article, which was called Language learning in 1967. However, the term-applied linguistics meant the application of linguistics. One of the editors has emphasized the wide range of theories and research methods that are used to investigate language studies in 1993. However, doing this cost a price which is abandoning the term applied linguistics. In here, the editor wanted to give his own interpretation of applied linguistics because he thought that the reader of the journal would understand a journal of research in language studies as a functional interpretation of applied linguistics.

Restriction of the Scope

During the 1960s and 1970, it was taken for granted that applied linguistics was about language teaching. This was important because there was a need for language teaching especially English after the Second World War. This showed that a number of teachers, trainers and supervisors lacked language knowledge. It is accepted that applied linguistics is trying to solve language problems that people encounter in the real world. Then, the scope of applied linguistics should not be restricted to language teaching only. In fact, the scope should be broadening to cover language acquisition either the mother tongue or a target language, psych/neuro linguistics, sociolinguistics and so on.

Solution of terminology problem

Corder suggested the idea that applied linguistics in only restricted to language teaching. This idea was open to criticism because applied linguistics is opened to other sources like education, psychology, sociology and so on. Spolsky argued that applied linguistics is educational linguistics. Other scientists believed that applied linguistics cover an area wider than language teaching. Each educational institution in America, Europe and Australia gives a course in linguistics analysis in terms of applied linguistics curriculum. These courses are about sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics or second language acquisition.

Conclusion

The problem about applied linguistics is that it is not a common one among applied disciplines. Applied linguistics has emerged in the 1950s and its main target is language teaching. Applied linguistics has no limits because it assesses language proficiency issues, what is the appropriate age of starting teaching and learning a second language, memory loss and so on. The solution of such problems are local and for the present time. Therefore, applied linguistics is a need because it is applied on different societies that face the mentioned problems.

It is clear that English played an important role in developing applied linguistics. The contribution of the English language to the development of applied linguistics is due to the domination of the English language in terms of politics and economics. All applied fields disciplines develop because of the need to provide training in newly appearing technical and professional occupation. This implies that the relationship between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics should put applied linguistics in the first position and theoretical linguistics in the second position. By this sequence, theoretical linguistics will respond to the questions raised by applied linguistics. For example, if a problem is faced in the area of error analysis, the reference will be second language acquisition.

Unit-III

The word 'Linguistics' has been derived from Latin lingua (tongue) and istics (knowledge or science). Etymologically, therefore, linguistics is the scientific study of language. But it is the study not of one particular language but of human language in general. It studies language as a universal and recognizable part of human behaviour. It attempts to describe and analyze language. The field of linguistics comprises understanding of the place of language in human life, the ways in which it is organized to fulfil the needs it serves, and the functions it performs.

So linguistics is that science which studies the origin, organisation, nature and development of language descriptively, historically, comparatively and explicitly, and formulates the general rules related to language. Diachronic (historical) linguistics studies the development of language through history, through time, for example, the way in which French and Italian have evolved from Latin. Synchronic linguistics investigates how the people speak and use language in a given speech community at a given time. In Comparative linguistics one is concerned with comparing two or more different languages.

Linguistics, therefore, is the science that describes and classifies languages. The linguist identifies and describes the units and patterns of the sound system, the words and morphemes, and the phrases and sentences, that is the structure of language, as completely, accurately, and economically as possible.

Linguistic Levels

By 'linguistic levels' is meant the levels of language structure. There is a considerable difference among the linguisticians about the number and terminology of linguistic levels. Robert Ball (1969 : 32) recommends three levels-phonology (phonemics-phonetics), morphology and syntax. R.H. Robins (1971 : 11) mentions phonology, grammar and semantics. Hockett (1973: 137 - 138) advocates the following five levels which he calls subsystems:

- (i) *The grammatical system: a stock of morphemes, and the arrangements in which they occur;*
- (ii) *The phonological system: a stock of phonemes, and the assignments in which they occur;*
- (iii) *The morphophonemic system: the code which ties together the grammatical and the phonological system;*
- (iv) *The phonemic system: the ways in which sequences of phonemes are converted into sound waves by the articulation of a speaker, and are decoded from the speech signal by a hearer;*
- (v) *The semantic system: which associates various morphemes, and arrangements in which morphemes can be put, with things and situations, or kinds of things and situations.*

Hockett calls the first three of the above "central" subsystems, and the last two "peripheral" subsystems.

Such a labelling of names, however, should not lead one to confusion. There are no basic differences about the structure of language. Such a classification is done by the linguist for the sake of convenience in the study of the subject-matter, i.e. language which is a complex phenomenon. All these levels are inter-related aspects of his subject-matter, quite often over-lapping. Any separation or classification should not be treated as rigid or opaque. A linguist has to describe human language, and human beings do not use just one level of it at a time.

There are three aspects of language activity, or three types of pattern in language, the material, the structural and the environmental leading to three separate linguistic levels-SUBSTANCE, FORM AND CONTEXT. "The substance is the raw material of language; auditory' (PHONIC substance) or visual (GRAPHIC substance). The form is the

organization, the internal structure, it is grammar + lexis. The context is the relationship between form and situation, which we call meaning (Semantics). The linguistic science has to explain language at all these levels. These levels are explained below:

(i) **Phonetics:** Phonetics is the study of speech processes including the anatomy, neurology and pathology of speech, the articulation, classification and perception of speech sounds. Phonetics is a pure science and need not be studied in relation to a particular language, but it has many practical applications; e.g. in phonetic transcription, language teaching, speech therapy, communications engineering. Some phoneticians consider phonetics to be outside the central core of linguistics proper, but most would include it under the heading 'linguistic science.' The linguistic aspects of phonetics, i.e., the study of sound systems of particular languages is part of phonology.

The study of phonetics can be divided into three main branches, **ARTICULATORY PHONETICS**, the study of the movement of the speech organs in the articulation of speech, **ACOUSTIC PHONETICS**, the study of the physical properties of speech sounds such as frequency and amplitude in their transmission, and **AUDITORY PHONETICS**, the study of hearing and the perception of speech sounds.

Laboratory Phonetics-Experimental phonetics or instrumental phonetics are general terms for phonetic studies which involve the use of mechanical and electronic apparatus. Several sophisticated instruments are used in modern times for this purpose.

Phonetics Substance-Phonetic substance, as opposed to the visual or graphic material of written language, refers to the auditory aspects or sound features of spoken language, as studied by articulatory, acoustic and auditory phonetics.

Phonology-Phonology is the study of speech sounds of a given language and their function within the sound system of that language. It covers both phonemics (synchronic phonology) and diachronic phonology (sound changes in the history of a given language). So phonology is the functional phonetics of a particular language, and is of great help in the learning of that language.

(ii) **Grammatical Level-**Grammatical level comprises of (a) **SYNTAX**, and (b) **MORPHOLOGY**.

(a) **Syntax-**Syntax is that branch of grammar which is concerned with the study of the arrangement of words in sentences and of the means by which such relations as inflexion, word order, etc., are shown. It is the grammar of sentence.

(b) **Morphology-**Morphology is that part of syntax or grammar which is concerned with the study and analysis of the structure, form and classes of words. It includes not only synchronic studies

(morphemics), but also the history and development of word-forms (diachronic morphology). Morphology is the grammar of word.

(iii) **Semantics**-Semantics is the study of meaning and its manifestation in language. Formerly meaning was studied under philosophy and logic. But now it has become a part of the linguistic study. Its smallest unit is "sememe", the minimum functional unit of meaning. But sememe cannot be established with the same type of precision as phonemes, morphemes, and syntactic units.

Is Linguistics A Science?

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Like all other sciences linguistics has a well-defined subject matter viz. natural languages living or dead; it employs careful methods to observe, record and analyse the various phenomena related to its subject matter and hopes to present unprejudiced, objective and verifiable descriptions. The approach and methodology of linguistics is scientific. It is as inductive as a science could be, and is based on observations, formation of hypothesis, testing, verification, tentativeness and predictiveness. Like a scientist a linguist observes his data. Some of his methods of observation include simple listening, phonetic transcription, and the use of various instrument, such as oscillograph, soundspectograph, kymograph, chromograph mingograph, laryngoscope, endoscope, sonograph, autophonoscope, breathing flask, strobolaryngoscope, electric vocal tract, pitchmeter intesitymeter, speechstretcher, formant graphing machine, etc. Records and cassettes made in these ways help in various kinds of objective description. A linguist has his language laboratory too.

Again, like a scientist a linguist develops hypotheses, makes generalized statements and tests them against the fact of languages. When a linguist or a phonetician makes a statement about languages, he makes it on the basis of observation. First he observes linguistic events. He finds some similarities and contrasts on the basis of which he makes sound generalizations. On the basis of these generalizations hypotheses are formulated to account for the events. These are tested by further observations, and out of them is constructed a theory of how language works. From the theory are derived methods for making statements about linguistic events. The statements link the theory to the events it is set up to account for, and they can now be evaluated by reference both to the theory and to the events; the best statements are those which make maximum use of the theory to account most fully for the facts.

The linguist also hopes to be in position to make prediction about unobserved linguistic data on the basis of those observed, and build a general theory which would explain and relate all the facts to be found in individual languages. Predictions about grammars and dictionaries can be made by him. And finally like a true scientist, he is constantly engaged in discovering more about languages in refining his methods of

investigation, and in constructing better theories. He also tries to find out linguistic universals.

Like any scientific discipline, linguistics too is not static. Viewpoints and theoretical methods in the field, change even in fundamental ways from time to time, and different aspects come to receive primary focus at different times. Linguistics has more than its share of unresolved controversies and unsolved questions, which is a part of its fascination and challenge.

Finally, the closeness of Linguistics with other natural sciences like mathematics, physics, physiology, biology, zoology, etc., is another proof of its scientific nature. 'It touches on physics through acoustics, on physiology through the structure of the human vocal organs, on zoology through the comparative study of the communicative systems of living beings.' A glance on any book on transformational-generative grammar would convince any objective onlooker how linguistics is becoming more and more scientific. Furthermore, as mentioned by R.H. Robins, linguistics in its operations and statements is guided by three canons of science: (1) exhaustiveness, the adequate treatment of all the relevant material (2) consistency, the absence of contradiction between different parts of the total statement, and within the limits imposed by the two preceding principles; and (3) economy, whereby, other things being equal, a shorter statement or analysis employing fewer terms is to be preferred to one that is longer or more involved. Consequently, linguistics is getting more and more technical and sophisticated every day. Yet it is not a pure science. Its position, says R.A. Hall, is between the natural and social sciences, like that of geology. To Robins it is an 'empirical science', and within the empirical sciences it is one of the social sciences', because its subject matter concerns human beings and is very much different from that of natural sciences.

Nevertheless, linguistics is the scientific study of language. It may be inductive or deductive; it is, however, objective, precise, tentative and systematic; it is concerned with reportable facts, methods, and principles; it works by means of observations, hypotheses, experiments and tests, postulates, and inferences; it makes generalization and predictions; it formulates theories; its products are descriptive, verbal or algebraic statements about language.

Keeping in view the interdisciplinary relationship between Linguistics and other branches of knowledge with which it is associated David Crystal has explained various types of linguistics, each type named after the branch of knowledge with which it is connected or on whose method and concepts it bases its conclusions. These types, as enumerated by Crystal are as follows:

(i) **Anthropological Linguistics:** The study of language variation and use in relation to the cultural patterns and beliefs of the human race, as investigated using the theories and methods of anthropology.

(ii) **Applied Linguistics:** The application of linguistic theories, methods, and findings to the elucidation of language problems that have arisen in other domains. The term is especially used with reference to the field of foreign language learning and teaching, but it applies equally to several other fields, such as stylistics, lexicography, translation, and language planning, as well as to the clinical and educational fields below.

(iii) **Biological Linguistics:** The study of the biological conditions for language development and use in human beings, with reference both to the history of language in the human race and to child development.

(iv) **Clinical Linguistics:** The application of linguistic theories and methods to the analysis of disorders of spoken, written, or signed language.

(v) **Computational Linguistics:** The study of language using the techniques and concepts of computer science, especially with reference to the problems posed by the fields of machine translation, information retrieval, and artificial intelligence.

(vi) **Educational Linguistics:** The application of linguistic theories and methods to the study of the teaching and learning of a language (especially a first language) in schools and other educational settings.

(vii) **Ethnolinguistics :** The study of language in relation to ethnic types and behaviours, especially with reference to the way social interaction proceeds.

(viii) **Geographical Linguistics:** The study of the regional distribution of languages and dialects, seen in relation to geographical factors in the environment.

(ix) **Mathematical Linguistics:** The study of the mathematical properties of language, using concepts from such fields as algebra, computer science, and statistics.

(x) **Neurolinguistics :** The study of the neurological basis of language development and use human beings, especially of the brain's control over the processes of speech and understanding.

(xi) **Philosophical Linguistics:** The study of the role of language in the elucidation of philosophical concepts, and of the philosophical status of linguistic theories, methods, and observations.

(xii) **Psycholinguistics** : The study of the relationship between linguistics behaviour and the psychological processes (e.g. memory, attention) thought to underline it.

(xiii) **Sociolinguistics**: The study of the interaction between language and the structure and functioning of society.

(xiv) **Statistical Linguistics**: The study of the statistical or quantitative properties of language.

(xv) **Theolinguistics** : The study of the languages used by biblical scholars, theologians, and others involved in the theory and practice of religious belief.

Descriptive, Historical and Comparative Linguistics

General linguistics includes a number of related subjects involved in the study of language as understood in the preceding paragraphs. General linguistics can broadly be divided into three sub-divisions-descriptive linguistics, historical linguistics and comparative linguistics.

1. Descriptive linguistics is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given set of speakers at a given time. The time may be present. The time may equally well be the past, where adequate written records are available. Nor is the descriptive study of a particular language concerned with the description of other languages at the same time. Descriptive linguistics is often regarded as the major part of general linguistics, and certainly the fundamental aspect of the study of language.

2. Historical linguistics is the study of developments in languages in the course of time. It is the diachronic study of the language. It studies language change, and the causes and results of such changes as have occurred from time to time.

3. Comparative linguistics is concerned with comparing from one or more points of view two or more different languages. Comparative linguistics traces the evolution of language and, by comparing one with another, establishes the relationships between them. This comparison is generally done between the languages which are genetically related, that is, those that have developed from some common source.

Comparative and historical linguistics may be said to have begun in 1786, the date when Sir William Jones made the famous statement pointing out that Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Celtic and Germanic appeared to have sprung from a common source. The old name for the subject was Comparative Philology.

The distinction synchrony and diachrony refers to the difference in treating language from different points of view. When we take a

synchronic point of view, we are looking at a language as we find it at a given period in time. The diachronic point of view, on the other hand, gives us the historical angle; we look at a language over a period of time along with changes that occurred in it. The principles that introduce this dichotomy enable us to obtain 'particularly accurate information about a language in its current usage'. The synchronic linguistics studies how a language works at a given time, regardless of its past history or future blueprint. This has also been called descriptive linguistics.

Though the historical character of a language cannot be ignored, its present form being the result of definite historical processes, changes and transformations, it is necessary for a complete understanding of it to concentrate on the units of its structure at present moment. Some scholars do not see the two approaches apart : "It is a mistake to think of descriptive and historical linguistics as two separate compartments, each bit of information belonging exclusively in the one or in the other. There are certain matters at a given time and also in connection with linguistic change".

However, on the whole the two areas are kept apart and one is studied to the exclusion of the other.

Linguistic studies in the nineteenth century were historical in character; they originated as part of the general historical investigations into the origins and development of cultures and communities, especially West Asia, Egypt and India. Such philological researches viewed language at different stages of its progress and attempted to understand relations among different languages. Language families were discovered and genetic affinities identified. Diachronic linguistics was a great discovery of the 19th century, 'which developed so powerfully and fruitfully from the 1820s to the 1880s (in Bopp, Grimm and Diez). This discovery enabled linguistics to explain modern languages as a result of law-governed historical development. The task, therefore, of linguistic study was at that time understood exclusively in genetic terms, in the spirit of the Neogrammarian's diachronic atomism.

On a closer look one realises that without a good synchronic (descriptive) work, valid historical (diachronic) postulations are not possible; in other words, a good historical linguist needs to be thorough descriptive scholar too.

The term I. C. Analysis, immediate constituent analysis, was introduced by the United States linguist Leonard Bloomfield in 1933 in his book *Language*. At that time there was a common assumption that

the understanding of the meaning of any sentence depends on the understanding the meaning of each word of that sentence and nothing more than that. He was found opposing this widespread opinion when he uttered that we could not understand the forms of a language if we merely reduced all the complex forms to their ultimate constituents, i.e., morphemes. I.C. Analysis was completely unknown before the doth century and traditional grammarians had only a limited conception of phrases and never developed a clear notion of constituency. (A constituent is any word or construction that enters into some larger constitution) Bloomsfield laid emphasis on describing any complex form in both the way in the terms of immediate constituent form and also the grammatical features by which these forms are arranged.

Hence I.C. Analysis, immediate constituent analysis may be understood as a system of grammatical analysis that divides every sentence into its successive layers, or constituents, until, in the final layer, each constituent consists of only a word or morpheme. It is the exhaustive analysis of a sentence into a series of immediate constituents, all the way down to the individual words or meaningful part of a word, i.e., morphemes which are its ultimate constituents, particularly when such analysis is regarded as displaying the fundamental syntactic structure of the sentence. For example, in the sentence "The old man fell down", the first division into immediate constituents would be between "the old man" and "fell down". The immediate constituents of "the old man" are 'the' and 'old man'. At the next level 'old man' is divided into 'old' and 'man'.

Segmentation of I.C. Analysis

Charles Hokett observes that "morphemes rather than words, are the elementary boilding blocks of language in its grammatical aspects and accordingly if we try to analyze poor fellow ran away, it will be read in the below mentioned way.

Poor ||| fellow | run ||| ed || a ||| way.

This order of segmentation has been made in the following manner:

- (i) As soon as we analyzed that the two major constituents are poor felow and ran away, we placed a vertical bar between fellow and run.
- (ii) Now the turn of next bigger constituent comes and that is ran away as it has four morphemes. Now run-ed and a-way-put two vertical lines between them.
- (iii) Divide the remaining constituents into two each by placing three lines between poor and fellow; run and eel; and a and way.

This segmentation can also be done with the help of brackets that are known as Chinese boxes:

Chinese Boxes

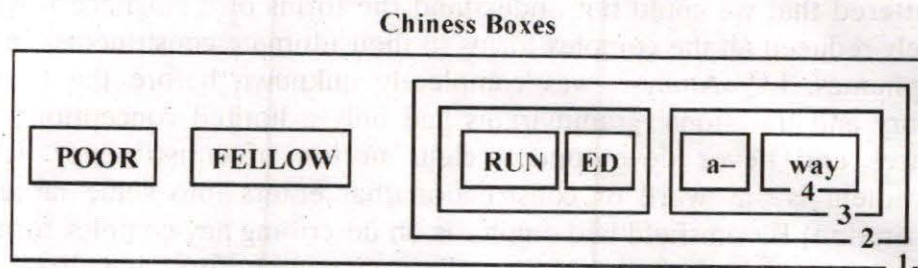


Fig. :

Another way of segmentation is through tree diagram which is considered to be the easiest one. Because of its neat and Clean division and unambiguous usage it is the most widely used among all the devices.

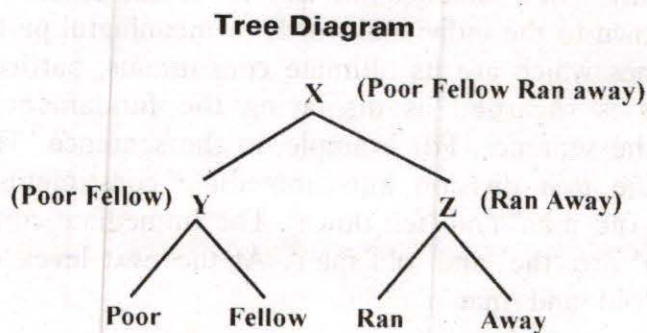


Fig. :

I. C. Analysis has a significant place in the realm of linguistics. Prior to it, a sentence was seen as a 'string' of elements. Its emphasis on viewing a sentence as hierarchical organization of grammatical rules formed the basis of syntactic analysis. It also put forward the notion that it is the morpheme, and not the word, which is the ultimate grammatical constituent.

Advantages of I.C. Analysis

(A) **Identification of the Layers of Relationship in a Construction:** I.C. analysis puts forward the layers of relationship in a construction. The foundation of English syntax is on the ability of structures to function within larger structures, which are, in turn, serving other functions in still larger, more complex structures (sentences). Composing a more complex sentence such as, The pretty girl put on her red and black coat kissed her mother and left. Demonstrates the nature of relationship that must be negotiated if a hearer or a reader is to

understand such a sentence. Truly speaking, anyone who is capable of understanding the meaning of the sentence obviously has the mental capacity to keep all those relationships afloat as he hears or reads the sentence.

(B) Fixity of Word Order: In I.C. analysis the word order is not disturbed in any way. This advantage may be best demonstrated by sorting the relationship established in the following sentences which are composed of the same words but which have different word order:

1. The girl played marbles on her knees.
2. The girl on her knees played marbles.
3. On her knees the girl played marbles.

These sentences may be said to be stylistically different. In the first, the prepositional phrase "on her knees" modifies the verb phrase; in the second, it modifies the noun phrase; in the third it modifies all the rest of the sentence. Yet in the word order within the structure "on her knees" does not change.

Limitations of I. C. Analysis

(1) At times, it becomes very difficult to analyse the sentences in the I.C. way, as in some of the cases, it is not clear where the cut should be made. For examples, it is very difficult to be sure that professional men and women is to be divided as 'professional men' + 'women' or 'professional' + 'men and women'.

(2) I.C. Analysis puts forward a binary approach to the study of syntax. But the problem is that in many of the cases a piece of language cannot be divided into two parts because the elements that belong together are separated in sequence. For example, in put your heads together it is difficult to make a single cut because put and together are the constituents of the constitute put together but they are separated by the noun phrase your heads.

(3) It is also to be seen that dividing a sentence into ICs does not, in itself, provide much information because IC analysis does not give us detailed information about grammatical identity. It also doesn't give idea about the identity of the sentences that they are statements or question; active or passive.

In order to have a detailed idea about sentence patterns one must be well acquainted with the basic ingredients that create a sentence. Before beginning with sentence patterns let's have a look on the ways

to identify subjects, verbs, and clause connectors so that you can analyze your writing style and improve it by using a variety of sentence patterns.

Subjects, Verbs, and Clauses

In its simplest or basic form, an English sentence has two parts: a subject and a verb that express a complete thought when they are together.

- The subject shows who or what is doing the action. It is always some form of noun or pronoun.
- The verb shows the action or the state of being. It can be an action verb, like "play," or a state verb, like "seem."

Examples of simple two 'word sentences include:

- Maria slept.
- Dogs bark.
- Isotopes react.

Rarely sentences are so short. We usually want to convey much more information, so we modify the main subject and verb with other words and phrases, as in the sentences below:

- Unfortunately, Maria slept fitfully:
- Dogs bark louder after midnight.
- Heavy isotopes react slower than light isotopes of the same element.

Despite the extra information, each of these sentences has one subject and one verb, so it's still just one clause. The question arises what's a clause?

A clause should be understood in contrast with the phrase as they both signify a group of words but in the former we find that there is the combination of a subject and a verb whereas there is no clear-cut subject and verb in a phrase.

To understand it in detail, let's observe the below mentioned sentences.

He has a chain which is of gold. (clause)

He has a chain of silver. (phrase)

Clause can be divided into two parts:

(1) **Independent clause** : combination of a subject and a verb that make a complete thought. Independent clauses are called independent because they can stand on their own and make a complete sense.

(2) **Dependent clause:** combination of a subject and a verb that don't make a complete thought. In order to convey complete sense dependent clauses always need to be attached to an independent clause.

Something tricky

Before moving on to the sentence types, we should know a little trick of subjects and verbs: they can double up in the same clause. These are called "compound" subjects or verbs because there are two or more of them in the same clause.

Compound subject (two subjects related to the same verb) :

- John and his colleagues collaborated on the research article.

Compound verb (two verbs related to the same subject) :

- John conducted the experiment and documented the results.

Compound subject with compound verb:

- John, his colleagues, and their advisor drafted and revised the article several times.

Here the point to be noticed is that they don't overlap. You can tell that it's only one clause because all of the subjects in one clause come before all of the verbs in the same clause.

In many cases sentences are the combination of subject + verb + object.

Subject	Verb	Object
The subject of the sentence:	What does the subject do?	What or who is the action done to or for?
who or what the sentence is about	(The infinitive form of all verbs begins with "to" to..... (some action) (or a Verb Phrase) If the root form of the word fits after "to" and makes sense, it's a verb. (to eat, to walk)	The object of the action of the verb can be either direct or indirect. Or it can be an objective (pre(ositional) phrase. The object represents to whom the action takes place....
Noun or a Pronoun	Action or State of being (to be)	Noun or Pronoun

Four Basic Patterns

Every sentence pattern below describes a different way to combine clauses. While drafting your own papers try to go for sentence variety, try to determine how many of these patterns you use. If you favor one particular pattern, your writing might appear boring if every sentence has exactly the same pattern, If you find this is true, try to revise a few sentences using a different pattern.

Note: Because nouns can fill so many positions in a sentence, it's easy to analyze sentence patterns if you find the verbs and find the connectors.

In the descriptions below, S = Subject and V = Verb, and options for arranging the clauses in each sentence pattern given in parentheses. Connecting words and the associated punctuation are highlighted in brown. Notice how the punctuation changes with each arrangement.

Pattern 1 : Simple Sentence

One independent clause (SV.)

- Mr. Pintoo eats chips.
- I refuse.

Pattern 2 : Compound Sentence

Two or more independent clauses. Their arrangement can be in these ways: (SV. and SV.) or (SV; however, SV.)

Connectors with a comma: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.

Connectors with a semicolon and comma: however, moreover, nevertheless, nonetheless, therefore.

Example of compound sentences :

- Mr. Pintoo eats chips for breakfast every day, but I don't see the attraction.
- Eating them makes him happy; however, he can't persuade me.

Pattern 3 : Complex Sentence

One independent clause PLUS one or more dependent clauses. They can be arranged in the following ways: (SV because SV.) or (Because SV, SV.) or (S, because SV, V.)

Connectors are always at the beginning of the dependent clause because they show how the dependent clause is related to the independent clause. This below mentioned list shows different types of relationships alongwith the connectors that indicate those relationships:

Cause/Effect: because, since, so that

Comparison/Contrast: although; even though, though, whereas, while

Place/Manner : how, however, where, wherever

Possibility/Conditions: if, whether, unless

Relation : that, which, who, whom

Time: after, as, before, since, when, whenever, while, until

Examples of complex sentences:

- He likes them highly because they taste like chicken when they are hot.
- Although chicken always appeals to him, he still feel skeptical about monkey.
- Mrs. Pintoo, because she loves us so much, has offered to make her special tomato soup for us.

Pattern 4 : Compound-Complex Sentence

Two or more independent clauses PLUS one or more dependent clauses. They can be arranged in these ways: (SV, and SV because SV.) or (Because SV, SV, but SV.)

Connectors: All of the connectors listed under Patterns 2 & 3 are used. Find the connectors, then find the verbs and subjects that are part of each clause.

- Mr. Pinto said that he would share the secret recipe; however, if he shares it with me, Mrs. Pinto will feed him to the piranhas, so he is safer, and I am happier if I don't eat monkeys or steal recipes.

From another perspective we can divide SENTENCE PATTERNS in the following manner too.

1. **SUBJECT - VERB :**

He writes.

I go.

You know.

2. **SUBJECT - VERB OBJECT :**

I write a letter.

He goes to school.

Dogs frighten mice.

3. **SUBJECT - VERB - INDIRECT OBJECT - DIRECT OBJECT:**

He gave me a pen.

Mary baked Fred a cake.

4. **There- VERB. SUBJECT:**

There have been objections.

5. **AUXILIARY - SUBJECT VERB?**

- Do dogs bark in the distance?
6. **AUXILIARY SUBJECT VERB OBJECT?**
Have mice ever frightened dogs?
 7. **AUXILIARY SUBJECT VERB - INDIRECT OBJECT - DIRECT OBJECT?**
Will Maria bake Fred a cake?
 8. **OBJECT - AUXILIARY - SUBJECT - VERB ?**
What did the mice frighten?
 9. **VERB- there- SUBJECT?**
Were there any problems?
 10. **AUXILIARY- there - VERB SUBJECT?**
Have there been any problems?

Common patterns of commands (imperative sentences) are derived from the first three statement patterns.

Many exclamatory sentences are also derived from patterns of statements.

There have been a hundred problems!

Maria baked Fred a cake!

Such Sentences as the following, usually take an exclamation point:

How many objections there were!

What a cake Maria baked Fred!

A sentence pattern such as the following may be a statement, a question or an exclamation:

Mice Frighten dogs.

Mice frighten dogs?

Mice frighten dogs!

The term "systemic" is based on the word SYSTEM. But here the point to be kept in mind is that 'systemic' is not the same thing as 'systematic'; the term is used because the fundamental concept in the grammar is that of the 'system'. A system is a set of options with an entry condition; that is to say, a set of things of which one must be selected, together with a statement of the conditions under which the choice is accessible. The term systemic in its technical sense is defined by Firth (1957) as the theoretical representation of paradigmatic relations, contrasted with STRUCTURE for syntagmatic relations. However, in Firth's system-structure theory, neither of these is given priority; and in scale-&-category grammar this viewpoint was

maintained. In systemic theory the system takes priority; the most abstract representation at any level is in exemplary terms.

Hence, systemic analysis or systemics is a theory of language centered on the notion of language function. It goes in contrast with the structural approaches to language description as systemics places the functions of language as primary, as a fundamental property of language itself (Halliday & Hasan 1985: 17). It seeks to understand what it is that language does and how it accomplishes it. More generally, systemics looks at how language acts upon and is constrained by the social context in which it functions.

It is an approach which views language as a strategic, meaning making resource. It focuses on the analysis of authentic, everyday texts, and raises a question on both the aspects as how people use language to make meanings, and how language itself is organized or arranged to facilitate those meanings to be made.

Systemics got cultivated out of the work of J. R. Firth, but it was through his student, M. A. K. Halliday, that it was comprehensively developed and refined to its current form. Halliday's contribution in this respect has been hailed as "the most important development of the ideas within the so-called 'London School' of linguistics" (Butler 1985: 1) He developed the theory in the early sixties (seminal paper, Halliday 1961), based in England, and moved to Australia in the Seventies, establishing the department of linguistics at the University of Sydney.

Systemics initiated with Firth's attempt to develop a model to relate language function and context. To attain this, he put forward an outline based on the concept of the system, defined as an "enumerated set of choices in a specific context" (Kress 1976: xiii). With this two sets of contexts for any item came forward: the context of the possible choices in the system under consideration, and the surrounding background in which the system itself occurred.

In a clausal structure such as S (subject) P (predicator), for example, there is a system which operates at P. This system opens a set of options which are possible alternatives in that state. Clearly, the structural configuration confines the choices that can be made since only intransitive verbs are permitted in the P position. If, however, the structural configuration were to be altered to S P C (complement), the system comprising only intransitive verbal elements at P will be no longer applicable. An altered context, hence, gives rise to a system applicable in that context, and the description of such a system depends on the statement of the context in which it occurs. In this way, the concept of the system gradually took on an increasingly important status in Halliday's successive revisions of the Firthian model.

Early Stage of Systemic Analysis (Scale and category)

The most elaborative account of Halliday's early thoughts on linguistic theorizing can be found in Halliday (1961). In this paper, he has put forward four grammatical categories (unit, structure, class, and system) and three scales (rank, exponence, and delicacy) which relate to them.

The unit category, as launched in an earlier paper by Halliday (1956: 36), is "that category to which corresponds a segment of the linguistic material about which statements are to be made: The units initially recommended by Halliday were those of the sentence, clause, group, word, and morpheme (Halliday 1961: 58). The sentence, as a unit of orthography, afterwards came to be substituted by the clause complex, thereby differentiating the units of grammar from those of orthography. Units are organized hierarchically on a rank scale in such a manner that a unit of a particular rank consists of one or more units next below. The rank-based theory underlines an important opinion firmly held by Halliday-total accountability-which requires every item to be accounted for at all positions. Total accountability; therefore, resist an analysis of an answer such as (2) as a sentence consisting of a single morpheme. Rather, it would be considered as a sentence consisting of a single clause which itself comprises a single group containing a single word and which, in turn, consists of a single, morpheme (Butler 1985 : 17):

1. Did the group win?
2. Yes.

Structure is "the category set up to account for likeness between events, in successively" (Halliday 1961: 59). It describes the patterns of syntagmatic relations at the grammatical level and captures the similarities between them. (3) and (4), for example: are structurally identical in that both comprise the four basic elements of clause, structure, labelled as S (subject), P (predicator), C (complement), and A (adjunct):

3. [Jane]_s [kicked]_p [the dog]_c [rather violently]_A
4. [His father]_s [was]_p [ill]_c [yesterday]_A

As noted, the relation between structure and rank can be seen in how each element of clause structure allows only a specific group of items to work in that position. The P component, for example, is that element which works only in the verb group. The level of delicacy, in comparison, refers to "the degree of detail in which a structure is specified" (Butler 1985: 19), and where this is required, Halliday is careful to distinguish primary from secondary structures. The former contains the minimum number of elements required to account for the operation of a given unit. The elements of S, P, C, and A for the clause structure and their various combinations demonstrate primary structures.

Secondary structures are more detailed (or delicate) in differentiate units of the same rank. The S element, for example, can be treated at secondary delicacy as being either a full or empty subject.

The category of class is "that grouping of members of a given unit which is defined by operation in the structure of the unit next above" (Halliday 1961: 64). How this relates to Halliday's model can be seen in the P element of the clause structure for the group unit, there is a verbal class which has the prospective for occurring in the P position. Class takes into account the "paradigmatic possibilities associated with particular elements of structure" (Butler 1985: 24). The paradigmatic possibilities themselves demonstrate the extent of exponence. Using clause structure again, the items which represent (or expound) the S element are members of the nominal class of the group unit, such as *The old woman* and *Everyone in the hall* in (5) and (6) below. Exponence relations therefore "relate terms in systems, units, classes and structures and allow the analysis to achieve maximum generalization" (Butler 1985 : 28).

5. *The old woman has spent fifty pounds during the last fortnight.*
6. *Everyone in the hall would have made their excuses immediately.*

The final grammatical category, system, is set up to report for "the occurrence of one rather than another from among a number of like events" (Halliday 1961: 67). Specifically, a system is a set of terms with these characteristics (Halliday 1961: 54) :

- The number of terms is finite: they can be listed as ABCD, and all other items E..... are outside the system;
- Each term is exclusive of all the others: a given term A cannot be identical with B or C or D;
- If a new term is added to the system this changes the meaning of all the other terms.

Criticism of the Initial Theory

This scale and category linguistics received several criticisms shortly after it was introduced. Linguists like Matthews pointed out confusion for the model where rank and total accountability were concerned. Since "and" can be used to join two clauses together, and since, according to Halliday's rank scale, sentences consist of clauses, then by the principle of total accountability, "and" can also be regarded as a clause. This, however, is complicated by the fact that "and" not only joins clauses but other stretches of language as well, from single nouns to parts of clauses. Matthews's criticism and the opinion of others like him forced Halliday to concede that words such as "and", "or", "but", etc, are able to float between ranks and so lie "outside the scope of the total accountability requirement" (Butler 1985; 30).

Other criticisms against Halliday's model involved the categories of class and structure as well as the taxonomic character of the model. The last opposition is a particularly severe one, signifying that the model merely provides taxonomic labels in analysing structures "rather than predicting in an explicit manner exactly what strings of elements constitute the possible grammatical sentences of a language" (Butler 1985: 38). It further indicates the urgent need for the model to be revised.

And with this the process of revision and betterment got initiated.

Reevaluation Leading Towards Systemics

Halliday's early scale and category linguistics steadily led to a more focused approach in his speculation of language description. One paper which could be taken to mark the emergence of systemic linguistics is the article by Halliday (1966), in which the concept of the system is taken much further. In contrast with Halliday (1961), where all the grammatical categories are assigned equal theoretical status, Halliday now views system as a category which has decisive importance in his theory. He states that systems represent paradigmatic relations in the similar manner as structures represent syntagmatic relations. It captures the network of options which are accessible for a particular environment. An illustration of the network of choices for the mood system in English is shown in the figure below (from Berry 1975 : 181):

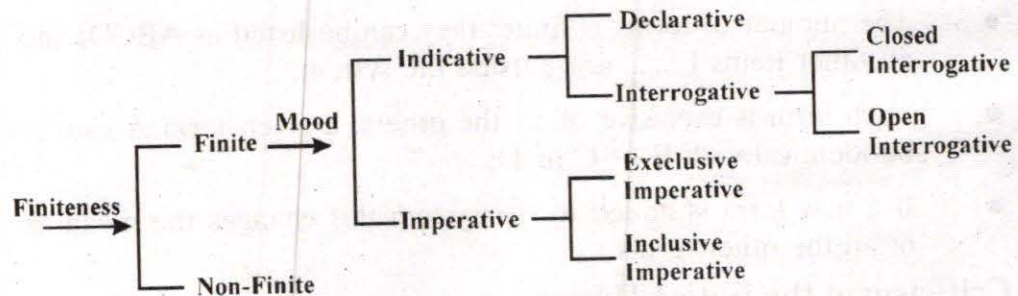


Fig. : Mood System in English

In the figure, the word finite from the system of finiteness is an entry condition to the mood system. The mood system is hence dependent on the term finite even though they have little in common by way of denotative or connotative meaning. The square brackets in figure indicate that one or the other alternative represented within them must be selected. For the entry condition finite, for example, either indicative or imperative must be chosen, and if the latter, a further alternative must be made between exclusive imperative or inclusive imperative.

Most essential in the development of the theory is Holliday's concern that paradigmatic relations are primary, constituting the basic "underlying form of representation" (Holliday 1966: 93-94). Syntagmatic relations, in contrast, are seen to be fully obvious since structural descriptions can be derived from the paradigmatic choices that have already been made. The link, consequently, remains between the deep systemic alternatives that are made and the surface manifestations realized in sequential structures. One inference of this approach to language description is the cautious approach towards structure as structure itself and its elements are representative of an underlying systemic option. As Kress (1976: xix) notes, "the correspondence between all items of structure and their features in systems must be established and is demanded by the theory."

Another key feature of systemics is its emphasis on language function. The broad functions that language performs in context are called meta functions, and for the purpose of the present context, we shall only be looking at three of them, as follows:

Experiential metafunction : It is associated with how language captures reality and our familiarity of the world. The experiential metafunction has largely to do with the transitivity system of language. The transitivity system views language in terms of processes which are realized by verbal groups.

Interpersonal metafunction : This puts forward the ways in which language establishes interpersonal relations between speaker/ writer and hearer/reader. This essentially employs an investigation of the mood block of the clause, which comprises three elements - subject, finite verb, and/or modal adjuncts.

Textual metafunction : It is concerned with the overall organization of the clause, and above it, the text. It is largely concerned with theme and rheme. The theme of the clause is that which sets the local context for the rest of the clause to expand.

To conclude, it can be stated that systemic analysis puts forward language usage in context and co-relationship such as the contexts associated with specialized registers (e.g., business or academic), contexts for language learning (e.g., classrooms and study abroad programs), and contexts for language assessment (e.g., speaking tests and writing assignments). As a consequence many applied linguists are interested in linguistic theory that takes into account the contextual dimensions of language.

Systemic Functional (SF) theory views language as a social semiotic a resource people apply to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. "The value of a theory," Holliday wrote,

"lies in the use that can be made of it, and I have always considered a theory of language to be essentially consumer oriented." (1985a, p. 7).

The Grammatical Structure of the Language

Language is a means of shaping and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language incorporates THREE components which form a unity.

- Phonological.
- Lexical.
- Grammatical systems.

The grammatical system is studied by Grammar.

Grammar is the structure of the language. All languages have grammar. Theoretical grammar is the science of the structure of the language. The basic units of language may be distinguished as sound, word, phrase, sentence, text. There are various specialized branches of knowledge that basically are concerned with a particular part of these units. Broadly Phonetics and phonology deal with sounds, lexicology's concern is with words, and morphology deals with word forms as well as the relations between these forms and their systems. Both lexicology and syntax are concerned with phrases; syntax is also concerned with sentences, and textual linguistics - with the relations between sentences and with texts. Hence, the significant parts of grammar are morphology, syntax, phonology, and semantics.

In the present context we are concentrating on two important aspects:

- (1) to provide a description of the grammatical structure of the language as an organized system.
- (2) to look analytically at the unit making the grammatical structure of English; to provide a critical review of the existing scientific theories.

The grammatical system of a language facilitates arrangement of lexical units into coherent and consistent utterance. It puts forward certain complete thought and is marked at all the lingual levels: phonetic, lexical, the level of combinability, grammatical level. In speech words are connected into utterances, which with appropriate combinations built up into sentences.

Means that Form the Grammatical Structure

- (1) word-change: (I see/saw a dog).
- (2) word-order: (The dog beat the mall./The mall beat the dog.)

(3) functional words: prepositions, articles, auxiliary verbs, conjunctions

(He works in/outside London.)

(4) intonation: (They are students. They are students? Really?)

Hence, the main units of grammatical category are a word and a sentence. A word may be divided into morphemes; a sentence may be divided into phrases (word-groups). A morpheme, a word, a phrase and a sentence are units of diverse levels of language structure. A unit of a higher level consists of one or more units of a lower level.

Imagine the state when there had been no structure in language. The following will be the result.

- We will have to memorise lists of utterances.
- There will be no units into which utterances can be decomposed or disintegrated.
- Utterances would be isolated from each other.

Hence, there are units that are paradigmatically opposed to each and syntagmatically related to each other or we can say that grammatical units can be divided into two types of relationships: in the language system (paradigmatic relations) and in speech (syntagmatic relations). In the language system each unit is incorporated into a set of connections based on different properties. For example, word forms child, children, child's, children's have the same lexical meaning and have different grammatical meanings. They compose a lexeme.

Whereas, word-forms children, boy, men, books... have the same grammatical meaning and have different lexical meanings. They compose a grammeme (a categorial form, a form class). The system of all grammemes (grammatical forms) of all lexemes (words) of a given class constitutes a paradigm. Syntagmatic relations may be understood with the help of viewing the units that may be parsed into higher order units in diversified ways that are mentioned below.

- The order of units matters,
- There can be a multileveled hierarchy,
- There is headedness.

Syntagmatic I : Parsing into higher-order units

"American boys and girls love to swim"

The sentence can be understood in the below mentioned two ways.

[American boys] and girls love to swim

or:

American [boys and girls] love to swim

Syntagmatic II : Order matters

American boys and girls love to swim

*Boys Australian and girls to swim love

(Here "*" means that this is not possible)

Syntagmatic III: hierarchical structure

A hierarchical structure means: there are units inside units or within units.

For example, a noun-phrase is a unit, and so is a verb-phrase, but together, they constitute another unit called a sentence:

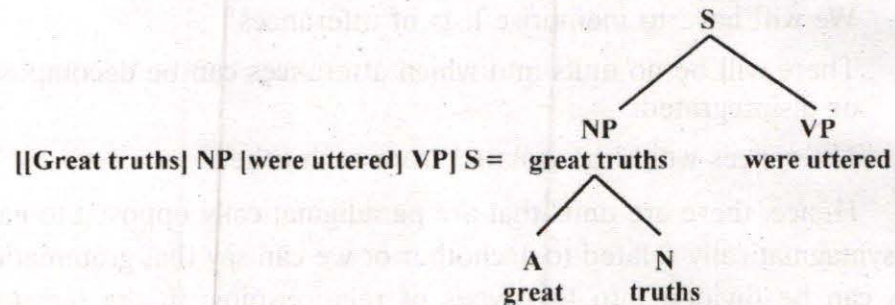


Fig. :

...and the unit, noun-phrase, is itself made up of two other units, an adjective and a noun.

Syntagmatic IV : HEADEDNESS

Headedness means that one of the units that makes up a hierarchical unit is obligatory. This obligatory unit is the head of the hierarchy.

For example:

- You can't usually form a sentence without a verb (so the verb is the head of the sentence). Here exclamatory sentences may be considered as exceptional cases.
- Every noun-phrase must have a noun (so the noun is the head of the noun-phrase).

Main grammatical units, a word and a sentence, are studied by different sections of Grammar: Morphology and Syntax. Morphology studies and analyzes the structure, forms, and the classification of words. On the other hand, Syntax studies the structure, forms and the classification of sentences. In other words, Morphology studies paradigmatic relations of words, Syntax studies syntagmatic relations of words and paradigmatic relations of sentences.

There is also a new approach to the division of Grammar into Morphology and Syntax. According to this approach Morphology should study both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of words. Syntax

should study both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of sentences. Syntactic syntagmatics is a relatively new field of study; reflecting the functional approach to language, i.e. the description of connected speech, or discourse. Paradigmatic contrast may be understood with the help of following example.

Paradigmatic Contrasts

Units that are paradigmatically opposed to each other belong to diverse classes that function in different ways.

For example, words belong to paradigmatically contrasting grammatical classes. We know this by applying a substitution test.

I was glad to.....

See/know/ learn/leave/wander/relax (verbs)

*underneath/overhead

*student/door/wanderer/relaxation

*energetic/thoughtful/ green/sad

Here the noteworthy point is that the words that belong to the same category can be substituted for each other but the terms of different category (indicated by *) cannot take that place.

To conclude it can be said that the grammatical structure of language is such a system as operates on the hierarchy of levels of text. At different levels various parts serve as the basic unit. At Phrasemic level, phrases are the basic units and they make word combinations, they nominate complex phenomena. At Leximic level words are nominative units, because they nominate things and phenomena. They are built up by morphemes. At, Morphemic level morphemes are the smallest meaningful units built up by phonemes or one phoneme. At, Phonemic level phonemes are the basic units, their function is differential. Hence, two levels are central: words level and sentence level. They are studied by morphology and syntax. Thus, morphology deals with morphemic structure and combinability, classification of words. Syntax deals with sentences.

Ambiguity is defined as an unresolved and vague choice between alternative annotations, remarks and observations. Again, there may be a number of reasons for ambiguous syntactic annotation, some motivated by practical considerations, and others by more theoretical linguistic considerations. The two major kinds of ambiguity may be understood in the following manner.

System ambiguity

A system ambiguity is an ambiguity which due to the limitations of parsing. Parsing stands for recognizing parts of speech in a sentence

and identifying their relationship with each other. Automatic corpus parsers, which are likely to have a very bright career opportunities for syntactic annotation on a large scale in the future, are at present far from achieving the 'ideal' outcome of a single correct parse for each sentence. Where there is likelihood of parsing error, a preferable solution, for most purposes, will be for the parser to output more than one, parse, leaving it to the human interpreter to decide which is a correct analysis.

System ambiguity can further be divided into two parts.

1. **Syntactic ambiguity** : The term syntax stands for the way words are arranged to form sentences or phrases, or the rules of grammar which control this. Hence, Syntactic ambiguity arises when a complex phrase or a sentence can be parsed in more than one way. "He ate the biscuits on the couch," for example, could mean that he ate those biscuits which were on the couch (as opposed to those that were on the table), or it could mean that he was sitting on the couch when he ate the biscuits

Let's understand it with the help of another example. "The boy and the adults saw the man with the telescope." Here it isn't clear whether the man was seen through telescope or he possessed the telescope. Hence, syntactical ambiguity occurs when the grammatical construction of the phrase or sentence brings about the misinterpretation the word order or the fact that a word could be either a noun or a verb.

In some of the cases even newspaper heading are affected by this flaw of writing. As in the sentence "Stolen painting found by tree" the headline's two alternative syntactic representations make it structurally ambivalent:

- (1) A tree found a stolen painting.
- (2) A person found a stolen painting near a tree.

This ambiguity makes the headline humorous as it can easily be read as the representation in (1): A tree found a painting, which is humorous because trees, being inanimate, generally don't find things.

In Spoken language the chances of such ambiguities are even more because there is more than one way to compose a set of sounds into words, for example "ice cream" and "I scream." Such ambiguity is generally resolved based on the context. A mishearing of such based on incorrectly-resolved ambiguity, is called a monde green.

Another interesting example of this can be seen sometimes in telephonic conversations. Look at this:

- A May I talk to Mr. X
 B No, he is dead.(A listened it wrong as "He is in bed")
 A At what time he will get up?
 B Never, I said that he is no more.

2. **Semantic ambiguity** : Semantic ambiguity arises when a word or concept has an inherently diffuse and disseminate meaning based on widespread or informal usage. This is often the case, for example, with idiomatic expressions whose definitions are rarely or never definite, and are presented in the context of a larger argument that invites a conclusion.

For example, "You could do with a new automobile. How about a test drive?" The clause "You could do with" presents a statement with such wide possible interpretation as to be essentially meaningless. It may mean that you are financially well off to buy it or it may mean it is the requirement of your status or many others. In the similar way, the phrase "Who cares?" can be interpreted in numerous ways. Again let's take the example of newspaper headings.

Iraqi head seeks arms

The homograph "head" can be interpreted as a noun meaning either chief or the anatomical head of a body. Likewise, the homograph "arms" can be interpreted as a plural noun meaning either weapons or body parts.

What makes headline humorous: The headline can easily be read as a disembodied head searching for arms (body parts) or wanting to have them attached.

Class Ambiguity

The analysis of the term "word classes" takes us to the oldest fundamentals of grammatical description that considers class as the division of words into groups according to their meaning and function. These groups are called word classes, lexical categories, lexical classes, or, in traditional grammar, parts of speech. They are eight, sometimes nine word classes:

- verbs
- nouns
- pronouns
- adjectives
- adverbs
- prepositions
- conjunctions
- determiners
- interjections

Class ambiguity occurs when there is confusion in the usage of the above-mentioned parts with each other. For example,

Teacher strikes idle kids

Here the term "strikes" can occur as either a verb meaning "to hit" or a noun meaning "a refusal" to work. Meantime, "idle" can occur as either a verb or an adjective. As per the first interpretation teacher has hit the kids whereas the second means that because teachers have gone on strike the kids have no work to do. Hence, the statement can easily be read as "teacher hits idle kids" even though it was meant to mean that the walkout of teachers has left pupils idle.

It may also be known as Lexical ambiguity as lexical ambiguity occurs whenever a word gets two meaning. Structural ambiguity or system ambiguity occurs when there is confusion in some sentence whereas lexical ambiguity is associated with words. It is contrasted with semantic ambiguity. The former represents a choice between a finite number of known and meaningful context-dependent interpretations. The latter represents a choice between any numbers of possible interpretations, none of which may have a standard agreed-upon meaning. This form of ambiguity is closely reaches the stage of vagueness;

The features that play a significant role in LEXICAL AMBIGUITY are mentioned below:

Denotation, Connotation, Implication

Denotation: This is the central meaning of a word, as far as it can be described in a dictionary. Hence, it is also known as the cognitive or referential meaning. It is possible to think of lexical items that have a more or less fixed denotation. Most are subject to change over time. For example the denotation of "silly" today is not what it was in the 16th century. At that time the word meant "happy" or "innocent." So is the case with "terrorist" that was related to revolution in the earlier times.

Connotation: Connotation refers to the psychological or cultural aspects; the personal or emotional associations aroused by words. When these associations are wide-spread and become established by common usage, a new denotation is recorded in dictionaries.

For example, let's observe the ups and downs of the term vicious. Originally derived from vice it meant "extremely wicked" whereas in the modern British usage, however, it is commonly used to mean "fierce," as in the brown rat a vicious animal.

Implication: It may be understood as the underlying meaning that is intended to be conveyed but is not uttered directly. The listener can deduce or infer the intended meaning from what has been uttered. Example from David Chrystal:

Utterance: "A bus!" → Implicative (implicit meaning) :

"We must run." (11)

Tropes: Metaphor, Metonym, Allegory, Homonym, Homophone, Homograph, Paradox

These are some of the language figures or "tropes," providing useful concepts to the understanding of ambiguity in language.

Metaphor: This refers to the non-literal meaning of a word, a clause or sentence. Metaphors are very common; in fact all abstract vocabulary is metaphorical. A metaphor compares objects or things. (Examples: "blanket of stars")

A metaphor recognized by usage and convention becomes a symbol. Therefore, crown popularly suggests the power of the state, press indicates the print news media and chair signifies the control (or controller) of a meeting.

Metonym : A word used in place of another word or expression to convey the same meaning. (Example: the use of brass to refer to military officers)

Homonym: It occurs when different words are pronounced, and possibly spelled, the same way (examples: to, too, two; or bat the animal, bat the stick, and bat as in the bat the eyelashes)

Homophone: It occurs where the pronunciation is the same (or close, allowing for such, phonological variation as comes from accent) but standard spelling differs, as in flew (from fly), flu ("influenza") and flue (of a chimney).

Homograph: Here different words are spelled identically and possibly pronounced in the same manner, (examples: lead the metal and lead, what leaders do)

To conclude, it can be stated that ambiguity in language is the uncertainty within the very core of the organized system of language. A very broad analysis will make us comment that when it occurs at the level of sentence it is system ambiguity and when it occurs at the level at the level of words it is class ambiguity.

Morphology is the science and study of the smallest grammatical units of language, and of their formation into words, including inflection, derivation and composition. According to Dorfman, morphology is the study of the ways and methods of grouping sounds into sound-complexes or words, of definite, distinct, conventional meaning. Bloomfield calls it the study of the constructions in which sound forms appear among the constituents. Broadly speaking, morphology is the study of the patterns of word-forms. It studies how the words are formed, where they originate from, what their grammatical forms are, what the functions of prefixes and suffixes in the formation of words are, on what basis the parts of speech of a particular language are formed, how the systems of gender,

number, plural etc. function, and how and why the word-forms change. Morphology is "a level of structure between the phonological and the syntactic." It is complementary to syntax. Morphology is the grammar of words; syntax the grammar of sentences. One accounts for the internal structure, or 'form' of words (typically as sequences of morphemes), the other describes how these words are put together in sentences. A discussion of how plurals are formed, for example, would belong to morphology, while a discussion of prepositional phrases would belong to syntax. The way morphemes combine to form words is known as the morphology of a language. Morphology, therefore, refers to the form of words themselves in a language system, whereas syntax refers to the form of the arrangement of words in phrases and sentences. Agreement, for example, is a morpho-logical feature and word-order is a syntactic feature of a language system. Morphology is not only the synchronic study of word-forms but is also the study of the history and development of word-forms. So it is both a synchronic (in a given time) and a diachronic (across time) study of the word-forms. When it is only synchronic, it is called morphemics. The morphological analysis is the observation and description of the grammatical elements in a language by studying their form and function, their phonological variants, and their distribution and mutual relationships within larger stretches of speech. It may be either synchronic or diachronic, or may be both synchronic and diachronic.

Morpheme

Minimal units of grammatical structure, such as the four components of unfaithfulness, are called morphemes. Telephone has three morphemes {tele}, phone, and {-s} while telephoned has two and phone just one. Morphemes are customarily described as minimal units of grammatical analysis—the units of lowest rank out of which words, the units of next highest rank are composed. So morphemes are those distinct, minimal syntactical units which form words. They can also be defined as the minimal units of meaning out of which meaningful words are composed in various ways.

A morpheme thus is a distinct linguistic form. It is a minimal unit of speech that is recurrent. It has a grammatical function. It is semantically different from other phonemically similar or identical linguistic forms, and is not divisible or analyzable into smaller forms. If we try to break or analyze a morpheme into its constituents, it loses its identity, and we end up with a sequence of meaningless noises, e.g. nation (na + tion, or nati-on). Analyzing the morphemes leads us straight into the realm of phonology. Morphemes may or may not have meaning, may or may not have a phonological representation, [un-] has a negative meaning in unfriendly, unhealthy, unable, unemployed and many other words, but is meaningless in under, {-er} has a constant meaning in

teacher, heater, reader, writer, speaker, pointer, leader, etc. But it would be difficult to pin down any constant meaning for spect in respect, inspect, circumspect, for pro in protest, professor, prospective, process, etc. In plural words like sheep, fish we have two morphemes in each word; the first morpheme in each case has a phonological representation but the second one has no phonological representation and is called zero morpheme. Morphologically the plural noun sheep is (sheep)+ { }, that is to say that the word 'sheep' is made up of two morphemes sheep plus a plural morpheme which is present in the meaning but is not physically present in spelling or pronunciation.

Morphemes sometimes vary in their phonological manifestations. Pro, for instance, is pronounced differently in profess and the noun progress. The plural morpheme is pronounced (s) in words like cats, maps and snacks; [z] in dogs, hands, and ideas; (iz) in words like churches, judges, classes; but it has no phonetic form at all in the plural nouns such as sheep, fish, etc. Then there are completely idiosyncratic forms such as oxen, children, brethren. It is not always clear whether or not a given sound sequence should be considered a morpheme. For instance, should animal be said to consist of two morphemes anima (a) and (b) I, or just one? Consider natural: It has two morphemes (nature) and {-al}. Shouldn't we then regard woman as a word having two morphemes {wo-} and {man}? A sound sequence is a morpheme in some words; it is not in some others.

Un clearly is a morpheme in unnatural and unfaithful but it is not a morpheme in under or sun.

A morpheme may be monosyllabic as {man} and {a/an/the} or polysyllabic as {happy} and {nature}.

We can classify the morphemes in the following way:-

(1) Lexical and Grammatical Morphemes

Ronald W, Langacker in his book, Language and its Structure, has divided morphemes into two classes: lexical and grammatical. Lexical morphemes are forms like boy, write, paper and pen. Grammatical morphemes are forms like some, with, a, an, the, to, and from. Lexical morphemes are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They have more or less independent meaning, so that one or a series of lexical forms in isolation can be fairly meaningful. Pen suggests something quite definite to us, as do boy, paper and write. Lexical morphemes are very large in a language; the number may go up to ten millions as in English. Grammatical morphemes are elements like prepositions, articles, conjunctions, forms indicating number, gender or tense, and so on. Grammatical morphemes, by and large, do not change frequently: new members in their family in any language are added rather infrequently.

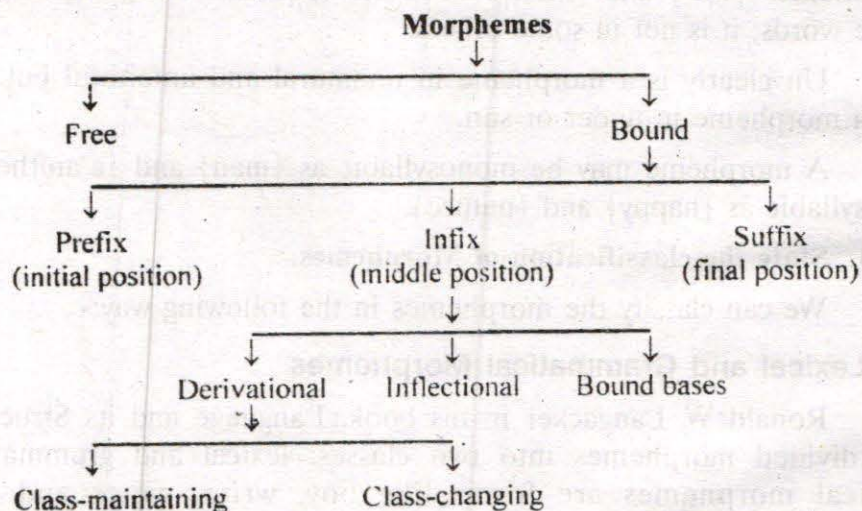
But lexical morphemes go on changing frequently; new members are added to the lexicon quite often.

However, the distinction between lexical and grammatical morphemes is artificial and inadequate. "Hood" is lexical morpheme in she wears a hood, but is not so in boyhood. Prepositions are classed as grammatical morphemes, yet they are not all empty of semantic content. Even small grammatical morphemes such as the {-ly} in rapidly the [un-] in unemployment and the [er] in teacher have definite semantic content. Hence the necessity of a more rationalistic division of morphemes.

(2) Free and Bound Morphemes

A more acceptable and more satisfactory classification than the one mentioned above classifies morphemes into free and bound forms. The whole classification can be represented in the following manner:-

These will be defined and illustrated in the following discussion. Morphemes, as defined earlier, are the minimum grammatical forms of language. Some of them can occur alone, others cannot. Forms which do not occur alone are bound morphemes and those which occur alone are free morphemes. Rat, cat, go, black, the, yet, but, and are free morphemes. Affixes to the words such as -ness, -less, pre, up-, up-, de-, con-, -er, ment are all bound morphemes.



(a) **Roots and Affixes.** The root morpheme is that part of the word which is left when all the affixes have been removed. Root morphemes may be bound or free, and are potentially unlimited in a language because languages go on creating new words or borrowing loan-words' from other languages. In a word like unfaithful, faith is the-root, the-un and the-ful are affixes; the un-is a prefix, whereas the-ful is a suffix.

All affixes are bound morphemes, for they cannot occur alone. A word which consists of only free root morpheme is called

monomorphemic, e.g. cat, rat. The words containing more than one root are called polymorphemic e.g. air-craft; they can co-occur or without affixes; they are often called compounds.

Root and affixes may be of any structure and length, though affixes generally tend to be shorter than roots. The criterion of determining the root is its indivisibility into constituent morphemes by matching its parts with the parts of other words in the language.

The affix is the recurrent formative morpheme of words other than roots. Affixes are of three types—prefix, infix and suffix. In the English words such as receive, remove, deceive, perform, unfaithful, unemployment, re-, de-, per-, un-, are all prefixes. The prefixes are affixed before the roots, and cannot occur independently, they are bound morphemes. The plural formative -s, -en; the verb paradigm affixes -ing, -d, -ed, etc. The comparative and superlative ending of the adjective (-er, and -est) and so many other final position formatives such as -ness, -less, -ment are called suffixes. The suffixes are affixed after the roots or after the root-suffix infixes are less commonly found in English apart from one mode of analysis of plurals like goes, men. Infixes are found in Cambodian, in Sudanese and in Sanskrit too.

(b) Inflection and Derivation. Both inflectional and derivational morphemes are suffixes; they are bound morphemes following a root. Inflection and derivation are therefore, the sub-categories of suffixes. But they differ from each other. If one kind of suffix is affixed to a root we cannot affix any other. Suffix e.g., in agreed and agrees, -d and -s are suffixes and do not therefore allow any further affixation of a suffix. Such affixes which do not allow further affixation called inflections, or inflectional morphemes. The suffixes which may be followed by other suffixes are called derivational suffixes. For example, -ment, -ble are derivational suffixes in agreement and agreeable, because both can be followed by other suffixes and can, for instance, become agreements and agreeableness after the addition of the suffix -s and -ness to agree + ment and agree + able respectively.

Inflectional suffixes have a very wide distribution; that is that words which they mark have a great many members. Inflectional suffixes are always final in the morpheme groups to which they belong. They are of wide occurrence; they make large words. Their distribution is regular. Derivational suffixes, on the other hand, may be final in the group to which they belong, or they may be followed by other derivational suffixes or by inflectional suffixes. They are of relatively limited occurrence, and their distribution tends to be arbitrary. (Prefixes are always derivational), Inflectional suffixes are 'terminal', and their termination never changes the class (part of speech) of the root, for example, in sweeter and sweetest, the termination -er, -est does not change the part of speech; both the forms remain adjectives; come in a verb in They

come late, and if we add an inflectional suffix-ing we get the form coming (as in They are coming) which is still a verb. An inflected form can be replaced by another inflected form only, e.g.

	drink-s
He	steal-s
	play-s
but not	
	He steal/drink/play, etc.

An inflectional suffix occurs at the end position of a form; no further affixation in a form is possible after an inflection. We can say

develop + s

root (-) inflectional suffix

develop + ment

root + derivational suffix + s Inflectional suffix

but not

develop	s	ment
root	inflectional suffix	derivational suffix

So an inflectional suffix is essentially terminal, whereas a derivational suffix is not essentially terminal. Derivational suffixes can occur medially and/or finally, but inflectional suffixes occur only finally.

(c) Class-maintaining and class changing derivational suffixes:

Derivational suffixes can be sub-classified into two types:

- (i) *Class-maintaining derivational suffix and*
- (ii) *Class-changing derivational suffix.*

The class-maintaining derivational suffixes are those which produce a derived form of the same class as the underlying form; they do not change the class of a part of speech. In boyhood, childhood, kinship, principalship, hood and -ship are class-maintaining derivational suffixes. In these examples they produce nouns out of nouns after suffixation. The class-changing derivational suffixes are those that produce a derived form of another class. In teacher, boyish, development, national, -er-ish, -ment, -al are class-changing derivational suffixes. In teacher, a verb teach has become a noun after suffixing the -er. In boyish, a noun boy has become an adjective after suffixing the -ish.

We can further review the example of morphemes in the following manner-

Words	Bound Morphemes				
	Free Morpheme (root)	Prefix	Suffix		
			Derivational Class	Class	Inflectional Class
Pre-establishment	[establish]	[pre-]	-ment		
Establishmentarianism	[establish]		-arian		
Penominalizations	[nominal]	[pre]	-ism		
Principalships	[Principal]			[-iz -ation]	[-s]

(d) **Bound Bases:** Bound bases are those morphemes will serve as roots for derivational forms but which never appear as free forms. In words such as conclude, preclude, include, exclude, the elude is a bound base; and so is the-ceive in receive, perceive, deceive.

(3) Compounds

A compound is a lexical unit in which two or more lexical morphemes (free roots) are juxtaposed, e.g. aircraft, textbook, white-cap, slow-down, bed-side, fingerprint.

(4) Idioms

An idiom is a phrase the meaning of which cannot be predicted from the individual meanings of the morphemes it comprises. Idioms are complex lexical items, it is difficult to translate them from one language into another; they have culturally determined meanings. Most idioms are 'frozen metaphors', their meanings must be learnt as a whole. e.g. give way, in order to.

(i) Morphs

Any phonetic shape or representation of a phoneme is a morph (Hockett). Each morph, like each phone, or each person or each day, happens only once and then it is gone. To quote John Lyons, "When the word can be segmented into parts, these segments are referred to as morphs." Thus the words shorter is analyzable in two morphs, which can

be written orthographically as short and er, and in phonological transcription /fɔt/ and /d/. Each morph represents a particular morpheme, but each morpheme does not have a morph. For example, the plural noun sheep has one morph, but it has two morphemes [sheep] and [] went has one morph, but two morpheme [go] and [ed.]

(ii) Allomorphs

It frequently happens that a particular morpheme is not represented everywhere by the same morph, but by different morphs in different environments. The alternative phonological manifestation or representations of such a morpheme are called allomorphs or 'morpheme alternants' and 'morpheme variants'. An allomorph, therefore, is a non-distinctive variant of a morpheme. Or, it may be called a family or class of morphs which are phonemically and semantically identical, that is an allomorph is "a family of morphs which are alike in two ways: (i) in the allophones of which they are composed and, (ii) in the meaning which they have" (Nelson Francis). The allomorphs are phonologically conditioned. Their forms are dependent on the adjacent phonemes. Or else, they are morphologically conditioned. That is, when morphemes are affected by their phonological environment 'sandhi', they become allomorphs. For example, /-z/, /-s/, /-iz/ and /θ/ are the various allomorphs of the plural morpheme {-z} in English.

The study of different shapes of allomorphs is half-way between phonology and morphology, and is sometimes referred to as morphophonology or morphonology. In America where phonology is considered as part of descriptive linguistics synchronic linguistics has relied on phonemic analysis, the term morphophonemics is used for this aspect of grammar.

Phoneme

The 'raw material' of speech is sounds, forming the medium used by speakers and listeners. Every language organises and structures the sound units in a characteristic manner. 'Sound units'-we shall use this expression for the time being though it is believed that there is nothing like a sound unit-are used by particular languages selectively. A language gives an individual sound a special position by contrasting it with other sounds. Sounds must contrast if they are to be considered as phoneme. In other words, each individual sound must differentiate the meaning of the word in which it occurs.

Let us look at the following pairs of words :

sip	-	zip
toll	-	doll

coat	-	goat
thane	-	then

We see here that the sounds that occur initially differ, while the sounds occurring in middle and final positions are retained. This replacement of one sound in each pair : [s] being replaced by [z], [d] taking place of [t], [g] coming in place of [k] and so on, causes a change in the meaning of the words. They differ in meaning by just taking a different sound in the first position.

We can say the sounds s-z; t-d; k-g; and θ -(thane) δ (then) form contrastive pairs. These sounds are minimally different from each other in terms of their phonetic structure.

In a similar manner, we can change the middle sounds :

bill	-	ball	-	bell
till	-	tall	-	tell
pill	-	pall	-	pale
chin	-	-	-	chain

In the above examples, vowel-sounds are changed leading to a change in meaning. Like the consonant-sounds seen before, replacement of one vowel by another also creates pairs of words that contrast. We can have similar results from changes in the final sounds as well-bit-bid, bean-beam; pear-peal; sear-seal, etc. By meticulously following this procedure it is possible to identify the significant sound units, that are much more than just sound elements, or the 'raw material' of a language. They are minimal particles that can distinguish meaning between words. This is what makes these sound particles so significant and special. These segmentally distinctive units of sound are known as phonemes. The primary factor in describing a phoneme is that it creates contrastive pairs that are also minimal pairs, and it is significant in that it is responsible for changing meaning.

The next important thing to understand is that a phoneme is a group, a range or a family of sound features. R.A. Hall, Jr. says, 'Numerous definitions of the phoneme have been proposed, none of them wholly satisfactory. Depending on the point of view taken, we can define a phoneme as a unit, a rubric, a bundle of sound features, or a point of contrast. A phoneme is a combination of features of articulation e.g. stop articulation, bilabial position, and voicing in /b/, or high and front tongue position and absence of lip-rounding in /i/, which renders a phoneme distinct from another, and which are, therefore, known as distinctive features'.

According to Hall, in describing the phoneme /b/ we must consider its various phonetic features. The famous Russian linguist

Aleksander Reformatzkij describes phoneme as 'an ensemble of distinctive features which form its differential essence.' In the opinion of the American linguist Francis P. Dinneen, 'Phonemes are classes of sounds that contrast with other classes of sounds and a single phoneme can be defined as a class of sounds whose phonetic differences are capable of distinguishing one meaning from another'.

We can deduce from this discussion the following salient attributes of a phoneme.

- i) *It is a unit of contrast in a language.*
- ii) *It is a bundle of features.*
- iii) *It is capable of differentiating meaning of words.*
- iv) *It shows both phonetic similarities and differentiating features.*

What is Distinctive feature?

Linguistic analysis proceeds by breaking the complex speech segments into morphemic components. These components are meaningful units which are divided into further components at the lower level. These constituents are capable of differentiating morphemes from each other. Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle called them 'distinctive features'. In other words, phonetic components that are required to distinguish meanings are called distinctive features. Phonemes can be termed as bundles of distinctive features. They play a significant role in making a sound form contrastive relation with other sounds. Tip-top is a pair of words where the only significant difference is that of the middle vowel-sound /i/-/ɔ/. Each one of these vowels contains features (/i/ being a high front unrounded lenis vowel; and /ɔ/ being a low-mid back rounded lenis vowel) that separate them from each other. These features also contrast them. They should, therefore, be termed as separate phonemes. The distinctive features qualify them as phonemes. It is these features that the speaker of a language has been trained to produce and the listener has been trained to recognise in the current of speech sounds-'just as the motorists are trained to stop before a red signal', as Bloomfield says.

What is notable here is that phoneme has not been defined as a sound, but a class of sounds. Phonemes may show phonetic differences; however, these differences are not significant, they do not result in difference in word meaning. Therefore, these phonetic attributes are called non-significant or non-distinctive.

Let us now consider an English phoneme /p/. It is pronounced in two different ways : when it occurs in the beginning of a word, it is accompanied by a puff of breath called aspiration. We hear this in words like pull, pall, possible, etc. We may write it as [p^h] But when /p/ occurs

in the middle of a word or follows a spirant /s/ in an unstressed syllable, it is not aspirated, as in *spill*, *spoil*, *appear*, *despair*. We can thus say that these two qualities, namely, presence of aspiration in some cases and absence of it, are positionally variant forms. But these variations do not make any difference in the meaning. They are called non-distinctive features, and accompany all the phonemes of English. However, what is non-distinctive in one language may be distinctive in another; that is, phonetic features that do not contribute to differences in meaning in language A may produce differences in meaning in language B. Each language has its own phonemic system that is peculiar to it. In Hindi we find a series of aspirated and unaspirated sounds : /p/-/ph/; /b/-/bh/; /t/-/th/; /d/-/dh/ and so on. Aspiration is a distinctive feature here and not just a matter of simple phonetic variation. In these pairs aspirated sounds contrast with the unaspirated sounds making them two distinct phonemes.

It may appear strange to a native speaker of English to have an unaspirated plosive in the initial position in a word, or in the middle or after /s/, but this will not create any difference in meaning.

There may be various reasons for changes in the phonetic quality of a sound. One of the potential reasons is the phonetic environment which tends to influence a sound. In words *lip* and *kick* the vowels have different phonetic qualities due to the environment in which they occur. The difference can be explained in terms of the articulatory factors that accompany the two consonant phonemes /l/, and /k/, which influence /i/ leading to a change in qualities of the vowel occurring in /lip/ and /kick/. In fact, the difference can be described not just as one difference, but as difference on many levels such as back/front articulation, tenseness or its absence, and so on. In English these changes are not significant enough to affect meaning.

This kind of phonetic difference and its distribution governed by the phonetic environment is termed complementary distribution: 'sounds are said to be in complementary distribution when each occurs in a fixed set of contrasts in which none of the others occurs' (Gleason).

In the example of /p/ already discussed we may note that the fact that it is aspirated in the initial position and not in the middle position after /s/ in an unstressed syllable shows that these two variant forms of the sound are in complementary distribution : one occurs in the context in which the other does not. Their occurrence is governed by the phonetic environment. Such phonetically variant forms are known as allophones. Their distribution can be said to be mutually exclusive. Thus we may show these variant forms as [ph] and [p>], one aspirated, the other unaspirated. These are two allophones of the phoneme /p/. It is relevant to point out here that phonetic sounds and their features are always represented by putting them within square brackets []; the

phonemic symbols are placed within slant lines, //. Allophones are the phonetic members of the phoneme that are in complementary distribution; that is, their occurrence is determined by the phonetic environment. Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle have discovered a set of distinctive features which, in their words, 'underlie the entire stock of lexical and morphological stock' of the language. The features are seen and described as binary choices presented in either/or terms. We present here Jakobson-Halle scheme of distinctive features.

1. Vocalic/non-vocalic Vowel is differentiated from consonant by this feature. Vocalics are marked by resonance patterns.

2. Compact/diffuse Shape and volume of the resonance chamber characterise these features. Compact sounds show closer resonance patterns.

3. Consonantal/non-consonantal Vowels are non-consonantal and vocalic, consonants are non-vocalic. Vocal energy is notably high in vowels and quite low in consonants.

4. Tense/lax This feature marks off [p] from [b] and shorter vowels from longer ones. Tense vowels are longer and stronger, tense consonants are longer and possess greater plosive strength.

5. Voiced/voiceless Glottal activity accompanies voiced sounds which is termed as 'periodic frequency excitation', in which vibration of vocal cords occurs. This activity is absent in the voiceless sounds. Glottal activity results in 'buzz' phonemes, 'because of the tone generated at the glottal source', [b]-[p]; [d]-[t]; [g]-[k] show this.

6. Strident/mellow Sounds showing irregular wave forms are termed strident, such as 'noisy' fricatives. Acoustically it is described as 'higher intensity noise' contrasted with the lower intensity noise'.

7. Grave/Acute We can identify grave sounds by noting concentration of energy in the lower extreme of the spectrum compared to the concentration of energy in the higher part which is the case in acute sounds. On this basis we can distinguish [u] and [o] from [i] and [ɛ].

8. Nasal/oral Nasal cavity supplements oral cavity as resonator in nasal sounds, [m], [n], [ŋ].

9. Discontinuous/Continuous In terms of articulatory movements there is a 'rapid turning on or off the source through rapid closures and/or opening of the vocal tract that distinguishes plosives from continuants. A flap and trill /r/, /R/ are characterised as discontinuous sounds distinct from liquids like the lateral /l/.

10. Checked/Unchecked This implies greater release of energy in a short interval and time contrasted with smaller release of energy over

longer interval. Glottalized and non-glottalized sounds represent this feature.

11. Flat/plain Flat sounds are those in the pronunciation of which there is a gradual widening of the resonator either in the front or the back of the oral cavity. When the resonator is narrow, we hear plain sounds.

12. Sharp/plain Palatalization occurs in sharp sounds when there is an 'upward shift of some of the upper frequency components' (Jakobson-Halle). Back part of the mouth resonator is dilated, while palatalization restricts the cavity. This is not distinctive in English. A phoneme shows two basic criteria :

1. *The sounds must be phonetically similar.*
2. *They must show characteristic distribution patterns.*

Phonetic similarity is an elusive notion; in a sense that all sounds are phonetically similar. There is a range of similarity features which is gradable indefinitely. At the same time the differences stand out sharply and mark them apart.

Allophones

Phonemes and Allophones are inter-related to each other. 'Phoneme' is a contrastive unit of sound in the sound system of a language. Its realization is different depending upon its position in words. These positionally defined realizations or variants are its allophones. Hence; it is clear that the sounds that can be grouped together into a single phoneme are called members of that phoneme, or allophones of that phoneme.

In short, it can be stated that allophones are positional variants of phonemes. The allophones of a phoneme make or form a set of sounds with which the meaning of the word is not changed.

Allophones are predictable not necessarily in terms of position. They may be predictable in terms of stress, pitch, juncture.

It is clear that allophones cannot be used haphazardly. We are restricted in our use of allophones. Let us take an example, we use clear (I) before a vowel, as in 'light', at the end of a word- 'tell'.

Just as the phoneme of one language should not be the phonemes of another language. In the same way, a phoneme of one language may not be the allophones of another language. Let us take an example, |p| is aspirated in the initial position in 'pearl', and phonetically transcribed as [ph].

Major Characteristics of Allophones

There are two major characteristics of Allophones:

1. *The allophones of a phoneme must be phonetically similar. For instance, both [Ph] and [P] are plosive, bilabial and unvoiced.*
2. *The sounds [Ph] and [P] must show certain characteristics patterns of distribution.*

The linguistic meaning of the word 'distribution' is the range of positions in which a particular unit of a language i.e. a phoneme, an allophone or even a word occur.

Patterns of the Distribution

(1) **Free Variation:** It is the simplest pattern of distribution. The first variation is inherent in the human speech itself. It is true that an individual may repeat the same sound many times, and there is little likelihood that one repetition of the same sound.

Any two sounds which are in free variation, cannot be two phonemes, but only two points within the range that constitute the phonemes. In free variation, if we use one allophone at the place of another, there will be no change in the meaning. For instance, we may pronounce 'cut' as [K^hAt^h]. In this case [th] and [t] are in free variation in word final position. This is also known as non-contrastive free variation.

(2) **Complementary Distribution:** When each sound occurs in a fixed set of contexts, it is called complementary distribution. The most obvious complementary distribution is in the variation between the aspirated allophones and the non-aspirated allophone of a plosive phoneme. Hence, it can be maintained that the allophones which never occur in the same environment are complementary distribution. When allophones of a phoneme occur in the same environment, but without force, are considered as free variation.

Allophones also exhibit a sort of neatness of pattern. For instance, the allophones of the voiceless [p, t, k]. Their allophones get aspirated in initial position in stressed syllables-pin [p^h, n] etc.

To conclude, allophones may be called the phonetic variants, they are positional or contextual, or conditional variants (alternates) of phoneme. According to Trager and Smith in their book 'An Outline of English Structure', a scholar may identify allophones as under;

- (a) *The sounds should be more or less phonetically similar.*
- (b) *They should be in complementary distribution.*
- (c) *There should be exhibition of pattern congruity with the sounds of other groups.*

It is true that a morpheme may be represented by different morphs in various situations. Words are pronounced in various ways according to their phonemes and the structure of different words. Syllables and stress are kept in mind while pronouncing word of different structure and phonetic gravity.

In the words which end with unvoiced plosives and unvoiced fricatives, we realise plural noun morpheme as well as singular verb morpheme. For examples; gaps, cats, lakes, cakes, etc. singular verbs : takes, gives, asks, makes.

In the same way, we realise three alternatives in past morphemes i.e. 'ed', 't' and 'en'.

For example, asked, crossed, built, broken.

These alternative realizations of a morpheme are called allomorphs. Many linguistics call Allomorphs morpheme alternates or morpheme variants.

Nelson Francis considers Allomorph as a family of morphs. He finds two similarities between the two. The first one is of composition. The second one is of meaning.

Hence, we can say that an allomorph is a non-dinstinctive variant of a morpheme. It may be called a family or class of morphs which have identical expression phonemically as well as semantically.

The Points to Consider

1. The allomorphs are phonologically conditioned.
2. They are also morphologically conditioned.
3. It can be understood clearly when morphemes are affected by their phonological environment. (sandhi), they become allomorphs. For example, |-z|, |-s|, |-iz| and |q| are the allomorphs of the plural morpheme |-z| in English.
4. The study of allomorphs relates to both phonology and morphology.

Phonological and Morphological Conditioning

Phonological Conditioning

Of course, there are beautiful examples of both phonological and morphological conditioning in English language. The allomorphs of the English plural morphemes are phonologically conditioned.

1. |-s| appears with morphs ending in |p, t, k, f, q|.
2. |iz| appears with morphs ending in |z, f, tf, dz|.

A detailed study of phonological condition will lead us to understand that |-z| appears after morphs which end in morphemes

voiceless except the sibilants and affricates $[-iz]$ appears after morphs which end in sibilants and affricates.

Since the factors are associated with sound segments, it is considered to be as phonological conditioning.

The phonological conditioning can be seen in past tense morphemes of English also. We can take the example of 'ed'. Three phonologically conditioned allomorphs $-[t]$, $[d]$, and $[-id]$ represent it.

We can take the following examples to make the expression clear. The words: wanted, wedded, loved, called, helped, attracted, spoilt, etc. refer to voiceless as well as voiced phonemes.

Morphological Conditioning

The morphological conditioning is a kind of variation among allomorphs. In order to understand it, we can refer to both singular and plural morphemes in certain words such as man-men, child-children and the words in which nothing is changed while making plural like deer-deer, fish-fish, deer-deer etc. These aren't much of variation in terms of phonetic environment, and yet the difference remains. Hence, this kind of variation refers to the morphological conditions.

The above stated examples are irregular English plurals. And so are the words like-alumni, criteria, women, mice and oxen.

We also find irregular allomorphs in past tense such as was, brought, had, fled etc. It is true that linguists have tried for generalization but not always. 'Oxen' and 'deer' are still exceptions in plural.

Word formation includes:

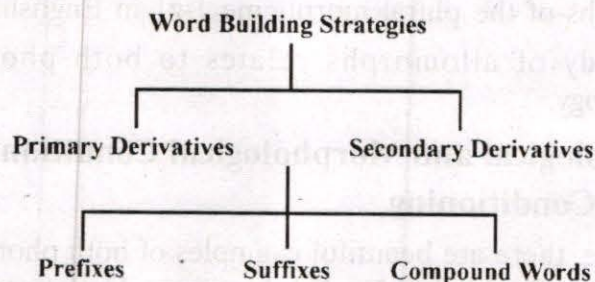


Fig. : Formation of Words

Word Parts

There are following word parts:

- (i) Affixes i.e. Prefixes and Suffixes.

(ii) Base Words.

(iii) Word-roots.

(i) **Affix:** An affix is a word which is used either in the beginning or at the end of a word.

The affix added in the beginning is called 'Prefix', and the affix added in the end is called 'Suffix'.

For example: undue-un (prefix) + due

weekly-week + ly (suffix)

(ii) **Base Words:** The words with which or from which many other words are formed, are called Base Word.

For example: We can form many words from 'satisfy': satisfaction, satisfactory, satisfactorily.

In the same way, the word 'migrate' may have various the words such as migration, migrant, immigration, migratory, etc.

(iii) **Root Words:** The root words are the smallest part of a word from which we can build new words by adding affixes. A root word generally, has a specific meaning.

For example: The word 'develop' (as root word) may be used as 'undeveloped'. 'underdeveloped' or only 'developed'.

In other words; we can say that the root word remains with its specific meaning even after removing its prefix or suffix.

Primary Words: The words which are neither derived nor combined nor developed from other languages are called Primary Words.

For example: good, food, head, etc.

Compound Words: The words which are formed with two or more than two words, and give a complete sense are called compound words.

For example: Way lay, blackboard, basketball, father-in-law, a three mile race, a five year old child, etc.

Compound words usually consist of nouns, adjectives and verbs, etc.

The following are some of the examples:

Wallpaper = wall + paper = noun + noun

Loudspeaker = loud + speaker = adjective + noun

Earmask = ear + mask = noun + verb

Blackboard = black + board = adjective + noun

May flower = may + flower = noun + noun

Photograph	= photo + graph	= noun + noun
Runway	= run + way	= verb + noun
Reading glass	= reading + glass	= gerund + noun
Writing table	= writing + table	= gerund + noun
Outrage	= out + rage	= adverb + noun
Evergreen	= ever + green	= adverb + noun
Carryover	= carry + over	= verb + adverb
Buildup	= build + up	= verb + adverb
Income	= in + come	= adverb + verb
Sidewalk	= side + walk	= adverb + verb
Homesick	= home + sick	= noun + adjective
Bedridden	= bed + ridden	= noun + adj. (participle)
Red-hot	= red + hot	= adjective + adjective
Well-mannered	= well + mannered	= adverb + participle
Backbite	= back + bite	= noun + verb

Primary Derivatives

The words that already exist in English language, and from which new words are formed as different parts of speech, are called Primary Derivatives.

For example:

Bond from bind

Thief from thieve

Life from live

Grief from grieve

We can see the following examples to understand the formation of words:

Verb	Noun	Adjective
analyse	analysis	analytic
err	error	erroneous
suggest	suggestion	suggestive
judge	judgment	judgmental
persuade	persuasion	persuasive
exceed	excess	excessive
enjoy	joy	joyful

Secondary Derivatives

Secondary derivatives are made by adding article, preposition or some other character to the beginning or at the end of a root word.

For example:

able	-	unable
due	-	undue
sleep	-	sleep
fear	-	fearless / fearlessness

We can also build new words by using affixes.

For example:

cast	-	forecast
tie	-	untie
appear	-	disappear
draw	-	withdraw

Some Common Prefixes:

Prefixes	Examples
a, an	a moral, aside, anarchy
ad, at, al, ap	adapt, attach, allure, approve
auto	autobiography, automobile
bi	bilingual, bi-weekly
co	co-operate, co-exist
contra	contradict
im	immoral
inter	international
mid	middar, midnight
mis	misunderstand
non	non-resident
out	outsourcing, outreach
pre	preface, prewar
re	re-arrange
sub	subdivision
trans	transcend
tele	television, telephone
un	undress, unscrew

Some Common Suffixes

Suffixes	Examples
able	comfortable, moveable
ible	edible. Sensible
ance	appearance
ence	intelligence
ant	significant, immigrant
ent	student, correspondent
ee	employee
hood	childhood
ian	politician
ment	excitement
ly	quickly, slowly
less	hopeless
ive	effective
ion	exhibition
ist	Scientist
ish	English
ify	Simplify

Formation of Some Typical Words

Adjectives	Verbs
Able	enable
Bitter	embitter
Clean	cleanse
Large	enlarge
Little	belittle
Rich	enrich
Sweet	sweaten
Sure	ensure
Age	Senile
Brother	Fraternal
Blood	Sanguinary
Cat	Feline
Dog	Canine

Egg	Oval
Eye	Optical
Love	Amorous
Salt	Saline
Sea	Marine
Sky	Ethereal
Spring	Vernal
Tooth	Dental
Woman	Effeminate
Youth	Juvenile
Watch	Vigilant

Word Formation by Prefix and Suffix

Prefixes

Front-end Additions

Prefixes	Meaning	Examples
A, ab	From, away	Abolish, absent
Ad, ac	To, for	Accede, adverb
Ante	Before	Antecedent, ante-chamber
Anti (ant, before, vowels)	Opposed to, against	Anti-climax, anti-national, antagonist, antipathy
Arch	Chief	Arch-enemy, arch-priest
Be	All over, remain	Beset, besought
Be	Thoroughly, excessively	Belabour, betake
Be	Become	Befriend
Be	To have	Bejewelled, befogged
Be	To make	Belittle, befool, behead
Bene	Well	Benefactor, benefit
Bi, bis	Two, twice	Bicycle, biennial

By	Secondary	Bypass, by lane, bye-election
Cheiro, Chiro	Hand	Chirography
Circum	Around	Circumspect, circular
Co, com, con, col, cor	Together with	Companion, combine, connect, corporation, collection
De	Down, from, off, to separate	Descend, depart, detach, depart, decode,
Di	Two	Dialogue, diphthong, diversify
Dis	Away, general negation	Disappoint, disabled, discharge, dissolution, disqualify
E, ex	Out, from, former	Express, extension, ex-student
En	To make	Endanger, enslave, endear
Eu	Well	Euphoria, euphemism
Extra	Beyond, outside	Extra-charges, extra-curricular
Extro	Outward	Extrovert
For	Through, opposite, for	Foriorn, forbid, forswear
Fore	Before	Foretell
Hept (a)	Seven	Heptameter, heptagon
Hetero	Different	Heterodox, heterogenous
Hexa	Six	Hexameter
Homo	Similar	Hormonyms, homogeneous
Hyper	Beyond measure	Hyper-sensitive, hyperbole, hyper-critical
in (im, il, ir)	Not	Incomplete, inhuman, impossible, illegal; irreligious (N.B. im, il and ir are the assimilated forms of in)

In, im	In, into	Inscribe, input, impose, imprest
Inter	Between, among	Inter-caste, intermediate
Intra, intro	Within	Intra-venus, introvert, introspect
Juxtra	Closely	Juxtapose
Mal (male)	Bad, ill	Mal-adjustment, mal-treat, male-faction, malevolent
Manus	Hand	Manuscript
Meta	Change	Metaphor
Mis	Wrong	Mis-spell, misfortune, misfit, misdeed
Multi	Many	Multi-national, multi-storeyed
Non	Not	Non-moral, non-attachment
Ob, op	Against	Obtuse, obverse, opposition
Ortho	Right	Orthodox, orthography
Pan	All	Pantheism, pan-American
Per	Through, fully	Percolate, persuade
Post	After	Post-graduate, post-independence
Pre	Before	Pre-fix, prehistoric, preposition
Pro	For, forward	Progress, proceed, pro-forma, prolong
Re	Back, again	Return, re-invest, re-create
Retro	Backward	Retrovert, retrospection
Se	From	Secede, select
Semi	From	Semi-circle, semi-final
Sub, sup	Under	Sub-inspector, subordinate, sub-committee, supplicate
Super	Above	Supernatural, supercede

Trans	Across, beyond	Transmit, Transform, trans-Yamuna, bridge
Trans, tres	Across	Transcribe, traverse, transport, trespass
Tele	Distance	Telegram
Tri	Three	Triangle, tricycle, tricolour, tripod, tripartite
Ultra	Beyond	Ultra-vires, ultra-modern
Un	Not	U n i m p o r t a n t , unconditional, unclean
Un	Back	Undo, unwind
Uni (una)	One	Unitary, uniform, unanimous
Vice	Instead of	Vice-President, Vice-Principal
With	Back, against	Withdraw, withhold, withstand

N.B.

- (a) For Pronunciation sake, the prefixes appear in different forms; as, 'a' becomes 'ac', as in across, 'ag' as in aggrieved 'at' as in attach; 'in' becomes 'ir' as in irreligious, 'un' as in unprovable 'il' as in illiterate. Similar fusion of the final letter of the Prefix in the first letter of the word is seen in collateral (com + lateral) 'm' has fused into 'l'; the letter 'b' fuses in 'f' as in offend (ob + fend) or in 'c' as in succeed (sub + ceed).
- (b) There are a number of other full-word prefixes used in more than one sense as 'out' = outdo, outcome, outsider, outnumber; 'self' = self-depedent, self-help, 'in' not in the sense of 'not' as invoice, inward, income, innovate, innumerable, 'under' = underwear, undercurrent, underage 'up' = upstart, upsurge.
- (c) The following Prefixes make Antonyms of the words they are added to:
- (i) 'A', 'ab'; *atheist, amoral, apathy, asexual, abnormal, abuse.*
 - (ii) 'Dis': *disregard, dishonour.*
 - (iii) *In : indirect, indefinite, ineligible, indecent, insecure, insignificant, illogical, illegal, illegible, illiterate, immodest,*

immoral, irreligious, irrelevant, irresponsible, improbable, impossible, imperfect, ignominy.

- (iv) 'Un': *Unnecessary, unmindful, unimportant, uncommon, unseen, unknown, unpolished, unlimited.*
- (v) 'Non': *non-stop, non-moral, non-age, non-violence.*
- (d) The Prefix 'ad', variously fused gives a word the meaning of 'to'/'for' - ad hoc, adhere, adjust, adapt, adopt, accent, accompany, accommodate, affect, afflict, aggravate, aggrieved, allege, alleviate, allot, ammunition, ambush, annul, annihilate, announce, approve, appoint, apply, applaud, arrogance, arrange, assent, assign, assort, assurance, attempt, attendance, attract, attest, aspect, ascent, ascribe, ascertain.
- (e) 'Com' and its fused forms (co, col, con, cor) give the word the meaning of with, jointly, together - company, compose, compact, co-education, co-operate, collaborate, collect, confidence, contrive, contemporary, contest, concert, conform, corrode, corollary, correlate, corrupt.

Note. The doubling of the first letter of the word after 'm' of the Prefix if the word begins with 'f', 'c', 'l', 'm', 'r'.

N.B.

1. The lists of words given are not complete in themselves. That is to say, there are other words of all the types enlisted.
2. Note that the first letter of the word is doubled if the Prefixes 'a', 'ab', 'ad', are added to them and if the word begins with the letters 'c', 'f', 'g', 'l', 'm', 'n', 'p', 's', 't'. Similar is the case if the Suffix 'sub' is added to words beginning with 's', 'b', 'f', 'g', 'p'; surrender, suggest, suffix, succeed, surround, suppose.
3. Note the three main senses (meanings) of the Prefix 'in'
 - a. *in = not; ineligible; illiterate etc.*
 - b. *in = through; invoice; invade, inject, invent, invest, introspect.*
 - c. *in = thoroughly; infect, in-charge, inoculate, insist, indulge, infatuation, intense.*
4. The Prefixes 'in' and 'un' and 'mis' and 'dis' when they mean not are a source of trouble and mistakes; the only way out is to consult the dictionary.
5. To make sure of their correct use, note the following Prefixes that are used to make verbs mostly from Nouns.
 - a. *a = alight, ascend, ascertain, accede*

- b. *Em (en) = embrace, embed, embitter, embellish, endanger, entitle, enclose, enfold, entrap.*
- c. *Un = undo, unbutton.*
- d. *De = descend, degrade, defame, delight, decode.*
6. Note the Prefix 'a' making Adjectives from Verbs, as alive, asleep, awake, afloat.
- a. *These Adjectives are used only Predicatively (Fmekesâ legjble yeeo Noun veneR Deelee nw) Similarly, Adjective words having 'a' Suffix in them do not take Nouns after them - amoral, asexual, apathetic, atheist, akin.*
7. Note that the words given in lists are chosen at random. 'Lists' ceW efoS Meyo efkeâmeer Yeer Part of speech kesâ efoÛes nQ~ Fve MeyoeW mes yees other Parts of speech ceW yee Meyo Yeer nes mekeâlee Lee, pewmes, 'succeed' list ceW nw, Fmekeâer peien successive, successful, success, succeeding Yeer efoS pee mekeâles nQ~
8. Prefixes are added with or without, 'Hyphen'; but when the meaning is endangered, the hyphen must be used -'reform' and 're-form', 'recollect' and 're-collect', 'recover' and 're-cover', 'represent' and 're-present'.
9. The following Prefixes are generally written with Hyphen; ex-(Retired), self-, post-, semi-, half-.
10. Hyphen is to be used if the last letter of the Prefix and first letter of the word is the same vowel - 're-establish', 'co-operation', 're-employ', or the same consonant- 'mis-spell', 'under-rate'.
11. Prefixes that make the word 'negative' in sense, are generally written without hyphen; logical unintelligent, disfigure, misnomer, misfit, ineligible.
12. Prefixes related with numbers : Uni = one; Bi = Two; Tri = Three; Quadr = Four; Deca = Ten; Centum = Hundred; Mille = Ten thousand; Duo = (Group of) Two; Quintus = Fifth; Sextus = Sixth; Septem = Seven; Octo = Eight; Octoginta = Eighty; Septuaginta = Seventy; Nonaginta = Ninety; Monos = One; Penta = Five; Hexa = Six; Polys = Many.

Note- Prefix leLee Suffix

Suffixes

(Last-end additions to words)

pewmes Nation (Noun) mes National, Nation-wide and Nation-wise (Adj.) leLee Nationally (Adverb) leLee Nationalize (verb)

(A) Suffixes that change other parts of speech into Adjectives.

- ful = beautiful, dutiful, handful, awful.
- ish = boyish, childish, greenish, foolish, womanish.
- ate = affectionate, incarnate, appellate, passionate.
- er, -est = in Comparative and Superlative degrees; as, older, oldest, happier, happiest, etc.
- esque = picturesque, grotesque, statuesque.
- ic = Satanic, patriotic, classic, romantic, archaic, fantastic, heroic, unheroic.
- ose = verbose, grandiose.
- ive = deceptive, respective, elusive, consecutive, sensitive, massive, active, passive, allusive.
- ous = jealous, zealous, humorous, glorious, victorious, furious, tedious, spacious, beauteous.
- ary = evolutionary, revolutionary, primary, secondary, imaginary, stationary.
- ory = illusory, migratory, regulatory.
- ent = dependent, confident, independent, innocent, violent.
- ant = Pleasant, brilliant, defiant.
- fast = steadfast, super-fast.
- ery = slippery.
- less = speechless, friendless, endless, fearless, penniless.
- like = childlike, manlike
- fold = three fold, manifold, two fold (and so on).
- some = quarrelsome, handsome, troublesome.
- ac = maniac, cardiac
- an = American, Indian, European N.B. All these are nouns as well.
- cal = mechanical, technical, clerical, vertical, vocal, chemical, tropical, classical.
- ar = circular, regular, familiar, similar, singular.
- able = noticeable, dependable, honourable, eatable, portable, pleasurable, fashionable.
- ing = moving, revolving, working and all present participles.
- ed = inspired, honoured, detained.
- wise = class-wise, other-wise, date-wise, name-wise, clock-wise.
- ible = legible, flexible, eligible, negligible, incorrigible, responsible, edible

- ward = *outward, forward, backward, eastward.*
- side = *outside, inside*
- ern = *eastern, western, northern, southern.*
- al = *legal, fatal, visual, individual, casual, central, formal, normal*
- ly = *friendly, brotherly, daily, gaily.*
- y = *fatty, foxy, preparatory.*

(B) Suffixes that change Adjectives into Adverbs- The Suffix '-ly' is the most commonly used Suffix by adding which Adjectives become Adverbs.

-ly = beautiful(ly) (and all Adjectives ending in - 'ful') childishly, foolishly, jealously, callously, affectionately, passionately, primarily, secondarily, individually, legally, fatally, brilliantly, restively, honourably, annually, fashionably, naturally, heroically.

N.B.: These words are form the list (A) given above. Many other Adjectives become Adverbs by adding '-ly' to them - slowly, mostly, loudly, happily, frequently, generally, really, truly, certainly, usually, annually, hardly, scarcely, rarely, etc.

(C) Suffixes that make other parts of speech Verbs-

- ate = *terminate, designate, impersonate, tabulate, regulate, captivate, (most of them are Noun + -ate).*
- en = *(Adjectives + en) darken, sharpen, widen, lengthen, whiten, lighten*
- fy = *verify, dignify, rectify, satisfy, glorify, personify, beautify*
- ise = *revise, devise, advise, rise, surprise*
- ize = *systematize, dramatize, subsidize, monopolize, patronize, idolize, rationalize, nationalize*

N.B.

- (i) In the words in which either ise or ize can be used, the American practice is to use ize and the British is to use ise;
as, humanise (British practice) humanize (American practice) : civilize (ize); criticise (ize); realise (ize); Authorise (ize).
- (ii) In the following words, only ise is to be used - revise, exercise, devise, advise, rise, surprise, supervise, despise, advertise.
- (iii) In some words ize is the part of the word itself : size, seize.

(D) Noun Suffixes

(i) Suffixes that refer to persons-

- ster = *spinster, gangster, songster*

- ar = *beggar, liar, friar, commissar, burglar, pedlar, registrar, bursar*
- ary = *functionary, votary, revolutionary, notary, dignitary, reactionary, visionary*
- er = *adviser, convener, peddler, buyer, singer, seller, leader, lawyer, worker, reporter, broker, joker, hair-dresser, retailer*
- wright = *playwright, wheelwright*
- or = *convenor, advisor, Governor, preceptor, collector, inspector, rector, mediator, aviator, successor, guarantor, actor, director, conductor*
- ory = *signatory*
- ess = *governess, actress, poetess, hostess, mistress*
- smith = *blacksmith, goldsmith*
- ist = *Marxist, classicist, escapist, humorist, romanticist, typist, dramatist, artist, journalist, cyclist, chemist*
- san = *artisan, partisan*
- man = *gunman, watchman, policeman, salesman, bondsman, sportsman, craftsman*
- guard = *life-guard, body-guard*
- ant = *attendant, servant, applicant, assistant*
- ard = *drunkard, sluggard, wizard, dotard*
- an = *parliamentarian, tragedian, comedian, librarian, physician, beautician, Indian, American, Italian*
- ee = *addressee, devotee, referee, suttee, payee*
- ur = *masseur, litterateur, amateur, colporteur, poseur*
- ite = *anchorite, Gwaliorite, partite, Raphaelite, socialite*
- maker = *peace-maker, watch-maker*
- star = *super-star, film-star*
- ert = *expert, convert, introvert, extrovert*
- ive = *relative, native, talkative, detective*
- al = *tribal, rival*

(ii) Suffixes that refer to state, action, object etc

- al = *trial, revival, survital, interval*
- hood = *boyhood, priesthood, manhood, childhood*
- ness = *kindness, happiness, slowness, fatness, rashness, helplessness*

- tion = *corruption, invention, attention, prevention, instruction, conjunction, supposition, examination, termination, intention.*
- ment = *payment, attachment, recruitment, retirement, treatment, supplement, acknowledgement*
- ary = *dictionary, rosary, salary, itinerary*
- ship = *lordship, kingship, friendship, workmanship, scholarship, kinship, principalship, authorship*
- ance = *attendance, relevance, admittance, resistance, significance, importance, remembrance, hindrance, deliverance*
- sion = *division, revision, supervision, inversion, commission, permission, admission, omission. Note the doubling of 's' in words that make Nouns of Verbs ending in 't'.*
- ery = *artillery, confectionery, stationery, cookery, mockery, delivery, drapery, surgery, slavery, bravery, discovery, recovery*
- ce = *attendance, intelligence, brilliance, diligence, pretence, perseverance, negligence, deliverance*
- cy = *hesitancy, captaincy, regency, buoyancy, intelligency, reluctancy*
- ty = *cruelty, royalty, loyalty, frailty, nicety*
- ity = *university, adversity, reality, personality, equality, brevity, tranquility, activity, publicity, religiosity, punctuality, sensuality, perpetuity*
- lock = *dead-lock, wed-lock, pad-lock*
- ice = *cowardice*
- er = *reader, player, speaker, cooker, joker, wrapper.*
- N.B.** All these words excepting 'cooker' are also agents.
- ese = *(the languages of) officialese, Chinese, journalese*
- ive = *initiative, purgative, prerogative, incentive, perspective, directive*
- age = *breakage, beverage, non-age, reportage*
- ar = *sirear, circular*
- ory = *inventory, accessory, directory*
- or = *sector, factor, reactor*

N.B.: One and the same suffixes are commonly seen in both the above given categories.

Nouns either occur alone (Man is mortal) or with an article (A man came to meet me.) The noun can be preceded by an adjective. In such cases the article comes before the adjective.

For example: *He is good a man.* (Incorrect)

He is a good man. (Correct)

Sometimes in place of articles we use words like *my, this, each, every* etc. Such words are called *Determiners*.

For example: *This is my book.*

Each boy was present.

Usually we cannot put two determiners together. We can say:

the house

this house

my house.

But we cannot say:

the my house

the this house

this my house

Determiners can be divided into two groups:

Group A

a, an, the

my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their, one's

whose, there, these, that, those

Group B

some, any, no

each, every, either, neither

much, many, more, most, little, less, least

few, fewer, fewest, enough, several

all, both, half

what, whatever, which, whichever

Some rules regarding the use of Determiners

- (a) *If Group A determiners have to be used with Group B determiners of should be used.*

For example: *some of the people*

each of my brother

most of the time

- (b) *Before of none should be used for negation.*

None of my friends.

and not "No of my friends."

Likewise everyone and not every should be used before of:

Everyone of my friends. (correct)

Every of my friends. (Incorrect)

(c) Leave out of after all, both and half:

all (of) his relatives

both (of) my friends.

(d) Group B determiners can also be used alone, that is, without nouns. They can also be used or before pronouns:

Do you know Premchand's novels?

Yes, I have read several.

also neither of them

most of us

which of you.

Some Important determiners

Some and Any

1. **Some and any are used before uncountable and plural nouns. Before another determiner of pronoun some of and any of are used:**

Would you like some ice-cream?

Would you like some of this ice-cream?

I can't find any cigarettes.

I can't find any of my cigarettes.

2. **Like a or an, some and any refer to indefinite quantity or number:**

Have you got an aspirin? (singular countable noun)

Have you got any aspirins? (plural countable noun)

I need some medicine. (uncountable noun)

3. **Some is generally used in affirmative sentences, and any in questions and negatives:**

I want some razor blades.

Have you got any razor-blades?

4. **Some is used in questions when we expect or want people to say 'yes' in reply. In offers and requests this is the position.**

Would you like some more money?

Could I have some more sugar, please?

Have you got some books that I could borrow?

5. We use any after words that have a negative meaning with words like never, hardly, without:

You never give me any help.

We got there without any difficulty.

There is hardly any tea left.

Each and Every

We use each to talk about two or more people or things. Every is used to talk about three or more.

We use each when we are thinking of people or things separately, one at a time.

We say every when we are thinking of people or things together, in a group.

Compare:

We want each child to develop in his or her own way.

We want every child to be happy.

Each person in turn went to see the doctor.

He gave every patient the same medicine.

Remember to use 'every' and not 'each' after 'nearly' and 'not'.

For example:

Not every student is present today.

Nearly every student is present today.

Remember not to use 'of' after every.

Every of the children received a present. (Incorrect)

Each of the children received a present. (Correct)

'Every' cannot be used at the end of the sentence.

For example: *They received a present each. (not 'every')*

Much and Many

Many means a large but indefinite number. It is used only before uncountable nouns in plural number. It is mostly used in:

- (a) *Negative sentences:*

I have not got many friends.

- (b) *Questions:*

Have you read many books on philosophy?

- (c) *Modifying the subject of the sentence:*

Many people think that it ought to be changed.

Much means in quantity, extent or degree. It is used only before uncountable nouns. It is nearly always used in:

- (a) *Negative sentences:*
There is not much water in Bhopal lake this year.
- (b) *Questions:*
Is there much water in Bhopal lake this year?
- (c) *When modifying the subject of the sentence:*
There is not much truth in what he says.

Much and many can also be used alone, without a following noun:

- You have not eaten much.*
- Did you find any mangoes? (Not many)*

Either and Neither

Either is used before a singular noun to mean 'one or the other'.

Come on Saturday or Sunday. Either day is o.k. Sometimes either can mean 'both' (especially before side and end). The noun is singular.

There are flowers on either side of the road.

People were standing on either end of the road to greet the visiting leader.

'Either of' can be used before a pronoun or a determiner. The noun, pronoun is plural:

I do not like either of them.

I do not like either of my teachers.

Neither is used before a singular noun to mean 'not one and not the other':

Can you come on Saturday or Sunday?

I am afraid neither day is possible.

Neither of is used before another determiner and before a pronoun. The noun or pronoun is plural:

Neither of my sisters can sing.

Neither of us saw the thief.

Few and Little

Few suggests a 'small number as against many'. It has a negative meaning:

We hired a large hall, but few spectators turned up.

Few people can hope to achieve perfection.

A few suggests 'a small number as against none'. The meaning is more like some:

His ideas are very difficult, but a few people understand them.

A few words spoken in earnest are enough as against a long speech.

Little means 'hardly any'. It has a negative meaning:

He drinks little wine.

I have little interest in politics.

A little suggests 'some quantity as against none.' It has a positive meaning:

Give the roses a little water everyday.

A little knowledge is a dangerous thing.

Exercise-1

Fill in the blanks with suitable determiners:

1. *Some of the students have come to college without knowledge of English.*
2. *How.....milk will be needed for you breakfast?*
3. *Her brother was.....good orator.*
4. *I gave.....story to my son to read.*
5. *.....boy who came to me was a young doctor.*
6. *There is ink available.*
7. *..... few boys are standing here.*
8. *Will you please lend me money?*
9. *Is there..... money with you?*
10. *There is..... milk in the pot.*
11. *How.....book do you want?*
12. *I have already spent.....money on this issue.*
13. *She is.....Asian by birth.*
14. *She asked me for.....money.*
15. *All.....students ranaway.*

Ans. 1. little, 2. much, 3. a, 4. as, the, 6. no, 7. a, 8. some, 9. any, 10. no, 11. many, 12. a lot of, 13. an, 14. some, 15. the.

Exercise-2

Fill in the blanks with suitable determiners:

1. *How.....stories have you gone through?*
2. *Mohan can write with.....hand.*

3. *It there.....mistake?*
4. *Read the letter to see that there are.....mistakes.*
5. *Don't you havefriends in the other section?*
6. *I had.....money those days.*
7. *.....book you want is out of print.*
8. *Honesty is.....best policy.*
9. *.....blue car belongs to my brother.*
10. *One goes to.....university to receive higher education.*
11. *Do you have.....plan to go out.*
12. *How.....trees have you planted?*
13. *..... more' you workmore you will get.*
14. *He would like to have.....more coffee.*

Ans. 1. many. 2. his, 3. any, 4. no, 5. some, 6. no, 7. the, 8. the, 9. the, 10. a, 11. any, 12. many, 13. the, the, 14. (x).

Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is a group of words that does the work of a noun.

Ex.

1. *The girl wants something.*
2. *The old man wants to go home.*

In the first example, the word 'something' is a noun which is the object of the verb 'wants'.

In the second example, the group of words 'to go home' is in the object of the verb 'wants'. Hence, this group of words works as a noun, therefore 'to go home' is a Noun Phrase.

Look at the following examples of a Noun Phrase.

1. *Early to bad is a good habit.*
2. *She hopes to reach London by next month.*
3. *I enjoy teaching grammar.*
4. *The DM likes to take harsh decisions.*
5. *To stand first this year is my aim.*
6. *Discussing such mean things is beneath my dignity.*
7. *Did you enjoy working with him?*
8. *We enjoy being together every week.*

Exercise-1

Pick out the Noun Phrases from the following sentence, if any:

1. *She has found the key to your success.*
2. *I enjoy going for a walk in the morning.*
3. *I love singing songs.*
4. *I have no time to waste on petty issues.*
5. *She speaks like any other leader.*
6. *I know driving very well.*
7. *I don't know how to swim.*
8. *This is a matter of great significance.*
9. *He won the first prize.*
10. *Birds of a feather flock together.*

Exercise-2

Supply a Noun Phrase:

1. *She wishes.....*
2. *My friend promised.....*
3. *They want.....*
4. *I don't expect.....*
5. *.....delights me.*
6. *.....surprised us.*
7. *I hate.....*
8. *Do you wish.....*
9. *I enjoy.....*
10. *I don't intend.....*

Exercise-3

Pick out the Noun Phrase in the following sentences:

1. *To talk such rubbish is irritating.*
2. *Why do you prefer being with such a fellow.*
3. *My brother wanted to speak to the commissioner of Income – Tax.*
4. *He dislikes doing such things.*
5. *Have you ever tried doing such anti-social activities?*
6. *The old man intended to fulfil his commitment.*
7. *She refused to answer my query.*
8. *Walking is good for health.*

9. *Promise to help me when needed.*
10. *Why do you like calling me at any odd hour.*

Noun and Phrases Used as Adverbs

Noun and Phrases are often used as adverbs, particularly to indicate time and degree.

e.g.

1. *The child stayed home evenings.*
(The verb 'stayed' is modified by the noun evenings)
2. *My friend would like to practise mornings.* (The infinitive 'to practise' is 'modified by the noun 'mornings'.)
3. *All the students jogged a mile.*
(The verb 'jogged' is modified by the noun phrase 'a mile')
4. *This cloth is not worth five hundred rupees.*
(The adjective 'worth' is modified by the noun 'phrase 'five hundred rupees')

Exercise-4

In the following sentences underline the Nouns and Phrases used as adverbs as shown in the following example:

e.g.

We all decided to go to the beach.

1. *The guardians are warned not to go beyond this point.*
2. *The old poet wrote in the morning.*
3. *In winter, they walk before dinner.*
4. *She weighs twenty pounds more than her cousin.*
5. *My shop costs two lacs of amount.*
6. *I had to pay twenty dollars at the counter itself.*
7. *I visit the Tai last evening.*
8. *His old house costs just five lacs.*

Verb Phrase

A phrase is a group of two or more words that does not contain a subject and verb. Phrases have many forms and functions. Let us identify the functions of phrases as modifiers, complements and objects.

e.g.

1. *The thief hid behind the building.*
(The phrase 'behind the building' modifies 'hid')

2. *The child in front will fall.*

(The phrase 'in front' modifies the 'child')

Verb Phrase: 'Verb Phrase' is the combination of verb + preposition / other word giving a particular sense. It is called 'verbial phrase'.

Let us learn the following examples to make clear what verbal phrases are.

1. to $\frac{\text{bring}}{\text{V}}$ $\frac{\text{about}}{\text{P}}$ (cause to take place)

Ex. *After that accident, he has brought about a great change in his behaviour.*

2. **Give away** (distribute)

Ex. *The D.M. gave away the prizes in the function.*

3. **To turn off** (to dismiss)

Ex. *The Principal turned off the lazy staff.*

4. **To turn up** (to come)

Ex. *I could not turn up yesterday evening.*

5. **To turn down** (to reject)

Ex. *The Principal turned down my application.*

6. **Give in** (to surrender)

Ex. *He is such a man as won't give in before circumstances.*

7. **Look into** (to examine)

Ex. *Kindly look into the matter and do the justice.*

8. **Look after** (to take care)

Ex. *He looks after his old parents.*

9. **Taken abade** (astonished)

Ex. *I was taken aback by his behaviour.*

10. **Go ahead** (to use)

Ex. *Go ahead in your life, I'll ever remain with you.*

11. **Call at** (visit)

Ex. *I called at Mr. Gupta's place, but he was not available.*

12. **Carry on** (continue)

Ex. *Better, you carry on your studies.*

Verb Patterns

'Verb Patterns' deal with the structure of a sentence, and its various kinds of formation. It is true that 'verb' is the soul of a sentence. No sentence can be a complete one without a verb.

A detailed structure of a sentence with verb patterns may be understood by the following given twenty patterns:

Pattern-1: Subject + Verb

In this pattern, the subject is followed by an intransitive verb, which has a complete sense without the help of any other parts of speech or words.

Ex.

1. $\frac{\text{Birds}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{fly}}{\text{V}}$

2. $\frac{\text{The sun}}{\text{S}} \text{ is } \frac{\text{shining}}{\text{V}}$

3. $\frac{\text{My friend}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{was singing}}{\text{V}}$

4. $\frac{\text{The bell}}{\text{S}} \text{ has rung.}$

Pattern-2 : Subject + Verb + Subject - Complement

Ex.

1. $\frac{\text{This}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{is}}{\text{V}} \frac{\text{a notebook}}{\text{S-C}}$

2. $\frac{\text{The students}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{kept}}{\text{V}} \frac{\text{quiet}}{\text{S-C}}$

3. $\frac{\text{Amit}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{looks}}{\text{V}} \frac{\text{happy}}{\text{S-C}}$

4. $\frac{\text{The old man}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{grew}}{\text{V}} \frac{\text{angry}}{\text{S-C}}$

Pattern-3 : Sub + Verb + direct object

'Direct Object' refers to lifeless things.

Ex.

1. $\frac{\text{I}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{know}}{\text{V}} \frac{\text{your place}}{\text{d.o.}}$

2. $\frac{\text{Who}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{broke}}{\text{V}} \frac{\text{the chain}}{\text{d.o.}}$

3. Ravi completed the task
S V d.o.

4. I have lost your pen
S V d.o.

Pattern-4 : Subject + Verb + indirect object + direct object

Ex.

1. Dr. Ravi gave me a pen
S V i.o. d.o.

2. We have paid them the money
S V i.o. d.o.

Pattern-5 : Subject + Verb + direct object + preposition +
Prepositional object

Ex.

1. Dr. Raman gave his pen to a friend of mine
S V d.o. preposition P.O.

2. Mywife cooked dinner for every one
S V d.o. preposition P.O.

Note:

These are certain verbs which can be used both in pattern-4 and in pattern-5. Generally the pattern-5 is preferred.

Pattern-6 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + Adjective.

Ex.

1. The child pushed the door open
S V N Adj.

2. I whitewashed the wall green
S V N Adj.

Pattern-7 : Subject + Verb + Preposition + Prepositional
Object

Ex.

1. We are waiting for my friend
S are V P P.O.

2. You can't count on his help
S can't V P P.O.

Pattern-8 : Subject + Verb + to infinitive (as object of the
verb).

Ex.

1. We all wish to go
S V infinitive

2. My son hoped to stand first
S V infinitive

Note: like, love, prefer, begin, start, agree, try, choose, attempt, continue, intend, propose, desire, wish, want, hate, dislike, hope, expect, promise, refuse, fear, remember, forget, offer, learn, etc. are some of the verbs of this pattern.

Pattern-9 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + to infinitive

Ex.

1. I would like my friend to stay
S V N I

2. My father asked me not to go
S V Pr I

Note: ask, tell, order, command, persuade, encourage, urge, want, wish, request, intend, expect force, tempt, teach, invite, help, warn, like, love, hate, allow, Permit, remind, cause, mean, dare, etc. are the verb used in this pattern.

Pattern-10 : Subject + Verb + gerund

Ex.

1. I love singing
S V g

2. They enjoy studying novels
S V g

Note: In this pattern the gerund is the object of the verb. The chief verbs used in this pattern are-begin, start, love, like, hate, stop, finish, enjoy, prefer, fear, remember, forget, mind, miss, suggest, practice, try, understand, keep, help, advise, admit, avoid, consider, intend, delay, deny, etc.

Pattern-11 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + Present Participle

Ex.

1. They saw me crossing the road
S V P P.P.

2. The teacher found the students playing cards
S V P P.P.

Note : see, hear, smell, feel, watch, notice, find, observe, listen, get, catch, keep, leave, set, start, etc. are some of the verbs used in this pattern.

Pattern-12 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + Plain infinitive

Ex.

1. They heard her sing
S V P P.I.
2. I shall make you feel
S V P P.I.

Note: see, watch, notice, observe, hear, listen, feel, make, let, help, bid, etc. are some of verbs of this pattern.

Pattern - 13 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + Past Participle

Ex.

1. I felt myself quite elevated
S V P P.P.
2. I found the flowers faded
S V N P.P.

Note: see, hear, find, feel, want, wise, like, make, prefer, get, have, etc. are some of the verbs of this pattern.

Pattern - 14 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + (to be +) complement.

The complement may be an adjective, adjective phrase or noun.

Ex.

1. They thought him (to be) foolish
S V Pro. C
2. The teacher called him a fool
S V Pro. C

Note: Appoint, choose, elect, make, call, name, nominate, crown, christen, etc. are some of the verbs of this pattern.

Pattern- 15 : Subject + Verb + that-clause (object of the verb)

Ex.

1. I suppose (that) he is not there
S V clause
2. He said that he was busy
S V clause

Note: After 'say', 'think', 'suppose', 'hope', 'expect', 'that' is often omitted.

Say, think, suppose, imagine, know, believe, admit, confess, declare, suggest, complain, hope, expect, fear, feel, hear, intend, notice, propose, show, understand, wonder, etc. are some of the verbs of this pattern.

Pattern-16 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + that-clause

Ex.

1. She promised me that she would do it
S V P Clause

2. The student satisfied
S V
me that she could do well in the examination
Clause

Note: The chief verbs used in this pattern are : tell, inform, promise, warn, remind, teach, assure and satisfy, etc.

Pattern-17 : Subject + Verb + interrogative + clause

Ex.

1. She showed how annoyed she was
S V Interrogative Clause

2. Nobody knows when she will come
S V I Clause

Note: Say, ask, wonder, know, believe, imagine, decide, discuss, understand, show, reveal, find, out, suggest; tell (especially in the interrogative and negative) etc. are some of the verbs of this kind.

Pattern-18: Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + interrogative + clause

Ex.

1. She asked me why I had done it
S V Pro. Clause

2. My teacher advised me where I should settle
S V Clause

Note: 'Tell', 'ask', 'show', 'teach', 'advise', 'inform', etc. are some of the verbs of this pattern.

Pattern-19 : Subject + Verb + interrogative + to-infinitive

Ex.

1. I know how to swim
S V I + to + infinitive

2. My friend couldn't decide what to do
S V I + to + infinitive

Note: Know, understand, wonder, remember, forget, decide, settle, find out, enquire, see, explain, guess, learn, consider, etc. are some of the verbs of this pattern.

Pattern-20 : Subject + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + Interrogative
+ to infinitive

Ex.

1. $\frac{\text{He}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{has taught}}{\text{V}} \text{me} \frac{\text{how to do it}}{\text{I - infinitive}}$
2. $\frac{\text{We}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{asked}}{\text{V}} \text{her} \frac{\text{where to get tickets}}{\text{I - Infinitive}}$

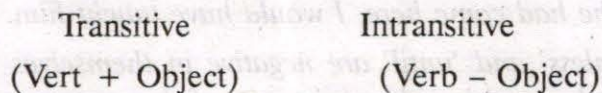
Finite and Non-Finite Forms

'Finite' or 'Main' verb is the soul of a sentence. No sentence can be complete without a finite verb.

Ex.

1. $\text{They} \frac{\text{help}}{\text{F.V.}} \text{each other.}$
2. $\text{Mr. Ravi} \frac{\text{went}}{\text{F.V.}} \text{to Agra last evening.}$

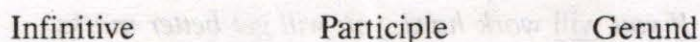
Kinds of Finite Verb



Ex.

1. $\frac{\text{They}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{gave}}{\text{T.V.}} \frac{\text{a pen}}{\text{direct object}} \frac{\text{to me}}{\text{Indirect object}}$
2. $\frac{\text{They}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{went}}{\text{T.V.}} \frac{\text{to Kanpur}}{\text{Complement}}$
3. $\frac{\text{My friend}}{\text{S}} \frac{\text{sent}}{\text{T.V.}} \frac{\text{a letter}}{\text{D.O.}} \frac{\text{to you}}{\text{I.O.}}$

Non-Finites



Errors of Sequence of Tenses and Conditionals

- (1) *When the main verb of a sentence is in past tense, verbs in subordinate clauses must be in past tense only.*

- Ex.** *He said that he was going there.*
- (2) *If in a sentence there are two clauses in the past tense, the action taking place first has past perfect tense whereas the second verb is put in the past indefinite tense.*
- Ex.** *The students had come here before the teacher came.*
- (3) *Conditional sentences have two parts: (i) if clause, (ii) main clause. If a conditional clause in present indefinite, the followed one should be in future tense.*
- Ex.** *If you go there, you will meet him.*
- (4) *If the first part of a conditional sentence is in past perfect + before...the followed part shall be made in past indefinite.*
- Ex.** *She had done the work before I asked her.*
- (5) *If the first part of a conditional sentence is in past, indefinite + after.....the followed shall be in past perfect.*
- Ex.** *He did it after I had gone.*
- (6) *If the first part of a conditional sentence is in future perfect + before...the followed shall be in present.*
- Ex.** *It will have rained before I reach there.*
- (7) *If the first part of a sentence beginning with 'if or 'had' is in past perfect + (,)..... the followed, shall be made in S + would have + IIIrd.*
- Ex.** *If he had come here, I would have taught him.*
- (8) *'Unless' and 'until' are negative in themselves 'not' shall not be used in subsequent part of the sentence.*
- Ex.** *Unless you work hard, you can't do it.*
- (9) *'Lest' is followed by 'should' without not.*
- Ex.** *Work hard lest you should fail.*
- (10) *'Let' is always followed by objective case of pronouns.*
- Ex.** (a) *Let them do it.*
(b) *Let me come here.*

Exercise-1

Correct the following sentences:

1. *He said that he will go there.*
2. *If you will work hard, you will get better marks.*
3. *I reached the station before the arrived.*
4. *They had reached the station after the train had left for Kanpur.*

5. *It will have rained before she reaches her village.*
6. *Unless you do not go there, I shall not help you.*
7. *Stay here until you father does not come.*
8. *Work hard lest you may not touch your goal.*
9. *Let they do it, I don't bother.*
10. *If she had worked hard, she should have stood first.*

Ans. 1. would, 2. If you work hard....., 3. I had reached....., 4. They reached....., 5. It will have rained....., 6. Unless you go there....., 7. your father comes, 8. lest you/-should touch your goal, 9. Let them do it,, 10.....she would have stood first.

Infinitive

The infinitive is that form of the verb which is not changed for person, number or tense. It is that form of verb does have inflections such as do, take and eat.

It may be used with 'to' or without 'to'. The infinitive without 'to' is called a bare infinitive.

Ex.

- (a) *I hope $\frac{\text{to do}}{\text{infinitive}}$ this work.*
- (b) *He made me $\frac{\text{do}}{\text{infinitive}}$ this work.*

Four Forms of Infinitives:

- (1) *Active Voice*
e.g. *We are to do this work.*
- (2) *Passive Voice Infinitive*
e.g. *It is to be done.*
- (3) *Present, Indefinitive Infinitive*
e.g. *I like to teach English.*
- (4) *Perfect Infinitive*
e.g. *He is said to have returned the money.*

Kinds of Infinitive

There are two kinds:

- (1) *The Noun Infinitive*
- (2) *The Gerundial Infinitive.*

The noun infinitive may be used in following manners:

- (a) *The subject of a verb.*
e.g. *To teach the students is my duty.*
- (b) *The object of a verb.*
e.g. *She likes to dance.*
- (c) *The object of a preposition.*
e.g. *She does nothing but (except) talk.*
- (d) *The subjective complement of a verb.*
e.g. *She seems to know you.*
- (e) *The objective complement of a verb.*
e.g. *The child made me laugh.*
- (f) *A form of exclamation.*
e.g. *To think that he should cheat his own.*

The Gerundial Infinitive & Its Functions

A gerundial infinitive is always used with 'to'. It is generally used to do the work of adjective or of an adverb.

As an Adjective

A gerundial infinitive may qualify, a noun in the sense of purpose or futurity.

- e.g.
- (a) *Get me a book to go through (purpose)*
- (b) *We shall do it in the time to come. (futurity)*

As an Adverb

A gerundial infinitive may modify an adjective or a verb.

- e.g.
- (a) *This is easy to understand. (modifying an adjective)*
- (b) *He came here to learn. (modifying a verb)*

To Introduce a Paranthesis

Ex.

He is, to speak frankly, far from poverty.

Errors of Infinitive

- (1) *Following are the verbs immediately followed by infinitive:*

Promise, swear, consent, agree, learn, remember, forget, neglect, refers, propose, regret, try, attempt, fail, care, hope, hesitate, prepare, decide, determine, arrange, undertake, manage, love, hate, seem, etc.

Ex.

- (a) *He promised to help me every time.*
- (b) *They tried to force their entry.*
- (2) *Infinitive with 'to' may be used immediately after the following words or after the objects of the verbs: want, wish, expect, help, beg, mean, intend, like, prefer, etc.*

Ex.

- (a) *She wants to go.*
- (b) *She wants me to go.*
- (3) *The verbs followed by object + infinitive are as follows: Tell, order, invite, oblige, compel, force, make, let, allow, permit, teach, warn, tempt, encourage, advise, request, bid, forbid, show, etc.*

Ex.

He was allowed to smoke.

- (4) *The infinitive with 'to' is used" when the infinitive is gerundial.*

Ex.

- (a) *My friend has not enough to read.*
- (b) *He came to see me last night.*
- (5) *The infinitive with 'to' is used when it is subject of a verb or object of a verb or subjective complement of a verb or objective complement of a verb.*

Ex.

- (a) *To understand all is difficult. (Subject)*
- (b) *She seems to be growing. (Subject complement)*
- (c) *I want to learn Russian. (Object)*
- (6) *If in an infinitive mood, some verb is connected with 'and', 'to' is used with the first verb only.*

Ex.

- (a) *He has ordered me to go and come back within half an hour.*
- (b) *Ask the student to sit and read.*
- (7) *The split infinitive should not be used. No adverb should be used between 'to' and the verb.*

Ex.

- (a) *I request you kindly to grant me leave for a week.*

- (b) *I want to examine it myself personally.*
- (8) *The infinitive with 'to' is used to express some purpose.*
Ex. *He did it to help me.*
- (9) *The infinitive with 'to' is used to express something disappointing.*
Ex. *He hurried to the house only to find that it was empty.*
- (10) *Infinitive is used to indicate a command or some plan.*
Ex. *He is to return tomorrow.*
- (11) *It is used after an adjective.*
Ex. *I am glad to meet you.*
- (12) *It is used after 'too' + adjective or adverb.*
Ex. *He is too poor to pay his fee.*
- (13) *It is used after adjective or adverb + enough.*
Ex. *My friend is good enough to help you.*
- (14) *The infinitive with 'to' is used with the following verbs followed by 'how', 'when', 'what', 'where', etc. wonder, know, explain, find out, discover, understand, etc.*
Ex. *I don't know how to swim.*
- (15) *The infinitive with 'to' in the present continuous or perfect form is used after the verbs 'appear' and 'seem'.*
Ex.
- (a) *He seems to be afraid of the dog.*
- (b) *He appears to have finished his work.*
- (16) *It is used after a verb in the passive voice.*
Ex. *She was seen to enter the house.*
- (17) *It is used after such words as 'first', 'second', 'last', etc.,*
Ex. *He was the first to come but the last to go.*

Exercises -1

1. *Lata went to hospital for seeing him.*
2. *He has asked you for accompanying them.*
3. *Bid him to go home.*
4. *Let him to do it.*
5. *My friend will make you to do it.*
6. *I felt the suggestion be a fine one.*
7. *She ought be ashamed of herself.*
8. *We felt the house to quake.*

9. *They let him to go.*
 10. *He had rather to read this book.*

Ans. 1. to see, 2. to accompany, 3. Bid him go home, 4. Let him do it, 5.you do it, 6.suggestion to be....., 7. She ought to be....., 8. house quake, 9.him go, 10. He had rather read this book.

Exercise-2

Complete the following sentences by adding an Infinitive with or without 'to' :

1. *My mother made me.....*
2. *He commanded the intruders.....*
3. *It is unwise.....*
4. *It is not good*
5. *It is wrong.....*
6. *He heard me.....*
7. *He wants to see me*
8. *She need not*
9. *It is desirable*
10. *They asked me.....*

Participle

'Participle' means a 'verb' used as an adjective.

There are three kinds of participle:

(1) **present Participle-** Verb + ing used as an adjective.

(2) **Past Participle-** 't', 'ed' or 'en' past form of a verb used as an adjective.

e.g.

- (i) *Where was a broken chair.*
- (ii) *I saw some faded flowers in the garden.*

(3) **Perfect Participle-**

Having + III^V (Active Voice).Used as a

Having + been + III^V (Passive Voice)Adjective

e.g.

- (i) *Having composed the matter, I went to Dr. Tewari.*
- (ii) *Having been punished he has been debarred from the examination.*

Errors of Participle

(1) *A present participle is used after the verbs of sensation.*

Ex. *I heard her singing a song.*

(2) *A present participle qualifying a noun is placed before it.*

Ex. *Barking dogs seldom bite.*

(3) *When a present participle indicates a verb, it is used after the finite verb.*

Ex. *The child came out carrying a bucket of coal.*

(4) *Verbs expressing a physical activity & coming after verbs like 'go' and 'come', have the present participle forms.*

Ex.

(a) *She came running.*

(b) *He went shopping.*

(5) *When a past participle is used as an adjective, it is placed before the nouns, concerned.*

Ex. *He dashed against a fallen tree.*

(6) *When a past participle is used predicatively, it is placed after the finite verb.*

Ex. *She seems concerned.*

(7) *Perfect participle is used to show that some work had been over before another work began.*

Ex. *Having done my work; I came here.*

(8) *In case, of a nominative absolute, a participle should be used, with the concerned noun or pronoun.*

Ex. *It being a hot day, he did not come.*

Exercise-1

Correct the following sentences:

1. *He kept me wait.*

2. *My friend is going ride this evening.*

3. *Being a hot day. I was at home.*

4. *This is a flower faded.*

5. *He heard his mother open the door.*

6. *Lata will go to shop this afternoon.*

7. *He saw his sister come in.*

8. *She is going swim.*

9. *He heard the bombs to drop.*

10. *I called him for do this work.*

Ans. 1. waiting, 2. riding, 3. It being, 4. faded flower, 5. opening, 6. ...go shopping this....., 7. coming, 8. swimming, 9. bombs dropping, 10. to do or for doing.

Exercise -2

Fill in the blanks with the present or past participle whichever is correct:

1. *She was.....by the fire.....a novel.* (sit, read)
2. *The building of the library was.....by the flood.* (damage)
3. *Ravi's sister is..... in poetry.* (interest)
4. *She was..... in the sofa.* (sit)
5. *He wants these book to be.....to me.* (deliver)
6. *The peon was.....on the stool.* (sit)
7. *I have been for many years.* (teach)
8. *My friends have been.....for two hours.* (wait)
9. *She persisted in.....it.* (do)
10. *Rama's sister is.....in poetry.* (interest)

Ans. 1. sitting, reading, 2. damaged, 3. interested 4. sitting, 5. delivered, 6. sitting, 7. teaching, 8. waiting, 9. doing, 10. interested.

Gerund

'V + ing' used as noun is called gerund.

Functions of a Gerund

(1) As a noun, (2) As a verb

Ex.

Dancing is an art. (Noun)

I like dancing. (Verb)

Noun Functions of a Gerund

(1) *The subject of a verb:*

Ex. *Working is good for health.*

(2) *The object of a verb :*

Ex. *I like working in the morning. (Obj.)*

She is fond of singing. (Obj.)

Her favourite pass time is singing. (Subjective Complement)

I heard her singing. (Objective Complement)

Errors of Gerunds

- (1) *The following verbs are followed by gerunds-avoid, consider, delay, dislike, enjoy, mind, forgive, give, up, keep on, stop, recollect, put off, understand, can't resist, can't stand, can't help, etc.*

Ex. *It went on raining for many days.*

- (2) *Adjectives 'worth' and 'busy' are followed by gerunds.*

Ex.

(a) *The Taj is worth visiting.*

(b) *This cloth is worth purchasing.*

(c) *He is busy doing his work.*

- (3) *A gerund is used after prepositional phrases.*

Ex. (a)

He is very fond of reading novels.

(b) *They are sick of eating apples.*

- (4) *A gerund is used after prohibitory verbs like prevent, prohibit, forbid, abstain etc.*

Ex. *He has been debarred from appearing the examining.*

- (5) *Such expressions as 'it is no good', 'it is no use' are followed by gerunds.*

Ex.

(a) *It is no use going over there.*

(b) *It is no use crying over spilt milk.*

- (6) *Both 'gerunds' and 'infinitives' may be used with the following verbs: advise, agree, allow, begin, continue, forget, hate, leave, like, love, permit, prefer, propose, regret, remember, start, study, try, etc.*

Ex.

(a) *My friend advised me to go.*

(b) *It continued raining for hours.*

- (7) *Gerunds may be used after all prepositions except the preposition 'to'. But the following are exceptions.*

Ex.

(a) *I am looking forward to seeing you next week.*

(b) *He is not averse to meeting my friends.*

- (c) *He is not opposed to my leaving early.*
- (8) *Gerunds are used to express short prohibitions.*
- Ex.** *No smoking, No spilling.*
- (9) *Verbs expressing physical activity and used after verbs like 'go', 'come', take the gerundial form.*
- Ex.**
- (a) *He must be going bathing.*
- (b) *I am going riding this afternoon.*
- (10) *A gerund has the perfect form also.*
- Ex.** *She denied having opened the box.*
- (11) *A gerund has the passive form also.*
- Ex.** *I remember being taken to Paris.*
- (12) *A noun may be used with gerund.*
- Ex.**
- (a) *I dislike my mother's interfering.*
- (b) *I remember Tom's going.*

Exercise-1

Correct the following sentences by using Gerunds:

1. *Do not persist to do it.*
2. *Refrain to tell a lie.*
3. *He is justified to criticise you.*
4. *She was debarred to appear at the examination.*
5. *She is an expert to play on piano.*
6. *He hindered his brother to do it.*
7. *Let them aim to be innocent.*
8. *One should abstain to disrespect one's teachers.*
9. *He is confident to win the election.*
10. *He succeeded to do it.*

Ans. 1. doing, 2. telling, 3. in criticizing, 4. from appearing, 5. in playing, 6. doing, 7. at being, 8. from disrespecting, 9. of winning, 10. in doing.

Exercise-2

Fill in the blanks with suitable Gerunds:

1. *It is not good hopeless.*
2. *Please stop.....*

3. *He does not enjoy.....*
4. *I think of.....to France.*
5. *Avoid.....bad things.*
6. *She is busy.....*
7. *The Taj is worth.....*
8. *He has been exempted.....*
9. *Who can prevent me.....*
10. *He does not enjoy.....in the morning.*

Ans. 1. being, 2. talking, 3. swimming, 4. going, 5. doing, 6. marketing, 7. seeing, 8. playing, 9. doing it, 10. walking.

The uses of Articles

A, an and the are called articles. Articles are used before nouns. A and an are indefinite articles while the is the definite article. With regard to the use of articles the following points must be kept in mind.

For example: *I have a watch.*

I have a gold watch.

I have an old gold watch

Though articles are used because of the nouns, the use of article is governed by the noun or adjective that immediately follows it:

For example: *He has a watch.*

but

He has an attractive gold watch.

(not... a attractive gold watch.)

The Indefinite Article

A and an are the two forms of the same word. Most singular nouns are preceded by a or an. The choice of a or an depends upon a phonetic rule:

Rule

Example

Use a before a word which begins with a consonant sound

a professor, a house, a student, a book, a graduate, a European, a University.

Use an before a word which begins with a vowel sound

an author, an honour, an egg, an undergraduate, an M.A., an M.P.

The following are the major uses of the indefinite article:

1. **Indefinite article is used with singular nouns. For more than one a plural form is used.**

I have a pen, but I have pens.

This is a book, but These are books.

2. **When people or things are defined (when we say what class or kind they belong to) we use indefinite article:**

Vinay hopes to be an engineer.

My father was a lawyer.

It is a calculator.

But indefinite article is omitted before predicative nouns denoting a profession or occupation:

He is Principal of the college. (not He is a Principal...)

She was a teacher in the convent school.

Indefinite articles are also not used with a plural or uncountable noun:

My parents are doctors. (not ... a doctors)

Would you like some salt? (not... a salt?)

3. **When everyone of a class of things meant we use the indefinite article:**

A horse is a useful animal.

A cow gives us milk.

4. **In exclamations after what indefinite article is used with singular countable nouns.**

What a lovely dress !

What a silly idea !

The Definite Article

The following are the major uses of the definite article:

1. **The is used to identify a person or thing just mentioned. On the first mention of an indefinite thing or person the is not used. We use the only when we know exactly which one.**

I see a boy on the road.

but

The boy is going to school.

I have a pen and a pencil.

but

The pencil is broken.

2. **The is used of things which are only one of their kind:**

The sun rises in the east.

The moon is not in the sky today.

3. **The is used with a singular noun when we speak of the whole class of that thing:**
The cow is a useful animal.
The lion is a fierce animal.
4. **The is used with names of**
seas : the Atlantic
mountain ranges : the Himalayas
island groups : the West Indies
rivers : the Ganga
deserts : the Thar
hotels : the Grand Hotel
cinemas and theatres : the Opera, the playhouse
museums and art galleries : the British Museum, the Jahangir Art Gallery.
5. **The is used before the names of musical instruments:**
Neha plays the piano well.
One of my neighbours plays the mridang.
But the is not used when we talk about jazz and pop music:
This recording was made with Mike Davis on trumpet.
(not on the trumpet.)
6. **The is used before the names of languages when the word language follows:**
English is spoken all over the world.
but
The English language is not easy to learn.
7. **The is not used before the names of most countries. But it is used before the names of countries which contain the words.**
Union or United:
New Delhi is the capital of India.
but
New York is the largest city in the United States of America.
Note also:
the Netherlands,
the Hague
8. **The is used with superlative of adjectives and adverbs:**
Neha is the best student of her class.

Calcutta is the largest city of India.

with comparative degree the is commonly not used:

Bhopal is smaller than Bombay.

(not Bhopal is the smaller...)

But we say:

The more you play, the stronger you become.

The greater the bore, the greater the beatitude.

The more I speak, the less attentive they become.

In the sentences of double comparatives the should not be omitted.

Do not say:

More you play, stronger you become.

9. The is used before names of sects and political parties:

The Arya Samajis don't take non-vegetarian food.

The Congress rules most of the Indian States.

10. The is used with cardinal numbers:

The third boy of the class.

Her birthday falls on the 9th.

11. With the names of seasons the is optional. We can say:

in spring or in the spring

in summer or in the summer

Omission of Article

1. Uncountable and material nouns do not take any article:

A cow gives milk. (not a milk)

The table is made of wood. (not a wood)

2. Abstract nouns that express qualities, states, feelings, actions or processes of thought are used without articles:

Honesty is the best policy. (not The honesty....)

Kindness is a virtue. (not The kindness...)

3. The is not used before the names of substances if they are used in general sense:

Gold is a costly metal. (not The gold is...)

Bread is made from flour and flour is made from wheat.

(not the bread....the flour....the wheat.)

But the is used when a particular type of substance is meant:

The gold mined here is of good quality.

The bread prepared by this baker is of excellent type.

4. **The is not used with the names of meals if they are part of the daily routine.**

I take breakfast at eight o' clock. (not the breakfast...)

Have you had dinner yet? (not the dinner...)

But the must be used if the meal is particularly referred:

We enjoyed the dinner they gave us.

The tea was excellent.

5. **The should not be used before plural nouns when they are used in a general sense:**

Mangoes are mainly grown in India. (not The mangoes...)

Aeroplanes fly very high. (not The aeroplanes...)

But when the reference is to particular ones the may be used:

The mangoes grown in Malihabad are of good taste.

The aeroplanes collided in the air.

6. **When most is followed by a noun or by of it is not preceded by the:**

The most of the people like it. (Wrong)

Most of the people like it. (Right)

7. **No article is used before nouns like school, church, temple, mosque, prison; hospital etc. when we refer to them for the purpose for which they are meant. But when we think of them as buildings of objects we use the with them:**

He is in hospital undergoing treatment. (means, he is a patient)

but,

I shall meet you at the hospital in the evening.

(means, the hospital will be meeting place)

8. **The is not used before names of towns, cities, roads as they are like names of persons:**

Bhopal is a large town. (not The Bhopal...)

He lives on Camden street. (not the Camden street)

9. **The is not used before the names of festivals and, days of celebration.**

Christmas is a major festival of Christians. (not The Christmas...)

10. **With common illness like cold, headache we use a/an.**

For example: *I am suffering from a sore throat.*

a headache

a cold

With the following we can add or omit a and an:

catch (a) cold

have (a/an) stomach-ache, tooth-ache.

We use no articles with these illnesses:

measles, mumps, shingles, blood pressure, gont, flu, hepatitis.

The difference between a/an and one

A/an + noun and one + noun are not used interchangeably, they are not similar:

Use a/an to means 'any one'.

For example: *I'd like a tea please.*

use one when counting.

For example: *It was one tea I ordered not two.*

Use one with 'day', 'morning', 'evening' when telling a story.

For example: *One day I met a ghost.*

We can use a/an and one with these:

(a) *Whole numbers : a/one hundred.*

(b) *Money : a/one rupee, dollar.*

(c) *Fractions : a/one quarter, half.*

(d) *Weights : a/one kilo, mile.*

Possessive Adjectives

The following are known as Possessive Adjectives:

My, your, his, her, one's, our and their.

Since they are adjectives they must go in front of nouns.

For example: *This is my house.*

That is our library.

They refer to possessor and not to the thing possessed.

For example: *Aparna amused her brother.* (= her own brother)

Vikas amused his wife. (= his own wife)

The possessive adjectives must be distinguished with possessive Pronouns. They are-mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours and theirs.

For example: *That is mine book.* (Incorrect)

That book is mine. (Correct)

Again. We cannot use possessives with 'the'

For example: <i>That is the my scooter.</i>	(Incorrect)
<i>That is my scooter.</i>	(Correct)
<i>That scooter is mine.</i>	(Correct)

Some Important Exercises

Ex.1. Put, an, the or some wherever necessary:

- (1) table has four legs.
- (2) We can write on paper or on black board.
- (3) apple has sweet taste.
- (4) fruit is very good to eat.
- (5) Please give me milk.
- (6) There is dirt on this plate and dirty mark on the table cloth.
- (7) He will take a dip in Ganga at Allahabad.
- (8) Mohan looks as stupid as owl.
- (9) Hindi is easy language.
- (10) Ramesh had earned money in the past.

Ans. (1) a, (2) a, (3) An, x, (4) A, (5) some, (6) some, a, (7) the, (8) an, (9) an, (10) some.

Ex.2. Use 'a', 'an' or 'the' where necessary:

1. Vikas thinks that this is quite _____ cheap hotel.
2. There was _____ knock on _____ door.
3. _____ small man in _____ grey suit was on _____ door.
4. There was _____ collision between _____ car and _____ scooter on _____ cross roads _____ other day.
5. You must give him _____ food and _____ cup of tea.
6. _____ honesty is _____ best of all _____ virtues.
7. _____ youngest sister is at _____ school now. If you go to _____ school by _____, you will be just in _____ time to meet her.
8. _____ dog bited to him in _____ leg.
9. He took off _____ coat and set to _____ work.
10. Dr. Sharma was _____ educationist.

Ans. (1) a; (2) a, the; (3) A, the, the; (4) a, a, a, the, the; (5) no article, a; (6) no article, the, the; (7) The, no article, the, no article, no article; (8) A, the; (9) the, no article; (10) an.

Ex.3. Insert 'a' or 'an' where necessary-

1. He wants that his son should go touniversity.
2. I shall finish this work inday.
3. She went to buy milk.
4. Is there hospital in this town?
5. His father gave him..... useful present on his birthday.
6. Please give me water.
7. Bernard Shaw was successful dramatist.
8. He was arrested for selling.....opium.
9. The door was opened by.....servant.
10. Chair is made of..... wood.

Ans. (1) a, (2) a, (3) x, (4) a, (5) a, (6) x, (7) a, (8) x, (9) a, (10) x.

Ex.4 Insert a, an or the where necessary.

1. Wheat of best quality is sold for fifteen rupees....kilo.
2.tiger is protected animal.
3. car of red colour hit.....bicycle.
4. May is hottest month.
5. Sushil plays.....football in evening.
6. Child threw.....stone atdog.
7.bread is made from....flour and flour from wheat
8. orange is generally sweet fruit but... oranges that I bought yesterday were sour.
9. This is boy who stood first in.....examination.
10. There wasaccident near hospital yesterday.
11.dog hates.....cat.
12. Mr. Jain is lecturer in English.
13. plane in which he was traveling fell in sea.
14. new book shop has been opened near our college.
15. I have put....dictionary inalmirah.

(1) the, a (2) The, a (3) A, a (4) the (5) X, the (6) A, a, the (7) x, x, x (8) x, a, the (9) the, the (10) an, the (11) The, the (12) a (13) The, the (14) a (15) the, an.

Ans.

Non-Finites**(A) Infinitive**

The Infinitive is the basic form of the verb. It is uninflected, that is, it has no-ing or s or -ed forms that indicate a verb's grammatical function. It simply conveys the idea of the action of the verb without limitation of person, number or mood.

The Forms of Infinitive

There are two forms of the infinitive:

- (a) *With the preposition to ...to give, to work, to play.*
- (b) *Without the preposition to (also known as the bare infinitive... give, hope, play.)*
- (a) **Here is a list of transitive verbs that are followed by a to-infinitive.**

Advise, ask, beg, cause, challenge, allow, command, compel, enable, encourage, expect, forbid, instruct, invite, intend, permit, persuade, order, teach, tell, urge, want, warn, wish, help:

Here are a few examples of its use:

As it was late, we decided to take a taxi home.

They agreed to lend me some money.

The word-order is : Verb + Pronoun/Noun + to infinitive

The doctor advised the patient to rest.

He asked his son to carry the load.

- (b) **Here is a list of transitive verbs that are followed by a infinitive:**

See, hear, feel, watch, make, help, know, let.

Here are a few examples of its use:

I watches him carry the load.

What made you think I would agree?

- (c) **Infinitive can also be used in the passive form. However, in the passive form only to-infinitive may have been used:**

Active	Passive
<i>I have never known him lose his temper.</i>	<i>He has never been known to lose his temper.</i>
<i>We heard her sigh.</i>	<i>She was heard to sigh.</i>
<i>Do not let it worry you.</i>	<i>It must not be allowed to worry you.</i>

- (d) **There is a continuous infinitive.**

For example: *He pretended to be reading.*

He seemed to be working hard.

- (e) **The infinitive can also be used in perfect tense:**

You seem to have lost weight.

She appeared to have done the deed.

- (f) **After the following verbs a question-word (what, where, how etc.) can be used with to-infinitive.**

We asked how to get to the station?

Have you decided where to go for your holidays?

- (g) **Split Infinitive: Sometimes the to-infinitive is split by an adverb:**

Every teacher should try to really inspire his students.

The rain managed completely our day.

The Uses of the Infinitive

Infinitive can be used:

- (a) **As the subject of a sentence, usually introduced or represented by it:**

It would be nice to see him again.

It was hard to understand her.

- (b) **After certain verbs which can be followed by other verbs only as infinitives with to:**

I cannot afford to buy it.

We expect to be told soon.

Can you manage to lift this weight?

- (c) **After verbs with objects:**

I advised her to see a doctor.

You are not allowed to smoke here.

- (d) **After adjectives:**

She is easy to talk to.

He was sorry not to see you.

- (e) **After nouns:**

He has no wish to live.

Her promise to write was forgotten.

- (f) **To express purpose:**

He came specially to see me.

We spoke quietly so as not to wake the baby.

(g) **After question-words:***He asked me what to do.**Please show me where to leave it.***(B) Gerund**

Gerunds are non-finitive verb forms ending in-ing which function as nouns. The following are some of the functions of a gerund:

(a) **As the subject of a verb:***Smoking is injurious to health.**Seeing is believing.*(b) **As the object of transitive verb.***Rakhi likes seeing pictures.**Neha loves talking to her friends.*(c) **As an objective of a preposition.***Kavita is fond of reading novels.**Anurag is interested in enjoying the singing of the birds.*(d) **As a compliment of a verb:***Seeing is believing.**What is harmful is smoking.***Rules for the use of Gerunds:**(a) **Whenever a verb is used after a preposition or a phrasal verb, the gerund form is used:***Neha is good at playing badminton.**Neha is good at to play tennis.**not**Vikas is thinking of taking a new course.**She insisted on seeing her.**He was accused of smuggling.*(b) **Some expressions ending in to take gerund form:***We looked forward to working with him.**They are used to playing bridge.*(c) **Some transitive verbs, which take noun objects, also take gerunds as objects:***She avoided meeting her mother.**Anurag hates writing home work.*(d) **Gerunds are required after the following commonly used verbs:**

Admire, admit, anticipate, appreciate, avoid, await, comment, upon, complete, can't help, count on, depend on, deplore, disapprove of, discuss, dispense with, encourage, endorse, enjoy, escape from, evaluate, examine, finish, give up, go on, guard against, inquire into, joke about, justify, long for, neglect, postpone, react against, reflect on, think about, succeed in, wonder about.

- (e) **The following verbs are commonly followed by the infinitive and not the gerund.**

Aim, agree, appear, arrange, aspire, beg, care, choose, consent, decide, expect, fail, learn, look, manage, mean, need, plot, promise, prepare, refuse, resolve, seem, struggle, undertake, wait, wish, yearn.

He decided to become a doctor.

(not He decided becoming a doctor.)

- (f) **While referring to a past action gerund can be used:**

He accepted having left without permission.

His having left the job without permission went against him.

(C) Participle

A participle is partly a verb and partly an adjective. There are two types of participles:

- (a) Present Participles (b) Past Participles

The Present Participle

The present participle is formed by using *ing* with the infinitive form of the verb:

We found a child crying for its mother.

Listen to the singing bird.

Note: The present participle is also used with the verb *to be* to form continuous tenses:

We are being followed by goondas.

He is working hard these days.

The use

The present participle works as an adjective:

The man led a dancing bear on a chain.

The teacher told us an amusing story.

When one action is immediately followed by another by the same subject, the first action can be expressed by a present participle. The participle must be put first:

Opening the almirah he took out some money.

Taking off our shoes we entered the temple.

The participle can also be made perfect when we want to emphasise that the first action is complete before the second one starts:

Tying one end of the rope to his bed he threw the other out of the window.

Having tied one end of the rope to his bed he threw the other out of the window.

The past participle

The past participle also does the same work which is done by the present participle, that is, act as an adjective:

There was some broken glass on the road.

Those are stolen goods.

Brightly coloured pictures hung on the wall.

Note: Past participle is also used with the verb to have to form the perfect tenses:

They have worked hard all day.

I have seen this film four times.

Present participle adjectives and Past participle adjectives:

We must not confuse these forms. The Present Participle adjectives, such as walking, running, amusing, are active and mean 'having the effect'.

The Past Participle, adjective, such as walked, tired, are passive and mean 'having this effect':

Some Important Exercises

Exercise 1

Complete the following sentences with suitable verbs:

1. Rakhi refused _____ me any money.
2. Vikas has decided not _____ a car.
3. The thief entered the house because I forget _____ the window.
4. There was a lot of traffic but we managed _____ to the railway station.
5. I have arraged _____ bridge tomorrow evening.
6. Do not forget _____ the letter I gave you.
7. Our neighbour threatened _____ the police if we did not stop the noise.
8. The teacher was very strict. Nobody dared _____ during his lessons.
9. He joined a school to learn _____ a car.

10. Sarla offered _____ after our children while we were out.

Ans. (1) to give, (2) to purchase, (3) to close, (4) to go, (5) to play, (6) to post, (7) to call, (8) to talk, (9) to drive, (10) to look.

Exercise 2

Complete the following sentences with a 'to infinite':

1. Not many people can effort _____.
2. I would like to learn _____.
3. One day I hope _____.
4. I would not dare _____.
5. Sometimes I tend _____.
6. We decided not _____.
7. I pretended _____.
8. They decided _____.
9. Do you know how _____ ?
10. I was really astonished. I did not know _____.

Ans. (1) to buy a car, (2) to drive a car, (3) to be a teacher, (4) to challenge him, (5) to envy you, (6) to go to the theatre, (7) to be sleeping, (8) to take a taxi, (9) to cook meat, (10) what to say.

Exercise 3

Fill in the blanks with Gerund :

1. Neha likes _____ to her friends. (talk)
2. Anurag is interested in _____ the singing of the birds. (enjoy)
3. What is harmful in _____ ? (smoke)
4. Neha is good at _____ badminton. (play)
5. We looked forward to _____ with him. (work)
6. They are used to _____ bridge. (play)
7. She avoided _____ her mother. (meet)
8. Anurag hates _____ homework. (do)

Ans. (1) talking, (2) enjoying, (3) smoking, (4) playing, (5) working, (6) playing, (7) meeting, (8) doing.

Exercise 4

Combine each of the following sentences using either a present participle or a perfect participle, make sentence (a) in each pair into a participle phrase:

1. (a) She felt pity for the beggar.

- (b) She gave him some money.
2. (a) They left the car on the road.
(b) They walked into the restaurant.
3. (a) She fed the buffalo.
(b) Then she milked her.
4. (a) He raised his hand.
(b) He struck a heavy blow.
5. (a) I had seen the film once.
(b) I had no desire to see it again.
6. (a) She fed her husband.
(b) Then she sat down to her meals.
7. (a) They had taken a decision.
(b) They wanted to stick to it.
8. (a) We have decided to fight.
(b) Let us fight.

- Ans.** 1. Feeling pity for the beggar she gave him some money.
2. Leaving the car on the road they walked into the restaurant.
3. Having fed the buffalo she milked her.
4. Raising his hand he struck a heavy blow.
5. Having seen the film once I had no desire to see it again.
6. Feeding her husband she sat down to her meals.
7. Having taken a decision they wanted to stick to it.
8. Having decided to fight, let us fight.

Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is a group of words that does the work of a noun.

Ex.

1. *The girl wants something.*
2. *The old man wants to go home.*

In the first example, the word 'something' is a noun which is the object of the verb 'wants'.

In the second example, the group of words 'to go home' is in the object of the verb 'wants'. Hence, this group of words works as a noun, therefore 'to go home' is a Noun Phrase.

Look at the following examples of a Noun Phrase.

1. *Early to bed is a good habit.*

2. *She hopes to reach London by next month.*
3. *I enjoy teaching grammar.*
4. *The DM likes to take harsh decisions.*
5. *To stand first this year is my aim.*
6. *Discussing such mean things is beneath my dignity.*
7. *Did you enjoy working with him?*
8. *We enjoy being together every week.*

Noun and Phrases Used as Adverbs

Noun and Phrases are often used as adverbs, particularly to indicate time and degree.

e.g.

1. *The child stayed home evenings.*
(The verb 'stayed' is modified by the noun evenings)
2. *My friend would like to practise mornings.* (The infinitive 'to practise' is modified by the noun 'mornings'.)
3. *All the students jogged a mile.*
(The verb 'jogged' is modified by the noun phrase 'a mile')
4. *This cloth is not worth five hundred rupees.*
(The adjective 'worth' is modified by the noun phrase 'five hundred rupees')

Verb Phrase

A phrase is a group of two or more words that does not contain a subject and verb. Phrases have many forms and functions. Let us identify the functions of phrases as modifiers, complements and objects.

e.g.

1. *The thief hid behind the building.*
(The phrase 'behind the building' modifies 'hid')
2. *The child in front will fall.*
(The phrase 'in front' modifies the 'child')

Verb Phrase: 'Verb Phrase' is the combination of verb + preposition/other word giving a particular sense. It is called 'verbal phrase'.

Let us learn the following examples to make clear what verbal phrases are.

1. **to bring about :** (cause to take place)

V P

- Ex. *After that accident, he has brought about a great change in his behaviour.*
2. **Giveaway** (distribute)
- Ex. *The D.M. gave away the prizes in the function.*
3. **To turn off** (to dismiss)
- Ex. *the Principal turned off the lazy staff.*
4. **To turn up** (to come)
- Ex. *I could not turn up yesterday evening.*
5. **To turn down** (to reject)
- Ex. *The Principal turned down my application:*
6. **Give in** (to surrender)
- Ex. *He is such a man as won't give in before circumstances.*
7. **Look into** (to examine)
- Ex. *Kindly look into the matter and do the justice.*
8. **Look after** (to take care)
- Ex. *He looks after his old parents:*
9. **Taken aback** (astonished)
- Ex. *I was taken aback by his behaviour.*
10. **Go ahead** (to use)
- Ex. *Go ahead in your life, I'll ever remain with you.*
11. **Call at** (visit)
- Ex. *I called at Mr. Gupta's place, but he was not available.*
12. **Carry on** (continue)
- Ex. *Better, you carry on your studies.*

Adjunct Phrase

The term 'Adjunct Phrase' refers to the part of a sentence as phrase, added or joined, but is not a necessary in the sentence. It may be an adverbial word or phrase that adds meaning to another part of a sentence. For example:

1. *They arrived on Sunday.*
2. *She visited us in the evening.*

In above both the sentence 'on Sunday' and 'in evening' are adjunct phrases.

Read the, following sentences and find out Adjunct Phrases:

1. *I visited there July 2, 2009.*
2. *They met me on Sunday morning.*

3. *The teacher declared the examined to be held on Monday.*
4. *The old man reached the station at 7 a.m. sharp.*
5. *Dr. Rashmi called me on the platform.*
6. *Rupesh completed the task on second Saturday.*
7. *They helped me on the spot.*
8. *I made the situation clear in the morning.*

Unit-IV

Phonetics is the scientific study of the production, transmission and reception of speech sounds. It studies the medium of spoken language. Touching upon physiology and physics, phonetics is now a pure science that studies speech processes, including the anatomy, neurology and pathology of speech, as well as the articulation, description, classification, production and perception of speech sounds. It looks at speech from three distinct but interdependent viewpoints : it studies the speech organs, which produce sounds of language, it studies waves, the physical form in which sounds are transmitted through the air from one person to another; and it studies the way in which human beings perceive sounds through the medium of the ear.

Phonetics studies the defining characteristics of all human vocal noise, and concentrates its attention on those sounds which occur in the languages of the world. In other words, phoneticians try to study how the various organs of speech—the lungs, the larynx, the soft palate, the tongue and the lip-function in the production of speech. They also attempt to offer articulatory descriptions of various sounds by describing the air-stream-mechanism and the phonatory and articulatory processes involved. Acoustic phoneticians examine the physical nature of sounds and analyse the speech waves with the help of various instruments.

Branches of Phonetics

The Study of phonetics can be divided into three main branches Acoustic, Auditory and Articulatory

1. Acoustic Phonetics. Acoustic phonetics is the study of the physical properties of speech sounds such as frequency and amplitude in their transmission. Acoustic phoneticians analyse the speech waves with the help of instruments: they attempt to describe the physical properties of the stream of sound that issues forth from the mouth of a speaker. It is in the field of acoustic phonetics that the most striking developments have taken place since the Second World War. Complex

sound waves produced in speech can be analysed into their component frequencies and relative amplitudes. Considerable progress has also been made in speech-synthesis. Acoustic analysis has confirmed (if confirmation was needed) that speech is not made up of a sequence of discrete sounds. The articulatory features of rounding of voice of nasality, of obstruction and of friction can also be identified acoustically. Acoustic phonetics has achieved a good deal of success in matters of the study of the sound of vowels, but regarding consonants it has not reached final conclusions.

2. Auditory Phonetics. Auditory phonetics is the study of hearing and the perception of speech sounds. It studies different auditory impressions of quality, pitch and loudness of sounds. The auditory classification of speech-sounds has not yet been carried to a decisive phase. At the present time, phonetics can be regarded as being made up of two main branches : articulatory and acoustic phonetics.

The results of acoustic and auditory phonetics need very minute observations and great scientific and technical expertise, and are often puzzling. These branches use instruments which cannot be used easily outside a laboratory, and cannot be transported successfully from one place to another. Hence the easiest approach to observations about speech is the traditional and most common approach of articulatory phonetics.

3. Articulatory Phonetics. Articulatory phonetics recognizes that speech is produced by some kinds of sound-making apparatus inside the human body, and that specific sounds may be related to specific movement of the apparatus. Hence it is the study of movement of the speech organs in the articulation of speech. Speech is produced by the movements of the organs of speech-lungs, larynx, soft palate, tongue, teeth and lips. The knowledge of the organs of speech, their relation to each other, and the way in which they are used while speaking, provides a sound basis for the classification of sounds of human languages.

History of Phonetics

The ancient Hindu Rishis who composed the Vedas, must have been in the knowledge of phonetics. The Vedas were to be chanted and pronounced very accurately. To mispronounce a Vedic mantra or richa was regarded as a sin of the first order. Even the classification and arrangement of sounds and their formation in varnas in Sanskrit give an evidence of a sound phonetic base of this language. In the works of Panini (400 B.C) Patanjali (2nd Century A.D.), etc., we can have some concrete and outstanding evidence of the ancient phonetics of India. At about the same time the Greeks and the Romans had also made language and speech the subject of serious study.

Early Studies. Besides the Indians, the Greeks, the Romans, the Egyptians, and the Arabs also took interest in speech around the seventh century A.D. in connection with the Koran and Arabic studies leading to the developments in lexicography (dictionary making), the study of pronunciation, and language history. The Buddhist missionaries contributed to the study of the phonetics of Chinese and Japanese from as early as the fifth century A.D. and the Christian missionaries contributed towards the study of not only Greek, Roman and Hebrew but also of a number of languages whose written forms did not exist.

The Sixteenth Century. Some of the first writers whose work was concerned with the relation between the sounds of English and those of another language were John Palgrave (*Lesclarcissement de la langue Francoyse*, 1530), William Salesbury (*Dictionary in English and Welshe*, 1547), Thomas Smith (*De recta et emendata linguae anglicae scriptone*, 1568), John Hart (*Orthographie*, 1569), John Wallis (*Grammatical Linguae Angliacae*, 1563). Special mention must be made of Hart and Wallis. Besides making out his case for spelling reform and proposing a revised system, Hart took a keen interest in the description of the organs of speech, defined vowels and consonants and noted the aspiration of voiceless plosives. Wallis intended his *Grammer* to help foreigners to learn English more easily and also to enable his countrymen to understand more thoroughly the true nature of their language. A work of wider scope than Wallis' is Bishop John Wilkins' work who wrote *Essay toward a Real Character and a Philosophical Language* (1668). Wilkins also describes the functions of the speech organs, and offers a general classification of the sounds articulated by them. He offers suggestions for a phonetic alphabet.

The Seventeenth Century. Among the seventeenth-century phoneticians the most important name is that of Christopher Cooper. His work on English pronunciation was first published in 1685 *Grammatica linguae Anicanae*, with an English edition appearing in 1687 (*The English Teacher, or The Discovery of the Art of Teaching an Learning the English Tongue*). Cooper wanted to describe, and prescribe rules for, the pronunciation of English for 'Gentlemen, Ladies, Merchants, Tradesmen, Schools and Strangers. His aim was to describe English as it existed and not to reform its spelling.

The Eighteenth Century. The work done in the seventeenth century was continued in the eighteenth, but it lost its original spirit. The Eighteenth-century writers were deeply interested in the production of dictionaries to stabilize and standardize the language. The *Dictionaries* of Samuel Johnson (1755), Thomas Sheridan (1780), and John Walker (1791), are noteworthy contributions of this age. Some of the scholars in this age confused phonetics with rhetoric. And it was not until the nineteenth century that a clear distinction was made between the aesthetic judgments and the phonetic analysis.

The Nineteenth Century. Since the Renaissance the elocutionists, language teachers, spelling reformers, shorthand inventors, auxiliary language enthusiasts, and missionaries have taken interest in phonetics. But it was at the beginning of the nineteenth century that phonetics received a real boost with the discovery of the ancient Indian phoneticians mentioned in the preceding paragraphs. In England Alexander J. Ellis (1814- 90) presented to English children as well as to foreigners, an alphabet (phonotype, 1847). He also developed other types of alphabet notably Glossic and Palaeotype. In 1867 Alexander Melville Bell set out to classify all the sounds capable of being articulated by the human speech organs and to allot a systematic and related series of symbols to the sounds. By the end of the nineteenth century the developments in physiology and acoustics, and the accompanying progress in instrumentation (as demonstrated by Alexander Bell's system of Visible Speech), had stimulated a considerable amount of experimental research into all branches of phonetics. Also in the late nineteenth century scholars like Henry Sweet attempted at producing a phonetic alphabet; and the international phonetic Alphabet, which is still the system in general use, came to be formulated in 1889.

The Twentieth Century. In the present century phonetics has developed immensely into various branches and is mature enough to claim an independent status as a discipline. Already some linguists have talked about linguistic sciences-by which they mean phonetics and linguistics the former dealing with the general properties of human sound making the latter with those properties which are of importance in the system of a particular language. The focus of interest in this century has been to find out accurate and precise ways of the modern age. Spectrographs, oscillographs, sound-monitoring machines tape-recorders, and a number of other electronic devices developed by communications engineering have been greatly helpful in studying sounds. The aim of phonetics now-a-days is not to provide a notation : it is to analyse speech into its basic units, which may thereafter be transcribed in some way. Hence the phonetic description is primary : a notation secondary. The contribution of Daniel Jones, Abercrombie, Gimson in Britain and of Roman Jakobson, Morris Halle, Chomsky, Trager and Smith in the United States, besides a host of European and Russian scholars, to the study of speech-sounds is of considerable significance.

Phonetics, the branch of linguistics studying speech sounds, has three major branches:

- 1) *Articulatory Phonetics*
- 2) *Auditory Phonetics*
- 3) *Acoustic Phonetics*

Articulatory phonetics is also known as physiological phonetics; and auditory phonetics is known by the name perceptual phonetics.

Articulatory Phonetics

This branch of phonetics recognises that there is speech producing mechanism in human beings. The 'apparatus' that produces speech sounds is situated within the human body. However, it must be clear that there is no separate 'apparatus' exclusively used for generating speech sounds. Speech is, in fact, an overlaid function in that human beings utilize in a special way organs which are part of the respiratory and digestive system. Man uses those organs for speaking which already serve other biological needs. Thus lips, teeth, tongue, hard palate, soft palate, trachea, lungs—all these organs used in speech production have different basic biological functions. In the process of cultural evolution, man devised ways of utilizing these organs and parts thereof (such as the tip, blade, front, centre, back of the tongue along with the corresponding areas or points in the roof of mouth or hard palate) for verbal communication.

Besides these the airstream that goes in and out of the lungs forms the basis of speech; that is, speech is based on the outgoing airstream. Articulatory phonetics studies how the outgoing air-stream is regulated along the vocal tract to form various speech sounds.

Auditory Phonetics

This branch of phonetics studies how speech sounds are heard and perceived. This calls for a close study of the psychology of perception on the one hand, and the mechanism of the neuro-muscular circuitry on the other.

Hearing is a very intricate process; it implies 'interpreting the physical' description of actual or proposed signals in terms of the auditory sensations which the signals would create if impressed upon the ear' (French). Acoustic signals generate a 'complex chain of physical disturbances within the auditory system'. The brain receives signal about these physical disturbances; in the brain are caused other disturbances—physical counterparts of the sensations. It is necessary to establish correlation between the auditory signals and their interpretation in terms of the disturbances in the brain. It is a challenging task, one can say that not much headway has been made in unravelling the complex pattern of the course charted by the speech signals through the auditory system into the neuro-muscular processes. However, we can divide the whole process into three—

- i) *the physical aspect of the auditory system.*
- ii) *recognition of the essential characteristics of hearing.*

- iii) *interpreting auditory sensations, their attributes and their relation to the signals.*

The physical aspect of the auditory system involves a detailed description of the external, middle and inner ear (also known as Cochlea), and the auditory receptive centres of the brain, the neural network. This also takes into account 'translating acoustic signals into auditory sensations' which begins with the transfer of pressure variation of sound waves to the fluids in the inner ear. The inner ear analyses these vibrations and encodes them into 'neural pulses of electrochemical activity'. The inner ear is connected to the auditory receptive centres by the auditory nerve which carries these pulses. The auditory centres are correspondingly stimulated. But there is a difference between the pulses and the actual sensations in the neural centres that are thus generated.

The basic characteristics of hearing include such features as loudness, absolute sensitivity, frequency tones, 'masking' or the elimination of the subjective traces of one of the two or more sounds that the ear is exposed to, pitch etc. Interpreting the auditory sensations into their physical signals poses serious problems. The auditory sensations do not offer a ready, palpable pattern that can satisfactorily be described. Sound signals may be composed of a variety of components-from bits of 'transients' to sounds of longer duration; from single unit tones to multiple segment complexes; from ones having a constant pattern to continually changing frequencies. It is not necessary that the auditory sensation would reflect the identical occurrences of these sound signals. In the complex sound patterns, their 'separate components may retain the identity in the resulting sensation' or may produce an entirely new sensation. Signals of varying frequencies may produce a study pattern of sensations or separate sensations. Composition of the human brain plays a crucial role in this regard. It poses difficulties in the way of interpretation. Many signals are highly complex and can only be described in mathematical terms. However, such descriptions do not have any relevance to phonetics and must, therefore, be ignored.

Acoustic Phonetics

The physical properties of speech sounds form the domain of speech sounds. The latter are composed of such physical characteristics as nasality, obstruction or friction of the air passage, sibilant and the lateral quality, loudness, amplitude, and turbulence of the airflow. These properties can acoustically be recognised and analysed. Features such as sound vibrations due to the activities of the vocal folds have been sought to be understood by comparing them with other sound producing instruments such as a tuned piano. Developments taking place in acoustic physics have helped the acoustic phonetician in a big way. New instruments with accurate measuring capacities have brought about

revolutionary changes in the field and opened up new areas for the scholars. With their help we can now precisely determine the non-distinctive and distinctive features of speech sound.

For example, it is now recognised that a periodic sound (such as stops and fricatives) tend to have less total energy, and less energy in the lower frequencies, than do speech sounds which have periodicity. Vowels are acoustically periodic tones and consonants aperiodic noises. Thus we can relate the physical nature of sound to its production and perception. Similarly, the phenomenon of resonance which is related to the amplitude of sound can be better understood if we recognise the principle of resonance which tells us that the resonance system 'reinforces' certain partials while others are 'dampened' or not reinforced. 'This selective effect occurs because when the energy of the sound generator is transferred to the mass-elastic system of the resonator, the latter will be set in motion at amplitude depending on its own natural frequencies of vibration'. (Tiffany-Carrell).

It is useful to note that phonetics is not language specific, that is, its principles and concepts are applicable to any language, because it seeks to describe the basic speech mechanisms, and principles of speech production. It is the first step towards understanding the vastly complex area of speech behaviour. Man is capable of producing infinite variety of sounds. Even when he utters a segment more than once, two utterances may show variation in respect of their physical attributes: 'Hellow' uttered twice may not be exactly the same. He may be quite capable of producing a sound like /ʒ/ as we hear in French name Jean-Jacques or the English words measure and pleasure, but in his own language this sound may not have a place. An example is Hindi, where we often substitute a sound from this language /dʒ/ as occurs in Hindi /dʒ ^ I/ 'water' or /dʒ ^ ha:dʒ/ 'ship' which we imagine to be phonetically quite close to the original sound [ʒ]. This makes it quite clear that a man may be able to produce a great variety of sounds, not all sounds find place in phonological system of his language. To take another example, an aspirated bilabial voiced plosive /bʰ/ can possibly be articulated by an English, and with some practice he can do so, but this sound finds no place in English phonological system. We can thus safely conclude that a language makes use of only a very limited number of sounds. English does not have an aspirated /bʰ/ phoneme and a retroflex /d/ or /r/ sound; while Hindi does not use a dental fricative /θ/ and /ð/.

These sounds form the minimal meaningful units for that language which help the speakers distinguish one word or morpheme from another. These discrete sound units are recognised as phonemes. For example, in English we distinguish pet from bet. While /e/ and /t/

are common in both the words, the first sound /p/ and /b/ are different. These sounds help us in distinguishing /pet/ from /bet/. These are, therefore, of phonemic significance. In Hindi we say bhar and bar. The first sound is described as bilabial aspirated voiced plosive. The second sound is also bilabial voiced and plosive, but there is no aspiration (breath doesnot accompany its pronunciation). But the presence or absence of breath is significant in that it distinguishes in meaning one word from the other. In Hindi /bh/ contrasts with /b/; but not so in English; while in Hindi it is phonemic, in English it is not so.

Such a selective patterning of sound units forms the phonological system of a language. A Hindi phonology is different from an English phonology. When we speak of phonology we must always refer to a specific language (a phonology of Maithili, a phonology of Marathi, a phonology of Sindhi, etc.). When we speak of phonetics we speak in general terms without referring to a specific language. What is significant in one language, may be non-significant in another. Phonology studies what is significant in a particular language as the basic meaningful elements which enter into larger rule-governed patterns of construction. Phonology of English is as much different from that of Hindi as the phonology of Hindi is different from that of Zulu, or the phonology of Spanish is different from that of Bengali, Oriya or Marathi. A vast repertoire of elements may be shared by two languages belonging to the same family, yet each language is recognised as possessing a specific phonological system distinct from the other.

For producing speech sounds, we utilise the air-stream that is expelled from the lungs. In normal breathing, we are relaxed, inhaling and exhaling continues rhythmically, uninterrupted, a natural life-maintaining process. Speech is fomed on the outgoing (expelled) airstream, though we can speak on the incoming (inhaled) breath also. Some dialects of Africa have been noted to use this. The column of air or air-stream flows out uninterrupted and is evenly rhythmic when a person is quiet and relaxed. This is called egressive air stream. The incoming air-stream is called ingressive airstream. The breathing movements are modified in several ways to initiate and maintain speech. During speech the inhalation is quicker, particularly during pauses, but we tend to expend 'breath over a much longer period'. Loud speaking requires greater breath amounts compared to quiet conversational speaking. The organs that interfere with the egressive air-stream to produce sounds of various types are highly flexible, mobile, and capable of making a great variety of adjustments. It is through the complex movements of these organs that sounds are produced. The famous phonetician G.A. Peterson writes, In speech, the production of noise and tone are controlled by physiological positions and movements in combination with breath pressure variations'. Many types of

sound-generating mechanisms are available within the human vocal tract and a surprising number of these are employed in the production of the various languages throughout the earth.

It is worth noting that these movements do not occur linearly, that is, their formation is not in the manner of successively occurring chain of entities, but they are simultaneous. Many things co-occur to produce a sound. Human speech is based on the air-stream that is expelled from the lungs and finds passage out of mouth and nose. The whole sound-producing apparatus, is therefore, classified into the following sub-systems.

- i) *The respiratory system (the source of airflow)*
- ii) *The phonatory system (centred on larynx)*
- iii) *The articulatory system (modifying the airstream variously)*

We shall now consider these stages in detail in terms of the involvement of the vocal organs.

The Respiratory System : Lungs

Speech results from interaction between 'physiological movements and the contained air within the vocal tract' (Peterson : 139). Often these are inseparable. Lungs play an active part in generating breath energy. These are two porous sacs contained within twelve pairs of ribs. These ribs are called costae within which is located thoracic cavity. Below the lungs is situated a dome-shaped muscular organ called diaphragm. In respiration, various methods of co-ordinating the thoracic, diaphragmatic and abdominal musculature may be employed. Basically, of course, the purpose of these movements during speech is to provide a pressure imbalance between the air within the confines of speech mechanism and the external atmosphere' (Peterson : 140).-

For phonation-setting the vocal cords in rapid vibration-and for articulation the driving pressure of breath need to be generated. This is possible by contracting the thoracic cavity and the rapid increase and decrease of the pressure within the lungs, effected by diaphragmatic movements. Breath stream is expelled from the lungs through bringing into action abdominal muscles and ribs which depress, pressing the viscera against the diaphragm, and other movements. The air pushed out in this manner is known as pulmonic egressive type. Its opposite is pulmonic ingressive type which is inward moving-air-stream.

The Phonatory System : Larynx

Larynx is the 'voice box', commonly known as 'Adams' apple', a cartiliginous structure situated atop trachea or the wind pipe. The thyroid cartilage is the largest laryngeal cartilage. It has a valving mechanism which has two functions : i) it protects the lower respiratory

system from any foreign substance 'by moving the elastic epiglottis like a lid in a vertical way and thus covering the laryngeal entrance during swallowing' (G.E. Arnold : 38); and ii) it creates constriction of various types to provide different configurations to the sounds used in speech. Within larynx are situated vocal cords or folds. They are more flap-shaped than like 'cords'. Gleason describes them as 'two horizontal folds of elastic tissue one on either side of the passage'. They resemble two lips hinged together at the front presenting the shape of English letter 'A'. When a person is not speaking these flaps remain open, wide apart offering a passage for air to freely flow out. Vocal cords consist of membranous tissues and act as 'vibrator' in phonation. Phonation occurs when the vocal folds are loosely held together and puffs of air set them vibrating. By vibration is meant regular closing and opening which occur many times in a second. This produces musical note called voicing. This is how G.E. Arnold describes the aerodynamic or musculo-elastic theory of phonation.

'Adduction of cords-closure of glottis-accumulation of subglottis pressure-explosion of the closed cords-escape of an airpuff through the opened glottis-return of the cords to the closed position by force of their elasticity, muscular tension, and aero-dynamic suction-new increase of sub-glottic pressure and repetition of the cycle. The number of air puffs per second determines the frequency of the tone which is determined by the interaction of the laryngeal dimension, the tension, mass and dimensions of the cords, and the sub-glottic pressure... The forces which determine their position and configuration, and which cause their vibration are the active components of this complicated interaction.'

Whisper

When the vocal cords are brought close enough to leave a narrow slit or passage for the air to escape, the resultant quality of sound is heard as whisper noise. It is normally the vocal effect of the 'turbulence in the air stream caused by laryngeal constriction'. (Tiffany-Carrell) Whispers do not have any definite pitch. 'The exact quality of the whisper is determined by the shape of the passage above in ways that parallel closely the control of quality of voiced sounds' (Gleason).

Glottis

The space or the opening between the vocal cords is known as glottis. This space can effectively be regulated to produce glottal sounds. These sounds are determined by the modification made by the position of the vocal organs in the oral cavity and the pharynx.

Articulation

Speech sound can be viewed as a physical entity, largely made up of certain distinguishing features. These features combine to produce a network of differences that the speaker aims at and the listener perceives. A speaker's learning consists, among other things, of recognising these differences and, 'as a hearer recognising them in order to better receive the message. Sounds are thus viewed by Dr. Barbara Strang as vibrations of air 'with characteristics of frequency, intensity and duration which produce certain sensation of audibility when impinging on the ear'.

The column of air expelled from the lungs is modified or interfered with in three different ways :

- i) *at the laryngeal stage (inside the larynx) when the vocal cords come together to create obstruction either in the form of complete or partial occlusion.*
- ii) *when at the super-laryngeal level certain mobile or passive articulators interfere with the out-flowing air-stream.*
- iii) *The oral cavity (mouth) changes its shape in such a way as to modify the air contained within and change its configuration.*

The vocal tract is a versatile resonance-articulation system 'because it can assume an almost unlimited number of configurations. It is because of this flexibility that we can utter the intricate flow of sounds which makes up human speech... all sounds are produced by muscular adjustments which manipulate the size, shape, constriction and coupling of the vocal tract cavities'. (Tiffany-Carrell). Such adjustments create various resonators. Broadly, these resonators are divided into two systems; i) the oral-pharyngeal or oropharyngeal, and ii) the nasal. In the former the mouth (oral) and throat cavities (pharynx) play prominent roles. In the latter, the portion of the pharynx lying above the soft palate, and the nasal passage are important organs. The soft palate acts as the palatopharyngeal valve which can completely or partially close the passage between the nasal and oropharyngeal resonators.

Speech Mechanism or Airstream Mechanism

P. H. Mathews in *The Concise Dictionary of Linguistics* defines airstream mechanism as any system by which a flow of air is generated in the production of speech. The very basic question is "How do we speak?" The process of speaking is a complicated system and for the production of sounds we need air-stream.

This can be understood by a very simple experiment while producing any sound like 'ah', 'baa', 'naa', 'chaa' etc. put your palm in

front of your mouth and you can easily feel the warm air coming out of your mouth. In fact, the air while coming out of the mouth gets modified as per its touch to the different organs (that are called organs of speech) and accordingly its sound changes. But the basis of articulation of speech sounds is air stream mechanism.

For the articulation of most speech sounds long-air is used and therefore it is essential to understand respiratory mechanism in detail. The respiratory system consists of the lungs. The muscles of the chest & the windpipe. Lungs are made of small sacs that are known as alveoli. The basic task of these sacs is that the blood is cleaned and provided with fresh oxygen from the outer-air. The small tubes that provide air to the alveoli are called bronchioles, that come together into two large tubes called the bronchi, one situated on the right & another one at the left. The bronchi join the windpipe (the trachea). It is through this windpipe that the air that we breathe in reaches lungs via throat. This respiration act involves two process:

(i) inspiration (taken the air into the lungs) and (ii) expiration (pushing out air from the lungs to other atmosphere).

It is the second kind of air, that is expiratory lung air that is the basis of articulation of speech sounds.

The air-stream mechanism can be divided into three parts that are mentioned below: (i) Pulmonic. (ii) Glottalic. (iii) Velaric.

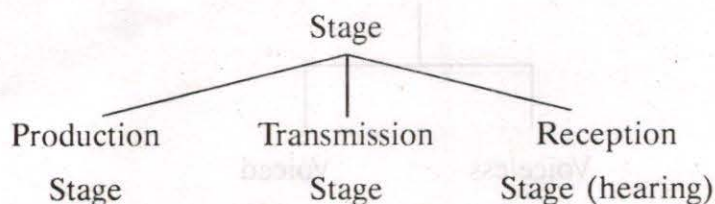
Pulmonic air stream mechanism consists of the lungs and the respiratory muscles. Here, the initiator is the wall of the lungs. These walls are moved by the respiratory muscles that results into inward or outward movement of air. When the airstream mechanism is used to throw the air out, it is called egressive and generally speech sounds depend on this movement only. And when the air is pushed into the lungs that is called ingressive; and this activity is not used in the production of sound rather yawning and snoring depend on.

In Glottalic air stream mechanism, the closed glottis (the open space between vocal chords) serves as an initiator and the air in pharynx is used.

In the velaric air stream mechanism the back of the tongue serves as an initiator and air in the mouth is used to produce sound. Generally, African language are produced by velaric ingressive mechanism.

Speech Sounds

In order to understand the speech sounds we need to understand the terms 'acoustic' and 'auditory' in articulation. The very purpose of producing a sound in general, is to be transmitted and heard. There are three stages of the study of sound:



Hence, we can classify and describe the speech sounds in three terms: articulatory, acoustic and auditory.

Speech sound are classified into vowels and consonants. 'Vowels' are defined in phonetic terms. All other sounds are taken as 'consonants'; In phonetic terms, a speech sound is defined as a 'vowel' if the production, of sound is in the pharynx and the mouth, no obstruction and no narrowing of a degree that would cause audible friction.

While studying the organs of speech, speech sound may be studied and understood in terms of state and direction of the airstream and the degree of stricture of air passage. For production of speech, we need an airstream mechanism.

Speech sounds are broadly divided into two categories, namely, vowels and consonants.

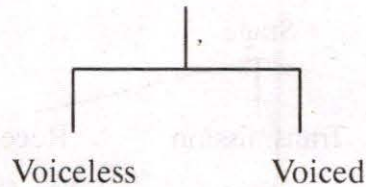
If we pronounce the words like 'she', 'shoe', 'shy', 'show' etc. the sound represented by the letters 'e', 'oe', 'ig', 'ou' in these words, the air escapes through the mouth freely without any friction. These are the vowel sounds but each sound differs from the other one. In the same way, if 'shae', 'see' and 'who' are pronounced, there is friction in the sounds represented by the letters 'sh', 'os' and 'bh'. All these sounds are consonants. But each sound, differs from the other one.

In order to know consonant sounds, we should know the following points:

- (i) *The air-stream mechanism.*
- (ii) *State and function of glottis.*
- (iii) *Soft palate.*
- (iv) *Involvement of active and passive articulators and of stricture.*

(i) **The air-stream mechanism:** The air-stream mechanism stands for pushing out of lung-air. Both sounds i.e. vowels and consonants are produced with a pulmonic egressive an stream mechanism.

(ii) **State and function of glottis :** Speech sounds may be categorized as :



In voiced sounds glottis remains open. The vocal cords are kept loosely together; and there is vibration also.

In voiceless sounds that vocal cords are widely apart and glottis is widely open.

Experiment: Put the palm over ears (while pronouncing); If the buzz is heard-voiced (vvv-zzz). If the buzz is not heard-voiceless. (sss, ffff).

(iii) **Soft palate:** Speech sounds are both oral or nasal. It is to be observed whether the soft-palate is raised so as to close the nasal passage of air or it is lowered to open the nasal passages of air.

(iv) **Involvement of active and passive articulators and of stricture:** The articulators that move during the, production of speech sounds are called active articulators. Some other articulators which remain inactive are called passive. If we go for experiment, we shall find that the lower lips and tongue are the active articulators. The upper lip and the roof the mouth are the passive articulators. The upper lip and soft palate can move independently, but their position also changes accordingly.

The term 'stricture' is also involved in speech sounds. 'Stricture' means the way in which the passage of air is restricted by organs of speech. Sometimes, there is complete closures and sudden release. In this state, the active and the passive articulators come into contact with each other. Here the lung-air is prevented from escaping through the mouth.

Sounds produced with a stricture of complete, closure and sudden releases are called plosives. The initial sounds in the English word spin, bin, tin, din, kin and gun are called plosives. The sounds represented by the Devanagari symbols : क, ख, ग, घ, ट, ठ, ड, ढ, त, थ, द, ध, प, फ, ब, and भ are plosives.

Types of Strictures

The following are the types of Stricture:

- (i) Complete closure and sudden release.
- (ii) Complete closure and slow release.
- (iii) Complete oral closure.
- (iv) Intermittent closure.

(v) *Taps or flaps consonants.*

(vi) *Close approximation.*

(vii) *Partial closure.*

(viii) *Open Approximation.*

(i) **Complete closure and sudden release:** In it, the active and the passive articulators come into contact with each other. It prevents the lung-air from escaping through the mouth. Soft palate is raised, and the nasal passage of air is shut off. In this way, the lung-air is blocked in the mouth.

(ii) **Complete closure and slow release:** If the active articulator is removed from the passive articulator slowly, friction shall be heard. It is notable to learn that the sounds produced with a stricture of complete closure and slow release are called Affricates. For instance, the sounds, in 'chin' and 'jam' are called affricate consonants.

(iii) **Complete oral closure :** When the active and passive articulators come in contact with each other, the oral passage of air is blocked. But, because of the lowering of the soft palate the nasal passage of air is opened. The sounds that are articulated with a stricture of complete oral closure are called nasals. The sound in words 'sum' & 'sun' etc. are nasal consonants.

(iv) **Intermittent closure:** When we raise the soft palate, the nasal passage of air is shut off. When the active and passive articulators strike against each other repeatedly, the air escapes between the two articulators intermittently.

(v) **Taps or flaps consonants:** It is also seen that at times, the active articulator strikes against the passive one just once, and quickly flaps forward. Such consonants are called 'taps' or 'flaps'.

(vi) **Close approximation:** In it, the two articulators active and passive when come close, there is a narrow gap between them. In this condition, the lung-air escapes through the narrow space between the active and passive articulators. The initial sounds in the words 'five', 'thin', 'sip' and 'sheep' etc. are fricatives.

(vii) **Partial closure:** If we lower the sides of the tongue are lowered, there becomes plenty of gap between the 'sides' of the tongue and the upper teeth. Sounds that are articulator with a fracture of complete closure in the centre of the vocal tract but with the air escaping along the sides of the tongue without any friction are called laterals. We can take the word 'love' in it the initial sound is a lateral.

(viii) **Open Approximation :** When the soft palate is raised, the nasal passage of air is shut off. If there is a wide gap between the active and the passive articulators, the air will pass through this gap. The sounds

articulated with a stricture of open approximation are called frictionless continuants and semi-vowels.

According to Bloomfield phonology is the organization of sound into patterns. In order to fulfil the communicative functions, languages organize their material, the vocal noises, into recurrent bits and pieces arranged in sound patterns. It is the study of this formal organisation of languages which is known as phonology.

Difference Between Phonetics and Phonology

The difference between phonetics and phonology is that of generality and particularity. Whereas phonetics is the science of speech sounds, their production, transmission and reception and the signs to represent them in general with no particular reference to any one language, phonology is the study of vocal sounds and sound changes, phonemes and their variants in a particular language. If phonetics can be likened to a world, phonology is a country. Phonetics is one and the same for all the languages of the world, but the phonology of one language will differ from the phonology of another. According to John Lyons. "Phonetics differs from phonology... in that it considers speech sounds independently of their paradigmatic opposition and syntagmatic combinations in particular languages," and that phonology is the level at which the linguist describes the sounds of a particular language.

The subject-matter of phonology is the selected phonetic material from the total resources available to human beings from phonetics. The human vocal system can produce a very large number of different speech sounds. Members of a particular speech community speaking that particular language, however, use only a limited number of these sounds. Every language makes its own selection of sounds and organizes them into characteristic patterns. This selection of sounds and their arrangement into patterns constitute the phonology of the language.

To quote Robins, "Phonetics and phonology are both concerned with the same subject-matter or aspect of language, speech sounds, as the audible result of articulation, but they are concerned with them from different points of view. Phonetics is general (that is. concerned with speech sounds as such without reference to their function in a particular language), descriptive and classificatory : phonology is particular (having a particular language or languages in view) and functional (concerned with working or functioning of speech in a language or languages). Phonology has in fact been called functional phonetics."

Some Major Concepts of Phonology

1. Phoneme. Most linguists, until recently at least, have regarded the phoneme as one of the basic units of language. But they have not all defined the phonemes in the same way. Some linguists like Bloomfield and Daniel Jones have described phonemes in purely physical terms. Others like Sapir have preferred psychological definitions. Some regard the phoneme only as abstractional fictitious unity and argue that in a language it is not phonemes but allophones that exist in reality. Furthermore, linguists of the Copenhagen School treat the phonemes as *glassemes* and regard them as algebraical units. The term phoneme was first used in the late 1870's notably by Kruszewski. Saussure too worked on the phonemes. But the most notable work in this field was done by Sapir in 1927. Most phoneticians such as Louis Jhelsiev, Bloomfield, Trubetzkoy, Daniel Jones, Roman Jakobson, and Pike have thrown light on the phoneme.

The phoneme, according to Bloomfield, is the minimal unit of distinctive sound-feature. In Webster's Third New International, the phoneme is defined as the smallest unit of speech distinguishing one unit from another, in all the variations it displays in the speech of one person or in one dialect as a result of modifying influences, such as neighbouring sounds or stress. In Dorfman's opinion a phoneme is a single speech sound or group of similar or related speech sounds functioning analogously in a language, and usually represented in writing by the same letter, with or without diacritic marks.

According to most contemporary linguists, however, the phoneme is the minimal bundle of relevant sound features. A phoneme is not a sound; it can be realized only through one of its allophones: it is a class of sounds, actualized or realised in a different way in any given position by its representative, the allophone: it is an ideal towards which the speaker strives, while the allophone is the performance he achieves; it occupies an area within which the various allophones move and operate; its outer limits may approach but not overlap those of other phonemes, and it cannot invade the territory of another phoneme without loss of phonemic distinction.

Thus the precise definition of a phoneme has been the subject of much discussion among linguists and there are two major points of view. The first is the 'classification' theory developed by Daniel Jones which considers the phoneme to be a group or family of related sounds, e.g. /p/ in English consisting of [p], [p^h], etc. or /u/ consisting of (u), (u) etc. The second or 'distinctive feature' theory developed by N.S. Trubetzkoy and the Prague School considers a phoneme to be a bundle of distinctive features, e.g. /p/ in English is considered to be made up of bilabial + stop + voiceless (aspiration is therefore not distinctive and thus the allophones (P^h) and (p) above are allowed for.

Depending on the point of view taken a phoneme can be defined as "a unit, a rubric, a bundle of sound-features", or "the smallest contrastive linguistic unit which may bring about a change of meaning." Hence it is a minimum distinct functional unit.

Phonemes of a language may be discovered by forming minimal pairs, i.e. pairs of words are different in respect of only one sound segment. The series of words pat, bat, cat, hat, sat that mat, supplies us with seven words which are distinguished simply by a change in the first (consonantal) element of the sound sequence. These elements of contrastive significance are phonemes and be symbolized as/p,b,k,h,s,o,m/ Similarly, in the series of words hat, hit, heat, hot, heart, the elements of contrastive significance are a,e, i:, o,a/.

2. Phone. Any objective speech sound, considered as a physical event, and without regard as to how it fits into the structure of any given language, is a phone. Hence a phone in phonology is 'the smallest possible segment of sound abstracted from the continuum of speech.'

3. Allophone. Some sounds, the native speaker thinks are the same, while others are different. The linguist has to figure out what sounds are grouped together as the same, what it is that they all have in common among themselves and how dissimilar are they to other groups of sound in the informant's speech and what criteria the native speaker uses to tell sounds apart. We said earlier that by substituting other segments, the linguist can arrive at a list of these significant, contrastive classes of sounds called 'phonemes'. But we do not always find minimal pairs to help us figure out the list of phonemes. There must be other criteria too, which we will have to incorporate into the definition of a phoneme.

The k-sound in keel, calm and cool differs. In keel it is at the front in the mouth, in calm it is a little in the centre and in cool further back in the mouth. The absence of the above mentioned features do not distort the message for the native speaker. He does not differentiate these sounds in every day speech in the sense that he is not aware of the physical differences. He thinks these sounds are members of the k-class or are all k. In other words for the phoneme /k/, central-k, retracted-k, fronted-k are all allophones.

Hence an allophone is a speech sound which is one of a number of variants of a phoneme. Such a variant can be either in complementary variation or in free variation. The occurrence of a particular allophone may be determined by its environment, or it may be in free variation. Allophones determined by environment, for example, are front or clear [I] as in lamp or light occurring before vowels and the so-called 'back' or 'dark' [I] as in old and table occurring before consonants and at the end of words. They are in complementary distribution, that is where the dark [I] appears in English, there cannot occur the clear [I]. An example

of allophones occurring in free variation in the Southern British English (R.P.) is the /r/ between vowels, as in very, which can occur either as a flap, or as a fricative. Thus allophones are phonetic variants; they are positional or contextual, or conditional variants (alternants) of phoneme.

According to Trager and Smith (An Outline of English Structure), a linguist identifies these allophones in the following way: 1. The sounds should be phonetically similar. 2. They should be in complementary distribution. 3. They should exhibit pattern congruity with other groups of sounds.

4. Diaphone. Sometimes a sound is used by a particular speaker or group of speakers of a language, but is substituted by another sound by some other speaker or group of speakers of the same language. For example, the sound of the diphthong /ou/, as in the word loan' may be substituted by the vowel-sound /e/c:, or the sound of the consonants dark I' as in 'little' may be substituted by the sound of clear I' by some speaker. The bilabial plosive consonant-sounds /p/ and /b/ may often be replaced by the aspirated sound /p^h and /b^h/. In Hindi word ओर (meaning 'towards), the sound 'ओ' is replaced by औ and the word is spoken as और (meaning 'and'). Similarly, the consonant श is replaced by स /s/, and the word शीशा is pronounced as सीसा. Now, both the sound that is originally used by the speakers of language as well as that which is used by other speakers of that language, are said to constitute a diaphone. Daniel Jones has defined a diaphone in the following manner : "The term diaphone is suggested to denote and sound used by one group of speakers together with other sounds which replace it consistently in the pronunciation of other speaker."

Jones elucidates certain facts related to diaphones, two which are stated below:

1. *"Everyone has different styles of pronunciation. Such different styles are merely different ways of pronouncing the language. When a person consistently uses one sound in one style of speech but substitutes another for it in another style, it is as if two different people were speaking, and the two sounds must be regarded as two members of the same diaphone."*
2. *"Care must be taken to distinguish diaphones from phonemes. The different members of one phoneme are sounds used by one single person speaking in one particular style; their use is conditioned by the nature of the surrounding sounds in the sequence and of the degree of stress, sometimes also on length and intonation. The different members of one diaphone are found in comparing the speech of one person with that of another, or in comparing two styles of speech of the same person."*

5. Phonetic Similarity. Phonetically similar sounds are sounds that share a phonetic feature, such as nasality (/m, n, ŋ/) or labial quality (/p/ and /b/) or front vowel quality (/i/ and /e/). But the notion of phonetic similarity is not a reliable guide. In a sense all sounds are phonetically similar, and are produced by the same organs of speech. In another sense they are also dissimilar, which is why we can tell them apart. Hence phonetic similarity is a tricky notion.

6. Complementary Distribution. Having discovered sets of phonetically similar sounds, for examples /p/ and /b/ we must ask whether the variation in each set can be accounted for in terms of the phonetic environments of the members of the set. Mutually exclusive distribution is otherwise known as complementary distribution. For every phoneme there may be positional variants-allophones. Sometimes an allophone occurs in a fixed place in a word. The English phoneme /I/, for example, has one form at the beginning of a word and another form at the end. In a word such as light, the first consonant is a 'clear' I, pronounced by placing the tip of the tongue just behind the teeth and keeping the back of the tongue fairly low. In hill, the tongue tip is in the same place, but the back of the tongue is raised resulting in a 'dark' I. These variants of /I/ are said to be in complementary distribution : each allophone occurs in its own predictable place in a word. Another example of complementary distribution is found in the English phoneme /p/. When p occurs in initial and stressed position, it is pronounced with aspiration (a puff of breath). After s, this puff of breath disappears.

This can be tested by holding a sheet of paper in front of the mouth and saying the words spot, spill, pot, pill. In the case of spot and spill, the paper remains motionless. But when pot and pill are pronounced, the accompanying puff of breath makes the paper billow out.

The notion of complementary distribution in the discovery and assignment of the allophones of a phoneme is useful in a number of cases, but fails in some other cases. These two phones are in mutually exclusive distribution, but they are not phonetically very similar to each other. Therefore the linguist does not regard them as allophones of a simple phoneme, but two different phonemes in English, although there is no minimal pair establishing that these two sounds are in contrastive distribution. If two allophones are not in contrast, they are said to be in complementary distribution: that is neither occurs in any environment in which the other is found.

7. Symmetrical Patterning. A third principle of discovering allophones, besides those of phonetic similarity and complementary distribution, is that of symmetrical patterning. Languages seem to have symmetrical patterning. This patterning is also known as phonetic patterning or pattern congruity. This pattern differs from language to

language. It is to a large extent unconscious and appears to be one of the means by which human memory is able to store a large number of items. In English, for example, many consonant phonemes are unconsciously paired together : / p/ is paired with /b/, /t/ is paired with /d/, /f/ is paired with /v/. In addition, /p/ and /t/ and /k/ behave in a very similar way to one another. Each of them has an aspirated form which occurs at the beginning of a word, as in pill, till, kill, and an unaspirated form after /s/, as in spill, still, skill. By pattern congruity we also mean that relationships are far more important than the phonetic characteristics of the sounds. For example, the allophones of /t/ in English are produced at different points of articulation in words like fountain, the allophone of /t/ is realized at the back of the mouth and in a word like little it is at the glottis. For this reason, they ought not to be considered allophones of a dental stop. They are phonetically similar to velar and glottal stops. But the linguist books at distribution and maintains there are parallel positional variants for /p/ and /k/. So, disregarding the physical characteristics and paying attention to the patterning, the assignment of the allophones to a phoneme is made.

8. Criterion of Economy. Yet another governing principle is economy. The list of phonemes should be as small as possible. It will be in accordance with the principle of economy if we recognize length /:/ as a phoneme in English. Similarly some others prefer on the basis of economy to transcribe choose as /cu:z/ rather than as /tf/u:z/. These examples are given to show that there is no unified theory of phonemics or phonology and that there are some controversial questions that have not been resolved yet. Different linguists use different symbols, consider that material at different times, thus giving rise to different interpretations.

9. Neutralization. Lack of contrast between two phonemes in one particular environment is referred to as neutralization of the contrast in the environment. This so-called neutralization of the distinction between two phonemes is a more common phenomenon than free variation between phonemes in phonology. In languages like German, Russian, Turkish, there is a phonemic distinction between voiced and voiceless consonants in most positions of the word, but in the final positions voiced consonants do not occur.

The IPA can be used to represent in writing the sounds, words phrases, and sentences of any language of the world. Such representation is called phonetic transcription. To illustrate how this is done, take the English words cent and can't, both beginning with the letter c. The first is transcribed as [sent] and the second as [ka:nt]. From the transcription it is clear that the letter c is pronounced differently in these two words. Now, take the word access transcribed as ['ækses], from which it can

be seen that the two c's in this word are pronounced differently. On the other hand, if different spellings represent the same sound in different words, then, in their phonetic transcription, the sound in question will be represented by the same phonetic symbol. Thus, in the transcription of the words kit, rock, cut, acclaim, chemistry and queen, the k sound will consistently be represented by the phonetic symbol [k], the different ways of writing this sound notwithstanding.

This particular characteristic of phonetic transcription, viz 'one sound one symbol', enables us to show the pronunciation of words unambiguously in writing, thereby making it possible to provide pronunciation in dictionaries. Any pronouncing dictionary of English (or any dictionary of English which gives pronunciation as well) will at once show that (i) the letter g in the word target is pronounced [g] (as in get), and not [dʒ] (as in gem), (ii) the letters ee, e, ea, ie, ei, ey, i, ay, eo are all pronounced [i:] in the words tree, be, peace, piece, seize, key, machine, quay, and people, respectively. Further, the dictionary can also show that the letters b, l, p, c, n are 'silent' in the words lamb, talk, psychology, indict, and damn, respectively. What is more, it can tell us that while n is silent in damn, it is not so in damnable. Examples can be multiplied.

To conclude, we may draw the reader's attention again to the fact that the IPA can be employed to write any language of the world. Indeed, so great is the advantage of this alphabet that in modern times, whenever a hitherto unwritten language is reduced to writing, the writing system given to it is very often kept as close to the IPA as possible.

Types of Phonetic Transcription

Our use of the term 'phonetic transcription' so far might give the impression that there is only one type of phonetic transcription. This is by no means true. Attempts have indeed been made from time to time to evolve scripts that might be easier than the IPA to teach and to use in writing, typing, and printing. Thus, for the vowel sounds in the English words cat and cot, some dictionaries and books on English pronunciation use the symbols a and o in place of ae and D, respectively, which would represent the two sounds more accurately in terms of the IPA. This is one reason why more than one type of phonetic transcription may be available, even for the same variety of a language.

Another, and a crucial, reason for having more than one type of phonetic transcription is the following. Sometimes we wish to show in a phonetic transcription only the distinctive sounds of a language, called its phonemes while at other times, our concern is to show even those sound features that are not distinctive within a given language.

Uses of Phonetic Transcription

One chief use of phonetic transcription might by now have become clear—to represent the pronunciation of a word, or a longer sequence, unambiguously. Such a use of phonetic transcription makes it possible for dictionaries to provide pronunciations of individual words and for language teachers to teach them. The use of phonetic transcription is particularly helpful in teaching a foreign or second language to adults, who cannot learn easily and economically entirely by imitation. Thus, such a learner might more readily get the right pronunciation of the English word *tortoise* by seeing it transcribed as /'tɔ:təʊs/ than by relying exclusively on imitation. Indeed, the transcription may at once tell him all that instructions like the following may do only slowly: (i) pronounce the first o as it is pronounced in short, (ii) make r silent (for a particular variety of British English), (iii) pronounce oi as the second vowel in *shaken*, (iv) pronounce s as in *see*, not as in *his*, and (v) make the final e silent.

What holds for the fresh teaching of pronunciation is also true of the remedial teaching of it. Indeed, in correcting a long-established instance of mispronunciation, resort to sheer imitation may be of no great help, for the learner may persistently hear the teacher's pronunciation as in no way different from his own.

Another use of phonetic transcription consists in comparing the sound systems of different languages. When we list the phonemic inventories of any two or more languages, we can at once see which sounds are common to them, and which are not. Thus the phonemic inventories of Urdu, Hindi, and English can at once reveal that (i) Urdu and Hindi have dental plosives (as word-initially in *تو* [tum] 'you', *दो* [do:] 'two'), whereas English has none; (ii) English and Urdu have f and z sounds, while Hindi has neither (except in the words borrowed from Urdu); and (iii) English has dental fricatives (as at the beginning of the words *thin* and *then*), while Hindi and Urdu have none; and so on.

Yet another use of phonetic transcription is found in comparing different varieties of the same language. Thus the English words *last*, *fast*, and *class* are transcribed /la:st/, /fa:st/, and /kla:s/ in their British pronunciation, and /laest/ /faest/, and /klaes/, respectively, in their American pronunciation, thus explicitly bringing out the difference between the two varieties of English in respect of the vowel use in such words.

Finally, when a researcher in linguistics is for the first time writing down the text of a speech in a language unknown to him, he has to have recourse to phonetic transcription only. The script used by such a language, even if familiar to him, cannot go very far in informing him as to how the texts are actually pronounced. And indeed a researcher

may sometimes have to deal with a language so far unwritten. In all such cases, phonetic transcription proves immensely useful.

Phoneme

The 'raw material' of speech is sounds, forming the medium used by speakers and listeners. Every language organises and structures the sound units in a characteristic manner. 'Sound units'-we shall use this expression for the time being though it is believed that there is nothing like a sound unit-are used by particular languages selectively. A language gives an individual sound a special position by contrasting it with other sounds. Sounds must contrast if they are to be considered as phoneme. In other words, each individual sound must differentiate the meaning of the word in which it occurs.

Let us look at the following pairs of words :

sip	-	zip
toll	-	doll
coat	-	goat
thane	-	then

We see here that the sounds that occur initially differ, while the sounds occurring in middle and final positions are retained. This replacement of one sound in each pair : [s] being replaced by [z], [d] taking place of [t], [g] coming in place of [k] and so on, causes a change in the meaning of the words. They differ in meaning by just taking a different sound in the first position.

We can say the sounds s-z; t-d; k-g; and θ -(thane) \eth (then) form contrastive pairs. These sounds are minimally different from each other in terms of their phonetic structure.

In a similar manner, we can change the middle sounds :

bill	-	ball	-	bell
till	-	tall	-	tell
pill	-	pall	-	pale
chin	-	-	-	chain

In the above examples, vowel-sounds are changed leading to a change in meaning. Like the consonant-sounds seen before, replacement of one vowel by another also creates pairs of words that contrast. We can have similar results from changes in the final sounds as well-bit-bid, bean-beam; pear-peal; sear-seal, etc. By meticulously following this procedure it is possible to identify the significant sound units, that are much more than just sound elements, or the 'raw material' of a language.

They are minimal particles that can distinguish meaning between words. This is what makes these sound particles so significant and special. These segmentally distinctive units of sound are known as phonemes. The primary factor in describing a phoneme is that it creates contrastive pairs that are also minimal pairs, and it is significant in that it is responsible for changing meaning.

The next important thing to understand is that a phoneme is a group, a range or a family of sound features. R.A. Hall, Jr. says, 'Numerous definitions of the phoneme have been proposed, none of them wholly satisfactory. Depending on the point of view taken, we can define a phoneme as a unit, a rubric, a bundle of sound features, or a point of contrast. A phoneme is a combination of features of articulation e.g. stop articulation, bilabial position, and voicing in /b/, or high and front tongue position and absence of lip-rounding in /i/, which renders a phoneme distinct from another, and which are, therefore, known as distinctive features'.

According to Hall, in describing the phoneme /b/ we must consider its various phonetic features. The famous Russian linguist Aleksander Reformatkij describes phoneme as 'an ensemble of distinctive features which form its differential essence.' In the opinion of the American linguist Francis P. Dinneen, 'Phonemes are classes of sounds that contrast with other classes of sounds and a single phoneme can be defined as a class of sounds whose phonetic differences are capable of distinguishing one meaning from another'.

We can deduce from this discussion the following salient attributes of a phoneme.

- i) *It is a unit of contrast in a language.*
- ii) *It is a bundle of features.*
- iii) *It is capable of differentiating meaning of words.*
- iv) *It shows both phonetic similarities and differentiating features.*

What is Distinctive feature?

Linguistic analysis proceeds by breaking the complex speech segments into morphemic components. These components are meaningful units which are divided into further components at the lower level. These constituents are capable of differentiating morphemes from each other. Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle called them 'distinctive features'. In other words, phonetic components that are required to distinguish meanings are called distinctive features. Phonemes can be termed as bundles of distinctive features. They play a significant role in making a sound form contrastive relation with other sounds. Tip-top is a pair of words where the only significant difference is that of the middle

vowel-sound /i/-/ɔ/. Each one of these vowels contains features (/i/ being a high front unrounded lenis vowel; and /ɔ/ being a low-mid back rounded lenis vowel) that separate them from each other. These features also contrast them. They should, therefore, be termed as separate phonemes. The distinctive features qualify them as phonemes. It is these features that the speaker of a language has been trained to produce and the listener has been trained to recognise in the current of speech sounds—'just as the motorists are trained to stop before a red signal', as Bloomfield says.

What is notable here is that phoneme has not been defined as a sound, but a class of sounds. Phonemes may show phonetic differences; however, these differences are not significant, they do not result in difference in word meaning. Therefore, these phonetic attributes are called non-significant or non-distinctive.

Let us now consider an English phoneme /p/. It is pronounced in two different ways : when it occurs in the beginning of a word, it is accompanied by a puff of breath called aspiration. We hear this in words like pull, pall, possible, etc. We may write it as [p^h] But when /p/ occurs in the middle of a word or follows a spirant /s/ in an unstressed syllable, it is not aspirated, as in spill, spoil, appear, despair. We can thus say that these two qualities, namely, presence of aspiration in some cases and absence of it, are positionally variant forms. But these variations do not make any difference in the meaning. They are called non-distinctive features, and accompany all the phonemes of English. However, what is non-distinctive in one language may be distinctive in another; that is, phonetic features that do not contribute to differences in meaning in language A may produce differences in meaning in language B. Each language has its own phonemic system that is peculiar to it. In Hindi we find a series of aspirated and unaspirated sounds : /p/-/ph/; /b/-/bh/; /t/-/th/; /d/-/dh/ and so on. Aspiration is a distinctive feature here and not just a matter of simple phonetic variation. In these pairs aspirated sounds contrast with the unaspirated sounds making them two distinct phonemes.

It may appear strange to a native speaker of English to have an unaspirated plosive in the initial position in a word, or in the middle or after /s/, but this will not create any difference in meaning.

There may be various reasons for changes in the phonetic quality of a sound. One of the potential reasons is the phonetic environment which tends to influence a sound. In words lip and kick the vowels have different phonetic qualities due to the environment in which they occur. The difference can be explained in terms of the articulatory factors that accompany the two consonant phonemes /l/ and /k/, which influence /i/ leading to a change in qualities of the vowel occurring in /lip/ and /kick/. In fact, the difference can be described not just as one difference, but

as difference on many levels such as back/front articulation, tenseness or its absence, and so on. In English these changes are not significant enough to affect meaning.

This kind of phonetic difference and its distribution governed by the phonetic environment is termed complementary distribution: 'sounds are said to be in complementary distribution when each occurs in a fixed set of contrasts in which none of the others occurs' (Gleason).

In the example of /p/ already discussed we may note that the fact that it is aspirated in the initial position and not in the middle position after /s/ in an unstressed syllable shows that these two variant forms of the sound are in complementary distribution: one occurs in the context in which the other does not. Their occurrence is governed by the phonetic environment. Such phonetically variant forms are known as allophones. Their distribution can be said to be mutually exclusive. Thus we may show these variant forms as [ph] and [p>], one aspirated, the other unaspirated. These are two allophones of the phoneme /p/. It is relevant to point out here that phonetic sounds and their features are always represented by putting them within square brackets []; the phonemic symbols are placed within slant lines, //. Allophones are the phonetic members of the phoneme that are in complementary distribution; that is, their occurrence is determined by the phonetic environment. Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle have discovered a set of distinctive features which, in their words, 'underlie the entire stock of lexical and morphological stock' of the language. The features are seen and described as binary choices presented in either/or terms. We present here Jakobson-Halle scheme of distinctive features.

1. Vocalic/non-vocalic Vowel is differentiated from consonant by this feature. Vocalics are marked by resonance patterns.

2. Compact/diffuse Shape and volume of the resonance chamber characterise these features. Compact sounds show closer resonance patterns.

3. Consonantal/non-consonantal Vowels are non-consonantal and vocalic, consonants are non-vocalic. Vocal energy is notably high in vowels and quite low in consonants.

4. Tense/lax This feature marks off [p] from [b] and shorter vowels from longer ones. Tense vowels are longer and stronger, tense consonants are longer and possess greater plosive strength.

5. Voiced/voiceless Glottal activity accompanies voiced sounds which is termed as 'periodic frequency excitation', in which vibration of vocal cords occurs. This activity is absent in the voiceless sounds. Glottal activity results in 'buzz' phonemes, 'because of the tone generated at the glottal source', [b]-[p]; [d]-[t]; [g]-[k] show this.

6. Strident/mellow Sounds showing irregular wave forms are termed strident, such as 'noisy' fricatives. Acoustically it is described as 'higher intensity noise' contrasted with the lower intensity noise'.

7. Grave/Acute We can identify grave sounds by noting concentration of energy in the lower extreme of the spectrum compared to the concentration of energy in the higher part which is the case in acute sounds. On this basis we can distinguish [u] and [o] from [i] and [ɛ].

8. Nasal/oral Nasal cavity supplements oral cavity as resonator in nasal sounds, [m], [n], [ŋ].

9. Discontinuous/Continuous In terms of articulatory movements there is a 'rapid turning on or off the source through rapid closures and/or opening of the vocal tract that distinguishes plosives from continuants. A flap and trill /r/, /R/ are characterised as discontinuous sounds distinct from liquids like the lateral /l/.

10. Checked/Unchecked This implies greater release of energy in a short interval and time contrasted with smaller release of energy over longer interval. Glottalized and non-glottalized sounds represent this feature.

11. Flat/plain Flat sounds are those in the pronunciation of which there is a gradual widening of the resonator either in the front or the back of the oral cavity. When the resonator is narrow, we hear plain sounds.

12. Sharp/plain Palatalization occurs in sharp sounds when there is an 'upward shift of some of the upper frequency components' (Jakobson-Halle). Back part of the mouth resonator is dilated, while palatalization restricts the cavity. This is not distinctive in English. A phoneme shows two basic criteria :

1. *The sounds must be phonetically similar.*
2. *They must show characteristic distribution patterns.*

Phonetic similarity is an elusive notion; in a sense that all sounds are phonetically similar. There is a range of similarity features which is gradable indefinitely. At the same time the differences stand out sharply and mark them apart.

Allophones

Phonemes and Allophones are inter-related to each other. 'Phoneme' is a contrastive unit of sound in the sound system of a language. Its realization is different depending upon its position in words. These positionally defined realizations or variants are its allophones. Hence; it is clear that the sounds that can be grouped

together into a single phoneme are called members of that phoneme, or allophones of that phoneme.

In short, it can be stated that allophones are positional variants of phonemes. The allophones of a phoneme make or form a set of sounds with which the meaning of the word is not changed.

Allophones are predictable not necessarily in terms of position. They may be predictable in terms of stress, pitch, juncture.

It is clear that allophones cannot be used haphazardly. We are restricted in our use of allophones. Let us take an example, we use clear (I) before a vowel, as in 'light', at the end of a word- 'tell'.

Just as the phoneme of one language should not be the phonemes of another language. In the same way, a phoneme of one language may not be the allophones of another language. Let us take an example, [p] is aspirated in the initial position in 'pearl', and phonetically transcribed as [ph].

Major Characteristics of Allophones

There are two major characteristics of Allophones:

1. *The allophones of a phoneme must be phonetically similar. For instance, both [Ph] and [P] are plosive, bilabial and unvoiced.*
2. *The sounds [Ph] and [P] must show certain characteristics patterns of distribution.*

The linguistic meaning of the word 'distribution' is the range of positions in which a particular unit of a language i.e. a phoneme, an allophone or even a word can occur.

Patterns of the Distribution

(1) **Free Variation:** It is the simplest pattern of distribution. The first variation is inherent in the human speech itself. It is true that an individual may repeat the same sound many times, and there is little likelihood that one repetition of the same sound.

Any two sounds which are in free variation, cannot be two phonemes, but only two points within the range that constitute the phonemes. In free variation, if we use one allophone at the place of another, there will be no change in the meaning. For instance, we may pronounce 'cut' as [K^hAt^h]. In this case [th] and [t] are in free variation in word final position. This is also known as non-contrastive free variation.

(2) **Complementary Distribution:** When each sound occurs in a fixed set of contexts, it is called complementary distribution. The most obvious complementary distribution is in the variation between the aspirated allophones and the non-aspirated allophone of a plosive

phoneme. Hence, it can be maintained that the allophones which never occur in the same environment are complementary distribution. When allophones of a phoneme occur in the same environment, but without force, are considered as free variation.

Allophones also exhibit a sort of neatness of pattern. For instance, the allophones of the voiceless |p, t, k|. Their allophones get aspirated in initial position in stressed syllables-pin [p^h, n] etc.

To conclude, allophones may be called the phonetic variants, they, are positional or contextual, or conditional variants (alternates) of phoneme. According to Trager and Smith in their book 'An Outline of English Structure', a scholar may identify allophones as under;

- (a) *The sounds should be more or less phonetically similar.*
- (b) *They should be in complementary distribution.*
- (c) *There should be exhibition of pattern congruity with the sounds of other groups.*

Speech is based on breath of the column of air expelled from the lungs. However, this air doesnot emerge as one continuous uninterrupted flow, but is broken into groups by the respiratory apparatus in the thorax. Syllable is that point in a unit where the maximum breath-energy is perceptible and therefore, forms the peak or nucleus of that unit. In a word like boy, hat, place or fridge the vowels o,a,e and i are the carriers of the breath-energy. They are syllabic. In sector and doctor this is broken into two syllabic units sec-tor and doc-tor. The more the vocalic peaks in a word, the greater is the distribution of breath-energy.

We can better understand syllable from two angles-i) its articulatory aspect, and ii) the internal structure. From the point of the articulatory processes involved, syllabification can be understood in terms of the movements of the sub-laryngeal organs which force a puff of air 'upward through the vocal channel by a compression of the intercostal muscles' (R.H. Stetson). This again underlines the fact that airstream doesnot issue from the lungs in a continuous flow but in a pulse-like manner resulting from the alternate contractions and relaxation of the breathing muscles. David Abercrombie says, 'Each muscular contraction, and consequent rise in air pressure is a chest pulse (so called because it is the intercostal muscles in the chest that are responsible); and each chest pulse constitutes a syllable. This syllable-producing process, the system of chest-pulses is the basis of human speech'. The force varies rhythmically, in the way which 'correlates with the successive units we call syllables in English and certain other languages' (Hockett). According to this every syllable

consists of 'three successive factors : release, culmination and arrest of the pulse', (Jakobson-Halle).

The initiation and termination of the syllable are called marginal factors which are affected either by the mere action of the chest pulses or by speech sounds; usually consonant (Jakobson-Halle). The nucleus or peak is formed by a vowel or a diphthong. The volume of the thoracic cavity can be varied by moving the diaphragm; when it contracts the thoracic cavity moves downward distending the abdominal walls. The pulses thus generated are known as syllabic pulses-or to identify them in term of articulatory movements as phonetic syllables.

Structure of syllable

The breath issuing from the thoracic cavity is shaped by various organs to give it sonority. Vowels are the most sonorous of the sounds, and the consonants the least. Sonority is mainly the effect of the amount of air coming from the thoracic chamber, and the vocal organs altering the passage of air-stream, /a/ and /i/ have a higher degree of sonority. In a syllabic structure the vowel occupies the most prominent place, forming its peak or nucleus. Robert A. Hall, Jr. describes syllable as a 'segment of speech containing a peak of sonority'. In the pronunciation of a syllable three stages are recognised, onset, peak, coda. Both onset and coda are formed by consonants, which are also arresting and releasing consonants. The word peat /pi:t/ has an onset represented by the consonant /p/, a peak or nucleus /i:/ and a coda represented by /t/. We illustrate this in the following manner.

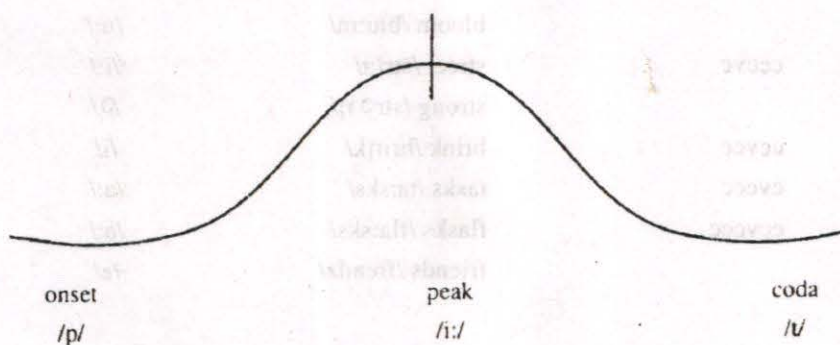


Fig.

Besides the vowels, diphthongs also constitute the syllables. Sometimes consonant clusters also form the syllable as in the English word extra /ekstrə/ which contains three syllables /e/-/ks/-/trə/. /ks/ is the consonant cluster forming the syllable. Such consonants are known as syllabic consonants. A point should be made clear here. If a consonant cluster occurs in the middle, but one of them forms the coda of one syllable and the onset of the next one, components of such a cluster are known as abutting consonants.

Open and closed syllables

Syllables can be of two types, open and closed. This classification is made on the basis of their ending. Syllables ending in a vowel or diphthong are known as open : do /du:/ with a cv structure, nigh /nai/, with a cv structure are examples of open syllable. Those that end in consonants are called closed or checked syllables, sit /sit/, eat /i:t/ are the examples. Syllabic structure is shown by mentioning the consonants and vowels that constitute it. For example, bat has a c v c structure, a consonant followed by a nuclear vowel and an arresting consonant. The word train has the ccvc structure, and so on. Some commonly occurring patterns in English are shown below:

Syllable structure	Examples	The Nucleus
v	I /ai/	/ai/
vc	on /ɔ n/	ɔ /
	is /iz/	/i/
cv	sigh /sai/	/ai/
cvc	back /bæk/	/æ/
	dot /dɒ t/	/ɒ/
	pail /peil/	/ei/
vcc	and /ænd/	/æ/
	ox /ɒ ks/	ɒ/
cvcc	socks /sɒ ks/	/ɒ/
	sex /seks/	/e/
ccvc	stool /stu:l/	/u:/
	bloom /blu:m/	/u:/
ccvc	street /stri:t/	/i:/
	strong /strɒ ŋ/	ɒ/
ccvc	brink /brɪŋk/	/i/
cvcc	tasks /ta:sk/	/a:/
ccvcc	flasks /fla:sk/	/a:/
	friends /frendz/	/e/

Physiologically, stress means greater articulatory effort. By putting stress on particular segments we give it greater prominence. Various types of meaning are conveyed by distributing stress pattern over speech segments in a controlled manner.

Two types of stress can be established :

1. *Word stress (or accent)*
2. *Phrasal (or sentence stress)*

Word stress

In words made up of more than one syllable, some syllable stands out from others. In a word like *fable* it is the first syllable that receives 'stress' or more articulatory energy which results in its 'sounding louder and longer than the other syllable' the second syllable here. The distribution of stress over the word *fable* can be shown in this manner-fa-ble.

In monosyllabic words-these words may contain more than one phoneme, but that doesnot matter-stress falls on the only syllable they contain:

1	/ai/	(single phoneme word)
see	/si:/	(two-phoneme word)
cat	/kaet/	(three-phoneme word)
flame	/fleim/	(four-phoneme word)
tract	/traekt/	(five-phoneme word)

In words made of more than one syllable, the stress is distributed over the syllables; one of the syllables is pronounced with greater syllabic energy or prominence. In words like *sector* and *enable*, the first syllable is prominent in *sector* and the second syllable in *enable*.

The syllable that is strongly stressed is called a strong syllable and weakly stressed syllable is called weak syllable. In *sector*, *sec* is strong syllable and *-tor* weak syllable. In *enable*, *en* is weak syllable and no strong syllable followed a weak-*bl*. In polysyllabic words the stressed syllable may be more than one, for example these words-*understand*, *appetizing* and *examination*. Syllabic division is shown as follows :

un-der-stand; ap-pe-ti-zing; e-xa-mi-na-tion.

A polysyllabic word is graded in terms of the release of syllabic energy. It can be seen that from the strongest to the less strong to the weak, we can easily perceive different parts carrying these stresses. For example, in a word like *consolidation*, the strongest stress falls on the fourth syllable */-dei-/*, the next prominent syllable is the second one, the other syllables carry weak stresses.

One reason why the fourth syllable is the strongest is that the pitch of the voice changes on this syllable. Therefore, this is also called primary stress or tonic stress. A strong stress accompanied by a pitch-change or pitch movement is known as primary stress. Roger Kingdon says that 'the prominence of a syllable is also affected by its pitch; high-pitched syllables sound more prominent than low-pitched ones'.

Stress features are thus divided into the following levels :

1. Primary stress

2. *Secondary stress*3. *Tertiary stress*4. *Weak stress*

The strongest release of syllabic energy accompanied by a potential change of pitch direction marks the primary stress. The next strong stress is called secondary stress. Primary stress is represented by the half straight bar [e], and the secondary stress by the bar placed at the bottom before the syllable that is stressed. Thus in apple the primary stress is on the first syllable "apple-, so with father, but in ga'rage it is on the second syllable. The word understand carries a primary and a secondary stress indicated as [understand. Tertiary stress is weaker than the secondary stress and close to weak or unmarked stress. It is somewhat difficult to define and describe it. The two identically pronounced words nightrate and nitrate, show that the second example has a tertiary stress while in night rate rate carries the secondary stress. A weak stress is always left unmarked. Here the pitch is low and the vowel lax as in to'bacco.

Stress pattern in English has to be learned; there is nothing in a syllable itself which indicates that it may receive stress or not. In some disyllabic words the first syllable is stressed, for example 'writer, 'bellow, 'coral, 'glimmer, 'ginger, while other disyllabic words have the second syllable stressed : re' cord, be' low, con' sort (vb), di 'sable. Compared to the unstressed syllable, the vowel in a stressed syllable is longer. Similarly, a long vowel becomes reduced in length when it occurs in an unaccented syllable.

Compound word stress

Compound word consists of two words, which are written as one word. Mostly the nuclear, tonic or primary stress falls on the first syllable of the first word as in 'postman, 'batsman, 'chairman, etc. Distribution of stress varies greatly according to the syllabic composition of the compound words.

Primary stress on the first syllable

'Honeymoon, 'honey suckle, 'market day, 'main spring, long shore, live stock, liveryman.

Primary stress on the first, secondary on the third syllable

'borderline, firebrigade, copyright

Primary stress on the first, secondary on the fourth syllable

national issue, labour exchange, cabinet maker

Primary stress on the third, secondary on the first syllable

secondhand, country farm, easy going, seargent major

Phrasal stress

Although words have more or less fixed stress in connected speech, the intonational and contextual imperatives guide a speaker's choice of stress. Longer utterances, clauses and segments can show changes in stress pattern. This is accompanied by the rise and fall in the pitch level.

Normally, content words receive the primary stress, grammatical words do not. As T. Balasubramanian says, "The choice of the syllable receiving primary accent depends on the meaning the speaker wants to convey".

Weak and Strong Forms

While speaking, we do not speak in words but in group of words that are uttered continuously. It means that break or pause comes after a particular group not during it. The length of these word groups is not defined, it depends on the length of sentences. In long sentences it may be long, in short sentences it is short and it may be of intermediate length in the sentences of moderate length. Take an example of long sentence, || Last Friday | wanted to get up to Delhi early || So I caught a train | about half an hour before my usual one || and | got to work | about half past nine ||.

When the concerned group is grammatically closely connected to the next one, there is a slight pause which is indicated through [||]. However, when two groups are not so closely connected, the pause becomes longer which is indicated through [|||]. The same double bar is also used to mark the end of a sentence. It is not very different to understand the way in which a long utterance can be broken into shorter groups-it can be learnt through the observation of native speakers.

There are approximately 45 words in English, which have two or more pronunciations-one dictionary pronunciation (known as strong pronunciation) and second is weak pronunciation. Strong means having more emphasis and weak means going for less emphasis. Words of this kind that have both the pronunciations are called weak form words. It is essential to know the weak forms of the words as many non-native speakers who use only strong forms of these words fail to touch the characteristic rhythm of English language and it reduces the level of intelligibility of their pronunciation especially in relation to native speakers of RP. Not only this, if the non-native speakers do not understand the nuances of strong and weak forms, it becomes difficult to understand the pronunciation of native speakers as they use these weak forms.

Use of Strong forms of Grammatical Words

Practically, all the words that have weak forms or pronunciations are form words or grammatical words. In certain specific circumstances they retain their strong forms but generally they are pronounced with their weak forms. Let us see the context or circumstances in which only strong forms are acceptable. (In the rest of the cases weak forms are the normal pronunciations of their words).

(1) When weak form words occur in the end of the sentence.

For example, the words at, to, from, for, of, on, etc. |ə t|, |t Ŋ|, |fr ə m|, |fə (r)|, |ə V|, |K ə n| as their normal weak pronunciation but they are pronounced as |de t|, |t Ŋ|, |fr ə m|, |fɔ : (r)|, |ə V|, |K de n| when they occur at the end of the sentence.

Ex. *What's it made of ?*

| w ə ts It meɪd ə V |

What's he looking at ?

| "w ə ts hɪ lukɪ ŋ de t ? |

(2) A weak form word changes into the strong form for the purpose of showing contrast, emphasis or coordination.

Ex. *The journey to | t Ŋ : | Agra and non from | fr. ə m | Agra (contrast)*

It was uttered 'and' | de nd| and not that | ə de t| (citation)

Some of the popular strong and weak variations are mentioned below:

Word	Strong Form	Weak Form	Example
1. And	æ n d	ə n n	Come and sit. 'K ^ m ə n 'sɪt Bread and butter. 'bred n 'b ^ tə
2. Are	a : a : r	ə (before consonants) ə r (before vowels)	They're going. de ə gʊɪ ŋ They're honest. deə r 'ə nɪst

3. Is	Iz	Iz z (after voiced sound) other than z, dz, ʒ S (after voiceless) Sounds other than s, tʃ, f	This dog is mine. ðIS dɔg Iz 'maIn This dog's lovely. ðIS dɒgz 'I^vII But that dog's ugly. bət ðə t dɒgs 'ʌgII
4. has	n ə S	h ə z (at the beginning of a sentence) ə z after s, z, tʃ, dz,, ʃ, ʒ z (after voiced sounds, minus) z, dz, ʒ s after voiceless sounds minus s, tʃ, f	Has he done it ? h e z ; " d^ n It The lion's died. p ə : a lɒnZ daId

Hence, the list and variation of strong and weak form is very long. It depends a lot on context and mood too. In order to know the correct form, one must observe native speakers.

Another significant suprasegmental feature of English language is intonation or variation of pitch from one segment of an utterance to another. A lot of emotional meaning is conveyed by consciously varying intonation level.

Pitch is closely associated with vibration of the vocal cords. In males the vocal cords vibrate at a rate of 70-125 times per second, and in adult females it is between 150-200 times. Increase in the vibration of the vocal cords results in the rise of pitch. In normal conversation, pitch variations are quite an integral part and cannot be completely ignored.

A combination of stress on a syllable and change in pitch-range produces tone, a significant element of intonation. Two types of tone have been identified i) Static tone and ii) kinetic tone. A syllable pronounced on a level tone of unvarying pitch is said to have static tone.

The kinetic tones show different kinds of change in pitch contour. Physiologically, this is explained by variation in the tension of the vocal cords.

Different levels of kinetic tone have been postulated by different phoneticians, some grade it into five, some into four. This shows that precise location of a tone contour is not possible-gradations are made only as identification of a range, where correspondence with modulations in the emotional level can also be identified.

In rapid speech pitch contours rapidly alternate but it must be remembered that all pitch movements are not discriminating, and therefore, significant. Only those variations that serve as significant units, discriminating between meanings are phonemic.

Below are presented the signs that are used for indicating pitch contours

Rising Tone is symbolised as [']

Falling Tone is symbolised as [\\]

Falling-Rising Tone is symbolised as [v]

Rising-Falling Tone is symbolised as [^]

Intonation pattern in English can be understood by dividing an utterance into breath-groups. Each breath-group forms a tone group.

In a sentence like She will 'not' go we can identify the whole utterance as a breath group, a sense group and an information unit. Under normal conditions it is the final syllable /gδ u/ that shows the pitch variation. This syllable, therefore, contains tonic prominence. It is known as tonic syllable. Tonic prominence is a stress on the syllable, plus change in pitch level. A speaker can vary the tonic syllable to correspond to the meaning, sense and emphasis he wishes to convey. That means that tonic prominence can shift from final syllable to any other in a sentence, Thus in the example cited above, she will not go, shifts in tonic prominence can be demonstrated alongwith the corresponding meaning changes:

- i) *She will not go = it is she who will not go.*
- ii) *She will not go = come what may, she won't go.*
- iii) *She will not go = she will do anything but go.*

We shall now consider below some examples of all the four tones.

1. Rising Tone :

'Are you coming? (stress on are)

Is, he at home?

'Wait, , keep it in place	(gentle command)
'Come, ,here	(encouraging, inviting)
'Really?	(surprise)

2. Falling Tone

When this tone is used, special implication is conveyed which is not verbally expressed, like sympathetic attitude, surprise, disbelief, sarcasm, boredom, routine greeting, detached attitude, and so on.

'Put it on the stool	(neutrality)
'Good ,morning	(routine greeting)
'How ,nice	(routine, bored)
,Sit down, please	(polite command)
,Such a, waste	(mildly sarcastic)

3. Falling-Rising Tone

The pitch registers a fall from about mid to low and then from high to mid.

We are ' waiting	(= better make haste)
"Carefully!	(soothing, encouraging)
The "food was nice	(= but the hotel awful)
"Well done	(appreciating)
You may "-re-lax	(you really need it)
"Can she do it?	(= are you sure?)

4. Rising-Falling Tone

The pitch changes from low to close to mid and low again. Normally, sarcasm, surprise, interest, enthusiasm are expressed.

Is he ^ alright?	(surprise)
She lookedr ^ beautiful	(enthusiastic)
Yes, it isr ^ nasty	(full agreement)
But, ^ will that do?	(doubt)

SEMANTICS

When we think about the subject matter of semantics, "Semantics is the technical term used to refer to the study of meaning and sine meaning is a part of language, semantics is part of language." Man has always been interested in language, and mainly in the relations of linguistic symbols, and over the centuries these relations have been

viewed differently from various angles. The term semantics was first used in the seventeenth century in the phrase Semantic Philosophy.

Meaning of Semantics: In 1894 the English word 'semantics' occurred in a paper presented to the American philosophical association, 'Reflected meaning a point in semantics'. As a branch of language study considering language in terms of semantics units, structured in a certain way, being linked to phonetic units, semantics is recent development, yet to develop its tools, analytical procedures and somewhat uncertain of its theoretical foundations.

All branches of knowledge seek to find the meaning of concepts relating to their respective domains. Semantics has nothing to do with this quest for meaning of such concepts as relate to the world of nonlinguistic experience. On the other hand, the primary concern of semantics is with the way people relate words to each other within the structure of language.

Since the times of Plato, a popular view has been that words name or refer to things. It is true that animate objects like man, woman, other living creatures, inanimate objects like crockery, furniture proper flames like Charles, London, the Himalayas can all be considered things and they could be named accordingly. Even activities like walking, swimming etc. could be categorized as things. But these are a large number of words like tradition, adversity and sincere well known, where it is not possible to see what 'things' such words refers to. The above view implied a direct relationship between words and things, even though most of the words seem to unrelated to things in any clear way.

Manfred Bierwisch's description of the parameters of semantics is fairly comprehensive. A semantic theory must-

- (a) *make reference to the syntactic structure in a precise manner,*
- (b) *systematically represent the meaning of the single words,*
- (c) *show how the structure of the meaning of words and the syntactic relations interact.*

In order to constitute the interpretation of sentences; and next is-

- (d) *indicate how these interpretations are related to the things spoken about.*

Nature of Semantics: The term semantics was first used in the seventeenth century. Mr. M. Breal introduced the word semantics in his Essai de semantique as a name for philosophical enquiries. In 1894, the English word semantics occurred in a paper presented to the American Philosophical Association. Reflected meaning: a point in semantics.

Semantics is known as a branch of language study considering 'language' in terms of semantic units, structured in a certain way, being linked to phonetic units, semantics is recent development, yet to develop its tools, analytical procedures and somewhat uncertain of its theoretical foundations. Linguistics had not much to do with it till the thirties. Leonard Bloomfield tried to form the theoretical basis by equating semantics to the stimulus response formula. As Wallace Chafe observes, "Linguistics thus finds itself at the present time in an awkward position, for all things, it has learned about the various parts of language, it has learned the least about semantics. It has left semantics to a very large extent to philosophers, behavioural scientists and others who have had no scientific paradigm within which knowledge about language could be systematically integrated."

Characteristics of Semantics : Generally for drilling a grammatical structure, substitution tables are used. There are three types of substitution tables.

The first type is simple. This table has three or more columns and under each column there is a paradigmatic arrangement of words belonging to the same class. A learner has just to choose one word from the paradigm under each column and arrange them systematically. So long as the syntagmatic order is maintained here.

In the second type of substitution table, the level of difficulty is raised. In the paradigm under each column though words belong to the same class, person, number, tense etc., a random permutation and combination is not possible. For, though the syntagmatic arrangement will still be grammatical, there is every possibility of generating a sentence which is not meaningful. For example, if the learner is not discerning, he can generate such sentences. The man had many cracks and the wall had many pimples. These sentences, though grammatical, are not meaningful.

In the third type of substitution table, the difficulty level is further raised by introducing diverse inflexions in each paradigm, so the learner has to be careful in picking such words from every columns as will be both grammatical as well as meaningful. Otherwise there is a possibility of generating sentences. The man do the job well and the men does the music well. The point being driven at is that mere grammaticality is not enough in a sentence or an utterance. It is equally necessary for the sentence or the utterance to be meaningful.

Semantic Features : Emergence of structuralism on the linguistic scene makes the watershed in the realm of semantics, or network of relations, they are the terminals of these relations and they have no prior and independent existence. In 1966, A. J. Greimas produced structural

semantics which viewed semantics as an exploration of signification anchored in the world, perceived through senses.

Before this the problem of meaning was considered by such scholars as Malinowski, as in the problem of meaning in *Primitive Languages* (1932) and C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards, the meaning of meaning (1923). But the semantic component has never occupied the central place in linguistic science, all linguists have, explicitly or implicitly, accepted a linguistic model in which semantics is at one end and phonetics at the other, with grammar somewhere in the middle. Growth of semantics is largely part of the processes of freeing the linguistic studies from the strict structural formula and linking it with the 'culture-bound world-view' which seeks to identify 'atoms of meaning' or 'semantic markers' some of which may be 'recognised overtly' with separate phonemic identities, which others may be recognised covertly, merged with other semantic features in various jointly and simultaneously shared phonemic identities.

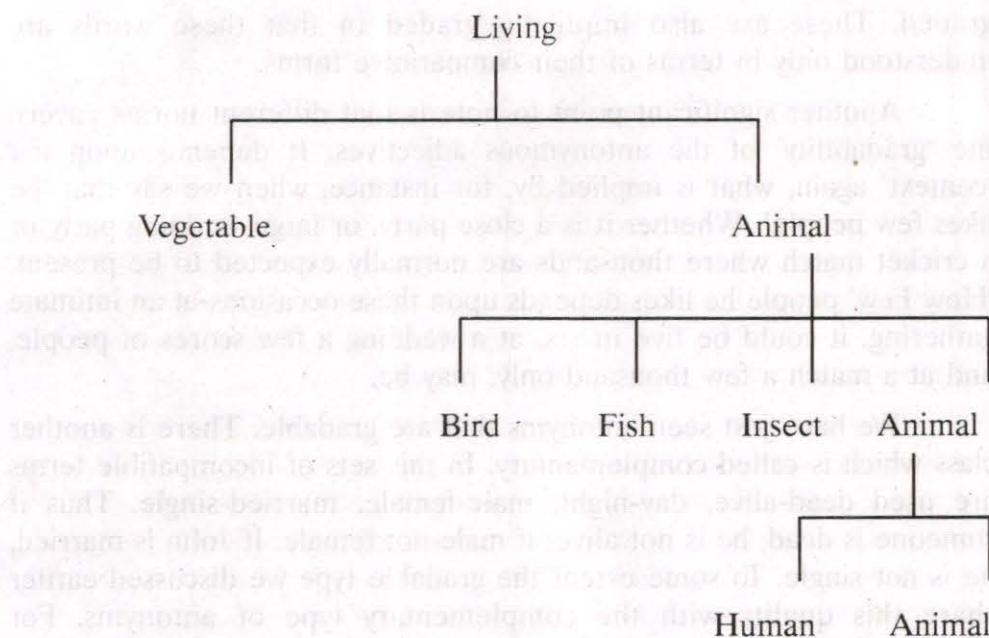
Pioneering work in its growth and development as a separate discipline has been done by J. R. Firth, E. R. P. Dmer, R. Carnap, J. A. Fodor, D. Wilson and W. L. Chafe. Most of this work has been done in 1950s and 1960s.

While synchronic semantics establishes relationships between the referents and the objects or events, diachronic semantics studies semantic changes occurring over centuries as a result of significant external changes in the history of society: 'every major historical, Political and social event, every discovery and every new belief. Since C 450 has brought change to the English language, and not least to the meanings of words. This is true of any language.

Semantic Patterns : Words from certain kinds of relations. These are called sense relations that are paradigmatic and syntagmatic. Below we discuss five such major sense relationships:

- (a) *Hyponymy.*
- (b) *Synonymy.*
- (c) *Amonymy.*
- (d) *Polysemy.*
- (e) *Homonymy.*

(a) **Hyponymy :** This refers to the way language classifies its words on the principle of inclusiveness, forming a class members of which are then called co-hyponyms. For example, the classical Greek has a 'superordinate' term to cover professions of various kinds, shoemaker, helmsman, fluteplayer, carpenter, etc. but such a term does not exist in English. In English the word: 'animal' is used to include all living beings in contrast to the vegetable world:



Hyponymous sets can also be seen in such combinations denoting male-female-baby in dog-bitch-puppy; ram-ewe-lamb; when such terms do not exist, they are formed: female giraffe, male giraffe, baby giraffe. Thus the meaning of male giraffe is included in the meaning of giraffe as is the meaning of baby giraffe and female giraffe. The relationship of inclusiveness rests on the concept of reference. This gives us the idea of how a language classifies words. Words that are members of a class are called hyponyms.

(b) **Synonymy** : Synonymy refers to similarity, or 'sameness of meanings'. This is a handy concept for the dictionary makers, who needs words for one word which have greater degree of similarity. To an extent this is acceptable; it is a working concept. It is clear that in considering synonym emotive or cognitive import has critical role. Except for highly technical and scientific items, words used in everyday language have strongly emotional or associative significance.

If two words are synonymous in one context, we ought not to expect them to be necessarily synonymous in other context(s) also. Two words are synonymous even if they can replace each other in one context alone. It is beside the point whether we call it partial synonymity or total synonymity.

(c) **Antonymy** : The concept of antonymy implies, 'oppositeness of meaning' where the 'recognition and assertion of one implies the denial of the other'. This is illustrated in pairs of words such as, big-small; old-young; wide-narrow, etc. These words can be handled in terms of the degree of quality involved. The comparative forms of the adjectives are graded: wide-wider, happy-happier, old-older. They are also made by adding more. To use sapir's term, these are explicitly

graded. These are also implicitly graded in that these words are understood only in terms of their comparative forms.

Another significant point to note is that different norms govern the 'gradability' of the antonymous adjectives. It depends upon the 'context' again, what is implied by, for instance, when we say that 'he likes few people'. Whether it is a close party, or large wedding party or a cricket match where thousands are normally expected to be present. 'How Few' people he likes depends upon these occasions-at an intimate gathering, it could be five or six, at a wedding a few scores of people, and at a match a few thousand only, may be.

We have just seen antonyms that are gradable. There is another class which is called complementary. In this sets of incompatible terms are used dead-alive, day-night, male-female, married-single. Thus if someone is dead, he is not alive; if male not female. If John is married, he is not single. To some extent the gradable type we discussed earlier share this quality with the complementary type of antonyms. For example, if the girl is beautiful we mean that she is not ugly; if the road is wide, its not narrow, and so on. Complementarily implies that these are only two possibilities. This is not so with gradable antonyms.

(d) **Polysemy:** Many words have a primary meaning and also one or more secondary meanings. The secondary meanings of such words are metaphorical extensions of the primary meanings. For example, the word 'foot' refers to be lowest part of our body. So this word is also used to denote the lower or lowest part of something standing or perceived to be vertical in the sense of base or bottom, as in the foot of the stairs or the foot of the hill. Thus polysemy refers to cases where a lexeme has more than one meaning and these meanings, though substantially separate and distinct from each other, still retain some sort of kinship.

(e) **Homonymy:** Homonymy, on the other hand, refers to cases where two (or more) different lexemes have the same shape or nearly same sound. For example, the word 'lie' has two completely different meanings as is evident in these two sentences. He doesn't lie, he always speaks the truth and he gets up early but continues to on bed for another half hour.

Some other examples are:

bear = large, heavy animal with thick fur.

bear = carry; tolerate etc.

fire = burning or combustion.

fire = strong criticism as in the sentence.

He directed his fire against government's fiscal policy.

fair = a periodic gathering for sale of goods.

fair = acting in an honest and honourable manner.

bank = ground along a river.

bank = organization for keeping money safely.

The above words are homophonous (having same pronunciation) and homographous (having the same spellings) but have different meanings.

International Phonetic Alphabet

The wide gap between spoken and written English has sometimes amazed and sometimes confused the non-native speakers. There is no one-to-one co-ordination between sound and spelling. In English, we can easily observe that one and the same alphabet can represent variety of sounds. For example, let us see the case of 'u' in cut, put, university, rude etc. Not only in the alphabets it happens in the alphabet combinations too for example 'chemistry' and 'Chinese'. Not only this the presence of silent alphabets not only adds to the confusion but also multiplies it. For example, 'psychology', and 'system'; 'knife' and 'kite'.

Because of this mismatch between sound and spelling, a learner of English can never be sure of his pronunciation particularly of the words that he encounters for the first time in written form. Similar kind of confusion occurs when he listens to a new word and wishes to pen it down. The same kind of disparity occurs in the other languages too, but the degree of the same is more in English.

In order to overcome, the above mentioned a need had been felt to, evolve an alphabet in which words of any language could be written ambiguously and conveniently. One of the most popular alphabet arrangement is the International Phonetic Alphabet devised by the 'International Phonetic Association', In this the experts have successfully covered all the symbols to represent all the sounds that can exist in any language of the world. With the proper understanding of these alphabets one can pronounce the words of any language correctly and confidently.

One of the jobs I really enjoy - and which can really free up your time if you outsource it - is transcription.

Basically, transcription involves listening to a recording of something and typing the contents up into a document, which is then returned to the client, giving them a written record of what's on the recording. Typically, this will be an interview - which might be something a journalist has undertaken with someone they're writing about, or part of a study, where a researcher has interviewed subjects and needs to record their responses. It can take absolutely ages to type out a recording

like this - much longer than you think it will, particularly if you don't type very fast!

When I learnt to audio-type, it was all done with tapes and a special pedal you pressed to play and rewind the recording. These days, although you can still get the pedals, it can all be done with MP3s, some special software (I use some provided free by NCH) and the function keys on the keyboard take the place of the pedals. You can even speed up or slow down the playback.

The time it takes to transcribe a recording depends on several factors:

- (i) *the speed at which the people are talking*
- (ii) *the number of people talking*
- (iii) *the clarity of the recording (background noise, phone interview ...)*
- (iv) *the clarity of the speaking voices (accents, speaking English as a second language, mumbling...)*

If you've got lots of interviews to transcribe or need to have a dictation, a lecture, a radio programme or a presentation turned into text, it's worth contacting a professional transcriber like me to do it for you.

We studied the accentual patterns of English words found that, in all disyllabic and polysyllabic words, one syllable always stands out from its neighbouring syllable or syllables, i.e. one syllable is always most prominent. In much the same way, some words always stand out from the rest in an utterance comprising two or more words. They are more prominent than others. Their relative prominence is studied under the accentual features of connected speech, and this forms the subject matter of this chapter.

Words Generally Accented

Not all words in connected speech receive equal prominence. Some words are more prominent than others. Such words are said to be accented. By way of illustration, we shall look at the following examples, in which the words, or the syllables in other than the monosyllabic words, that are accented are marked with a stroke placed before them:

1. I've 'found my 'book.
2. It's 'kind of you to 'ask me.
3. 'Mohan and 'Sohan are 'brothers.
4. He 'wants us to 'take it a'way.
5. He 'promised he'd accept the invitation.

6. 'That's, the 'house we 'bought' yesterday.
7. It's 'no 'trouble at' all.
8. I 'couldn't 'see the' house,
9. 'Don't 'bother.
- 10 'Have you 'heard the 'latest' 'news?
11. 'Can you 'come to 'lunch to'morrow?
12. Did 'anyone remember to 'lock the 'door'?
13. Yes he 'will.
14. 'No, 'thanks.
15. 'Would you 'like it, 'painted 'red?
16. 'Where are you 'going on 'Monday?
17. He 'doesn't want to 'come 'here,
18. Oh, I 'haven't got an i'dea.
19. You 'ought to 'know the 'place by 'now,
20. He 'used to 'come on 'Sundays,

A close examination of the above sentences shows that the words which are generally accented in connected speech are those that are more important than others in conveying meaning. Now, the most important words, from the point of view of meaning, are usually the nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns, and the words yes and no: therefore they are the ones generally accented in sentences. To put it in another way, it is, by and large, the content, or lexical, words that receive the accent.

We also notice, from a study of the same sentences, that the words that are generally not accented are personal pronoun, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, articles, and conjunctions—that is, words which, by and large, perform a grammatical function and are called grammatical, or form, or structure, words.

There are, however, some notable exceptions to the general rule stated in the above paragraphs.

Content Words Not Accented

Content words are not accented in the following situations:

- (1) *When they are repeated in a context as in: You 'want me 10 'come? I 'won't come.*
- (2) *When words in their neighborhood are emphasized as in sentence 18: Oh, I 'haven't got an i'dea.*
- (3) *When the rhythmic pattern of a sentence demands that these words be left unaccented as went in: 'Ram went a'way. (Contrast this sentence with: He 'went a'way.)*

Here we may add that when a learner is in doubt as to whether or not a content word should lose the accent on account of rhythm, it is safer for him to retain the accent.

- (4) *When one word in a sequence of two content words is habitually contrasted with some other word, that word alone is accented. Examples: a'cute angle (Angle not accented; acute accented even when no contrast with obtuse is intended,) Similarly, 'bus journey, 'pleasure trip, 'safety razor.*
- (5) *When the main verbs be, and have in the sense of possess, occur medially in a sentence as in: in sentence 3 above: 'Mohan and 'Sohan are 'brothers (.) and hove in the sentence: I have a 'new 'dictionary at 'home.*
- (6) *When the demonstrative pronouns this, that, these, and those are used more or less like the definite article the, carrying no force of demonstrativeness as in: I 'don't 'like this 'other one; that 'book I was 'talking about...; these ins'tructions in the 'leaflet are im'portant; those 'people we were 'speaking to...*

Form Words Accented

Form word are accented in the following situations.

- (1) When they contrast as in: 'My 'bicycle is 'nicer than 'yours.
- (2) When they are polysyllabic prepositions occurring before pronouns as in: 'Tell me something 'more a'bout it.
- (3) When they are emphasized as in: (I don't think he'll come). But he 'is coming. You can take 'this 'or, 'that (meaning: You can't, take both.)

While rules 1 and 3 above apply to auxiliaries just as they apply to other form words, the former (auxiliaries) are accented in certain other situations as well. These are discussed below.

- (i) *When they are attached to n't as in sentence 17; He 'doen't want to 'come 'here. (Contrast with: He does, 'not want to 'come 'here.)*
- (ii) *When they occur at the end of a sentence as in sentence 13: Yes, he 'will. (This rule applies equally to the main verb be as well, which is ordinarily not accented.)*
- (iii) *When they occur at the beginning of a sentence as in sentence 11: 'Can you 'come to 'lunch tomorrow? In this, case, however, accenting the auxiliary is optional: we have no accent on the auxiliary at the beginning of sentence 12, for example: Did 'anyone remember to 'lock the 'door?*

Location of Accent

It must be noted that when words of more than one syllable are accented in an utterance, only those syllables are accented which receive the accent when the word, are said in isolation. This will be dear from an examination of sentences 5, 7, and 11, in which the words 'promised, ac'cept, invi'tation, 'trouble, and to'marrow receive the accent only on the syllables which receive the accent when these words are said in isolation. The following examples further illustrate this statement.

21. 'How much 'practice shall I 'do?
22. It's 'very 'difficult.
23. 'Do you re'member that 'party?
24. He's 'just made an'other ap'pointment.
25. 'Read the be'gining of the 'paragraph.

The words practice, very, difficult, remember, party, another, appointment, beginning, and paragraph in these sentences are apparently accented on the syllables that would receive the accent even if the words were said in isolation. There are, however, words of variable accentual patterns in English like sixteen, and some compounds, such as downstairs and off-hand, which are accented on the first or the second syllable depending on their position in an utterance. Such words, and some other words of variable grammatical functions, like one, some, more, most, and there, will be dealt with in the following two sections.

The case of the reflexive pronouns is slightly different in the sense that their grammatical function is always that of pronouns. They are accented according to the following rule:

(i) **Used as object-** They are not accented when they occur sentence-medially:

39. He 'killed himself 'yesterday.
40. She 'never forgave herself for her 'act of o'mission.

They are accented when they occur sentence, finally:

41. He 'killed him 'self.
42. 'Help your 'selves.

(ii) **Used as subject intensifier** (for emphasis) They are always accented:

43. He 'gave it to me him 'self.
44. She her' self 'told me the 'story,
59. He 'put it 'there.

The case of each is slightly different in that it never functions form word.

As a content word, it is not accented in the collection each other;
59a. Let's 'help each 'other.

Accent and Rhythm

Rhythm is a kind of periodicity, which would mean the recurrence of certain patterns of colour, design, or sound at regular (equal) interval of space or time. Rhythm in a piece of drawing or embroidery refers to the even spacing of a certain motif or design, In music, a certain kind of beat or sound complex being repeated at equal intervals of time constitutes its rhythm. Rhythm in language likewise refers to the periodic recurrence of certain complexes or patterns of sound in utterances constituting a text.

Received Pronunciation (RP)- Received Pronunciation (RP) is the standard accent of Standard English in England, with a relationship to regional accents similar to the relationship in other European languages between their standard varieties and their regional forms. RP is defined in the Concise Oxford Dictionary as "the standard accent of English as spoken in the south of England", although it can be heard from native speakers throughout England and Wales. Peter Trudgill estimated in 1974 that 3% of British people were RP speakers.

Although there is nothing intrinsic about RP that marks it as superior to any other variety, sociolinguistic factors have given Received Pronunciation particular prestige in parts of Britain. It has thus been the accent of those with power, money and influence since the early to mid 20th century, though it has more recently been criticised as a symbol of undeserved privilege. However, since the 1960s, a greater permissiveness towards allowing regional English varieties has taken hold in education and the media in Britain; in some contexts conservative RP is now perceived negatively.

It is important not to confuse the notion of Received Pronunciation, as a standard accent, with the standard variety of the English language used in England that is given names such as "Standard English", "the Queen's English", "Oxford English" or "BBC English". The study of RP is concerned exclusively with pronunciation, while study of the standard language is also concerned with matters such as grammar, vocabulary and style.

Usage

Faced with the difficulty of defining RP, many writers have tried to distinguish between different sub-varieties: A.C.Gimson in earlier editions of his book proposed Conservative, General, and Advanced; Conservative RP refers to a traditional accent associated with older speakers with certain social backgrounds; General RP is often considered neutral regarding age, occupation, or lifestyle of the speaker;

and Advanced RP refers to speech of a younger generation of speakers. Later editions (e.g. Gimson 2008) use General, Refined and Regional. Wells refers to "mainstream RP" and "U-RP"; he suggests that Gimson's categories of Conservative and Advanced RP referred to the U-RP of the old and young respectively. However, Wells stated that "It is difficult to separate stereotype from reality" with U-RP.

The modern style of RP is an accent often taught to non-native speakers learning British English. Non-RP Britons abroad may modify their pronunciation to something closer to Received Pronunciation in order to be better understood by people unfamiliar with the diversity of British accents. They may also modify their vocabulary and grammar to be closer to those of Standard English for the same reason. RP is often used as the standard for English in most books on general phonology and phonetics, and is represented in the pronunciation schemes of most dictionaries published in the United Kingdom.

GIE

THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF ENGLISH AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES in INDIA coined another word G.I.E which means the English spoken by the educated Indians. If we observe the linguistic scenario in India, G.I.E seems a myth. The English spoken by an Andhraite is different from that of a Tamilian. The English spoken by the South Indians contrasts with that of the North Indians. The accent and intonation change from state to state and region to region.

Difference Between RP and GIE

1. *As against RP /ə/ and /ɜː/ GIE has only one phoneme /a/. Thus in GIE the distinction between cot and caught is not made.*
2. *As against RP /A/, /ɜː/, and /ɜ/, GIE has only one phoneme which has been symbolised /ə/.*
3. *GIE has two pure vowels or monophthongs /eː/ and /oː/ in place of RP diphthongs and /ei/ and /əu/ respectively.*
4. *GIE /t/ and /u/ are closer and less centralized than their RP counterpart.*
5. *The GIE vowel in words like bet, bed etc, is opener than its RP counterpart. (That is why the GIE vowel is symbolized /a/. The GIE vowel is nearer cardinal vowel 3 than cardinal vowel 2).*
6. *The GIE vowel in words like part is more front than back whereas RP uses a back vowel.*

Unit-V

Stylistics is the study of varieties of language whose properties position that language in context, and tries to establish principles capable of accounting for the particular choices made by individuals and social groups in their use of language. A variety, in this sense, is a situationally distinctive use of language. For example, the language of advertising, politics, religion, individual authors, etc., or the language of a period in time, all are used distinctively and belong in a particular situation. In other words, they all have 'place' or are said to use a particular 'style'.

Stylistics is a branch of linguistics, which deals with the study of varieties of language, its properties, principles behind choice, dialogue, accent, length, and register.

Stylistics also attempts to establish principles capable of explaining the particular choices made by individuals and social groups in their use of language, such as socialisation, the production and reception of meaning, critical discourse analysis and literary criticism.

Other features of Stylistics include the use of dialogue, including regional accents and people's dialects, descriptive language, the use of grammar, such as the active voice or passive voice, the distribution of sentence lengths, the use of particular language - registers, etc.

Many linguists do not like the term 'stylistics'. The word 'style', itself, has several connotations that make it difficult for the term to be defined accurately. However, in *Linguistic Criticism*, Roger Fowler makes the point that, in non-theoretical usage; the word stylistics makes sense and is useful in referring to an enormous range of literary contexts, such as John Milton's 'grand style', the 'prose style' of Henry James, the 'epic' and 'ballad style' of classical Greek literature, etc. (Fowler, 1996, 185). In addition, stylistics is a distinctive term that may be used to determine the connections between the form and effects within a particular variety of language. Therefore, stylistics looks at what is 'going on' within the language; what the linguistic associations are that the style of language reveals.

Nature and Scope of Stylistics

Stylistics is traditionally regarded as a field of study where the methods of selecting, and implementing linguistic, extra-linguistic or artistic expressive means and devices in the process of communication are studied (e.g. Mistrik, 1985). In general, we distinguish linguistic stylistics and literary (poetic) stylistics. The division between the two is by no means easy or clear. In his book *Exploring the Language of Poems, Plays and Prose* Mick Short comments on this problem like this:

"... stylistics can sometimes look like either linguistics or literary criticism, depending upon where you are standing when looking at it. So, some of my literary critical colleagues sometimes accuse me of being an, unfeeling linguist, saying that my analyses of poems, say, are too analytical, being too full of linguistic jargon and leaving insufficient room for personal preference on the part of the reader. My linguist colleagues, on the other hand, sometimes say that I'm no linguist at all, but a critic in disguise, who cannot make his descriptions of language precise enough to count as real linguistics. They think that I leave too much to intuition and that I am not analytical enough. I think I've got the mix just right, of course !" (Short, 1996, p.1)

Mick Short is a Professor in the Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language at Lancaster University and a leading authority in the field of stylistics. The above-mentioned book provides a clear and broad ranging introduction to stylistic analysis including a comprehensive discussion of the links between linguistics and literary criticism. Short's standpoint is a linguistic one and his analytical methods are perfectly up-to-date. He works exclusively with literary texts; texts of poetry, fiction and drama and consequently his analyses include a considerable amount of (literary) interpretation and discussion, of literary issues. In other words, he is interested not only in the (linguistic) forms of the analysed texts (i.e. HOW), but he also studies the meaning (i.e. WHAT) of the text in the sense of a plot and an overall meaning/message of a story.

For our purposes, it is crucial to understand that there are different traditions of stylistic research (e.g. Slovak versus British and American traditions) which influence the limits and ambitions of stylistic study as well as the methods used in stylistic analysis. Of course, modern developments and tendencies towards an interdisciplinary research have to be taken into account.

The term 'pragmatics' was introduced by the Logical Positivist, Rudolf Carnap. Pragmatics studies the ways that context affects meaning. The two primary forms of context important to pragmatics are linguistic context and situational context.

This was an attempt to reduce subjective meaning to a secondary status and to treat what remained as objective by following Wittgenstein, who sought to objectify meaning as intent as if it were merely a matter of con-text. But it was Wittgenstein's own student, G.E.M. Anscombe, however, who re-emphasized the primacy of human intent and assumptions whether they were subjective or not, and who also suggested a preference for understanding causes more as influence than as relations or laws. This of course may seem obvious in hindsight when we consider understanding irony, satire, humour, poetry, representation,

or foundation theory where intent, assumptions, and various value connotations as influence on our thinking need to be understood by an audience. In short, while we all use objectified meaning and consider context important, when communication breaks down, then the primacy of subjective meaning becomes over-whelming, especially when we finally ask: "What do YOU mean ?"

Nevertheless, in so far as we attempt to understand meaning without directly considering subjective factors, the importance of linguistic context as an indirect way of doing that becomes exceptionally important especially when looking at particular linguistic problems such as that of pronouns. In most situations, for example, the pronoun him in the sentence "Joe also saw him" has a radically different meaning if preceded by "Jerry said he saw a guy riding an elephant" than it does if preceded by "Jerry saw the bank robber" or "Jerry saw your dog run that way". Indeed, studying context is about the only path in realistic speech or writing for understanding semantics and pragmatics without referring to meaning as intent and assumptions.

Linguistic context would to the extent possible refer to every non-linguistic factor that affects the meaning of a phrase. Nearly anything can be included in the list, from the time of day to the people involved to the location of the speaker or the temperature of the room. An example of situational context at work is evident in the phrase "it's cold in here", which can either be a simple statement of fact or a request to turn up the heat, depending on, among other things, whether or not it is believed to be in the listener's power to affect the temperature.

When we speak we perform speech acts. A speech act has an illocutionary point or illocutionary force. For example, the point of an assertion is to represent the world as being a certain way. The point of a promise is to put oneself under an obligation to do something. The illocutionary point of a speech act must be distinguished from its perlocutionary effect, which is what it brings about. A request, for example, has as its illocutionary point to direct someone to do something. Its perlocutionary effect may be the doing of the thing by the person directed. Sentences in different grammatical moods, the declarative, imperative, and interrogative, tend to perform speech acts of specific sorts. But in particular contexts one may perform a different speech act using them than that for which they are typically put to use. Thus, as noted above, one may use a sentence such as "it's cold in here" not only to make an assertion but also to request that one's auditor turn up the heat. Speech acts include performative utterances, in which one performs the speech act by using a first person present tense sentence which says that one is performing the speech act. Examples are: 'I promise to be there', 'I warn you not to do it', 'I advise you to turn yourself in', etc. Some specialized devices for performing speech acts are exclamatives and phatics, such as 'Ouch!' and 'Hello I', respectively.

The former is used to perform an expressive speech act, and the latter for greeting someone.

Pragmatics, then, reveals that meaning is both something affected by and affecting the world. Meaning is something contextual with respect to language and the world, and is also something active toward other meanings and the world.

In applied pragmatics (such as neuro-linguistic programming), meaning is constituted by an individual through the active significance generated by the mental processing of stimuli input from the sensory organs. Thus, people can see, hear, feel/touch, taste and smell, and form meanings out of those sensory experiences, actively and interactively.

Even though a sensory input created by a stimulus cannot be articulated in language or signs of any kind, it can nevertheless have a meaning. This can be experimentally demonstrated by showing that people behaviorally respond in specific, nonarbitrary ways to sensing a stimulus, consciously or subconsciously, even although they have no way of telling what it is or means, and no possible way of knowing what it is or what it means.

A Metaphor is an implied Simile. It does not, like the Simile, state that one thing is like another or acts as another, but takes that for granted and proceeds as if the two things were one.

Thus, when we say, 'He fought like a lion' we use a Simile, but when we say, 'He was a lion in the fight', we use a Metaphor.

Metaphor should never be mixed. That is, an object should not be identified with two or more different things in the same sentences.

(i) **Oxymoron:** Oxymoron is made from two Greek words- 'Oxy' meaning sharp and 'moron' meaning dull. This rhetorical figure is a special form of antithesis whereby two contradictory qualities or incongruous terms are predicted at once of the same thing. In other words, two words or phrases having opposite meaning are united in an expression to give it a point.

Example: James I was known as the wisest fool in Christendom.

(ii) **Paradox:** A statement that is contradictory or absurd but makes sense at a deeper level of meaning.

Examples:

(a) *More haste, less speed.*

(b) *Ignorance is bliss.*

(iii) **Pun** : A pun consists in the use of a word in such a way that it is capable of more than one application, the object being to produce a ludicrous effect.

Example : Is life worth living? It depends upon the liver.

(iv) **Connotation**: Connotation is the additional meaning or meanings that a word has beyond its central meaning or denotative meaning. These meanings show people's emotions and attitudes towards what the word or phrase refers to. For example, putative qualities like 'amusing, lovable, sweet, innocent' can be mentioned as some of the connotations of the word child. There are other characteristics which different people may associate with child, e.g. 'mischievous, noisy, irritating grubby. Some connotations may be shared by a group of people of the same cultural or social background, gender, or age. Connotations can also be restricted to an individual or several individuals, depending on their idiosyncrasies and personal experience. In a meaning system, that part of the meaning which is covered by connotation is sometimes referred to a affective meaning, connotative meaning or emotive meaning.

Ambiguity

Ambiguity is defined as an unresolved and vague choice between alternative annotations, remarks and observations. Again, there may be a number of reasons for ambiguous syntactic annotation, some motivated by practical considerations, and others by more theoretical linguistic considerations. The two major kinds of ambiguity may be understood in the following manner.

System ambiguity

A system ambiguity is an ambiguity which due to the limitations of parsing. Parsing stands for recognizing parts of speech in a sentence and identifying their relationship with each other. Automatic corpus parsers, which are likely to have a very bright career opportunities for syntactic annotation on a large scale in the future, are at present far from achieving the 'ideal' outcome of a single correct parse for each sentence. Where there is likelihood of parsing en-or, a preferable solution, for most purpose will be for the parser to output more than one parse, leaving it to the human interpreter to decide which is a Correct analysis.

System ambiguity can further be divided into two parts.

Syntactic ambiguity

The term syntax stands for the way words are arranged to form sentences or phrases, or the rules of grammar which control this. Hence, Syntactic ambiguity arises when a complex phrase or a sentence can be parsed in more than one way. "He ate the biscuits on the couch," for example, could mean that he ate those biscuits which were on the couch (as opposed to those that were on the table), or it could mean that he was sitting on the couch when he ate the biscuits.

Let's understand it with the help of another example. "The boy and the adults saw the man with the telescope." Here it isn't clear whether the man was seen through telescope or he possessed the telescope. Hence, syntactical ambiguity occurs when the grammatical construction of the phrase or sentence brings about the misinterpretation the word order or the fact that a word could be either a noun or a verb.

In some of the cases even newspaper heading are affected by this flaw of writing. As an the sentence "Stolen painting found by tree" the headline's two alternative syntactic representations make it structurally ambivalent:

- (1) *A tree found a stolen painting.*
- (2) *A person found a stolen painting near a tree.*

This ambiguity makes the headline humorous as it can easily be read as the representation in (1) : A tree found a painting, which is humorous because trees, being inanimate, generally don't find things.

In spoken language the chances of such ambiguities are even more, because there is more than one way to compose a set of sounds into words, for example "ice cream" and "I scream." Such ambiguity is generally resolved based on the context. A mishearing of such, based on incorrectly-resolved ambiguity, is called a monde green.

Another interesting example of this can be seen sometimes in telephonic conversations. Look at this :

- A *May I talk to Mr. X*
 B *No, he is dead. (A listened it wrong as "He is in bed")*
 A *At what time he will get up ?*
 B *Never, I said that he is no more.*

Semantic ambiguity arises when a word or concept has an inherently diffuse and disseminate meaning based on widespread or informal usage. This is often the case, for example, with idiomatic expressions whose definitions are rarely or never definite, and are presented in the context of a larger argument that invites a conclusion.

For example, "You could do with a new automobile. How about a test drive?" The clause "You could do with" presents a statement with

such wide possible interpretation as to be essentially meaningless. It may mean that you are financially well off to buy it or it may mean it is the requirement of your status or many others. In the similar way, the phrase "Who cares?" can be interpreted in numerous ways. Again let's take the example of newspaper headings.

Iraqi head seeks arms

The homograph "head" can be interpreted as a noun meaning either chief or the anatomical head of a body. Likewise, the homograph "arms" can be interpreted as a plural noun meaning either weapons or body parts.

What makes headline humorous: The headline can easily be read as a disembodied head searching for arms (body parts) or wanting to have them attached.

Class Ambiguity

The analysis of the term "word classes" takes us to the oldest fundamentals of grammatical description that considers class as the division of words into groups according to their meaning and function. These groups are called word classes, lexical categories, lexical classes, or, in traditional grammar, parts of speech. They are eight, sometimes nine word classes:

- *verbs*
- *nouns*
- *pronouns*
- *adjectives*
- *adverbs*
- *prepositions*
- *conjunctions*
- *determiners*
- *interjections*

Class ambiguity occurs when there is confusion in the usage of the above mentioned parts with each other. For example,

Teacher strikes idle kids

Here the term "strikes" can occur as either a verb meaning "to hit" or a noun meaning "a refusal" to work. Meantime, "idle" can occur as either a verb or an adjective. As per the first interpretation teacher has hit the kids whereas the second means that because teachers have gone on strike the kids have no work to do. Hence, the statement can easily be read as "teacher hits idle kids" even though it was meant to mean that the walkout of teachers has left pupils idle.

It may also be known as Lexical ambiguity as lexical ambiguity occurs whenever a word gets two meaning. Structural ambiguity or system ambiguity occurs when there is confusion in some sentence whereas lexical ambiguity is associated with words. It is contrasted with semantic ambiguity. The former represents a choice between a finite number of known and meaningful context-dependent interpretations. The latter represents a choice between any numbers of possible interpretations; none of which may have a standard agreed-upon meaning. This form of ambiguity is closely reaches the stage of vagueness.

The features that play a significant role in LEXICAL AMBIGUITY are mentioned below:

Denotation: This is the central meaning of a word, as far as it can be described in a dictionary. Hence, it is also known as the cognitive or referential meaning. It is possible to think of lexical items that have a more or less fixed denotation. Most are subject to change over time. For example the denotation of "silly" today is not what it was in the 16th century. At that time the word meant "happy" or "innocent." So' is the case with "terrorist" that was related to revolution in the earlier times.

Connotation: Connotation refers to the psychological or cultural aspects; the personal or emotional associations aroused by words. When these associations are wide-spread and become established by common 'usage, a new denotation is recorded in dictionaries.

For example, let's observe the ups and downs of the term vicious. Originally derived from vice; it meant "extremely wicked" whereas in the modern British usage, however, it is commonly used to mean "fierce," as in the brown rat is a vicious animal.

Implication: It may be understood as the underlying meaning that is intended to be, conveyed but is not uttered directly. The listener can deduce or infer the intended meaning from what has been uttered. Example from David Chrystal:

Utterance: "A bus !" → Implicative (implicit meaning) :

"We must run." (11)

Tropes: Metaphor, Metonym, Allegory, Homonym, Homophone, Homograph, Paradox

These are some of the language figures or "tropes," providing useful concepts to the understanding of ambiguity in language.

Metaphor: This refers to the non-literal meaning of a word, a clause or sentence. Metaphors are very common; in fact all abstract vocabulary is metaphorical. A metaphor compares objects or things. (Examples: "blanket of stars")

A metaphor recognized by usage and convention becomes a symbol. Therefore, crown popularly suggests the power of the state, press indicates the print news media and chair signifies the control (or controller) of a meeting.

Metonym : A word used in place of another word or expression to convey the same meaning. (Example: the use of brass to refer to military officers)

Homonym: It occurs when different words are pronounced, and possibly spelled, the same way (examples: to, too, two; or bat the animal, bat the stick, and bat as in the bat the eyelashes)

Homophone: It occurs where the pronunciation is the same (or close, allowing for such phonological variation as comes from accent) but standard spelling differs, as in flew (from fly), flu ("influenza") and 'flue (of a chimney).

Homograph: Here different words are spelled identically and possibly pronounced in the same manner, (examples : lead the metal and lead, what leaders do).

To conclude, it can be stated that ambiguity in language is the uncertainty within the very, core of the organized system of language. A very broad analysis will make us comment that when it occurs at the level of sentence it is system ambiguity and when it occurs at the level at the level of words it is class ambiguity.

Q. 6. Give the stylistic analysis of a poem.

Ans. Most stylistic analysis has attempted to deal with the complex and valued language within literature, i.e. 'literary stylistics'. He goes on to say that in such examination the scope is sometimes narrowed to concentrate on the more striking features of literary language. For instance, its 'deviant' and abnormal features, rather than the broader structures that are found in whole texts or discourses.

For example, the compact language of poetry is more likely to reveal the secrets of its construction to the stylistician than is the language of plays and novels.

Rhymes vs. Poetry

As well as conventional styles of language there are the unconventional-the most obvious of which is poetry. In Practical Stylistics, HG Widdowson examines the traditional form of the epitaph, as found on headstones in a cemetery. For example:

His memory is dear today.

As in the hour he passed away.

Widdowson makes the point that such sentiments are usually not very interesting and suggests that they may even be dismissed as 'crude

verbal carvings' (Widdowson, 3), as does the English poet Thomas Gray in his 'Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard', (1751), who refers to them as 'uncouth rhymes' Nevertheless, Widdowson recognises that they are a very real attempt to convey feelings of human loss and preserve affectionate recollections of a beloved friend or family member. However, what may be seen as poetic in this language is not so much in the formulaic phraseology but in where it appears. The verse may be given undue reverence precisely because of the sombre situation in which it is placed. Widdowson suggests that, unlike words set in stone in a graveyard, poetry is unorthodox language that vibrates with inter-textual implications. (Widdowson. 1992. 4)

This is by Ogden Nash:

Beneath this slab

John Brown is stowed.

He watched the ads,

And not the road.

'Lather As You Go', Collected Verse (1952)

Nash is satirising the form. -The epitaph is humorous, but ins perhaps more funny because of the incongruous relation the humorous language bears to the solemn location in which it is found.

The aspect of stylistics, as in the poem 'I saw a Peacock' is when the meaning only becomes clear when the context is revealed:

I saw a peacock with a fiery tail

I saw a blazing comet drop down hail

I saw a cloud with ivy circled round

I saw a sturdy oak creep on the round

I saw a *pismire swallow up a whale *[ant]

I saw a raging sea brim full of ale

I saw a Venice glass sixteen foot deep

I saw a well full of men's tears that weep

I saw their eyes all in aflame of fire

I saw a house as big as the moon and higher

I saw the sun even in the midst of night

I saw the man who saw this windrous sight

'A Person of Quality', Westminster Drollery (1671)

If we read the poem like this, it almost makes sense -but not quite. The reason is, perhaps, because we as readers are conditioned to

reading poetry in a specific way, conventionally-line by line. By altering the phrases in each line, the descriptions are made coherent.

I saw a peacock
 with a fiery tail I saw a blazing comet
 drop down hail I saw a cloud
 with ivy circled round I saw a sturdy oak
 creep on the -ground I saw a pismire
 swallow up a whale I saw a raging sea
 brim full of ale I saw a Venice glass
 sixteen foot deep I saw a well
 full of men's tears that weep I saw their eyes
 all in a flame of fire I saw a house
 as big as the moon and higher I saw the sun
 even in the midst of night
 I saw the man who saw this wondrous sight

The anonymous narrator, sitting drinking by a fire and gazing at his mirror image in the 'Venice glass', is commenting on the reflected images that he sees in language that is similarly inverted.

There are, however, two important points worth mentioning with regard to the stylistician's approach to interpreting poetry, and they are both noted by PM Wetherill in *Literary Text: An Examination of Critical Methods*. The first is that there may be an over-preoccupation with one particular feature that may well minimise the significance of others that are equally important. (Wetherill. 1974, 133) The second is that any attempt to see a text as simply a collection of stylistic elements will tend to ignore other ways whereby meaning is produced. (Wetherill. 1974, 133) Nevertheless, meaning in poetry is conveyed through a multitude of language alternatives that manifest themselves as printed words on the page, style being one such feature. Subsequently, the stylistic elements of poetry can be seen as important in the interpretation of unconventional language that is beyond what is expected and customary. Poetry can be both sublime and even ridiculous yet still transcend established social values. Poetry is an original and unique method of communication that we use to express our thoughts, feelings and experiences.

Stylistics: Nature and Scope

By style we mean the language which is used in 'a given context, by a given person, for a given purpose, and so on' (Short-Leech-10). This is equally applicable to the written and spoken, and literary and

non-literary codes. Stylistics, however, concerns with the literary variety, mainly writing'. Style is applied to the author's individual characteristic manner of expression, a Dickensian or Wordsworthian style, for example. This may be due to his particular mode of choices and selection and preferences for certain constructions. Or it may refer to an age or a period: Victorian, Edwardian, Renaissance style, or travelogue style, epistolary style, and so on. At the bottom is the generally accepted truth that literary style, whether belonging to an individual, a period, a genre, or an ideology, is somewhat different from the normal standard which govern the other uses of language. In literature, the author deviates from these norms of the standard, because he enjoys a relative freedom to do so. When we read a construction like the following.

that she

The common fate of all things rare

May read in these

(E. Waller)

We do not question as unacceptable (by normal standard) the unusual syntactic patterning, because violation of grammatical rules is normal in poetry. We rather enjoy the beautiful music created by such lines.

Much have I travell'd in the realms of gold

And many goodly states and kingdoms seen;

Round many western islands have I been

Which bards in fealty to Appollo held.

(John Keats)

A cursory glance at these lines show that much liberty has been taken here with grammar. Such poetic 'licences' are among the 'especial norms of standard' for poetry. On the contrary, the general standard form of language would completely fail to produce the slightest poetic effect. There are indeed deviations within deviations; that is, once we accept that literary language flourishes on the principle of deviation from the norm of the standard, and 'that to deny work of poetry the right to violate the norm of the standard is equivalent to the negation of poetry' (Jan Mukarovsky).

We shall find it easy enough to recognise other deviations, both internal and external, that establish a writer's literary identity; how, for instance, Arnold Bennett is distinguished from E.M. Forster or John Galsworthy in spite of several points shared by them; or what makes Virginia Woolf's style her own as distinct from that of James Joyce.

'Stylistics' as we understand it to-day, with its being armed with the techniques of linguistics, which happened over the last three decades or so, seeks not to 'dissect the flower of beauty', as some appreciators

of literature have come to feel, but develop a full scientific understanding of the style as evidenced in the discourse/text. Recent scholars in the field have been sensitive enough to the problem to discard the rigorous technical approach and devise a sensible middle-of-the-road means, Leo Spitzer describes it in these words,

I would maintain that to formulate observation by means of words is not to cause the artistic beauty evaporate in vain intellectualities; rather it makes for a widening and deepening of the aesthetic taste. It is only a frivolous love that cannot survive intellectual definition; great love prospers with understanding.

'Linguistic stylistics' or 'new stylistics' as Roger Fowler calls it, thus provides for the first time a firm technical and theoretical base for the study of style. Without a sound theory, basic concepts and categories cannot be established, and without the precise tools of analysis any description would remain weak and unsound, prey to changing winds and whims of opinion. 'How often, with all the theoretical experience of method accumulated in use over the years, have I stared blankly, quite similar to one of my beginning students, at a page that would not yield its image' (Spitzer).

Out of this diversity of linguistic frameworks and systems, one concrete path that emerges is 'a tendency to explore for pattern and system below the surface form of language; to search for the principles of meaning, and language use which activate and control the code... If a text is regarded in objective simplicity as a sequence of symbols on paper, then the modern linguist's scrutiny is not just a matter of looking at the text, but of looking through the text to its significance.'

The basic assumption of stylistic approach to language is (1) what J.R. Firth, following the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski called the 'context of situation' which means that this approach considers language events as not taking place in isolation from other events; rather they operate within a wide framework of human activity. Any piece of language is, therefore, part of a situation, and so has a context, a relationship with that situation' (Spencer Gregory: 75). (2) The second assumption is that stylistics is primarily concerned with written language. (3) Stylistics seeks to describe linguistic forms of the text 'in order to isolate those places in language where there are possibilities of choice which contribute to meaning. Possibility of choices varies at different places in different forms of literature. Stylistics seeks to establish what factors govern the choices.

Collocation

A significant stylistic category is collocation. According to it, certain items tend to occur close to each other, and share a wide semantic range of associations Grammar is unable to explain this. For example, the word 'disaster' may occur in a particular linguistic environment in such items as 'tragedy', 'tragic', 'damages', 'loss', and so on. These are the collocates of the word 'disaster'. The word 'disaster' itself is recognised as nodal item, 'collateral range' is established by the collocates that constitute the list of collocations. So, if we identify 'industry' as nodal item then the other words in close range such as factory, workers, management, strikes, etc. would be its collocates. Another nodal item 'finance' or 'economy' occurring in the same text would be found to share several collocates. The 'nodal items' economy/finance and industry form a set, 'Industry' and 'economy' share part of the collocational range, indicating a collocational overlapping. 'Identifying collocations, of course, demands large-scale frequency counts, the extensive statistical examination of many sets'.

Pragmatics

We have already noted that stylistic analysis of a work involves more than paying attention to the formal aspect of presentation. Stylistics considers other aspects that normally find no direct 'reflection', but have to be deduced from the context, the relations obtaining between one character and another, the author-reader relations and the addresser-addressee relations. These situations exert potential influence on the development of discourse, and must, therefore, be properly understood. As Leech-Short say, 'The pragmatic analysis of language can be broadly understood to be the investigation into that aspect of meaning which is derived not from the formal properties of words and constructions, but from the way in which utterances are used how they relate to the context in which they are uttered' (290).

Interpretation strategies are, therefore, devised to unfold the process and mechanism of these factors lending significance to the actual written text. J.R. Searle and J.L. Austin developed the concept of Speech Act relating the meaning of utterance to the context. The main assumption is that there are a number of utterances that do not report or 'constate' anything, and are not, therefore, 'true or false', but rather that the uttering of the sentence is, or is part of, an action'. When some one says, I bet he will come to-day, he is simply betting - an action and not making a true or false statement. Statements of this kind are called performative. Performatives are further divided into explicit and implicit. The former contains the expression naming the act 'I request you to sit down'; the former does not contain such expression as 'Will you sit down?' This means that in performative expression, the naming of the action

does not seem an absolute necessity, 'The performative verb may be omitted without the loss of the illocutionary force' (Palmer: 163).

Searle believed that in an utterance lie hidden many acts of various kinds: asking, commanding, promising, requesting, declaring, etc. It is easy enough to locate this when the performative verb is used as in 'I request you to come here', or 'I beg you to get me a pass'. But a sentence like, 'please stay there' can be interpreted both as a command and request. In the concept of speech acts we may hope to find answer to much semantic clue that does not appear in the actually formalised conversation.

On the one hand thus we can postulate utterances as speech acts by identifying whether they are warnings, requests, boast, etc. But an utterance may simply give a piece of information. If one says 'There is a dog there', it is difficult to say what kind of speech act is involved. Even perhaps the speaker may have no clear idea of his own intentions. He may simply have spotted a dog and said, or have been expressing fear, which could be a veiled form of warning to his friends or just an emphatic warning with the appropriate supra segmental marker accompanying. Speech act thus makes it necessary that we know to what use the utterance is being put.

Auxiliary modals; can, shall, may, must, etc. do something of the kind. These are used to indicate warnings, promises, requests, etc. She may come tomorrow is an utterance of implicit performative.

P.R. Palmer in his book Semantics has given the example from the games of bridge and cricket. When a bridge player calls Three clubs, No bid, he binds himself to that contract, while in cricket, the umpire's No ball makes the delivery a 'no ball' in the sense that the batsman cannot now be out by being bowled, stumped, caught or l. b. w.

In the following extract from Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice* the ironic suggestions are obvious, not in words spoken but in the context, in the speech act. Mr. Darcy is busy writing, while the obtrusive Miss Bingley, tries all manner of ruse to draw his attention.

1. *'How delighted Miss Darcy will be to receive such a letter!'*
2. *He made no answer.*
3. *'You write uncommonly fast'*
4. *'You are mistaken I write rather slowly'*
5. *'How many letters you must have occasion to write in the course of a year! Letters of business, too! How odious I should think them!'*
6. *'It is fortunate, then, that they fall to my lot instead of to yours'*
7. *'Pray tell your sister that I long to see her'.*

8. *'I have already told her so once, by your desire'.*
9. *'I am afraid you donot like your pen. Let me mend it for you. I mend pens remarkably well'.*
10. *'Thank you - but I always mend my own'.*
11. *'How can you contrive to write so even ?'*
12. *He was silent*
13. *'Tell your sister, I am delighted to hear of her improvement on the harp; and pray let her know that I am quite in raptures with her beautiful little design for a table, and I think it infinitely superior to Miss Grantley's'.*
14. *'Will you give me leave to defer your raptures till I write again? At present I have not room to do them justice'.*
15. *'Oh! it is of no consequence. I shall see her in January. But do you always write such charming long letters to her, Mr. Darcy ?'*
16. *'They are generally long; but whether always charming it is not for me to determine!'*

The remarkably warm, intrusive manner of Miss Caroline Bingley contrasts with the cool response of Darcy. It is not in the words and structure, it is rather in the 'tone', in the emotive inflexions, the polite, even, unruffled manner. Jane Austen derived particular delight in portraying such situations.

If we render the whole dialogue into indirect speech, this interpersonal force will be utterly lost. 'Caroline said that Miss Darcy will be extremely delighted to receive such a letter to which he made no answer. Caroline then observed that he wrote uncommonly fast. Darcy replied that she was mistaken, he rather wrote slowly.

Caroline then wondered how many letters he must have occasion to write in the course of a year and added that they must include letters of business too. She then added that she thought of them highly odious', etc.

There is no doubt that the linguistic interchange is faithfully rendered in such a transformational transcript, but a lot of speech act's meaning is totally lost here, the subtle overtones which the author sets so much store by, is destroyed. We are left with a bunch of related sentences, but we realize that 'speech act is not necessarily embodied in a sentence'. Speech acts, as units on the pragmatic level of analysis, do not have to correspond to easily, recognisable units of syntactic or textual analysis'.

Presuppositions

Presupposition is a crucial aspect of pragmatics. According to some scholars a statement may either be true or false. The sentence, The Queen of Modern India is married can be said to be false, since there is no queen of modern India. In the opinion of another class of thinkers, the hearer identifies the person or thing about which or whom the statement is made. This is called the referring expression. In this sense the speaker presupposes the existence of the person thing. In the above statement the sentence is not false, there is only a 'presupposition failure', there is only 'truth-value gap'. The same is the case with the negative form of this utterance.

Presuppositions thus donot change under 'negation', they are constant. Both the positive and negative sentences imply the same logical presupposition. Both the sentences, The Queen of modern India is married and The Queen of modern India is not married, presuppose that there is a queen of modern India. This is applicable to all types of noun phrase. He wrote/didn't write to his brother pres-suppose that he has a brother.

If we take another sentence like She wasn't worried about her brother's dishonesty, it is normal to suppose that her brother was dishonest. It can also be taken to show that her brother was not dishonest, if we extend the sentence in this manner She wasn't worried about her brother's dishonesty because of was not dishonest. We may then say that presupposition is not denial but assertion. She wasn't worried about her brother's dishonesty simply means that she wasn't worried. That her brother was dishonest can be interpreted when we extend the sentence, She wasn't worried about her brother's dishonesty because he wasn't dishonest.

1 1 2

In The Queen of modern India/is married, the segment marked 1 may be true or false independent of segment 2 (whether she is married or not). But segment 2 can be considered true or false only in the light of segment 1 if it is known who is it that is married. Only when this is established can the truth of the second segment be established.

In interrogative sentences also presuppositions remain constant.

Is the Queen of modern India married?

Was she worried about her brother's dishonesty?

These sentences in question form presuppose that there is a queen of India, she was married. Questions do not make any assertion. This is true of the negative interrogation as well. Isn't the Queen of India married? Wasn't she worried about her brother's dishonesty?

The above examples contain referring expression or what is also known as factive predicates. These are grammatical NPs, which refer to the 'existences' of what is being mentioned, 'in either physical or factual sense'.

Verbs can also indicate certain kinds of presupposition. She washed/ didn't wash/the clothes presuppose that the clothes need washing or they were dirty. He killed/didn't kill the rat presuppose that the rat was alive.

We can thus draw a neat line of distinction between what is asserted and what is presupposed. The question what should be included in presupposition is somewhat slippery, since it leads us to consider all kinds of semantic features associated with collocation or 'selectional restriction'. So in a sentence He is bachelor we must consider that the word bachelor means 'unmarried'. 'He' is a 'man' leads to the connected term 'male' and its 'female' as a term for 'woman'. An unmarried 'woman' is a 'spinster', and so on.

Implicatures

In the preceding section we have seen that the speakers assume the information as indicated in actual expression or assume that the hearer knows it. In actual day-to-day use of language the speakers 'imply further information that the hearer does not know'. The expression may not actually indicate what he implies. It may rain spoken by a woman to her maid-servant may imply the command to her to remove the drying clothes hung on the clothes line. Or someone in the house saying, I didn't have tea this morning may imply a request to the housewife to get him a cup of tea.

There is a co-operative principle operative here, between the speaker and the hearer. According to this principle, the hearer understands what the speaker means and receives the message. This also controls the direction in which the conversation goes. This principle is formulated by H.P. Grice, who distinguished four categories, each of which contains maxims.

Quantity :

- (1) *The speaker must make his contribution as informative as required.*
- (2) *He must not make contribution more informative than is required.*

Quality :

The speaker's contribution must be true.

- (1) *He shouldn't say what he doesn't believe.*
- (2) *He should not say that for which he does not have information*

Relative :

His information must be relative.

Manner :

He should avoid obscurity, ambiguity, disorderliness.

If somebody asks, - Have you visited the guests and given them my regards? and the reply given is, 'I have visited the guests', the speaker can guess that his regards have been given to them. The reply could also be conveyed by a simple 'yes', if this does not violate the maxim of quantity. This is also associated with the fall-rise tone, which points to the fact that intonation is crucial in implicatures. In an expression like She is very intelligent, the intonation may give the hearer what the speaker implies, and it must be worked out by the hearer.

It is the occasion that provides the clues to the implicatures. Violation of the maxim is often seen in the maxim of quality; 'You're a great friend'; 'He is the cream of the class. The interpretation depends entirely on what and much of it the hearer understands. Contexts and the common range of beliefs, shared by speaker and hearer, of course, determine the implicatures, but there has also been recognised a conventional implicature which depends on the conventional meaning of the words.

Sikhs are brave and self-sacrificing is an example. This contrasts with the conversational implicature which so far we have been discussing. Implicatures in literature have been dealt with elsewhere.

Metaphor

MAK Halliday describes metaphor as the general term for those figures of speech that refer to different kinds of verbal transference. But it is also used, 'in a more specific sense to refer to just one kind in contrast to metonymy; and sometimes a third term is introduced, namely, synecdoche'. Comparison is the central trait of metaphor. In the normal day-to-day communication, metaphorical uses are common: it escapes me, I can't follow, petticoat government, milk of humanism, security beefed up, etc. Mostly, transfer is from concrete to abstract sense, and also from material to mental process. Synecdoche refers to the part of the thing standing for the whole, and in metonymy, a word is used for 'something related to that which it usually refers to : He will go on working as long as he breathes.'

They have a hand in it; one must keep one's head.

The act of transferring meaning is quite evident in this kind of non literal form of expression. It is the meaning of the word that determines its selection. Halliday feels that there is a strong grammatical element in rhetorical transference. In this sense it is a matter of lexicogrammatical selection rather than simply lexical.

From the point of view of studying literature, it is interesting to note that many metaphorical representations have become norm, living under a roof, protests flooded him, I missed a heartbeat, etc.

'Metaphorical modes of expression are characteristic of all adult discourse'. It is only in young children's expressions that we find absence of it. News reporting, speeches, journalistic writings, even official and informal writings are sprinkled with metaphorical expressions.

Metaphorical- the fifth day saw them at the summit

Congruent- they arrived at the summit on the fifth day

Metaphorical- the guest's supper of icecream was followed by a gentle swim

Congruent- In the evening the guests ate icecream and then swam gently.

'Much of the history of every language is a history of demetaphorizing: of expressions which began as metaphor gradually losing their metaphorical character as one can see in these expressions: source of income; barrier to understanding; headache for all; political game; political rise; invite trouble; no-confidence motion; parliament sitting;; shadow-fight; hung parliament; firm step.

Metaphorical wording, whether in speech or in writing introduces a degree of complexity, the least metaphorical wording will always be the one that is maximally simple: technical language, for example. The complexity of written language is a lexical complexity; written language attains a high lexical density, that is, a greater number of lexical items per clause, and the lexical items have a higher information context, often accompanied by a relatively simple grammatical structure. The complexity of spoken language is a grammatical complexity; spoken language constructs complex dependency structure... often accompanied by a relatively simple choice of words'.

Felicity Conditions

Speech acts have felicity conditions or the conditions of appropriacy. In the extract from *Pride and Prejudice*, we recognise the absurdity of Caroline's ignorantly pursuing Darcy while the latter goes on politely to make her realize his attempts to ward her off. In words he is polite, unoffending, but the meaning he seeks to convey is couched in his paralinguistic behaviour. The overall context of situation lends greater force of meaning to the total speech act. Felicity conditions are of course, determined by other factors of diverse nature, the social position of the interactants, the cultural milieu, their mutual relations, etc. that have bearing on the meaning of the discourse. Very often the readers are required to adjust themselves to the norms and conventions of the projected societies and periods, and recognise the felicity conditions accordingly. Reading a Jane Austen novel demands a

different set of felicity conditions from the one required in reading a novel by Charles Dickens or Joseph Conrad. In a single novel of Dickens one comes across more than one type of social environment. Felicity conditions must therefore, vary within one novel - in *Great Expectations*, for instance, there is dramatic change from Joe Gargery's forge to the twilight world of Miss Havisham.

Implicature in Literature

In the above extract from *Pride and Prejudice*, it becomes easier to the readers to infer 'extra meanings - meaning more than the words and tonal inflexions imply from his knowledge of what precedes this exchange. This knowledge bridges the gap between 'the overt sense and pragmatic force'. Let us look once again at these sentences.

"you write uncommonly fast"

"you are mistaken. I write rather slowly"

"How many letters you must have occasion to write in the course of a year. Letters of business too! How odious I should think them !"

"It is fortunate, then, they fall to my lost instead of to yours"

We have by now sufficiently known Darcy to get to the sense of his short, curt replies and perceive the faint line of irritation bordering these overtly cool, impersonal sort of replies. The 'extra-meanings' thus inferred are what the philosopher H.P. Grice calls implicature. This is a term which refers to a kind of tacit understanding between the reader and the text in one sense and between the characters in the conversational situation. The usual problem with literary implicatures is,

'John implied x, but he didn't actually say as much.

How is it, then, that we can convey messages which are not directly related to the linguistic content of sentence?' (Stir until the Plot thickens by Michael Stubble: 67).

Grice says that the 'tacit understanding' between the author and the reader is based on the co-operative principle, which makes them agree to some maxims (rules). The statements made must convey the truth and these must be relevant to the conversation.

It is significant that these rules or maxims are often violated in literature. The violation may be ostentatious, or clandestine. The hearer perceives the difference between what the speaker says and what he means. The meaning thus deduced is implicature.

Here is another example from *Pride and Prejudice*. Sir William says,

'you excel so much in the dance, Miss Eliza, that it is cruel to deny me the happiness of seeing you; and though this gentleman dislikes the amusements in general, he can have no objection, I am sure, to oblige us for one half-hour.'

'Mr. Darcy is all politeness', said Elizabeth, smiling' (27).

Miss Elizabeth Bennet's observation is a cruel one, because it is no secret that she thinks exactly the opposite. So this is the violation of the maxim of quality. In H.H. Munro Saki's celebrated story *The Open Window* we see the 'very self-possessed young lady of fifteen' weaving a web of lies and falsities in which she deftly traps and captures poor Franton Nuttel to the utter joy of herself and amusement of the readers. Once again, the maxim of quality is broken. Without it there wouldn't be any story at all. As Short and Leech observe, 'pragmatic tone is not so much a function of the situation itself objectively considered, as the way participants construe the situation... where characters are at cross-purposes and their models are at variance. Such variance is the basis of the dramatic interest in conversational dialogue'. (299).

Thought

Authors often present the character's thought in the interrupted movement of action as a kind of elaboration or explanatory aside. This kind of 'suspended action' has generally the role of taking the story along a new path, introducing a new turn or simply providing added pace to its progress.

In chapter 6 of Jane Austen's *Emma* there occurs a delightful exchange between Miss Emma and Reverend Elton. The highly amusing situation is born out of Emma's efforts to push Miss Harriet Smith into Elton's favour by praising her beauty and manners. Elton's responses are aimed at making inroad into Emma's affections. But he does so in words that are oblique and make Emma interpret them as Elton's shy and half-concealed admiration for Harriet.

"Let me entreat you", cried Mr. Elton, "it would indeed be a delight! Let me entreat you, Miss Woodhouse, to exercise so charming a talent in favour of your friend. I know what your drawings are. How could you suppose me ignorant? Is not this room rich in specimens of your landscapes and flowers; and has not Mrs. Weston some inimitable figure-pieces in her drawing-room at Randall's ?"

Yes, good man! - thought Emma - but what has all

that to do with taking likenesses ?You know nothing of drawing. Don't pretend to be in raptures, about mine. Keep your raptures for Harriet's face' (P:71)

This aside is characteristic articulation of Emma's avowed purpose of throwing Harriet and Elton together. It is also a reflection of Emma's predilection for deriving pleasure out of some apparent weakness in the other's character. A different kind of self-address occurs in chapter 47 of the novel. The events have taken a dramatic and catastrophic turn for her. It is time now for her to look back over the ruins and do some re-evaluation.

'Harriet, poor Harriet !' - Those were the words; in them lay the tormenting ideas which Emma could not get rid of, and which constituted the real misery of the business to her. Frank Churchill had behaved very ill by herself - very ill in many ways - but was not so much his behaviour as her own, which made her so angry with him. It was the scrape which he had drawn her into on Harriet's account that gave the deepest hue to his offence - Poor Harriet! to be second time the dupe of her misconceptions and flattering. Mr Knightley had spoken prophetically when he once said, 'Emma, you have been no friend to Harriet Smith', and so on.

Throughout the chapter go on Emma's turbulent thoughts in this vein. A curious thing about this style is that it has a mixture of self-ruminating monologic pace and tenor, and the objective manner addressed to the reader. 'Although there can be by definition no interlocutor when minds are depicted, writers often represent them as if there were. In this way thought becomes a form of suspended action; or even a form of suspended interaction between characters'. This form of description is not just a matter of 'talking' to oneself, but a useful means of sorting out the complications that surround a person and clarify the interaction.

Author to reader

We have just seen that 'monologic conversation' is sometimes addressed to the readers. In the above instance, it is the character who does the loud thinking. Jane Austen very infrequently appears to 'convey messages' to the readers. 'Sometimes an author conveys what he wants to say directly, and sometimes via exchange between characters. In both the cases we can expect conversational implicatures and other inferential

strategies to be used'. Continuing with our example from Emma, below is presented an extract containing the general statement indicating author-reader implicature.

'Seldom, very seldom, does complete truth belong to any human disclosure; seldom can it happen that something is not a little disguised, or a little mistaken; but where, as in this case, though the conduct is mistaken, the feelings are not, it may not be very material' (419)

It is less direct. The reader is 'thus involved in a novel, to draw implicatures both from character speech and authorial commentary'. Jane Austen's other novel, *Pride and Prejudice*, begins with a statement of the kind, full of ironic significance.

'It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife'

In many novelists, the authorial commentary is easily recognisable which sometimes is embodied in the 'I-figure' and sometimes ostentatious, voice of the writer who steps in from time to time to cast complementaries. 'The dominant style of *Tom Jones* (1749) is a blend of the essayistic and the argumentative, as is set by the introductory chapters to each of the eighteen books of the novel, and they call attention to the controlling hand of the novelist, and to his dependence on the reader's tolerance'. (Roger Fowler: 85)

George Eliot is another novelist who was fond of intruding into the narrative to interrupt its progress and make general observations. *Middlemarch* and *The Mill on the Floss* present examples of this.

The Irrational in Poetry

Earlier in this book, it has been pointed out that poetic language is based on the principle of deviance from the norm of the standard. This is realized in various ways, and on different levels of language structure. Any reader of poetry will become conscious of the unfamiliar and unusual uses of language, be it syntactical construction, phonological arrangement or any other linguistic function. We present below a few examples.

1. **Queen Isabella-**

**No, rather will I die a thousand
deaths: And yet I love in vain;
he'll ne'er love me.**

(Marlowe's *Edward the second*)

2. Late, as I rang'd the crystal wilds of air,
 In the clear mirror of thy ruling star,
 I saw alas! some dread event impend
 (Pope's Rape of the Lock)
3. I die, yet depart not,
 I am bound, yet soar free;
 Thou art and thou art not
 And ever shall be
 (Robert Buchanan's The City of Dreams)

If we look at these examples closely we can understand that by the norm of the standard principle to 'die a thousand deaths' is an impossibility. This is, therefore, an absurd statement. It is also difficult to understand how can one see anything in the 'ruling star' as one does in the mirror. So also with the third example. The contradictions are outrageously obvious, creating confusion, in the mind of the readers, who may find it verging on the nonsense. For an ordinary 'chronically literal-minded being such uses of language produce only unspeakable gibberish'. One has only to talk to some people not used to reading literary works. Their opinion of poetry reflects to what extent does the poetic language deviate from the norm. Normally, language is used to convey ideas in direct logical manner - often aiming at simplifying things and reducing complexity, as in 'This new anthology has been compiled with two specific ends in view'. But what is ordinarily viewed as absurdity, nonsense or 'gibberish' is a deliberate/linguistic act. Without it poetry and other forms of literary writing cannot exist. This is a licence or sanction which the literary writers enjoy, most of all, the poets. Such deviations have their own rules, processes and patterns. By understanding the different 'figures of speech' one can get the basic idea of this 'logic of the irrational'. A poet's use of oxymoron, metaphor, paradox, and so on helps him get beyond the merely commonly perceptible reality and express that which eludes expression on the level of everyday logical plane of communication. Certain semantic irregularities are created for the desired poetic effect. Some fundamental processes are, Oxymoron, Tautology, Pleonasm, Periphrasis and Paradox.

We shall now discuss in brief these processes. Pleonasm, tautology and periphrasis refer to redundancy factor, such as when the poet expresses more than he is required to do : That lie is false (tautology); doctor who treats patients (pleonasm), my male parent father (periphrasis).

The other two, oxymoron and paradox refer to contradiction in statement and meaning. We shall begin by discussing the last two.

Oxymoron

By bringing together two expressions which have apparent semantic incompatibility, that is, which cannot show mutual semantic congruence, the poet creates oxymoron. John Milton uses in *Samson Agonistes* the expression 'to live a life half-dead, a Jiving death', and in *Romeo and Juliet* we read 'Parting is such a sweet sorrow'. In both the examples, the italicised expressions have words that are incompatible. This lends a degree of ambiguity which on the surface is puzzling. But a careful reading by placing the lines in their context would reveal that they are very much compatible. To experience pleasure with pain is common. The mingling of joy with sorrow is on the surface absurd, but particular contexts in life and literature discover for us the perfect truth of the statement, so with Milton's line. In certain conditions of life - the physically disabled person feels that his life is more merciless than death - it is living hell and also living death.

Paradox

In paradox also contrary elements and statements are yoked together to create a strange equation of antonyms. In the opening scene of *Macbeth* the three witches chant:

Fair is foul, and foul is fair

Hover through the fog and filthy air.

In the commonsense interpretation of these words fair cannot be foul, if it is fair, and foul cannot be fair, if it is really foul. In the context of what follows in the play, this expression has a macabre truth in it, ringing with prophetic echoes. Another example of paradoxical statement is King Duncan's observation made to Banquo in the same play.

My plenteous joys

Wanton in fulness, Seek to hide themselves

In drops of sorrow (Macbeth 1, iv 32-34)

Pleonasm

This refers to the expression which needlessly repeats the meaning by way of explaining and elaborating that which occurs either earlier or later. For example, when someone says, 'the doctor who treats the patients', it is not difficult to recognise that the segment 'who treats patients' is redundant, because the word 'doctor' contains that meaning. Often such explanatory clauses are considered faults of style. But in literature this serves other ends.

Clown : if he mends, he is no longer dishonest;

if he cannot, let the butcher mend him,

Anything that's mended is best patched;

(Shakespeare's Twelfth Night)

The clown is explicatory, anything that's mended is but patched is but pleonasm seeking to explain that which is already contained in the word. In Christina Georgina Rossetti's (1830-1894) poem 'When I am Dead, My Dearest', we see two stanzas, the beginning being 'when, I am dead, my dearest/sing no sad songs for me'. The poetess goes on to tell the dear one what he/she must do. But in the second stanza the poetess pleonasmically narrates what she herself shall miss,

**I shall not see the shadows,
I shall not feel the rain,
I shall not hear the nightingale
Sing on, as if in pain
And dreaming through the twilight
That doth not rise nor sit**

In the common communicative framework the explanation that she shall not feel the rain nor see the shadows is redundant once 'when I am Dead, My Dearest' is said. But Christina Rossetti is reputed for evoking pathos of lonely and sorrowful conditions of life. She aims at building an atmosphere and a response in the readers which are vivid and distinct. Pleonasm has, therefore, a marked role here, apt and reinforcing her opening line.

Tautology

Tautology is also an expression which seeks to explain that which is already presented in a word or phrase. As Geoffrey Leech says, 'Tautologies tell us nothing about the world, but may well tell us something about the language'. Shakespeare's play Hamlet presents some of the most striking examples. In Act I Scene V Hamlet and Horatio exchange these observations.

Ham. The air bites shrewdly; it is very cold.

Hor. It is a nipping and an eager air.

What Horatio says is only a kind of echo of Hamlet's remarks.

In Thomas Dekker's (1570 ?-1632) The Shoemaker's Opera these lines occur.

Eyre. Leave whining, leave whining!

Away with this whimpering, this puling,
these blubbering tears, and these wet eyes!

After blubbering tears, wet eyes do not convey any new information. In drama, however, 'tautology can be an indirect means of conveying information about character and state of mind'.

Periphrasis

This involves saying more than is expected. In ordinary communicative situation this is considered violation of the principle of economy. However, it is a commonly employed mode in poetry, especially lengthy poems, where the poet needs to refer to the same thing in different ways. Often metrical convenience dictates its use as Shakespeare uses 'this golden rigot' for 'crow' and 'the round and top of sovereignty'. Such uses also avoid monotony, and introduces variations. By employing round-about descriptive expressions the poet can also emphasize first one facet then another of the same thing.

I have thee not, and yet I see thee still.

Art thou not, fatal vision, sensible

To feeling as to sight? or art thou but

A dagger of the mind, a false creation,

Proceeding from the heat-oppressed brain?

(Macbeth Act 2 Scene 1)

The terrible ranting of Macbeth goes on in this rambling manner just before King Duncan is murdered. It has many examples of periphrasis which Shakespeare illuminatingly uses to reveal Macbeth's character. And then a little later Macbeth, unsettled and unhinged by the deed, tells Lady Macbeth in Scene 2 of Act 2,

Macb. Methought I heard a voice cry

1. *Sleep no more:*

Macbeth does murder sleep - the innocent sleep,

2. *Sleep that knits up the ravell'd sleeve of care,*

3. *The death of each day's life,*

4. *sore labour's bath*

5. *Balm of hurt minds,*

6. *great nature's second course*

7. *Chief nourisher in life's feast.*

Macbeth has killed sleep by murdering the unguarded Duncan who looked like a sleeping babe in his deep slumber. But it is not merely the destruction of sleep and the sleeping king that has been carried out. By plunging dagger in Duncan's breast,

Glamis hath murder'd sleep; and

therefore Cawdor

Shall sleep no more - Macbeth shall

sleep no more

In this way he has also destroyed the innocence of sleep and all that sleep signifies to him. These attributes are given numbers in the above passage to indicate what it signified to him. It is a great profound self-revealing out-cry of a man who was 'too full of the milk of humanity' and who had earlier understood,

**If chance will have me King, why, chance
may crown me, without my stir.**

Periphrasis is thus, in this instance, a very powerful means of producing poetic effect. In the context of this tragic development, this extract is crucial in revealing an important aspect of Macbeth's character, his essential goodness. Sleep with its poetically enumerated attributes leaves the reader more enlightened as to its significance and Macbeth's character.

In the eighteenth century poetry one sees a close connection between periphrasis and the dignity of expression. Something of this is perceptible in Macbeth also. Talking of the 18th century linguistic practices, we turn to William Collins (1721-59) whose *The Passions An ode for Music* contains these lines.

**O Music! Sphere-descended maid,
Friend of Pleasure, Wisdom's aid!
Why, goddess, why, to us denied,
Lay'st thou thy ancient lyre aside?**

The poet emphasises those aspects of music that matter to him, creating a series of periphrastic utterances. In a similar vein Thomas Gray (1716-71), writes,

**Awake, Aeolian lyre awake...
O Sovereign of the willing soul,
Parent of sweet and solemn - breathing airs
Enchanting shell !**

(*The Progress of Poesy*)

Periphrasis thus provides a means of building the appropriate poetic tone and evoking various facets of the dominant idea, emotion or theme. They give a heightened imaginative appreciation of the object described.

Ambiguity and Indeterminacy

A major strength of poetic writings is its ability to offer itself to multiple interpretations. The 'meaning' of a poem is, therefore, not its

'cognitive meaning', or to put it differently, 'logical denotative meaning'. This is the kind of meaning given by dictionaries. In a poem this kind of meaning constitutes only a part of its total meaning. In order to distinguish the two types of meaning, the word significance is used for the latter, the total meaning of a poem. In ordinary communication, in day-to-day life both the types of meaning are used. For strictly scientific or other academic purposes, 'cognitive meaning' is sought to be communicated. When Wordsworth writes,

**The Being, that is in the clouds and air,
That is in the green leaves among the groves,
Maintains a deep and reverential care
For the unoffending creatures whom he loves**

What his use of the words 'clouds' and 'air' signify includes the cognitive meaning weathermen attach to them. 'It would be quite absurd to insist that cognitive meaning counts for nothing in poetry'. There is, however, always an additional semantic value to be derived from the poetic use of a word.

**Thou on whose stream, mid the steep sky's commotion
Loose clouds like earth's decaying leaves are shed,
Shook from the tangled boughs of Heaven and Ocean,
Angels of rain and lightning;**

(Shelley's Ode to the West Wind)

In Shelley's use of the word 'clouds' it would be absurd to confine our attention to mere cognitive meaning; the word assumes greater strength of expression by its association with other words. In association with other words it forms an inclusive field of significance which lends it especial meaning. The assertion by a class of critics and readers that a poem cannot be paraphrased, that, as Wordsworth says

**Sweet is the love which Nature brings;
Our meddling intellect
Mis-shapes the beauteous forms of things;
We murder to dissect**

(The Tables Turned)

derives partly from this complex semantic associative whole. This means that on the cognitive level one may present a kind of surface interpretation, but apart from this also there remains a lot to be presented. The possibility or possibilities of further interpretation refers to the manner in which the poet uses language. It is a language which has the many-valued character, a language possessing multiple significance, offering possibility of multiple interpretation. This comes

about by the author's use of forms of deviation from linguistic norms. This has already been discussed earlier. Shakespeare's

put a tongue

In every wound of Caesar, that should move

The stones of Rome to rise and mutiny

(Julius Caesar III, ii)

defies literal paraphrasing of words. Such an attempt would not only result in nonsensical interpretation, it would also mar the force of expression, the powerful articulation of emotion that this deviant use of language achieves. It is common practice among prose writers also to resort to deviations, as the poets do. Prose writers do this in order to achieve force of expression and semantic density. Here is a small extract from E.M. Forster's essay Pan which underlines the great importance of various strategies of deviation from the standard.

'I have entered. Ah ! A universe of warmth and

manure, a stuffy but infinite task whose pillars and

symmetric cordage are flecked with gold and green.

Vistas that blend into an exhalation. Round each

pillar a convolvulus twines, aromatic and lush, with

heart shaped leaves that yearn towards the sun, and

thrive in the twilight of their aspirations, trained

across lateral strings into a subtle and complicated symphony.

This is of course an essay dealing with beetle leaves which the author a little later jocularly calls 'beetle, bittle, bettle, betl, betel' !

Pleasure of reading passages of this kind would naturally be marred if the writer employed banal prosaic manner of description, and perhaps nothing of significance would come out of such a manner of writing. Ambiguity is one of the results of a particular kind of deliberately contrived deviant style: 'the machinations of ambiguity are among the very roots of poetry' (William Empson: 3). Ambiguity is understood as 'any verbal nuance, however, slight, which gives room for alternative reactions to the same piece of language' (ibid) and 'the fundamental situation, whether it deserves to be called ambiguous or not, is that a word or a grammatical structure is effective in several ways at once' (ibid).

If we consider such a simple sentence as your plots upset them, more than one meaning can be deduced from it. Plot means three things - (i) a piece of land! (ii) conspiracy, (iii) a story, upset is used both as a past tense form and in the present tense. So we can have the following analysis.

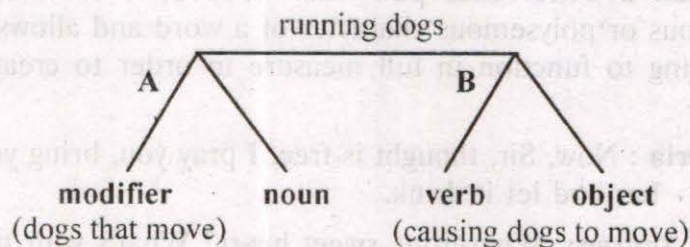
Realization	Forms	Semantics
(your) plots upset (them)	Past tense Present tense	intention disturbed piece of land disturbed story disturbed intention disturbed piece of land disturbed story disturbed

Upset is a homonymous word which has the same formal realization, though different grammatical functions. Both in speech and writing the word is realized in identical form. The six different interpretations of the word plots are because of the polysemic character of the word. Thus this sentence offers six different physical realizations and, therefore, as many meanings. In itself this simple-looking sentence does not tell us which of the six different meanings one is expected to receive. A sentence from Nash's poem *Summer's Last Will and Testament*, 'Dust hath closed Helen's eye', can mean on a literal plane that the statue of Helen has gathered on the eyes dust. At a different deeper level dust is to which all human beings are ultimately reduced, and the beautiful eyes of Helen are closed by death. As Empson says, 'there is a sort of meaning, the sort that people are thinking of when they say this poet will mean more to you when you have had more experience of life which is hardly in reach of the analyst at all'. Ambiguity functions on both lexical and grammatical levels, and mainly due to homonymy and polysemy. In the sentence 'I saw a mole', the word 'mole' has two meanings.

mole (n) - small animal

mole (n) - a spot on the skin

Grammatical homonymy is like lexical homonymy, it creates ambiguity of the following kind seen in this sentence.



Lexical Polysemy

Similarly with polysemic words

lie :

- (i) 'to lie down'
- (ii) as in 'tell lies'

Both the meanings of the word are effectively used in these lines from Richard II.

Surrey: Dishonourable boy!
That lie shall lie in my sword,

Grammatical Polysemy

It is evident in the following example,

Present Tense

A. She cooks without help

- (a) *event occurring now*
- (b) *regularly repeated event*

B. He is going home

- (a) *event occurring now*
- (b) *event to take place in near future*

These sentences written or spoken in isolation would lead to ambiguity, both the meanings being available. In poetry 'ambiguities are frequently brought to the readers' attention, and the simultaneous awareness of more than one interpretation is used for artistic effect. One reason why we recognise and tolerate more ambiguity in poetry is that we are in any case attuned to the acceptance of deviant usages and interpretations'.

Ambiguities also arise from homophones and homographs. In the first, words are pronounced alike but are written differently.

bore - boar; see - sea; cell - sell; die - dye; etc. in the latter, the words are written alike but pronounced differently.

row - row; lead - leed; read - read; bear (vb) - bear (n).

Pun

When a writer uses pun what he does is to foreground the homonymous or polysemous character of a word and allows more than one meaning to function in full measure in order to create dramatic situation.

Maria : Now, Sir, thought is free, I pray you, bring your hand to th' butt'ry - bar and let it drink.

Sir Andrew: Wherefore, sweet heart? What's your metaphor?

Maria: It's dry, Sir.

Sir Andrew: Why, I think so. I am not such an ass but I can keep my hand dry.

But what's your jest?

Maria: A dry jest, sir.

Sir Andrew: Are you full of them?

(Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night* I. 3)

The word *dry* in the above example has been used as pun, 'hand dry' meaning in literal sense of 'not wet', and 'dry jest' meaning barren jest.

Homonymic pun is considered less serious than the polysemic one, as it is believed that the author benefits from the sheer accident of language. Pun is thus a form of word-play. Below we discuss some prominent types of pun.

Repetition

In the example from *Twelfth Night* we observe the word twice repeated, each occurrence projecting its different meanings. This has been quite popular with Elizabethan writers. In an earlier example from *Richard II* the word *lie* has been repeated. This is more common than a single occurrence of the word. In T.S. Eliot's *Wasteland* we read this passage in the section entitled 'The Fire Sermon'.

When lovely woman stoops to folly and

Paces about her room again, alone,

She smooths her hair with automatic hand,

And puts a record on the gramophone

The highly mechanical word 'automatic' has been yoked with the hand of the 'lovely woman', evoking the idea of dry, mechanical life of the metropolis. This single word reminds us in this passage of all the fast, impersonal, almost de-humanized life in large cities consisting of mechanical routine of humdrum activities. As Arthur Pollard says,

'The pun is a form of innuendo, but its two incongruous

meanings are usually more readily, even obviously

recognisable than those of innuendo proper. The latter

depends, in fact, for its effect on the slight delay in

realising that a second meaning underlies the first and

more obvious meaning'.

To happy converts, bosom'd deep in vines

when slumber Abbots, purple on their wines

(Alexander Pope's *The Dunciad* IV, 301-2)

The last phrase in the above quotation is not simply descriptive but also critical. In another of Pope's fine book *The Rape of the Lock* occur these lines

A. Oh hadst thou, Cruel! been content to seize

Hairs less in sight, or any Hairs but these! (IV, 175-6)

- B.** On her white Breast a sparkling cross she wore;
which Jews might kiss, and infidels adore (II, 7-8)

In the first example (A) Belinda appears to have reached the climax of her distress. But the ambiguity of 'Hairs less in sight' raises a curious dilemma, what other hairs? The reference is sexual and creates a new dimension of Belinda's reputation. In example B what does the word 'which' refer to, 'cross' or 'breast'? A typical ambiguity is created in that if the cross is kissed then, it is quite near the breast. Again the word 'might' would mean would desire to, and/or would be allowed to.

Pun on Antonyms

When two words with opposite meanings or connotations are used together multiple meanings arise, as by this association they intensify their antonymous sense.

therefore pardon me

**And not compute this yielding to light love,
which the dark night hath so discovered.**

(Romeo and Juliet II. ii)

Syllopsis

This is a type of pun which consists of a compound structure. In it a deliberately contrived superficial structure of identical nature is brought together.

Here thou, great Anna ! whom their reals obey,

Dost sometimes counsel take - and some time tea.

(Rape of the Lock)

The two similarly constructed clauses clearly denote different things. Syllopsis here creates irony by bringing together two activities of different nature one abstract, the other concrete!

Jingle as Pun

Ironic or comic effect is created by using two homonymous words,

A young man married is a man that's marred

(All is Well that Ends Well, II, iii)

This of course flourishes on the musical quality of words whose sounds create not only chiming effect; but also disparate meanings.

what thou wouldst highly

That wouldst thou holily

(Macbeth IV)

'Punning' is a very popular mode of expression with the writers. It gives them the kind of expression power which is remarkably economical and pleasant. Many writers earned permanent fame by

displaying especial punning skill and talent, particularly the eighteenth century poets, whose satirical works especially required this device, for it gives two meanings for the price of one, and so adds to the poem's density and richness of significance. Pun reduces possibility of discovering incongruity between two unconnected words.

Indeterminacy

A poem is always open to multiple interpretations. It has many-valued aspects, there is no definite number of possibilities to choose from. As William Empson says, 'what often happens when a piece of writing is felt to offer hidden riches is that one phrase after another lights up and appears as the heart of it; one part after another catches fire, so that you walk about with the thing for several days'. A linguist studies what possibilities of choice exist. Indeterminacy is one of the prominent aspects of poetry, apart from that of multiple significance. There are various factors responsible for it. We look at them below.

1. Deviation

We have already studied the different forms of poetic deviations arising out of the poet's use of language in a special manner. We must pay particular attention to the irregularities in poetry and semantic absurdities.

2. Register and dialect

'My nerves are bad to-night, yes, bad stay with me.

Speak to me.

Why do you never speak. Speak.

What are you thinking of? What thinking?

What?

I never know what you thinking. Think.

I think we are in rat's alley

Where the men lost their bones

The Waste Land II

T.S. Eliot here uses the tone of discourse that arises out of the situation. A poet makes use of dialect or register (defined elsewhere) to suit these contextual requirements. Milton's linguistic style is classical and perceptibly latinate. Wordsworth's style, on the other hand, avoids these pompous features, for he believes in the language of man speaking to men. Robert Burns has chosen to write his work outside the standard dialect. What we see in T.S. Eliot example is not the use of dialect, but a prosaic hurried speech often dropping in colloquial tenor. In some poems one may find strange complexes of these varieties. In the words of Leech, 'These Englishes are difficult to describe precisely, because they shade into, one another and have internal variations which could,

if wished, lead to interminable sub-classification. For instance, we could not, on any reasonable principle, draw a strict line between the English of journalism, and the English of belles lettres or of general educational writing, or to take another example, between formal and colloquial English, for there are innumerable degrees of formality and informality in language'.

3. The ground and tenor of metaphor

Metaphor is vital to poetic expression. If we look at the following line

'Life's chilled boughs emptied by death's autumn blast'

the whole range of what 'life' signifies has been compressed into one metaphor 'boughs' that are 'chilled'. And the cruel deal of death has been viewed as 'autumn-blast'. This 'definition' of life and death are not what is given in the dictionary. On the literal plain, life is not boughs and death has no autumn blast. The 'definition' must, therefore, be taken in the linguistic sense. 'Life is like a bough', 'Life is as if it were a bough', and so on, must be the figurative description. 'Life' is the tenor of this metaphor and its purported definition 'a bough' its vehicle. To take another example from Thomas Campion's poem *Cherry-ripe*.

There is a garden in her face

(1) **Where roses and lilies blow;**

A heavenly paradise is that place

(2) **Where in all pleasant fruits do grow;**

Her face is the tenor here, but the following descriptions cannot be taken in the literal sense. The incongruity of seeing face as the garden with the roses and lilies blowing is too violent to sustain such comparing. The vehicle (1) represents one definition of her face and (2) represents a further extension in terms of seeing it as heavenly paradise. It is important to understand that the 'literal meaning is always basic and the figurative' meaning derived. Metaphoric transference establishes link between tenor and vehicle. This leads us to the ground of the comparison. Metaphor implies the form A is like B in respect of C'. So her face is like garden in respect of

[A] [B] [C]

the freshness and colour represented by roses and lilies.

Let us look at another example

An aged man is but a paltry thing

A tattered coat upon a stick

(W.B. Yeats *Sailing to Byzantium*)

Vividness of comparison emphasizes certain qualities of the tattered coat upon a stick to the aged man whose paltriness is already mentioned. The time-worn and battered life, and the insignificance of being hung on a stick all loose and helpless have been chosen by the poet to define the 'aged man'. These attributes into which the metaphorical comparison has been resolved form the ground of the metaphor.

Distinction between metaphor and simile is well-known to the students of literature. In simile the comparisons are 'Spelt out in succession and made explicit through the constructional particles such as like, like as, as...as, as, etc.

**She walks like beauty in the night
in cloudless climes and starry skies**

(Lord Byron)

The above two lines show the fine use of simile which compares her with the beauty of cloudless climates and star-spangled skies.

Analysing a metaphor

- A. At the mid hour of night, when stars are weeping (T. Moore)
B. Intruders who would tear from Nature's book

This precious leaf (Wordsworth)

Our first job is to separate the literal sense of the word used as metaphor here from its figurative sense. The literal interpretation is not possible because there is a jump from the literal to the figurative meaning.

Example A

Literal : At the mid hour of night when stars are

Figurative " " " " " " " " weeping

Example B

Literal : Intruders who would tear from book this
precious leaf.

Figurative : " " " " Nature's "

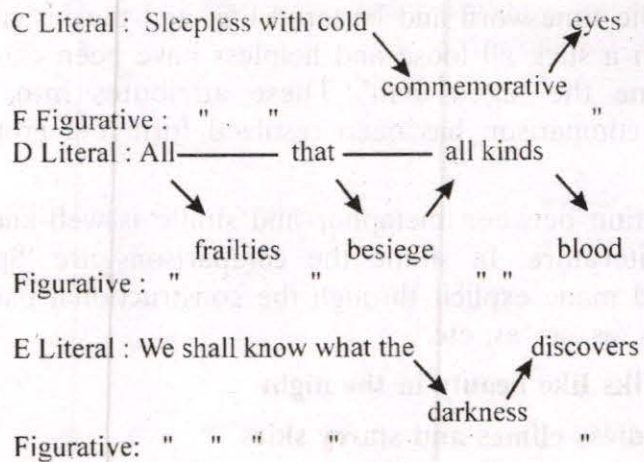
The ditto indicates that the words belong both to the literal and the figurative interpretations upto 'weeping' in example A and 'Nature's' in example B. Here are a few more examples.

Ex. C Sleeples with cold commemorative eyes

(D.G. Rossetti A. Superscription)

Ex. D All frailties that besiege all kinds of blood

Ex. E We shall know what the darkness discovers



While the marks of ditto indicate that they belong both to the literal and figurative interpretations, we use the gaps to introduce the suitable elements of meaning that can reasonably fill them. On both literal and figurative levels the lines must make 'literal' sense.

A	Tenor:	Sleepless with cold	[sore]	eyes
	vehicle:		commemorative	past
B	Tenor:	All [troops] that [attack]	all kinds of	[fort]
	vehicle:	frailties " worry	" "	[men]
C.	Tenor:	We shall know what the	[explorer]	discovers
	vehicle:	" " " "	darkness	[conceals]

It has been advised to make the gap-filling as unspecific as possible. It is appropriate to use 'conceal' with 'darkness', and so on. Also, insertion of the figurative expression must be avoided. By adopting this procedure we are able to separate Tenor and Vehicle. Once we have done so we may proceed to work out comparison between the two lines and in order to do this personal intuition helps.

Implications of context

The immediate context presented by a poem helps us in interpreting the text to some extent. But more useful details can be furnished from other sources. For example, in reading A.E. Houseman's *A Shop shire Lad* it would be useful to know what actually happened during Boer's war.

Connotations

Poetic language teems with connotations, some of which are interpretable within the context of the poem. The range stretches beyond this context, however. Context often gives prominence to certain attitudes and suppresses others.

A. I saw her upon near view,
 A spirit, yet a woman too!
 Her household motions light and free,
 And steps of virgin-liberty;
 (Wordsworth's *She was a phantom of delight*)

B. In spite of myself, the insidious mastery of song
 Betrays me back, till the heart of me weeps to belong
 To the old sunday evenings at home
 (D.H. Lawrence's *Piano*)

What exactly does William Wordsworth mean by the compound word *Virgin liberty* is a matter of indeterminate semantic significance. So with Lawrence's phrase *insidious mastery of song*. As G.N. Leech observes, personal attitudes will always vary. This is the area of subjective interpretation par excellence: a person's reaction to a word, emotion, or otherwise depends to a great extent on that person's individual experience of the thing or quality referred to. (216)

Foregrounding is the practice of making something stand out from the surrounding words or images. It is "the 'throwing into relief' of the linguistic sign against the background of the norms of ordinary language." The term was first associated with Paul Garvin in the 1960s, who used it as a translation of the Czech *aktualisace* (literally "to actualise"), borrowing the terms from the Prague school of the 1930s.

There are two main types of foregrounding: parallelism (grammar) and deviation. Parallelism can be described as unexpected regularity, while deviation can be seen as unexpected irregularity. As the definition of foregrounding indicates, these are relative concepts. Something can only be unexpectedly regular or irregular within a particular context. This context can be relatively narrow, such as the immediate textual surroundings (referred to as a 'secondary norm') or wider such as an entire genre (referred to as a 'primary norm').

For example, the last line of a poem with a consistent metre may be foregrounded by changing the number of syllables it contains. This would be an example of a deviation from a secondary norm. In the following poem by E. E. Cummings, there are two types of deviation:

light's lives lurch
 a once world quickly from rises
 army the gradual of unbeing fro

on stiffening greenly air and to ghosts go
 drift slippery hands tease slim float twitter faces
 Only stand with me, love! against these its
 until you are, and until i am dreams...

Firstly, most of the poem deviates from 'normal' language (primary deviation). In addition, there is secondary deviation in that the penultimate line is unexpectedly different from the rest of the poem. Nursery rhymes, adverts and slogans often exhibit parallelism in the form of repetition and rhyme, but parallelism can also occur over longer texts. For example, jokes are often built on a mixture of parallelism and deviation. They often consist of three parts or characters. The first two are very similar (parallelism) and the third one starts out as similar, but our expectations are thwarted when it turns out different in end (deviation).

Foregrounding can occur on all levels of language (phonology, graphology, morphology, lexis, syntax, semantics and pragmatics). It is generally used to highlight important parts of a text, to aid memorability and/or to invite interpretation.

Foregrounding, Deviation and Parallelism

This topic is all about how and why writers FOREGROUND parts of their texts and what meanings and effects are associated with these foregroundings. The theory of FOREGROUNDING is probably the most important theory within Stylistic Analysis, and foregrounding analysis is arguably the most important part of the stylistic analysis of any text.

The words 'foreground' and 'foregrounding' are themselves foregrounded in the previous paragraph. They stand out perceptually as a consequence of the fact that they DEVIATE graphologically from the text which surrounds them in a number of ways. The other words are in lower case, but they are capitalised. The other words are black but they are multicoloured. The other words are visually stable but they are irregular.

One way to produce foregrounding in a text, then, is through linguistic deviation. Another way is to introduce extra linguistic patterning into a text. The most common way of introducing this extra patterning is by repeating linguistic structures more often than we would normally expect to make parts of texts PARALLEL with one another. So, for example, if you look at the last three sentences of the previous

paragraph you should feel that they are parallel to one another. They have the same overall grammatical structure (grammatical parallelism) and some of the words are repeated in identical syntactic locations.

In general, an "inversion" is a changed order of things. If X usually comes before Y, the inverted order will be Y first, then X. When looking at the grammar of the English language we see inversions for instance in the normal order of the subject and the verb in a sentence. To explain what an inversion is in English, first think of a simple sentence like: "Graffiti is ugly." In sentences like this the subject (graffiti) must come before the verb (is). This is the normal order. The most common example of the inverted order of the subject and the verb is seen in questions such as: "Is graffiti ugly?" The English language often uses this kind of inversion to make a question, but this is not the only time that the normal order of the subject and the verb in a sentence is inverted.

What is inversion?

Inversion is the reversal of the normal word order in a sentence or phrase. There are two types of inversion:

1. *subject-verb inversion, where the subject and the main verb switch positions and the word order becomes verb + subject:*

On the top of the hill stood an old oak tree.

2. *subject-auxiliary inversion, where the subject and the auxiliary switch positions and the word order becomes auxiliary + subject (+ verb):*

Hardly had I arrived home when my phone rang.

When does the bus leave?

You're hungry, aren't you?

Inversion (linguistics)

In linguistics, inversion is any of several grammatical constructions where two expressions switch their canonical order of appearance, that is, they invert. The most frequent type of inversion in English is -subjectauxiliary inversion, where an auxiliary verb changes places with its subject; this often occurs in questions, such as Are you coming?, where the subject you is switched with the auxiliary are. In many other languages - especially those with freer word order than English - inversion can take place with a variety of verbs (not just auxiliaries) and with other syntactic categories as well.

When a layered constituency-based analysis of sentence structure is used, inversion often results in the discontinuity of a constituent, although this would not be the case with a flatter dependency-based analysis. In this regard inversion has consequences similar to those of shifting.

Inversion in English

In broad terms, one can distinguish between two major types of inversion in English that involve verbs: subject-auxiliary inversion and subject-verb inversion. The difference between these two types resides with the nature of the verb involved, i.e. whether it is an auxiliary verb or a full verb.

Subject-auxiliary inversion

The most frequently occurring type of inversion in English is subject-auxiliary inversion. The subject and auxiliary verb invert, i.e. they switch positions, e.g.

- (a) *Fred will stay.*
- (b) *Will Fred stay? - Subject-auxiliary inversion with yes/no question*
- (a) *Larry has done it.*
- (b) *What has Larry done? - Subject-auxiliary inversion with constituent question*
- (a) *Fred has helped at no point.*
- (b) *At no point has Fred helped. - Subject-auxiliary inversion with fronted expression containing negation (negative inversion)*
- (a) *If we were to surrender, ...*
- (b) *Were we to surrender, ... - Subject-auxiliary inversion in condition clause - see English subjunctive: Inversion in condition clauses*

The default order in English is subject-verb (SV), but a number of meaning-related differences (such as those illustrated above) motivate the subject and auxiliary verb to invert so that the finite verb precedes the subject; one ends up with auxiliary-subject (Aux-S) order. This type of inversion fails if the finite verb is not an auxiliary:

- (a) **Fred stayed.**
- (b) ***Stayed Fred?** - Inversion impossible here because the verb is NOT an auxiliary verb

(The star * is the symbol used in linguistics to indicate that the example is grammatically unacceptable.)

Subject-verb inversion

The verb in cases of -subjectverb inversion in English is not required to be an auxiliary verb; it is, rather, a full verb or a form of the copula *be*. If the sentence has an auxiliary verb, the subject is placed after the auxiliary and the main verb. For example:

- (a) *A unicorn will come into the room.*
- (b) *Into the room will come a unicorn.*

Since this type of inversion generally places the focus on the subject, the subject is likely to be a full noun or noun phrase rather than a pronoun. Third-person personal pronouns are especially unlikely to be found as the subject in this construction. For example:

- (a) *Down the stairs came the dog.* - Noun subject
- (b) *? Down the stairs came it.* - Third-person personal pronoun as subject; unlikely unless it has special significance and is stressed
- (c) *Down the stairs came I.* - First-person personal pronoun as subject; more likely, though still I would require stress

There are a number of types of subject-verb inversion in English: locative inversion, directive inversion, copular inversion, and quotative inversion. See the article on subject-verb inversion.

The verbal repetition of thoughts is a technique that has recently been shown in a single-case alternating treatment designs study to significantly reduce the believability and distress associated with self-relevant negative thoughts (Masuda, Hayes, Sackett, & Twohig, 2004). The present study compared the effects of verbal repetition with brief imaginal exposure and no intervention in reducing the believability, distress, and meaningfulness associated with contamination-related thoughts. Individuals with high levels of obsessive-compulsive symptoms identified three distressing contamination-related thoughts and made ratings of belief, distress, and meaningfulness for each thought, using 100-mm visual analogue scales. They were then randomly assigned to receive verbal repetition, imaginal exposure, or no intervention, after which they completed ratings at post-intervention and one-week follow-up. Participants also completed a category membership decision task to determine whether verbal repetition and/or imaginal exposure

produces semantic satiation, a temporary loss of the literal meaning of words. Significant reductions in belief, distress, and meaningfulness were observed following verbal repetition at post-intervention and there was some maintenance of these gains one week later. In contrast, no significant reductions were observed at post-intervention following either imaginal exposure or no intervention. However, significant reductions in ratings of belief and distress were observed one week later following imaginal exposure. A semantic satiation effect was observed for only verbal repetition, and although there was no evidence that this effect was associated with reductions in appraisal ratings at post-intervention, there was some indication of a relationship with follow-up appraisal ratings. Implications of these findings are discussed in relation to cognitive-behavioural theories of obsessive-compulsive disorder.

In a similar methodology, participants make a rapid decision as to the relatedness of a word pair following the verbal repetition of a word (Balota & Black, 1997; Black, 2001). For example, verbal repetition of the word "dog" is followed by a decision as to whether "dog-cat" is a related or unrelated word pair. A reduction in the ability to make a rapid correct judgment on related word pair trials is considered evidence that semantic satiation has occurred.