STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH – I

MA English - I Semester -   Paper-I

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M.A (English) :   **STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH – I**

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FOREWORD

Since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining 'A' grade from the NAAC in the year 2016, Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 443 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.

The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education in2003-04 with the aim of taking higher education to the door step of all the sectors of the society. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even to housewives desirous of pursuing higher studies. Acharya Nagarjuna Universityhas started offering B.A., and B.Com courses at the Degree level and M.A., M.Com., M.Sc., M.B.A., and L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2003-2004 onwards.

To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers involved respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.

It is my aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn be part of country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Academic Coordinators, Editors and Lesson- writers of the Centre who have helped in these endeavours.

Prof. P. Raja Sekhar
Vice-Chancellor
Acharya Nagarjuna University

STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH – I
SYLLABUS

UNIT- I : PHONETICS & PHONOLOGY
International Phonetic Alphabet, Phonemic symbols for English sounds, Phonetic transcription

UNIT-II : PHONETICS & PHONOLOGY
1. T. Balsubramaniam.1981. A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students. Macmillan.
2. Daniel Jones. English Pronouncing Dictionary.15th edition.CUP. The following topics:
(i) The Organs of Speech
(ii) Classification of Speech Sounds English – Vowels & Consonants
(iii) Consonant Clusters

UNIT – III: PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY
 (i) The Syllable
(ii) Word- Accent
(iii) Accent & Rhythm in Connected Speech
(iv) Intonation

UNIT – IV : INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
1. David Crystal.1990. Linguistics. Penguin.
2. George Yule.1996. The Study of Language. IInd edition, CUP.
The following topics:
(i) Human Language and animal communication
(ii) Definition & Scope of Linguistics
(iii) Branches of Linguistics & Applied Linguistics
(iv) Traditional Approaches to language study.

UNIT – V: INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
The following topics:
(i) Basic assumptions of Modern linguistics
(ii) Language Varieties: Dialect, Idiolect, Register and Style.
(iii) Notions of Correctness & Acceptability.

SUGGESTED READINGS:
1. J. Sethi and P V Dhamija . *A Course in Phonetics and Spoken English.* Prentice Hall of India, 1992.
2. J D 'O' Connor. *Better English Pronunciation.* CUP, 1980.
3. John Lyons. *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics.* CUP, 1968.
4. S. Pit Corder. *Introducing Applied Linguistics.* Penguin, 1973.
5. A. S. Hornby. *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English.* 3rd ed. New Delhi: OUP, 1981.

STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH-I
CONTENT

LESSON - 1

ORGANS OF SPEECH

1.0   Objectives of the lesson

After going through this unit you will

- Know different speech organs
- Understand the process of forming speech sounds
- Use places of articulation for different English speech sounds
- Differentiate between voiced and voiceless state of glottis

Structure of the Lesson

1.0 Objectives of the lesson
1.1 Introduction
1.2 Respiratory system
1.3 Articulatory system
1.4 Phonatory System
1.5 Summary
1.6 Comprehension Check Questions
1.7 References

Expansion of the Structure

1.1 Introduction:

The human organs that we use for the production of speech sounds are called organs of speech. Mouth, nose, larynx and lungs, apart from their primary function of eating and breathing are involved in producing speech sounds. The human speech organs are divided into three broad systems.

   a. Respiratory system

   b. Articultaory system

   c. Phonatory system

1.2   Respiratory system

   It comprises lungs, chest, walls of lungs that are involved in inhaling the air and exhaling it. They play vital role as the air that is inhaled and exhaled (breathed in and breathed out) is shaped into sounds, more specifically speech sounds, by the organs of mouth. So lung air is the basis for most of the speech sounds in many languages, though the air in pharynx and glottis also forms the basis. The lung air stream which is used in the production of many of speech sounds is called Pulmonic air stream. It's called pulmonic as +it's connected with lungs.ThePulmonic air that is exhaled forms the basis for all of the speech sounds of English and it is called Pulmonic eggressive air stream. So the lung air that we breathe out is technically termed as pulmonic eggressive air stream and is used in the production of most of the speech sounds of the world languages.
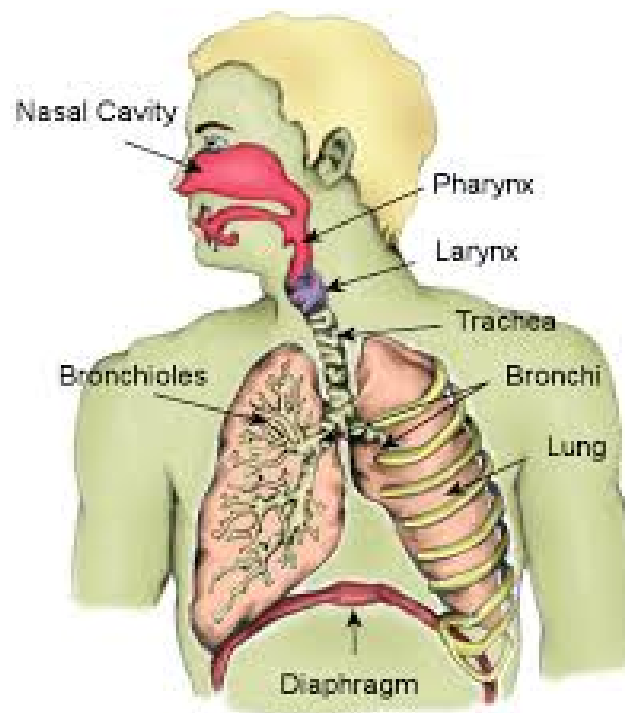
http://www.teachpe.com/anatomy/respiratory_system.php

The above picture shows the respiratory system and the organs of the chest involved in the production of required air stream and here it is pulmonic eggressive air stream.

1.3 Articulatory System

It consists of lips, tongue and roof of the mouth.

Lower lip, upper lip, different parts of tongue such as tip/blade of the tongue; front, centre and back of the tongue, teeth, teeth ridge, hard and soft palate are involved in shaping air into speech sounds.

All the above articulators are divided into two groups as active articulators and passive articulators. Active articulators are those organs which are capable of movement and/or move towards the other organ which is stationary. The passive articulators are the organs in the mouth which are generally stationary.

The picture below shows you the different organs that are mentioned here.

http://www-01.sil.org/mexico/ling/glosario/e005bi-organsart.htm
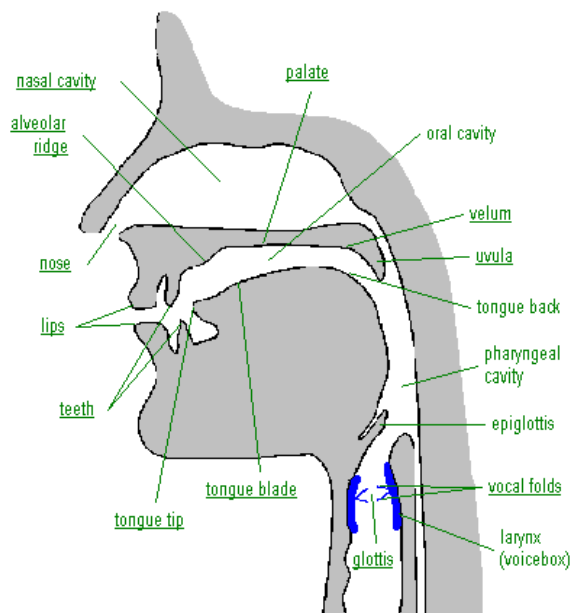
1. Active articulators

Lower Lip, tip/blade of tongue, front centre and back of tongue.

2.Passive articulators

Upper Lip, Upper teeth ,alveolar/Teeth ridge, hard and soft palate.(Soft plate and upper lip are capable of movement but in shaping sounds they remain stationary. So they are called Passive Articulators.)

A detailed study of the above organs and the names of types of sounds produced with the help of these organs follows here. English speech sounds that are produced at these places are provided as examples.

3 List of sounds with their place of articulation

Place of articulation	Active articulator Passive articulator	Example of English Sound
bilabial	Lower lip Upper lip	/p/,/b/,/m/
Labio dental	Lower lip Upper front teeth	/f//v/
dental	Tip of the tongue Upper front teeth	/Ө/,/ð/
alveolar	Tip of the tongue Teeth/alveolar ridge	/t/,/d/,/n/,/s/,/z/,/l/
Post alveolar	Tip of the tongue Place behind teeth ridge	/r/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/
palatal	Front of the tongue Hard palate	/j/,

Palato alveolar	Tip of the tongue Alveolar ridge Front of the tongue Hard palate	/ʧ/, /ʤ/
velar	Back of the tongue Soft palate/velum	/k/,/g/,/ŋ/
glottal	Two vocal cords	/h/

http://www.ello.uos.de/field.php/PhoneticsandPhonology/PlaceOfArticulation
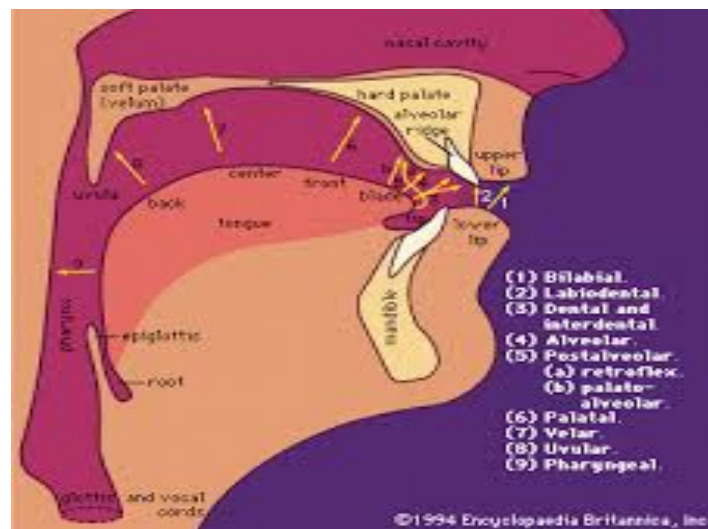
1.4.Phonatory System

It consists of Larynx in which is placed wind pipe.Wind pipe plays a role in determining sound quality. Wind pipe or trachea carries wind to lungs.In this pipe two thin Cords,string/ thread like structures are placed horizontally. These thread like cords are connected at the front and open at the back.They are wide open while breathing and wind travels to the lungs through this wide opening.

Anatomy of the Larynx

Tongue

Epiglottis
Supraglottis
Vocal cord — Larynx
Glottis
Subglottis

Esophagus
Trachea

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http://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popImage.aspx
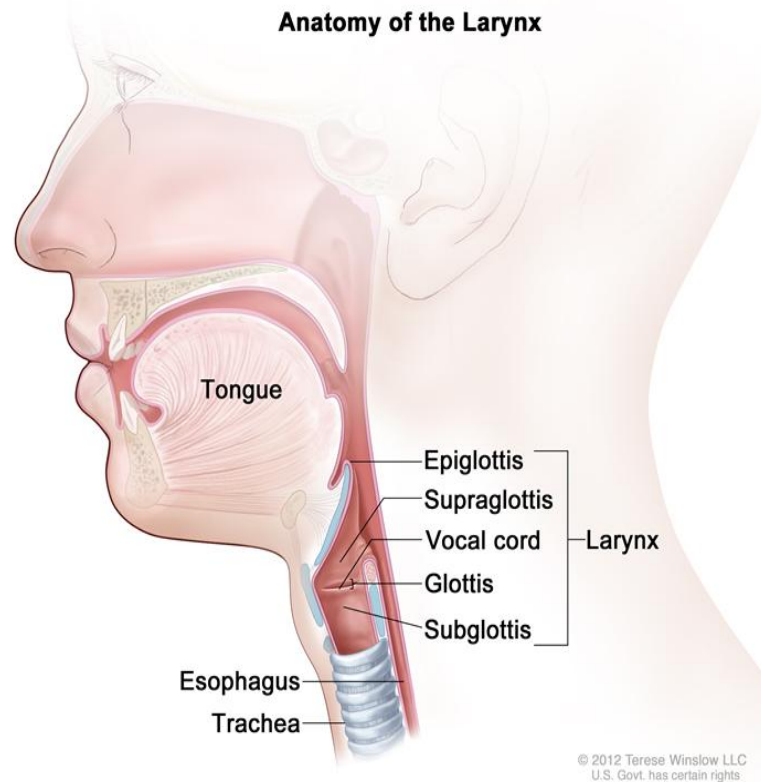
During the production of speech sounds the vocal cords are in two different conditions.

While producing some sounds the vocal cords are open.Sounds produced in this condition are voiceless sounds.It can be ascertained that they are voiceless by placing your finger on the Larynx (Which is described Adams apple).If no vibration is felt they are voiceless sounds.

During the production of some speech sounds Vocal cords are held loosely together and thus are closely together. They beat very rapidly.This vibration can be felt with one's finger on the Larynx.

Vocal cords are tightly shut while food is taken.

BACK

RIGHT

Arytenoid Cartilage

LEFT

True Vocal Folds
False Vocal Folds
Epiglottis

FRONT

BACK

FRONT

http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/courses/spsci/iss/week4.php
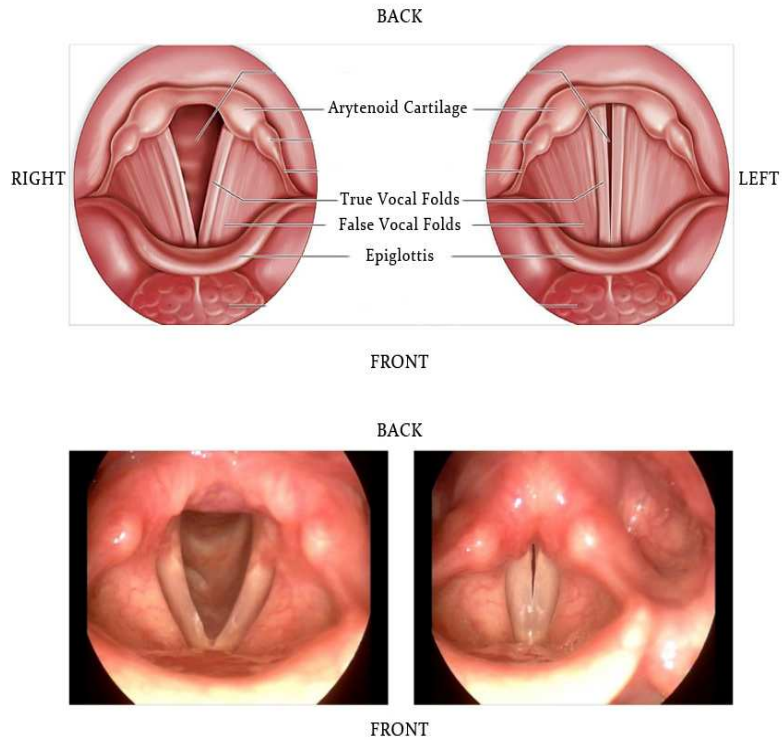
1.5 Summing up

In this unit you came to know about various organs of speech and how they shape up speech sounds. You also got to identify places where all English speech sounds are produced and finally understand the state of vocal cords and glottis during the production of different sounds and normal breathing.

1.6 Comprehension Check Questions

1. What role do the lungs play in producing speech sounds?

2. What is pulmonic eggressive air stream mechanism?

3. What is the difference between active and passive articulators?

4. List various places of articulation in the production of English Consonants.

5. Where are the vocal cords situated and what is the opening between vocal cords called?

6. Describe the state of vocal cords during the production of voiced sounds.

1.7 References

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian students*

Ladefoged, Peter. *A course in Phonetics*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

1.7.1 Additional resources for learning(online youtube videos)

a.) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jF9qTJD25Ig (organs of speech and production of consonants) by JurgenHandke

b)http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BBhrpu-3fIE (Consonants part 1) by Billie Hasse

c)   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=16zZrHsb_z0 (consonants part 2) by Billie Hasse

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LESSON: 2

SOUNDS OF ENGLISH-CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH

Objectives:

By the end of this lesson you will know

- different categories of consonants
- why these consonants are categorized so
- phonemic symbols for the consonants

Structure of the Lesson

2.1 Plosives

2.2 Affricates

2.3 Fricatives

2.4 Nasals

2.5 Approximants/ semi vowels

2.6 Summary

2.7 References

2.8 Comprehension Check Exercise

Expansion of the structure:

2.1 Plosives:

There are six plosives in English sound system. These are called plosives because they are produced with a manner of articulation where both the articulators are in firm contact with each other and are released suddenly with an exploding noise. The following table lists the six plosives in their phonemic symbols and the corresponding spelling.

sound	Spelling combination	Example
/p/	p, pp	pan, apply, camp
/b/	b, bb	book, able, tub
/t/	t, tt	train, matter, cart
/d/	d, dd	doll, medal, lord
/k/	K, c, ch, cc	cane, market, park
/g/	g,gg,	girl, beggar, blog

2.2 Affricates:

English sound system has two affricates. When you pronounce these following two affricates the articulators are in firm contact with each other but when they are separated they are released slowly causing friction during the second phase. The first phase i.e., the closing phase is like that of plosive and the second phase i.e., the release phase is like that of fricative. The following are the phonemic symbols of affricates and the corresponding spelling.

sound	Spelling combination	Example
/ʧ/	Ch,	chair, purchase, munch
/ʤ/	J,g	jail, danger, lodge

2.3 Fricatives:

You have nine fricatives in the English sound system. When you pronounce these fricatives there's audible friction or noise and so they are called fricatives. While pronouncing these fricatives you will observe that both the articulators are very close to each other leaving a narrow gap between them and so the air escapes through this narrow gap causing friction between the articulators. Following are the phonemic symbols of fricatives along with corresponding spelling.

sound	Spelling combination	Example
/f/	Ph,gh,f,ff	photo, offer, tough
/v/	V	van, avail, curve
/Ɵ/	Th	thank, monthly, path
/ð/	Th	these, other, breathe
/s/	S,c,ss,sc	simple, master, cinema pass,science
/z/	Z,s,	zoo, puzzle, buzz
/ʃ/	Ss,sh,	sharp, machine, assure, mash
/ʒ/	Ss,	pleasure, treasure, rouge (does not occur in word initial position)
/h/	H	hunt, behave, (does not occur in word final position)

2.4 Nasals:

The three nasal sounds listed below are called so because they are produced through the nose. The air that we breathe out comes out of the nose while there is a complete closure somewhere in the mouth. While producing these nasals try blocking your nose and produce the sound, you will notice that you cannot. The reason is the air that is going out through the nose is shaped into a sound and so the nasal blocking stops the sound from being produced. The table shows the phonemic symbols.

sound	Spelling combination	Example
/m/	M,mm	man, common, calm

| /n/ | N,nn | net, any, run, winner |
| /ŋ/ | ng | hanger, ring (does not occur in word initial position) |

2.5. Approximants/ Semivowels:

These sounds are called approximants because the articulators, during the production of these sounds, come towards each other leaving a gap which is wide enough for the lung air to go out without any obstruction or constriction. This is the reason they are called semi vowels by some phoneticians as they are produced in the way more like that of vowels. The first approximant listed here needs a special mention as it is a lateral approximant. During the pronunciation of this sound there is complete closure in the centre of the mouth at the alveolar ridge or teeth ridge while the air goes out smoothly along the sides of the tongue. The table lists the phonemic symbols.

sound	**Spelling combination**	**Example**
/l/ as in	L,ll	learn, culture, level, well
/j/	Y,u	young, community, (does not occur in word final position)
/r/	R,rr	red, worry, order (word final /r/ is optional. Its pronounced only before vowels)
/w/	Ui,ue, w,	Quiet, water, queen (does not occur in word final) position)

2.6 Summary

You have learnt that there are 24 consonant sounds broadly categorized under various labels based upon the way in which they are produced. You also know the phonemic symbols as per the IPA and the corresponding spelling.

2.7 Reference:

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Additional sources:

The above sounds can be listened to and practiced with the help of the following link

http://youtu.be/0HeujZ45OZE
The symbols can also be referred to at the following link

https://tampincluster.wikispaces.com/file/view/PhoneticAlphabetReference.pdf/290813079/PhoneticAlphabetReference.pdf

2.8 Comprehension Check Exercise:

Practice Exercise- Consonants

Write the phonemic symbol for the given sound shown in spelling which is bold underlined. Please remember that the phonemic symbol has to be put in *slant lines*.

S.no	Word in spelling	Phonemic symbol
Example	**c**ascade	/k/
Example	ma**ch**ine	/ʃ/
1	Mon**th**	
2	or**ph**an	
3	gar**b**age	
4	co**mm**on	
5	**t**ailor	
6	bet**w**een	
7	coura**ge**	
8	pre**ss**ure	
9	com**p**ile	
10	car**v**e	
11	o**cc**asion	
12	b**r**ave	
13	a**dd**ress	
14	par**c**el	
15	u**su**al	
16	ba**gg**age	
17	bo**th**er	
18	si**n**ger	
19	lea**se**	
20	be**h**ind	
21	man**u**al	
22	pi**ll**ar	
23	i**nn**er	
24	pur**ch**ase	

LESSON 3

CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH SOUNDS: CONSONANTS

Objectives:

By the end of this lesson you will

- Differentiate between Vowels and Consonants
- Define consonant sounds
- Know the air stream mechanism used in the production of English speech sounds.
- Know the role of velum/soft palate in determining oral and nasal sounds.
- Understand the way in which the air is modified into different consonant sounds.
- Differentiate between voiced and voiceless state of glottis

Structure of the Lesson

3.1 Introduction

3.2 What are vowel sounds and consonant sounds?

3.3 Description of speech sounds- consonants

3.4 Summary

3.5 Comprehension Check Questions

3.6 References

Expansion of the structure:

3.1 Introduction:

The air that we breathe out is shaped into speech sounds by various organs in the mouth. These speech sounds are categorized into broad groups like consonants and vowels; orals and nasals.

3.2 What are vowel sounds and consonant sounds?

Say the word **'arm'** loud and observe the first sound **/a:/** represented by the letter "a". Now say the word **"seat"** and observe the sounds **/i:/** represented by the letters "ea". Say these two sounds **/a:/** and **/i:/** continuously. You will notice that there is wide enough opening in the mouth for the air to pass freely. There is enough gap between the articulators to allow the air to pass continuously. There is no narrowing or contact between the articulators. Such sounds during the production of which the air passes through the mouth freely and continuously without any friction are called **Vowel Sounds.**

Say the word '**pack'** and observe the sounds /**p**/ and /**k**/ represented by the letters 'p' and 'ck' respectively. You notice that the air is stopped behind lips for some time and then allowed to come out suddenly when /**p**/ is said. Similarly air is held in the back of the mouth for some time and released suddenly when /**k**/ is pronounced.

Now say the word '**mass'** and observe the pronunciation of the sounds /**m**/ and /**s**/ represented by the letters 'm' and 'ss' respectively. When /**m**/ is said continuously the air goes out through the nose because there is a closure in the mouth. When the sound /**s**/ is pronounced you notice that both the articulators are very close to each other and so the air goes out through the narrow opening making audible noise.

So from the above examples it is understood that during the production of these sounds, consonants, the air does not flow freely and continuously and there are obstructions, closures and narrowing or constrictions in the mouth.

3.3. Description of Speech Sounds: Consonants:

Factors that describe consonants:
- Air stream
- State of glottis
- Position of the soft palate
- Articulators
- Stricture.

1. Air Stream Mechanism:

'Moving current of air' is air stream. Say the sounds /**a:/,/i:/,/s/ and/f**/ continuously and observe that when you put your palm in front of your mouth you will feel warm air that comes out of mouth. Similarly say the sounds /**m/,/n**/ and put your palm in front of your nostrils to feel warm air. These two observations tell that the lung air we breathe out is shaped into these speech sounds. This lung air that we breathe out is expiratory lung air and it is also called Pulmonic (means connected with lungs) egressive air stream .All the speech sounds of English are produced with pulmonic egressive air stream.

2. State of Glottis:

As has already been discussed in the first unit, glottis, the opening between the two Vocal cords, determines whether   the sounds produced are voiced or voiceless.

Vocal cords are far away from each other and thus the glottis is open. Sounds produced in this state of glottis are voiceless sounds. Some voiceless sounds are /**p**/ /**t**/ /**k**/ /**f**/ /**Ø**/ **etc.**

Vocal cords come close to each other and are held loosely together leaving a narrow gap between them. So the air passes through this narrow opening with pressure causing vibration in them. Sounds produced in this state are voiced sounds**./b**/ /**d**/ /**g**/ /**v**/ /**m**/ /**n**/ are some examples.

3. Position of soft palate:

Soft palate or velum is at the back of the roof the mouth as shown in this picture below.
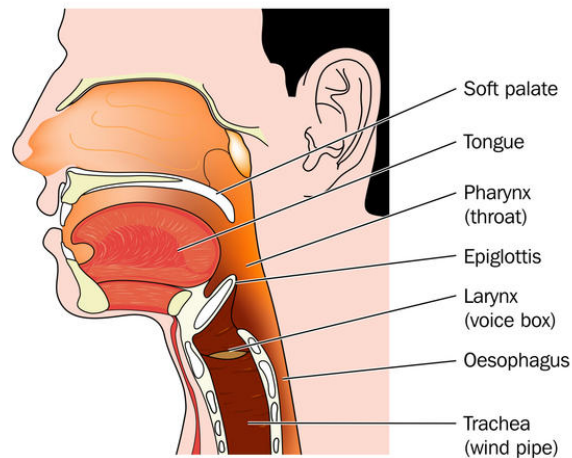
Source of the picture
https://edc2.healthtap.com/htstaging/user_answer/reference_image/11457/large/soft_palate.jpeg?1386671216

a) Oral sounds:

This velum can move up and down at the pharynx. When the velum moves up it touches the back wall of the pharynx as in the picture. The air from the lungs cannot enter the nasal cavity. This state of velum is called velic closure as the velum is raised by moving up closing the passage of air through nasal cavity. As the air passes only through the mouth in this state the sounds produced are called oral sounds /**a**/ /**u**/ /**s**/ /**h**/
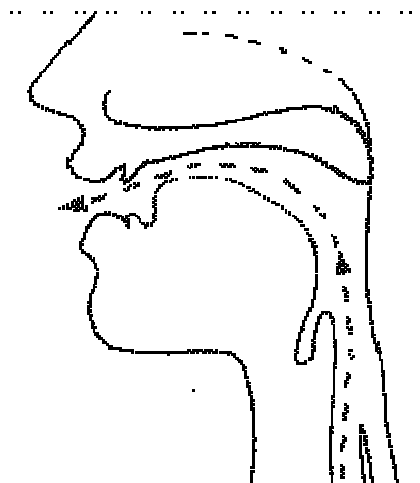
Oral

1a. cat

2a. bat

3a. sag

b). Nasal sounds:

The velum moves down and the air can pass through the nasal cavity. The moving down of the velum is called lowering of velum or velic opening. In this state there is a closure somewhere in the oral tract i.e. mouth and the air goes out through the nose and so the sounds produced thus are nasal sounds**./m//n// ŋ/**
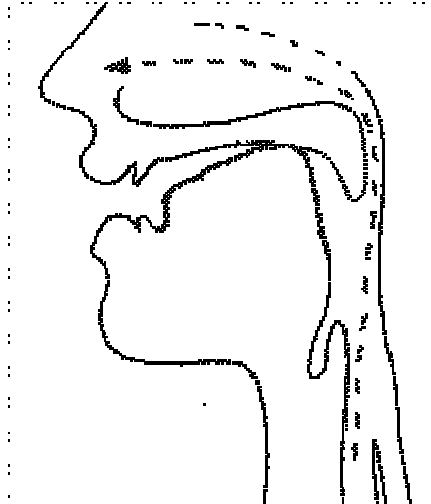
Nasal

1b. can

2b. mat

3b. sang

Source of the above two pictures

http://emedia.leeward.hawaii.edu/hurley/Ling102web/mod3_speaking/3mod3.2_vocalorgans.htm

4. Articulators:

The active and passive articulators are already discussed in detail in the previous unit. The active and passive articulators involved in the production of every individual sound decide the place of the articulation of every individual sound and this was presented in detail in the previous unit. In describing a consonant sound, place of articulation plays a very important role.

5. Stricture:

Say the sounds **/p/** as in **pale** and **/f/** as in **fail** and notice that these two consonants are produced in a different manner. When **/p/** is said air is released suddenly which can be felt with your palm in front of your mouth. When **/f/** is said air is released noisily and continuously. The way in which the air is modified into speech sounds is called stricture.

a) Complete closure and sudden release:

Both the active and passive articulators in the mouth are in firm contact with each other. Velum is raised and so touches the back wall of pharynx and closes the nasal passage of air. Both the oral and nasal passages of air are closed temporarily and so it is a complete closure. The active articulator is suddenly removed from the passive articulator and the air comes out of the mouth with exploding noise. Sounds pronounced in this manner are called plosives. **/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/**

b) Complete closure and slow release:

Both the articulators in the mouth are in firm contact with each other. Soft palate or velum is raised and so the nasal passage of air is closed. The active articulator is removed from the passive articulator slowly and so the air passes through with friction. Sounds produced in this manner are called affricates**. /ʧ/ ,/ʤ/**

c) Complete Oral Closure:

Both the articulators in the mouth are in firm contact with each other. Soft palate is lowered and the nasal passage of air is open to allow the passage of the air from lungs into the open atmosphere. Sounds produced in this manner are called nasals. /**m/, /n/, /ŋ/.**

d). Close Approximation:

Soft palate is raised and the nasal passage of air is blocked. The active articulator is so close to the passive articulator that the air passes through the narrow gap between them noisily with friction. Sounds produced in this manner are called fricatives**./f/,/v/, /Ø/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/**

e). Open Approximation:

The active articulator is brought towards the passive articulator in such a way that there is a wide gap between them. Air passes freely. Nasal passage of air is closed. Sounds produced in this manner are called frictionless continuants or semi –vowels or approximants. **/j/, /r/, /w/**

f). Partial closure:

The articulators are in firm contact with each other in the centre of the mouth. But the sides of the tongue are lowered and the air is allowed to pass through the sides of the mouth freely. The soft palate is raised and the nasal passage of the air is closed. Sounds produced in this manner are called laterals. **/l/**

g). Intermittent closure:

In this stricture the active articulator strikes at the passive articulator a number of times continuously. The air from the lungs escapes through the articulators with gaps (intermittently). Sounds that are pronounced in this manner are called rolled sounds. English language does not have trills but the Scottish English uses trills such as in their pronunciation of /**r/.**

h). Quick closure and release:

In this stricture the active articulator strikes at the passive articulator once and withdraws itself quickly. Sounds produced in this manner are called taps or flaps. The southern British English uses flap or tap in the pronunciation of **/r/** when it occurs between two vowels as in words like very or marry. The symbol of this flap is **/ɾ /**

6. Three term labels for describing consonants

The above discussion has shown that to describe a consonant sound six parameters are considered. Let us take the consonant sound /**z**/ and state all the six parameters.

Air stream---- Pulmonic egressive

State of glottis--- vocal cords vibrate (put the finger on Adams apple and say the sound to feel vibration) and so voiced.

State of soft palate---- soft palate is raised closing the nasal passage of air. Air goes out of mouth. So it's an oral sound.

Active articulator----tip/ blade of the tongue

Passive articulator--- alveolar/ teeth ridge

Stricture---- close approximation. So it's a fricative.

The three term label for /**z**/ **is voiced alveolar fricative**. Among the six parameters only those three which contribute to distinguish each sound are considered. The parameters that distinguish the sound from the others are state of glottis, articulators and stricture.

Note: Find the table showing three term labels for the English consonants at the end of the unit in annexure 1

3.4 Summing up:

In this unit you came to know the air stream that is used for the production of English speech sounds. You also understood the state of glottis and soft palate during the production of various consonants. You have understood the manner in which different consonants are produced and how a three term label defines each consonant.

3.5. Comprehension Check Questions:

1. Which air stream is used for the production of English speech sounds?

2. Describe the state of vocal cords during the production of voiceless consonants.

3. What is the position of soft palate during the production of oral sounds?

4. What is the stricture for fricatives? Illustrate the manner.

5. List six parameters for the sounds /b/, /m/, /f/ and /j/ as shown in point no 6 in.3.3.

3.6. References:

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian students*

Ladefoged, Peter. *A course in Phonetics*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Additional resources for learning (online YouTube videos)

a) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rJmvw8VeiXo
b)https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=luYZnqmjWaI&list=PL3TSJFAg2uhgA7jYnBEw3Vjodr mr1bip1

c)https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jkVyVB8K8Xs

ANNEXURE 1
Table showing three term labels of consonants of English

S.No	Phonemic symbol	Three term label
1	/p/	Voiceless bilabial plosive
2	/b/	Voiced bilabial plosive
3	/t/	Voiceless alveolar plosive
4	/d/	Voiced alveolar plosive
5	/k/	Voiceless velar plosive
6	/g/	Voiced velar plosive
7	/ʧ/	Voiceless palato- alveolar fricative
8	/dʒ/	Voiced palato- alveolar fricative
9	/f/	Voiceless labio- dental fricative
10	/v/	Voiced labio- dental fricative
11	/Ø/	Voiceless dental fricative
12	/ð/	Voiced dental fricative
13	/s/	Voiceless alveolar fricative
14	/z/	Voiced alveolar fricative
15	/ʃ/	Voiceless palato- alveolar fricative
16	/ʒ/	Voiced palate alveolar fricative
17	/h/	Voiced glottal fricative
18	/m/	Voiced bilabial nasal
19	/n/	Voiced alveolar nasal
20	/ŋ/	Voiced velar nasal
21	/l/	Voiced alveolar lateral
22	/r/	Voiced post alveolar approximant
23	/j/	Voiced palatal approximant
24	/w/	Voiced labio -velar approximant

LESSON 4

CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH SOUNDS: VOWELS

Objectives:

By the end of this lesson you will

- Define vowel sounds
- Know the primary cardinal and secondary cardinal vowels
- Understand vowel diagram
- Describe vowels of English with the help of vowel diagram

Structure of the lesson

4.1 What is a vowel sound?

4.2 Describing a vowel

4.3 Cardinal vowels

4.4 Vowels of English

4.5 Summary

4.6 Comprehension Check Questions

4.7 References

4.8 Appendix II -Primary and Secondary Cardinal Vowels

4.1 What is a vowel sound?

Vowel sounds have already been differentiated from consonant sounds in the previous lesson. Let's recall what distinguishes them from consonant sounds. Observe the pronunciation of the sound /**i:**/ represented by 'ea' or 'ee' as in **'easy'** and **'bee'** or the sound /**u**/ as in '**pull**' or the sound /**a:**/ as in **'art'**. It can be well noticed that during the production of these sounds air passes out through the mouth freely and also continuously. So such sounds during the production of which the air passes out through the mouth freely (as there is no narrowing in the mouth) and continuously (as there is no obstruction in the mouth) are called Vowels. All the vowels are voiced and this can be identified with placing one's finger on one's larynx (Adam's apple) and observing the vibration.

4.2 Describing a vowel:

For the production of vowels, organs in the mouth are used as they are also used for the production of consonants. The tongue and roof of the mouth are the organs that are involved in the production of vowels. Front, centre and back of the tongue are the active articulators while

hard palate; centre of the roof of the mouth; and soft palate are passive articulators. Three criteria are considered for describing a vowel. They are,

- part of the tongue
- height of the tongue
- Position of the lips.

Let's consider each one of the above in detail.

1. Part of the tongue:

Vowels could be produced anywhere between the front and back of the tongue. Depending upon the part of the tongue that is used for articulating the vowel the vowels are described as front, central or back vowels.

2. Height of the tongue:

Secondly ,the height to which the tongue is raised while producing the vowel is also taken into consideration. For instance when we say the word 'seat' and observe the sound /**i:**/ we notice that the tongue is very close to the roof of the mouth. However there is enough gap between the tongue and roof of the mouth that the air passes freely and continuously making the produced sound a vowel. Similarly /**a:**/ as in the word 'large' also is produced with the tongue being far away from the roof of the mouth. If these two tongue positions are considered in terms of height to which the tongue is either lowered or raised, it can be understood that if the tongue is raised further then it becomes too close to the roof resulting in friction and thus making the produced sound a consonant. The tongue cannot be physiologically lowered further than in /a:/ and even if forced the sound becomes a pharyngeal consonant. So the height of the tongue is an important factor and for reference sake the height to which the tongue can be taken is shown in four marked positions, which are reference points for the description of the vowels in terms of height. These marked height positions are open, half-open; half-close and close. Open position is the lowest possible position to which the tongue can be lowered without making the sound a consonant and the close position is the highest point beyond which if the tongue is taken the sounds produced will become consonants.

3 Position of the lips:

Lastly, the position of the lips plays an important role in describing the vowel. Lips are spread during the production of vowels like /**i**/ as in 'sin', /**i:**/ as in 'clean' / **æ** / as in 'bat', and they are rounded when /**u**/ as in 'good' /**u:**/ 'fool', /**ɒ** /as in 'call' and /**ɔ:** / as in 'august '.are produced.

A vowel quadrilateral is used to mark the vowel position and describe it. Let's draw one here.
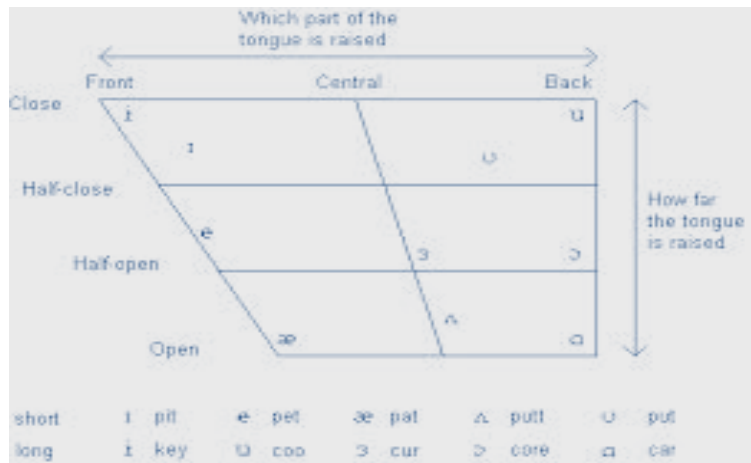
The horizontal line of the diagram shows the part of the tongue i.e., front, central or back and the vertical line shows the height points to which the tongue can be lowered or raised. Some of the English vowels are marked in the picture. However a detailed picture of the 12 English pure vowels shall be discussed in the ensuing part of the lesson.

4.3 Cardinal Vowels:

The vowel quadrilateral above shows us some fixed points like open, half-open, close, half-close, front, back and central for the production of vowels. The International Phonetic Association has proposed the idea of marking vowels at these points as convenient reference points and termed them cardinal vowels. These are theoretical reference points using which vowels that exist in various languages are described. These cardinal vowels do not exist in any particular language. There are eight cardinal vowels of which the first five are rounded and the rest three are unrounded. These are called primary cardinal vowels. The secondary cardinal vowels are produced in the same place but the lip position is reverse. Among these secondary cardinal vowels first five are unrounded and the rest of the three are rounded. The following diagram shows them.

The Primary Cardinal Vowels
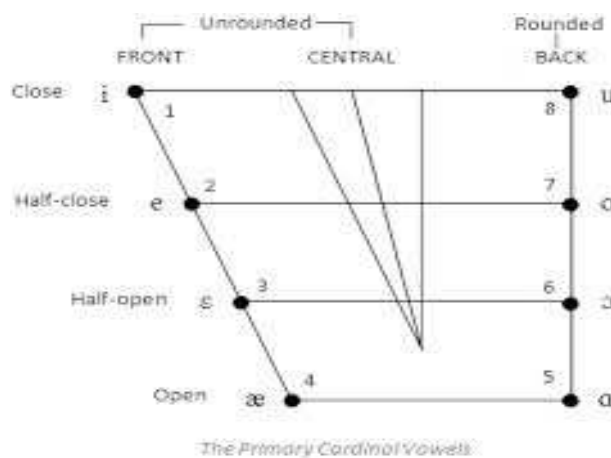
A list of primary cardinal vowels and secondary cardinal vowels is provided in the appendix 1.

Source of the diagram.http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/courses/spsci/iss/week5.php

4.4 vowels of English:

Vowels of English are broadly categorized into pure vowels (monophthongs) and diphthongs. English sound system has 12 pure vowels and 8 diphthongs. The following sections shall discuss in detail these vowels.

1. Monophthongs- Pure Vowels:

During the production of these vowels the tongue takes the position that is required for the production of a vowel either in the front, centre or in the back of the mouth. As per the place in the mouth where they are produced they are categorized into front, central and back vowels.

Source of the diagram--http://neoenglish.wordpress.com/2010/12/16/vowels-and-their-description-with-the-cardinal-reference-chart
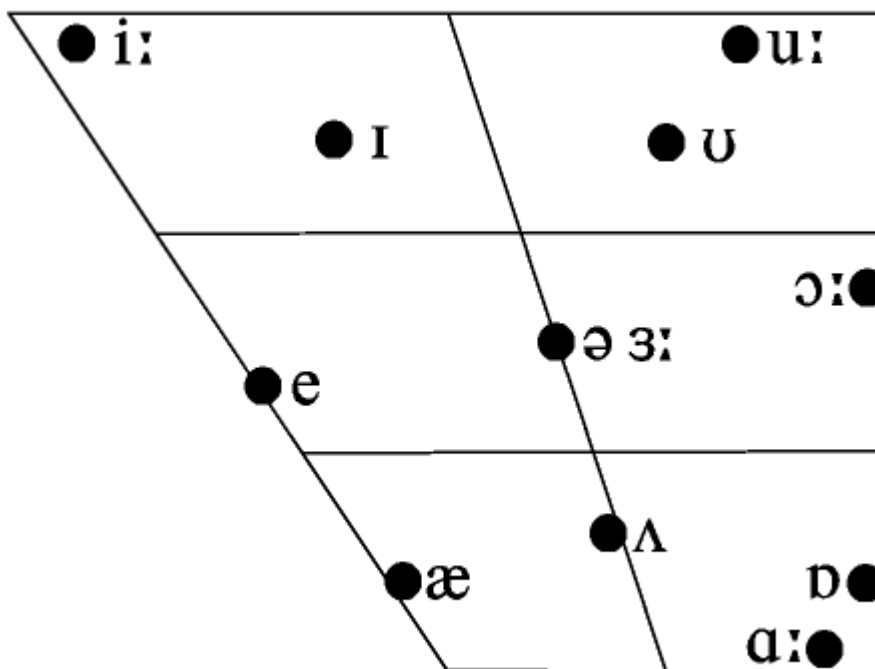
b) Front vowels:

Front vowels are those vowels during the production of which the front of the tongue reaches upto various levels of heights towards the hard palate in the roof of the mouth. There are four front vowels in English and they are /**i:**/ as in 'heat', /**i**/ as in 'sick', /**e**/as in 'many', / **æ** / as in 'apple', which are shown marked in the above diagram.

b) Central Vowels:

During the production of these vowels the centre of the tongue rises to various heights towards the central part of the roof of the mouth which lies between hard and soft palate. There are three central vowels in English and they are /ʌ/ as in 'cup., /ə / as in 'appear'(in the initial and final places) and / ɜ: / as in 'earn'. These are shown in the diagram above

c) Back vowels:

The back of the tongue rises to various heights towards the soft palate. There are five back vowels and they are /u/ as in 'pull', /u:/ as in 'tool', /ɒ/ as in 'tall' and /ɔ:/ as in 'all' and /a:/ as in 'army'. These vowels are marked in the diagram shown above.

2 Diphthongs:

There are eight diphthongs in the English sound system. These vowels are differentiated from monophthongs since they deviate from the pure vowels in their manner of articulation. During the articulation of diphthongs the tongue takes the position required for the production of a vowel and glides or moves over smoothly to another position that is required for the production of another vowel. For this reason these diphthongs are also called glides. The following diagram shows English diphthongs.

Note: A list of three term labels of vowels is provided in Appendix II
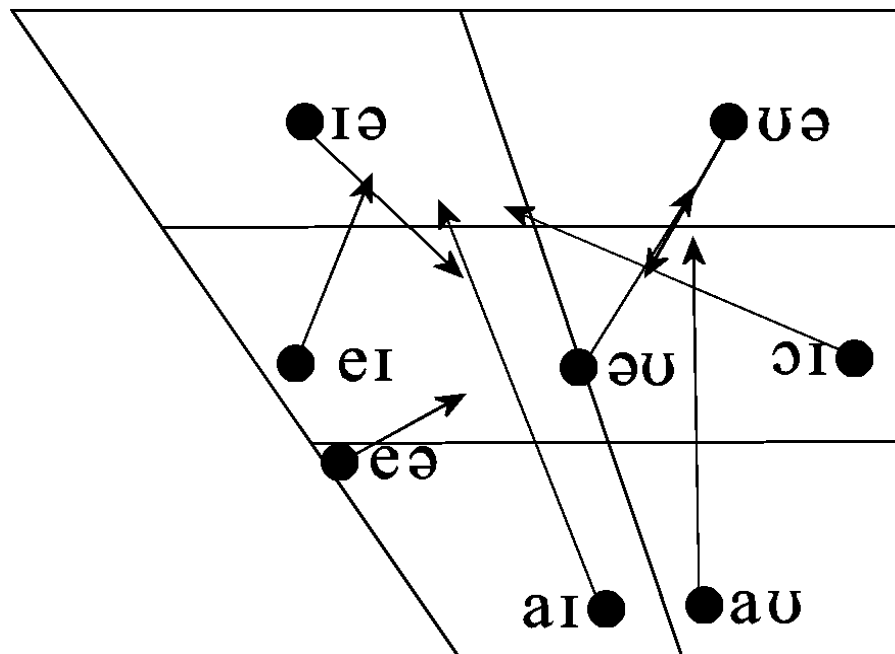
Source of the diagram
http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:RP_vowel_chart_%28diphthongs%29.gif

a) Diphthongs ending in/ i/: There are three diphthongs ending in /i/. The following diagram shows them.

Source of the diagram https://notendur.hi.is/peturk/KENNSLA/02/TOP/VowelsDiphth.html
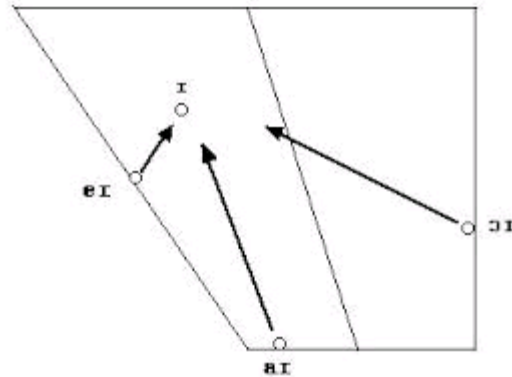
b) Diphthongs ending in /ə/: There are three diphthongs ending in **/ə/** and are shown in the following diagram

Source of the diagram http://tanvirdhaka.blogspot.in/2012/03/diphthongs.html
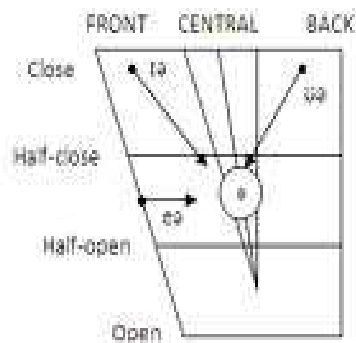
c) Diphthongs ending in /u/: There are two diphthongs ending in **/u/** and are shown in the following diagram

Closing Diphthongs		
/əʊ/ /aʊ/	The tongue moves to:	/ ʊ /

Source of the diagram http://tanvirdhaka.blogspot.in/2012/03/diphthongs.html.
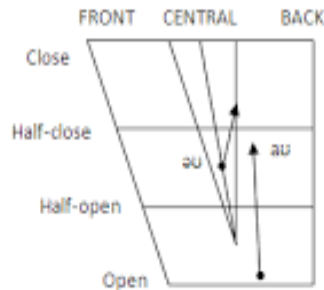
4.5 Summary:

This unit describes the articulators that are involved in the production of vowels and the criteria that are considered in the description of vowels. You also learnt the use of the vowel diagram in the description of vowels and the places in the mouth where English vowels are produced.

4.6 Comprehension Check Questions:

a). What are the criteria that are used in describing vowels?

b). How many height points are considered in describing the height of the tongue and what are they?

c). How are the monophthongs different from diphthongs?

d). How many types of vowels are there in English as per the part of the tongue and what are they?

4.7 References:

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian students*

Ladefoged, Peter. *A course in Phonetics*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cardinal_vowels.

Additional sources

http://www.phonetics.ucla.edu/course/chapter9/cardinal/cardinal.html

http://www.phon.ox.ac.uk/jcoleman/CardinalVowels.htm

http://faculty.mu.edu.sa/public/uploads/1367177870.6546PHONETICS%20AND%20PHONOLOGY.pdf

4.8 Primary and Secondary Cardinal Vowels

S. no	Symbol	Three term label
1	[i]	Front close unrounded vowel
2	[e]	Front half close unrounded vowel
3	[ɛ]	Front half open unrounded vowel
4	[a]	Front open unrounded vowel
5	[ɑ]	Back open unrounded vowel
6	[ɔ]	Back half open rounded vowel
7	[o]	Back half close rounded vowel
8	[u]	Back close rounded vowel
9	[y]	Front close rounded vowel
10	[ø]	Front half close rounded vowel
11	[œ]	Front half open rounded vowel
12	[ɶ]	Front open rounded vowel
13	[ɒ]	Back open rounded vowel
14	[ʌ]	Back half open unrounded vowel
15	[ɤ]	Back half close unrounded vowel
16	[ɯ]	Back close un rounded vowel

LESSON 5

VOWELS OF ENGLISH: PHONEMIC SYMBOLS AND THREE TERM LABELS

Objectives

By the end of this lesson you will know

- The phonemic symbols for vowels of English
- How they are presented in spelling
- Describing them with three term labels

Structure of the lesson

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Table showing phonemic symbols of vowels

5.3 Summary

5.4 Practice Exercise in Vowels

5.5 References

5.1 Introduction

Vowel sounds are different from the consonants in that they are produced with a stricture of open approximation. Vowels are the central elements in the structure of a word and so the pronunciation of vowel sounds must be paid attention. Vowels which have already been discussed in the previous lessons are further divided into pure vowels and diphthongs. Phonemic symbols for these pure vowels and diphthongs are provided here.

5.2 Table showing phonemic symbols of vowels:

S.No	Phonemic Symbol	Examples			Three term label
		Word initial	**Word medial**	**Word final**	
1	/iː/	Eat	meat	tree	Front close unrounded vowel
2	/i/	In	pin	be	Front unrounded vowel just above half close or front unrounded vowel between half close and close
3	/e/	Any occur	many	does not	Front unrounded vowel between half close and half open
4	/ æ/	Angry occur	bag	does not	Front unrounded vowel just above open or front unrounded vowel between open and half open
5	/ɑː/	Arm	farmer	far	Back open unrounded vowel
6	/ɒ /	Opt occur	pot	does not	Back rounded vowel just above open or back open rounded vowel
7	/ ɔː/	Autumn	daughter	law	Back rounded vowel between half

					close and half open
8	/u/	Does not occur	good	to	Back rounded vowel just above half close or back rounded vowel between close and half close
9	/u:/	Ooze	fool	two	Back close rounded vowel
10	/ʌ /	Umbrella	cup	does not occur	Central unrounded vowel just above open
11	/ ɜ:/	Earth	birth	stir	Central unrounded vowel between half close and half open
12	/ə /	Another	forget	teacher	Central unrounded vowel
13	/ei/	Eight	train	day	Glide from a front unrounded vowel between half close and half open to a front rounded vowel between close and half close
14	/ai/	Island	mind	buy	Glide from a front open unrounded vowel to a front rounded vowel between close and half close
15	/ɔi/	Oil	coil	toy	Glide from a back unrounded vowel between open and half open to a front rounded vowel between close and half close
16	/au/	Out	found	how	Glide from a open back unrounded vowel to a back rounded vowel between close and half close
17	/əu/	Open	note	slow	Glide from a central unrounded vowel between half close and half open to a back rounded vowel between close and half close
18	/iə /	Year	fierce	tear	Glide from a front unrounded vowel between close and half close to a central unrounded vowel between half close and half open(non final) glide from a front unrounded vowel between close and half close to a central unrounded vowel just above half open(final)
19	/eə /	Air	careful	dare	Glide from a front half open unrounded vowel to a central unrounded vowel between half close and half open(non final) glide from a front unrounded vowel between close and half close to a central unrounded vowel just above half open(final)
20	/uə/	Does not occur	mutual	tour	Glide from a back rounded vowel between close and half close to a central unrounded vowel between

			half close and half open(non final) glide from a front unrounded vowel between close and half close to a central unrounded vowel just above half open(final)

5.3 Summary

So through the table provided above you have learnt to identify and pronounce the vowels of English.

5.4 Practice Exercise in Vowels

Write the phonemic symbol for the given sound shown in spelling which is bold underlined. Please remember that the phonemic symbol has to be put in *slant lines*.

S.No	Word in spelling	Phonemic symbol
1	m**a**jor	
2	m**oo**n	
3	fl**o**wer	
4	p**a**st	
5	l**i**ve	
6	**o**ver	
7	**a**lbum	
8	m**o**ney	
9	infer**ior**	
10	l**ee**ch	
11	c**a**ll	
12	th**i**rst	
13	gla**re**	
14	**a**ppeal	
15	Vie**w**er	
16	g**oo**d	
17	ann**oy**	
18	**au**tumn	
19	f**e**tch	
20	m**i**nd	

5.5 Reference:
Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Additional sources:
The above sounds can be listened to and practiced with the help of the following link
http://youtu.be/0HeujZ45OZE
The symbols can also be referred to at the following link
https://tampincluster.wikispaces.com/file/view/PhoneticAlphabetReference.pdf/290813079/PhoneticAlphabetReference.pdf

LESSON 6

PHONOLOGY, PHONEME AND ALLOPHONE

Objectives:

By the end of this lesson you will know

- How languages select and organize speech sounds
- What are the basic sound units of a language and on what basis are they defined
- How some sounds are grouped into basic sound units of a language

Structure of the Lesson

6.1 What is Phonology?

6.2 What is the basic sound unit of language?

6.3 Grouping of Allophones into a Phoneme

6.4 Summary

6.5 Comprehension Check Questions

6.6 References

6.1 What is phonology?

Every language in the world has certain number of sounds in its sound system. The language **selects** these sounds from the total inventory of human speech sounds. This can be illustrated with the following examples.

a) Selection of sounds: English language has the sounds /**f**/ as in 'flower', /**z**/ as in 'zoo', /**ʒ** / as in 'measure', /**æ**/ as in 'apple', /**ɒ**/ as in 'opt', /**ɔ:**/ 'august' and so on which are not there in Telugu or many other Indian languages. Similarly Telugu has /**ʋ** / as in /**ʋa:ɖu**/ meaning 'he'; /**ŋ/,** as in /**raŋamu**/ meaning 'war'; /**ḷ**/ as in /**gaḷamu**/meaning 'voice'. So from these examples from these two languages we know that the sounds which are there in a particular language may not be there in another language. So the selection of sounds by one language differs from other.

b) Organisation of sounds: It's also clear that the languages may have similar sounds in their sounds systems. For example both English and Telugu and other Indian languages like Kannada, Hindi have /**s**/ as in 'sing' /**p**/ as in 'pen' /**t**/ as in 'tea' or /**ʈ**/ or its close versions. However these sounds may not occur in the same order in all the languages. This can be illustrated further with these examples. English language can begin or end words with /**sp**/, or /**st**/ combination either at the word beginning or word ending as in 'spoon', 'clasp', 'stool' and 'cast'. Telugu can also begin words with /**sp**/ and /**st**/ or/**ʃʈ**/ as in /**spandana**/ or end word as in /**niʃʈa**/. However Hindi language cannot have these combinations without a vowel in between. Though all the three languages haves chosen the sounds /**s/, /p/, /t**/ they have arranged the order of their occurrence in their own individual way. Likewise English can have two or three consonants beginning a word

while Telugu, Tamil can begin a word only with one consonant. This arrangement of sounds in its own way by a language is termed organization of sounds. These two qualities of selection and organization of sounds decide the phonology of a language.

6.2 What is the basic sound unit of a language?

Let's look at the English words **sill** and **pill** which have three sounds each, i.e., **/s i l /** and **/p i l /** respectively. These two sounds occur in identical phonetic environment as they are followed by the same vowel and consonant and so are said to be in contrastive distribution with each other. Such a set of words as the above which differ from each other in just one sound are called a minimal pair. As those two sounds differentiate one word from the other and are in contrastive distribution with each other those two sounds are considered to be two different phonemes in English language.

Let us consider the features that help in distinguishing one phoneme from another and similarly in grouping sounds into one basic sound unit, the phoneme.

Let's look at the following examples to arrive at the above point.

Later [leitə]   call [kɒɫ]

Million [miljən] full [fuɫ]

Culture [kʌltʃə] sill [siɫ]

In all the examples above we notice that there are two types of /l/ one is clear [l] that occurs in word initial position and before the consonant /j/ while the dark [ɫ] occurs before other consonants except /j/ and in word final position.

During the pronunciation of clear or palatalized [l] which is an alveolar lateral the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate without touching it. During the production of the dark [ɫ], which too is an alveolar lateral, the back of the tongue is raised towards the velum or soft palate making it velarised or dark [ɫ]. So the clear [l] and [ɫ] as per the above given examples occur in a predictable mutually exclusive phonetic environment. To put it simply, clear[l] does not occur in the phonetic environment in which the dark[ɫ] occurs and vice versa. So they are members of a sound unit which is called phoneme

6.3 Grouping of Allophones into Phoneme:

From the above examples we know that the two forms of /l/ occur in mutually exclusive predictable phonetic environments and so belong to a single family of sounds. So the family of sounds is called phoneme and the members of the family are termed as allophones. A phoneme is shown in / / while allophones are shown in [ ].So these allophones that occur in mutually exclusive phonetic environment are in complimentary distribution and have considerable phonetic similarity with each other in a language. Thus a phoneme is an abstract concept of a sound unit while the allophones are concrete realizations of the abstract sound unit phoneme. Phoneme and allophones are language specific. Two different phonemes in a language may become members or allophones of a single phoneme and two or three allophones of a phoneme of a particular language may become two or three different phonemes in another language. Take

the instance of the sounds /p/ and /b/. These two sounds are two different phonemes in English as evidenced by the minimal pair **pull –bull** /pul/- /bul/. However in Tamil they belong to a single phoneme and are the allophones of that phoneme/p/ as in these examples: [pɑ:l] which means 'milk' it is [p] and in [ṭambi] which means 'brother' it is [b]. So in Tamil language [p] and [b] are allophones of a single phoneme while in English they are two different phonemes. [p] and [b] are in complementary distribution in Tamil while they are in contrastive distribution in English.

6.4 Summary:

You have learnt that each language selects sounds independently and organizes the selected sounds in its own way. You also understood that individual sounds(allophones) can be grouped into sound units called phonemes and allophones and phonemes are language specific.

6.5 Comprehension Check Questions:

- What is meant by phonology?
- What are the factors that define an allophone?
- On what basis are allophones grouped into phonemes?
- Define the phoneme.
- Write 10 sets of minimal pairs.

6.6 References

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian student*

O'Connor.J.D. *Better English Pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

LESSON 7

SYLLABLE AND CONSONANT CLUSTERS

Objectives:

By the end of this lesson you will

- Know what a syllable is
- How a syllable is identified
- The structure of the syllable
- Syllabic consonants
- The basis for the formation of a cluster
- The consonant cluster possibilities in English

Structure of the lesson

7.1 Introduction

7.2 What is a syllable

7.3 Syllable Structure

7.4 Syllabic consonants

7.5 Consonant Clusters

7.6 Summary

7.7 Comprehension Check Questions

7.8 References

7.1 Introduction:

The basic unit of any spoken language is sound and sounds are stringed together into words. Between sounds and words there's an intermediate unit that is intrinsically felt by the speakers while uttering the words.

7.2 What is a Syllable?

Syllable is part of a word. It's a unit higher than sound and lower than word. For instance in a word like development we have the following sounds

Development= /d/,/i/,/v/,/e/,/l/,/ə/,/p/,/m/, /ə/,/n/, /t/. There are 11 sounds in this word. When one pronounces the word slowly one naturally tends to pronounce it part by part like the following.

/di/-/ve/-/ləp/-/mənt/. So here we see, it is pronounced in four parts. Each part consists of some sounds which are consonants and vowels. This divided part is termed a syllable and the word in example has four syllables.

Syllables are convenient markers in making the pronunciation of a long word easy and also it is on a syllable that word accent is marked.

7.3 Syllable Structure.

As shown above a syllable is made of sounds which can be both consonants and vowels. The consonant element is represented in a syllable with a 'C' and a vowel is shown with a 'V'. To continue with the same example the structure of the syllables in this word is like the following

/di/-/ve/-/ləp/-/mənt/. = CV-CV-CVC-CVCC

In this example both consonants and vowels are there in a syllable. Consider some more examples now.

Eye = /ai/ = V

Year= /iə/= V

Account=/ə- kaunt/= V-CVCC

Formality= /fə-mæ-li-ti/=CV-CV-CV-CV

In all the above examples we notice that vowels occur compulsorily in a syllable where as consonants don't. This shows that the vowel element is compulsory and the consonant element is not compulsory, so it's marginal. As the vowel element is compulsory it's termed the **nucleus** of the syllable. Pronunciation of a syllable or a word is difficult without the presence of a vowel sound. Consider a string of consonants and try pronouncing it. For instance / stklr/. It's pretty difficult to pronounce this. Now insert a vowel sound among them like this /stu:klr/ and try. Pronunciation becomes possible in a better way. This example shows that the presence of the vowel element gives life to the syllable and that is why it is the nucleus, the obligatory element.

The syllable division in a word is shown with a small hyphen between the syllables. This hyphen is called **syllable boundary**. The consonant with which a syllable begins is called the **releasing consonant** and the consonant with which a syllable ends is called **arresting consonant**. So if a syllable has CVC structure as in cat /kæt/ then the first C is releasing consonant, the V is nucleus and the last consonant is the arresting consonant. These three can also be termed as **onset**, **rhyme** and **coda** as in American terminology.

7.4 Syllabic Consonants.

Some words like the following in English have this structure.

Sudden=/sΛ-dn/= CV-CC

Bottle= /bɒ-tl/= CV-CC

Prism= /pri-zm/=CCV-CC

All these above examples show syllables without a vowel element and so there is no nucleus in these syllables. But our understanding of the syllable structure till now tells us that a

syllable cannot stand on its own without a nucleus. But the native speakers of English show them as different syllables in their pronunciation. Hence the consonants /m/,/n/,/l/ in the above syllables function as nucleus giving the structure to the syllable. So they are called **syllabic consonants**. These syllabic consonants are usually shown with a small vertical bar below the sound .

7.5 Consonant Clusters:

A consonant cluster is the occurrence of more than one consonant in a single syllable. So the defining area of a cluster is a syllable. Look at the following examples of clusters at the syllable beginning and ending

Plain= /plein/ consonants /p/ /l/

Crown=/ kraun/ consonants /k//r/

Drink= /driŋk/ consonants /d,/r/ at the beginning and /ŋ/k/ at the ending

All the above examples of words are monosyllabic and the clusters are in a syllable. Look at the following examples.

Remember=/ rimembə/ = consonants /m/ and /b/ though next to each other do not form a cluster as they occupy different syllables.

Remember= /ri- mem-bə/= /m/ is the arresting consonant of the second syllable while /b/ is the releasing consonant of the following third syllable. So these two consonants are called **abutting consonants**.

A syllable in English can begin with a maximum of three consonants and can end with a maximum of four consonants. It does not allow more than this number.

Let's look at some consonant clusters in English

1. Examples of clusters at the beginning of a syllable:

a) Two consonants:

Play /plei/	plain /plein/
prime /praim/	prune /pru:n/
pure /pjɔ:/	puny /pju:ni/
bright /brait/	brawl /brɔ:l/
bloom /blu:m/ blend /blend/	
beauty /bju:ti/	bugle /bju:gl/
twenty /twenti/	tweed /twi:d/
track /træk/	tram /træm/

tube /tju:b/   tune /tju:n/

duty /dju:ti/   dune /dju:n/

drum /drʌm/   drive /draiv/

dwell /dwel/   dwindle /dwindle/

cloud /klaud/   climb /klaim/

crime /kraim/   crown /kraun/

quench /kwentʃ/   quite /kwaiət/

cure /kjuə/   queer /kwiə/

Gloom /glu:m/   glove /glʌv/

Grind /graind/ green /gri:n/

Flee /fli:/   fly /flai/

Frown /fraun/   fret /fret/

Fuse /fju:z/   fume /fju:m/

thrice /θrais/   three /θri:/

smile /smail/   smooth /smu:θ/

stand /stænd/   scalp /skælp/

spine /spain/   spell /spel/

snack /snæk/   snail /sneil/

huge/hju:dʒ/

b) Three Consonants at the beginning:

Spring /spriŋ/   sprite /sprait/

Straight /streit/street /stri:t/

spleen /spli:n/ splinter /splintə/

squash /skwæʃ/   squeeze /skwi:z/

stupid /stju:pid/   stipend /staipənd/

2. Examples of clusters at the ending of a syllable:

a) Two consonants at the end

Gasp /gæsp/   Scalp /skælp/   ramp /ræmp/

bulb /bʌlb/

clasped /klæspt/   mocked /mɒkt/   matched /mætʃt/

pushed /puʃt/   missed /mist/   ant /ænt/

guilt /gilt/   draft /dra:ft/   Paint /peint/

judged /dʒʌdʒd/   praised /preizd/   bagged /bægd/

loved /lʌvd/   told /təuld/   grand /gra:nd/

milk /milk/   sink /siŋk/   bask /ba:sk/

Clench /klentʃ/ range /reindʒ/   bulge /bʌldʒ/

Self /self/   depth /depθ/   month /mʌnθ/

Caps /kæps/   rats /ræts/   webs /webz/

Wads /wædz/   legs /legz/   lives /livz/

Trims /trimz/   pins /pinz/   pals /pælz/

b) Three consonants at the end:

tempt /tempt/   text /tekst/

clenched /klentʃt/   danced /da:nst/

helped /helpt/   bulged /bʌldʒd/

Melts /melts/   blasts /bla:sts/

Masks /ma:sks/   gifts /gifts/

Joints /dʒɔints/ melts /melts/

Hands /hændz/ builds /bildz/

c) Four consonants at the end:

texts /teksts/   twelfths /twelfθs/

tempts /tempts/   sixths /siksθs/

7.6 Summary

So far you have learnt that a syllable is next to a sound in the hierarchy and syllables are identified in one's pronunciation. You have known the elements that give structure to the syllables and the terminology that is used to describe these elements. You also learnt that syllable structure helps in deciding the consonant clusters.

7.7 Comprehension Check Questions

1. Define the syllable.
2. Why do we divide a word into syllables?
3. What are the elements that structure the syllable?
4. What is 'nucleus' in a syllable and why is it called so?
5. Explain releasing and arresting consonants.
6. What is the domain of a cluster?
7. How are abutting consonants different from a consonant cluster?
8. Give the structure of syllables in the following words
   Platinum   monotony   dictionary   arrest   compulsory   mutton
9. List the onset, rhyme and coda in each of the syllables in the above words
10. Show the clusters and abutting consonants in the following words
    Amplepretext obtain   application   flamboyant
11. Give examples of clusters in the syllable initial and final positions.

7.8 References:

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian students*

Ladefoged, Peter. *A course in Phonetics*

O'Conner, J.D. *Better English pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Practice exercise 1

Divide the given words into syllables using syllable boundary

S.No	word	Syllable division
Example	exercise	ik-sə -saiz
1	identify	
2	opinion	
3	information	
4	reflection	
5	phonology	
6	division	
7	response	
8	decision	
9	curious	
10	passionate	

11	miracle	
12	honesty	
13	student	
14	material	
15	prepare	
16	satisfied	
17	activity	
18	assessment	
19	confidence	
20	analyze	

Practice exercise 2

Write the structure of syllables in the given words

S.No	word	Syllable structure
Example	exercise	VC-CV-CVC
1	identify	
2	opinion	
3	information	
4	reflection	
5	phonology	
6	division	
7	response	
8	decision	
9	curious	
10	passionate	
11	miracle	
12	honesty	
13	student	
14	material	
15	prepare	
16	satisfied	
17	activity	
18	assessment	
19	confidence	
20	analyze	

LESSON 8

WORD ACCENT

Objectives:

By the end of the lesson you will know

- What is accent or stress
- Where it is used
- How it is employed
- Some rules of stress in English
- To use stress in pronunciation of words.

Structure of the lesson

8.1 Introduction

8.2 What is stress or accent ?

8.3 Nature of stress in English

8.4 Primary and secondary accent

8.5 Accent in derivatives

8.6 Function of words and accent shift

8.7 Some rules of stress

8.8 Summary

8.9 Comprehension check questions

8.10 References

8.1 Introduction

Stress is an integral part of English speech. Terms'word accent' or 'word stress' are used synonymously and interchangeably to refer to the prominent syllable in a word with more than one syllable. The use of the English language is incomplete and leads to confusion in comprehension if stress or accent is not used while speaking the language. This is the reason why an English speaker tends to place stress in the pronunciation of other languages like Hindi or Telugu too.

8.2 What is stress or accent?

Stress or accent is the use of extra breath force and energy and emphasis in the pronunciation of one or two syllables in poly syllabic words. It is placed on a syllable in words that have more than one syllable. Take a word of English which has more than one

syllable like 'petal'. It has two syllables namely **'pe**- talwith thestress falling on the first syllable. Here the syllable /**pe**/ is pronounced strongly using extra breath force and so, that syllable is a 'stressed' syllable. In a word like 'economics' having four syllables the stress falls on the third syllable /nɔ:/ and it is shown in transcription in this way. It is / i- kə-**'nɔ**:-miks/. Now the stress is caused in this word by using a long vowel in the stressed syllable. So we understand from our discussion here that stress is causedeither by the use of extra energy and breath - force or also by the length of the vowels or by all the three factors.

8.3 Nature of stress in English

Stress in English is free and fixed. Let us understand this point with these examples. In English language stress is free in the sense that the accent in polysyllabic words can fall anywhere in the word i.e., on any syllable of the word. It means that the stress in English words is not tied down to one particular syllable like the first or the second or the last. Some languages like French have the accent always on the last syllable in a polysyllabic word. Let us consider the following examples.

Angry = **'an**-gry   canteen = can- **'teen**

Family = **'fa**-mi-ly   committee= co-**'mmi**-ttee   employee = em-plo-**'yee**

You will notice from the above examples of di-syllabic and tri-syllabic words that the stress falls on the first syllable in some, on the second syllable in some and on the final syllable in some. So from these examples it is clear that stress in English is not fixed down to one particular syllable in all the words.

Stress in English is fixed by which we mean that stress falls on a particular syllable in an individual word. Let us consider an example.

Production = pro-**'duc**-tion

The **'com**pany has **'in**creased its pro**'duc**tion in the **'cu**rrent year.

In both the above examples the word 'production' has the accent on the second syllable either as an independent word or as part of a sentence. So in this particular word in whatever form it occurs, the accent is fixed to the second syllable.

8.4 Primary and secondary accent

Words in English which have more than one syllable take accent on one of the syllables. If the word has three syllables or more than three syllables then the word carries two accents with one of the syllables taking the primary accent and another one taking thesecondary accent.. The primary accent falls on the most prominent syllable of all in the word, while the secondary accent falls on the next prominent syllable. Let us look at some examples to understand this feature.

Examination   e- **xa**- mi-<u>**NA**</u>-tion   primary accent on "NA" and secondary accent "xa"

Providential   **pro**- vi- <u>**DEN**</u>- tial   primary accent on "DEN" and secondary accent on "pro"

As per the norms of phonetic transcription primary accent is marked before and above the syllable with a small vertical bar while the secondary accent is marked below and before the syllable with a small vertical bar. To make the stressed syllable prominent it's shown in bold form here. The marking of the primary and second accents on syllables can be shown like this.

e-ˌxa- mi- **'na**-tion

ˌpro- vi- **'den**- tial

8.5 Accent in derivatives

Derivatives are words which are derived from a root by the addition of a prefix or a suffix. The accent in derivatives does not change and remains on the root from which the word has been derived. But some times the accent shifts from the root. Let us first look at some derivatives.

Beauty   **beau**tifully

Em**ploy**   em**ploy**er

Govern   **go**vernance

Mother   **mo**therly

re**mark**   re**mark**able

dominant   pre**do**minant

In all the above examples the stress falls on the same syllable in the root and the derived word. Stressed syllable is shown in bold in the examples. Let us consider another set of derivatives in which there is a shift in the accent.

Beauty   beau**ti**cian

Possible   possi**bi**lity

Prevent   pre**ven**tion

Logic   lo**gi**cian

E**xa**mine   exami**nee**

Oppose   oppo**si**tion

Abdomen   ab**do**minal

The stress changed in the derived words in all the above examples.

8.6 Function of words and accent shift:

Many disyllabic words like 'account', 'advance', 'balance', 'conduct' 'number', 'record', 'honour' and 'import' in English function both as nouns and verbs. However, in some cases the pronunciation is the same in case of nouns as well as verbs while in some cases the pronunciation differs from noun to verb because of the change in stress. Let us look at this in detail using the above examples.

Words like 'ac**count'**, 'ad**vance'**, **'ba**lance', '**num**ber', **'ho**nour' take stress on the same syllable either when they are used as nouns or when used as verbs. But words like 'conduct', 'record', import', 'produce' and so on take stress on different syllables when they are used as nouns or as verbs. The accent falls on thefirst syllable when used as nouns and it falls on the second syllable when used as verbs.

Nouns: **'con**duct', '**re**cord', **im**port', '**pro**duce':

Verbs: 'con**duct'**, 're**cord**', im**port'**, 'pro**duce**'

8.7 Some rules of stress:

Though stress is unpredictable in English language, some generalizations can be made about the way stress falls in words.

a.) Prefixes 'a-' and 'be-' are never stressed as in 'behind', 'be**lieve**', 'a**round**' 'at**test**' and so on.

b.) Monosyllabic prefixes 'ab-', 'ac-', 'ad-', 'af-', 'ag-', 'al-', 'an-', 'ap-', 'ar-', 'as-', 'com-', 'con-', 'de-', 'ex-', 'im-', 'in-', 'ob-', 'per-', 'pre-', 'pro-', 'sub-', 'sym-', and 'syn-' receive accent. The following examples illustrate the point.

'**ab**dicate', '**ab**ject', **ac**cess', '**ad**dict', '**ade**quate', '**aff**able', '**agg**regate', **al**cohol', '**an**notate', '**ap**plicant', '**ar**rogant', '**as**pect', '**as**sets', '**at**tribute', '**com**bat', '**con**duct', '**de**bit', '**de**ficit', '**ex**ercise', '**im**pact', '**in**cident', '**ob**durate', **'per**manent', **pre**face', '**pro**blem', '**sub**sidy', '**sym**bol', '**sy**nonym' .

c) Inflectional suffixes '–ed', '-es', '-ing' do not affect accent. The accent falls on the same syllable of the word before the addition of the suffix.

De**mand**	de**man**ded
Se**lect**	se**lec**ted
Purchase	**pur**chases
Re**veal**	re**veal**ing

d) Other suffixes which do not change the stress of the root word are '-age', '-ance',

'-en', '-er', '-es', '-ess', '-ful', '-hood', '-ice', '-ish', '-ive', '-less', '-ly', '-ment', '-ness', '-or',

'-ship', '-ure', '-zen'.

Marry	**ma**rriage
Per**form**	per**for**mance
For**bid**	for**bid**den
Per**form**	per**for**mer
Tiger	**ti**gress
Re**venge**	re**venge**ful

Likely   **like**lihood

Coward   **cow**ardice

Hell   **hel**lish

Con**clude**   con**clu**sive

Peer   **peer**less

Con**sis**tent   con**sis**tently

Manage   **ma**nagement

Happy   **ha**ppiness

Con**duct**   con**duc**tor

Friend friendship

Laugh   **laugh**ter

The word 'princess' is an exception here. 'Prince' isa monosyllabic word which receives the stress on the first and only syllable when used in a sentence. With the addition of suffix then the stress changes to the second syllable as in 'prin**cess**'.

e) Words ending in '-ion' receive the stress on the penultimate syllable which means the second syllable from the end.

Action, admi**ra**tion, combi**na**tion, de**du**ction, falsifi**ca**tion, **sta**tion

f) Words ending in '-ic', '-ical', '-ically', '-ious', '-ial' and '-ially' receive the primary accent on the syllable before the suffix

Pa**the**tic

E**lec**trical, zoo**lo**gical

Sta**tis**tically

Cere**mo**nious

Confi**den**tial

Influ**en**tial,

Com**mer**cially

g) Words ending in '- ity' take the primary accent on the third last syllable

A**bi**lity, ca**pa**city, e**nor**mity, va**li**dity, gene**ro**sity.

8.8 Summary

You have learnt that stress in English is an internal quality to the language and is compulsory. You also learnt that stress is not tied down to a particular syllable in all the words of English language and also that every word has stress on a particular syllable. You

have understood that stress in English can define the category of a word, to be a noun/adjective or verb. Some rules of stress marking help you in deciding the syllable to be stressed.

8.9 Comprehension Check Questions

1. What is stress?

2. What is the unit of language on which stress is used?

3. When is primary accent used?

4. When is secondary accent used?

5. What factors make stress take place?

6. Why is it said that stress in English is free and fixed?

7. Identify the stressed syllable in the following words and practice saying the words aloud using the correct stress.

Contain, embarrass, hindered, glamorous, component, character, menace, terrible, courageous, attend, obstruct, aside, agree, murderer, contrary, bureau, artery, zodiac, variance, brilliance, luxuriant, rhetorical, and recipient.

8.10 References

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian students*

Ladefoged, Peter. *A course in Phonetics*

O'Conner, J.D. *Better English pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Additional sources: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bX-_YSDM7ic

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=65AgbiwQ6ko

LESSON 9

PRACTICE IN TRANSCRIPTION- WORDS

Objective

By the end of the lesson you will know to transcribe the words with a focus on practice in consonants and vowels.

Structure of the lesson

      9.1 Introduction

      9.2 Supply the missing sounds with the help of given words- consonants

      9.3 Supply the missing sounds with the help of given words- Vowels

      9.4 References

9.1 Introduction

Transcription using phonemic symbols helps in acquiring correct pronunciation of the language. A standard dictionary helps in ascertaining the correct pronunciation. This lesson gives practice in a structured, phased manner of practice in transcribing words.

9.2 Supply the missing sounds with the help of the given words-Consonants

Transcription	Word in spelling
Ex:/ æ ə / /pærət/	**parrot**
/_iti_n/	citizen
/_ɒ_bæt/	combat
/mə_i:_/	machine
/_æ_uə_/	Casual
/_ɒ_i_i_ə_i/	Possibility
/i_æ_i_ei_ə_/	Imagination
/_ə__ə_e__ə_/	Fundamental
/_æ_ə_ə_/	Natural
/Kə_ju:_i_ei_ə_/	communication
/æ__i___u:_/	aptitude
/_ɒ_i_/	morning
/ə_i:__ə__/	achievement
/__au__/	trousers
/_æ_i_ei_i_/	fascinating
/_ʌ__ə__/	judgment
/_u:_i_ə_i_i/	University

/ _ i _ e _ _ ə/	Remember
/ _ i _ _ /	Little
/_ ɒ _ _ ə_ ə/	Wanderer
/ _ æ _ ə _ æ _ i _ _ /	mathematics
/_ _ ʌ _ ə/	brother
/ _ i _ _ /	rhythm
/ _ iə _ _ /	vehicle
/ _ ə _ _ æ _ ə _ i /	Compassionate
/ _ ə _ ai _ ə _ /	horizon

9.3 Supply the missing sounds with the help of the given words- Vowels

Transcription	Word in Spelling
Ex:/m_ n _ ŋ/ /mi:niŋ/	meaning
/ _ v _ n/	even
/ _ _ l _ v _ n/	eleven
/w _ l _ n/	woolen
/m _ v _ bl/	movable
/ _ r _ /	error
_ ŋz _ _ t _ /	anxiety
/ _ mbr _ l _ /	umbrella
/f _ _ /	father
/ _ r _ ndʒ/	orange
/ _ d _ t _ r _ m/	auditorium
/ _ p _ r _ ns/	appearance
/ _ n _ st/	earnest
/ _ ndʒ _ n _ /	engineer
/ _ nt _ t _ nm _ nt/	entertainment
/ _ r _ v _ l/	arrival
/ _ ntm _ nt/	ointment
/ _ p _ ntm _ nt/	appointment
/ _ r _ sp _ s/	aerospace
/mj _ tʃ _ l/	mutual
/n _ t _ bl/	notable
/m _ b _ l/	mobile
/f _ nd _ ʃ _ n/	foundation

9.4 References

O'Conner, J.D. *Better English pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

LESSON 10
ACCENT AND RHYTHM IN CONNECTED SPEECH

Objectives

By the end of this lesson you will know
- The features of connected speech in speaking
- Use of accent or stress in connected speech
- The aspects that contribute to the rhythm of spoken English
- Strong and weak forms of structure words

Structure of the lesson

> **10.1 Introduction**
>
> **10.2 Accent on content words**
>
> **10.3 Structure words and their weak forms**
>
> **10.4 Stress timing and rhythm**
>
> **10.5 Summary**
>
> **10.6 Comprehension Check Questions**
>
> **10.7 References**

10.1 Introduction

Spoken language differs from written language not just in the choice of words but also in the way in which focus or emphasis is laid on content or meaning generating words when compared to the grammatical words that give structure to the sentence. The musical rhythmic quality that appears in spoken language can be attributed to this importance that is given to different kinds of words. The following sections of the lesson will look at all these aspects of spoken language.

10.2 Accent on Content words:

One of the salient features of connected speech is its rhythmic quality and this rhythmic quality is caused by the use of stress or accent. A sentence either written or spoken is a combination of grammatical or structure words and content words. Let us look at them with the help of some examples.

Raghav **has been in the** industry **for almost** 30 years **and is** considered **a** strong influence **on the** younger generation.

Nagarjuna University **is** offering online e- courses **in** post-graduation **for the** students **in** distance learning mode.

The proposal **to** set up **a** separate university **for the** tribes **of** India **has** received lot **of** support **from all** sections **of the** society.

In these sentences, words that are underlined in bold are structure or grammatical words as they help giving a structure to the sentence. The other words are content words as they contribute to the meaning of the sentence. The same syllables that are accented when the words are said in isolation are accented even when they are used in connected speech. Usually content words like verbs, nouns, adverbs, adjectives and 'wh' -words are accented while the structure words like articles, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, auxiliaries, and pronouns are unaccented. Structure words too are accented when a special meaning or emphasis is desired. Let me explain it with an example.

This 'messenger has a'rrived 'from 'Hyderabad and is 'not 'going 'to 'Hyderabad.

If the above sentence is carefully observed then you will notice that along with content words that give meaning, structure words 'from' and 'to' are also accented. Now the accent of these two structure words has a special emphasis: that the person is coming **FROM** Hyderabad and is **NOT** going to Hyderabad.

The quality of rhythm in spoken English is due to the accent on the content words and also the absence of accent on some other words, especially structure words.

10.3 Structure words and their weak forms

Structure words are usually unaccented, so they are not pronounced in their strong form. The unaccented structure words like pronouns, articles, prepositions, auxiliaries are used in their weak forms. The use of weak forms of structure words facilitates the connected speech in achieving the desired quality of rhythm as the speakers compress number of unaccented syllables, usually grammar words, and this is made possible by the use of the weak forms of the structure words. Let us look at the following examples to arrive at the point.

I have not been informed about the visit of the inspecting authority.

Transcription with strong form of the structure words

// **ai hæv nɒt bi:n** infɒmd əbaut **ðə** vizit **ɒf ðə** inspektiŋ əθɔ:rity//

Transcription with weak form of the structure words.

//**aivnt bin** infɒmd əbaut **ðə** vizit **əf ðə** inspektiŋ əθɔ:rity//

In both the versions of transcription the structure words are shown in bold form. You must have noticed that not only the weak forms of the structure words are used but the structure words are combined by contraction. Study the following table showing structure words along with their strong and weak forms in examples.

.

Word in spelling	Strong form	Weak form
a	/ei/	/Ə/
an	/æn/	/Ən/ / n/
the	/ ðI:/	/ ði / / ðə/
am	/æm/	/m/
are	/a:/	/ə/
be	/bi:/	/bi/
can	/kæn/	/kən/ / kn/

could	/kud/	/kəd/
do	/du:/	/du / /də/ / d/
Does	/dʌz/	/dəz/
had	/hæd/	/həd/ /əd/ /d/
has	/hæz/	/həz//əz// z// s/
have	/hæv/	/həv/ /əv/ /v/
is	/iz/	/z// s/
must	/mʌst/	/məst/ / məs/
shall	/ʃæl/	/ʃəl/ /ʃl/
should	/ʃud/	/ʃəd/
was	/wɒz/	/wəz/
were	/wɜ:/	/wə/
will	/wil/	/l/
would	/wud/	/wəd/
and	/ænd/	/Ənd/ / nd/
as	/æz/	/əz/
but	/bʌt/	/bət/
than	/ ðæn/	/ ðƏn/ / ðn/
that	/ ðæt/	/ ðət/
at	/æt/	/ət/
for	/fɔ:/	/fə/
from	/frɒm/	/frəm/
of	/ɒf/	/Əf// əv/
per	/pɜ:/	/pə/
to	/tu:/	/tu// tə/
He	/hi:/	/hi / /i/
Her	/hɜ:/	/hə// ə/
Him	/him/	/im/
His	/hiz/	/iz/
Me	/mi:/	/mi/
Them	/ ðem/	/ ðƏm/ / ðm/
Us	/ʌs/	/əs/
You	/ju:/	/ju/
Not	/nɒt/	/nt/
sir	/sɜ:/	/sə/

10.4 Stress timing and rhythm

Languages of the world are known to be syllable timed and stress timed languages. In a syllable timed language, all the syllables take almost equal time for utterance. In stress timed languages the amount of time taken for the utterance of one stressed syllable is equal to the time taken for the utterance of the following unstressed syllables. Let us consider an example to understand this.

I 'want you to 'go to the 'market.

In this utterance syllables 'want', 'go', and 'ma' are accented syllables. Syllables 'I', 'you', 'to', 'the' and 'ket' are unaccented syllables. The time taken for the utterance of the three accented syllables is equal to the time taken for the utterance of the five unaccented syllables.

Now this becomes possible as the weak forms of unaccented syllables are used in the pronunciation of connected speech. So strong or accented syllables come at regular intervals of time unmindful of the number of weak or unaccented syllables between any two stressed syllables. So, as discussed so far, the rhythm of spoken English depends on the way in which accented and unaccented syllables are arranged in our pronunciation.

10.5 Summary

In this lesson you have learnt the features of connected speech such as accenting content words and using weak and short forms of unaccented grammatical words. You also learnt that the musical rhythmic quality of the spoken language is due to the accented and unaccented syllables and the way they are presented in a speaker's pronunciation.

10.6 Comprehension Check Questions

a. Where do we use accent in a sentence?

b. Which words are usually accented in connected speech?

c. What is 'stress timed' language?

d. How is rhythm in connected speech achieved?

e Write down ten sentences and list out content and structure or grammatical words separately

f write down the above ten sentences you chose in phonemic transcription using the contracted and weak forms of the grammatical words

.10.7 References

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian student*

O'Connor.J.D. *Better English Pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Additional sources for learning

http://youtu.be/Wbs5aoqFtVQ

http://youtu.be/-0G_yZfXJUQ

http://youtu.be/L4T8gP7rYd0

http://youtu.be/UbcEiFTmkQo

http://www.slideshare.net/mobile/davidatrome/weak-strong-forms

LESSON 11

INTONATION

Objectives

By the end of the lesson you will

- Know different pitch patterns of English
- Know the contexts in which these pitch patterns are used
- Use various tones in your connected speech

Structure of the lesson

11.1 Introduction

11.2 Pitch and pitch patterns

11.3 Pitch changes and various tones

11.4 Breath or tone group; tonic syllable and tone

11.5 Choice of tone and different contexts

11.6 Various functions of intonation in English

11.7 Summary

11.8 Comprehension Check Questions

11.9 References

11.1 Introduction

No human language is monotone. Various moods and shades of meaning are expressed not just verbally but more so in non verbal mode and here it is with the help of tone and pitch. A speaker is effective in his/her communication of a language when he/she can use all the tonal variations of a language. The following sections of the lesson discuss pitch and patterns that constitute the intonation of English language.

11.2 Pitch and pitch patterns.

When we speak a language, our vocal chords vibrate. In the previous lessons you have learnt that the vocal cords are thin string or cord like muscle structures that are situated in the larynx. These vocal cords move rapidly whenever we speak. This rapid movement of vocal cords is called vibration. The vibration of vocal cords is more in women than in men. The vocal cords of an adult male vibrate 80-120 times per second while the vocal cords of an adult female vibrate 150-220 times per second. The number of times that the vocal cords vibrate per second is called the frequency of vibration. If they vibrate more number of times per second then the frequency is

high. If the frequency is high the pitch of the voice is high and if the frequency is low the pitch of the voice is low. So from this discussion we understand that the pitch of the male voice is low when compared to the pitch of the female voice. When people speak, we understand that they always don't speak on the same level of the pitch. Sometimes the pitch rises and sometimes it falls and some other times it's leveled and so on. These various pitch patterns that are within a language constitute the intonation of the language. There are six major pitch patterns in English and they constitute the intonation of English language.

11.3 Pitch changes and various tones

The pitch change on a syllable is shown with various diacritic marks of phonetic transcription. A syllable on which the pitch is leveled is said to have static tone. In a level pitch the pitch does not fall either from the high to mid or low or does not rise from low to mid or high but remains static at high or low. This is shown in the following way.

['] the level pitch at high point before and above a syllable is called high level pitch

[ˌ] level pitch at low point below and before the syllable is called low level pitch.

A syllable on which there is pitch movement is said to have kinetic tone. The pitch movement is shown in the following way for various movements.

High fall- the pitch falls from very high to very low and this is shown as [\ ]

Low fall- the pitch falls from mid to very low and this is shown as [ ]*

High rise- the pitch rises from very low to very high and this is shown as [∕]

Low rise- the pitch rises from mid to very high and this is shown as [ ]*

Fall rise- the pitch falls from mid to low and then rises again to mid and this is shown as [∨]

Rise fall- the pitch rises from low to mid and again falls to low and this is shown as [∧]

*(A separate sheet showing the diacritics and symbols of allophones has been attached for your better understanding)

11.4 Breath or tone group; tonic syllable and tone

To bring out these tones and accents on the syllables in one's connected speech many points have to be considered. Let us look at these steps now. Whenever you utter a sentence, the first thing that you have to take into consideration is the length of the utterance. If it is small in size then it is uttered at one go without any pauses. But if the utterance is long then it is divided into parts by pausing at places. The beginning and ending of an utterance are shown with two slant bars and the pausing or the division is shown with a single slant bar. Let us look at an example.

//The weather has been so pleasant for the last two days,/ inspite of the continuous rain/ that one feels like visiting the country side /and get a feel of the fresh vibrant nature.//

As the utterance is long it is divided into parts and the division is shown with single slant bar and the beginning and the ending are shown in double slant bars. These divided parts are called **breath group or tone group or sense group**. It is termed breath group as the pause makes it convenient to take the breath. It is termed tone group because in each group one tone is placed. It is also called sense group as the division is done so as the divided part is meaningful.

After dividing the utterance into groups, the accented syllables in that part are decided upon and then a tonic syllable is chosen from among them in each group. **Tonic syllable** is the most important syllable among all the accented syllables on which a pitch movement is initiated. The choice of the tonic syllable is based on the meaning that one intends. Otherwise the last important accented syllable is chosen for the pitch change. Once the tonic syllable is chosen, the tone which is appropriate for that tone group is selected.

11.5 Choice of tone and different contexts

The choice of a tone i.e., the pitch change depends upon the context and the meaning with which it is expressed.

Falling tone is used in statements, 'wh'- questions asked neutrally, tag questions expecting confirmation or agreement, commands and exclamations. However the use of high fall and low fall carry different shades of narrow meaning change

    a. You have an extra class at nine tomorrow(statement)
    b. When is the night train for Mumbai? (wh- question)
    c. The weather is very nice. Isn't it? (confirmation or agreement in tag question)
    d. Come and meet me in the department. (command/ order)
    e. What a pleasant surprise(exclamation)

Rising tone is used in wh- questions asked with interest and concern, in yes/no questions, polite requests and in tag questions seeking information

    a. How do you feel today? (wh – question with interest)
    b. Are you hungry? (yes/no question)
    c. Can you get me a glass of water? (polite request)
    d. He didn't submit the project. Did he? (seeking information in tag questions)

Fall rise tone shows that something is implied which is not expressed directly in the sentence. It carries shades of meaning like doubt, sympathy and encouragement.

    a. When can we start? Now. (doubtful)
    b. She's beautiful. (but not very clever)

Rise fall tone shows the confirmation of the meaning conveyed by the following fall and also indicates warmth, anger and sarcasm.

    a. Do you agree? Yes (enthusiastic agreement)
    b. Are you sure it'll go? (suspicious, mocking)

11.6 Various functions of intonation in English

Intonation in English serves two functions namely grammatical and attitudinal function. The grammatical function helps in understanding whether an utterance is a statement, command, question or request. Consider these examples.

Shut the door (order- falling tone)

Shut the door (request- rising tone)

Going to Bombay (statement falling tone)

Going to Bombay (question rising tone)

The attitudinal function helps in finding the mood and attitude of the speaker whether he is bored, annoyed, interested, irritated or sarcastic.

11.7 Summary

So far in this lesson you came to know about different pitch patterns that make the intonation of English language. You also learnt how to divide an utterance into groups and how to select accented syllables, tonic syllable, and the tone. You have understood the various contexts in which these pitch patterns are used and the functions of intonation in English language.

11.8 Comprehension Check Questions

a. Define frequency

b. What is Pitch?

c. What is a tone group?

d. Why do we call a tone group a breath group or sense group?

e. What are the two functions of intonation?

f. Choose either falling tone or rising tone for the following sentences.

      a. I'm not hungry

      b. Are you going to attend the seminar next month?

      c. Can I have a cup of coffee?

      d. Complete the work within the stipulated time.

      e. When is the last date for the submission of project?

      f. You'll come tomorrow, won't you?

        g. How's your mother's health?

        h. The seminar is scheduled for the next month. Isn't it?

11.9 References

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian student*

O'Connor.J.D. *Better English Pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Additional resources

http://youtu.be/kVgcLVdd2Ec

http://youtu.be/tzh3Owutf5Y

LESSON 12
ALLOPHONES OF CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH- RULES OF PRONUNCIATION

Objectives

At the end of the lesson you will know
- Allophones of consonants of English
- Where to use the various allophones
- The rules governing the use of these allophones

Structure of the lesson

12.1 Introduction

12.2 Rule of aspiration and past tense marker rule

12.3 The other allophones of plosives

12.4 Allophones of nasals

12.5 Present tense and plural marker

12.6 Other allophones of fricatives

12.7 Allophones of lateral and approximants

12.8 Summary

12.9 Comprehension Check Questions

12.10 References

12.1 Introduction

In our previous lessons we have learnt that allophones are members of a phoneme. Phoneme is the core sound while allophones are the different realizations of the core sound in various allophonic variants. 24 English consonants have number of allophonic variants occurring in different phonetic environments. Native speakers of English use these variants intuitively following the governing rules behind the choice of an allophonic variants while the speakers of the language as second language find it difficult to use these variants. So the following sections of the lesson discuss the various rules that govern the choice of allophones and also various important allophones of the consonants of English.
.
12.2 Rule of aspiration and past tense marker.

Rule of aspiration: the voiceless plosives of English are aspirated when they occur at the stressed syllable initial position. The following examples help you in understanding the point.

'Poverty   Com**'p**artment   'Sample

'Candid	En'courage	ac'tivity
'Tenant	a'ttend	A'mount

In all the above words the voiceless plosives /p/, /t/, /k/ that occur at the beginning of stressed syllables(shown in bold font) are aspirated here. By aspiration we mean that these three sounds are produced by releasing an extra puff of breath and this is shown in transcription by super scribing /p/, /t/, /k/ with a small 'h' at the top infront of the syllable. The phonetic environment where this aspirated allophonic variant of voiceless plosives occurs is defined as the initial position of a stressed syllable. So in all the other phonetic environments the unaspirated variant occurs. Some examples where the unaspirated variants of voiceless plosives occur are,

Um**p**teen	**P**osition	jum**p**
terrestrial	main**t**ain	Firs**t**
continue	a**c**tual mon**k**	

In all the above examples the voiceless plosives that are shown in bold font are the allophonic variants of the voiceless plosives as unaspirated voiceless plosives.

Past tense marker: Indian speakers usually pronounce past tense marker'd' or 'ed' as 'd' in all its occurrences. But the native speakers differentiate it in their pronunciation and it is explained with the following rules.

Past tense marker'd' or 'ed' is pronounced as /t/ when the marker occurs after a voiceless consonant except /t/. Let us look at some examples now.

Map+ed=	mapped	/mæpt/
Pass+ed=	passed /pa:st/	
Walk+ed=	walked /wɒkt/	
Laugh+ed=	laughed	/la:ft/
Push+ed=	pushed	/puʃt/

In all these examples the root word ends in a voiceless consonant and so the marker is pronounced as /t/

Past tense marker'd' or 'ed' is pronounced as'd' when the marker occurs after voiced sounds. The following examples explain the point.

Rob+ed=	robbed	/rɒbd/
Flog+ed=	flogged	/flɒgd/
Carve+ed=	carved /ka:vd/	
Buzz+ed=	buzzed /bʌzd/	
Blame+d =	blamed	/bleimd/
Pin+ed=	pinned	/pind/
Call+ed=	called /kɒld/	

Here in these examples the root word ends in voiced sound and so the marker is pronounced as /d/.

Past tense marker'd' or 'ed' is pronounced /id/ when the marker occurs after /t/ or/d/. Let us look at some examples

Paint+ed=	painted	/peintid/
Want+ed=	wanted	/ wɒntid/
Brand+ed=	branded	/brændid/
Round+ed=	rounded	/raundid/

12.3 Other allophones of Plosives

Apart from the above mentioned aspirated and unaspirated allophonic variants of voiceless plosives all the plosives have these allophonic variants.

The four plosives /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/ are **nasally exploded** when they are followed by nasals as in the following examples

Top**most** /tɒpməust/
Sub**merge** /səbmɜ:dʒ/
Cott**on** /kɒtn/
Sudd**en** /sʌdn/

The letter and the corresponding sound are shown in bold font. The nasal explosion of these plosives is shown with the superscription of the plosive with the corresponding nasal symbol.

All the six plosives are not released audibly when they occur in word final position. A small inverted capital 'L' symbol is superscribed on this allophonic variant of plosives. These examples have this allophonic variant (verify the hand written annexure sheet included in lesson 11)

Mop	/mɒp/
Lab	/læb/
Mount	/maunt/
Hard	/ha:d/
Sack	/sæk/
Wig	/wig/

Alveolar plosives /t/, /d/ are laterally released when they are followed by the lateral /l/ as in 'cattle' /kætl/ and 'riddle' / ridl/. This lateral explosion is shown with the superscription of these two sounds with /l/symbol.

12.4 Allophones of nasals

The bilabial nasal /m/ has the allophonic variant of labio dental [ɱ] when it is followed by labio dental fricatives /f/,/v/ as in 'comfort' /kəɱfɜ:t/ and 'circumvent' /sɜ:kəɱvent/.

The alveolar nasal /n/ becomes dental nasal when it is followed by the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ as in tenth /teṉθ/ and 'in there' /iṉðeə/. The symbol for this allophone is [ṉ].

Alveolar nasal /n/ becomes post alveolar nasal when it's followed by /r/ as in 'enroll' /eṉrəul/. This allophone is shown as [ṉ]

12.5 Present tense and plural marker

Indian speakers pronounce the plural or present tense marker 's' or 'es' as /s/ in all its occurrences. But the native speakers use three different sounds to pronounce this marker. The following steps show this use.

Verb in present tense, when it has a third person singular noun or pronoun as its subject, takes 's' or 'es' marker. Similarly nouns in plural form take's' or 'es' as plural marker. Some rules of pronunciation govern the pronunciation of these markers.

The marker's' or 'es' is pronounced as /s/ if the marker comes after a voiceless consonant except /ʧ/, /s/, /ʃ/ as in the following examples

Cap+s   = caps   /kæps/
Mount+s   = mounts   /maunts/
Pack+s = packs   /pæks/
Laugh+s   =laughs   /la:fs/
Month+s   =months   /mʌnθs/

The marker is pronounced as /z/when it comes after a voiced sound except /ʤ/, /z/, /ʒ/ as in these examples given below.

Robe+s   =robes /rəubz/
Blade+s   =blades   /bleidz/
Wag+s =wags   /wægz/
Bathe+s   =bathes   /beiðz/
Call+s   =calls   /kɒlz/

The marker is pronounced as /iz/ when it occurs after /ʧ/, /ʤ/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ as in these examples.

Match+es   =matches   /mæʧiz/
Judge+s   =judges   /ʤʌʤiz/
Pass+es   =passes   /pa:siz/
Rose+s=roses /rəuziz/
Flash+es   =flashes   /flæʃiz/
Garage+s   =garages   /gəra:ʒiz/

12.6 Other allophones of fricatives

Apart from the above rules for the pronunciation of the present tense and plural marker, there are no major prominent allophonic variants for the fricatives of English. Only the glottal fricative/h/ needs a mention with an important allophonic variant. /h/ is voiceless glottal fricative when it usually comes at the beginning of a syllable or a word. When it occurs between two vowels as in 'behave' /bifieiv/ or 'behind' /bifiaind/ this intervocalic glottal fricative becomes voiced and it is shown as [ɦ]

12.7 Allophones of lateral and approximants

The voiced alveolar lateral /l/ becomes voiced dental lateral when it is followed by the dental fricative /θ/. The allophone is shown as [̪l] and these are some examples.
Health   /hel̪θ/
Wealth /wel̪θ/

Clear /l/: /l/is clear or palatalized when it is followed by a vowel or /j/as in these words
     Live   /liv/
     Last   /la:st/
     Let   /let/
     Million   /miljən/

Dark /l/: /l/is dark or velarised in word final position or when it is followed by a consonant as in these examples
     Cold   /kəuld/
     Rolled   /rəuld/
     Silk   /silk/

     Voiced post alveolar approximant/r/ has these allophonic variants. It becomes voiceless post alveolar fricative when it is preceded by voiceless plosive as in 'prize' /praiz/, 'tray' /trei/. It becomes a voiced alveolar tap when it comes between two vowels as in 'very' /very/, 'carry', /kæri/

Linking /r/: word final /r/in English is dropped in native speaker's pronunciation. But it is retained in one's pronunciation when the word ending with /r/sound is followed by a word beginning with a vowel sound. Let us look at some examples.
Car   /ka:/
My car is a red one   /mai ka:riz ə red wʌn/. In this sentence you can notice the use of word final /r/ as it followed by a vowel sound and as it is used to link up two words it is called linking /r/

Intrusive /r/. in the spoken English of some native speakers of English one listens to /r/ at word boundaries even when there is no 'r' in spelling form of words. When one word ends in a vowel and the following begins with a vowel and there is no pause in the utterance then these two words are connected with a /r/ by insertion. This use of /r/ is called intrusive and so called intrusive /r/. Look at these examples
Law and order /lɔ:r ənd ɔ:də/
Drama and music   /dra;mər ən mjuzik/

     Voiced palatal approximant /j/ become voiceless palatal fricative shown as [ç] when it is preceded by aspirated voiceless plosive and /h/ as in these examples.
Pupil   /pçu:pl/
Pure   /pçuə/
Tunic /tçu;nik/
Tube   /tçu:b/
Curious /kçuəriəs/
Humid /hçmid/

     Voiced labio velar approximant /w/ becomes voiceless labio velar approximant when it is preceded by aspirated /t/, /k/ as in these examples given below. The phonetic symbol of this allophonic variant is shown with the symbol /w/ in an inverted position.
Tweet   /twi:t/
Queer   /kwiə/

Quite   /kwaiət/

Twist   /twist/

All the following consonants are devoiced in specific phonetic environments. The consonants are /m/, /n/, /v/, / ð /, /z/, /l/ /r/,/ j/, and /w/. The devoiced allophonic variants of these consonants are shown with a small zero/circle below the phonemic symbol of the sound.

12.8 Summary

You have learnt so far in this lesson that there are some rules that govern the pronunciation of certain sounds in certain grammatical and phonetic categories. You also came to know the major allophonic variants of consonants of English

12.9 Comprehension Check Questions

     a. What are the members of phoneme called?

     b. Define the aspirated plosives and give the environment in which they occur

     c. Identify the plosive that is aspirated in the words given below

          cacophony, paramount, paucity, tantamount, chemistry, occasionally,

           totalitarian, application, entire, attitude, canteen, approval, attach.

     d. Transcribe the following words using correct past tense marker.

          Reaped, locked, parched, miffed, harassed, pointed, guarded, brushed, clapped,

          winked, pasted,

          Clenched, coughed, missed, thrashed,

     e. List the allophonic variants of the nasal sounds.

     f. Transcribe the following words using correct form of the present tense or plural

     marker.

          Taps, clubs, waits, roads, rocks, mugs, puffs, calves, paths, loathes,

          gums, pins, rings, pulls, clutches, badges, misses, buzzes, thrashes,

     g. Define clear 'l' and dark "l' and give the difference between them.

     h. What is linking 'r' and intrusive 'r'? Give examples.

12.10 References

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian students*

O'Connor.J.D. *Better English Pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

Additional sources.

http://tkacmaz.files.wordpress.com/2014/02/allophones.pdf

http://www.nativlang.com/linguistics/ipa-pronunciation-lessons.php

http://youtu.be/luYZnqmjWaI

LESSON 13

PRACTICE IN TRANSCRIPTION

Objective

By the end of this lesson you will transcribe the whole words and short phrases using IPA symbols.

Structure of the lesson

13.1 Introduction

13.2 Transcription of words

13.3 Transcription of phrases

13.4 Summary

13.5 References

13.1 Introduction

In this lesson you get ample practice in transcribing the words and phrases of English using IPA symbols. In one of your previous lessons you practised while taking support from the anchoring sounds given to help you and also the corresponding word in spelling. This way you practised with focus on consonants and vowels respectively. In the following activities you have to transcribe the words given in spelling and support is provided to you in the form of blanks corresponding to the number of sounds.. You can refer to any Standard English dictionary that gives the pronunciation or a pronunciation dictionary itself as given in the references.

13.2 Transcription of words.

Do use slant bars to indicate transcription.

S.NO	Word in spelling	Transcription
1	Rougher	_ _ _ _
2	Defied	_ _ _ _ _
3	Refuse	_ _ _ _ _ _
4	Bluff	_ _ _ _
5	Several	_ _ _ _ _ _
6	Believe	_ _ _ _ _
7	Visit	_ _ _ _ _
8	Thought	_ _ _
9	Though	_ _
10	Carver	_ _ _ _
11	Heathen	_ _ _ _

12	Wealthy	_ _ _ _ _
13	Thousand	_ _ _ _ _ _
14	Zest	_ _ _ _
`15	Neither	_ _ _ _
16	Teething	_ _ _ _
17	Against	_ _ _ _ _ _
18	Listen	_ _ _ _
19	Mister	_ _ _ _ _
20	Rubbish	_ _ _ _ _
21	Persian	_ _ _ _
22	Invasion	_ _ _ _ _ _
23	Anxious	_ _ _ _ _ _
24	Unholy	_ _ _ _ _ _
25	Marble	_ _ _ _
26	Shoulder	_ _ _ _ _
27	Kitchen	_ _ _ _
28	August	_ _ _ _ _
29	Language	_ _ _ _ _ _ _
30	Question	_ _ _ _ _ _
31	Tomorrow	_ _ _ _ _ _
32	Journey	_ _ _ _
33	Join	_ _ _
34	Allow	_ _ _ _
35	Yellow	_ _ _ _ _
36	Dwell	_ _ _ _
37	Away	_ _ _
38	Woman	_ _ _ _ _
39	Corners	_ _ _ _ _
40	Green	_ _ _ _
41	Gardens	_ _ _ _ _ _
42	Pittance	_ _ _ _ _ _
43	Frighten	_ _ _ _ _ _
44	Atmosphere	_ _ _ _ _ _ _
45	Excitement	_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
46	Channeled	_ _ _ _ _ _ _
47	Component	_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
48	Courageous	_ _ _ _ _ _ _
49	Betrayal	_ _ _ _ _ _
50	Murderer	_ _ _ _ _ _

13.3 Transcription of phrases. Don't forget to use slant bars**.**

S.No	Phrase	Transcription
1	Next Sunday	
2	Perhaps not	
3	Fix this	
4	Help me	
5	Thank you	
6	Change one	
7	Watch cricket	
8	Tall tree	
9	Nice tune	
10	Loud cry	
11	Long skirt	
12	Page twenty	
13	Twelfth night	
14	Bottled wine	
15	Strange dream	
16	Small square	
17	That's true	
18	Fifth floor	
19	Long street	
20	Good student	
21	Prompt start	
22	Mixed sweets	
23	Next spring	
24	Brave bluff	
25	Rough grave	
26	Out of hand	
27	Went home	
28	Look at	

29	Smart boy	
30	Black belt	
31	Rainy day	
32	Funny situation	
33	Little angel	
34	Tricky issue	
35	Lovely dress	
36	Messy problem	
37	Complicated matter	
38	Giant structure	
39	Key board	
40	Laptop bag	
41	Computer lab	
42	Harsh weather	

13.4 Summary

In this lesson you have practiced transcribing words and phrases.

13.5 References:

Balasubramanian, T. *A Text book of phonetics for Indian students*

O'Connor.J.D. *Better English Pronunciation*

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

LESSON 14

THEORIES ON THE ORIGINS OF LANGUAGE

Objectives

By the end of the lesson you will know

a. The attempts to know about the origins of language
b. Different theories about the origins of language
c. Attempts of linguists to prove the veracity of these theories

Structure of the lesson

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Definition of Language

14.3 Origins of the language

14.4 Evolution of languages

14.5 Summary

14.6 Comprehension Check Questions

14.7 References

14.1 Introduction.

Language in the way that the human beings use is very unique to the human species. This 'Language' has always caught the interest of philosophers, thinkers, poets and linguists more specifically about its origins. Nearly 6,000 languages (David Crystal) are spoken by the people of the world though majority of them have very few speakers. These many languages puzzle the thinkers and make them introspect on how so many languages have come into existence, whether there existed one language or several languages from the beginning of the human race, whether there was any linguistic communication at the beginning and so on. While some investigated for scientific logical explanation and ontological proofs for their theories, the others simply propounded theories based on the beliefs in vogue. The human language with its complex yet beautifully productive ways fascinated the linguists and a study of these theories will help a student of a language to be better equipped for their analysis and understanding of language.

14.2 Definition of Language:

The word language comes from the Latin origin "lingua" which means tongue. As the tongue plays an important role in speaking, this word might have originated from the Latin root. Language is "The method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way", defines the Oxford dictionary while the

Cambridge Advanced Learners dictionary defines it as "a system of communication consisting of sounds, words, and grammar, or the system of communication used by people in a particular country or type of work." Encyclopedia Britannica further expands the scope of the concept of language by defining it as "language, a system of conventional spoken, manual, or written symbols by means of which human beings, as members of a social group and participants in its culture, express themselves. The functions of language include communication, the expression of identity, play, imaginative expression, and emotional release." As you observe, all the three definitions focus on the aspect that it is a system of communication using either the oral signs or the written symbols and it is used among a group or community. One of the points put forward by the Encyclopedia Britannica aptly mentions that the urge for expressing one's emotions and the need for it has resulted in the birth of language. These definitions further explain how languages are primarily oral or spoken and a later intellectual and historical need prompted for the record of the events of the human race in the form of symbols resulting in the written language. The definitions also say that it uses sounds, words and grammar in a structured way. All these aspects of language have aroused the interest of the linguists in tracing the origins of language.

14.3 Origins of the language

There has always been a significant role of tradition and myth in many cultures regarding the nature and origins of language. Research in cultural anthropology has shown quite clearly that most primitive cultures were sure that Divinity had been involved with language from the beginning. Such a faith and philosophy made the thinkers look for the roots of language in the Divine creation. So theories like the following, which had been rejected later on, were proposed abundantly.

Gift theory: In the ancient times people believed that God created man along with speech and this was strongly evidenced in the Bible (Genesis XI, 1-9). Similar stories were and still are plenty in other cultures and faiths too. The God Thoth was the originator of speech and writing to the Egyptians. The Babylonians attributed it to their God Nabu. Chinese believe that a heaven sent turtle with marks on its back brought it to them. For Icelanders Odin was the inventor of runic language and Goddess Saraswathi the protégée of Lord Brahma presides over language as per Hindu mythology. This kind of association between the divine and language was quite prevalent among the primitive societies. The miraculous power of language as it controls objects, which a child feels in its early life, is felt and writing is omniscient and thus sacred. The anthropologist Mayakovski says that many of the primitive cultures believed a repeated saying of some words will produce the reality that is being said.

Conventional theory: This theory maintains that man consciously invented language and also believed that man gave the God this gift and the theorists who believed in this theory quote from the Bible ".. and whatsoever the man called every living creature, that was the name there of. And the man gave names to all cattle..."Gen. (11-19-20)

Gesture theory: The earliest humans communicated with signs and gestures using many body parts. For instance a person is asked to come near by waving one's hand in a particular way which is practiced even now along with the verbal equivalent. This theory was proposed and supported by Wilhelm Wundt and Richard Paget in the book "Human Speech" but this theory

makes a far fetching observation that along with gestures even the tongue takes the relevant positions in the mouth along with hand gestures.

Bow wow theory: This theory says that the early human being started naming the creatures around him such as bow-vow for a dog and baa-baa for sheep after the sounds that they make. Similarly words are created for the actions like hissing of a snake, murmur, giggle, buzz, rumble and so on. Though this theory is scornfully named bow vow theory by the German philologist Max Muller it is known as root creation, onomatopoeia, or imitation in language theories.

Ding dong theory/ echo theory

The German philologists Max Muller and Bucher propounded that language has been innate in man from his evolution and the universe is correspondingly rhythmic which enabled the primitive man to create words by observing rhythmic sounds. "observing a certain rhythm in the purling of the stream or the swaying of the trees in the wind early man ding donged phonetically to them partly as accompaniment, partly in imitation." F T Wood

The pooh pooh theory: This theory argues that the emotions like surprise sorrow, anger, pain and joy and so on have made man to create language that would reflect his emotions such as the expressions like pooh pooh to show contempt as in sentences like that 'they pooh poohed his behaviour'.

14.4 Evolution of the language

All these theories have attempted to point out how language as human communication form must have originated. But one big question that comes to your minds at this point is how these many number of languages have come up into existence. Here again a story originated in the bible (Genesis 11:4) says that the humans aspired to reach the heavens by constructing a huge tower that helps them reach God. So all the humans who were speaking a single tongue were successfully progressing with their effort and god was apprehensive that the humans may reach him. So he discussed with his consorts and decided that the humans were able to succeed even to that extent because they were using a single language and so confused every one by making them speak different languages. Thus failing to comprehend one another, they failed to complete their task. So this Babel Tower theory proposes that God's apprehension of man was the reason for the emergence of these many languages.

But the socio evolutionary linguistic approaches justify the origination of these many languages from a parent language. One of them known as genetic classification argues that the languages have diverged from a common ancestor basing its study on the primitive or ancient scripts and comparing the available data through which the form of the parent language is reconstructed. Typological classification compares the formal similarities in languages basing on phonology, grammar or vocabulary and groups languages and thus declares that these languages once descended from a prototype and later developed into many languages because of their separation and distancing from the parent language. Contact with new cultures and thus new languages resulted in borrowing and thus influencing cultures and languages mutually

However, geographical exploration brought languages other than Latin Greek, Hebrew, Chinese, Sanskrit, and Arabic to the world's notice mainly in Africa, East Asia and the Far East. This has brought the question of the world's oldest language to the forefront again. Many

experiments by the kings of different civilizations like Indian, Arabic, Egyptian and Greek were conducted. They were a kind of psycho linguistic experiments, but none of them with any validity. The reason behind such interest in the oldest language in the world is that it gives a validity and prestigious position for religious studies and to propose that all the other languages are descendants of that ancestor and accredit it with authority. Hebrew was one such language. There were other proposals like that such as Adam spoke Danish, God spoke Swedish and the Serpent spoke French and so on. Germany was also argued to be the primeval language. All such kind of far fetching arguments were reaching their crescendo and so the Linguistic Society of Paris banned papers on the origins of language as these issues were not scientific in nature. The truth is that every language which had been studied proved upon investigation that it is a highly complex and developed system of communication. This whole argument can be aptly summed up in the words of Sapir who says that naming a language as primitive was a misconception because all the cultures and communities of the world possessed of a fully developed languages.

14.5 Summary

So far in this lesson you have read that history of human language is as old as the history of human being and that many theories existed about the origin of the language as human communication. You also came to know that these theories are associated more with religious beliefs and non scientific thinking. However you understood that all the languages of the world have been fully developed communication systems even among the primitive tribes and the hypothesis of a prototype has been either a religiously or politically influenced conjecture.

14.6 Comprehension Check Questions

1. Define language and its features
2. List various theories about the origin of language
3. Narrate the Babel tower theory and explain how it's different from the other theories presented in the lesson
4. What is the difference between Genetic classification and the Typological Classification?

14.7 References

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Additional Resources
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language
http://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Origin_of_language

M.A Degree Examination January -2022

First Semester

English

Paper- I : Structure of Modern English –I

Time : Three Hours   **Maximum : 70 Marks**

1. Write Phonetic transcription of the following (a prose and one dialogue)
   (a). one of the most obvious characteristics of the new family is that there are not always two parents. Due mostly to the rise in divorces since World War II, single parent families are becoming more and more frequent and accepted in British society. Usually, it is the mother who takes responsibility for raising the child, and she has to balance the pressures of earning a living and raising her children at the same time. This situation obviously demands societal and governmental support. Simultaneously, the understandable patriarchal ambience of the society should also change.

   (b)   Doctor   :   how long have you been having this pain?
          Patient   :   it started in June.
          Doctor   :   have you changed your eating habits during this period?
          Patient   :   I am eating the same foods, but less.
          Doctor   :   how strong is the pain exactly?
          Patient   :   I say, it's not really bad. It just keeps coming back.
          Doctor   :   how long does the pain last when you get it?
          Patient   :   it comes and goes. Sometimes, I hardly feel anything.

2. What are the speech organs? Explain their significance in speaking.
3. Bring out the classification in speck sounds. Discuss them with illustrations.
4. Elaborate the importance of consonant clusters in teaching in English.
5. Elucidate the importance of rhythm in the connected speech with illustrations.
6. Bring out the functional role of accent and intonation in speaking and communicating.
7. Write short notes on the following:
   a. Examples of open syllable.
   b. Examples of closed syllable.
   c. Significance of teaching syllable.
   d. Culture and accent.
8. "Human Language ios generative". Comment on the significance of this in human communication and in its flexibility.
9. What are the main branches of Linguistics? Explain them in detail.

10. Write short notes on the following:
    a. Phonetics and Phonology.
    b. Applied linguistics
    c. Pragmatics
    d. Translation
11. Explain how scientific understanding of linguistics helps us develop proper understanding of structure of Modern English.
12. Throw light on the role of dialect, idiolect, register to the development of style.
13. Write short notes on the following:
    a. Correctness and grammatical error
    b. Acceptable and appropriate
    c. Right and wrong
    d. Correctness as a notion.

LESSON 15

HUMAN LANGUAGE AND ANIMAL COMMUNICATION

15.0 Objectives:

By the end of the lesson you will know

- The properties of human language
- Features of animal communication
- Differentiate between human and animal communication.

Structure of the lesson

15.1. Introduction
15.2. Characteristics of communication
15.3. Characteristics of Human Communication
15.4. Difference between human and animal language
15.5. Summary
15.6. Comprehension Check Questions
15.7. References

Expansion of the Structure

15.1 Introduction

Linguistics is systematic study of language. It is a discipline which describes language in all its aspects and formulates theories as on how it works. Human language is complex in form and function. E. Sapir defined it saying that "language is purely a human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" (1921) and thus clearly distinguishing it from non human forms of communication, while Chomsky calls it " a set (finite or infinite) of sentences each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements (1957) Indicating its complexity. "Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral- auditory arbitrary symbols." Defines R A Hall (1964). Naturally no animal communication system remotely compares with the level of sophistication found in human language as illustrated by these definitions.

15.2. Characteristics of communication

Before we define the properties that constitute the human language as communication system and differentiate it from the animal communication system let us define the properties of communication itself. John Lyons, a famous linguist, introduces the concept of Semiotics to describe communication "as the science of symbolic behaviour or of communication systems." He uses the term communication in a broader sense that includes even animal communication. As per his theory of Semiotics a **signal** is transmitted from a **sender** to a **receiver** or a group of receivers along a channel of communication. The signal will have a particular **form** and will convey a particular **meaning** or message. The connection between the form of the signal and its meaning is established by the **code**. The message is **encoded** by the sender and **decoded** by the receiver.

15.2 Characteristics of Human Communication.

Linguists have attempted to list the various properties that define human language by distinguishing it from other forms of communication C.F.Hockett lists the following design features of Communication.

Auditory vocal channel: Sound is used between mouth and ear instead of sense of look and touch to make communication take place. When Hockett first defined this feature, it did not take sign language into account, which reflects the ideology of orality that was prevalent during the time. This feature has since been modified to include other channels of language, such as tactile-visual or chemical-olfactory.

Broadcast transmission and directional reception: a signal can be heard by any auditory system within earshot and source can be located using the ear's direction finding ability. When humans speak, sounds are transmitted in all directions; however, listeners perceive the direction from which the sounds are coming. This is characteristic of most forms of human and animal communication.

Rapid fading: Auditory signals are transitory. Transitoriness refers to the idea of temporary quality of language. Language sounds exist for only a brief period of time, after which they are no longer perceived. Sound waves quickly disappear once a speaker stops speaking. This is also true of signs. In contrast, other forms of communication such as writing are relatively permanent.

Interchangeability: Speakers of language can reproduce any linguistic message that they can understand. This feature refers to the idea that humans can give and receive identical linguistic signals; humans are not limited in the types of messages they can say/hear. The importance is that a speaker can physically create any and all messages regardless of their truth or relation to the speaker. In other words, anything that one can hear, one can also say.

Total feedback: Speakers can hear and can reflect on everything that they say.

Specialization: The sound waves of speech have no function other than to signal meaning. The purpose of linguistic signals is communication and not some other biological function. When humans speak or sign, it is generally intentional. An example of *non*-specialized communication is dog panting. When a dog pants, it often communicates to its owner that it is hot or thirsty; however, the dog pants in order to cool itself off. This is a biological function, and the communication is a secondary matter.

Semanticity: Elements of signal convey meaning through their stable association with real world situations

Arbitrariness: The connection between the form and the meaning is arbitrary by which we mean that given the form it is impossible to predict the meaning and given the meaning it is impossible to predict the form. Arbitrariness increases the flexibility of communication system. There is no dependence of the element of the signal on the nature of reality to which it refers to. There is no intrinsic or logical connection between a sound signal and its meaning. Whatever name a human language attributes to an object it is purely arbitrary. There is no connection between the word rose and the flower it symbolizes as some other language uses a different word. Spoken words are really nothing like the objects they

represent. This is further demonstrated by the fact that different languages attribute very different names to the same object.

Duality of patterning: This is the property of having two levels of structure so that the units of primary level are composed elements of the secondary level and each of the two levels has its own principles of organization. The sounds of language have no intrinsic meaning, but combine in different ways to form elements that do convey meaning**.** Each language has a set of finite number of phonemes. Individual phonemes are meaningless but can generate meaning only in combination with other sounds. This organization of language into layers - a layer of sound elements which combine into a second layer of larger unit – is known as duality or double articulation. Communication with duality or double articulation is more flexible than the one without it.

Discreteness: This is a property of the secondary elements**.** Language can be broken down into small discrete units which are reproducible and combinable. These units are perceived distinctly and not continuously. Small set of sound elements clearly contrast with each other and the discrete units of human language are phonemes-- morphemes--words -- phrases—that create sentences.

Displacement: It is possible to talk about events remote in space or time from the situation of the speaker. Human language can talk about yesterday and tomorrow or about men on the moon or characters in a novel.

Productivity: There is an infinite capacity to express and understand meaning by using old sentence elements to produce new sentences.

Traditional transmission: language is transmitted from one generation to the next primarily by a process of teaching and learning. This is also called cultural transmission. While humans are born with innate language capabilities, language is learned after birth in a social setting. Children learn how to speak by interacting with experienced language users. Language and culture are woven together.

Prevarication. This one property of the human language which is totally absent in the animal communication is falsehood, lies or meaningless statements.

Reflexiviness: Human language can talk about language such as on its pronunciation, syntax, grammar and so on. Language discusses language and such language is called meta language. Human beings are able to reflect. They are able to talk about or reflect on language itself. Without this we can't talk about the other properties of language.

Learnability. Speakers of a language can learn and teach another language. Language is teachable and learnable. In the same way as a speaker learns their first language, the speaker is able to learn other languages. It is worth noting that young children learn any language with competence and ease; however, language acquisition becomes more difficult once children pass a certain age.

 The following Table shows the features of communication and how far they are present in various communication forms of animals and humans Source (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Charles_F._Hockett)

Feature	Crickets	Bee dancing	Western meadow lark song	Gibbon calls	Signing apes	Alex, a grey parrot	Paralinguistic phenomena	Human sign languages	Spoken language
Vocal-Auditory Channel	Auditory not vocal	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes
Broadcast Transmission and Directional Reception	Yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Rapid Fading	Yes repeating	?	yes	Yes repeating	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
interchangeability	Limited	limited	?	yes	yes	yes	Largely yes	yes	yes
Total Feedback	Yes	?	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes
Specialization	Yes?	?	yes	yes	yes	yes	Yes?	yes	yes
Semanticity	no?	yes	In part	yes	yes	yes	Yes?	yes	yes
Arbitrariness	?	no	If semantic yes	yes	Largely yes	yes	In part	Largely yes	yes
Discreteness	Yes?	No	?	yes	yes	yes	Largely no	yes	yes
Displacement	_	Yes always	?	no	yes	no	In part	Yes often	Yes often
Productivity	No	yes	?	no	debatable	limited	yes	yes	yes
Traditional Transmission	No?	Probably not	?	?	limited	limited	yes	yes	yes
Duality of Patterning	?	no	?	No cotton top tamaqrin: yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
Prevarication	_	_	_	_	yes	no	_	yes	yes
Reflexiveness	_	_	_	_	No?	no	_	yes	yes
Learnability	_	_	_	_	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes

15.3 Differences between Human and Animal communication

Of the design features of communication given by Hockett only human language possess all the characteristics. Gibbons, apes which are very close to the humans in evolution, possess many of them while other forms of animal communication like that of bees, stickleback, lark etc. do not have many of these communicative properties. Comparing the animal communication with that of human communication in the possession of design features, Hockett observes that the waggle dance of bees which is considered the most sophisticated form of communication among animals by the scientists possesses the following features.

Broadcast transmission and directional reception. The bees send a signal that informs the other members of the hive in which direction the source of the food can be located.

Semanticity. Specific signals of communication system can be matched with specific meanings is apparent because the other members of the hive are able to locate food source.

Displacement. The bees are able to communicate about the source of food or a resource that is not currently present within the hive.

Production. The dances of the bees change based on the direction where the food source is located, and the quantity of the food source and also on the quality or the type of the resource.

So it's apparent that human language and animal communication are not totally divergent from each other. However even if the animal communication possesses some of the design features of communication which are found in human language, the animal communication is not refined, sophisticated, productive and complex like that of human language.

Animals have both **discrete and non-discrete systems** of communication but their messages as well as symbols are limited in quantity and dimension. The communication systems of most animals are instinctive. They inherit them genetically. None can separate animals from their inbuilt qualities. On the contrary, human language is non-instinctive. Humans can acquire and learn anything and any language as a result of social interaction. Animal communication is devoid of 'novelty', 'creativity' and 'multiplicity' to produce apt utterances according to different situations. Most animals have limited number of messages or symbols they can send or receive. While human language possesses the qualities, a human being can even in the most unlikely situation utter a sentence which has never been said before and it can still be understood. Some basic and quite apparent differences between animal and human communication system are

	Human language	Animal communication system
1	has grammaticality	has no grammaticality
2	descriptive and narrative	non- descriptive and narrative
3	recurrent	repetitive
4	cognitive as well as behavioral	only behavioral
5	open system	close system
6	structure dependent	not structure dependent

(source:http://johnsonmjose.hubpages.com/hub/The-difference-between-animal-and-human-communication)

15.4 Summary

        You have learnt by this lesson that communication takes place both in humans and animals and human language is sophisticated and complex. The properties of communication that mark fully the human language have made you understand why human language is flexible, productive and complex.

15.5 comprehension Check questions

1. What are some definitions of language given in the lesson?
2. List the characteristics of communication as stated by Lyons.
3. Discuss the properties of Human communication.
4. List the design features of communication
5. What features of communication are present in bees and how are they present?
6. List two differences between human and animal communication.

15.6 References

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LESSON 16
DEFINITION AND SCOPE OF LINGUISTICS

16.0 Objectives:

By the end of the lesson you will

- define linguistics
- know scope of linguistics study
- various sub disciplines that make linguistics
- Understand how these disciplines are interconnected

Structure of the lesson

16.0 Objectives
16.1.Introduction.
16.2.Definition of linguistics
16.3.Scope of Linguistics
16.4.Levels of linguistic analysis
16.5.Phonolgy
16.6.Morphology
16.7.Syntax
16.8.Semantics
16.9.Semiotics
16.10 Discourse
16.11 Summary
16.12 Comprehension Check Questions
16.13 References

Expansion of the Structure

16.1 Introduction.

Linguistics is a vast field of language study that includes many sub areas of language study that fall within the realm of linguistics. There have emerged many related fields of study over the evolution of history of language study thatare very closely connected to linguistics. This lesson looks at the definition and meaning of linguistics along with the areas of study that fall under its scope and will give a very broad classification of all these areas.

16.2. Definition of linguistics

Routledge dictionary of language and linguistics defines linguistics as "Scientific discipline with the goal of describing language and speech in all relevant theoretical and practical aspects and their relation to adjoining disciplines."

Linguistics is thus a scientific study of language. By this we mean language in general, not a particular language. But linguistics does not study an individual language; it studies 'language'in general. It is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and of the human faculties. We can say that

linguistics is learning aboutlanguage rather than learning a language. "Linguistics observes language in action as a means for determining how language has developed, how it functions today, and how it is currently evolving."(G. Duffy)

Linguistics investigates the mechanism of language, its parts and how all these parts fit together to perform particular functions, and why they are arranged or organized in a certain manner. We study language because it is important for us to understand this mechanism. Linguistics studies language: language is a phenomenon which is both objective and variable. The linguist studies the components of language, e.g. observing the occurrence of speech-sounds, or the way in which words begin or end. Language, like other phenomena, is objective because it is observable with the senses.

Linguistics 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. But while linguistics shares some of the characteristics of empirical science, it is also a social science because it studies language which is a form of social behaviour and exists in interaction between human beings in society. Language is also linked to human mental processes. This includes the study of literature, and appreciation of the beauty and music of poetry. Moreover, since every branch of knowledge uses language, linguistics is central to all areas of knowledge. As Lyons puts it, linguistics has natural links with a wide range of academic disciplines. To say that linguistics is a science is not to deny that it is closely related to such eminently human disciplines as philosophy and literary criticism.

16.3. Scope of Linguistics

Before the twentieth century, the study of language was not regarded as a separate area of study in its own right. It was considered to be a part of studying the history of language or the philosophy of language, and this was known not as linguistics but as philosophy. So 'Linguistics'is a modern name which defines a specific discipline, in which we study language not in relation to some other area such as history or philosophy, but language as itself, as a self-enclosed and autonomous system, worthy of study in its own right. However, now we acknowledge that while linguistics is a distinct area of study, it is also linked to other disciplines and there are overlapping areas of concern.

The main concern of modern linguistics is to describe language, to study its nature and to establish a theory of language. It aims at studying the components of the language system and to ultimately arrive at an explanatory statement on how the system works. In modern linguistics, the activity of describing the language system is the most important and so modern linguistics is generally known as descriptive. But linguistics has other concerns as well, which fall within its scope and these include historical and comparative study of language. These differ from the descriptive approach in their emphasis; otherwise, these approaches also involve description of language.

16.4 Levels of Linguistic Analysis

Language has a hierarchical structure. This means that it is made up of units which are again made up of smaller units till we have the smallest indivisible unit, i.e. a single distinguishable sound, called a phoneme. Or we can put it the other way round, and say that single sounds or phonemes combine together to make larger units of sounds, these combine into a larger meaningful unit called a morpheme; morphemes combine to form larger units of

words, and 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. At each stage (or level), there are certain rules that operate which permit the occurrence and combination of smaller units. So we can say that rules of phonology determine the occurrence and combination of particular phoneme, rules of word-formation cover the behaviour of particular morphemes; rules of sentence-formation determine the combination and positioning of words in a sentence. Each level is a system in its own right. It is important to remember that, because of the existence of rules at each level, we can analyse each level **independently** of the other. Although these levels are linked in that one is lower in the hierarchy and another is higher in the hierarchy, and the higher level includes the lower, still each level is independent because it has its own rules of operation that can be described, analysed and understood.

These levels can be represented in the following manner, with each level of analysis corresponding to each level of the structure of the language:

Levels of Analysis	*Levels of Structure*
Phonetics and Phonology	SOUND
Letters	(Graphology)
Morphology	WORD FORMATION
Syntax	SENTENCE-FORMATION
Semantics	MEANINGS
Discourse	CONNECTED SENTENCES

A careful look at the above table will show that the levels of language structure are not completely separate from one another. In fact, there are important and vital linkages between the levels. We know that links between these levels are far more complex than we had earlier accepted. With regard to discourse, we can see that it is made up of all the levels of language working together, while semantics incorporates analysis of meaning at the level of both words (word-meaning) and of sentence-meaning.

Let us look at each one of the levels in detail.

16.5 Phonology

Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics defines Phonology as a"sub discipline concerned with semantically relevant speech sounds (phoneme) and their pertinent characteristics, relations and systems viewed synchronically and diachronically."Thus **Phonetics** studies language at the level of sounds: how sounds are articulated by the human speech mechanism and received by the auditory mechanism, how sounds can be distinguished and characterised by the manner in which they are produced. **Phonology** studies the combination of sounds into organised 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 concept of the phoneme, i.e. a distinctive, contrasted sound unit, e.g. /m/, /æ/, /p/. These distinct sounds enter into combination with others. The rules of combination are different for different languages.

Structuralist phonology is structurally oriented phonology which is concerned with the functional aspect of phonemic analysis and understood as an autonomous level of linguistic description in contrast to generative phonology. This is considered a basic discipline of structuralist language analysis. **Generative phonology** refers to phonetic, phonological, syntactic –morphological regularities.

16.6 Morphology

Morphology studies the patterns of formation of words by the combination of sounds into minimal distinctive units of meaning called morphemes. These smallest meaningful elements into which words can be analysed are known as morphemes and the way morphemes operate in language provides the subject matter of morphology. A morpheme cannot be broken up because if it is, it will no longer make sense, e.g. the word love is made up of three sounds /l/ /ʌ/ /v/ and if it is broken up it does not give any meaning. Words can be made up of single morphemes such as 'love'or combinations of morphemes, e.g. 'lovely'is made up of two morphemes: 'love'+ 'ly'. Love is a word that can be used as verb and noun ly is a suffix that changes love into an adjective. So these two are called morphemes. The way in which the words of a language are structured is called the morphology of that language. Morphology deals with the rules of combination of morphemes to form words, as suffixes, prefixes or infixes are attached to single morphemes to form words. Itstudies the changes that take place in the structure of words, e.g. the morpheme 'write'changes to 'wrote'and 'written'—these changes signify a change in tense. The level of morphology is linked to phonology on the one hand and to semantics on the other. It is clear in the above example of 'write'that the change to 'wrote'involves a change in one of the sounds in this morpheme. It also involves a change in meaning: 'write'means the action 'write'+ time present and 'wrote'means the action 'write'+ time past. So morphological changes often involve changes at the levels of both sound and meaning. It corresponds to the study of forms i.e sub disciplines of inflection as well as of the study of word classes and their classification criteria. In structuralism morphology consists of the study of form, inner structure, function and occurrence of a morpheme as the smallest meaningful unit of language. The intermediatary level of analysis between phonology and morphology, in which the phonological regularities in the frame work of morphology, especially the systematic phonological variants of morphemes and the conditions of their occurrence are described, is called **morphophonemics**.

16.7 Syntax

Syntax is the way in which words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within sentences. The term comes from 'syntaxix'the Greek word for arrangement. Most syntactic studies have focussed on sentence structure, for this is where the most important grammatical relationships are expressed. In other words it deals with the way in which words are arranged to form sentences in languages. The way in which words are arranged to form sentences is not the same in all languages. In English, the adjective that qualifies a noun must be before the noun. In Arabic, adjectives are placed after the noun. English does not permit a verb to begin a statement. Syntax is the level at which we study how words combine to form phrases, phrases combine to form clauses and clauses join to make sentences. The study of syntax also involves the description of the rules of positioning of elements in the sentence such as the nouns/noun phrases, verbs/verb phrases, adverbial phrases, etc. A sentence must be composed of these elements arranged in a particular order. Syntax also attempts to describe how these elements function in the sentence, i.e. what is their role in the sentence. Thus, rules of syntax should be comprehensive enough to explain how sentences are constructed which are both grammatical and meaningful. A sentence is thus the largest unit to which syntactic rules apply.

This is a sub category of semiotics which deals with the ordering of and relationships between signs and is abstracted from the relationship of speaker to the sign, the sign to its meaning and of the sign to its extra linguistic reality. It's a sub category of grammar of languages, system of rules how well formed sentences can be derived from basic elements. Syntactic descriptions are based on specific methods of sentence analysis and category formation.

16.8 Semantics

We use a language for Communication and our communication must be meaningful. The component of linguistics that deals with meaning is called semantics. The following is an acceptable sentence in English.

mohammad drank a cup of tea

mohammad drank a camel

The second sentence like the first one is grammatically correct and acceptable but semantically it's not acceptable as it impossible to drink a camel.

Semantics deals with the level of meaning in language. The term did not come to be widely used until the 20th century. Linguistic approach aims to study the properties of meaning in a systematic and objective way. In the modern linguistics it is studied by making detailed analyses of the way words and sentences are used in specific contexts. It attempts to analyze the structure of meaning in a language, e.g. how words similar or different are related; it attempts to show these inter-relationships through forming 'categories'. Semantics tries to give an account of both word and sentence meaning, and attempts to analyze and define that which is considered to be abstract. It may be easy to define the meanings of words such as 'tree'but not so easy to define the meanings of words such as 'love'or similar abstract things. An extension of the study of meaning or semantics is **pragmatics.** Pragmatics deals with the contextual aspects of meaning in particular situations. As distinct from the study of sentences, pragmatics considers **utterances,** i.e. those sentences which are actually uttered by speakers of a language.

Thus this sub discipline of linguistics is concerned with the analysis and description of the so-called 'literal'meaning of linguistic expressions. Depending on the focus, various aspects of meaning may be prominent: the internal semantic structure of individual linguistic expressions; or the semantic relations between linguistic expressions as in synonymy, antonymy; or the whole meaning as the sum of the meaning of the individual lexemes as well as the grammatical relations between them; or the relation of linguistic expressions—or their meaning—to extra-linguistic reality and these are examined both diachronically and synchronically. One traditional area of semantics is the historical semantics of single words. Under the influence of structuralism, semanticists began to focus on the semantic relations between words and, thus, on the semantic structure of present-day vocabulary. With the development of generative grammar, lexically oriented structuralist semantics was expanded to view problems concerning sentence semantics.

16.9 Semiotics

This is the theory of linguistic and non-linguistic signs and signing processes to which the study of natural languages is central. Besides language and communication theory, many humanistic disciplines are concerned with theories of non- linguistic signs (aesthetics, graphic design, art, mythology, psychoanalysis, cultural anthropology, religious studies, are just a few to name.) C.W. Morris distinguishes the following areas of study: (a) the syntactic aspect, i.e. the relation between different signs; (b) the semantic aspect, i.e. the relation between the sign and its meaning and (c) the pragmatic aspect, i.e. the relation between the sign and the sign user. (Routledge Dictionary of Language and linguistics)

16.10 Discourse

It **is** the study of chunks of language which are bigger than a single sentence. At this level, we analyze inter-sentential links that form a connected or **cohesive** text. Cohesion is the relation established in a sentence between it and the sentences preceding and following it, by the use of connectives such as 'and', 'though', 'also', 'but'etc. and by the manner in which reference is made to other parts of the text by devices such as repetition or by use of pronouns, definite articles, etc. By studying the elements of cohesion we can understand how a piece of connected language can have greater meaning that is more than the sum of the individual sentences it contains. Two main approaches have been developed in this linguistic study. Discourse analysis focuses on the structure of naturally occurring spoken language, as found in such discourses as conversations, interviews, commentaries, and speeches. Text analysis focuses on the structure of written language as found in such texts as essays, notices, road signs, and chapters. These approaches have a common concern: they stress the need to see language as a dynamic, social, interactive phenomenon –whether between speaker and listener or the reader and writer. It is argued that meaning is conveyed not by single sentences but by more complex exchanges in which the participants'beliefs and expectations, the knowledge they share about each other and about the world and the situation in which they interact play a crucial part.

This is used synonymously with text analysis, with a particular interest in coherence, and cohesion and deductive rules .While in this strand of research, texts are mainly taken to be static products, there is another strand influenced by functional grammar, psycholinguistics, and approaches to cognitive science that emphasizes the dynamic character of discourse as construction and interpretation processes by the speaker/writer and the listener/ reader. This discourse analysis has become a new cross-disciplinary field of analysis since the early 1970s. It is of interest to disciplines such as anthropology and sociolinguistics, artificial intelligence, cognitive science, philosophy of language, psycholinguistics, sociology of language , rhetoric (style), and text linguistics.

16.11 Summary

So far in the lesson you have defined the term linguistics and looked at different elements of language that demand a detailed study. You have familiarized yourself with various linguistic sub fields like phonology, morphology, syntax and so on.

16.12 Comprehension Check Questions

1. Define linguistics.
2. What aspects of language study fall under linguistics?
3. List the different layers of language analysis and describe them.
4. Describe phonology and morphology.
5. How are syntax, semantics and semiotics interrelated?
6. Write about discourse and its approaches of analysis.

16.13 References

Crystal, David. Linguistics. 1971
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LESSON 17

PRACTICE IN TRANSCRIPTION

17.0 Objective

By the end of this lesson you will identify transcription and transcribe the sentences with stress and intonation using IPA symbols.

Structure of the lesson

17.0 Objective

17.1 Introduction

17.2 Identification of words from phonemic transcription

17.3 Transcription of sentences

17.4 Summary

17.5 References

Expansion of the Structure

17.1 Introduction

In this lesson you get ample practice in transcribing the English sentences using IPA symbols. In your previous lessons you practised transcribing words while taking support from the anchoring sounds given to help you and also you transcribed words without any support in the subsequent lessons. In the following activities you have to read phonemic transcription given in words and write down the same in English spelling. Similarly you have to transcribe the sentences given in spelling. You can refer to any Standard English dictionary that gives the pronunciation or a pronunciation dictionary itself as given in the references.

17.2. Identification of words from phonemic transcription.

Read aloud the following words given in phonemic transcription and write the equivalent in English spelling. Here is an example:

/jurəʊvɪʒən/   = eurovision

Word in phonemic transcription	Word in spelling
/dʌzənz/	
/hɒlɪdɪ/	
/raɪt/	
/səʊʃəl/	
/təmɔrəʊ./	
/brɪtənz/	
/ʧeɪnʤɪz/	
/ʧɪldrən/	
/kə'lɪzən/	
/puəːrɪst/	

/sɪkjuːrɪtɪ/	
hʌndrəd	
/meɪkəz/	
/ˈkrɒsɪŋ/	
/ˈɪnʤərɪ/	
/skuːl miːlz/	
/rɪˈmeɪnɪŋ/	
/ʌnˈgɑːdɪd/	
/trævlɪŋ/	
/ˈreɪlˌweɪ/	

17.3 Transcription of sentences:

Transcribe the following short sentences using phonemic transcription. Observe the example.

Ex: I usually get up at 8 O'clock :   // ai juːʒuəli get ʌp ət eit ə klɒk//

Sentence	Phonemic Transcription
Tom lives in the city.	
J.K. Rowling wrote the Harry Potter stories.	
I've lived in this city for 10 years.	
Last night I went to the cinema.	
This is the worst day of my life!	
Is your sister older than mine?	
The English test was the easiest exam we have had.	
Some people say London is the most expensive city on earth.	
That was a good film, it was better than the last one we saw.	
People think Spanish is as easy as French to learn.	
The internet is the best invention of all time	
Can you lend me your text book on phonetics?	
What have you done about the course that you joined in.?	
That's an amazing view of the sky that I have ever seen.	
How wonderful !	
The year has come to an end and we look	

forward for the new year.	
How are you? I heard that you have not been well.	
Don't be so noisy when the lecture is going in the hall.	
When will the night train for Mumbai leave?	
We have completed half of the syllabus.	
Let us concentrate on the preparation for exams.	

17.4 Summary

In this lesson you have practiced identifying words from phonemic transcription and transcribing sentences into phonemic transcription.

17.5 References:

Jones, Daniel. *Dictionary of English Pronunciation*

http://www.cambridge.org/features/genetti/CH02-IPAtranscription/

http://www.tedpower.co.uk/phonetics.htm

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LESSON 18
HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS- TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF LANGUAGES

18.0 Objectives:

By the end of the lesson you will
- Know what is linguistics
- Know various historical approaches to language study
- Compare these approaches
- Understand the strengths and weaknesses of each approach
- Trace the evolution of linguistics as a branch of study.

Structure of the lesson

18.1.Introduction.
18.2.What is linguistics?
18.3.Grammar approach
18.4.Philological and comparative philological approach
18.5.Prescriptive and descriptive approaches
18.6.Classification of Languages
18.7.Summary
18.8.Comprehension Check questions
18.9.References

Expansion of the Structure:

18.1 Introduction.
Man has been very inquisitive about the Language that he had been using since time immemorial for various reasons. At the earliest time he was curious how the human being actually got this particular ability to communicate using language as a medium. Later on, his interest spread to the related areas like its origins, the first and foremost language that humans used and the like. Many religious and political needs compelled him to look into the history of language and determine which was the oldest and thus a powerful language. Later on man felt the need to study the history of language and man's linguistic competence in relation to correlated fields like culture, society, anthropology and even speech disability. So scholars studied the origins and history of language and the various languages that are spread all over the earth and proposed many theories on the origins, language families and the characteristics of language. In the following sections you will study some approaches to study language which have influenced historically the discipline of linguistics and its study.

18.2 What is Linguistics?
Every human language is "a complex of knowledge and abilities enabling speakers of the language to communicate with each other, to express ideas, hypotheses, emotions, desires," and so on. Linguistics is the study of these knowledge systems in all their aspects: how such a knowledge system is structured, acquired, and used in the production and comprehension of messages. Linguistics is concerned with a number of particular questions about the nature of language, about the properties of languages, about the differences

between languages and whether differences are systematic. It also studies language acquisition process by the children, the evolution of languages, and also the cognitive processes that influence the production and understanding of language. Thus Linguistics is a systematic study of the way in which language works.

18.3 Grammar Approach

The history of linguistics can be looked at in three phases. The first one was grammatical approach. History of any linguistic thought was inextricably linked to religious thought in the vast majority of the study. The early Greek and Roman scholastic study was very preoccupied with language mainly used in the holy books and the other theological writing. Plato's Cratylus is a standard reference for those who want to trace the linguistic ideas in history. Plato, Aristotle and the Stoics devoted a lot of time for specific ideas on language. A detailed study of the structure of Greek was carried at their time. Similarly Latin under the patronage of the Church became the language of the educated and gradually the channel of communication all over Europe by the end of the first millennium. The 16th century provided the peak period of prestige of Latin and other languages suffered accordingly. There is a tendency to treat Latin as a kind of authority to turn to when doubts arise about grammar. The development of misleading principles of analysis in traditional grammars was promoted by the teaching of Latin Grammar and the study of Latin literature. These two aspects were perhaps the important aspects of the history of language study.

This approach of study of language dealt with grammar which was based on logic and not on science. The study dealt with the formation of rules that dealt with correct and incorrect form. This method followed mainly by Greeks and the French too was normative, bound by prescribed rules, with a limited scope without actual observation. In course of time, during the evolution of the field of language study, scholars were primarily interested in establishing philosophical explanations for the rules of grammar. The assumption was that there was one common or universal grammar underlying the structure of all languages which was based not on language form but on the laws of reason. A number of philosophical grammars came to be written. However the advent of Romanticism in the 18th century brought with it a linguistic diversity and people lost sight of the philosophical issue. Contemporary linguistics investigated the central question of whether a universal grammar is feasible or not. Chomsky and his associates view linguistics as essentially a theory and set of techniques to improve our understanding of the human mind and this leads them to talk of linguistics as a branch of cognitive psychology.

But this Grammar approach had some inherent inadequacies in the procedure of its study of the language as well as in the relevance of its findings to the field of Linguistics. Its study was based only on the written language. Features of spoken language, assumed to work in the same way as in the written language, are analysed by early grammarians. This method of studying language did not give the complete and real picture of the language that was studied. Large areas of syntax are ignored. Little attention is paid to the complexity and flexibility of order in language. The way in which sentences follow each other in a dialogue are not made clear either. The material that is handled in these studies does not even cover the whole range of a language's written forms, but is restricted to specific kinds of writing more to the formal styles in particular. There is a tendency in many traditional grammars and dictionaries to cite the usage of only the best authors. Similarly this approach had very little relevance to real understanding of the structure and function of language. Language was studied in relation to other disciplines…philosophy, religion, logic, rhetoric, history, literary style were some instances. There was very little recognition of the extent of the difference

between spoken and written forms of language. Many of the problems which have to be faced in teaching a language to foreign students cannot be answered by reference to the traditional literature in the Grammar approach.

18.4 Philological and Comparative Philological Approach:

The philological approach actually originated as far as in Alexandria but the scientific kind of approach was started by August Wolf in 1777. These philologists commented, interpreted and corrected written texts with focus on literary history, customs and institutions. The purpose of this approach was to compare the writings of different authors, decipher the meaning and fix the date of the writing and decipher the language of inscriptions and archaic expressions. But the study was limited only to Greek and Latin and written language neglecting the living language. However this was certainly the beginning of historical linguistics. People expect that comparative philology is about the history of language and languages and the study of the origins and development of words and their meanings. In historical linguistics this comparative philological method is a way of systematically comparing a series of languages in order to prove a historical relationship between them. Scholars begin by identifying a set of formal similarities and differences between the languages, and try to work out or reconstruct an earlier stage of development from which all forms could have derived. The process is known as internal reconstruction and those languages which are shown to have a common ancestor are called to be cognate.

Comparative philology took available words from written language, compared, formulated sound laws, proposed families of languages and sub families and so on. The original parent language was then gradually reconstructed word by word as far as the written remains allowed and is called proto language like Proto Indo European(PIE) family. The languages that are developed from these proto languages are called family of languages consisting of sub families. PIE like families were also formulated especially with the languages from Europe. Thus this comparative method was largely empirical and thorough, based on textual evidence. These theories had a great influence on the development of linguistics during this period of 19th century. The emphasis had been on philology in its wider sense focusing on language as a tool to understand a nation's culture. Comparative method had been proved to be of great use in historical linguistics. These philological procedures firmly dissolved all the old theories that one of the spoken languages of the world was the oldest.

But this philological method had some serious limitations as it concerned itself mostly with dead languages and with letters rather than sounds. It was preoccupied with the superficial similarities existing between languages as opposed to the underlying differences. Another drawback was that there was a fundamental inconsistency in the procedure. The method characterizes a language by pointing to certain linguistic changes that have occurred in the course of its subsequent history. It ignores other changes that have also occurred which may be equally characteristic. The method assumes that as soon as two languages split off from a parent, they no longer influence each other formally – which is by no means necessarily true. The method fails to consider variability in the degree of precision attainable at various periods of reconstruction. In their investigations, comparative philologists, with their focus on PIE family, never asked themselves the meaning of their comparisons or the significance of the relations that they discovered. Their method was exclusively comparative with no perception of the implications of history of language. This exclusive approach brought in a set of false notions. With no base in reality, these notions could not reflect the facts of speech. By the late 19th century the scholars began to see that similarities between

languages are only one side of the linguistic phenomenon and comparison is only a method of reconstructing facts. These attempts put the comparative approach in its proper place, in the historical perspective and thus linking the facts in their natural order. Language is no longer looked upon as an organism that develops independently but as a product of the collective mind of linguistic groups.

18.5 Prescriptive and Descriptive approaches:

The approaches to language study are classified according to the method that is followed during the study.

Prescriptivism is the view that one variety of language has an inherently higher value than others and that this ought to be imposed on the whole speech community especially in connection with grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. The version that is favoured is generally the standard version. In the 18th century approach, all European languages were studied prescriptively. Their aim was to codify the principles of their languages to show that there was a system beneath the apparent chaos of usage. The approach was marked with rules of grammar, some prescriptions and some proscriptions that have to be followed strictly or avoided. The prescriptive approach says how things should be rather than describing what they are. Traditional approaches to languages have many inherent inconsistencies due to their prescriptive attitude towards their data. A linguist is aware that the grammarian of a language does not make the rules of that language. He should restrict his ambitions to codifying and explaining what is already there, and the usage of the people who speak the language.

If linguistics is descriptive it tries to discover and record the rules to which the members of a language community actually confirm and does not seek to impose them on the others. This approach was concerned with the facts of usage. The task of the linguist was to describe and not to prescribe and not to judge the language. Joseph Priestly advocated this in 1761 and this view has become the tenet of the modern linguistic approach. When a linguist considers two alternative usages, one is not right and the other wrong- but the two are merely different. Both usages must be described in the study, and leave it to others to decide which is socially more appropriate and to which situations.

However both the approaches are important and are common in matters like acceptability, ambiguity, and intelligibility. Descriptive approach reconciles the competition of different standards. Prescriptive approach provides focus for the sense of linguistic values which we possess, forming a part of our social structure. As most of the approaches were typically prescriptive, and it is in opposition to this general attitude, that many of the themes of 20th century linguistics were developed.

18.6 Classification of Languages:

Based on the approaches that are used to study the languages and also on the properties of languages, languages are classified into the following types.

Genetic classification is a historical classification based on the assumption that languages have diverged from a common ancestor. This classification uses early written records as evidence and in their absence deductions are made using the comparative method to enable the form of parent language reconstructed. Widely used since its introduction in 18th century, this provides the frame work with in which all the linguistic surveys have been carried out. However this was successful in Eurasia while in other parts of the world the

classification of language families is very tentative. This kind of classification is also labeled as **genealogical** method of classification.

The other type of classification is **typological,** wherein each language would be placed according to its major structural characteristics. Typological classification is based on the comparison of formal similarities which exist between languages. It is an attempt to group languages on the basis of phonology, grammar or vocabulary. Proposed by Schlegel in 1818 three kinds of languages could be characterized this way. They are **analytic or isolating** languages such as Chinese, Vietnamese and Samoan which have no inflections. **Synesthetic** languages like Greek and Sanskrit are inflectional. Grammatical relationships are expressed by changing the internal structure of the words that express several grammatical meanings with the inflections. Turkish and Korean languages that string verbal elements together in long sentences are called **agglutinative** languages or **affixing** languages. Words are built up of a long sequence of units, with each unit expressing a particular grammatical meaning in a clear one to one way. **Polysynthetic or incorporating** languages, in which words are often very long and complex, contain a mixture of agglutinating and inflectional features as in Eskimo, Mohawk and Australian languages. Most of the languages of the world fall between these points. It showed that there were general structural tendencies in the ways languages indicated relationships. This analysis did not require vast quantity of textual analysis and was therefore more useful tool than the genealogical model. However genealogical model remained a popular one.

18.7 Summary:
So far you have come to know the definition of linguistics. You also know different approaches to the study of history of languages and their contribution to the history of linguistics. You also traced the evolution of the history of linguistics till the end of the 19th century.

18.8 Comprehension Check Questions
1. Define linguistics.
2. What is grammar approach?
3. Give the advantages and weaknesses of Grammar approach.
4. What is Comparative approach and how did it contribute to the study of language?
5. What is descriptive approach and in what way did it contribute to the emerging modern linguistics?
6. Differentiate between genealogical and typological classification of languages.

18.9 References
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Additional resource
http://linguistics.ucsc.edu/about/what-is-linguistics.html

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LESSON 19
BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

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19.0 Objectives

By the end of the lesson you will

* know different subjects where linguistics is applied
* know various major branches of linguistics
* understand the interdisciplinary nature of these branches

Structure of the Lesson
19.0 Objectives
19.1 Introduction
19.2 Applied linguistics
19.3 Sociolinguistics
19.4 Psycholinguistics
19.5 Anthropological linguistics
19.6 Stylistics
19.7 Pragmatics
19.8 Summary
19.9 Comprehension Check Questions
19.10 References

Expansion of the Structure

19.1 Introduction

There are many areas of human activity and knowledge in which language plays a part and linguistics is useful in these areas. The study of language in relation to the many areas of knowledge where it is relevant, has led to the growth of many branches of linguistics. Thus the scope of linguistics has grown to include these branches. Many disciplines other than linguistics are concerned with language. Several multi-disciplinary areas have been identified within macro linguistics and are given a distinct name: sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, ethno -linguistics, stylistics etc. So in the following sections let us look at the major branches of linguistics in detail.

19.2 Applied Linguistics

The core of linguistic studies is the study of language structure at different levels. In the growth of modern linguistics as an autonomous field of knowledge, it has been necessary to emphasize this aspect of linguistics, since no other field of study describes language structure systematically and completely. Applied Linguistics is a term covering several linguistic sub-disciplines as well as certain interdisciplinary areas that use linguistic methods: language pedagogy, psycholinguistics, language acquisition, second language acquisition, translation, contrastive analysis, language planning, lexicography, computational linguistics, ethno-linguistics, sociolinguistics, and others. Applied linguistics has become a field of growing linguistic interest, as evidenced by the many journals devoted to these allied studies which have been launched since the 1960s.

Linguistics has a 'pure' or 'theoretical' aspect which is concerned with the building of theories about language and with description and analysis of particular levels of language such as phonology and syntax without regard to any particular applications that these may have. Theoretical linguistics studies language and languages with a view of constructing a theory of their structure and functions and without regard to practical applications. The goal of theoretical linguistics is the formulation of a satisfactory theory of the structure of language in general. Linguistics also has 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. Thus, 'applied linguistics' covers many of the branches of linguistics that explore the practical application of the theories, concepts and analyses provided by linguists. All the applications are first and foremost based on a thorough description of languages. As Pit Corder writes:

Whether it is speech therapy, psychiatry, literary criticism, translation... what all these fields of application have in common is the necessity for descriptions of the various languages involved.

Various branches of linguistics have grown because language is intimately related both to the inner world of man's mind and to the outer world of society and social relationships. Each of these aspects has led to the study of psycho-linguistics and sociolinguistics respectively. Applied linguistics concerns itself with the application of the concepts and findings of linguistics to a variety of practical tasks, including language teaching. Applied linguistics draws on both the general and descriptive branches of the subject.

19.3 Sociolinguistics

It is a scientific discipline developed from the cooperation of linguistics and sociology that investigates the social meaning of the language system and of language use, and the common set of conditions of linguistic and social structure. This is a branch of linguistics that deals with the exploration of the relation between language and society. Sociolinguistics is based on the fact that language is not a single homogeneous entity, but has different forms in different situations. The changes in language occur because of changes in social conditions, for example, social class, gender, regional and cultural groups. A particular social group may speak a different variety of a language from the rest of the community. This group becomes a speech community.

Sociolinguistics approaches language and society in many ways. A primarily sociologically oriented approach is concerned predominantly with the norms of language use like, when and for what purpose does somebody speak what kind of language or what variety. Here language use and language attitudes as well as larger and smaller social networks are in the foreground. These facets are studied mainly by using quantitative methods; connections between socioeconomics, history, culture, ethnic differentiation, social class structure, and language varieties are included in the investigation. Another approach is primarily linguistically oriented that presumes linguistic systems to be in principle heterogeneous when viewed within sociological parameters. For an appropriate description of linguistic variation, a new type of rule is proposed, the so-called 'variable rule,' which expresses and establishes the probability that a particular linguistic form will result from the influence of different linguistic and extra-linguistic variables, e.g. social class, age, etc. The results of this sociolinguistic approach have particularly important implications for the theory of language change. An ethno-methodologically oriented approach with linguistic interaction as the focal

point studies the ways in which members of a society create social reality and rule-ordered behaviour. Here a formal distinction must be drawn between conversation analysis, which deals with the structure of conversations, and ethnographic conversation analysis which investigates interactive responses.

Sociolinguistics is the study of language variation and change—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. Such changes result in the formation of a distinctly different variety of the language or a dialect. 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.

In sociolinguistic studies, we consider the linguistic features of these dialects, e.g. syntax variations and lexical variations. 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. The point at which a certain feature (of pronunciation or vocabulary) ceases to be prevalent and gives way to another feature is a dialect boundary or 'isogloss'. Dialects may acquire some importance and prestige and evolve into distinct languages. This usually happens when they are codified, e.g. in written and literary forms, and their grammar and lexicon is standardized. Usually this happens when the dialect is given political and social importance. Sociolinguists chart the evolution of such changes.

Variation in language may also be due to the specific area of human activity in which language is used. Again taking the example of English, this language is used in different fields—of law, religion, science, sports etc. In each of these areas there is a specific vocabulary and manner of use of English, which defines the legal language, the scientific language etc. This variety of language according to its use, is called register. Sociolinguists examine the particular characteristics of different registers, i.e. legal register, scientific register, etc., to see how these differ. 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.

The sociology of language includes the study of attitudes to language held by social groups, for instance, they may consider some languages or dialects as more (or less) important. It includes the planning of language education, e.g. which languages should be the medium of instruction, which language should be taught as second language; and language policy, i.e. which languages are legally and constitutionally recognised and what status they are given. The sociology of language is thus linked with other aspects of our social world, the political, economic, educational, etc.

19.4 Psycholinguistics

The designation, concept, and program of psycholinguistics was developed in the summer of 1953 in a seminar at the Linguistics Institute of Indiana University by American psychologists and linguists. It was determined that the linguistic structures discovered by linguists could be studied using the methods and theories of psychology. Since language is a mental phenomenon, it is mental processes which are articulated in language behaviour.

Psycholinguistics studies these mental processes, processes of thought and concept formation and their articulation in language, which reveal a great deal about the structures of human psychology as well as of language. 'Cognitive' psychology is the area which explores how meanings are understood by the human brain, how syntax and memory are linked, how messages are 'decoded' and stored. Psycholinguistics also studies the influence of psychological factors such as intelligence, motivation, anxiety etc. on the kind of language that is understood and produced. For instance, in the case of errors made by a speaker, there may be psychological reasons which influence comprehension or production that are responsible for the occurrence of an error. Our perception of speech sounds or graphic symbols (in writing) is influenced by the state of our mind.

It is an Interdisciplinary area of research concerned with the processes of language production, language comprehension, and language acquisition, in which neurolinguistics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, cognitive psychology, cognitive science, and artificial intelligence are closely allied. The central issues of psycholinguistics were taken up as early as the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries by Steinthal, Wundt and Bühler. Two important directions based on different assumptions about the relationship between language and cognition can be distinguished. The first direction is oriented towards more recent linguistic theories. It views grammar as an autonomous cognitive system and concerns itself with proving the psychological reality of linguistic constructs. The second direction is more closely oriented towards models in cognitive psychology, in particular towards approaches that assume a more intensive interaction between the individual levels of linguistic description or between cognitive systems.

Psycholinguistics is concerned with the learning of language at various stages: the early acquisition of a first language by children and later stages in acquisition of first and other languages. Psycholinguists attempt to answer questions such as whether the 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. This exploration may lead us to determining whether all the languages in the world have some 'universal' grammar that lies in the mind of every human being and is transformed in particular situations to produce different languages. Psycholinguistic studies in language acquisition are very useful in the area of language teaching because they help teachers to understand error production and individual differences among learners and thus devise appropriate syllabi and materials for them.

One specialized area within psycholinguistics is neurolinguistics that studies the physiological basis of language and language disorders such as aphasia, loss of memory, etc.

19.5. Anthropological Linguistics

The evolution of language in human society and its role in the formation of culture is another aspect of language society and culture. This is studied in anthropological linguistics. The structure of language has a social and cultural basis in the same way as other customs, conventions and codes such as those related to dress, food, etc. Each culture organises its world in its own way, giving names to objects, identifying areas of significance or value and suppressing other areas. Language becomes a way of embodying the world view and beliefs of a culture, and the things that culture holds sacred; for example, a culture in which family relationships occupy the most significant position will have many kinship terms in their language, with each relationship specified by a particular term. If you compare the kinship terms in English such as uncle, aunt, etc. with kinship terms in any south Indian language like

Telugu you will find that there are many more such terms specifying particular relationships such as a paternal / maternal aunt and uncle in the latter.

Similarly, terms specifying colours, emotions, natural phenomena, and so on are differently organised in every culture, and reveal a great deal about that culture. The study of these specific cultural elements is called the ethnography of a culture. A specific way of communication in a culture is thus studied as the ethnography of communication.

Anthropological studies have explored the relation between language and culture. Language is invented to communicate and express a culture. It also happens that this language then begins to determine the way we think and see the world. Since this language is the means by which we understand and think about the world, we cannot go beyond it and understand the world in any other way. This is the view expressed by the linguist Whorf whose hypothesis is that we dissect nature along the lines laid by our native language. There is still a debate about this, but it is true that to some extent we are bound to see the world according to the terms specified by our own language. These aspects of language and culture are still being discussed by anthropological linguists, philosophers of language and ethnographers.

19.6 Stylistics

The study of variation in language and the use of language in communication have also led to new ways of studying literary texts and the nature of literary communication. If you consider again the notion of register discussed above, you may realise that register is in fact a kind of language that is considered appropriate for a particular subject matter, e.g. the style of a religious sermon, the style of sports commentary. Similarly we may use this notion to describe the style of a literary work. That is, we may describe its features at the levels of phonology, syntax, lexis, etc. to distinguish it from other texts and to appreciate how it achieves some unique effects through the use of language. This kind of study is called stylistics.

Literary writers use the system of language in their own way, i.e. they create a style. This is done by deliberate choice, sometimes by deviation from or violation of the rules of grammar. Poets and even prose writers may invert the normal order of items in a sentence or create a pattern by repetition of some items. By these and other devices, they are able to manipulate language so that it conveys some theme or meaning with great force and effectiveness.

In stylistics, we read the text closely with attention to the features of language used in it, identifying and listing the particular features under the heading of 'lexis', 'grammar', 'phonology' or 'sound patterns'. When we have obtained a detailed account of all these features, we co-relate them or bring them together in an interpretation of the text. That is, we try to link 'what is being said' with 'how it is being said,' since it is through the latter that writers can fully express the many complex ideas and feelings that they want to convey. Stylistic analysis also helps in a better understanding of how metaphor, irony, paradox, ambiguity etc. operate in a literary text as these are all effects achieved through language and through the building up of a coherent linguistic structure.

19.7 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a sub-discipline of linguistics, developed from different linguistic, philosophical and sociological traditions, that studies the relationship between natural language expressions and their uses in specific situations. The term pragmatics comes from

Morris' general theory of signs: in this semiotic model, pragmatics refers to the relationship of the sign to the sign user. In linguistics the distinction between pragmatics and semantics and syntax on the one hand and, in a broader sense, between pragmatics and sociolinguistics on the other hand depends wholly on the particular theory. In British-American linguistics, the term 'pragmatics' has only been in use for a relatively short time; this area was previously subsumed under the term 'sociolinguistics'. The distinction between pragmatics and semantics, both of which investigate different aspects of linguistic meaning, is even less clear-cut. While semantics is concerned with the literal and contextually non-variable meaning of linguistic expressions or with the contextually non-variable side of the truth conditions of propositions or sentences, pragmatics deals with the function of linguistic utterances and the propositions that are expressed by them, depending upon their use in specific situations.

19.8 Summary

This lesson has taught you about the interdisciplinary nature of Linguistics. So far you have come to know the important role played by language in studying society, culture in which the human language is situated and the impact of human mind on language study and vice versa. You have studied in detail disciplines like applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, and psycho linguistics.

19.9 Comprehension Check Questions
1. How does applied linguistics explain the interdisciplinary nature of Linguistics?
2. Define sociolinguistics and give an account of the subject
3. How are Sociolinguistics and ethno-linguistics interrelated?
4. What is the role of language study in psycho linguistics?
5. Write a short note on stylistics and pragmatics.

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LESSON 20
LANGUAGE VARIETIES AND MODERN LINGUISTICS

20.0 Objectives

By the end of this lesson you will
- know varieties in language
- understand on what basis these varieties are defined
- know the emergence of modern linguistics
- use different linguistic terminology

Structure of the lesson

20.0 Objectives
20.1 Introduction
20.2 Dialect and Idiolect
20.3 Pidgin and Creole
20.4 Register
20.5 Diglossia
20.6 Micro and Macro linguistics
20.7 Synchronic and Diachronic linguistics
20.8 Langue and parole
20.9 Signifier and signified
20.10 Summary
20.11 Comprehension Check Questions
20.12 References

Expansion of Structure

20.1 Introduction

Study of languages in a systematic way progressed into the study of linguistics in association with many other disciplines. This interdisciplinary approach to linguistics was dealt with in detail in the previous lesson. The present lesson looks at various varieties of languages that have come to be associated with different approaches to language study. Similarly the study of Language has entered into a modern phase with lot of logical and scientific analyses, especially with the study of language by Ferdinand de Saussure. Many new linguistic concepts and terms have since come up that left a lasting impact on the future linguistic study across the continents. The lesson looks at these basic concepts and the terms that illustrate these concepts.

20.2 Dialect and Idiolect

Dialect is a linguistic system that shows a high degree of similarity to other systems so that at least partial mutual intelligibility is possible. It is a regionally or socially distinctive variety of language, identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures. It is tied to a specific region in such a way that the regional distribution of the system does not overlap with an area covered by another such system. It may not have a written or standardized form, i.e. may not have officially standardized orthographic and grammatical rules. Dialects are usually also associated with a distinctive pronunciation, or accent. Any language

with a reasonably large number of speakers will develop dialects, especially if there are geographical barriers separating groups of people from each other, or if there are divisions of social class. One dialect may predominate as the official or standard form of the language, and this is the variety which may come to be written down.

The distinction between 'dialect'and 'language'seems obvious: dialects are subdivisions of languages. It is usually said that people speak different languages when they do not understand each other. But the so-called 'dialects'of Chinese, Mandarin, Cantonese, etc. are mutually unintelligible in their spoken form. They do share the same written language, which is the main reason why one talks of them as 'dialects of Chinese'. And the opposite situation occurs: Swedes, Norwegians and Danes are generally able to understand each other, but their separate histories, cultures, literatures and political structures warrant Swedish, Norwegian and Danish being referred to as different languages.

The systematic study of all forms of dialect is called **dialectology**. Regionally distinctive words in form, sense or pronunciation were the centre of attention. If a number of distinctive items emerged as belonging to a particular area, then this would be the evidence for saying that a dialect existed. It was often possible to show where one dialect ended and the next began by drawing lines around their limits of use knownas isoglosses, and asserting the existence of a dialect boundary. The demarcation of Dialect boundaries is not usually so clear-cut, but the principle works well enough. Dialectometry is a statistical method of dialect analysis which measures the linguistic 'distance'between localities in a dialect region by counting the number of contrasts in a large sample of linguistic features.

Perceptual dialectology studies the way dialects, and individual dialect features, are perceived by speakers within a speech community. Real and imaginary linguistic differences, stereotypes of popular culture, local strategies of identification, and other factors combine to generate a conception of individual dialects. Dialects which identify where a person is from are called regional dialects. Rural dialects are often distinguished from urban dialects. The term sociolect has been used to show where a person is in terms of social scale. Some languages are highly stratified in terms of social divisions, such as class, professional status, age and sex, and here major differences in social dialect are apparent. **Social dialectology** is the application of dialectological methods to the study of social structure, focusing on group membership as a determinant of dialectal competence. Dialect is also sometimes applied to the linguistically distinct historical stages through which a language has passed.

Language use reflects characteristics of an individual speaker. This personal manner of expression is, to varying degrees, apparent in an individual's pronunciation, active vocabulary, and syntax. For instance some individuals use lower pitch and some others speak with a higher pitch. Some are in the habit of speaking with a harder tone and it feels as if they are speaking with anger, even though they are speaking 'sweetly'on their side. The best example of particular choice of vocabulary is in the individual use of 'catch phrases'. Most frequent among these are "I say", "I mean", "do you understand?"and "what do you think?".**Idiolect** is a term used to refer to the linguistic system of an individual speaker –one's personal dialect. A dialect can be seen as an abstraction deriving from the analysis of a large number of idiolects. Idiolectal features are particularly noticeable in literary writing, as stylistic markers of authorship. Some linguists give the term a more restricted definition, referring to the speech habits of a person as displayed in a particular variety at a given time. In this way a person's speech is distinguished from other individuals and from any speech community. Idiolect is a

minor speech variety than sociolect, which is used by any social class. Idiolect varies with individuals whereas sociolect varies with class defined on a socio-economic basis.

20.3 Pidgins and Creole

Pidgin is a term used in sociolinguistics to refer to a language with a markedly reduced grammatical structure, lexicon and stylistic range when compared to full-fledged languages. Pidgin is not the native language of any community. The term 'pidgin'is probably a corruption of the English word business, as pronounced by the indigenous Chinese, and designates a mixed language. It arises in situations where speakers of different languages are unable to understand each other's native language and, therefore a need to develop a common means of communication creeps in. Thus Pidgins are formed by two mutually unintelligible speech communities attempting to communicate, each successively approximating to the more obvious features of the other's language. In such situations, the structure and vocabulary of the individual native languages are reduced over time, in order to bring about general, mutual understanding. Structures which have been reduced in this way are said to be pidginized. Gradually, a functional mixed language develops from the rudimentary contact language and is learned along with one's native language. Such developments need considerable motivation on the part of the speakers, and it is therefore not surprising that pidgin languages flourish in areas of economic development, as in the pidgins based on English, French, Spanish and Portuguese, in the East and West Indies, Africa and the Americas. These are often referred to as trade languages. The dominant European languages became the primary source for vocabulary. Linguistically, pidgins are characterized by a limited vocabulary, a greater use of paraphrase and metaphor, a simplified phonological system, and a reduced morphology and syntax. It is also interesting to note, especially in view of naturalness theory and universals, that pidgin language systems are remarkably similar, regardless of whether they are related orunrelated. Some pidgins have become so useful that they have developed a role as auxiliary languages, and been given an official status by the community . These cases are called expanded pidgins because of the way they have added extra features to cope with the needs of the users.

"The vocabulary of a pidgin comes mainly from one particular language called the "lexifier". An early "pre-pidgin"is quite restricted in use and variable in structure. But the later "stable pidgin"develops its own grammatical rules which are quite different from those of the lexifier. These names of pidgins themselves reflect how the vocabulary emerges: Chinglish or Singlish for "Chinese English". However it becomes more complex with the passage of time. Since pidgin emerges out of practical needs of communication between two different language communities having no greater language to interact, it is also called 'contact language'. R. A. Hudson in his Sociolinguistics states: "Pidgin is a variety especially created for the purpose of communication with some other group, and not used by any community for communication among themselves." So pidgin is theoutcome of interaction between two entirely different 'speech communities'. It develops because neither of the communities 'learns'the language of others due to different reasons. Sometimes practically it is impossible to learn either of the languages so quickly and there is a strong need of interaction, as for business purposes or immediate political needs. Pidgins become creolized when they become the mother-tongue of a community. As they develop into full-fledged native languages they are called creoles.

Creole is a term used in sociolinguistics to refer to a pidgin language which has become the mother-tongue of a speech community, as is the case in Jamaica, Haiti, Dominica, and several other ex-colonial parts of the world. Major difference between pidgin and Creole

is that the former has no native speakers but the latter has. In fact, when any pidgin is acquired by children of any community it becomes Creole. At that time it develops its new structures and vocabulary. In other words when a pidgin becomes 'lingua franca'it is called Creole. An old example of pidgin, that later developed into Creole, was "lingua franca". It referred to a mix of mostly Italian with a broad vocabulary drawn from Turkish, Persian, French, Greek and Arabic. This mixed language was used for communication throughout the medieval and early modern Middle East as a diplomatic language. Term "lingua franca"has since become common for any language used by speakers of different languages to communicate with one another.

Creoles are former pidgins whose functional and grammatical limitations and simplification have been eliminated and which now function as full-fledged standardized native languages. Creoles originated primarily in regions of colonization where the indigenous people were either enslaved or otherwise made to be highly dependent on their white masters. Social pressures of assimilation led to pidgin monolingualism and eventually to a complete loss of the original native language replaced by the creole.

The process of creolization expands the structural and stylistic range of the pidginized language, so that the creolized language becomes comparable in formal and functional complexity to other languages. A process of decreolization takes place when the standard language begins to exert influence on the creole, and a post-creole continuum emerges. However, this process is not the reverse of creolization, and therefore some sociolinguists have suggested alternative terms for this stage, such as metropolitanization.

20.4 Register

Human beings are not static. Their thinking, choice, and behavior vary according to need and situation. As they adapt their behavior according to the situation, they adapt their language. This adaptation of language according to situation, context and purpose forms a language variety that is called 'Register'. Language of individuals varies from situation to situation. On some occasions people talk very formally, on some other occasions they talk technically as well as formally. On some other occasion they become informal yet technical and sometimes informal and non-technical.

There are two other levels: Slang, and vulgar. The questionone gets is why a person adopts these different levels of formalities. Halliday tries to describe it in terms of 'three dimensions'. Michael Halliday in his Language as Social Semiotic defines register as "A complex scheme of communicative behaviour". He observes that this scheme of behaviour has three dimensions: Field, Tenor, and Mode. These three dimensions determine a speaker's choice of 'linguistic items'.

For example, a doctor's communication with other doctors will be containing more medical terminology i.e., he will be using medical register. The same doctor will communicate with his patient in as simple language as possible. So the patient is 'Tenor'that means to whom the communication is being done. Other example of determination of speech by 'Tenor'is the difference of a person's communication with a teacher than with a friend. Mode is the means of communication. If the mode of communication is letter, its language will be different from direct conversation. If it is an essay, its language will be differing from that of a letter even though written about the same topic.

20.5 Diglossia

Diglossia is not a language variety but a 'linguistic situation'where more than one languages are used. In English language, the term Diglossia was introduced by Charles Ferguson. He used this term to refer to those societies where two very different varieties of the same language were being used. He said:

"Diglossia is a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialect of the language (which may include standard or regional standards), there is very highly codified (often grammatically complex) superposed variety." In Ferguson's theory that society is 'diglossic'where two 'divergent'varieties of the same language are used, out of which one is 'highly codified'. Arabic speaking countries are the best examples of 'Diglossia'. Throughout the Arabic peninsula there are two varieties of Arabic language in use: Classical Arabic, and Vernaculars. Classical Arabic, which is based on the Qur'anic language, is highly codified and complex and has stable grammatical structure since The Holy Qur'an is revealed. This language is 'Lingua Franca'of Arabic Peninsula and is being taught in schools and also the language of media. Every one has to learn this variety especially and it is not acquired "by being born in right kind of family". Everywhere in a diglossic society, vernaculars are used for daily routine conversation. It is obvious from Ferguson's definition that only that society was considered diglossic where two varieties, one high and another low, of the same language were used. However, later on, Joshua Fishmanextended the term to that society where two different languages are used. According to this extension almost all societies become diglossic societies. Ferguson also proposed that there is a strong tendency to give one language higher status or prestige and reserve it for specific occasion and purposes.The existence of different languages in a society provides them to merge into each other and sometimes results into a new mixture of languages that is called Pidgin.

20.6 Micro and Macro Linguistics

Linguistic study has been viewed from two points of view .i.e, micro and macro linguistics. In micro linguistics one adopts a narrower view and in macro linguistics the broader view. Micro linguistics is concerned solely with the structure of language system without regard to the way in which languages are acquired, stored in the brain or used : the interdependence of language and culture: physiological and psychological mechanisms that are involved in language behaviour. Macro linguistics is concerned with everything that pertains in any way at all to language and languages.Linguists differ according to what they consider as included in the **scope** of linguistic studies. Some consider the proper area of linguistics to be confined to the levels of phonology, morphology and syntax. This can be called a **Microlinguistic** perspective. However, some take a broader or **macro-linguistic** view which includes the other levels of analysis mentioned above, as well as other aspects of language and its relationship with many areas of human activity.

20.7 Synchronic and Diachronic Linguistics

The modern era in linguistics, marking a significant change in the way language study is approached, has started with Ferdinanad de Saussure and his concept of linguistics where he presents a method that deviates from all the approaches to language study that were hitherto followed. Saussurean linguistics emphasizes the importance of seeing language as a living phenomenon; of studying speech; of analysing the underlying system of a language in order to demonstrate an integrated structure; and of placing language firmly in its social milieu.

Saussure emphasized the importance of seeing language from two distinct and largely exclusive points of view, which he called synchronic and diachronic. Synchronic linguistics sees language as a living whole, existing as a state at a particular point in time. It is the accumulation of all the linguistic activities that a language community engages in, during a specific period. Linguists will collect samples within the stated period describing them regardless of any historical considerations once the linguists have isolated the focus point for synchronic description, the time factor becomes irrelevant . To consider historical material is to enter the domain of diachronic linguistics. This deals with the evolution of a language through time as a continually changing medium- a never ending succession of language states. AB is synchronic axis of simultaneities, CD is the diachronic axis of successions. AB is language state at an arbitrarily chosen point in time on the line CD at (X); CD is the historical path the language has travelled, and the route which it is going to continue travelling. These two do not exclude the other completely. There must always be a point of intersection. However, the distinction allows us to focus attention more unswervingly on language from a given consistent angle, giving due emphasis to synchronic helps to clarify the important point that a diachronic investigation always presupposes to some extent a synchronic study. It is impossible to consider the way a language has changed from one state to another without first knowing something about the two states to be compared. The focus of attention in discussions of synchrony and diachrony has settled on the point of intersection as clearly the potentiality for change in a language system is a factor which has to be carefully considered in attempting any characterisation of language competence.

20.8 Langue and Parole

The Second Saussurean dichotomy is between Langue and Parole. There are distinctions between three main senses of language. Human speech as a whole is composed of two aspects, langue, the language system and parole- the act of speaking. **Langue** is that faculty of human speech present in all normal human beings due to heredity, but which requires the correct environmental stimuli for proper development. Langage is a universal behaviour trait more of interest to the anthropologist or biologist than the linguist. **Langue** was considered by Saussure to be the totality of a language deducible from the memories of all the language users. It was a storehouse; 'the sum of word-images stored in the minds of individuals'. The idea is very similar to the notion of competence as defined by Chomsky. Characteristics of langue are really present in the brain. Langue is also something which the individual speaker can make use of. It's a corporate social phenomenon. When we say that the verb to be has the following forms in English –I am..we are making a descriptive statement about the langue of English- something which is valid for all speakers of the dialect at the present time. Langue has to be related to the actual usage of individuals for it has no reality apart from its validity which a community manifests in every day speech. Saussurean concept of parole is the actual concrete act of speaking, on the part of an individual. It's a personal dynamic social activity which exists at a particular time and place in a particular situation- as opposed to langue. Parole is the only object available for direct observation by the linguist. It is identical with the Chomskyian notion of performance. The langue of a community can be arrived at only by a consideration of a large number of paroles.

20.9 Signifier and signified

The concept of a language system as developed by Saussure has most profound influence on subsequent scholarship. Saussure accepted that there must be two sides to meaning but emphasized that the relationship between them was arbitrary. The two sides are signifier and the signified. They can also be seen as concept vs acoustic image; content vs expression. Meaning was relationship between two equally participating characteristics (objects, ideas

etc. on the one side and the language used to refer to them on the other. Saussure calls this relationship of signified to a signifier, a linguistic sign. The sign is the basic unit of communication, a unit within the langue of the community. It is thus a mental construct which was viewed by Saussure as real. Any sentence for him is a sequence of signs, each sign contributing something to the meaning of the whole, and each contrasting with all other signs in the language. This sequence can be seen as syntagmatic relationship, a liner relationship between the signs which are present in the sentence. A paradigmatic relationship is a particular kind of relationship between a sign in sentence and a sign not present in sentence, but part of the rest of the language. This set of signs form a little system in themselves (personal pronoun system) and only one of which can be used at this point in the structure. We have a choice as to which sign can be used at any place in the structure. The meaning or value of each sign in the system is derivable by reference to the other signs which are co members of it. The view of meaning arising out of the relationships between signs in a system is very basic to Saussure theory of language. One sign in a sentence has both syntagmatic and a paradigmatic role. Both kinds of relationships are necessary to carry out the complete analysis of any sentence.

20.10 Summary

So far in this lesson you have come to know about different language varieties like dialect, idiolect, pidgin, creole etc and how these varieties are identified basing on the region, need, and other aspects of communication. You are familiar with many linguistic terms and the purpose they serve in the study of languages.

20.11 Comprehension Check Questions

1. Define dialect and list different aspects of dialect
2. What is idiolect and how is it different from dialect?
3. Explain Pidgins and Creoles
4. What is register and give examples of different registers.
5. Describe diglossia
6. Correlate between Synchronic and diachronic Linguistics
7. Define the relation between Langue and Parole
8. How does Saussure employ signifier and signified in his theory of language?

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