

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

V SEMESTER

BA ENGLISH

CORE COURSE:ENG5 B09

2019 Admission onwards



UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT

School of Distance Education

Calicut University- P.O,

Malappuram - 673635, Kerala.

19015

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School of Distance Education

Study Material

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LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

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Module I

Chapter 1

Language

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

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

Definitions of Language

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

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

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

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

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

We know from the very nature of language that not only ideas but even emotions, feelings and desires are communicated. Therefore this definition does not cover the full range of language.

Saussure defines language a system of signs constituted by the signifier and the signified. There can be no relationship between a word and what it designates, that is objects and expressions are arbitrarily linked.

Noam Chomsky says the language is the inherent capability of the native speakers to understand the form and grammatical sentences. Here structural features of a language is given importance. Sentences are made up of limited components.

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

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

Theories of the origin of language

The question of the origin of language creates a dispute among the scholars. Saussure is skeptical about the question of the origin of language. Whether all languages have a common origin or not is a question to

be answered. Human language is productive and in the course of time many of them declined and developed and some of them continue to evolve. It has been argued that imitation, rhythm, pains and pleasures, different gestures form the basis of language. The following are some of the important theories of the origin of language, though disputatious arguments exist.

1 The Bow-Wow Theory

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

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

2 The Ding-Dong Theory

This theory argues that the sounds people made were in harmony with the world around them. The language

originated out of a natural correspondence between objects of sense perception and the vocal noises which were part of early humans' reactions to them. This concept was offered by the German linguist Max Muller. It argues that there is an innate tendency in man to imitate movements in nature, which is the rhythm of nature. Humans started naming objects, actions and natural phenomena after a recognizable sound associated with them in real life. This is often referred to as sound symbolism. Hence 'crash' became the word for thunder and 'boom' for explosion.

Apart from some rare instances of sound symbolism, there is no persuasive evidence of an innate connection between sound and meaning.

3 The Pooh-Pooh Theory

Instinctive emotive cries, pain or pleasure may lead to the development of certain sounds and words. The pooh-pooh theory follows this trace. It argues that speech began with interjections. The interjection pooh-pooh is used to express contempt or disapproval. Other interjections develop from these are Oh! for surprise, ouch! for pain, and wow! for surprise.

No language contains very many interjections. The expressive noises people make as an emotional reaction can hardly be considered as words.

4 The Gesture Theory

Apart from spoken and written symbols, communication can be made by make use of body. The

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

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

5 The Yo-He-Ho Theory

Language began as rhythmic chants, perhaps ultimately from the grunts of heavy work. According to yo-he-ho theory language evolved from the grunts, groans and snorts evoked by the group of people during a heavy physical work. While lifting a heavy object or pulling a heavy wood or cutting a hard object, the workers made sound alike as in 'yo-he-ho'. These sounds may stand for cooperation accompanied by appropriate gestures. This notion of language was propounded by Noire.

Though this notion may account for some of the rhythmic feature of the language, it doesn't go very far in explaining where words come from.

6 The Sing-Song Theory

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

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

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

Human Communication and Animal Communication

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

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

1 Duality of Patterning

Human language has a fixed number of sound units called phonemes. When two or more phonemes combine

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

Animals’ sounds, on the other hand, cannot be arranged in this way like morphemes or words. Therefore their number of messages are limited. Their sounds denote their instincts aroused by reactions. Bees communicate with others by dancing and birds by calls and songs. Different animals, in this way, communicate by make use of their body, cries and sounds but these sounds cannot be broken down into separate parts.

2 Creativity

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

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

3 Arbitrariness

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

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

4 Displacement

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

5 Cultural Transmission

Human beings brought up in different cultures, so they acquire different languages. Man can also learn other languages via the influence of other cultures. Moreover, a language with a written and spoken symbols is passed on from one generation to the next. Animals lack this capacity because they are born with a set of fixed signals. Their communication ability is transmitted biologically, so they are unable to learn other languages.

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

Speech and Writing

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

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

Writing is usually permanent because it allows opportunities for more careful organization and more complex structures. It is usually represented by phonemic symbols or letters. Each of the letter or symbol represents a particular sound through which the meaning is generated. Once it is recorded written text cannot be changed. It then helps to improve the reading skill of a child. The written material can be read repeatedly and can be used for future reference.

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

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

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

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

Chapter II

Linguistics

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

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

Linguistics as Science

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

classifies the components of a language and each of which is evaluable individually or as a group. All these processes makes it scientific:

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

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

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

interprets the data of observation and experience. Hence a preliminary hypothesis is formed which tries to prove a theory by applying it to the data.

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

Scope of linguistics

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

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

disciplines like sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, historical linguistics etc.

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

Levels of Linguistic Analysis

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

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

Phoneme



Morpheme



Word



Sentence



Text/discourse

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

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

Levels of analysis		Levels of structure
Phonetics&Phonology	→	Sound
Morphology	→	Word formation
Syntax	→	Sentence formation
Semantics	→	Meaning
Discourse	→	Connected sentences

Each level and each structure needs to be studied further.

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

Phonology studies the combination of sounds into organized units of speech, the formation of syllables and larger units. It describes the sound system of a particular language and the combination and distribution of sounds which occur in that language. Classification is made on the basis of the phoneme, the sound, e.g. /p/, /b/. These sounds combine with other sounds to produce

meaningful units by following a rule. However, the rules of combination are different for different languages.

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

Words can also move in a way to form larger constituents. **Syntax** deals with this formation. It is the level at which we study how words combine to form phrases, phrases combine to form clauses and clauses join to make sentences. In sentences or clauses, the positioning of words is important and it functions as per a prescribed rule, that is, whether the word takes the role of noun/noun phrase, verb/verb phrase or adjective. A

sentence is an arrangement of these words in a particular order. So syntax studies how each word functions and what is their role. This function and role determine the meaning of the sentence. For example, consider the word ‘show’, in each of the following sentences, it has different roles:

(a) They show me a picture

(b) The show begins at 8 am.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Chapter III

Branches of Linguistics

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

Looking through a theoretical aspect, there are theories about languages and different levels of analysis. Some of these theories have an applied aspect which is concerned with the application of that knowledge in areas such as the learning and teaching of languages, or correction and improvement of speech disorders, or in helping us to appreciate the use of language in literature. This shows the applicability of language in different areas of study. At personal level and social level the use of language may vary. Hence various branches of linguistics have grown. The following are some among them:

(a) Psycholinguistics

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

syntax and memory are linked, how messages are decoded and stored.

The influence of psychological factors such as fear, anxiety, trauma, intelligence etc. on language is also a matter of concern for psycholinguistics. What one speaks is not a mere utterance of speech sounds, rather it is a mental process, that is why words slip and error occurs at the time of speaking when the speaker is tensed. Dyslexia is a similar disability where some children make mistakes in reading. Psycholinguistics can offer some insights and corrective measures for this condition.

Psycholinguistics is also concerned with the acquisition of first language and other languages in later stage. It explores whether human brain has an inborn language ability structured in such a way that certain grammatical and semantic patterns are embedded in it, which can explain how all human beings are capable of learning a language.

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

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

(b) Ethnolinguistics

Ethnolinguistics is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the relation between linguistic and cultural behavior. It is part of anthropological

linguistics that is concerned with the study of the interrelation between a language and the cultural behavior of those who speak it. Edward Sapir, the linguist, argues that no two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not the same world with different labels attached. According to this view, language is essentially not what we see, but how we see things that influence our cognitive process. This idea is also called linguistic relativism.

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

(c) Sociolinguistics

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

Sociolinguistics states that language is not a single homogeneous entity, but has different forms in different situations. Different social conditions such as gender, class, education, occupation influence the language of a community. Even within a community, the language of a group of people varies from others; women do not speak like men, young people do not speak like old people and so on. This variation in speech community is the subject

here. Variation in language occurs when speakers of the same language belong to different geographical regions. Thus variation is an integral and essential part of a language.

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

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

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

‘elevator’. ‘I have seen anything’ and ‘I ain’t seen nothing’ is the syntax variation. British /vɪtəmɪn/ is American /vaɪtəmɪn/

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

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

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

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

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

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

Pidgin is a simplified speech used for communication between people with different languages. These are specialized languages deliberately created to

facilitate communication with outsiders. This happens when people speaking two different languages have to work together, usually in some form of trade relation or administrative routine or a refugee situation. In such situations pidgins arise, more or less purposely made up of vocabulary items from each language, with mutual abandonment of grammatical complexities. Sometimes, as the result of relatively permanent settlement and the intermixture of two speech communities, a pidgin becomes the first language of later generations, ultimately displacing both the original languages. First languages arising in this way, from artificially created pidgins, are called **creoles**.

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

Code switching is a process of changing back and forth between two language varieties especially in a single conversation. Many speakers have control over at least two varieties of their language and many more have control over two languages. Such speakers will shift back and forth between their varieties depending on

factors such as who they are talking to, where they are and what they are talking about.

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

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

Chapter IV

Different Approaches to Linguistics

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

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

Linguistics is Descriptive, not Prescriptive

Linguistics is descriptive in nature that describes how language is used. Linguistics is the scientific study of language and it considers its structure, grammar, syntax, and phonetics. Descriptive linguistics is concerned with describing the use of language by

native or nonnative speakers without reference to proposed norms of correctness or advocacy of rules. This approach makes it modern.

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

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

Prescriptive approach is usually held by the traditional grammarians. It prescribes rules on how a language should or ought to be used by the speakers. It consists of a set of rules that teach the speaker the most accurate and the correct manner to use the language, highlighting what should be used and what should be

avoided. It attempts to enforce rules concerning correct or incorrect language usage. Prescriptive nature of language assumes that the written language is more fundamental than the spoken and that literary language, a particular form of written language, is purer and more correct than all other forms of language.

Langue and Parole

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

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

Parole is often equated with speech. The children develop their native tongue by hearing the language a number of times. After their first utterances, they gradually modify them by listening the language heard around them. From this utterance, the children learn the rules of the language, though mistakes occur. Through the frequent listening of the paroles around

them, they begin to modify their own understanding of the langue, altering specific words, thereby gain the rules of the language.

Saussure illustrates the differences between the two by using the analogy of chess game. In playing the game, both players need to understand all steps, the way each piece moves and different strategies of the game. Understanding of this rule is the *langue* of the game. Based on this rules and moving of pieces the players make continuous choices that show their understanding of the rules. These movements are the *parole* of the game.

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

Competence and Performance

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

Competence is a person's knowledge of his language, who mastered in it, so that it would be possible for him to produce and understand an infinite number of

sentences and he is able to recognize grammatical mistakes and ambiguities. Performance is seen as a set of specific utterances produced by native speaker. The problems of memory limitation, distraction, shift of attention and errors may arise at the time of utterance and can be seen as a limitation of performance.

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

Module 2

Phonetics

Chapter 1

Air Stream Mechanism

Language is mainly used for linguistic communication. It can be spoken or written. The medium of speech is important because it was speech that comes first. Speech sounds can be systematically analyzed; how sounds are produced, transmitted and received.

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that deals with the study and systematic classification of the sounds. It deals with the production, transmission and reception of human speech sounds. A person, who specializes in phonetics is known as a phonetician.

The Air-Stream Mechanism

An air-stream mechanism is needed in the production of speech sounds. The air flows through the mouth for producing different sounds. This stream of air is the basis of speech sounds. For the production of many speech sounds, lung-air is used. The air that we breathe out is modified into speech sounds.

Our breathing system or respiratory mechanism consists of the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the

windpipe. The respiration process involves inspiration and expiration, the former is taking outer air into the lungs and the latter is throwing out air from the lungs. It is the expiratory air or the air that we breathe out is the basis of most of the speech sounds.

There are three main air-stream mechanisms:

- (1) Pulmonic air-stream mechanism
- (2) Glottalic air-stream mechanism
- (3) Velaric air-stream mechanism.

Pulmonic air stream mechanism

This air-stream mechanism is used in all languages in the production of most speech sounds. It consists of the lungs and the respiratory muscles. In the production of a sound, an initiation is required. Here the walls of the lungs act as the initiator. When the air-stream mechanism is used to push air out, it is called egressive and when it is used to draw air in, it is called ingressive. In producing sounds, the air needs to be pushed out, so we are using an egressive air-stream mechanism for most of the speech sounds. All English sounds are produced using this mechanism and ingressive mechanism is not used for speech sounds.

The Glottalic air-stream mechanism

The closed glottis acts as the initiator and the air in the pharynx is used. Both egressive and ingressive glottalic air-stream mechanism are used for the speech sounds of

some languages. Sindhi, an Indian language, is one among them.

Velaric air-stream mechanism

The back of the tongue is the initiator and the air in the mouth is set in motion. This mechanism is also referred to as oral air-stream mechanism. Velaric ingressive mechanism is used in several African languages.

Chapter 2

The organs of speech

In the production of speech sounds, we need an air-stream mechanism. In the process of the air passage, various organs act for the speech sounds. These organs are organs of speech. The organs, which involve in the production of speech sounds, are the lungs, the vocal cords, the tongue, the teeth and the lips. Based on the roles they perform in the conversion of air into sounds, these organs can be grouped as:

- (1) The respiratory system
- (2) The phonatory system
- (3) The articulatory system

The Respiratory System

It consists of the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the windpipe. Through the expiration process, the air is pushed and this is the basis of most of the speech sounds.

The phonatory system

It consists of larynx, situated at the top of the windpipe. Larynx is also called Adam's apple. The vocal cords are situated in the larynx. The opening between the cords is called the glottis. These cords can be opened and closed. When the two cords come very close to each other, the glottis will be shut completely.

The glottis is opened when we breathe in and out and the cords are drawn wide apart. At this time, the air gets out of the lungs through this wide open glottis. Sounds produced with a wide open glottis are called **voiceless sounds**. The consonant sounds /p/, /t/, /k/, /tʃ/, /θ/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/ and /h/ are examples for voiceless sounds.

In the production of some speech sounds, the vocal cords are loosely held together, and during this time the pressure of the air from the lungs makes the cords open and close rapidly. The vocal cords vibrate at this time and the sound that is produced by the vibration of the cords is called **voiced sounds**. All vowels are normally voiced. The consonant sounds such as /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /b/, /d/, /g/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /l/ and /r/ are voiced sounds.

Whether a sound is voiced or voiceless can be determined on the basis of this vibration. This vibration can be felt by placing our fingers lightly on the larynx. During the production of a voiced sound, it vibrates. If it is a voiceless sound, no vibration.

The articulatory system

Articulatory system consists of the roof of the mouth, tongue, the lips, the teeth, and the nose. Their position and function at the time of the air passage produce speech sounds. Each of these organs either actively or passively has a role in producing sounds. The following are the major articulators involved in the production of speech sounds

(a) The roof of the mouth

The parts the teeth-ridge, the hard palate, soft palate and the uvula form the roof of the mouth. The convex bony part of the roof of the mouth which lies immediately behind the upper front teeth is called teeth-ridge, also known as alveolar ridge or alveolum. Immediately after the teeth-ridge, the roof of the mouth becomes concave and hard and bony. This surface part is called hard palate. Soft palate lies just behind the hard palate where the surface of the roof of the mouth is soft and fleshy. Soft palate is also known as velum. The fleshy structure hanging loose at the extreme end of the roof of the mouth is called uvula.

The passage of air is possible through nasal cavity as well. It becomes possible when the soft palate is lowered and the passage of air into the nose is opened and the passage into the mouth is blocked. So the air from the lungs escapes only through the nose. Sounds produced at this time are called nasal sounds. The consonant sounds /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/ are nasal sounds.

If the soft palate is raised and it touches the back wall of the pharynx, the air passage into the nose is closed. So the air escapes only through the mouth. Sounds produced during this time are called oral sounds. The closure of the nasal passage of air by raising the soft palate is called velic closure.

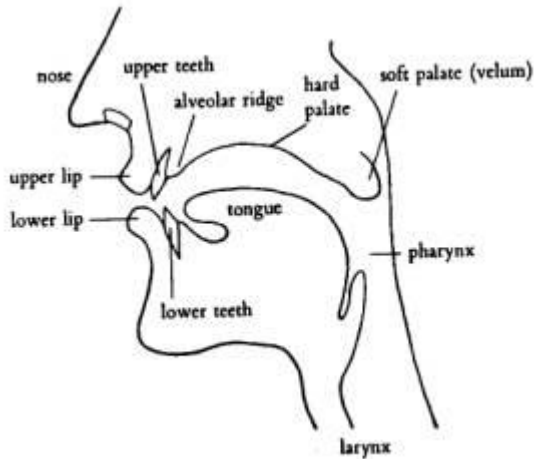
(b) The tongue

The tongue is the active articulator in the production of speech sounds. Considering its positions and function, the tongue can be divided into the tip, the blade, the front, the back, and the root of the tongue.

The extreme edge of the tongue is called the tip. Immediately after the tip is the blade of the tongue and it lies opposite of the teeth-ridge. Beyond the blade lies the front of the tongue and its position is opposite of the hard palate. The back of the tongue lies beyond the front of the tongue and its position is opposite of the soft palate. Even beyond the back of the tongue is its root.

(c) The lips

The lips are also active articulators in the production of certain speech sounds. Both the upper lip and the lower lip function together to produce the consonant sounds like /p/, /b/ and /m/.



(d) The teeth

Both the upper teeth and the lower teeth are articulators in producing sounds. They are passive articulators and lie immediately behind the lips. The tongue is in contact with the upper side teeth for many speech sounds. Sounds made with the tongue touching the front teeth are called **dental**. E.g. /f/ and /v/.

Chapter 3

Classification and Description of Speech Sounds

Speech Sounds are divided into two main groups: Vowels and Consonants. The consonant sounds are

those during the production of which, the air escapes through the mouth with a friction. They are produced by a partial or complete obstruction of the airstream by a constriction of the speech organs. /p/ and /n/ sounds in 'pin' are consonants.

Vowel sounds are those during the production of which, there is no obstruction in the mouth. The air escapes through the mouth freely and no friction is felt. The sound /i/ in 'pin' is a vowel.

The Consonant sounds; description and classification

The description of a consonant will include the following information:

- (a) The air-stream mechanism
 - (b) The state of glottis
 - (c) The position of the soft palate
 - (d) The articulators involved
 - (e) The nature of the stricture.
- (a) The air-stream mechanism: Most speech sounds and all normal sounds are made with an egressive pulmonic air-stream, including all English vowels and consonants.
 - (b) The state of glottis: A consonant may be voiced or voice-less, depending upon whether the vocal cords remain wide apart or in a state of vibration.

- (c) The position of the soft palate: The nature of the speech sounds, oral or nasal, depends upon whether the soft palate is raised or lowered. It facilitates the air passage either through mouth or through nasal cavity.
- (d) The articulators involved: In the production of consonant sounds, an active and a passive articulator is required. The lower lip and the parts of the tongue are the active articulators. The upper lip and the entire roof of the mouth are the passive articulators.
- (e) The nature of the stricture: It refers to the way in which the passage of air is restricted by the various organs of speech. It is **the manner of articulation**. The following are the various types of strictures.

The stricture may be of *complete closure*, that is, the active and passive articulators come into contact with each other and the air releases suddenly. During this time, the produced sounds are called **plosive**. In the production of /p/ and /b/, the lips make a total closure and a sudden release.

After the closing of the passage of air, it releases slowly. Sounds produced during this time are called **Affricates**. /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are affricate consonants.

During the production of certain consonants, the oral passage of air is blocked and the air escapes

through nasal cavity. These are **Nasal** sounds. /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/ are examples.

The stricture may be such that air passes between the active and passive articulators intermittently. Such a stricture is called **intermittent closure**, and involves the vibration of the active articulator against the passive. Sounds produced during this time are called **trills** or **rolled** consonants. The Scottish /r/ as in red is an example.

For some consonants, the active articulator strikes against the passive articulator once and then quickly flaps forward. Such consonants are called **taps** or **flaps**. The letter *r* in very is an example.

During the production of some consonants, the active articulator is brought very close to the passive articulator. But through a narrow space the air escapes by producing audible friction. These consonants are **fricatives**. The sounds /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /h/, /θ/, /ð/ and /ʃ/ are fricatives.

In producing consonant sounds, both articulators are in firm contact with each other. The air escapes through the gap between the sides of the tongue without any friction. Such consonants are called **laterals**. The sound /l/ in love is lateral.

The stricture involved and the manner of articulation can be summarized as:

Complete closure → plosive

Complete closure and slow release → affricate

Complete oral closure → nasal

Close approximation → fricative

Partial closure → lateral

Intermittent closure → trill or rolled

Place of articulation

Consonant sounds can be classified on the basis of the place of articulation, that is, the two articulators involved in the production of sounds. The following are the Classification of English Consonants according to the place of Articulation.

(1) **Bilabial:** The bilabial sounds are articulated by the two lips. /p/, /b/ and /m/ are examples.

(2) **Labio-dental:** They are articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth. /f/ and /v/ are examples

(3) **Dental:** In the production of this sound the tip of the tongue is the active articulator and the upper front teeth is the passive articulator as /θ/ in 'thin' and /ð/ in 'this'.

(4) **Alveolar:** They are articulated by the tip of the tongue or the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge. /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/, and /z/ are examples.

(5) **Post-alveolar:** The tip of the tongue is the active articulator and the back part of the teeth ridge is the

passive articulator for the production of this consonant sounds. /r/ sound in try and dry are examples.

(6) **Palato-alveolar:** They are articulated by the tip and the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge. Simultaneously, the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. /ʃ/ in ship, /ʒ/ in pleasure, /tʃ/ in church and /dʒ/ in judge are examples.

(7) **Palatal:** The front of the tongue is the active articulator and the hard palate is the passive articulator. /j/ in yes is a palatal sound in English.

(8) **Velar:** The back of the tongue is the active articulator and the soft palate is the passive articulator. /k/, /g/ and /ŋ/ are examples.

(9) **Glottal:** They are produced at the glottis. The two vocal cords are the active articulators. /h/ in the word hat is an example.

Vowels; description and classification

During the production of vowel sounds, the air escapes through the mouth without any friction. They can be defined with an open approximation without any obstruction, partial or complete, in the air passage. Therefore, vowels are articulated with a stricture of open approximation. Each of the vowels has a distinct quality because of the different positions the tongue takes during vowel articulation. Vowels can be classified on the basis of the following:

- (1) The part of the tongue raised
- (2) The height of the tongue
- (3) The position of lips.

1) The part of the tongue raised

In producing vowel sounds, some part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the roof of the mouth. The front, the back and the center of the tongue can be raised.

When **the front** of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate, **front vowels** can be produced. That means, **thefront vowels** are those during the production of which the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. /i/ in sit, /i:/ in seat, /e/ in met and /æ/ in sat are front vowels.

When the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate, **back vowels** can be produced. That means, the **back vowels** are those, during the production of which the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate. /a:/ in arm, /ɒ/ in cot, /ɔ:/ in caught, /u/ in push, and /u:/ in pool are back vowels.

Vowels can also be produced by raising the center of the tongue in the direction of the part of the roof of the mouth where the hard palate and soft palate meet. These vowels are called **central vowels**. That means, the central vowels are those during the production of which the central part of the tongue is raised towards a point where the hard palate and soft palate meet. /ə/ in ago, /ə:/ in bird, and /ʌ/ in cup are central vowels.

The front vowels are /i/, /i:/, /e/, /æ/.

The back vowels are /a:/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /u/, /u:/.

The central vowels are /ə/, /ə:/, /ʌ/.

(2) The height of the tongue

Vowel sounds can also be classified and described on the basis of the height of the tongue. In the production of vowel sounds our tongue moves at different levels from upper to lower. According to the height of the tongue, vowels are classified into four. These are close vowels, half-close vowels, half-open vowels and open vowels.

a) Close vowels: Close vowels are those during the production of which the tongue is raised to the vowel limit, that is, the tongue is very close to the roof of the mouth. Examples are /i:/ as in seat and /u:/ as in pool.

b) Open vowels: open vowels are those during the production of which the tongue is far away from the roof of the mouth. /a:/ in arm and /æ/ in sat are open vowels

c) Half-close vowels: Half-close vowels are those during the production of which the tongue raised between the close and the open positions, but nearer the close position than the open position. The vowel /e/ in get is an example.

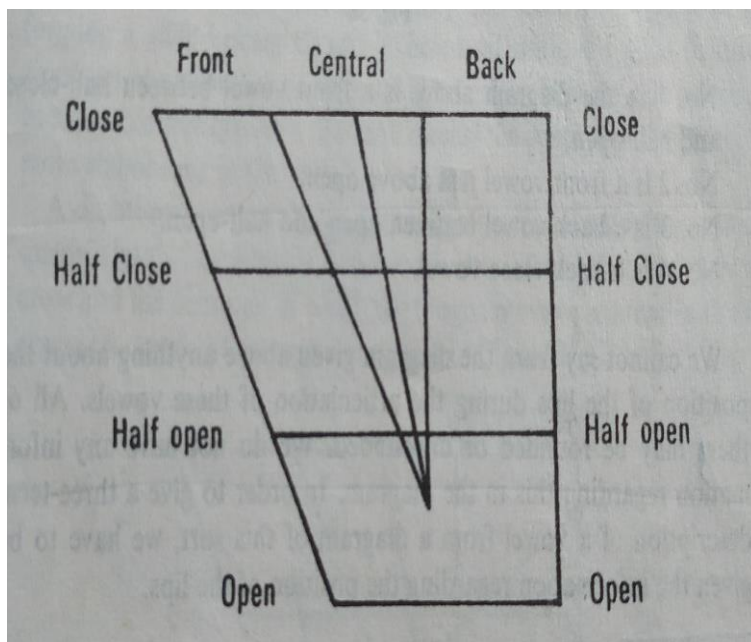
d) Half-open vowels: half-open vowels are those during the production of which the tongue raised between the close and the open positions, but nearer

the open position than the close position. /æ/ in sat is an example.

(3) The position of lips.

The position of lips can also describe vowel sounds. According to this vowels are divided as **rounded** and **unrounded** vowels. Rounded vowels are those during the articulation of which the lips are rounded. The vowels /u/, /u:/, /ʊ/ and /ɔ:/ are rounded vowels. The unrounded vowels are those during the articulation of which the lips are spread or neutral. The vowels /i/, /i:/, /e/ and /æ/ are unrounded one.

The below image shows the tongue positions during the articulation of vowels:



Cardinal vowels

Cardinal vowels are classified depending on the position of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth, how far forward or back is the highest point of the tongue and the position of the lips, either rounded or unrounded. Within the vowel area inside of our mouth, we can articulate vowel sounds. These sounds are produced when the tongue is in an extreme position, either front or back, high or low. Based on the position of the tongue that is, front or back and high or low, we will have eight tongue-positions, and the vowels articulated within these eight tongue-positions are called cardinal vowels. Cardinal vowels 1 to 5 are articulated with various degrees of lip-spreading and cardinal vowels 6 to 8 are articulated with various degrees of lip-rounding.

The cardinal vowels are described on the basis of the part of the tongue raised, the height to which it is raised and the position of the lips. The following are the description and the phonetic symbol allotted to it by the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association. It was systematized by Daniel Jones.

Cardinal vowel no.1 → front close unrounded → [i]

Cardinal vowel no.2 → front half-close unrounded → [e]

Cardinal vowel no.3 → front half-open unrounded → [ɛ]

Cardinal vowel no. 4 → front open unrounded → [a]

Cardinal vowel no. 5 → back open unrounded → [ɑ]

Cardinal vowel no. 6 → back half-open rounded → [ɔ]

Cardinal vowel no. 7 → back half-close rounded → [o]

Cardinal vowel no. 8 → back close rounded → [u]

Monophthongs and Diphthongs

Monophthongs are vowel sounds that has a single constant articulatory position. They are also known as pure vowels. It is a single sound. In pronouncing a vowel sound, there won't be any shift or glide from one sound to another. In the word sit, the vowel sound /i/ is fixed and constant. The position of the tongue and the lips remain the same when these vowel sounds are pronounced.

There are 12 pure vowels or monophthongs in English and they are: /ʌ/, /ɑ:/, /i/, /i:/, /u/, /u:/, /e/, /æ/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /ə/, /ə:/.

Diphthong vowels are those during the articulation of which, there will be a shift or glide from one vowel sound to another. It can be described as *a vowel glide*. A diphthong will have to occupy a single syllable.

There are 8 diphthongs in English RP. They can be divided into closing diphthongs and centering diphthongs. Closing diphthong glides towards a vowel which is in the closing position. Centering vowel begins from a pure vowel and glides towards a centralized vowel. The former ends in /i/ or /u/ and the latter glides to /ə/. Thus, we have groups that have /i/, /u/ and /ə/ as the second element.

Glide towards /i/

/eɪ/ as in eight, great, paste, taste.

/aɪ/ as in right, eye, cry, my.

/ɔɪ/ as in boy, oil, coy.

Glide towards /u/

/əʊ/ as in no, go, so, open.

/aʊ/ as in out, house, how, sound

Glide towards /ə/

/iə/ as in fear, ear, tear, dear

/ʊə/ as in sure, tour, cure

/eə/ as in air, share, care, chair.

Triphthong is another monosyllabic vowel. However a triphthong consists of more than two vowels, that is, a vowel glides to another and then further glides to a third vowel. It can be understood if we carefully observe certain words,

The word *our* consists of a triphthong, /aʊə/

Hour - /aʊə/

Fire - /faɪə/

Inspire - /ɪnspaiə/

Chapter 4

Phonology

The sounds that exist in a language are organized differently into various patterns in different languages. Different languages select different sounds out of the total inventory of sounds that can possibly be articulated by man. The selection and organization of sounds in a language is different from other language. It is this selection and organization that constitute the phonology of a language.

Phoneme

The vowel and consonant sounds of a language can be grouped into a limited number of distinctive sound units. These sound units are called the phonemes of a language.

In English aspirated and unaspirated voiceless plosive sounds occur, but they occur in different way. For example, aspirated /p^h, t^h, k^h/ occur in *pin*, *turn* and *kin* respectively. Unaspirated /p, t, k/ occur in *spin*, *stern* and *skin* respectively. In these words, the aspirated voiceless plosive sounds occur initially. Of course, we can also begin these words with unaspirated sounds, but it is really odd for native speakers to hear and the meaning won't be altered by this change. Thus the aspirated and the unaspirated voiceless plosives are in complementary distribution with each other.

It is the sound that distinguishes a word from another word. In the word *sky*, the /k/ occurs after /s/. If we substitute /p/ for /k/ we get *spy* which is a different word in English. The substitution of /p^h/ for /p/ in *spy* does not change the meaning of the word. Therefore /p^h/ and /p/ can be grouped together into one family, because their substitution does not change the meaning and this family is called a phoneme. But /p/ and /k/ does not form a family because their substitution changes the meaning.

The phonemes can also be identified by the existence of *minimal pairs*. A minimal pair is a set of two words which differ from each other in one sound. *Sit* and *hit* constitute a minimal pair but they differ in initial consonant. Similarly, *set* and *sit* forms a minimal pair, and they differ in the middle vowel sound.

Thus, it is clear that a phoneme is a distinctive sound unit, the alteration of which brings a change in meaning.

Allophones

Allophones are phoneme variations that do not bring meaning change. This phonemic variation occurs because of its position and the phonetic characteristics of neighboring sounds. Allophones are considered to be the same sound, they differ in terms of aspiration, voicing and point of articulation.

Certain phonemes may be produced with an accompanying short puff of air in certain contexts. Let us consider the sound /t/ in *top* and *stop*. /t/ is a voiceless alveolar plosive sound. In the word *top* the /t/ is aspirated; /t^hɒp/. But in the word *stop*, /t/ is unaspirated;

/stop/. Therefore, we can say that the phoneme /t/ has two allophones here; /t^h/ and /t/.

Similarly, in the word *kin*, an aspirated /k^h/occurs, and in the word *sky*, an unaspirated /k/ occurs after the initial /s/. The aspirated and the unaspirated forms of /k/ are the allophones of the same phoneme.

Homonyms

Homonyms are words that are pronounced the same as each other or have the same spelling. Though certain words have same pronunciation or same spelling, they differ in meaning. The word homonym comes from the prefix ‘*homo-*’ which means the same, and the suffix ‘*-nym*’ which means name. The following are some examples:

Mail-male

Ate –eight

Sell –cell

Right –write

Bye- buy

Read (past) -read (past participle of read)

Lead (n) - lead (v)

Bear (n) – bear (v)

Therefore, it is possible for a homonym to be a **homophone** (same sound) and a **homograph** (same spelling).

Diacritics

A diacritic denotes a distinguishing mark applied to a letter or a character. When this special mark is added to a letter, it indicates a different pronunciation, stress, tone or meaning. Diacritics are rare in English, but common in many other languages.

For example, look at this word and how it is written; “*déjà vu*.” Two diacritics appear in this word.

International Phonetic Alphabet Symbols

In English, the letters of the alphabet often do not represent the same sound in most of the contexts. For example the letters *ch*; how it is pronounced in the words *chin*, *machine* and *character*. It simply shows us that one letter of the alphabet stands for more than one sound and, conversely, the same sound is represented by different letters of the alphabet. Look at the letters and their sounds; *gh* in *cough*, *f* in *fun*, *ff* in *coffee* and *ph* in *physics*.

There is no one-to-one correspondence between the letters and the sounds they represent. Phonetic transcription is a useful device to avoid such pitfalls. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) has symbols to represent all the sounds that exists in the language.

The following are the consonant sounds each of which can be defined by the place of articulation, manner of articulation and the position of glottis.

/p/	Bilabial	Plosive	Voiceless
/b/	Bilabial	plosive	Voiced
/t/	Alveolar	Plosive	Voiceless
/d/	Alveolar	plosive	Voiced
/k/	Velar	Plosive	Voiceless
/g/	Velar	Plosive	Voiced
/tʃ/	Palato-alveolar	Affricate	Voiceless
/dʒ/	Palato-alveolar	Affricate	Voiced
/m/	Bilabial	Nasal	Voiced
/n/	Alveolar	Nasal	Voiced
/ŋ/	Velar	Nasal	Voiced
/f/	Labiodental	Fricative	Voiceless
/v/	Labiodental	Fricative	Voiced
/θ/	Dental	Fricative	Voiceless
/ð/	Dental	Fricative	Voiced
/s/	Alveolar	Fricative	Voiceless
/z/	Alveolar	Fricative	Voiced

/ʃ/	Palato-alveolar	Fricative	Voiceless
/ʒ/	Palato-alveolar	Fricative	Voiced
/h/	Glottal	Fricative	Voiceless
/l/	Alveolar	Lateral	Voiced
/j/	Palatal	Approximant	Voiced
/r/	Alveolar	Trill	Voiced
/w/	Labio-velar	Approximant	Voiced

Chapter 5

The Syllable

In the analysis of speech, there are certain units higher than individual speech sounds which are called Syllables. A syllable is a unit of spoken language, usually bigger than a speech sound and it consists of one or more vowel sounds. A diphthong is considered a single syllable unit. Each word is a combination of one or more syllables. While transcribing a word, a syllable-division is marked by a hyphen.

A word, which has only one syllable is called **monosyllabic** words. The words *pen* - /pen/, *sit* - /sit/, *eye* - /ai/, *cup* - /kʌp/, are monosyllabic words

The words with two syllables are called **disyllabic** words

Teacher - /ti:tʃə/

Doctor - /'dɒk-tə/

Open - /əʊ-pən/

Landing - /lænd-ɪŋ/

Extra - /eks-trə/

British - /brɪ-tɪʃ/

The words with three syllables are called **trisyllabic** words

Minister - /mɪ-nɪ-stə/

Consonant - /kɒn-sə-nənt/

Adjective - /æ-dʒɪ-ktɪv/

Principal - /prɪn-sɪ-pəl-/

The words with more than three syllables are called **polysyllabic** words

Examination - /ɪg-zæ-mɪ-neɪ-ʃən/

Relationship - /rɪ-leɪ-ʃən-ʃɪp/

Composition - /kɒm-pə-zɪ-ʃən/

Mathematics - /mæ-θə-mæ-tɪks/

Syllabic Consonant

Usually vowels and diphthongs form a syllable. Syllables are based on the numbers of vowels in a word and we will have monosyllabic, disyllabic and trisyllabic words. However, in certain words, consonants form a syllable of its own. It is called syllabic consonant.

In the words *kettle* - /ke-tl/, *little* - /li-tl/, *cattle* - /kæ-tl/ there is no vowel in the second syllable and consonants occupy the central nuclear positions. These are called syllabic consonants.

The structure of syllable

When we describe the structure of a syllable, we use the symbol C to represent a consonant sound and V to represent a vowel sound. A closed syllable is usually represented by CVC and open syllable is represented by CV

Bat is a monosyllabic word and the syllable of which is formed by three sounds - /bæt/. The structure of the syllable is CVC

The vowel in a syllable is its central element and is called the nucleus of a syllable. The consonant that begins a syllable is called **the releasing consonant** and the one that comes at the end of a syllable is called **the arresting consonant**. In the word *bat* /bæt/ the vowel /æ/ is its nucleus and /b/ and /t/ are on either side of the nucleus. Some syllables have only the nucleus. For example the word *eye* or *I* /ai/, so its structure is V.

Some syllables have the nucleus and an arresting consonant – *am* /æm/ and its structure is VC.

Certain syllables have a releasing consonant and the nucleus – *be* /bi:/ and its structure is CV. More than two or three consonants can release a syllable:

Slate - /sleit/ - CCVC

State - /steit/ - CCVC

Scream - /skri:m/ - CCCVC

Screen - /skri:n/ - CCCVC

It is possible to have three or more arresting consonants:

Tempt - /tempt/ CVCCC

Bands - /bændz/ CVCCC

Tempts - /tempt/ CVCCCC

Texts - /teksts/ CVCCCC.

Consonant clusters

A sequence of two or more consonants at the beginning or end of a syllable is called consonant clusters. They occur naturally in written and spoken English. For example, the sequence /s/, /k/, and /r/ in the word *screen* is a consonant cluster, because the three of the consonants forming the sequence, belong to the same syllable. In English three consonants can begin a syllable and four consonants can end a syllable.

Initial consonant clusters:-

/bl-/ - blue

/tw-/ - twenty

/kl-/ - clay

/mj-/ - music

/spr-/ - spring

/str-/ - stream

/spl-/ - split

Final consonant clusters

/-ksts/ - texts

/-mpts/ - tempts

/-dst/ - midst

/-kst/ - next.

However, the consonants /ŋ/ and /k/ in the word *uncle* /ʌŋkəl/ do not form a consonant cluster. It is because the /ŋ/ belongs to the first syllable and the /k/ belongs to the second syllable. Such sequence of consonants that do not form a consonant cluster are called **abutting consonants**.

Also in the word *umpire* the consonants /m/ and /p/ do not form a consonant cluster.

Chapter 6

Supra-segmental Features

The segments of spoken language are the vowels and consonants, which combine to produce syllable words and sentences. When we speak we make use of a wide variety of tones of voice, which change the meaning of what we say in a variety of different ways. It is these effects that provide the data of supra-segmental analysis.

Supra-segmental, also called prosodic feature, is a speech feature such as accent, tone or juncture. These speech features are not limited to single sounds but often extended over syllables, words, or phrases.

Word accent

Word accent is an important feature of the spoken English. Every word is composed of one or more phonemes. But not all words are pronounced equally. In an English word of more than one syllable, one of the syllables is pronounced with greater prominence than the other syllables. This syllable that gets emphasis than other syllables is said to be accented. Accent means expending extra breath on a particular syllable in a word. This is because of stress on a particular syllable.

In certain words consisting of several syllables, more than one syllable may be prominent. For example,

in the word examination /ɪg-zæ-mi-neɪ-ʃən/ which has five syllables, the fourth syllable /neɪ/ gets maximum prominence. The second syllable /zæ/ gets the next degree of prominence. So the word examination has two strong syllables and other syllables are pronounced with less importance. The syllable that gets maximum prominence is primary accent and other prominent syllable that gets next prominence is secondary accent. The primary accent or stress is marked with a vertical bar above and in front of the syllable to which it refers [ˈ], and the secondary accent is marked with a vertical bar below and in front of the syllable to which it refers [ˌ].

Examination - /ɪgˌzæmɪˈneɪʃən/

Notification - /ˌnəʊtɪfɪˈkeɪʃn/

Deposition - /ˌde pəˈzɪʃən/

In English words accent is fixed. It is not associated with a particular syllable of a word. There is no rule to place the accent on a syllable.

In certain disyllabic words, the accent receives on the first syllable:

/ˈti:tʃə/ - teacher

/ˈdɒktə/ - doctor

/ˈɪŋɡlɪʃ/ - English

It does not mean that all disyllabic words receive the accent on the first syllable. In words like *become*, *canteen* and *remark* the accent is on the second syllable:

/bɪ'kʌm/ - become

/kæn'ti:n/ - canteen

/rɪ'mɑ:k/ - remark.

It shows that, no rule to place the accent on a syllable.
The accent is free and fixed

Accent in compound words

In most compound words in English the primary accent falls on one of the two elements. In the following compound words, the first of the two elements receives the primary accent.

'school-bus

'blackbird

'footprint

'lifeboat

'crossword

In the compound words that end with *-ever* and *-self*, the second element receives the primary accent

her'self

my'self

him'self

what'ever

who'ever

how'ever

Accent in connected speech

In a polysyllabic word, one syllable gets greater prominence than other syllables. Similarly, when these words form a sentence by combining each other, one of the words gets greater prominence than the rest of the words. It means not all words are uttered alike. As in the case of the accent that falls on a syllable, a word receives accent in a sentence. In connected speech, the stressed word is marked with a vertical bar. While uttering a sentence, the accented word is spoken with an emphasis. In a sentence, the content words and lexical words receive the accent, while the grammatical words or form words like articles, auxiliaries, conjunctions, and prepositions, pronouns, and relative pronouns etc. do not usually get accented. Look at the following examples:

- (1) 'Give me an 'idea.
- (2) Have you 'studied the 'lessons?
- (3) I am 'studying.
- (4) 'Close the door.
- (5) Oh! It is a 'beautiful 'flower.
- (6) 'Turn off the' light.

(7) I 'want to 'win the 'game.

In the above listed sentences, the words marked with a vertical bar above them stand out from the rest. So in a sentence, the words that are stressed, uttered with an emphasis, that make them stand out from the rest of the grammatical words. It shows that the connected speech has accentual patterns.

Rhythm in speech

English language is a rhythmic one and its rhythmic pattern is based on whether syllables are stressed or not. In an English utterance, the accented syllables occur at regular intervals of time, irrespective of unaccented syllables. The following sentence tells us how it is rhythmic.

'This is the 'house that 'Jackhas'built.

In this sentence, the accented syllables this, house, Jack and built occur at regular intervals and unaccented syllables is, the, that and has also appear between accented syllables. Therefore it is easy for a speaker to speak the sentence in a rhythmic way. This is a very important feature of English connected speech.

Weak forms

Weak forms and strong forms depend on whether they are pronounced in isolation, or part of a sentence. Only grammatical words have weak and strong forms. The articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs etc. have no stress. Therefore, they are weak. However, when these words are pronounced in isolation, the strong

form is used. The following are the strong and weak form of the grammatical words:

Word	strong form	weak form
The/ði:/		/ðɪ/, /ðə/
A/An/eɪ/, /æn/		/ə/, /ən/
His	/hɪz/	/ɪz/
Him	/hɪm/	/ɪm/
Her /hə:/	/hə/, /ə:/	
You	/ju:/	/ju/
She	/ʃi:/	/ʃɪ/
He	/hi:/	/hi/, /i://i/
We	/wi:/	/wi/
Them	/ðem/	/ðəm/, /əm/
At	/æt//ət/	
For	/fɔ:/	/fə/
To	tu:/	/tu/, /tə/
From	/frɒm/	/frəm/
Of	/ɒv/	/əv/, /v/, /ə/

And	/ænd/	/ənd/, /ən/
But	/bʌt/	/bət/
Can	/kæn/	/kən/
Could	/kud/	/kəd/
Has	/hæz/	/həz/, /əz/
Had	/hæd/	/həd/, /əd/
Will	/wil/	/l/
Would	/wud/	/əd/
Shall	/ʃæl/	/ʃel/
Should	/ʃud/	/ʃəd/

Intonation

Intonation is the rise and fall in pitch of the voice in speech. It is primarily a matter of variation in the pitch level of the voice and it is the vibration of the vocal cords that produces the voice and the pitch of the voice. Sometimes the pitch rises and sometimes it falls. At other times, it remains level, high, or low. The patterns of variation of the pitch of the voice constitute the intonation of a language. A syllable which is said on a level tone, high or low, is said to have a **static tone** and

one on which there is a pitch change is said to have a **kinetic tone**.

There are three things to be considered in a connected speech:

- (1) The division of utterance into groups: - we divide utterances into groups called **breath group**, and **sense group** or **tone group**. The sentence *I am going* is an example for breath group because it will be said without any pause in between. At the same time, the sentence *when you go out, shut the door* has a pause in the middle of the sentence. This is sense group or tone group.
- (2) The location of nucleus of the tone group: - usually the content words receive the accent and grammatical words do not get accented. However, it is possible to make accented syllable, according to the meaning the speaker wants to convey. It depends upon what the speaker wants to convey. For example, look at the sentence *this 'dress is 'good*. Here no special emphasis is made, so, naturally the content words receive the accent. On the other hand, if the same sentence becomes *this 'dress 'is good*, an emphasis made on *is*, that means, the speaker wants to convey something prominent.
- (3) The choice of a tone: - a number of tones are used by a native speaker of English with great subtlety and ease. From the choice of the tone of the speaker, it is possible to understand the utterance a statement, or question, a command, or a request.

Therefore 3 tones are possible to understand and they are: a) Falling tone, b) Rising tone and c) Falling-Rising tone.

The Falling Tone

- i) It is used in ordinary statement, made without any implication

I am a\ teacher

I am\ going

- ii) In questions beginning with a question word when asked in a natural way

How are\ you?

What is your\ name?

- iii) In commands

Get\ out

Do it\ tomorrow

- iv) In exclamation

What a fine\ day!

- v) In tag questions

(It is a hot day) Isn't\ it

(We play) Don't\ we

The Rising Tone

- i) It is used in listing items
I would like some eggs ↗ some milk ↗ some cheese ↗ and some bread
- ii) In yes/no questions
Can you ↗ come?
Has she ↗ arrived?
- iii) In wh questions asked in a warm friendly way , that indicates politeness
When can you ↗ come?
Why are you ↗ disturbed?
- iv) In polite request
Could I use your ↗ pen?
Please help ↗ me
- v) In incomplete utterance, often in the first clause of a sentence
If I go ↗ there, (I can solve the problem)
He is ↗ late (because he missed the bus)

The Falling-Rising Tone

This tone normally indicates that something is implied. It is used at the end of statements when we want to say that we are not sure. For example *we are not able to combat the ↘ ↗ covid 19* (but we will in the near future)

The falling-rising tone is used in questions especially when we request information. For example *could you give me steps to solve ↘↗ the problem?*

It is used for special implications. For example when somebody says *she is ↘↗ clever*, with a falling-rising tone, it implies that though she is clever, she is not dependable or she is not right or something.

Assimilation

Speech is a continuum and it is not a stringing together of discrete units. In speech the sounds may change because of many factors; the neighboring sounds that precede or succeed may influence a sound, certain sounds modified, or added or even lost. Assimilation is such a process. It is a morpho-phonemic process in which the neighboring phonemes becoming more like close each other when morphemes are combined. It is more common in rapid speech.

For example consider the word *incomplete*. Because of the influence of the velar [k], the alveolar [n] is replaced by the velar [ŋ]. So in rapid speech, it is heard as /ɪŋkəmpli:t/

Regressive assimilation and **progressive assimilation** are two types. Regressive assimilation is also known as anticipatory assimilation because the change here is anticipatory in which the features of one phoneme may affect the features of the phoneme **preceding** it. For example, in the word *wealth*, the [l] is felt as a voiced dental sound, though it is an alveolar voiced sound. It

happens because of the influence of the following dental sound [θ].

Progressive assimilation, on the other hand, is an assimilation, in which the features of one phoneme may affect the features of the phoneme **following** it. For example in the word *please*, the [l] is felt as a voiceless sound because of the influence of the voiceless bilabial plosive sound [p] that precedes it.

Elision

In rapid speech, certain sounds may be elided. Elision is defined as the omission of a sound or syllable when speaking. Usually unaccented syllables are elided in speech. The word *them* /ðem/ may be heard /ðm/ as in connected speech, the elision of the vowel sound [e] occurs here. Even consonant sounds may elide in colloquial speech. For example the /t/ in *last* is elided in *last time* – /la:staim/

Received Pronunciation

Received Pronunciation, commonly abbreviated as RP, is defined as the standard speech. It is one of the accented forms, being used throughout the English speaking world. The phrase Received Pronunciation was coined by the linguist A J Ellis in the 1860s. It is the pronunciation used in British dictionaries and it has gained a certain prestige. Because of this prestigious status, RP is also known as The Queen's English, The BBC English or Standard British English. It is the English spoken by the royal family, and the members of upper classes.

As it is an accent, RP is concerned with pronunciation. When it is compared with other regional varieties of English, only the accent differs and vocabulary and grammar are not considered. RP pronounces /h/ at the beginning of words as in *hurt*, but most of the dialects, including the cockney in Britain do not pronounce this h sound and this is one difference between the Rp and other regional dialects. While most English accents pronounce words like *car* and *heart* with an audible /r/, RP does not pronounce it. The phonemic transcriptions in dictionaries are based on this accent.

Those who pronounce RP enjoys a linguistic prestige. But a linguist, on the other hand, does not regard any variety of language as something prestige or not. Many speakers, however, reject this prejudice that RP is a key to higher social status.

General Indian English

General Indian English or GIE is a variety of English spoken by the educated Indians. It is one of the oldest regional varieties of the English language. During the course of time, the GIE has established an independent language tradition which phonologically differs from the British RP. In pronouncing words, the difference is apparent. For example the word *period* is pronounced as /pɪri:d/.

At lexical level, context-bound words are available in GIE. The dining-leaf is an example. The culture is also felt in certain words as in lathi-charge, twice-born, dalit-life, non-brahmin, coolie etc.

Module 3

Chapter 1

Morphology

There are many units or elements that constitute the system called language. What is fundamental in a language constitute it and these fundamental units can be analyzed and described in a systematic way. Traditional grammatical analysis works with two fundamental units; the words and sentences. This analysis in written forms of language separates a sentence by punctuation marks, and words by spaces.

However, words are not the basic unit of a language. There are units smaller than a word and larger than a syllable. Edward Sapir in his *Language: An Introduction to the Study of speech* (1921) suggested that the true significant elements were parts, the parts of words or word groupings. Leonard Bloomfield in his *Language* (1933) maintained that there were linguistic forms which wouldn't stand in isolation. These were called bound forms which he called morphemes. The branch of linguistics deals with the study of morphemes is called morphology. It is the study of the internal construction of words.

Though a morpheme can further divided into phonemes, the latter is not meaningful units, rather they are sound units. The word *pin* consists of only one morpheme and has a definite meaning, but it consists of

three phonemes and these phonemes do not produce any meaning at all.

There are many words that can be analyzed into smaller grammatical units. For example the word *dislocated* can be divided into *dis-*, *locate* and *-ed*. Of these two are minimal grammatical units *dis-* and *-ed*, but they are morpheme as well, and they can further be analyzed. The morpheme *locate* can stand on its own as an independent word and the morphemes *dis-* and *-ed* cannot stand on their own as independent words.

A word may consist of a root word and bound forms. Root words are those which can stand alone as meaningful units. The morphemes *locate*, *kind* and *place* can stand on their own. Such morphemes are called **free morphemes**. But in the morphemes *unkindly* and *displacement*, the morphs *un-*, *-ly*, *dis-* and *-ment* cannot stand as meaningful units. They are grammatical units. Such morphs are called **bound morphemes**.

Morphemes and Allomorphs

Allomorphs are a set of forms that a morpheme may take. They are the variants of a morpheme. While morphemes are concerned with the structure and meaning of words, allomorphs are concerned with the sound of words without changing the meaning. The morphemes are generally represented within braces and allomorphs are given in slash lines. The regular plurals of English nouns are realized as /-s/, /-z/ and /-es/.

If the morpheme ends in /s/ /ʃ/ and /tʃ/, then the allomorph /iz/ is selected.

Fish – fishes- /fɪʃɪz/

Match- matches - /mætʃɪz/

Bus – buses - /bʌsɪz/

If the morpheme ends in voiced consonant or a vowel,
the allomorph is /z/

Dog – dogs - /dɒgz/

Fly – flies – /flaɪz/

Bird – birds- /bɜːdz/

Monkey– monkeys - /mʌŋkɪz/

The past tense of a morpheme, in most cases, is formed by adding *-d* or *-ed* to the word. The ending sound becomes /t/, /d/ or /ɪd/. The past tense *-ed* is realized as /t/ if it is preceded by a voiceless consonant other than /t/. Some verbs whose ending sound is /t/ or /d/ the past tense of its ending sound becomes /ɪd/

Jump – jumped - /dʒʌmpt/

Hunt – hunted - /hʌntɪd/

Brand – branded - /brændɪd/

Learn – learned - /lɜːnɪd/

Kick – kicked - /kɪkt/

Bag – bagged - /bægd/

Affixes

Morphemes such as *-s*, *-ed*, *-ing*, *un-*, *mis-*, *-hood*, *-ship* etc. are called affixes. Here one or more sounds occur as a bound form that are attached either to the beginning or to the end of a base word. These forms like *-s*, or *-ed*, or *un-* are attached to a base word, which is called a **stem word**. In the word *unlikely*, the affixes are *un-* and *-ly*, and the stem is *like*. In the word *knowing*, the stem is *know* and the affix is *-ing*. The stem *know* cannot be split any further. Such a stem which cannot be split any further is called a **root**. To a stem, affixes can be attached and thereby producing a derivative word or an inflectional form.

Suffixes and Prefixes

An affix is added to a root word or a stem and it is of two types. They are suffixes and prefixes. Affixes which are attached at the beginning of the stem are called **prefixes**. The following are some examples:

Un- unkind

Dis- dislike

Mis- misrepresent

In- inequal

Re- resurrect

De- degrade

Im- impassable

Non- nonsense

Anti- antisocial

The affixes which are attached at the end of the stem are called **suffixes**:

-ing (meaning)

-dom (kingdom)

-ship (friendship)

-less (thankless)

-ness (kindness)

-ly (kingly)

-ion (prohibition)

Inflectional and Derivational Affixes

Affixes may be derivational or inflectional. Inflectional affixes change the form of word. For example, *move*, *moves*, *moved*, and *moving* are different forms of the same word. Therefore *-s*, *-ed*, and *-ing* are inflectional affixes. It refers to the formation of a new form of the same word.

Derivational affix, on the other hand, is a process of word formation. It refers to the formation of a new word from another word. *Thank* and *thankless* are different words, therefore *-less* is a derivational affix.

Some words in English do not take inflectional suffixes. Such words are referred to as **function words**. They exist to explain grammatical or structural relationships. They can be called grammatical words. Articles, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, auxiliary verbs etc. are function words. The function words do not change form or meaning. Therefore they are referred to as closed class.

Content word, on the other hand, has meaning that conveys information in a text or speech. Nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives and adverbs are usually content words. While content words are stressed in speech, the grammatical words are pronounced in a reduced form.

Word formation

The word formation refers to the ways in which new words are formed. It is an ongoing process and new words continue to evolve. New lexemes are formed out of old ones either by adding an affix to the already existing lexemes or by combining two lexemes to form a compound word. In this way the word class of a word may alter. For example when the affix *-ly* is added to an adjective *clever*, it becomes *cleverly*, an adverb. Apart from the combination of lexemes and affixation, new words are borrowed from foreign languages. More technical jargons are also evolving in the context of the development of internet.

The process of word formation does not have a uniformity in all languages. It may vary from language to language. The following are some of the important word formation process:

1) Compounding

It is a process in which a word is formed out of two or more words. This type of words are called compound words. Here different forms of word classes combine to form new ones. In the word *blackboard*, an adjective combines with a noun. In most cases, the compound word retains the meaning of the two combined word. A blackboard is a board that is black in color. However, there are some compound words whose meanings cannot be assumed from the two combined words. For example the compound word *white-collar*, and *black money*. Examples are: teapot, manmade, footprint, tea-party, and bookshelf.

2) Clipping

It is a shortening technique in which a new word is formed. Here a word is shortened to one of its parts by retaining the meaning. If the beginning of the word is retained, it is **back clipping**. The examination becomes exam, mathematics is shortened as math, laboratory – lab, gymnastics – gym.

In **fore clipping**, the final part is retained. The word telephone is reduced to phone, omnibus becomes bus, university – varsity, are some examples

3) Acronyms

Acronyms are formed by taking initial letters of a phrase and making a word out of it. If this can be

pronounced as a word it is an acronym. For example AIDS, it can be pronounced.

AIDS – acquired immune deficiency syndrome

VICTERS – Versatile ICT Enabled Resource for Students

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific, and cultural Organisation.

If the initial letters are just spelled, it can be called initialism:

BBC- British Broadcasting Corporation

USA – United States of America

UK – United Kingdom

4) Derivation and Inflection

These are the most important word formation techniques. In derivation, new words are formed by attaching affixes to the root word. In this process, the word class may alter. Sometimes an adjective becomes an adverb, or an adjective becomes a noun. For example quick – quickly, kind – kindness, beauty – beautiful.

Inflectional affixes do not change the word class. For example the verb *move* can be made as *moves*, *moved* or *moving*. Here the word class of the word *move* does not change.

5) Back-formation

As the word indicates, it is the formation of a new word by removing the affixes. It is a reverse process of derivation. In this process a word is formed from another word by removing its affixes. Thus back-formation may be viewed as a sub-type of clipping.

The verb *resurrect* is formed from the noun *resurrection*

Project (V) - projection (N)

Edit (V) - editor (N)

Insert (V) – insertion (n)

6) Blending

It is a word formation technique, in which a new word formed by blending of two words. Here two words are taken and merge them based on sound structure and not on morpheme structure. The resulting words are called blend words.

For example the word *brunch*. It is the blend of *breakfast* and *lunch*.

Motel comes from *motor* and *hotel*

Smog comes from *smoke* and *fog*.

A blend is similar to a **portmanteau** word that also results from blending two or more words, even function words. The word *don't* is a blending of *do* and *not*. It is similar to contraction

7) Conversion

It is the change in the function of a word in which a noun can be a verb and vice versa. It happens without reducing the word.

For example, in the sentence, *the show begins at 8 pm*, 'the show' is a noun. The same noun can be used as a verb as in, *they show me a picture*.

8) Onomatopoeia

It is a process of forming a word. The words are formed by imitating the sounds of their referents. That is, it is the sound that a word makes. Many onomatopoeic words can be verbs as well as nouns. The following are some examples:

Splash – it is both a noun and a verb

Sprinkle, rustle, bam, cuckoo, bang, clatter, clink, knock, etc.

Chapter 2

Semantics

Semantics is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the scientific study of meaning in languages. It can be meaning at word level, or the meaning of phrases or the meaning of sentences. It studies the meanings by making a detailed analysis of the way the words and sentences are used in

specific contexts. Linguistic semantics has been defined as the study of how languages organize and express meanings.

The term did not come to be widely used until the 20th century, but the subject it represents is very old. Now it is one of the liveliest areas in linguistics by looking at language use and the acquisition of language as well. Much of the focus of traditional semantics was vocabulary, but the contemporary semantics is increasingly concerned with the analysis of sentence level meaning or those aspects of sentence meaning that cannot be predicted.

Meaning can be of exact meaning, denotative meaning or associated meaning, sometimes an opposition of which may be needed. It is because the meanings are indefinite or undetermined. Therefore the following lexical components are essential:

1) Synonymy

It is the relationship of sameness of meaning. The words may sound different but they will have the same or identical meanings. The words *noble*, *aristocrat*, *blue blood*, *upper class* almost mean same things. *Kingly*, *royal* and *regal* also refer to same meanings.

2) Antonymy

It is the relationship of oppositeness. Here the words have the sense relation which involve the opposite of meaning. There are several kinds of antonyms;

gradable antonyms, non-gradable antonyms and converse pairs.

Gradable antonyms are pairs of adjectives and these can be qualified by adverbs such as very, quite, extremely etc. this type of antonyms permits the expression of degrees. For examples, big/small, good/bad, hot/cold, expensive/cheap, friend/unfriend.

Non-gradable antonyms are pairs of words that are opposite of meaning. This cannot be graded and they are mutually exclusive. Thus they are also called complementary antonyms. It does not permit any degrees of contrast. For examples, single/married, male/female, man/woman, awake/asleep, push/pull, yes/no.

Converse antonyms are pairs of opposites that are interdependent. That is, one exists because of its opposite. For examples, buy/sell, parent/child, above/below, night/day, husband/wife.

3) Hyponymy

Hyponymy is the state that shows the relationship between more general term and the more specific instances of it. It can be described using a hierarchical diagram called taxonomy. For example yellow, red, green, and blue are hyponyms of color. Car, bus, two-wheelers are hyponyms of vehicles.

4) Polysemy

It is a state in which a word has more than one meaning. That is, it refers to the multiplicity of meaning. The term comes from the Greek for “many signs”. It is an ambiguous quality that many words and phrases share in English.

For example, the word *run* has a number of senses in these sentences; *he runs fast in the event, he runs a company, a rope runs through the pulley*. The word meaning changes according to the context.

5) Ambiguity

It is a state in which a word or expression can be understood in two or more possible ways. Thus we will have ambiguous word or expression.

The expression “the killing of the police” can be understood in two ways; someone killed the police or the police killed someone. Here ambiguity reflects in sentence level.

Lexical ambiguity occurs when a single word is associated with more than one meaning. The word *grave* in “you shall find me a *grave* man” means either serious or the pit where dead bodies are put.

Denotative and connotative meanings

The relationship between words and meanings belongs to the field of semantics. Traditionally, the

grammarians have referred to the meaning of words into two parts; denotation and connotation.

Denotative meaning refers to the literal meaning of words that can be found in dictionaries. Connotative meanings, on the other hand, is a particular emotion or association which the word evokes. People associate a word to a positive connotation or negative connotation. Neutral connotation may also come. For example, the words *woman* and *chick* have the denotative meaning ‘adult female’, but the connotative meanings are different. The word *chick* may evoke a negative connotation, because it is considered offensive by many woman. The word *woman* mean any woman, it evokes no emotion, so it is neutral.

Semantic changes

Semantic change refers to any change in the meanings of a word over the course of time. Generally it occurs when words are borrowed from one language to another. Also changes of meanings are sometimes introduced due to the difference of environment. All such changes can be classified as follows:

1) Expansion of meaning (Generalization)

By expansion of meaning it is meant the widening of a word’s significance until it covers much more than the idea originally conveyed. This tendency is also

called generalization. For example, the word “lovely” originally means primarily worthy to be loved. Today, not only girl is lovely, but anything, chocolate can be lovely, a box or a father can be lovely. Similarly the word “great’ originally meant large in size, that is the opposite of “small”, but today anything can be great, such as a great class, great speech, a great season.

2) Contraction of meaning (Specialization)

This is the opposite tendency of expansion of meaning. Here a word acquires a restricted sense from a general sense. It is also known as specialization. This tendency can be seen in the word “doctor”. There were doctors in theology, law and in academic circles, but now it means a member of only one profession. The word “deer” meant animal of any kind till the 16th century but now it indicates only one particular species.

3) Transference of meaning

It happens when a secondary sense, due to association of ideas, attaches itself to a word and gradually that secondary sense comes to be regarded as primary. For example the word “heathen” was one who lived in the heath and hence comes to denote ‘he who is not aware of the teaching of Christianity’

4) Degeneration

It takes place in word meaning when a given word manifest an unhappy tendency to go the bad. Any particular meaning which a word might have completely lost here. For example the word “smug” was initially a good word, neat. Now it lost its meaning and is used in negative context. Degeneration is often a matter of bad mannerism or moral drawback that comes about in an individual or in society with the passage of time. The adjective “base” now implies moral unworthiness, but originally it meant ‘of humble birth’.

5) Elevation

Like degradation, elevation is a kind of specialization. The word “snob” was a slang in the 18th century, but in the 19th century the word was elevated to respectability. The word “luxury” was a word implying strong blame and also it was one of the seven deadly sins. Now the word is elevated.

Module 4

Syntax

Chapter 1 – Phrases, Clauses and Sentences

Syntax is one of the major components of grammar. It deals with the formal properties of languages. It can be defined as the arrangement of words in sentences, clauses, and phrases. In every language, certain rules govern the ways to form the clauses, phrases and sentences. These phrases and clauses have a closer relationship to each other in a sentence, which makes it meaningful. The word is originated from the Greek, meaning “arrange together”.

In a language, word order is important, its position and function determine the meaning. A mere arrangement of words do not make any sense. The changing of word position does not convey meaning. It is the systematic arrangement of these words that syntax deals with. For native speakers, it comes naturally.

The word class of English often follows a particular pattern that makes sentence grammatically and meaningfully correct. Different parts of speech function as per the rules that explains the functions and position of each one; where the subject occurs in a sentence, what follows the subject, the position of adverb, adjective and preposition, the nature of verb etc.

The structure of sentences

The structure of a sentence explains the way it is arranged. The sentence expresses a complete thought. It can be short, long and complicated with minimum requirements of elements that makes sentences simple or compound or complex one.

Simple sentence

A sentence that consists of a single independent clause is known as simple sentence. It is a meaningful sentence, usually has a subject and a verb. It ends with a full stop, and carries a complete idea.

Examples, he is a student,

She studies grammar.

I read a novel

Compound sentence

It is a sentence that consists of two independent clauses and these clauses are joined by coordinating conjunctions. In English, *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so* are some of the coordinating conjunctions.

Examples, she studies math, and her brother plays piano.

I prepared well for the test, but lost it

Complex sentence

A sentence that consists of a dependent clause and an independent clause is known as complex sentence. The independent and dependent clauses are connected by

subordinating conjunctions like *while, since, although, however, though, if, when, where, who, which* etc. the following sentences are complex:

My friends are surprised when I passed the exam (the independent clause here is *my friends are surprised* and it is a complete sentence, therefore, it can stand alone. *When I passed the exam* is an incomplete utterance, and it does not convey a sense. This is dependent clause)

Though I am not well, I attend the class.

Tomorrow I am going to Delhi where my parents are staying.

Since it is a serious pandemic, we are advised to take care.

Compound-Complex sentence

Here the sentence structure becomes complicated, as the term indicates. A compound-complex sentence consists of at least two independent clauses and at least one independent clause. It helps to express longer and complicated thoughts.

Example, I don't like snakes, because they are poisonous, so I kill them

The dog barks when it sees a stranger, so I go to check who it is.

Phrases and types of phrases

A phrase is a brief expression. It can be a word or group of words, but unlike a sentence, a phrase has no

combination of subject-predicate. Therefore it cannot stand as an independent unit like a sentence. It has a central element known as head. *Blue shirt* and *go quickly* are phrases, but these are not complete sentences. A phrase has several functions in a sentence and these functions are based on its structure. The following are some of the important types of phrases:

1) Noun Phrase

Here the noun or pronoun is the head word. It may begin with a determiner like *a*, *an* or *the*. A noun phrase functions like a subject of a sentence, or an object.

She wears *a blue sari* (object)

The teacher is smart (subject)

2) Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a unit that consists of a main verb and an auxiliary verb.

In the sentence, tomorrow *is going* to be a good day, 'is' is an auxiliary and 'going' is a main verb

3) Adjective Phrase

In adjective phrase, an adjective is the head of the phrase. It modifies a noun or a pronoun. In the sentence, *she has strong willpower*, the adjective *strong* describes the noun *willpower*.

He has a *threatening* voice

She has an *expensive* car.

4) Adverb Phrase

In an adverb phrase, the adverb is the head of the phrase. An adverb describes an adjective or a main verb or another adverb in a sentence.

She dances *beautifully* (the adverb *beautifully* modifies the verb)

He plays *extremely well* (the adverbs *extremely* and *well* modifies the verb)

She sings *very beautifully* (the adverb *very* modifies another adverb *beautifully*)

5) Prepositional Phrase

This phrase consists of a preposition. Prepositions connect the people, objects, time and locations of a sentence by expressing position and movement, possession and time.

Team India is leaving to play cricket in Australia (here 'to play' is the prepositional phrase)

Team India played well *on the final*.

6) Participle Phrase

In a participle phrase, the participle functions as an adjective.

Ruined by decaying, the house was collapsed. (Here the participle is *ruined* that describes the noun *house*)

Driving the car, he visits the spot.

Broken by the wind, the branches of the tree fell on the road

7) **Infinitive phrase**

This phrase consists of an infinitive. When the preposition 'to' is attached to a verb, it is no longer a preposition, rather it becomes 'to infinitive'. It usually serves as nouns.

To get a job is the dream of youngsters. (Here 'to get' is the infinitive)

To throw the waste becomes a habit of many

Clause and types of clauses

A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate. The clauses can be seen in compound and complex sentences. It can be a part of a sentence or a complete sentence. It consists of a main clause and a subordinate clause. Every sentence contains at least one main clause.

A main clause is a clause that is a complete utterance. Therefore a main clause can stand alone as an independent unit. It is complete, meaningful and it conveys a sense. A main verb usually has a subject and a verb. In the expression "he reads a novel", 'he' is the subject and 'reads' is the verb. This complete meaningful sentence is what we call the main clause.

A subordinate clause, on the other hand, is a clause that is dependent in nature. It cannot stand alone as a meaningful unit. It is incomplete and does not express a sense. When a subordinate clause is attached to a main verb, it then becomes meaningful. For example *though she is not well* is a subordinate clause, and we can assume that it is an incomplete utterance. When a main clause is added to it (though she is not well, she attends the exam) meaning is conveyed.

The following are the important clauses:

1) Adjective Clause

An adjective clause is a type of dependent clause, which usually begin with a relative pronouns, or relative adverbs such as *where, that, who, whom, which, when, why* etc. Though it contains a subject and verb, it cannot stand alone as a complete thought.

In the sentence, “the accident took place in the town, *where traffic blocks are common*”, the second part is the adjective clause.

The candidate, *who I voted in the election*, is our Mayor.

The house, *that I planned to buy*, is sold.

2) Noun clause

A noun clause is a dependent clause that takes the place of a noun. It may come at the subject or object position.

In the sentence, “*when I reached the class room*, the teacher had started the class”, the dependent clause is in the subject position.

My dog barks, *whenever it sees strangers*. (Here the dependent clause takes an object position)

3) Adverbial Clauses

A dependent clause that begins with an adverb is called adverbial clause.

When we heat the ice, it melts.

The man, *whom you wrote yesterday*, is my neighbor.

After the storm passed, we went outside

Chapter 2

Syntactic Models

Syntax is the grammatical structure of the text. In a sentence each word can be analyzed systematically. The words are classified as per the function they do in a sentence. It is possible to divide a word into smaller units. In English, we have sound units and meaning units.

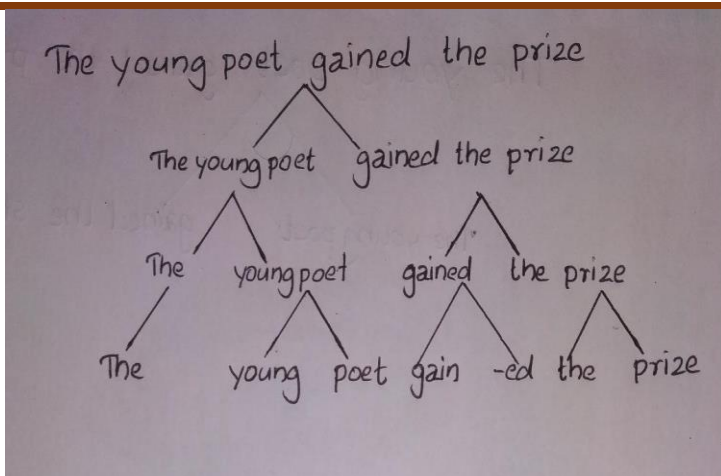
Syntactic analysis is a method. Through this process, the nature and the role of individual units can be recognized. By applying the rules of grammar the structure of a sentence can be understood. The modern linguists are more interested in analyzing the structure. Each language differs in structure, therefore they are analyzed in such a way. Some important syntactic analysis needs to be explained.

Immediate Constituent analysis

IC analysis is a method of analyzing sentence. It is essentially a tool to analyze the structure of sentences. The idea was first mentioned by Bloomfield, but it was elaborated and made highly formal by American structural linguists. The analysis begins at sentence level and is completed when it is arrived at constituents that are incapable of further division. Noam Chomsky made use of some of the principles of IC analysis to formulate his Phrase Structure rules.

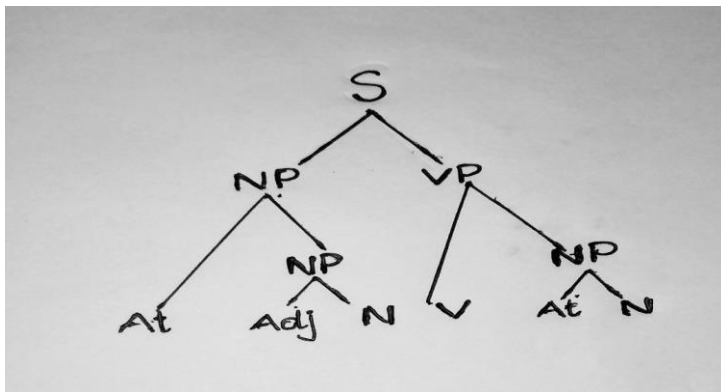
IC analysis is a systematic breaking up of sentences into meaningful units or constituents. A sentence is not a linear string of words rather it is a sequence arranged in a particular order. The division of a sentence ends until it reaches meaningful constituents. For it, different groupings are needed. Grouping together words and phrases is thus referred to as IC analysis.

In the sentence “the young poet gained the prize”, the first division would be between “the young poet” and “gained the prize”. The immediate constituents of “the young poet” are “the” and “young poet”. At the next level “young poet” can be further divided into “young” and “poet”. Similarly “gained the prize” can be divided. The end result of IC-analysis can be presented in a visual diagrammatic form that reveals the hierarchical immediate constituent structure of the sentence:



The tree diagram represent the IC analysis of the sentence “the young poet gained the prize”. The analysis begins with a binary cut. In each stage this binary division continues until it reach the end constituents.

The categoral labelling of the sentence “the young poet gained the prize” will be as followed:



(NP- Noun Phrase, VP- Verb Phrase, At- Article, Adj- Adjective, N- Noun, V- Verb)

Phrase Structure grammar

The breaking up of a sentence can be done in many ways. Sequential, hierarchical and transformational breaking up are possible. If a generative grammar makes use of a hierarchical breaking up, it is called phrase structure grammar. Here the system of phrase-structure rules is used to describe a sentence.

IC analysis techniques used by the structural linguists can be formalized in terms of phrase structure rules which determine how a phrase is formed and how the constituents are ordered. For example, a sentence that consists of a NP and VP can be represented as a rule.

$S \rightarrow NP+VP$

$NP \rightarrow Det+ N$

$VP \rightarrow V+NP$

A sentence consists of a noun phrase and verb phrase can be represented as $S \rightarrow NP+VP$. A noun phrase consists of a determiner and noun can be represented as $NP \rightarrow Det+N$. A verb phrase consists of a verb and noun phrase can be represented as $VP \rightarrow V+NP$. If there is no determiner preceding the noun, it is represented as $NP \rightarrow (Det) +N$.

By using the PS rules, different types of construction can be generated. The sentence “the cat is under the table”

can be rewritten using the PS rules. The first thing to be noted is what syntactic categories appear to exist in a given language, and what different internal structures each of these can have. Then, for each structure, we write a rule that displays that structure. It can be started with the initial symbol **S** and the rules can be applied one by one.

Stage one- S

Stage two - NP → VP

Stage three – NP → Det+N

Stage four – VP → V+PP

Stage five – PP → P+NP

Stage six – NP → Det+N

The arrow is read as “is written as” and the plus sign is read as “followed by”. Here S, NP, Det VP, V, N and PP are category symbols. Each stage has a sequence of symbols and it is called string. A string which cannot be further expanded is a terminal string. This rewritten rule can also be depicted in the form of a tree diagram.

Transformational Generative Grammar

The most widely discussed theory of TG grammar was proposed by Chomsky in his *Syntactic Structures* (1957). In this work he developed a concept of a generative grammar which contradicted earlier tenets of structuralism and the notions of behaviorism.

The earlier analysis was inadequate as they fail to take into account the difference between surface and deep level. The TG grammar analyses the structure of a sentence that helps to construct well-formed sentences.

Chomsky disapprove many notions of post-Blommfieldian structuralism. He argues that linguistics should set itself the more modest and more realistic goal of formulating criteria for evaluating alternative descriptions of a language. He drew a fundamental distinction between Competence (a person's knowledge of the rules of a language) and Performance (the actual usage of the language in real situation) and argues that linguistics should be concerned with the speaker's creative linguistic study of competence and not the actual utterances produced.

Chomsky rejected the notion that languages are unique. His proposals were intended to discover a mentalistic theory of language. Instead of focusing an individual language, Chomsky studies the nature of human language as a whole and claims that all languages were, to a considerable degree, cut to the same pattern, they shared a certain number of formal and substantive universals.

A mere analysis and classification could not explain the sentence, rather the linguists should construct a theory to explain the corpus of the sentence. The competence of the native speaker should be accounted.

A grammar should explicitly enumerate all the sentences of the language. A grammar of a language has to generate sentences by a set of rules and should assign

an appropriate structural descriptions to each. If the sentences of a language have different internal relationship, different structural descriptions are required. The capacity of a grammar to generate a proper structural description of sentences is called **strong generative capacity**. The capacity of a grammar to generate only sentences without considering the type of sentence and the nature of meaning is called **weak generative capacity**. To illustrate this point, consider the sentences “John is eager to please” and “John is easy to please”. Here the rule is $S \rightarrow NP + V + Adj + \text{Infinitive Phrase}$. Structurally this is the rule to represent both of the sentences and it can generate them as well. Thus, it has only weak generative capacity and does not have strong generative capacity because it does not account for the fact that John is understood as the subject of “please” in the first sentence and object of “please” in the second sentence.

Deep structure and Surface structure

Chomsky’s model of grammar makes use of transformational rules in order to relate the deep structure and surface structure. The surface structure is the outward form of a sentence, resulted from transformations. It refers to the sentence that can be spoken and heard which determines its phonetic form. Surface structures are derived from deep structures by a series of transformations.

Deep structures are generated by phrases structure rules. It refers to concepts, thoughts and feelings. It is the underlying syntactic structure of a

sentence. The deep structure of “the boy wrote a letter” and “a letter was written by the boy” is same, as the two represent the same concept. The sentence “the love of God” has two different deep structures, it can be “someone loves God” or “God loves someone”. The deep structure of a sentence can be described using PS rules ($S \rightarrow N+VP$, $VP \rightarrow V+NP$, $NP \rightarrow Det+N$) or can be represented by a tree diagram.

Kernel Sentence

Kernel sentences are basic sentences of a language. The concept of the kernel sentence was introduced by linguist Z.S. Harris. In transformational grammar it is a simple declarative sentence which consists of only one verb. A kernel sentence is always active rather than passive, positive rather than negative sentence and affirmative. The presence of adjective, gerund and to infinitive do not make a sentence kernel.

The sentence “she reads a novel” is kernel, and “she does not read” is non-kernel. “A novel is read by her is also non-kernel”

Only simple sentences can be kernel from which the other types of sentences are developed. The sentence “it is a black board” consists of two kernel sentences; “it is a board” and “the board is black”

Chomsky views that in order to understand a sentence it is necessary to know the kernel sentences from which it originates and the phrase structure of each of the kernel sentences.

Obligatory and optional transformation are two types of transformations. Kernel sentences are generated without the application of any optional transformation. However, non-kernel sentences require the application of both optional and obligatory transformations. Optional transformations take the structure of kernels as input. A sentence, which can be transferred to affirmative sentence, negative, passive and interrogative sentence shows the optional transformation of the sentence. The sentence “he reads a novel” can be transformed to a) “he does not read a novel”, b) “does he read a novel?” c) “what does he read?” d) “a novel is read by him”.

Let us consider the sentence “a novel is read by him”. It is a transformational operation, from an active sentence to passive sentence. In **passivation**, the direct object of an active sentence can become the subject of a passive sentence. When an active sentence is transformed to passive sentence, the latter contains a form of be and a past participle. For example the active sentence “he will attend the exam” (NP1-Aux-V-NP2) will become “the exam will be attended” (NP2-Aux+be+en-V-by+NP1)

The question form of a sentence can be formed from a declarative sentence. The sentence “he was punished” can be an interrogative “why was he punished”. On applying **interrogative transformation** rules, we get $S \rightarrow Adv + Aux + NP + V$.

Do support is another transformation to form questions and negated clauses. The declarative sentence “they play football” can be transformed into an

interrogative sentence by applying the do support rule, and it becomes “do they football?” and the **negation** of which is “they don’t play football”.

Transformational grammar does not convert one sentence into another. The transformational rules operate upon the structures underlying sentences and not upon actual sentences. Different types of sentences such as active, passive, declarative, negative, interrogative sentences are formally related by deriving them from the same underlying terminal string of the phrase-structure component. These rules help to analyze the structures of sentences, and the problem of semantic relationship between words in a sentence may confront. There must be a considerable degree of interdependence between syntax and semantics.
