



# **SATHYABAMA**

**INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

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**SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**

**UNIT – I LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS – SHS5006**

## UNIT-1

### ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

#### Indo-European:

Indo-European is just one of the language families, or proto-languages, from which the world's modern languages are descended, and there are many other families including Sino-Tibetan, North Caucasian, Afro-Asiatic, Altaic, Niger-Congo, Dravidian etc. The English language, and indeed most European languages, traces its original roots back to a Neolithic (late Stone Age) people known as the Indo-Europeans or Proto-Indo-Europeans, who lived in Eastern Europe and Central Asia

#### Spread of Indo-European Languages

Between 3500 BC and 2500 BC, the Indo-Europeans began to fan out across Europe and Asia, in search of new pastures and hunting grounds, and their languages developed - and diverged - in isolation. By around 1000 BC, the original Indo-European language had split into a dozen or more major language groups or families, the main groups being:

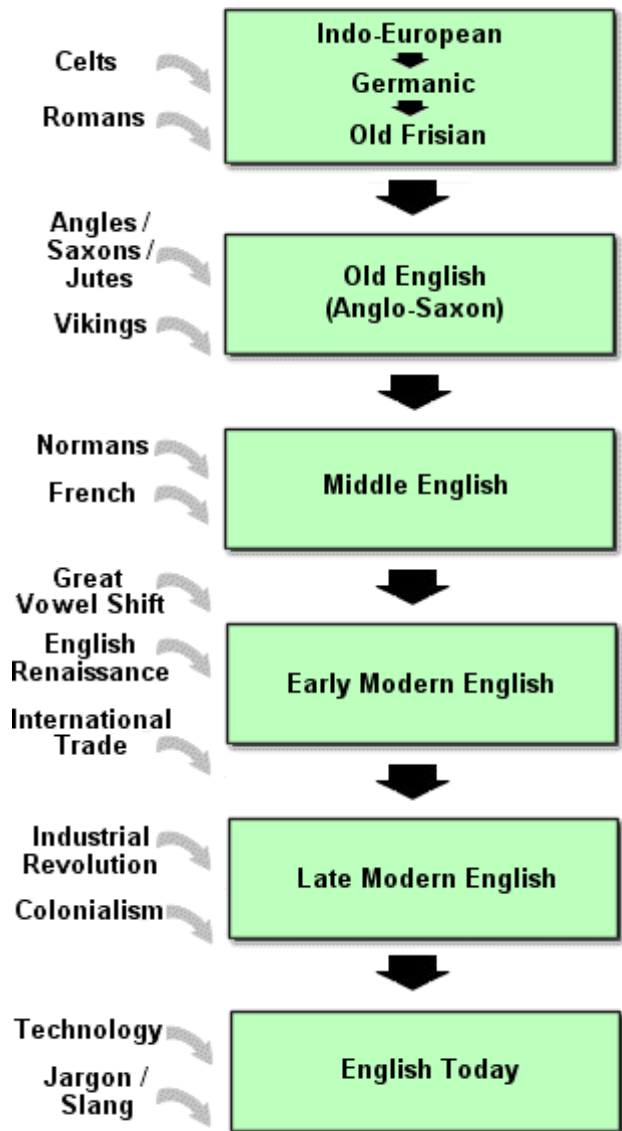
- Hellenic
- Italic
- Indo-Iranian
- Celtic
- Germanic
- Armenian
- Balto-Slavic
- Albanian

#### GERMANIC

The Germanic, or Proto-Germanic, language group can be traced back to the region between the Elbe river in modern Germany and southern Sweden some 3,000 years ago. The early Germanic languages themselves borrowed some words from the aboriginal (non-Indo-European) tribes which preceded them, particularly words for the natural environment (e.g. sea, land, strand, seal, herring); for technologies connected with sea travel (e.g. ship, keel, sail, oar); for new social practices (e.g. wife, bride, groom); and for farming or animal husbandry practices (e.g. oats, mare, ram, lamb, sheep, kid, bitch, hound, dung).

#### CELTS

The earliest inhabitants of Britain about which anything is known are the Celts (the name from the Greek *keltoi* meaning "barbarian"), also known as Britons, who probably started to move into the area sometime after 800 BC. Despite their dominance in Britain at an early formative stage of its development, the Celts have actually had very little impact on the English language, leaving only a few little-used words such as *brock* (an old word for a badger), and a handful of geographical terms like *coombe* (a word for a valley) and *crag and tor* (both words for a rocky peak).



## ROMANS

Britain remained part of the Roman Empire for almost 400 years, and there was a substantial amount of interbreeding between the two peoples, although the Romans never succeeded in penetrating into the mountainous regions of Wales and Scotland. Although this first invasion had a profound effect on the culture, religion, geography, architecture and social behavior of Britain, the linguistic legacy of the Romans' time in Britain was, like that of the Celts, surprisingly limited. This legacy takes the form of less than 200 "loanwords" coined by Roman merchants and soldiers. Such as piper(pepper), candel (candle), cetel (kettle), disc (dish), cycene(kitchen), ancor (anchor), plante (plant), rosa (rose) win (wine), butere (butter), caese (cheese sacc (sack), catte (cat), etc.

## JUTES

Around 430AD, the ambitious Celtic warlord Vortigern invited the Jutish brothers Hengest and Horsa (from Jutland in modern-day Denmark), to settle on the east coast of Britain to form a bulwark against sea raids by the Picts, in return for which they were "allowed" to settle in the southern areas of Kent, Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. But the Jutes were not the only newcomers to Britain during this period. Other Germanic tribes soon began to make the short journey across the North Sea. The Angles (from a region called Angeln, the spur of land which connects modern Denmark with Germany) gradually began to settle in increasing numbers on the east coast of Britain, particularly in the north and East Anglia. The Frisian people, from the marshes and islands of northern Holland and western Germany, also began to encroach on the British mainland from about 450 AD onwards. Still later, from the 470s, the war-like Saxons (from the Lower Saxony area of north-western Germany) made an increasing number of incursions into the southern part of the British mainland. Over time, these Germanic tribes began to establish permanent bases and to gradually displace the native Celts.

## THE ANGLO-SAXONS

The early Christian missionaries introduced the more rounded Roman alphabet (much as we use today), which was easier to read and more suited for writing on vellum or parchment. The Anglo-Saxons quite rapidly adopted the new Roman alphabet, but with the addition of letters such as ƿ ("wynn"), þ ("thorn"), ð ("edh" or "eth") and ȝ ("yogh") from the old runic alphabet for certain sounds not used in Latin. ƿ later became "uu" and, still later, "w"; About 400 Anglo-Saxon texts survive from this era, including many beautiful poems, telling tales of wild battles and heroic journeys.

## VIKINGS

By the late 8th Century, the Vikings (or Norsemen) began to make sporadic raids on the east coast of Britain. They came from Denmark, Norway and Sweden, although it was the Danes who came with the greatest force. Notorious for their ferocity, ruthlessness and callousness, the Vikings pillaged and plundered the towns and monasteries of northern England - in 793, they sacked and looted the wealthy monastery at Lindisfarne in Northumbria - before turning their attentions further south. By about 850, the raiders had started to over-winter in southern England and, in 865, there followed a full-scale invasion and on-going battles for the possession of the country.

## Norman Conquest

The event that began the transition from Old English to Middle English was the Norman Conquest of 1066, when William the Conqueror (Duke of Normandy and, later, William I of England) invaded the island of Britain from his home base in northern France, and settled in his new acquisition along with his nobles and court. William crushed the opposition with a brutal hand and deprived the Anglo-Saxon earls of their property, distributing it to Normans (and some English) who supported him. The conquering Normans were themselves descended from Vikings who had settled in northern France about 200 years before (the very word Norman comes originally from Norseman). However, they had completely abandoned their Old Norse language and wholeheartedly adopted French (which is a so-called Romance language, derived originally from the Latin, not Germanic, branch of Indo-European), to the extent that not a single Norse word survived in Normandy.

However, the Normans spoke a rural dialect of French with considerable Germanic influences, usually called Anglo-Norman or Norman French, which was quite different from the standard French of Paris of the period, which is known as Francien. The differences between these dialects became even more marked after the Norman invasion of Britain,

particularly after King John and England lost the French part of Normandy to the King of France in 1204 and England became even more isolated from continental Europe.

Anglo-Norman French became the language of the kings and nobility of England for more than 300 years (Henry IV, who came to the English throne in 1399, was the first monarch since before the Conquest to have English as his mother tongue). While Anglo-Norman was the verbal language of the court, administration and culture, though, Latin was mostly used for written language, especially by the Church and in official records. For example, the “Domesday Book”, in which William the Conqueror took stock of his new kingdom, was written in Latin to emphasize its legal authority. However, the peasantry and lower classes (the vast majority of the population, an estimated 95%) continued to speak English - considered by the Normans a low-class, vulgar tongue - and the two languages developed in parallel, only gradually merging as Normans and Anglo-Saxons began to intermarry. It is this mixture of Old English and Anglo-Norman that is usually referred to as Middle English.

### **Franciscan**

The Normans bequeathed over 10,000 words to English (about three-quarters of which are still in use today), including a huge number of abstract nouns ending in the suffixes “-age”, “-ance/-ence”, “-ant/-ent”, “-ment”, “-ity” and “-tion”, or starting with the prefixes “con-”, “de-”, “ex-”, “trans-” and “pre-”. Perhaps predictably, many of them related to matters of crown and nobility. (e.g. crown, castle, prince, count, duke, viscount, baron, noble, sovereign, heraldry); of government and administration (e.g. parliament, government, governor, city); of court and law. During the reign of the Norman King Henry II and his queen Eleanor of Aquitaine in the second half of the 12th Century, many more French words from central France were imported in addition to their Anglo-Norman counterparts (e.g. the French chase and the Anglo-Norman catch; royal and real; regard and reward; gauge and wage; guile and wile; guardian and warden; guarantee and warrant). Regarded as the most cultured woman in Europe, Eleanor also championed many terms of romance and chivalry (e.g. romance, courtesy, honour, damsel tournament, virtue, music, desire, passion, etc).

### **Middle English After Normans**

English was the language mainly of the uneducated peasantry that many of the grammatical complexities and inflections of Old English gradually disappeared. By the 14th Century, noun genders had almost completely died out, and adjectives, which once had up to 11 different inflections, were reduced to just two (for singular and plural) and often in practice just one, as in modern English. The pronounced stress, which in Old English was usually on the lexical root of a word, generally shifted towards the beginning of words, which further encouraged the gradual loss of suffixes that had begun after the Viking invasions, and many vowels developed into the common English unstressed “schwa” (like the “e” in taken, or the “i” in pencil). As inflections disappeared, word order became more important and, by the time of Chaucer, the modern English subject-verb-object word-order had gradually become the norm, and as had the use of prepositions instead of verb inflections.

### **Great Vowel Shift**

A major factor separating Middle English from Modern English is known as the Great Vowel Shift, a radical change in pronunciation during the 15th, 16th and 17th Century, as a result of which long vowel sounds began to be made higher and further forward in the mouth (short vowel sounds were largely unchanged). In fact, the shift probably started very gradually some centuries before 1400, and continued long after 1700 (some subtle changes arguably continue even to this day). Many languages have undergone vowel shifts, but the major changes of the English vowel shift occurred within the relatively short space of a century or two, quite a sudden and dramatic shift in linguistic terms. It was largely during this short period of time that English lost the purer vowel sounds of most European languages, as well as the phonetic pairing between long and short vowel sounds.

### **The English Renaissance**

The next wave of innovation in English vocabulary came with the revival of classical scholarship known as the Renaissance. The English Renaissance roughly covers the 16th and early 17th Century (the European Renaissance had begun in Italy as early as the 14th Century), and is often referred to as the “Elizabethan Era” or the “Age of Shakespeare” after the most important monarch and most famous writer of the period. The additions to English vocabulary during this period were deliberate borrowings, and not the result of any invasion or influx of new nationalities or any top-down decrease.

## **1. Printing Press and Standardization**

The final major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press, one of the world's great technological innovations, introduced into England by William Caxton in 1476 (Johann Gutenberg had originally invented the printing press in Germany around 1450). The first book printed in the English language was Caxton's own translation, "The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye", actually printed in Bruges in 1473 or early 1474. Up to 20,000 books were printed in the following 150 years, ranging from mythic tales and popular stories to poems, phrasebooks, devotional pieces and grammars, and Caxton himself became quite rich from his printing business (among his best sellers were Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" and Thomas Malory's "Tales of King Arthur"). As mass-produced books became cheaper and more commonly available, literacy mushroomed, and soon works in English became even more popular than books in Latin.

## **2. The Bible**

Two particularly influential milestones in English literature were published in the 16th and early 17th Century. In 1549, the "Book of Common Prayer" (a translation of the Church liturgy in English, substantially revised in 1662) was introduced into English churches, followed in 1611 by the Authorized, or King James, Version of "The Bible".

### **a. Wycliffe's version**

John Wycliffe had made the first English translation of "The Bible" as early as 1384, and illicit handwritten copies had been circulating ever since

### **b. Tyndale's Version**

But, in 1526, William Tyndale printed his New Testament, which he had translated directly from the original Greek and Hebrew. Tyndale printed his "Bible" in secrecy in Germany. Tyndale's "Bible" was much clearer and more poetic than Wycliffe's early version. In addition to completely new English words like fisherman, sea-shore, zealous, beautiful, clear-eyed, broken-hearted and many others, it includes many of the well-known phrases later used in the King James Version, such as let there be light, my brother's keeper, the powers that be, fight the good fight, the apple of mine eye,

### **C. King James Version**

The "King James Bible" was compiled by a committee of 54 scholars and clerics, and published in 1611, in an attempt to standardize the plethora of new Bibles that had sprung up over the preceding 70 years. It appears to be deliberately conservative, even backward-looking, both in its vocabulary and its grammar, and presents many forms which had already largely fallen out of use, or were at least in the process of dying out

(e.g. digged for dug, gat and gotten forgot, bare for bore, etc several archaic forms such as brethren, kine and twain. The "-eth" ending is used throughout for third person singular verbs, even though "-es" was becoming much more common by the early 17th Century, and ye is used for the second person plural pronoun, rather than the more common you.

## **3. Dictionaries and Grammars**

The first English dictionary, "A Table Alphabeticall", was published by English schoolteacher Robert Cawdrey in 1604. Cawdrey's little book contained 2,543 of what he called "hard words", especially those borrowed from Hebrew, Greek, Latin and French. Several other dictionaries, as well as grammar, pronunciation and spelling guides, followed during the 17th and 18th Century. The first attempt to list ALL the words in the English language was "An Universall Etymological English Dictionary", compiled by Nathaniel Bailey in 1721. But the first dictionary considered anything like reliable was Samuel Johnson's "Dictionary of the English Language", published in 1755. The much more comprehensive "Oxford English Dictionary" was actually riddled with inconsistencies in both spelling and definitions by Johnson which included many flagrant examples of inhorn terms which have not survived, including digladation, cubiculary etc.

## **International Trade**

While all these important developments were underway, British naval superiority was also growing. In the 16th and 17th Century, international trade expanded immensely, and loanwords were absorbed from the languages of many other countries throughout the world, including those of other trading and imperial nations such as Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands. Among these were:

- French

(e.g. bizarre, ballet, sachet, crew, progress, chocolate, salon, duel, brigade, infantry, comrade, volunteer, detail, passport, explorer, ticket, machine, cuisine, prestige, garage, shock, moustache, vogue);

- Italian

(e.g. carnival, fiasco, arsenal, casino, miniature, design, bankrupt, grotto, studio, umbrella, rocket, ballot, balcony, macaroni, piano, opera, violin);

- Spanish (e.g. armada, bravado, cork, barricade, cannibal);

- Portuguese (e.g. breeze, tank, fetish, marmalade, molasses);

- German (e.g. kindergarten, noodle, bum, dumb, dollar, muffin, hex, wanderlust, gimmick, waltz, seminar, ouch!);

- Dutch/Flemish

(e.g. bale, spool, stripe, holster, skipper, dam, booze, fucking, crap, bugger, hunk, poll, scrap, curl, scum, knapsack, sketch, landscape, easel, smuggle, caboose, yacht, cruise, dock, buoy, keelhaul, reef, bluff, freight, leak, snoop, spook, sleigh, brick, pump, boss, lottery);

- Basque (e.g. bizarre, anchovy);

- Norwegian (e.g. maelstrom, iceberg, ski, slalom, troll);

- Icelandic (e.g. mumps, saga, geyser);

- Finnish (e.g. sauna);

- Persian (e.g. shawl, lemon, caravan, bazaar, tambourine);

- Arabic

(e.g. harem, jar, magazine, algebra, algorithm, almanac, alchemy, zenith, admiral, sherbet, saffron, coffee, alcohol, mattress, syrup, hazard, lute);

- Turkish (e.g. coffee, yoghurt, caviar, horde, chess, kiosk, tulip, turban);

- Russian (e.g. sable, mammoth);

- Japanese (e.g. tycoon, geisha, karate, samurai);

- Malay (e.g. bamboo, amok, caddy, gong, ketchup);

- Chinese (e.g. tea, typhoon, kowtow).

- Polynesian (e.g. taboo, tatoo).

## The Industrial And Scientific Revolution

The main distinction between Early Modern and Late Modern English lies in its vocabulary - pronunciation, grammar and spelling remained largely unchanged. Late Modern English accumulated many more words as a result of two main historical factors: the Industrial Revolution, which necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed; and the rise of the British Empire, during which time English adopted many foreign words and made them its own. No single one of the socio-cultural developments of the 19th Century could have established English as a world language, but together they did just that.

Most of the innovations of the Industrial Revolution of the late 18th and early 19th Century were of British origin, including the harnessing of steam to drive heavy machinery, the development of new materials, techniques and equipment in a range of manufacturing industries, and the emergence of new means of transportation (e.g. steamships, railways). At least half of the influential scientific and technological output between 1750 and 1900 was written in English. Another English speaking country, the USA, continued the English language dominance of new technology and innovation with inventions like electricity, the telegraph, the telephone, the phonograph, the sewing machine, the computer, etc.

The industrial and scientific advances of the Industrial Revolution created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. To a large extent, this relied on the classical languages, Latin and Greek, in which scholars and scientists of the period were usually well versed. Although words like oxygen, protein, nuclear and vaccine did not exist in the classical languages, they could be created from Latin and Greek roots. Lens, refraction, electron, chromosome, chloroform, caffeine, centigrade, bacteria, chronometer, and claustrophobia are just a few of the other science-based words that were created during this period of scientific innovation, along with a whole host of “-ologies” and “-onomies”, like biology, petrology, morphology, histology, palaeontology, ethnology, entomology, taxonomy, etc. Many more new words were coined for the new products, machines and processes that were developed at this time (e.g. train, engine, reservoir, pulley, combustion, piston, hydraulic, condenser, electricity, telephone, telegraph, lithograph, camera, etc). In some cases, old words were given entirely new meanings and connotation (e.g. vacuum, cylinder, apparatus, pump, syphon, locomotive, factory, etc), and new words created by amalgamating and fusing existing English words into a descriptive combination were particularly popular (e.g. railway, horsepower, typewriter, cityscape, airplane, etc).

## **Colonialism And The British Empire**

British colonialism had begun as early as the 16th Century, but gathered speed and momentum between the 18th and 20th Century. At the end of the 16th Century, mother-tongue English speakers numbered just 5-7 million, almost all of them in the British Isles; over the next 350 years, this increased almost 50-fold, 80% of them living outside of Britain. At the height of the British Empire (in the late 19th and early 20th Century), Britain ruled almost one quarter of the earth's surface, from Canada to Australia to India to the Caribbean to Egypt to South Africa to Singapore.

### **a. The New World**

Parts of the New World had already been long colonized by the French, Spanish and Dutch, but English settlers like the Pilgrim Fathers went there to stay, not just to search for riches or trading opportunities. They wanted to establish themselves permanently, to work the land, and to preserve their culture, religion and language, and this was a crucial factor in the survival and development of English in North America. The most significant event of the 20th Century is the fact that the North Americans speak English". The colonization of Canada proceeded quite separately from that of America. There had been British, French and Portuguese expeditions to the east coast of Canada even before the end of the 15th Century. English in Canada has also been influenced by successive waves of immigration, from the influx of Loyalists from the south fleeing the American Revolution, to the British and Irish who were encouraged to settle the land in the early 19th Century to the huge immigration from all over the world during the 20th Century. Canadian English today contains elements of British English and American English in its vocabulary (it also uses a kind of hybrid of American and British spelling), as well several distinctive "Canadianisms" (like hoser, hydro, chesterfield, etc, and the ubiquitous eh? at the end of many sentences). Its vocabulary has been influenced by loanwords from the native peoples of the north (e.g. igloo, anorak, toboggan, canoe, kayak, parka, muskeg, caribou, moose, etc), as well as the French influence (e.g. serviette, tuque) from Lower Canada/Quebec.

### **b. American Dialect**

Many Spanish words also made their way into American English during the expansion and settlement of the Spanish-influenced American West, including words like armadillo, alligator, canyon, cannibal, guitar, mosquito, mustang, ranch, rodeo, stampede, tobacco, tornado and vigilant. The number of American coinings later exported back to the mother country should not be underestimated. They include commonly used word like commuter, bedrock, sag, belittle, lengthy, teenager, hangover etc. Today, some 4,000 words are used differently in the USA and Britain (lift/elevator, bath/tub, curtains/drapes, biscuit/cookie and boot/trunk are just some of the better known ones) and, increasingly, American usage is driving out traditional words and phrases back in Britain (e.g. truck for lorry, airplane for aeroplane, etc). American spelling is also becoming more commonplace in Britain (e.g. jail for gaol, wagon for waggon, reflection for reflexion, etc), although some Americanized spelling changes actually go back centuries (e.g. words like horror, terror, superior, emperor and governor were originally spelled as horreur, terreur, superiour, emperour and governour in Britain according to Johnson's 1755 "Dictionary", even if other words like colour, humour and honour had resisted such changes).

### **c. Black English**

The practice of transporting cheap black labour from western Africa to the New World was begun by the Spaniards in the 16th Century, and it had been also used by the Portuguese, Dutch and French, but it was adopted in earnest by the British in the early 17th Century. The numbers of African slaves in the America alone grew from just twenty in 1619 to over 4 million at the time of the American abolition of slavery after the Civil War in 1865. The slaves transported by the British to work in the plantations of the American south and the islands of the West Indies were mainly from a region of West Africa rich in hundreds of different languages, and most were superb natural linguists, often speaking anywhere between three and six African languages fluently. Familiar words like buddy for brother, palaver for trouble, and pikni for child, arose out of these creoles, and words like barbecue, savvy, nitty-gritty, hammock, hurricane, savannah, potato, tobacco and maize were also early introductions into English from the Caribbean, often via Spanish or Portuguese.

### **d. Britain's Other Colonies**

Britain established its first penal colony in Sydney, Australia. About 130,000 prisoners were transported there over the next 50 years, followed by other "free" settlers. Most of the settlers were from London and Ireland, resulting in a very distinctive and egalitarian accent and a basic English vocabulary supplemented by some Aboriginal words and expression

s (e.g. boomerang, kangaroo, koala, wallaby, budgerigar, etc). New Zealand began to be settled by European whalers and missionaries in the 1790s, although an official colony was not established there until 1840. In West Africa, the English trading influence began as early as the end of the 15th Century. In this language-rich and highly multilingual region, several English-based pidgins and creoles arose, many of which still exist today. In East Africa, British trade began around the end of the 16th Century, although systematic interest only started in the 1850s. Six modern East African states with a history of 19th Century British imperial rule (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe), gave English official language status on achieving independence in the 1960s. English is widely used in government, civil service, courts, schools, media, road signs, stores and business correspondence in these countries. The British East India Company established its first trading station in India in 1612, and it expanded rapidly. At first, the British traders had to learn the various languages of India in order to do business (Hindi, Bengali, Gujarati and others). But soon, schools and Christian missions were set up, and British officials began to impose English on the local populace. During the period of British sovereignty in India (the "Raj"), from 1765 until partition and independence in 1947, English became the medium of administration and education.

#### **e. Language Reform**

Noah Webster is often credited with single-handedly changing American spelling, particularly through his dictionaries: *The American Spelling Book* first published in 1788, *The Compendious Dictionary of the English Language* (1806) and *The American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828). But he was largely responsible for the revised spelling of words like color and honor (instead of the British colour and honour), traveler and jeweler (for traveller and jeweller), check and mask (for cheque and masque), defense and offense (for defence and offence), plow for plough, as well as the rather illogical adoption of aluminum instead of aluminium. Many of Webster's more radical spelling recommendations (e.g. soop, groop, bred, wimmen, fether, fugitiv, tuf, thum, hed, bilt, tung, fantom, croud, ile, definit, examin, medicin, etc) were largely ignored, as were most of his suggested pronunciation suggestions (e.g. "deef" for deaf, "booty" for beauty, "nater" for nature, etc), although he was responsible for the current American pronunciations of words like schedule and lieutenant. Webster also claimed to have invented words such as demoralize, appreciation, accompaniment, ascertainable and expenditure, even though these words had actually been in use for some centuries. For many Americans, like Webster, taking ownership of the language and developing what would become known as American Standard English was seen as a matter of honour (honor) for the newly independent nation. But such reforms were fiercely criticized in Britain, and even in America a so-called "Dictionary War" ensued between supporters of Webster's Americanism and the more conservative British-influenced approach of Joseph Worcester and others. In 1906, the American philanthropist Andrew Carnegie tried to resurrect some of Webster's reforms. He contributed large sums of money towards the Simplified Spelling Board, which resulted in the American adoption of the simpler spellings of words such as ax, judgment, catalog, program, etc. President Theodore Roosevelt agreed to use these spellings for all federal publications and they quickly caught on, although there was still stiff resistance to such recommended changes as tuf, def, troble, yu, filosofy, etc.

#### **f. Literary Developments**

A vast number of novels (of varying quality and literary value) were published in the 19th Century to satisfy the apparently insatiable appetite of Victorian Britain for romantic stories. New ideas, new concepts and new words were introduced in the early science fiction and speculative fiction novels of Mary Shelley, Jules Verne and H.G. Wells. But some truly revolutionary works were just around the corner in the early 20th Century, from Virginia Woolf to T.S. Eliot to William Faulkner to Samuel Beckett and, perhaps most emphatically, the innovations of the Irishman, James Joyce, in "Ulysses" and "Finnegan's Wake". Clearly, English is taken to a whole new level, pushing the boundaries of the language, and it is considered one of the most difficult works of fiction in the English language. Although the basic English grammar and syntax is more or less intact, it is written in an experimental stream-of-consciousness style, and contains masses of literary allusions, puns and dream-like word association. In the late 19th Century, the Scottish lexicographer James Murray was given the job of compiling a "New English Dictionary on Historical Principles". He worked on this project for 36 years from 1879 until his death in 1915, and his results were completed by others and published in 1928 as the "Oxford English Dictionary".



## **g. 20th Century**

By the end of the 19th Century, the USA had overtaken the UK as the world's fastest growing economy, and America's "economic imperialism" continued the momentum of the British Industrial Revolution into the 20th Century. The American dominance in economic and military power, as well as its overwhelming influence in the media and popular culture has ensured that English has remained the single most important language in the world and the closest thing to a global language the world has ever seen. The 20th Century was, among other things, a century of world wars, technological transformation, and globalization, and each has provided a source of new additions to the lexicon. For example, words like blockbuster, nose-dive, shell-shocked, camouflage, radar

, barrage, boondocks, roadblock, snafu, boffin, brainwashing, spearhead, etc, are all military terms which have made their way into standard English during the World Wars. As an interesting aside, in 1941, when Sir Winston Churchill wanted to plumb the depths of the English soul at a particularly crucial and difficult time in the Second World War, almost all of the words in the main part of his famous speech ("we shall fight on the beaches... we shall never surrender") were of Anglo-Saxon origin, with the significant exception of surrender (a French loanword). The speech is also a good example of what was considered Received Pronunciation at the time. Later, the Internet it gave rise to (the word Internet itself is derived from Latin, as are audio, video, quantum, etc) generated its own set of neologisms.

(e.g. online, noob, flamer, spam, phishing, larping, whitelist, download, blog, vblog, blogosphere, emoticon, podcast, war ez, trolling, hashtag, wifi, bitcoin, selfie, etc). In addition, a whole body of acronyms, contractions and shorthands for use in email, social networking and cellphone texting has grown up, particularly among the young, including the relatively well-known lol, ttfn, btw, omg, wtf, plz, thx, ur, l8ter, etc. The debate (db8) continues as to whether texting is killing or enriching the English language.

## **h. Present Day**

The language continues to change and develop and to grow apace, expanding to incorporate new jargons, slangs, technologies, toys, foods and gadgets. In the current digital age, English is going through a new linguistic peak in terms of word acquisition, as it peaked before during Shakespeare's time, and then again during the Industrial Revolution, and at the height of the British Empire. According to one recent estimate, it is expanding by over 8,500 words a year (other estimates are significantly higher), compared to an estimated annual increase of around 1,000 words at the beginning of the 20th Century, and has almost doubled in size in the last century. Neologisms are being added all the time, including recent inclusions such as fashionista, metrosexual, McJob, McMansion, wussy, bling, nerd, pear-shaped, unplugged, fracking, truthiness,

locavore, parkour, sexting, crowdsourcing, regift, meme, selfie, earworm, meh, diss, suss, emo, twerk, schmeat, chav, ladette, punked, vaping, etc, etc. In recent years, there has been an increasing trend towards using an existing word as a different part of speech, especially the "verbification" of nouns (e.g. the word verbify is itself a prime example; others include to thumb, to parrot, to email, to text, to google, to medal, to critique, to leverage, to sequence, to interface, to tase, to speechify, to incentivize, etc), although some modern-sounding verbs have surprisingly been in the language for centuries (e.g. to author, to impact, to message, to parent, to channel, to monetize, to mentor, etc). "Nounification" also occurs, particularly in business contexts (e.g. an ask, a build, a solve, a fail, etc).

Compound or portmanteau words are an increasingly common source of new vocabulary (e.g. stagflation, edutainment, flexitarian, Disneyfication, frenemy, confuzzle, gastropub, bromance, hacktivist, chillax, in fomericial, shareware, dramedy, gaydar, welllderly, techlash, etc). The meanings of words also continue to change, part of a process that has been going on almost as long as the language itself. For instance, to the disgust of many, alternate is now almost universally accepted in North America as a replacement for alternative; momentarily has come to mean "very soon" and not (or as well as) "for a very short period of time"; and the use of the modifier literally to mean its exact opposite has recently found its way into the Oxford English Dictionary (where one of its meanings is shown as "used for emphasis rather than being actually true"). In some walks of life, bad, sick, dope and wicked are all now different varieties of good.

In our faddy, disposable, Internet-informed, digital age, there are even word trends that appear to be custom-designed to be short-lived and ephemeral, words and phrases that are considered no longer trendy once they reach anything close to mainstream usage. Examples might be bae, on fleek, YOLO (you only live once), fanute, etc. Resources like the Urban Dictionary exist for the rest of us to keep track of such fleeting phenomena.

## THE GROWTH OF VOCABULARY

By the middle of the seventeenth century English Language had more or less assumed its present form so far as grammar, spelling and pronunciation are concerned. As knowledge grows, so language grows with it. The English language is the richest of all the languages and has the most extensive vocabulary. New words have entered and enlarged the vocabulary of English. Dr. Johnson's Dictionary of 1755 contains some 48,000 entries while the 20th century Oxford Dictionary lists more than four hundred thousand words. The extent of our individual vocabularies probably varies considerably from person to person.

The growth of English vocabulary has taken place mainly in the following 19 ways.

They are

- i) Imitation or Onomatopoeia.
- ii) An Older word is given a new significance or its meaning is extended.
- iii) A word which is normally one part of speech is used as another.
- iv) Addition of Suffixes or Prefixes.
- iv) Abbreviation.
- v) Syncopation.
- vi) Telescoping.
- vii) Met analysis.
- ix) Portmanteau Words.
- x) Words Formed from Initials.
- xi) Back-Formation.
- xii) Corruption or Misunderstanding.
- xiii) False Etymology.
- xiv) Slang term entering literary Vocabulary
- xv) Words derived from Proper Nouns.
- xvi) Two words combined to form one word.
- xvii) Conscious and Deliberate Coinages.
- xviii) Words taken from foreign languages.
- xix) Freak Formation.

### **i) Imitation or Onomatopoeia.**

This perhaps one of the oldest, is also the crudest, methods of word-making. A number of words in our vocabulary today, especially those, which describe some kind of sound, are obviously imitative or onomatopoeic in character. The most representative examples are: bang, pop, buzz, click, hiss, giggle, etc. The name of the cuckoo is clearly an attempt to represent its distinctive call and it is generally accepted that the Latin barbarous, from which it is derived our own word barbarian, was in its origins, a verbal imitation of the uncouth and unintelligible babbling of foreign tribes. The word slithery has a slippery suggestion: words like blow, blast, bloat, bladder, suggests inflation, by the inflation of the cheek when we pronounce the words. A large number of words suggesting stability begin with the combination of st as in stop, stay, station, still, stand. But the fact that onomatopoeia can be detected in a number of cases shows that in the past it has been one of the principles underlying word- making.

### **ii) An Older word is given a new significance or its meaning is extended.**

This method has been very extensively used in vocabulary building.

**Example: 1.** The word literary now means belonging to learning or pertaining to literature. Yet Dr. Johnson's Dictionary does not explain the word in this sense. At that time, it was used to mean alphabetical.

**Example: 2.** The word manufacture simply means to make by hand. But in modern usage, it means its opposite now manufacture means factory – made as opposed to handmade article. Extension of meaning is another way in which

vocabulary has been enriched. Take the word, for example board. This most common every day word originally meant a plank of wood. Now its meaning has been extended to mean

i) a table

ii) the food served on a table as in the expression to pay for directors.

iii) A group of people to sit around the table as in board of directors.

iv) A smooth wooden surface as in notice board, black board.

v) The deck of a ship.

vi) Then, there are the various meanings of the verb to board, as in boarding a train, ship or a plane.

**iii) A word which is normally one part of speech is used as another.**

It is one of the characteristics of the English language that it is possible to use the same word as noun, verb, adjective and many other parts of speech.

Example: 1. The Noun Park means an open place for keeping cars. From this noun is coined the verb to park meaning to drive a car to the car-park.

Example: 2. From the Noun pocket we have the verb to pocket.

Example: 3. Similar to the above examples, we elbow through a crowd, eye a person with suspicion, we stomach insults, we face danger and so on.

Sometimes an adjective gains the sense of a noun by the omission of the substantive which is originally qualified.

Example: 1 Submarine meaning a submarine vessel or a submarine boat.

Example: 2. The noun wireless means wireless telegraphy.

**iii) Addition of Suffixes or Prefixes.**

This is a very ancient method of word formation, to be found in almost every language. Here, a simple root word is taken and a suffix is added to it.

Example:

-dom as in kingdom, freedom.

-ship as in workshop, fellowship.

-less as in careless, moneyless.

-y as in healthy, sticky.

-ish as in foolish, clownish.

-ee as in employee, addressee.

-en as in lengthen, shorten.

In the present, modern age prefixes are used more intensively than suffixes.

Example:

Ambi- as in ambivalent, ambidextrous.

Pre- as in premature, pre-

Raphaelite. Post- as in postgraduate.

Sub- as in submarine, subzero.

Inter- as in international, interracial.

Extra – as in extraordinary, extracurricular.

Super- as in supersonic, superfast.

Another way in which words can be multiplied is by the addition of various prefixes to a root word. Sometime this possibility is almost unlimited.

Example: from the simple Latin root *vert* meaning to turn, we get.

Prefix	Root Word
Con in	
re	Vert
di per sub	

**iv) Abbreviation.**

A long word is shortened by abbreviating it. After some period, the abbreviation itself becomes a new word and the full form is no more used.

Zoo for zoological garden.  
Bus for omnibus.  
Exam for Examination.  
Maths for Mathematics.  
Photo for photograph.  
Bike for bicycle.  
Pram for perambulator.

Words like exam, lab, and Maths are now used in conversation and informal writing, while their full forms, examination, laboratory, mathematics are used in formal context.

There are a number of commonly used words, which we do not regard as abbreviations though they once had longer, cumbersome forms.

**Examples:**

Mob from the Latin mobile vulgus meaning fickle crowd.

Cab from the French cabriolet.

Taxi from French Taxi metre-cabriolet. Fan from fanatic.

Piano from pianoforte. Cinema from Cinematograph.

Another type of abbreviation is that a lengthy and cumbersome Latin phrase is clipped so that only one or two words remain.

**Example:**

Quorum (of whom) Affidavit (he has sworn) Veto (I forbid)

Status quo (the state existing before)

The tendency to abbreviate is very old natural and universal. It has always been opposed by pursuits. Its continued use over a long period makes it enter the vocabulary of language.

**v) Syncopation.**

This is a particular form of shortening or abbreviation.

Example: *pram*. Its original form was *perambulator*. It was syncopated to perambulator and then abbreviated to pram. In syncopation, a vowel is removed from a word and the consonants on either side are then run together. As a result one syllable is lost.

Other examples are

Once which was originally ones  
Else which was originally elles  
all pronounced originally as disyllables.  
Likewise some past participles like  
Born  
Worn  
Shorn  
Forlorn

are syncopated forms. At one time they had the terminal ending –en.

**vi) Telescoping.**

This process is similar to syncopation, but here two words are combined into one. Example:

*to don* was originally *to do on*.

*to doff* was originally *to do off*.

More recent examples are:

*pinafore* from *pin+ afore*.

*Overall* from *over + all*

### **vii) Met analysis.**

It means re-analysis and this process is close to telescoping. In this case, the consonant at the end of the word gets attached to the vowel at the beginning of the next word. So, by re-analysis, a new combination is formed.

Example: The word nickname it was originally ick name, ick is an old word meaning also. Therefore an ickname meant an also name, that is a name given to a person in addition to his real name. In course of time, the final n of an got attached to the vowel of the following word.

Example:

*A nickname was evolved from an ickname.*

*A newt was evolved from an ewt.*

*Tawdry was evolved from saint Audry.*

Sometimes, this process works in the reverse.

That is, the article a takes as n from the noun that follows. Thus we have an orange from a norange.

*an umpire from a numpire*

*an apron from a napron*

*an augur from a nauger*

*an adder from a nadder.*

### **viii) Portmanteau Words.**

Here, part of a word is combined with another word to form a new word. This newly formed word contains both the ideas behind the original terms.

Examples:

*Tragic-comedy from Tragedy and comedy.*

*Melodrama from Melody and drama.*

*Smog from smoke and fog.*

### **ix) Words Formed from Initials.**

In some cases, initial letters are used more commonly than the original full forms of words. As a result, the initials are regarded as words in themselves. Thus we speak of a B.A or M.A rather than Bachelor of Arts or Masters of Art, or M.P or C.I.D, many English speakers may not even know the full forms. Sometimes, the separate initials letters are combined to form words, by dropping the full-stop marks as in UNESCO, NATO, RADAR, and LASER.

### **x) Back-Formation.**

This is another means by which new words have come into being. Most back formations are the result of a misunderstanding. For example in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, there was an adverb *groveling* meaning *in a pathetic manner or on the ground*. Thus one would say *he lay groveling in the dust* where *groveling* is an adverb of manner. In course of time, the termination-ing was mistaken to be a present participle. So, erroneously, the adverb was taken for the present participle. In the next step, the infinitive *to grovel* was formed. Through a totally mistaken idea, a new verb was added to the English language.

In the same way the verb to sidle is a back formation from the adverb sidling, and the nouns beggar, hawker, editor by back –formation gave rise to *verbs to beg, to hawk, to edit*. Most agent nouns are formed from the verb adding –er or –or (worker, singer, gambler etc) but here the process has worked in the opposite direction.

### **xii) Corruption or Misunderstanding.**

Sometimes new words are formed by corruption or through misunderstanding. For example, the word *whitsun* (the 7<sup>th</sup> day after easter) came into existence through a corruption. It refers to the Sunday following Easter. It refers to the festival, which celebrates the decent of the Holy Spirit. The word *whitsun* originated Whitsunday which meant white Sunday. On that day, all converts to Christianity wore white robes, as a symbol of purification. Then Metanalysis,

whit Sunday was transformed *to whitsun* day. Later on, the analogy of this came *whitsun week*, *whitsun tide*, *whitsun Sunday*, and even whitsun Monday, which is a contradiction in terms.

In the same way *goodbye* is a garbled form of *God be with ye*.

#### **xiii) False Etymology.**

There are a certain number of words in the English language which have attained their present forms or their present-day usage, through mistaken notions regarding their etymology.

##### **Example:1**

Salt-cellar (a vessel which holds salt) at one time, a vessel to hold salt was named a saler (from the Latin word sal=salt). Then quite unnecessarily, it was called a salt-saler. Finally, it became “salt-cellar”.

#### **xiv) Slang term entering literary Vocabulary**

A number of words used today as standard, respectable English, were once slang terms, regarded as low or vulgar. The following words now used in formal English were slang words up to the 17<sup>th</sup> century.

##### **Example:**

Chap originally meant (a dealer in stolen goods) Trip originally meant (a short voyage)

Bet originally meant (wager)

*Kidnap* was once a slang word. Its meaning was restricted to kid nabbing or child stealing. This word is now Standard English meaning *to abduct*.

Slang is mainly the creation of those who disregard convention and want novelty of expression. They believe that it shows independence and originality. It is the favorite of the very young, the very low and the very high. With the passage of time, a word ceases to be slang and becomes good English. When it began to be used by respected writers and by normally educated people a slang gains acceptance as a formal word.

#### **xv) Words derived from Proper Nouns.**

A good number of words entered English language, which are derived from Personal Names. The word utopian comes from Thomas Moore's utopia and the word Lilliputian comes from Swift's *Gulliver's Travels*. Many garments have taken their names of those who first used them or introduced to the public. The word teddy bear from the American president Theodore Roosevelt. The word *to lynch* comes from Judge Lynch of the United States who dispensed justice in a somewhat summary manner.

A number of words were derived from place names, to denote products which originally came from that place.

##### **Example:**

Calico from Calicut

Muslin from Mosul

Millinery from Milan

#### **xvi) Two words combined to form one word.**

This is not quite the same process as syncopation, mentioned earlier in with the difference that no syllable is lost. Words like *Blackbird*, *weekday*, *Goldfish* etc., are quite clearly just a combination of two words.

Other examples are

Daisy from days eye.

from Bona fire

Woman from wifman.

#### **xvii) Conscious and Deliberate Coinages.**

When a new invention or discovery is made there not only arises the necessity of finding a name for it but also this new discovery brings a train of fresh ideas and conceptions, so that a need is felt for words to express them. Thus, the vocabulary is enlarged by the addition of coinages.

**Example:** *Aeroplane*. Once it was known as a flying machine and only later the name *Aeroplane* for the machine was found. Then came the difficulty of finding a name for the person who flew it. So, the term *aviator* was coined (from the Latin root *avis*=bird). Then this was replaced by *airman*. From this we have *aircraft*, *airship*, *airlines*, *airport* and so on.

#### **xviii) Words taken from foreign languages.**

By its very nature English borrows freely from other languages when they can fill a gap, supply a need or when a word is more expressive than the corresponding English term.

**Example:** *Circus*, *terminus*, *specimen* from Greek. *Radius*, *vacuum*, *tractor* from Latin. *Café*, *Blouse* from French.

English has borrowed from practically every language in the world. The number and range of such words are unlimited. In this respect English stands in contrast to a language like German, this goes to its own root while coining a new word.

#### **xix) Freak Formation.**

Certain words came into existence as a result of Freak-Formation. Example: *Teetotaller*.

*Teetotaller* (one who abstains from alcohol). This word originated as a result of stammering by an anti-alcohol advocate. He stammered while pronouncing the expression total abstainer and thus the word *Teetotaller* was formed.

#### **xx) Reduplication**

Reduplication is a word-formation process in which meaning is expressed by repeating all or part of a word. Examples include okey-dokey, film-flam, and pitter-patter. English is replete with these playful coinages. Many are baby words: tum-tum, pee-pee, boo-boo. Some are recent slang terms: bling-bling, hip hop, cray-cray. Rhyming is also considered reduplication when the second half of the word rhymes with the first. Product names are often formed this way. Examples: *abracadabra*, *bees-knees*, *boogie-woogie*, *boy-toy*, *chick-flick* etc.

#### **Conclusion**

We have now distinguished nineteen chief ways in which words are formed or added to the language. But, it may be asked, how these words come to be introduced, what the motive is behind the enlargement or extension of the vocabulary, and what factors determine whether such additions become a permanent part of the language or live for a while only and then become obsolete. In general it may be said that a new word is called forth by a need for it or a consciousness that no existing word is really adequate to fill that need: a new idea or conception is to be expressed, new institutions or new social developments and tendencies have to be described and distinguished: new inventions or newly adopted products, fashions etc., depends very largely upon the performance of the objects or the ideas they are used to describe.

Political and social developments, as well as religious controversies, have been the occasion for the introduction of numerous words into the language; and it is not always possible to trace them to any one person.

No living language is ever static; new words are constantly being added. Amongst those that have appeared in our own language since the outbreak of war in 1939. For example, *automation*, *beatnik*, *the gambling game*, *cold war*, *the iron curtain*, *paratrooper* and *recap*. There is also a growing practice of prefixing 'mini' from 'miniature' to an already existent noun to signify a small version of the thing or article in question. Example: *minibus*, *minicar*, *minicab*. Every year new words appear, while others extend or change their meaning.

## THE CHANGE IN MEANING

Countless words in the English language have changed/modified their meaning. Actually, of course, words have no independent and intrinsic meaning apart from that given them by the human mind and by their context; for they are essentially vehicles for the expression of thoughts and ideas. The methods by which words have changed their meanings and the reasons behind them are manifold, but the following appear to be the chief:

**1. Generalization:** A word which at one time had a specialized and restricted meaning comes in course of time to have a wider application. The process by which such a change occurs is called generalization.

Example: Box – Originally it was the name of a tree and the wood from it being rare and expensive, box wood was used almost exclusively for making small caskets for the reception of jewelry which became known, in turn, as a box.

Journey and Journal (from French jour = day).

Companion and Comrade – Literally the word companion means one who eats bread with another person (com = with, panis = bread) and comrade (Italian camera = a room) means one who shares a room, but since those with whom we eat bread and share a room are likely to be our close friends, the inevitable shifting of emphasis took place and the modern signification of these words was evolved.

**2. Specialization:** In the Middle English period, the absorption of a considerable Norman-French elements and later, at the time of Renaissance, the introduction of words of Latin origin, gave rise to a large number of synonyms. The natural and almost inevitable course was for these synonyms to become differentiated one from the others, thus many words, which today have a specialized application, at one time bore a much wider and more general significance.

Examples: The word fowl comes directly from the Anglo-Saxon fugol and is cognate with the modern German vogel. But the word bird also existed in Middle English, and the result was that, for a while, the two terms were used indiscriminately as alternatives; but, gradually bird came to be the more general term, while fowl took on a specialized meaning. And similarly with deer; originally, it meant a wild animal (cf. German tier); now it refers to one particular species of animal. Other examples: weeds (clothes), shroud, doom, etc.

**3. Extension or Transference followed by Differentiation of Meaning:** Some words undergo a change of meaning by a process which upto a point is a combination of the two mentioned before, viz., generalization and specialization, but differs from them both. This process may be called differentiation. Our mind differentiates between the original meaning and the newly acquired one, so that although it is still only one word, it has two or possibly more specialized meanings.

Examples: Fret – The basis of this word is the Anglo-Saxon fretan which meant to eat. Today it is used as a synonym for worry, though it appears with a rather different connotation with a fretwork. The latter may possibly be a fusion during the Middle English period with the old French verb freer (= to adorn) since the fretted work in architectural design was at once an adornment and had the appearance of having been eaten away. The more common modern usage of the term signifies to adorn or eat away with worry or anxiety. Brand is etymologically connected with the verb to burn. In the earliest stages of its history, it meant a burning piece of wood taken out from the fire, and later by analogy or association, a piece of metal made red hot in the fire. Such iron was commonly used for marking or branding.

Other examples – Anthology, nearly always used nowadays to designate a collection of poems, is literally the Greek term for a bunch of flowers. The word posy (a bunch of flowers) is actually the same word as poesy (poetry). The connecting link lies in the fact that flowers are closely associated with poetry.

**4. Polarisation or colouring:** It sometimes happens that in the course of time a word acquires a definite colouring or emotional significance for which, etymologically, there is no justification. In some cases, this coloring persists for a limited period only; in others, it persists so that a definite modification in meaning occurs. Example: The adjective victorian at one time quite colorless, now implies some degree of condemnation, though not quite so much as it did some thirty five years ago. Gothic was once (at the end of the 18th century) used in a derogatory sense, synonymous with uncouth, barbarous or wanting in taste; but since then it has resumed its pristine (original) and more obvious signification, implying neither praise nor condemnation.



Other examples: \_bolshevik (member of the Russian Majority or Extreme Socialist Party) As opposed to Menshevik (a violent revolutionary Marxist Movement) \_anarchist, \_propaganda, \_amateur, etc.

**5. Loss of Distinctive Colouring:** This happens most easily in the case of words in the English Language which have a religious or political significance, especially those which in the beginning were applied to minorities or to unpopular views. As controversy dies down, as suspicions and odium (offensiveness, hatred) were allayed their distinctive coloring is lost.

Example: The word \_Christian was originally a term of derision (scorn, ridicule). Their appellation \_quaker, now virtually accepted by the society of friends themselves as an alternative name, was bestowed upon the sect in mockery by Judge Bennet of Derby because George Fox bade him and all those present in the court –quake at the name of the Lord. Similarly de-polarized the trio – policy, politics, politician – all terms suggestive of dishonesty and trickery in Shakespeare and his generation – and indeed to a much later age – now have become respectable. Other examples are \_methodists, \_Mohammedanism, \_brave, \_gaudy, etc.

**6. Association of ideas:** Through this process, there is a gradual shifting of emphasis from the original fundamental meaning to some incidental or associated characteristic of the person so designated. Example: An excellent example is provided by the word ‘villain’. Originally, it signified a labourer on the manorial estate. But to the feudal nobility the \_villains were coarse and uncouth, and so the word came to mean a person of coarse behavior or speech or one who lacked refinement. Later, a further stage in the degradation of the word was reached when it came to acquire its modern signification. The term \_villain and \_villainy are amongst the most condemnatory that we can apply to a person.

Other examples: \_Crescent (originally growing – now it is an arc or a \_circle taken from a \_growing moon). \_Reek today is associated with a pungent or rather offensive smell. Originally, it meant \_smoke. \_yard, \_drive, \_prophet, \_sabotage etc., are some other examples.

**7. Metaphorical Application:** words that change their meaning through this process fall into two categories, viz., (a) those in the case of which the literal use is still preserved so that the metaphorical application constitutes what is virtually a new meaning or a new word; (b) those where the metaphorical sense has gained precedence over, or usurped altogether the place of the literal one.

Into the former category fall words like \_keen, \_dull, \_sharp, \_bright, \_volatile – often describing feelings or certain qualities of character and intellect. \_sad and \_silly belong to the second category. The original meaning of \_sad was \_full. By Elizabethan times, it came to mean \_sober or \_serious. The change clearly has come through a metaphorical application of the term denoting \_full of thought or seriousness and finally, by extension of the metaphor, it became \_full of sorrow. \_silly again the Anglo-Saxon word \_saelig meant \_happy; later, it came to denote an idea akin to our present day adjectives – \_simple and \_innocent. The transition from \_simple or \_innocent to \_stupid is an obvious one. Other examples: \_Broadcast (a double metaphor), \_pineapple, \_chest, \_bias, etc.

**8. Euphemism:** Certain words have changed their meaning through being frequently used euphemistically.

Example: \_Passing or \_decease have both become synonyms for \_death and to \_pass away or \_to fall asleep are very commonly used instead of the verb to \_die. According to strict etymological derivation \_cemetery means \_sleeping place. \_Undertaker actually denoting in a general way \_one who undertakes, through euphemism has assumed a specialized meaning, by dropping the adjective, which at one time accompanied it and without it, it would have been unintelligible.

Other examples: \_accident, \_casualty, \_fatality, \_idiot, etc.

**9. Prudery:** A number of euphemistic expressions have been traced to a sense of \_prudery, \_snobbery and \_affectation.

Member of a Prude: one who pretends extreme propriety

Examples: \_Paying Guest for \_boarder, \_financier for \_money-lender; even \_plumbers are beginning to call themselves \_sanitary engineers. Other examples are \_fertilizer instead of \_manure, \_expectorate instead of \_spit, \_stomach instead of \_guts and \_belly.

**10. Reversal of meaning:** A word may change its meaning to the point of actually reversing it for any reason already specified.

Example: ‘Grocer’ at the present day refers almost exclusively to a retail trader, but, at one time, as its derivation suggests, it meant only a wholesaler, i.e., a person who dealt ‘engros’ (in bulk). Perhaps the change occurred due to the shifting of emphasis: if the wholesaler sold in bulk, the retailer bought in the same way.

‘Scan’ derived from the French ‘Scander’ and Latin ‘Scandere’ ; its root word means ‘to read through carefully’, but at the present time, it is frequently used in the sense of ‘to read through rapidly and perfunctorily’. The term may have reversed its meaning through ironic application.

Perfunctorily – acting without zeal or enthusiasm

Other examples: ‘wiseacre’, ‘restive’, etc.

Wiseacre – one who unduly assumes an air or superior wisdom

Restive – inert; unwilling to go forward

**11. Popular Misunderstanding:** Misunderstandings have been responsible for a change of meaning of certain words.

Example: ‘Helpmate’. In the Book of Genesis, Chapter –II, VS 18, we read: —And the Lord said, ‘It is not good that man should be alone’. I will make a help meet for him. It is obvious that ‘meet’ is an adjective signifying ‘fitting’ or ‘suitable’. Since the help was also a companion to man and since she became his mate or wife, the idea arose that a ‘help meet’ was a ‘mate’ who helped and thus we have ‘helpmate’ today.

Other examples: ‘Premises’, ‘transpire’, ‘demean’, etc.

Proper names becoming ordinary Parts of Speech: Through force of association, the precise significance of the proper name is not always retained. Thus the word ‘dunce’, for instance, is derived from the name of the Medieval Philosopher, Duns Scotus, whose opponents represented him as –a dry-as-dustll theorist devoid of scholarship.

‘Bedlam’ is an abbreviation of ‘Bethlehem Hospital’, a famous lunatic asylum of London. Shakespeare uses the word as an alternative for ‘madman’.

Other examples: ‘Maudlin’ from ‘Mary Magdalene’, ‘Gin’ from ‘Geneva’ and ‘boycott’ from Captain Boycott.

## **STUDYING LANGUAGE & DUALITY OF STRUCTURE**

Duality of patterning is a characteristic of human language whereby speech can be analyzed on two levels:

- (1) as made up of meaningless elements (i.e., a limited inventory of sounds or phonemes), and
- (2) as made up of meaningful elements (i.e., a virtually limitless inventory of words or morphemes).

Also called double articulation.

"[D]uality of patterning," says David Ludden, "is what gives language such expressive power.

Spoken languages are composed of a limited set of meaningless speech sounds that are combined according to rules to form meaningful words" (The Psychology of Language: An Integrated Approach, 2016).

The significance of duality of patterning as one of the 13 (later 16) "design features of language" was noted by American linguist Charles F. Hockett in 1960.

### **Examples and Observations**

"Human language is organized at two levels or layers simultaneously. This property is called duality (or 'double articulation'). In speech production, we have a physical level at which we can produce individual sounds, like n, b and i. As individual sounds, none of these discrete forms has any intrinsic meaning. In a particular combination such as bin, we have another level producing a meaning that is different from the meaning of the combination in nib. So, at one level, we have distinct sounds, and, at another level, we have distinct meanings. This duality of levels is, in fact, one of the most economical features of human language because, with a limited set of discrete sounds, we are capable of producing a very large number of sound combinations (e.g. words) which are distinct in meaning."

### **Duality of Language and Animal Communication**

"The level of sounds and syllables is the province of phonology, while that of meaningful elements is the province of grammar and semantics. Has this kind of duality any analog in animal communication systems? . . . The short answer to [that] question seems to be no."

- "It is hard to find clear and uncontroversial examples of duality of patterning outside our own species. But let us say that we can find them--and there is evidence, from the way some animals like birds and dolphins manipulate melodies, that this might be true. This would mean that duality of patterning is a necessary condition for a communication system to be a human language, but that by itself it may not be enough. There is no human language without duality of patterning."

### **Hockett on Duality of Patterning**

"[Charles] Hockett developed the phrase 'duality of patterning' to express the fact that discrete units of language at one level (such as the level of sounds) can be combined to create different kinds of units at a different level (such as words). . . . According to Hockett, duality of patterning was probably the last feature to emerge in human language, and it was critical in separating human language from other kinds of primate communication.

Well, if we compare human language versus animal communication now, we can say that: The human language uses sounds. The symbols are mostly arbitrary. The system has to be transmitted from one generation to another as a part of culture. Duality and displacement are extremely rare in the animal world. Creativity seems not to exist in communication system possessed by animals. Also patterning and structure dependence are unique human features. As a consequence we may come to a more detailed definition of language:

Language is a patterned system of arbitrary sound signals, characterized by structure dependence, displacement, duality, creativity and cultural transmission. The definition can be applied to any language, as there are no primitive languages in the world. In the conditions, culture, a surroundings where each particular language is used it is well equipped,

well organized according to all needs of communication. It came into existence because humans needed to cooperate in order to survive. As for emotions they are not always expressed by language as

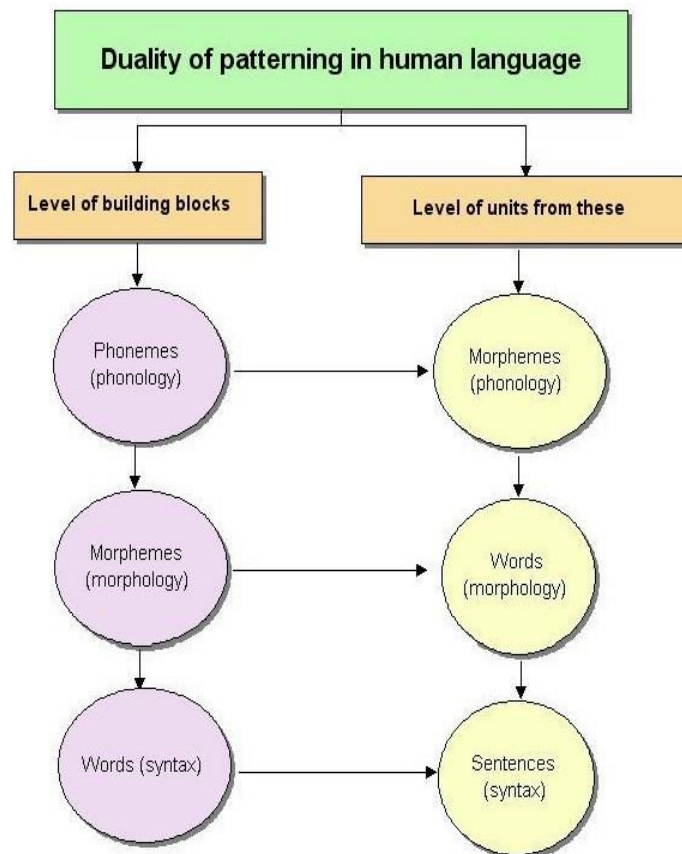
we also convey emotions by gestures facial expressions, screams, grunts etc. We may detect also some other biologically less important functions of language. Sometimes we use language for purely aesthetic reasons. See literature, poetry. We also use language to release nervous tension when we mutter to ourselves or swear.

Example of a task:

- Duality is
- a) The ability to talk about things that are distant in 1) time and 2) space.
  - b) The organization of the language system in a layer of sounds and a layer of larger units.
  - c) The fact that any utterance has its meaning and its form.

### The need for learning

Many animals automatically know how to communicate without learning. Their systems of communication are genetically inbuilt. Bee-dancing, for example, is substantially the same in bee colonies in different parts of the world, with only small variations. Even in cases where an element of learning is involved, this is usually minor. In one experiment a chaffinch reared in a soundproof room away from other chaffinches developed an abnormal type of song. Yet when the bird was exposed to only occasional tape recordings of other chaffinches, its song developed normally.



This is quite different from the long learning process needed to acquire human language, which is culturally transmitted. A human brought up in isolation simply does not acquire language, as is shown by the rare studies of children brought up by animals without human contact. Human language is by no means totally conditioned by the environment, and there is almost certainly some type of innate predisposition towards language in a new-born child. But this latent potentiality can be activated only by long exposure to language, which requires careful learning.

### **Men and monkeys**

In Amboseli National Park in Kenya, a group of vervet monkeys is foraging on the ground near a large baobab tree. A young male on the periphery of the group suddenly stands on his hind legs and gives a loud triple barking sound. The other monkeys have no doubt what this means: a snake is in the vicinity. The monkeys group together, scouring the grass for the location of the predator.

In both these scenarios, a primate brain performed one of its most remarkable tricks. It took a pattern of vibration off the air and turned it into a specific set of meanings.

The monkey example is interesting because it has been seen as a model of the early stages of human language. Vervet monkeys have several distinct alarm calls – snake, leopard and eagle are the best studied – each one of which can be said unequivocally to have a meaning. We know this because, on hearing an eagle call played back by a researcher's tape recorder, the monkeys scan the skies, whilst when a leopard call is played, they climb a tree (Seyfarth, Cheney and Marler, 1980). Thus quite different associations are evoked in the vervet brain.

The computational task for the human brain in understanding utterance (1) is vastly more complex than the vervet case, at every level. It is so complex that a whole field of research – linguistics – is devoted to investigating what goes on, and it requires a whole set of brain machinery that we are only beginning to identify. Hearing and understanding a complex utterance, or the reverse, where a thought in the brain is turned into a string of buzzes, clicks and notes we call speech, is the crowning achievement of human evolution and the defining feature of human mental life. No other species that we know about comes even close.

### **The structure of language**

The vervet monkey call system, as we saw, involves a mapping between sounds and meanings, just as human language does. However, it differs from human language in two crucial respects. The first of these is called generativity. The three major vervet calls – snake, leopard and eagle – are meaningful units in their own right; you do not need to say anything else, you just call. The calls cannot be combined into higher-order complexes of meaning. A snake call followed by a leopard call could, as far as we understand it, express only the presence of a snake and a leopard. It could not express the proposition that a snake was at that moment being hunted by a leopard, or vice versa, or the idea that leopards are really much more of a nuisance than snakes. This means that the number of meanings expressible in the vervet system is closed, or finite. There are only as many meanings as there are calls. Human languages, by contrast, allow the recombination of their words into infinitely many arrangements, which have systematically different meanings by virtue of the way they are arranged.

### **Generativity**

In the vervet system, the monkeys can simply store in their memory the meaning associated with each call. Human language could not work this way. Let us now reconsider the complex utterance you heard in the imaginary scenario at

the beginning of this article. Here it is again.

(1) My dad's tutor's no joker, and he told me the TMA's going to hit home with a bang.

You have almost certainly never heard (or read) this exact utterance before. In fact, it is possible that no one, in the entire history of humanity, has ever uttered this previously. Yet we all understand what it means. We must, therefore, all possess some machinery for making up new meanings out of smaller parts in real time. This is what is known as the generative capacity of language; the ability to make new meanings by recombining units. The vervet system is not generative, whereas human language is.

### **Duality of patterning**

Vervet calls are indivisible wholes; they cannot be analyzed as being made up of smaller units. Words, by contrast can be broken down into smaller sound units. Thus language exhibits what is known as duality of patterning (Figure 2).

At the lowest level, there is a finite number of significant sounds, or phonemes. The exact number varies from language to language, but is generally in the range of a few dozen. The phonemes can be combined into words fairly freely; however there are restrictions, known as phonological rules (see Phonology), about how phonemes can go together. Words in their turn combine into clauses (simply put, these are groups of words containing a lexical verb, such as 'the boy hugged the dog' and 'give me the book'). However, as we have just said, not all combinations of words are grammatical. Which combinations are allowed depends on syntactic rules.

### **Lower level patterning**

There are some differences between the higher and lower levels of patterning in language. Phonemes, the basic unit of the lower level, have no meaning at all, whereas words, the basic unit of the higher level, typically carry meaning. The meaning of the word *bed* has nothing at all to do with the fact that the phonemes making it up are /b/, /e/ and /d/. [See *Transcribing Speech* for an explanation of the // notation.] If you change one phoneme, for example the /d/ to a /t/, then you have a word that is not just different but completely unrelated in meaning – *bet*. You could imagine a hypothetical linguistic system in which particular phonemes had special relationships to meanings; for example, in which words for furniture all began with /b/, or words for body parts all contained an /i/. No human language is like that, however. You cannot predict the meaning of a word, even in the vaguest terms, from the phonemes that make it up.

### **Higher level patterning**

The higher level of patterning is quite different. The meaning of a clause, for example, is largely a product of the meanings of the individual words that it contains. Syntactic rules serve to identify which word in the clause plays which role, and the relationships between the words. Consider these examples.

(2) The cat bit the dog.

(3) The cat which was bitten by the dog was thirsty.

In (2), we know that the cat was the biter and the dog the bitten because of a pattern in English syntax which says that the first noun is generally the subject of the clause. In (3), there are two possible participants to which the state 'thirsty' could be attached – the dog could be thirsty or the cat could be thirsty. The syntax tells us that it must be the cat. Without syntax, no one would be able to tell who was biting, who was bitten, and who was thirsty in (2) and (3), however much they knew about the behavior of cats and dogs.

## **The Structure of Language**

By definition, communication is behavior that affects the behavior of others by the transmission of information. Language is a series of codes made up of words and rules that allow humans to communicate. The structure of human language is complex and intricate and each language spoken in the world has different phonological systems, which is, by definition, the sounds that are used and how they are related to one another. The basic rules of language are covered here, including phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, and how speech sounds are divided.

### **Phonology**

Places of articulation along the vocal tract 1 Exo-labial 2 Endo-labial 3 Dental 4 Alveolar 5 Post-alveolar 6 Pre-palatal 7 Palatal 8 Velar 9 Uvular 10 Pharyngeal 11 Glottal 12 Epiglottal 13 Radical 14 Postero-dorsal 15 Antero-dorsal 16 Laminal(tongue blade) 17 Apical (apex or tongue tip) 18 Sub-laminal (underside of tongue)

Phonology is the use of sounds to encode messages within a spoken human language. Babies are born with the capacity to speak any language because they can make sounds and hear differences in sounds that adults would not be able to do. This is what parents hear as baby talk. The infant is trying out all of the different sounds they can produce. As the infant begins to learn the language from their parents, they begin to narrow the range of sounds they produce to one's common to the language they are learning, and by the age of 5, they no longer have the vocal range they had previously. For example, a common sound that is used in Indian language is /dh/. To any native Indian there is a huge difference between /dh and /d, but for people like me who cannot speak Hindi, not only can we not hear the difference, but it is very difficult to even attempt to produce this sound. Another large variation between languages for phonology is where in your mouth you speak from. In English, we speak mostly from the front or middle of our mouths, but it is very common in African to speak from the glottal, which is the deepest part of one's throat. These sounds come out as deep growls, though they have great significance in African culture.

### **Morphology**

The definition of morphology is the study of the structure of words formed together, or more simply put, the study of morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest utterances with meaning. Not all morphemes are words. Many languages use affixes, which carry specific grammatical meanings and are therefore morphemes, but are not words. For example, English-speakers do not think of the suffix "-ing" as a word, but it is a morpheme. The creation of morphemes rather than words also allowed anthropologists to more easily translate languages. For example, in the English language, the prefix -un means "the opposite, not, or lacking" which can distinguish the words "unheard" and "heard" apart from each other.

A junior Moran with head-dress and markings. It would be difficult to translate this tribes language without the use of Morphemes. Morphology is very helpful in translating different languages, such as the language Bangla. For example, some words do not have a literal translation from Bangla to English because a word in Bangla may mean more than one word in English. Two professors from Bangladesh discovered an algorithm that could translate Bangla words, as they are generally very complex. They first search for the whole word. If this does not come up with results, they then search the first morpheme they find, in one example it was "Ma" of "Manushtir". "Ma" was a correct morpheme, however "ushtir" was not. The researchers then attempted "Man", however "ushtir" was not a correct morpheme. They next tried "Manush" and "tir", discovering that this was correct combination of morphemes.

## **Semantics**

### A semantics flowchart

Semantics is the study of meaning. Some anthropologists have seen linguistics as basic to a science of man because it provides a link between the biological and sociocultural levels. Modern linguistics is diffusing widely in anthropology itself among younger scholars, producing work of competence that ranges from historical and descriptive studies to problems of semantic and social variation. In the 1960's, Chomsky prompted a formal analysis of semantics and argued that grammars needed to represent all of a speaker's linguistic knowledge, including the meaning of words. Most semanticists focused attention on how words are linked to each other within a language through **five different relations**

1. synonymy - same meaning (ex: old and aged)
2. homophony - same sound, different meaning (ex: would and wood)
3. antonymy - opposite meaning (ex: tall and short)
4. denotation - what words refer to in the "real" world (ex: having the word pig refer to the actual animal, instead of pig meaning dirty, smelly, messy or sloppy)
5. connotation - additional meanings that derive from the typical contexts in which they are used in everyday speech. (ex: calling a person a pig, not meaning the animal but meaning that they are dirty, smelly, messy or sloppy)

Formal semanticists only focused on the first four, but we have now discovered that our ability to use the same words in different ways (and different words in the same way) goes beyond the limits of formal semantics. Included in the study of semantics are metaphors which are a form of figurative or nonliteral language that links together expressions from unrelated semantic domains. A semantic domain is a set of linguistic expressions with interrelated meanings; for example, the words pig and chicken are in the same semantic domain. But when you use a metaphor to call a police officer a pig, you are combining two semantic domains to create meaning that the police officer is fat, greedy, dirty, etc.

## **Syntax**

The study of the arrangement and order of words, for example if the Subject or the Object comes first in a sentence.

Syntax is the study of rules and principles for constructing sentences in natural languages. Syntax studies the patterns of forming sentences and phrases as well. It comes from ancient Greek ("syn"- means together and "taxis" means arrangement.) Outside of linguistics, syntax is also used to refer to the rules of mathematical systems, such as logic, artificial formal languages, and computer programming language. There are many theoretical approaches to the study of syntax. Noam Chomsky, a linguist, sees syntax as a branch of biology, since they view syntax as the study of linguistic knowledge as the human mind sees it. Other linguists take a Platonistic view, in that they regard syntax to be the study of an abstract formal system.

### **Major Approaches to Syntax**

Generative Grammar: Noam Chomsky pioneered the generative approach to syntax. The hypothesis is that syntax is a structure of the human mind. The goal is to make a complete model of this inner language, and the model could be used to describe all human language and to predict if any utterance would sound correct to a native speaker of the language. It focuses mostly on the form of the sentence rather than the communicative function of it. The majority of generative theories assume that syntax is based on the constituent structure of sentences.



**Categorial Grammar:** An approach that attributes the syntactic structure to the properties of the syntactic categories, rather than to the rules of grammar.

**Dependency Grammar:** Structure is determined by the relations between a word and its dependents rather than being based on constituent structure.

#### Computational Analysis of Syntax of ancient Indus symbols

One recent case of computational analysis of the syntax of an unknown language comes from the work of Rajesh P. N. Rao (2009) at the Dept. of Computer Science & Engineering, University of Washington. His team's computational analysis decoding patterns in the ancient Indus script has shown that it is in fact patterned like spoken language. Like spoken language, the Indus symbols follow a degree of ordering that is intermediate between highly patterned systems such as computer programming languages and highly variable systems such as the DNA code. Further analysis of the pattern of symbols with unknown meaning has linked it to the ancient Sumerian language of Mesopotamia and Old Tamil from India.

#### Speech Sounds

Human speech sounds are traditionally divided between vowels and consonants, but scientific distinctions are much more precise. An important distinction between sounds in many languages is the vibration of the glottis, which is referred to as voicing. It distinguishes such sounds as /s/ (voiceless;no vibrating) and /z/ (voiced;vibrating). The chart below mentions pulmonic consonants, which are produced by releasing air from the lungs and somehow obstructing it on its way out the mouth. The non-pulmonic consonants are clicks, implosives (similar to the 'glug-glug' sound sometimes made to imitate a liquid being poured or being drunk), and explosives. Co-articulation refers to sounds that are produced in two areas at once (like /W/).

#### Phoneme

A phoneme is the smallest phonetic unit in a language that is capable of conveying a distinction in meaning. For example, in English we can tell that pail and tail are different words, so /p/ and /t/ are phonemes. Two words differing in only one sound, like pail and tail are called a minimal pair. The International Phonetic Association created the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), a collection of standardized representations of the sounds of spoken language.

When a native speaker does not recognize different sounds as being distinct they are called allophones. For example, in the English language we consider the p in pin and the p in spin to have the same phoneme, which makes them allophones. In Chinese, however, these two similar phones are treated separately and both have a separate symbol in their alphabet. The minimum bits of meaning that native speakers recognize are known as phonemes. It is any small set of units, usually about 20 to 60 in number, and different for each language, considered to be the basic distinctive units of speech sound by which morphemes, words, and sentences are represented.

## CONCEPTS OF SCIENTIFIC STUDY

Every human being uses a language in their day to day conversation, but nobody in the world can find a complete, proper answer for the question “what is language?”. As a rule, they try to answer the question with examples from language functions. For instance, they say that they do these things with a language. Therefore, most of the linguists did not try to give a strict definition of language. But the generally accepted definition of language is,  
*“A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates.”*

According to **Georg.I.Tragere and Bernard Bloch’s**, four main properties of language have been highlighted. They are:

- i. Language is a system.
- ii. Language is a system of symbols.
- iii. Language is a system of vocal symbols.
- iv. Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols.

This is the inner structural analysis of language. The following definition shows the function of language which is the “social group cooperation”. *“Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which human beings as members of a social group and participants in a culture interact and communicate.”*

Human beings use language to communicate with each other and also to express their emotions, feelings, thoughts and ideas as much as possible throughout their life. The language is used not only for expressions but also for self-communication.

### **What is Linguistics?**

The word “Linguistics” is derived from the Latin word “lingua” (tongue) and “istics” (knowledge or science). Earlier, the study of language had been identified as Philology. According to **Robins**; “Linguistic is concerned with human language as a universal and recognisable part of the human behaviour and of the human faculties perhaps one of the most essential to human life as we know it and one of the most far reaching of human capabilities in relation to the whole span of mankind’s achievement.”

### **As a Scientific Approach:**

Linguistics is the scientific approach into language since it uses scientific methods to describe the structure of language. According to scientists, if some facts can be verified there are acceptable or considered scientific. ***So, Verification is the major concept of the scientific study.*** As a scientific study of language, Linguistic concepts can be verified by every linguist in the same way. Thus, linguists study the language as an objective phenomenon.

The main scope of linguistics is Language. As a result of Linguistic researches, Language has been derived into 6 levels.

- Phonemes
- Morphemes
- Words
- Phrases.
- Clauses.
- Sentences or utterances.

As an andactic category of Linguistics, we can reset them in the following manner

- Phonetics
- Phonology
- Morphology
- Syntax
- Semantics
- Pragmatics

### **What is Phonetics?**

Phonetics is the science of speech. It studies the articulation, acoustics, and perception of speech sounds. Phonetics focuses on how speech is physically created and received, including study of the human vocal and auditory tracts, acoustics, and neurology. The air then escapes through your lips as they part suddenly, which results in a "b" sound. An example of phonetics is the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), which standardizes the pronunciation of words from any language so that anyone reading any word in any language can pronounce it properly. Phonetics (from the Greek word φωνή, phone meaning 'sound, voice') is the study of the sounds of human speech. It is concerned with the actual properties of speech sounds (phones), and their production, audition and perception, while phonology, which emerged from it, studies sound systems and abstract sound units (such as phonemes and distinctive features). Phonetics deals with the sounds themselves rather than the contexts in which they are used in languages. Discussions of meaning (semantics) do not enter at this level of linguistic analysis.

Phonetics has three main branches:

- articulatory phonetics, concerned with the positions and movements of the lips, tongue, vocal tract and folds and other speech organs in producing speech;
- acoustic phonetics, concerned with the properties of the sound waves and how they are received by the inner ear; and
- auditory phonetics, concerned with speech perception, principally how the brain forms perceptual representations of the input it receives. There are over a hundred different phones recognized as distinctive by the International Phonetic Association (IPA) and transcribed in their International Phonetic Alphabet.

Phonetics was studied as early as 2,500 years ago in ancient India, with Pāṇini's account of the place and manner of articulation of consonants in his 5th century BCE treatise on Sanskrit. The major Indic alphabets today, except Tamil script, order their consonants according to Pāṇini's classification.

### **What is Phonology?**

Phonology is the study (and use) of sound patterns to create meaning. Phonology is also concerned with metrical and syllable structure. In other words, Phonology is the study of sound combination in language as form syllables' or larger units than speech sounds and the distributions of language sounds. Phonology is often distinguished from phonetics. Phonology (Greek φωνή (phōnē), voice, sound + λόγος (lógos), word, speech, subject of discussion), is a subfield of linguistics which studies the sound system of a specific language (or languages). Whereas phonetics is about the physical production and perception of the sounds of speech, phonology describes the way sounds function within a given language or across languages.

An important part of phonology is studying which sounds are distinctive units within a language. In English, for example, /p/ and /b/ are distinctive units of sound, (i.e., they are phonemes / the difference is phonemic, or phonematic). This can be seen from minimal pairs such as "pin" and "bin", which mean different things, but differ only in one sound. On the other hand, /p/ is often pronounced differently depending on its position relative to other sounds, yet these different pronunciations are still considered by native speakers to be the same "sound". For example, the /p/ in "pin" is aspirated while the same phoneme in "spin" is not. In some other languages, for example Thai and Quechua, this same difference of aspiration or non-aspiration does differentiate phonemes. In addition to the minimal meaningful sounds (the phonemes), phonology studies how sounds alternate, such as the /p/ in English described above, and topics such as syllable structure, stress, accent, and intonation.

The principles of phonological theory have also been applied to the analysis of sign languages, even though the phonological units are not acoustic. The principles of phonology, and for that matter, language, are independent of modality because they stem from an abstract and innate grammar.

### **What is Morphology?**

Morphology is concerned the word formation of language. The minimal and meaningful units of the language are morphemes. Linguistic criteria for identifying morphemes are:

- *Are they minimal?*
- *Are they meaningful?*

Morphemes can be together to make a new word. Some morphemes are bound,

- Prefixes are un-, in-, ill-, re-, co-,
- Suffixes are -tion, -able, -ful, -ing -s -er
- Infixes are -m-, -n- (in proto-Indo-European verbs).
- Other are free (dog, man, go, tree).

As instance ,the word "carelessness" has one free morpheme and two bound morphemes (care+less+ness). The word "girl" has an only one morpheme (girl) so, it is a morphemic word. On the other hand, the morpheme "pen" is made up by the sounds /p/, /e/, and /n/. The combination of these three sounds makes a one morpheme "pen". By using inflectional suffix "s" according to morphological process, the word "pens" can be made up which has two morphemes (pen+ -s). So morphology concerns the combination of morphemes from single morpheme to word.

### **What is Syntax?**

Syntax starts where morphology ends. Syntax is the study of word combination to form phrases, from phrases to clauses and finally sentences or utterances. Syntax also involves the rules of syntactic gatherings. Syntax mainly focuses in evidence.

- Grammaticality.
- Acceptability.

Syntax is the study of language structure and word order. It is concerned with the relationship between units at the level of words or morphology. Syntax seeks to delineate exactly all and only those sentences which make up a given language, using native speaker intuition. Syntax seeks to describe formally exactly how structural relations between elements (lexical items/words and operators) in a sentence contribute to

its interpretation. Syntax uses principles of formal logic and Set Theory to formalize and represent accurately the hierarchical relationship between elements in a sentence. Abstract syntax trees are often used to illustrate the hierarchical structures that are posited. Thus, in active declarative sentences in English the subject is followed by the main verb which in turn is followed by the object (SVO). This order of elements is crucial to its correct interpretation and it is exactly this which syntacticians try to capture. They argue that there must be such a formal computational component contained within the language faculty of normal speakers of a language and seek to describe it.

A sentence should be not only grammatical but also acceptable or meaningful. As an illustration of this point we can use a sentence given by Noam Chomsky, an American linguist. "Colourless green ideas sleep furiously". This sentence is grammatically correct (Adj+Adj+N+V+Adv) but meaningless. On the other way, syntax means "sentence construction". Thus, syntax is the study of ways which can be occurred in a grammatical and meaningful syntactic construction.

### **What is Semantics?**

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. Semantics is the study of meaning of a word, phrase or a sentence in Language. In the other words, it is a study of relations between Referents and Referends or Signifier and signified. Meanings of words or other linguistic units in language are related to human mind, so semantics is a strict mental process. In the human communication hearer encode the meaning of what speaker decode. If they are native speakers they only focus their attention to the meaning of their expressions rather than sounds, phrases or sentences. Semantics is the soul of language. Semantics was concerned further after the development of Noam Chomsky's theory on Semantics called the Transformational Generative Grammar.

Semantics (Greek *sēmanti*\*\*\*, giving signs, significant, seebma symptomatic meaning, from *sēma* (σημα), sign) refers to aspects of meaning, as expressed in language or other systems of signs. Semantics contrasts with syntax, which is the study of the structure of sign systems (focusing on the form, not meaning). Related to semantics is the field of pragmatics, which studies the practical use of signs by agents or communities of interpretation within particular circumstances and contexts.[1] By the usual convention that calls a study or a theory by the name of its subject matter, semantics may also denote the theoretical study of meaning in systems of signs.

Semanticists generally recognize two sorts of meaning that an expression (such as the sentence, "John ate a bagel") may have: (1) the relation that the expression, broken down into its constituent parts (signs), has to things and situations in the real world as well as possible worlds, and (2) the relation the signs have to other signs, such as the sorts of mental signs that are conceived of as concepts.

Most theorists refer to the relation between a sign and its objects, as always including any manner of objective reference, as its denotation. Some theorists refer to the relation between a sign and the signs that serve in its practical interpretation as its connotation, but there are many more differences of opinion and distinctions of theory that are made in this case. Many theorists, especially in the formal semantic, pragmatic, and semiotic traditions, restrict the application of semantics to the denotative aspect, using other terms or completely ignoring the connotative aspect.

## What is Pragmatics?

Pragmatics is the study of the ability of natural language speakers to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated. The ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning is called pragmatic competence. An utterance describing pragmatic function is described as metapragmatic. One thing we might add, is that pragmatics deals about how to reach our goal in communication. Suppose, we want to ask someone beside us to stop smoking. We can achieve that goal by using several utterances. We can say, 'stop smoking, please!' which is direct. We can also say in an indirect way, just like 'sir, this room has air conditioners'. In this way, we want the smoker to understand that he or she is not allowed to smoke in an air conditioned room. Pragmatics is regarded as one of the most challenging aspects for language learners to grasp, and can only truly be learned with experience.

Pragmatics is another way to study the meaning of language. Pragmatics studies about context meaning. It can be defined as "The study of the way in which language is used to express what some body really means in particular situation especially when the actual words used may appear to mean something different". In this way, Pragmatics is the study as to how utterances relate to the context they are spoken in. For an instance, the answer "I have two houses" can be connected to few different questions. That answer may be related to the question. Such as:

- How many houses have you got?
- Have you got a house?
- Haven't you got a house?

Hence, the communication of human beings is depended on context of we speak in. Idioms in English are also related with pragmatics. In Sinhala language, proverbs "Prastawa Pirulu" are the examples for pragmatics. As another clear example, the sentence "The cold wave is coming through the window" means "shut the window". That is pragmatics.

## What is Historical Linguistics?

Historical Linguistics explores different aspects of language change. Historical linguistics is a subfield of linguistics in which an investigation of the history of languages is used to learn about how languages are related, how languages change, and what languages were like hundreds and even thousands of years ago even before written records of a language.

The most commonly studied areas in historical linguistics are:

1. Etymology: Studying the reconstruction and origin of words.
2. Analysis and description of multiple speech communities.
3. Tracing (as far as possible) the history of language. This includes Sanskrit, Latin, Old English, and also modern languages, such as German, Italian and Japanese. This process also involves grouping languages into categories, or "families", according to the extent to which those languages are similar to each other.
4. Describing and analysing changes of any type which have occurred cross-linguistically and within a language itself. Languages can change in any area of language; phonology, syntax, morphology and orthography are only a few of the areas which could be considered.
5. The construction of a framework of theories which can account for how and why languages change.

## Sub-fields

As is evident, the study of Historical Linguistics concerns many different topics. For this reason, it is comprised of different sub-fields.

- **Comparative Philology** (or Comparative Linguistics) concerns the comparison of cross-linguistic features in order to establish the relatedness of languages.
- **Etymology** concerns the study of word histories. This process may involve answering the following questions:
  - Why did a particular word enter the language in question?
  - Where does that word/root come from?
  - How has its orthographic, phonological and semantic value changed over time?

- **Dialectology** concerns the historical study of dialects. Features which are usually a matter for debate are grammatical variations between two dialects, and phonological changes within a dialect over time.
- **Phonology** concerns the study of the sound systems which exist (or have existed) in a specific language. Studies in phonology can also concern comparative approaches to language studies between different time periods, dialects and languages.
- **Morphology/Syntax** concerns how the means of expression of a language evolve over time. It is usually focused on inflectional systems, grammatical structures, and word order.

## **DIMENSIONS OF LINGUISTICS**

### **Four Dimensions of Literacy**

There are many different ways to approach literacy learning. Although some may believe that literacy is defined simply as the ability to read and write, many studies support the claim that literacy is indeed much more complex than just words. Stephen B. Kucer's study of the four dimensions of literacy explores how literacy is not compartmentalized, but rather is multidimensional (Kucer, 2010). A balanced approach to literacy instruction should include all of these dimensions. Kucer argues that the complex nature of literacy must be viewed from multiple lenses, and that "such a view can serve as a foundation for literacy education and help ensure that curricula and instructional strategies begin to account for all that must be learned if proficiency in reading and writing is to be developed in our students."

### **Linguistic dimension**

The linguistic dimension focuses on how we communicate and make meaning. Making meaning when reading is a multidimensional process and requires that the reading process be grouped into three cueing systems - semantic, syntactic, and graphophonic. These three cueing systems work together to help readers make meaning out of text. By using context clues and activating prior knowledge, children read for meaning and try to figure out unfamiliar words based on the context. This is known as the semantic cueing system. The syntactic cueing system helps readers to make sense of text by using grammar and sentence structure rules to support comprehension. The graphophonic cueing system works to help the reader decode text as they associate letter sounds to spoken words (Wren, 2001).

### **Cognitive dimension**

The cognitive dimension focuses on the mind and the mental strategies and processes it uses to build meaning. Stephanie Harvey and Anne Goudvis have done a lot of work on how to help students become strategic readers. You can find practical and effective lessons in their book, *Strategies That Work*. This book is accessible to IPES teachers as you received a copy a few years ago. Additional copies are also available in my room (P12). In *Strategies That Work*, Harvey and Goudvis outline how to explicitly teach reading comprehension for understanding and engagement. They believe that proficient readers use the following strategies to be metacognitive about their reading in order to construct meaning. Do your students use these strategies to monitor their comprehension as they read?

- Activating and Connecting to Background Knowledge
- Questioning
- Inferring
- Visualizing
- Determining Importance in Text
- Summarizing and Synthesizing Information



## **Socio-cultural dimension**

Due to the pressures of testing and standards, much attention has been placed on professional development for content and assessment. However, we must not ignore the importance of the socio-cultural dimension and its influence on how children learn. Think-pair-share (discussions among pairs of students), jig-sawing (used to gather a lot of information in a short amount of time by dividing tasks among group members), role playing (acting out the social skills), and graphic organizers (t-charts, concept maps, KWL, and the fishbone) are useful cooperative learning strategies in order to assist with the instruction of the appropriate social skills (Dollman, L., Morgan, C., Pergler, J., Russell, W., & Watts, J., 2007). Furthermore, incorporating the IB Attitudes of appreciation, respect, tolerance, cooperation, and empathy into your classroom environment will contribute to a safe and inviting place to learn for all students.

## **Developmental Dimension**

Although students may be in the grade level, they may not be at the same developmental level. Some students may require more assistance from their peers, teachers, and parents to be successful. The zone of proximal development theory supports learning through guidance and encouragement in order to scaffold learning. Vygotsky defined the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (van Compernelle, R. A., & Williams, L., 2012). Through guided support and practice, students will eventually master the skills and strategies. Although the ZPD theory supports learning at varying developmental levels, the use of a "one-size-fits-all" curriculum no longer meets the needs of the majority of learners. In order to reach all learners, teachers must be aware of the different learning styles, interests, and abilities of students. In her book, *How to Differentiate Instruction in Mixed-Ability Classrooms*, Carol Ann Tomlinson says this about differentiation: "At its most basic level, differentiating instruction means "shaking up" what goes on in the classroom so that students have multiple options for taking in information, making sense of ideas, and expressing what they learn. In other words, a differentiated classroom provides different avenues of acquiring content, to processing or making sense of ideas, and to developing products."

## LEVELS OF LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

Following are levels of Linguistic Analysis:-

- Phonetics
- Phonology
- Morphology
- Lexicology
- Syntax
- Semantics
- Pragmatics
- Discourse

### **1. Phonetics**

Phonetics is the study of production, transmission and perception of speech sound. It is concerned with the sounds of languages, how these sounds are articulated and how the hearer perceives them. Phonetics is related to science of acoustics in that it uses much the same techniques in the analysis of sounds that acoustics does.

There are three branches of Phonetics

1. Articulatory phonetics: It is the study of production of speech sounds.
2. Acoustic Phonetics: It is the study of physical production and transmission of speech sounds.
3. Auditory Phonetics: It is the study of perception of speech sounds.

### **2. Phonology**

It is the study of the patterns of language. It is concerned with how sounds are organized in a language. It examines what occurs to speech sounds when they are combined to form a word and how these speech sounds interact with each other it endeavors to explain what these phonological process are in terms of formal rules. The Phonemes of particular language are those minimal distinct units of sound that can distinguish meaning in that English .e.g in English the /p/ sound is phoneme b/c it is the smallest unit of sounds of bill, till or drill making the word pill. The vowel sound of pill is also a phoneme b/c its distinctness in sound makes pill, which means one thing, sound different from pal, which means another.

### **3. Morphology**

It is study of word formation and structure. It studies how words are put together from their smaller parts and the rules governing this process. The elements that are combining to form words are called Morpheme. A morpheme is the smallest unit of syntax you can have in language the cats e.g contains the morphemes cat and the plurals. Morphology is the field within linguistics that studies the internal structure of words. (Words as units in the lexicon are the subject matter of lexicology.) While words are generally accepted as being (with clitics) the smallest units of syntax, it is clear that in most (if not all) languages, words can be related to other words by rules. For example, English speakers recognize that the words dog, dogs, and dog-catcher are closely related. English speakers recognize these relations from their tacit knowledge of the rules of word-formation in English. They intuit that dog is to dogs as cat is to cats; similarly, dog is to dog-catcher as dish is to dishwasher. The rules understood by the speaker reflect specific patterns (or regularities) in the way words are formed from smaller units and how those smaller units interact in speech. In this way, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of word-formation within and across languages, and attempts to formulate rules that model the knowledge of the speakers of those languages.

### **4. Lexicology**

It is study of words. We study word-formation and word classes. Lexeme is the smallest unit of Lexis.

### ***5. Syntax***

It is the study of sentence structure. It attempts to describe what are grammatical rules in particular language. These rules detail an underlying structure and a transformational process. The underlying structure of English e.g. would have a subject - verb - object sentence order. For example: John hit the ball. The transformational process would allow a change of word order, which could give us something like, the ball was hit by John.

### ***6. Semantics***

It is the study of meaning in language. It is concerned with describing how we represent the meaning of word in our mind how we use this representation in constructing sentence. It is based largely on the study logic in philosophy.

### ***7. Pragmatics***

It studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the affects of our choices on others. In theory, we can say any thing we like. In practice we follow a large no. of social rules (some of them unconsciously) that constrain the way we like we speak  
e.g. there is now law that says we must not tell jokes during a funeral, but it is generally not done.

### ***8. Discourse***

It is the study of stretches of spoken and written language above the sentence or the way sentences work in sequence to produce coherent stretches of language.

## INTERDISCIPLINARY FIELDS OF LINGUISTICS

### *Branches of Linguistics*

Linguistics is a most famous subject in the today's world. It has been divided into many branches in the latter of 19th century. Few of them are explained below

- Sociolinguistics
- Historical linguistics
- Psycholinguistics
- Computational linguistics
- Applied linguistics

### ***Sociolinguistics - the study of the intersection of language with society***

Sociolinguists might look at attitudes toward different linguistic features and its relation to class, race, sex, etc. For example, one of the fathers of sociolinguistics, William Labov, carried out an experiment in New York City in which he visited three department stores--a low end one, a mid-end one, and a high-end one and inquired where a department was in order to prompt the answer "fourth floor." The higher end the store, the more likely the "r" was pronounced, and when asked to repeat, it was only Saks Fifth Avenue and Macy's where the "r" became much more likely to be pronounced the second time around. The study also had implications for the ability in different communities to code switch to a prestige dialect.

### ***Historical linguistics - the study of how languages change across time***

Historical linguists may work in language specific areas, carrying out what is called reconstruction. Just as evolutionary biologists compare features of related organisms to reconstruct their common ancestor, historical linguists do the same with related languages, under the important fact that languages change regularly. As a simple example, f's at the beginning of English words correspond to p's at the beginning of Latin words if neither is borrowed from another language (father : pater, fish : pisces, pellis : felt, pes : foot). Using reconstructions, historical linguists will try to trace migration patterns and make inferences about the prehistoric culture, triangulating with results by geneticists, anthropologists, and archaeologists. Historical linguists might also look at what patterns exist in language change and seek to explain why these patterns exist.

### ***Psycholinguistics - the study of how language manifests in the brain***

Psycholinguists carry out experiments to observe the reaction of the brain's different areas to different stimuli, and they'll try to relate the findings to the more abstract linguistic theories.

An example is tracking people's eye movements when they read the sentence "The old man the boat." This is known as a garden path sentence, because readers are led down a "false path." The reader does a double take once s/he reaches "the", having expected a verb to appear. The second time around, the reader realizes that "man" is a verb and then parses the sentence correctly. These garden path sentences provide insight into how sentence parsing occurs in the brain. Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, and understand language. Initial forays into psycholinguistics were largely philosophical ventures, due mainly to a lack of cohesive data on how the human brain functioned. Modern research makes use of biology, neuroscience, cognitive science, and information theory to study how the brain processes language. There are a number of subdisciplines; for example, as non-invasive techniques for studying the neurological workings of the brain become more and more widespread, neurolinguistics has become a field in its own right.

Psycholinguistics covers the cognitive processes that make it possible to generate a grammatical and meaningful sentence out of vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as the processes that make it possible to understand utterances, words, text, etc. Developmental psycholinguistics studies children's ability to learn language.

***Computational linguistics - the study of applying computer science to linguistics***

Computational linguists might use programming to model linguistic structure or change or for practical applications, such as Natural Language Processing, which has implications both for figuring out and modeling how language acquisition works as well as for translation software.

***Applied linguistics - the study of applying linguistics to real-life situations***

An applied linguist will likely work in fields such as language education, translation, or language policy. For example, an applied linguist may also carry out research in first and second language acquisition in order to figure out effective and efficient ways to teach language in school settings.

**Apart from these, few more types of Linguistics are given below.**

- Microlinguistics
- Generative linguistics
- Cognitive linguistics
- Comparative linguistics
- Corpus linguistics
- Neuro\_linguistics
- Para\_linguistics
- Bio\_linguistics

***Comparative linguistics***

Comparative linguistics (originally comparative philology) is a branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages in order to establish their historical relatedness.

***Dialectology***

Dialectology is a sub-field of linguistics, the scientific study of linguistic dialect. It studies variations in language based primarily on geographic distribution and their associated features

***Etymology***

Etymology is the study of the history of words - when they entered a language, from what source, and how their form and meaning have changed over time

***Lexicology:***

Lexicology (from lexiko-, in the Late Greek lexikon) is that part of linguistics, which studies words, their nature and meaning, words' elements, relations between words (semantical relations), words groups and the whole lexicon.

***Interlinguistics***

Interlinguistics is the study of various aspects of international communication. Interlinguistics refers to research on the possibilities of optimizing international communication, usually involving international auxiliary languages or IALs. The International Auxiliary Language Association (IALA), which developed Interlingua, is an example of an inter-linguistic research body.

## THE TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO LINGUISTICS STRUCTURAL & COGNITIVE

### Structural approach:

It is a branch of linguistics that deals with language as a system of interrelated structures, in particular the theories and methods of Leonard Bloomfield, emphasizing the accurate identification of syntactic and lexical form as opposed to meaning and historical development. The structural approach developed in a strong form in the US in the second quarter of the century, when the prime concern of American linguists was to produce a catalogue of the linguistic elements of a language, and a statement of the positions in which they could occur, ideally without reference to meaning. Leonard [Bloomfield](#) was the pioneer among these structuralists, attempting to lay down a rigorous methodology for the analysis of any language. Various Bloomfieldians continued to refine and experiment with this approach until the 1960s, but from the late 1950s onwards, structural linguistics has sometimes been used pejoratively, because supporters of generative linguistics (initiated by Noam Chomsky) have regarded the work of the American structuralists as too narrow in conception. They have argued that it is necessary to go beyond a description of the location of items to produce a grammar which mirrors a native speaker's intuitive knowledge of language.

So far we have concentrated more on the teaching of vocabulary than that of structures. A lot of work has been done on the selection and gradation of vocabulary but little work has been done on the selection and gradation of structures. It is as important to learn how to put words together as it is to know their meaning. Unless the learners become familiar with the pattern of English, he will not be able to use vocabulary. Hornby has made a study of Sentence Patterns or Structures in English. He has found that there are approximately 275 structures in English and the learners of the language must master all of them. It should be remembered that the structure approach of language teaching is not a matter of language teaching but only an approach, which tells us what to teach while a method tells us how to teach. The method that is employed is called the Oral Method or the Audio-Lingual Method.

The structure approach is based on the following principles:

1. The importance of speech as the necessary means of fixing firmly all the ground works.
2. The importance of forming language habits particularly the habit of arranging words in English sentence patterns to replace the sentence patterns of the learners own language.
3. The pupils' own activities rather than the activity of the teacher.

The structure approach just lays emphasis on drills. Since language is primarily spoken, learning a language means ability to speak the language. The structures, therefore, are drilled orally first before the learner can read or write them. Moreover, since language learning is a matter of habit formation, it requires repetition so that the

language habits that are cultivated during the learning process may be retained.

A class, which is taught a language through the structural approach, is more lively than other classes in which only teacher speaks and the students remain mere listener. The selection of structures to be taught depends on the average ability of the students, the allocation of time and the availability of equipments. The following principles should be born in mind while selecting structures:

1. **Usefulness:** while selecting and grading structures we should adopt frequency and utility. The structures, which are more frequent in use, should be introduced first.

2. **Productivity:** Some structures are productive; other structures can be built on them. For instance, we have two sentence patterns:

(i) Mr. John is here

(ii) Here is Mr. John.

The former pattern is productive because we can frame many sentence on the same pattern like: 'He is there', or 'She is there', etc. We can frame many such sentences from the latter pattern.

3. **Simplicity:** The simplicity of structure depends on the form and meaning. The structure 'I am playing cricket' is far simpler in form and meaning than 'The patient had died before the doctor came'. The simpler structure should be preferred to the complicated one.

4. **Teach-ability:** Some structures can be taught more easily than others. For example, the structure 'I am writing' can be taught easily because the action, which it denotes can be demonstrated in a realistic situation. To teach this structure the teacher will say:

(i) I played at 4 yesterday.

(ii) I played at 4 the day before yesterday.

(iii) I will play at 4 tomorrow.

(iv) I play at 4 everyday.

### **Gradation of Structure**

Structures are to be graded in the order of difficulty. Simple structures should precede the more difficult ones. The following are some of the patterns that should be taught at early stages:

1. Two-part patterns He / goes.

2. Three-part patterns He / plays / cricket.

3. Four-part patterns

She / gave / me / a book.

4. Patterns beginning with 'there' There are twenty students in this class.

5. Patterns beginning with 'a question verb'. Is she coming?

Will he go?

Has he brought the book?

6. Patterns beginning with 'wh' type question  
How are you?

What does he do?

7. Patterns of Command and Request  
Sit down

Please come here, etc.

Of the seven types of patterns mentioned above, the three part patterns and the pattern beginning with 'there' occur very frequently. Each pattern embodies an important point of grammar and only one meaning of one word is taught at a time. Moreover, the structures are graded in such a manner that a structure follows the preceding one naturally. During the learning of the structures the child automatically learn grammar also (learns grammar, word order and the use of words or usage). Thus he avoids common error in grammar and composition. This approach lays emphasis on the four skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing. Rapid speech patterns are taught with the help of printed material. Children, therefore, start speaking English before they read or write it. The British Council plays a prominent role in popularizing this approach for the teaching of English in India. Subsequently the NCERT (National Council of Education Research and Training) introduces the structural syllabuses, and prepares books or teaching materials in elaborating with the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL), Hyderabad. The books prepared by the NCERT have been adopted by the CBSE (Central Board of Secondary Education) and also by the various boards of education in various states of India. At present English is being taught according to the structural approach in the majority of schools in the country.

### **Cognitive Approach**

As its name implies, the cognitive approach deals with mental processes like memory and problem solving. By emphasizing mental processes, it places itself in opposition to behaviorism, which largely ignores mental processes. Yet, in many ways the development of the cognitive approach, in the early decades of the 20th century, is intertwined with the behaviorist approach. For example, Edwin Tolman, whose work on "cognitive maps" in rats made him a cognitive pioneer, called himself a behaviorist.

Similarly, the work of David Krech (aka Ivan Krechevsky) on hypotheses in maze learning was based on behaviorist techniques of observation and measurement. Today, the cognitive approach has overtaken behaviorism in terms of popularity, and is one of the dominant approaches in contemporary psychology. It is a reaction of modern **linguists** to truth-conditional (objectivist) semantics and generative grammar which have been the dominant approaches to the study of language meaning and grammatical form since the middle of the last century. Most people take memory for granted--until they forget something. Yet the fact that we remember more often than we forget tends to lead us to overlook the underlying complexity of memory as a cognitive process. As the text notes, there are many forms of memory, which vary in duration as well as other characteristics. Even in the



relatively permanent long term memory, there are different ways that information and experiences can be represented. To illustrate this, try the following simple **experiment**. The cognitive approach emphasizes the role of learning in behavior, but unlike behaviorism, does not exclude the possible role of inherited mechanisms. (For example, Gestalt theorists like Kohler believed that perceptual organization was based on innate principles.) This duality of learning-with-heredity is well-illustrated in the area of language development. Noam Chomsky believed that language development depends on an innate mechanism that he called a "language acquisition device" which processes grammatical rules. While controversial when first proposed, Chomsky's idea has gained support over time--even though we still don't know the precise nature of the underlying mechanism.

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# **SATHYABAMA**

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**SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**

**UNIT – II LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS – SHS5006**

## UNIT-II

### SOCIO-LINGUISTICS-DEFINITION, FUNCTIONS

Sociolinguistics is a developing branch of linguistics and sociology which examines the individual and social variation of language (Spolsky, 2010). Just as regional variation of language can give a lot of information about the place the speaker is from, social variation tells about the roles performed by a given speaker within one community (ibid.). Sociolinguistics is also considered as a branch of sociology in that it shows the relationship between language use and the social basis for such use (Hudson, 1996). It differs from sociology of language in that the focus of sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language, whereas the latter's interest is on the language's effect on the society (Bell, 1976). Sociolinguistics is a practical, scientific discipline which researches into the language that is actually used in order to formulate theories about language change (ibid.).

#### **What is Sociolinguistics?**

A term sociolinguistics is a derivational word. Two words that form it are sociology and linguistics. Sociology refers to a science of society; and linguistics refers to a science of language.

Socio+linguistics

Socio- = society

linguistics= formal, systematic study of various aspects of language

**Definition:** Sociolinguistics is the study between language and society. Sociolinguistics is the study of inter relationships of language and social structure, linguistics variation and attitudes toward language. It is any set of linguistics form which pattern according to social factors. The study of sociolinguistics also focuses on the language variations that emerge in the society. For example, the way of how to speak of a group of students is different from the way of a group of bus drivers. Sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used.

#### **Major types of Sociolinguistics**

##### *1. Macro-sociolinguistics*

The study of language related to how the society treats the language.

##### *2. Micro-sociolinguistics*

The study of language in relation to society deals with small group of people in certain community.

Example: meeting.

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

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

**Sociolinguistic Function** is meant the role played by a particular form of language within a speech community. In this study, we use the term to mean the formal/informal interactions and roles carried out through the use of text messages.

### **Functions of Sociolinguistics**

Sociolinguistics is the study of language in relation to society. It studies how social factors influence the structure and use of language.

#### ***1. Language variety refers to the various forms of language triggered by social factors***

*1.1. Standard language:* a variety of language may be officially elevated as the national language, such a language variety is called standard language.

*1.2. Dialects:* A variety of a language used recognizably in a specific region or by a specific social class. The study of dialect is called "dialectology".

*1.2.1. Regional / geographical dialects:* varieties of a language spoken in a geographical area.

*1.2.1.1. Speech community:* a group of people sharing one given language or dialect.

*1.2.1.2. Sociolects,* related to formality of speech, are categorized as high and low sociolect.

*1.2.1.3. The formal speech* is higher sociolect and the informal lower sociolect.

*1.2.2. Temporal dialects:* Varieties of a language used at particular stages in its historical development.

*1.2.3. Social dialects/sociolects:* Varieties of a language used by people belonging to particular social classes.

*1.2.4. Idiolects:* Varieties of a language used by individual speakers, with peculiarities of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

*1.2.5. Accent:* This term refers to phonological variation. Accent is thus about pronunciation, while dialect is a broader term encompassing syntactic, morphological, and semantic properties as well.

*1.3. Registers:* varieties of language used in different situations, which are identified by the degrees of formality.

*1.4. Pidgin:* a mixed language with a small vocabulary and a simple grammar used by speakers of two languages to communicate. So it is also called contact language.

*1.5. Creole:* different from pidgin, Creole language serves as the first language for speakers. When a pidgin begins to acquire native speakers who use it as their primary language, the pidgin turns to be a creole. The process by which a pidgin develops is called pidginization; the process by which a pidgin becomes a creole is called creolization. When more and more speakers of a creole adopt it as their everyday language, the creole becomes standardized, or a lingua franca. The process is termed as decreolization.

## LINGUISTIC VS COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Communicative competence is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. The approach pioneered by Hymes is now known as the ethnography of communication. The desired outcome of the language learning process is the ability to communicate competently, not the ability to use the language exactly as a native speaker does.

### Linguistic Competence

Linguistic competence allows one to form and interpret words and sentences of one's language.

Major Components

- 1 Phonetics -The articulation and perception of speech sounds.
- 2 Phonology -The patterning of speech sound
- 3 Morphology -Formation of words
- 4 Syntax- Formation of phrases and sentences
- 5 Semantics- Interpretation words and phrases

### Communicative Competence

The term *communicative competence* refers to both the tacit knowledge of a language and the ability to use it effectively. It's also called *communication competence*. The concept of communicative competence (a term coined by linguist Dell Hymes in 1972) grew out of resistance to the concept of linguistic competence introduced by Noam Chomsky (1965). Most scholars now consider linguistic competence to be a *part of* communicative competence.

**Hymes (1972)** was the first anthropologist to point out that Chomsky's linguistic competence lacks consideration of the most important linguistic ability of being able to produce and comprehend utterances which are appropriate to the context in which they are made.

**Canale and Swain (1980)** Defined communicative competence in the context of second language teaching. Their views of communicative competence are: a "synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social settings to perform communicative functions and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse."

Communicative competence is made up of *four competence areas: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic*.

**Linguistic competence** is knowing how to use the grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language. Linguistic competence asks: What words do I use? How do I put them into phrases and sentences?

**Sociolinguistic competence** is knowing how to use and respond to language appropriately, given the setting, the topic, and the relationships among the people communicating. Sociolinguistic competence asks: Which words and phrases fits this setting and this topic? How can I express a specific attitude (courtesy, authority, friendliness, respect) when I need to? How do I know what attitude another person is expressing?

**Discourse competence** is knowing how to interpret the larger context and how to construct longer stretches of language so that the parts make up a coherent whole. Discourse competence asks: How words, phrases and sentences are put together to create conversations, speeches, email messages, newspaper articles?

**Strategic competence** is knowing how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns, how to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language, and how to learn more about the language and in a specific context. Strategic competence asks: How do I know when I've misunderstood or when someone has misunderstood me? What do I say then? How can I express my ideas if I don't know the name of something or the right verb form to use?"

**Hymes' concept of communicative competence:**

The idea of communicative competence is originally derived from Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. By competence, Chomsky means the shared knowledge of the ideal speaker-listener set in a completely homogeneous speech community. Such underlying knowledge enables a user of a language to produce and understand an infinite set of sentences out of a finite set of rules. The transformational grammar provides for an explicit account of this tacit knowledge of language structure, which is usually not conscious but is necessarily implicit. Hymes says that the transformational theory "carries to its perfection the desire to deal in practice only with what is internal to language, yet to find in that internality that in theory is of the widest or deepest human significance." (Hymes,1972)

**Widdowson** (1983) made a distinction between competence and capacity. In his definition of these two notions he applied insights that he gained in discourse analysis and pragmatics. In this respect, he defined competence, i.e. communicative competence, in terms of the knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic

conventions. Under capacity, which he often referred to as procedural or communicative capacity, he understood the ability to use knowledge as means of creating meaning in a language. According to him, ability is not a component of competence. It does not turn into competence, but remains “an active force for continuing creativity”, i.e. a force for the realization of what Halliday called the “meaning potential” (Widdowson, 1983:27).

**Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983)** understood communicative competence as a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication. In their concept of communicative competence, knowledge refers to the (conscious or unconscious) knowledge of an individual about language and about other aspects of language use. According to them, there are three types of knowledge: knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social context in order to fulfil communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions with respect to discourse principles

The main difference between the Communicative competence and the Linguistic one is that the linguistic competence belongs to the whole Communicative Competence or Language Knowledge that the students or native speakers have. So, Linguistic is a component from Communicative competence in other words.



## **BASIC CONCEPTS IN SOCIOLINGUISTICS**

### **Sociolinguistics**

The study that is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. In other words, it studies the relationship between language and society. It explains we people speak differently in different social contexts. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provides a lot of information about the language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language.

### **Socio-cultural Aspects**

A group of people is required by both community and society. They communicate and interact between and another. They have a membership consciousness on the basis of the common goals and their behaviour is ordered and patterned. If they live in a given area, have the same culture and living styles, and can collectively act in their effort to reach a certain goal, they will be known as a community.

Not all groups of people occupying certain areas are known as societies; but they are known as communities such as those who are in local communities, schools, business firms, and kinship units; and they are only sub-systems of a society. Thus, society is any group of people being relatively self-sufficient, living together in a long period of time, occupying a certain area, having the same culture, and conducting most of activities in the group.

Parsons (1966: 20) states that a society is in the first instance -politically organized; it must have loyalties both to a sense of community and to some -corporate agency of the kind we ordinarily consider governmental, and must established a relatively effective normative order within a territorial area. A society in which some groups of people are living may show what we call social stratification. A term social stratification used to refer to any hierarchical ordering of group within a society

A system of social stratification is not always similar to one another; it may be represented in castes (such as in India); it may be represented in different social classes: high class, middle class, and lower class (such in United States); and it may be represented in some terms such as: elite group vs. common people, -kawula vs. gustill (such as in Indonesia). A society in which its members are stratified shows

social classes followed by social status and role.

Social class may be defined primarily by wealth, or by circumstances of birth, or by occupation, or by criteria specific to the group under investigation. If wealth is a criterion, this may be calculated in terms of money, or in terms of how many pigs, sheep, or blankets an individual or family possesses, or how much land they claim. Social status is often largely determined by social class membership (Troike and Blackwell, 1982: 87).

A married man automatically has a status as a husband of his wife and as a father of child(ren); in his office, he may be a director; and in his neighborhood, he may be a religious leader. According to Soerjono Soekanto, social role is a dynamic aspect of status. Thus, the man has three statuses: as a father, a director, and a religious leader. When he fulfills his duties and responsibilities in accordance with his single status, he plays one role. Whatever the groups are called, each of them must occupy a position in a social rank or have a social status. Therefore, a member of a given social rank or social status plays a role in accordance with his status.

Social relationships among people in society are based on some rules, values, etiquette, etc. In communication, for instance, people are ordered by rules (of speaking); they are guided by values (of how to behave in a good manner) than can be conducted through etiquette (of using a language).

## **Social Units of Language Use**

### **a. Speech Community**

Speech refers a surrogate for forms of language, including writing, song and speech-derived whistling, drumming, horn calling and the so on. An important concept in the discussion of communication is the speech community. It refers to a group of people who use the same system of speech signals. Another definition of the speech community is any human aggregate characterized by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language use.

Troike and Blackweel state that speech community must meet three criteria: (1) it is any group within a society which has anything significant in common (including religion, ethnicity, race, age, deafness, sexual orientation, or occupation), (2) it is a physically bounded unit of people having range of role-opportunities (a politically organized tribe or nation), (3) it is a collection of similarly situated entities that something in common (such as the Western World, European Common Market, or the United Nations)

**b. Speech Situation**

According to Dell Hymes' analysis, a speech situation is a situation in which a speech occurs. Within a community, we may detect many situations associated with (or marked by the absence of) speech. Such situations will be described as ceremonies, fights, hunts, meals, lovemaking, and the like.

**c. Speech Event**

According to Dell Hymes' views, a speech event refers to activities or aspects of activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech. An event may consist of a single speech act; and it often comprises several speech acts.

**d. Speech Act**

According to Dell Hymes' opinion, speech act is the minimal term of the speech event. It represents a level distinct from the sentence, and cannot be identified with any single portion of other levels of grammar, nor with segments of any particular size defined in terms of other levels of grammar. An utterance may have the status of command depending on a conventional formula. When we ask someone to leave the building, we may say: -Go!! not -Go?! An interrogative sentence -Can you help me?! may be meant to ask someone to do something; -what time is it?! may be meant to remind that the listener comes very late.

**e. Speech Styles**

The term style refers to a language variety that is divided based on the criterion of formality. This criterion tends to subsume subject matter, the audience of discourse, and the occasion. Based on the criterion, Martin Jose (in Brown, 1982: 192) recognizes the speech into frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate styles. A frozen (oratorical) style is used in public speaking before a large audience; wording is carefully planned in advance, intonation is somewhat exaggerated, and numerous rhetorical devices are appropriate. A formal (deliberative) style is also used in addressing audiences, usually audiences too large to permit effective interchange between speaker and hearers, though the forms are normally not as polished as those in a frozen (oratorical) style. A typical university classroom lecture is often carried out in a formal (deliberative) style. A consultative style is typically a dialogue, though formal enough that words are chosen with some care. Business transactions, doctor-patient conversations, and the like are consultative in nature. Casual conversations are between friends or colleagues or sometimes members of a family; in this context words need not be guarded and social barriers are moderately low. An intimate style is one characterized by complete absence of social inhibitions. Talk with family, loved ones, and very close friends, where you tend to reveal your inner self, is usually in an intimate style.

Someone may speak very formally or very informally; his choice of the styles is governed by circumstances. Ceremonial occasions almost require very formal speech; public lectures are somewhat less formal; casual conversation is quite informal; and conversation between intimates on matters of little importance may be extremely informal and casual.

We may try to relate the level of formality chosen to a number of factors: (1) the kind of occasion, (2) the various social, age, and other differences that exist between the participants, (3) the particular task that is involved, e.g., writing or speaking, and (4) the emotional involvement of one or more of the participants

#### **f. Ways of Speaking**

A way of speaking refers to how a language speaker uses in accordance with behavior of communication regulated in his speech community. This means that he has to apply -regulationl of using his language. That is why Fishman suggests that in using a language someone has to consider to whom he speaks. Considering the person to whom he speaks, he will determine what language or its varieties he wants to use to speak. His consideration is not only based on to whom he speaks, but also on when or where he speaks. The language speaker will consider the setting of time and place.

In relation to the ways of speaking Dell Hymes states that the point of it is the regulative idea that the communicative behavior within a community is analyzable in terms of determinate ways of speaking, that the communicative competence of persons comprises in part knowledge of determinate ways of speaking

#### **g. Components of Speech**

A language use occurring in a speech community must be in relation to speech situation, speech event, speech act, and speech styles, as well as components of speech. Those form an integrated parts in the communicative behavior. Dell Hymes (in Gumperz and Hymes, 1972 : 59-65) states the speech are in the sixteen components, being grouped together under the letters of the word SPEAKING. SPEAKING here stands for (S)etting, (P)articipants, (E)nds, (A)act sequence, (K)ey, (I)nstrumentalities, (N)orms, and (G)enres. The further explanation will be explained later.

#### **Social Functions of Language**

Forms of sentences of a language generally serve specific function. The sentences are created, among others, on the basis of purposes. The purposes of creating sentences are (a) to inform something or someone to the audiences; the sentences created are called statements (declarative sentences), (b) to question about something or someone; the resultant forms are interrogative sentences, (c) to ask or command someone to do something; the resultant forms are imperative sentences, and (d) to show a

surprise on someone or something; the resultant forms are exclamatory sentences.

### **Three functions of a language**

These three functions of a language are actually related from one to another. For the sake of discussion, they are discussed in separate ways. The prime function of a language has been assumed to be cognitive; a language is used to express ideas, concepts, and thought. The second function is said to be evaluative; a language has been viewed as a means of conveying attitudes and values. The third function of a language is referred to be affective; a language is used by its speakers to transmit emotions and feelings. Although the model is primarily connected with the nature of literary language, it provides a means of listing six major language functions by indicating how the shift of focus from one aspect of the speech event to another determines the function of the language that is used in it. For example, (a) in relation to emotive function, the addresser aims at the direct expressions of his attitude to the topic or situation; (b) in relation to conative function, the speaker focuses on the person(s) addressed, for instance, when he calls the attention of another or requires them to carry out some action; (c) in relation to context, the participants of a speech act focus on the object, topic, content of the discourse; (d) in relation to message, the speaker focuses on the message; (e) in relation to contact, a (certain) language is used for the initiation, continuation and termination of linguistic encounters; and (f) in relation to code, a language is used to talk about the language itself.

### **Factors Influencing Language Use**

They are four dominant factors influencing someone's language use in a given speech community: (a) the participants: who speaks, to whom he speaks, (b) the setting: where does he speak? (c) the topic discussed, and (d) the function: what and why does he speak?. These four factors can be illustrated as follows: For instance, there are two persons involving in a speech act. They are called as participants. They are identified as father and his son. At home (setting), in order to be familiar between them (function), both father and his son (participants) speak Javanese language to talk about daily activities (topic); they use Indonesian language in another topic. Both speakers never Javanese outside their home to each other; they use Banjarese or Indonesian language.

### **Social Dimensions Influencing Language Use**

Starting from the factors above, language use is determined by social dimensions: (a) social distance scale: how well we know someone, (b) a status scale: high-low status in social life; superior-subordinate status, and (c) a formality: formal-informal; high-low formality.

Social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure and/or behaviour. The age-grading phenomenon can be used as evidence. In this relation, for instance, young children speak differently from other children; and children speak differently from mature. Consequently, there are

some varieties of the same language (dialects, styles, speech levels, etc.) and ways of speaking, choices of words, and rules for conversing. Linguistic structure and/or behaviour may either influence or determine social structure.

### ***1. Speech Community***

Speech community is a concept in sociolinguistics that describes a more or less discrete group of people who use language in a unique and mutually accepted way among themselves. Speech communities can be members of a profession with a specialized jargon, distinct social groups like high school students or hip hop fans, or even tight-knit groups like families and friends. Members of speech communities will often develop slang or jargon to serve the group's special purposes and priorities. For example, *I fell upside of the building.* (lexical substitution--*upside of* for *against the side of*) the speaker, though not actually a native, his speech is affected by factors such as age, sex, and socio-economic status.

### ***2. High prestige and low prestige varieties***

Crucial to sociolinguistic analysis is the concept of prestige; certain speech habits are assigned a positive or a negative value which is then applied to the speaker. This can operate on many levels.

### ***3. Social network***

A social network is another way of describing a particular speech community in terms of relations between individual members in a community. A network could be loose or tight depending on how members interact with each other (Wardhaugh, 2002:126-127).

### ***4. Internal vs. external language***

In Chomskian linguistics, a distinction is drawn between I-language (internal language) and E-language (external language). In this context, internal language applies to the study of syntax and semantics in language on the abstract level; as mentally represented knowledge in a native speaker. External language applies to language in social contexts, i.e. behavioral habits shared by a community.

### **Conclusion**

A language is an important thing in a given community, a speech community. It is not a means for communication and interaction but also for establishing and maintaining human relationships. One characteristic of a language is that it is social. A new-born child acquires a language in the social environment (family as a part of the speech community). A language use also occurs in the speech community. Based on the geographical area, one community may be different from one to another. This results in the different varieties of language: dialects. These kinds of dialects are known as geographical or regional dialects. The fact also shows us that the members of a community or speech community are in the same social hierarchy. Consequently, there are also varieties of the same language used by the different types of the language users. These kinds of language varieties are known as social dialects.

## LANGUAGE VARIETY - DIALECTS, ACCENTS, REGISTERS, STYLES

Language is a system of speech sounds which is used to communicate by public users. Language itself serves as a means of communication and as a means of sharing ideas and feelings. It is a tool that is often used in day-to-day communication. Through language, humans can transfer variety of messages, either for himself or for another person. Basically, the language has certain functions that are used based on one's needs. These functions are, may be as a means of self-expression, as a communication tool, as a means of social cultural relation, and as a means of social control.

### Language Varieties

Language varies from region to region, class to class, profession to profession, person to person, and even situation to situation. Socio-linguistics tends to describe these variations in language with reference to their relationship with society. It shows that the relationship between language variation and society is rather a systematic relationship. It manifests that there are four major social factors involve in this variation: socio-economic status, age, gender, and ethnic background of the user or users of language. Due to all these four factors language differs on four levels chiefly:

1. Phonological Level
2. Lexical Level
3. Syntax Level
4. Discourse Level

In other words, variation within a language with reference to its use or user can be defined in terms of 'difference of linguistic items'. R. A. Hudson in his Sociolinguistics manifests:

"What makes a language variety different from another is linguistic items that it includes, so we may define a variety of language as *a set of linguistic items with similar social distribution*".

So, to describe language varieties, on one side there are linguistic items and on the other there is 'social distribution'. Let's take two different social classes for example: Middle Class and Working Class. Language of Working Class is different form that of Middle Class. The choice of vocabulary of one class is quite different from the other. Middle class uses more adjective, adverbs and impersonal pronouns. Whereas Working class uses active and simple words and here is lesser use of adjective, adverbs and impersonal pronouns. Lower class speech (restricted code) is more direct with simple grammatical construction in contrast with middle class speech (elaborated code). If a person wants to ask for the cake placed on table, person of working class may ask another person: "shove those buns mate". A middle class person will say the same thing in rather different way: "Please pass the cake"

Six major language varieties of Language:

- Idiolect
- Register
- Diglossia
- Pidgin
- Lingua Franca
- Esperanto

### **Idiolect:**

Every person has some differences with people around him. From eating habits to dressing, everyone has some quite unique feature. The same is the case with individual language use. Every individual has some idiosyncratic linguistic features in his or her use of language. These personal linguistic features are known as Idiolect. David Crystal in his Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics defines Idiolect as:

“[Idiolect] refers to Linguistic system of an individual—one’s personal dialect”.

This ‘linguistic system’ can be described in terms of personal choice of vocabulary, grammatical structures, and individual style of pronunciation. In other words, idiolect refers to a person’s individual phonology, syntax and lexicon. For instance, some individuals use lower pitch and some others speak with 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. Similarly, some individuals use their nasal cavity, more than their vocal cord, in their production of sound and the listener feels as if some sharp whistle is blowing. The best example of particular choice of vocabulary is individual use of ‘catch phrases’. Most frequent among these are “I say”, “I mean”, “do you understand?” and “what do you think?” Some catch phrases are rather interesting and their use becomes a cause of amusement.

### **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’. David Crystal defines Register as: “A variety of language defined according to its use in a social situation”. Language of individuals varies from situation to situation. At some occasions people talk very formally, on some other occasions they talk technically as well as formally. At some other occasion they



become informal yet technical and sometimes informal and non-technical. Following is the example of all these 'levels of formalities':

Formal technical:	"We obtained some sodium chloride."
Formal non-technical:	"We obtained some salt."
Informal technical:	"We got some sodium chloride."
Informal non-technical:	"We got some salt."

There are two other levels: Slang, and vulgar.

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 speaker's choice of 'linguistic items'.

**Field** implies why and about what the communication is? In simple, what is the purpose and subject matter of communication? 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. Up till now the different variations within a language were being dealt but there are certain situations where two or more languages are used which causes such variations that are beyond the range of one language. One of these variations is known as pidgin. There is a situation in which two or more languages are used with in a society. That is known as 'Diglossia'.

### **Diglossia**

Diglossia is a characteristic of speech communities rather than individual. Individuals may be bilingual. Societies or communities are diglossic. In other words, the term diglossia describes societal or institutionalized bilingualism, where two varieties are required to cover all the community's domains. In the narrow and original sense of the term,

Diglossia has three crucial features or criteria:

1. Two distinct varieties of the same language are used in the community, with one regarded as a high ( or H ) variety and the other a low ( or L ).
2. Each variety is used for quite distinct function; H and L complement each other
3. No one uses the H variety in everyday conversation.

It is possible for two varieties to continue to exist side by side for centuries. For example, England was diglossic (in the broad sense) after 1066 when the Normans were in control. French was the language of the court, administration, the legal system, and high society in general. English was the language of the peasants in the fields and the streets. For example in the following words,

<u>English</u>	<u>French</u>	<u>English</u>
ox	boeuf	beef
sheep	mouton	mutton
calf	veau	veal
pig	porc	pork

The English calf becomes French veau as it moves from the farm to the dinner table. However, by the end of the 14th century English has displaced French, while absorbing huge numbers of French such as beef, mutton, veal, and pork, so there were no longer domains in which French was the appropriate language to use. Hence, diglossia is used to describe complementary code use in all communities. In all speech communities people use different varieties or codes in formal contexts, as opposed to relaxed casual situations. In other words, the variety at the formal end of the scale could be regarded as an H variety, while the most casual variety could be regarded as an L variety. Diglossia is not a language variety but a 'linguistic situation' where more than one languages are used.

### **Pidgin**

A pidgin is a language having no native speaker. A pidgin develops as a means of communication between people who do not have a common language. Pidgin is two groups with different language communicating in a situation where there is also a third dominant language.

The syntax of Pidgins can be quite unlike the languages from which terms were borrowed and modified.

Pidgin is an 'odd mixture' of two languages which cannot be said a divergent variety of 'a language' but of two or more languages. Here languages mixed up oddly that from morphemes to sentence structure everything reduces and mingles strangely. David Crystal defines pidgin as:

"A language with a markedly reduced grammatical structure, lexicon, and stylistic range, compared with other languages, and which is native language of non...and are formed by two mutually unintelligible speech communities attempting to communicate."

Since pidgin emerges out of practical need 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 outcome 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 strong need of interaction, as for business purposes or immediate political needs.

Major difference between pidgin and Creole is that former has no native speakers but later 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 creol, 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.

### **Pidgin and Creole**

It is a pidgin that has become the first language of a new generation of speakers. Creoles arise when Pidgin become mother tongues.(Aitchison:1994).

The process of pidginization (simplification of language) through:

- Reduction in morphology
- Reduction in syntax
- Reduction in pronunciation
- Extensive borrowing of words from local mother-tongue.

The process of creolization:

- Expansion of morphology and syntax
- Regularization of the phonology
- Increase function
- Increase vocabulary

### **Lingua Franca**

Lingua franca is language of wider community. Lingua Franca is a language used for communication between 2 people whom the 1st language is different. Lingua franca is any inter-language used beyond its

native speakers for that sake of communication between the speech communities having different languages. David Crystal defines it as: “An auxiliary language used to enable routine communication to take place between groups of people who speak different native languages”. Term ‘lingua franca’ is an old one and its origin is Italian means “Frankish language”. It was derived from the medieval Arab Muslim use of “Franks” mean ancient Germanic people. The Muslims used it as a generic term for Europeans during the period of the Crusades. There are many languages which have served as ‘Lingua Franca’ during the course of history. For instance, during the domination of Roman Empire, lingua franca was Latin in the East and Greek in the west. With the rise of the Arab Muslims, Arabic became lingua franca in the East from South Asia to North Africa and even western part of southern Europe. In Europe, From 18th century till World War II, French worked as interlingua among European nations. And now English has occupied this place and is serving as diplomatic and commerce language around the globe.

### **Esperanto:**

Esperanto is a planned language intended for use between people who speak different native languages. This artificial language was invented in 1887 by a Polish physician Dr. L. L. Zamenhof. It is based on roots common to the chief European languages with endings standardized. Dr. Zamenhof rejected other European languages such as French, German, English because they were difficult to learn as second language and due to strong nationalism any nation will not learn the language of other as a superior one. He also rejected ancient languages, Greek and Latin, for they were far more complex than the modern languages. Thus he purposed his planned language, Esperanto. Two basic advantages of this artificial language were claimed:· It is a neutral language, being the property of no particular group of people and therefore the equal property of everybody.

- The total range of a language may be described in terms of its grammatical, phonological, and, sometimes, even graphological systems (Meyerhoff, 2006). Similarly, the language varieties of any given language have certain linguistic features in common (Spolsky, 2010). These common features of all the varieties of one language constitute the common core of that language (Bell, 1976). Apart from this common core of the language concerned, there are other lexical, grammatical, and stylistic features of each individual language variety, and so these could serve as formal linguistic as well as stylistic markers of the language variety in question (ibid.). It may be worth noting in this respect that these variety markers may exist on any level: phonetic, syntactical, stylistic and, above all, lexical.

## **NATIVE AND NON NATIVE VARIETIES**

Institutionalized “non-native” varieties of English have developed in countries such as Nigeria and India, where English is widely used as a second, often official, language in a broad range of intranational domains. These varieties are characterized by “nativization” (Kachru, 1981a): systematic changes in their formal features at all linguistic levels, which result from the use of English in new sociocultural settings, in contact with other languages, and in the absence of native speakers of English. This paper demonstrates how non-native varieties are distinct from interlanguages or approximative systems of “established” (Platt & Weber, 1980) varieties of English (e.g., British or American). Crucial differences are illustrated in strategies common to both nativization and second language acquisition—generalization of rules in the established varieties of English and transfer of linguistic features from other languages—in terms of linguistic contexts in which they apply and motivations underlying their application. A survey of positive attitudes toward non-native varieties among their users indicates that certain nativized features are becoming new norms for English usage in many countries. These strategies of and attitudes toward nativization are shown to have important implications for the teaching of English as a second language and for linguistic theory.

There are approximately 380 million native speakers of English and more than 700 non-native speakers of English (English Language Guide, 2008) all over the world, which results in large parts of today’s communication taking place in English. Thus good English language knowledge is a precondition for many jobs and educations. This places great importance on today’s English language education. It has to be of high quality and learners have to acquire the language as good and as fast as possible. But who can perform the job of an English teacher best?

There has been lots of discussion in the past years about whether native or non-native speakers are better at language teaching. Due to globalization also the amount of English teachers available is rising steadily. Today’s English teachers come from a broad range of different countries and thus have differing cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Those backgrounds have again influence on the teachers’ teaching styles and methods and their general understanding of the teaching context and their students. Moreover, today’s English teachers have different levels of knowledge of the target language and culture. Teaching English in non-native countries by native English-speaking teachers has been a controversial issue for a long time. Some researchers claim that they are more successful in teaching than non-native teachers and some others say skill in teaching is more essential than being a native speaker of the language taught. In Saudi Arabia, English as a Foreign Language is taught at various levels, in both public and private basic education, i.e. in kindergarten, elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools and also in EFL programs

provided by various college-level academic, commercial, diplomatic and industrial institutions. In public schools, schools are fully funded and sponsored by the government. English has become a core course (i.e. a compulsory course) from the 5th to the 12th grade. In each grade, English is taught four times a week (45 min each) by Arab non-native speakers of English (Saudi, Egyptians, Syrians, Jordanians, Sudanese and Palestinians) who usually hold a BA in English from their home countries, although most have not specialized in teaching EFL.

Native English teachers have their own advantages and disadvantages and non-native English instructors have strong and weak points as indicated by the above-mentioned scholars. But, being a native speaker of the language also means being a representative of the community speaking that language with all its values, habits, cultures traditions and norms as mentioned by Jei (1999). According to George Braine (1999), native speakers speak more fluently and intuitively correct than their non-native colleagues. They may have more influence in the fluency and accent of the students than the nonnative teachers but the outputs may be positive or negative and may cause success or failure in foreign language learning.

### **1.Pronunciation**

It has been argued that only native speakers should teach English because they have the best pronunciation. On the one hand, this is has some validity. In Japan, Japanese English teachers often have very little experience speaking English so their pronunciation can sometimes be quite poor. Assistant Language Teachers from English speaking countries have easily found work in Japan because the Boards of Education are trying to improve student pronunciation and native speakers have encouraged more pronunciation practice in Japanese public schools. However, an Assistant Language Teacher from Jamaica could be replaced after a year with an instructor from Scotland. It seems like this may not be ideal because obviously people from these two English speaking countries sound entirely different so the model pronunciations they give will not be the same. When teaching a language, consistency is important so there are some problems with this approach.

On the other hand, in countries such as the Netherlands, English teachers often have very good English pronunciation and therefore students do not really need a native speaker to model sentences for them. Good English pronunciation does not mean using a British or American accent; if a teacher is Italian, an Italian accent is perfectly acceptable as long as the words are being pronounced correctly. Accents are not an indication of poor teaching but of where a person is from. At any rate, audio and video clips demonstrating proper English pronunciation are readily available and should be used by every ESL teacher to give students a chance to hear other voices. This does not mean that recordings can replace

native English speakers or teachers with good pronunciation; it is simply another tool that teachers can use in their classrooms.

## **2. Communication**

In most school systems, the immersion method is not used to teach English but the goal of ESL teachers should be to speak English in the classroom whenever possible. While this is a good rule for teaching a language, this approach can be frustrating for students especially those who are older and beginners. It is often helpful for students to be able to ask questions in their native language or to draw parallels between their language (L1) and English. An English native speaker may not be able to clearly communicate more complex ideas and structures to students especially if his understanding of the local language is limited. In contrast a teacher who is fluent in the local language will have an easier time completing these tasks and will often be able to relate to and manage students more effectively too.

## **3. Experience**

Most non-native speakers are trained teachers either in their country or the country they teach in which means that they often will have much more teaching experience than native speakers. It seems foolish to assume that just because someone speaks English they can teach it effectively. Without training in classroom management and lessons in English grammar, native speakers cannot be effective ESL instructors. They may be able to speak the language but explaining it is an entirely different matter. If a native speaker is a qualified educator, then they will have an advantage but when teaching abroad, as mentioned above, it is also beneficial to be able to communicate with students in their native language. When native English speakers are paired with local teachers, students have the best of both worlds.

It seems that both native English speakers and non-native English speakers can take steps to improve as teachers. Native English speakers who want to teach English as a Second Language need to study on their own or enroll in a course to help them improve in certain areas. They should keep reference material on hand so that they can find the answers to difficult questions when they arise and study the basics of the native language. Non-native speakers may have to get more practice speaking English but this has become much easier with the invention of programs like Skype. Both groups have valuable skill sets that benefit students in different ways.

## STANDARD AND NON STANDARD VARIETIES

### Standard Language

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

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

### Growth of Standard English

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



variety of Sanskrit or Prakrit... The simplest type of linguistic variation is regional, and hence the choice of standard has usually been made among local dialects of any given language... This problem has usually been settled by choosing the dialect of the administrative centre of the region involved’.

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

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

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

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

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

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

It is significant to note that in Chaucer, Townley and Caxton's work ample evidence is available to show that dialectal differences often formed good subject of humorous treatment and that the royal officials were expected to use southern English, i.e. that Southern English was becoming the recognized official language. The British Isles abound in dialectal variations marking geographical regions and areas. 'But only one form is the standard language, one that is taught to the foreigners, whose individuality and importance went hand in hand with the fortunes of London, and of people who moved into the London area.... Historically, it contains some elements from the south-west, especially Kent, and some from the east midlands as far north as the city of Lincoln. But for the most part its constituent

elements are those that came to be accepted as the 'best' form of speech among educated speakers in London itself'.

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

### **Micro and Macro-Sociolinguistics**

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

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

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

## **Linguistic, Sociolinguistic and Social Codes**

The shift of interest that we have witnessed recently in the direction of language in use, or language being considered as behaviour ‘relating the participants in a speech event to their environment, to each other and to the medium of communication itself’, has thrown up many issues of crucial importance to linguistic analysts. It is easy- to see the relationships. As Michael Gregory and Susanne Carroll say, ‘Words change their meaning according to context. Word-meaning is neither fixed nor stable. Word-meaning can be considered to be meaning-in-use, the ‘living’ word as it appears in situation. Meaning realised in recurrent and typical situations can itself be seen as part of a larger system of meaning to which members of the community have access. This system of potential meaning is the culture itself. When we say that language is choice we suggest that language-in-use implies the selection of all possible meanings inherent in this extensive meaning-system called culture.’

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

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

Social structural system and culture are systems of meanings. They defy scientific explanations. Their complexities are overlaid with other complexities, because social structure and culture ‘incorporate’ all possible meaningful behaviours (linguistic or otherwise) possible within that society, the beliefs and attitudes associated with it, including the arts and sciences as we usually think of them’. ‘Culture of a

society is the way of life of its members; the collection of ideas and habits which they learn, share and transmit from generation to generation' (M. Haralambos). This complex socio-cultural network of values provides the basic meaning complexes to the language user. In 1936 Benjamin Lee Whorf pronounced that linguistics is concerned with meaning. This is the position from which sociolinguists see themselves facing the problem of analysing the correlation of linguistics and sociological phenomena. The problem has not easily been solved as stated. Firth, Halliday, Hasan, Trudgill, David Sankoff, Shana Poplack and many others have been trying to evolve techniques and methods to locate and describe the correlations and the mechanisms of changes such correlations result in. Most scholars have drawn upon sociological and other descriptive techniques which have proved highly useful. For example, William Labov, interested in observing language change in the *present*, used surprisingly simple technique, of interviewing the sales people without their knowing that they were being interviewed, and quietly noting down the required information which comprised his primary data.

### **The choice of colloquial vocabulary**

#### *1. Common Colloquial Words*

Slang is the most extended and vastly developed subgroup of non-standard colloquial layer of the vocabulary of a given type of language (Wardhagh, 2004) . Besides separate words, it includes also highly figurative phraseology (ibid.). Slang occurs mainly in dialogues, and serves to create speech characteristics of personages (ibid.).

#### *2. Professional and Social Jargons*

A jargon is a special type of vocabulary in a given language (Bell, 1976). They are used in emotive prose to depict the natural speech of a character within the framework of such device as speech-characterization (ibid.). They can show vocation, education, breeding, environment and even the psychology of a personage (Gardiner, 2008). Slang, contrary to jargon, needs no translation, jargon is used to conceal or disguise something (ibid.). Certain professional registers, such as legalese, show a variation in grammar from the standard language. For instance, English journalists or lawyers often use grammatical moods such as subjunctive and conditional, which are no longer used frequently by other speakers. Many registers are simply a specialised set of terms (ibid.).

#### *3. Vulgarism*

Vulgarism is a word or a phrase from the language spoken by people, as contrasted with a more formal or refined usage of such language. Vulgarisms are divided into 'expletives' and 'swearwords', used as general exclamations and obscene words (Hudson, 1996). They are emotionally and strongly charged and can be used for speech-characterisation (ibid.).

#### *4. Dialectal Words*

Dialectal words are special word forms that indicate the linguistic origin of the speaker (Trudgill, 2000). They are introduced into the speech of personages to indicate their region (ibid.). The number of dialectal words and their frequency also indicate the educational of the speaker (ibid.). In linguistics, many grammars have the concept of grammatical mood, which describes the relationship of a verb with reality and intent (Gardiner, 2008). There are various ways of classifying choice of words or varieties in sociolinguistics, but the immediate requirement is the need to use a given variety according to the immediate social requirement.

In English language, 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 not acquired “by being born in right kind of family”. Everywhere in diglossic society, vernaculars are used for daily routine conversation. Other examples of diglossic societies are Greece, where high variety is Katharevousa and low is Dhimotiki, and German speaking Switzerland with Hochdeutsch as a high and Schweizerdeutsch as a low variety of those same languages.

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 Fishman, extend the term to that society where two different languages are used. According to this extension almost all societies become diglossic society.

Ferguson also purposed that there is a strong tendency to give one language higher status or prestige and reserve it for specific occasion and purposes. According to this notion, Pakistani society is strongly a diglossic society where there are not two but three languages exist with different status. In Punjab for example, Punjabi is used at personal level, Urdu is used on social level and English is ‘reserved’ for high

formal occasions. The existence of different languages in a society provides them to emerge into each other and sometimes results into a new mixture of languages that is called Pidgin.

All in all, language is an important aspect in human interaction. Sociolinguistics is a branch of science that tries to study the link between sociology and linguistics. If linguistic choices are made in accordance with the orderings of society, then every choice carries social information about the speaker/writer. Consequently, some linguists reason that the communication of social information presupposes the existence of regular relationships between language usage and social structure. In short, sociolinguistics has added a lot to the field of the social study of the language.

## BILINGUALISM/ MULTILINGUALISM

Bilingualism and Multilingualism is an interdisciplinary and complex field. As is self-evident from the prefixes (bi- and multi-), bilingualism and multilingualism phenomena are devoted to the study of production, processing, and comprehension of two (and more than two) languages, respectively. For the reasons of convention, concision, and convenience, the term “bilingualism” is used as a cover term to include both bilingualism and multilingualism in this article. Still in its primary stages of exploration, bilingualism is a rapidly growing area of linguistics, which is grounded in interdisciplinary approaches and a variety of conceptual frameworks. In linguistics, bilingualism owes its origin largely to diachronic and sociolinguistics, which deal with linguistic variation, language contact, and language change. However, on theoretical and methodological grounds, bilingualism was/is viewed as a problematic area of linguistics prior to and after the emergence of Chomskyan linguistic revolution (see Issues and Conceptualization). Outside linguistics, bilingualism is also intimately tied with immigrant and marginalized groups and their educational and economic problems.

Over the last two decades in which linguistic/ethnic communities that had previously been politically submerged, persecuted, and geographically isolated, have asserted themselves and provided scholars with new opportunities to study the phenomena of individual and societal bilingualism and multilingualism that had previously been practically closed to them. Advances in social media and technology (e.g., iPhones and Big Data Capabilities) have rendered new tools to study bilingualism in a more naturalistic setting. At the same time, these developments have posed new practical challenges in such areas as language acquisition, language identities, language attitudes, language education, language endangerment and loss, and language rights. The investigation of bi- and multilingualism is a broad and complex field. Unless otherwise relevant on substantive grounds, the term “bilingualism” in this article is used as an all-inclusive term to embody both bilingualism and multilingualism.

### **Bilingualism And Multilingualism**

Bilingualism and Multilingualism is an interdisciplinary and complex field. As is self-evident from the prefixes (bi- and multi-), bilingualism and multilingualism phenomena are devoted to the study of production, processing, and comprehension of two (and more than two) languages, respectively. Definitions of bilingualism range from a minimal proficiency in two languages, to an advanced level of proficiency which allows the speaker to function and appear as a native-like speaker of two languages. A person may describe themselves as bilingual but may mean only the ability to converse and communicate orally. **Bilingualism**, unlike monolingualism, exhibits complex individual, social, political, psychological, and educational dimensions in addition to involving a complex interaction of two or more



languages in terms of coexistence, competition, and cooperation of two linguistic systems. Additionally, although bilingualism is a lifelong process, the language development among bilinguals is not merely a linear process; there are turns and twists on the way to becoming bilingual, trilingual, and multilingual. The path to trilingualism is even more complex than growing up with two languages (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2016).

### **Benefits of Bilingualism**

- Development of skills in collaboration & cooperation
- Appreciation of other cultures and languages
- Cognitive advantages
- Increased job opportunities
- Expanded travel experiences
- Lower high school dropout rates
- Higher interest in attending colleges and universities

### **Types of Bilingualism**

**1. Early bilingualism** - there are two types: simultaneous early bilingualism and consecutive (or successive) early bilingualism.

- *Simultaneous early bilingualism* refers to a child who learns two languages at the same time, from birth. This generally produces a strong bilingualism, called additive bilingualism. This also implies that the child's language development is bilingual.

- *Successive early bilingualism* refers to a child who has already partially acquired a first language and then learns a second language early in childhood (for example, when a child moves to an environment where the dominant language is not his native language). This generally produces a strong bilingualism (or additive bilingualism), but the child must be given time to learn the second language, because the second language is learned at the same time as the child learns to speak. This implies that the language development of the child is partly bilingual.

**2. Late bilingualism** – refers to bilingualism when the second language is learned after the age of 6 or 7; especially when it is learned in adolescence or adulthood. Late bilingualism is a consecutive bilingualism which occurs after the acquisition of the first language (after the childhood language development period). This is what also distinguishes it from early bilingualism. With the first language already acquired, the late bilingual uses their experience to learn the second language.

3. **Additive bilingualism** and subtractive bilingualism – The term additive bilingualism refers to the situation where a person has acquired the two languages in a balanced manner. It is a strong bilingualism. Subtractive bilingualism refers to the situation where a person learns the second language to the detriment of the first language, especially if the first language is a minority language. In this case, mastery of the first language decreases, while mastery of the other language (usually the dominant language) increases. These expressions and their associated concepts were created by Wallace Lambert, the Canadian researcher who has been given the title of –the father of bilingualism researchl.

4. **Passive bilingualism** - refers to being able to understand a second language without being able to speak it. Children who respond in a relevant way in English when they are addressed in French could become passive bilinguals, as their mastery of oral expression in French decreases.

### **Multilingualism**

Multilingualism is an individual's ability to use many languages. Multilingualism is the use of two or more languages, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers. Multilingual speakers outnumber monolingual speakers in the world's population. ... People who speak several languages are also called polyglots.

#### **Types of Multilingualism:**

Multilingualism can be categorized into different types. There are various criteria and situations, which governs the classification of multilingualism.

**Degree of Acquisition:** By degree it means the level of competence a person has in other languages which he knows. If a person has native like command in all the languages he knows, then it is known as Ambilingualism. And if a person has equal degree of competence in the languages he uses, is known as Equilingualism.

**Manner of Acquisition:** By manner it means how a person is becoming a multilingual. This also takes into account the stage at which a person acquires or learns other languages. When a child acquires more than one language naturally at home, it is termed as Natural bilingualism. This situation generally happens in childhood. In natural multilingualism a child grows with several languages naturally. And when a person learns other languages in an artificial or classroom setting, it is known as Artificial multilingualism. Sometimes it is also known as Elective multilingualism. This can be at childhood and adulthood too. Many scholars use the notion of bilingualism and multilingualism interchangeably to refer to the knowledge of more than one language. Multilingualism in India 47 According to Sridhar (1996:47)

multilingualism is more than just a magnified version of bilingualism. He classified multilingualism as individual multilingualism and societal multilingualism.

***Individual Multilingualism:*** The ability of an individual to have competence in two or more languages is known as Individual multilingualism. How an individual acquires a language and when it has been acquired, in childhood or later. How these languages are presented in mind. All these questions are important in order to understand the kind of multilingualism.

***Societal Multilingualism:*** The linguistic diversity present in a society is known as Societal Multilingualism. In societal multilingualism some issues like role and status, attitude towards languages, determinants of language choices, the symbolic and practical uses of the languages and the correlation between language use and social factors such as ethnicity, religion and class are important. Societal multilingualism does not necessarily imply individuals.

### ***Triglossia***

The societies have two high languages and one low language. Example: Malaysia have two High languages such as Malay and English, and one low language, it is Low Malay.

### ***Code Switching***

Code-switching is a term in linguistics to refer to the use of more than one language or variety in conversation. People switch the code on purpose. There must be some reasons of changing into another language. When they purposelessly use more than one language in one speech, it is called code mixing.

## LANGUAGE AND MIND

### Noam Chomsky

Chomsky is the leading figure in contemporary linguistics. Starting in the 1950s, his development of generative grammar was an important factor in the shift from behavioristic to cognitive approaches to language and mind. Noam Chomsky said in his book, *Language and Mind*, that “When we study” human language, we are approaching what some might call the “human essence,” the distinctive qualities of mind that are, so far as we know, unique to man.” However, before we can discuss this statement we must first establish what exactly language is and what aspects make it up. Language is simply the manner through which we communicate. Communication is possible for humans through any number of forms. These include, but are not limited to, speech and sign language. Communication via language is necessary for a transfer of knowledge to take place.

In order for this to occur it is necessary that more than one person comprehend the language in question, be it English, Xhosa or American Sign Language (ASL). If others cannot comprehend what is being communicated to them it is because they do not understand the language, or dialect, being used. For a language to be understood it is necessary for the speakers to have an understanding of the rules or grammar of the language in question. The sounds that are used to communicate make up the phonology. These sounds are attributed meaning. The forms and meanings of sounds are usually arbitrary, except in the case of onomatopoeia.

Chomsky's approach takes the goal of linguistics to be to characterize the human faculty of language, noting its differences from the human faculties for general problem solving science. As Chomsky and other linguists tried to give explicit characterizations of the competence of a speaker of a language like English, it became clear that a child learning language simply does not have the sort of evidence available that would enable it to learn the relevant principles from scratch. There is a "poverty of the stimulus." The child must be prepared to acquire language with these principles in a way that it is not prepared to acquire the principles of, say, physics or quantification theory. It is clear that normal children acquire a language that reflects their particular linguistic environment. A child brought up in Japan acquires a version of Japanese. The same child brought up in Brazil acquires a version of Portuguese. So, these languages must in some sense reflect some of the same underlying innate principles. Further reflection along these lines and a great deal of empirical study of particular languages has led to the "principles and parameters" framework which has dominated linguistics in the last few decades.

## **Principles and Parameters**

The idea is that languages are basically the same in structure, up to certain parameters, for example, whether the head of a phrase goes at the beginning of a phrase or at the end. Children do not have to learn the basic principles, they only need to set the parameters. Linguistics aims at stating the basic principles and parameters by considering how languages differ in certain more or less subtle respects. The result of this approach has been a truly amazing outpouring of discoveries about how languages are the same yet different.

More recently, there have been attempts to try to explain some of the basic principles on the assumption that the language faculty is close to an ideal engineering solution to a problem of connecting the language faculty with the cognitive system and the articulatory perceptual system. This "minimalist program" remains highly speculative, but whether or not it succeeds, contemporary linguistics as a whole has been a tremendous success story, the most successful of the cognitive sciences. One would therefore expect that any philosopher of mind or language would make it his or her business to understand the basic methodology and some of the results of this subject. But many philosophers of mind and language proceed in utter ignorance of the subject.

Noam Chomsky believes that children are born with an inherited ability to learn any human language. He claims that certain linguistic structures which children use so accurately must be already imprinted on the child's mind. Chomsky believes that every child has a 'language acquisition device' or LAD which encodes the major principles of a language and its grammatical structures into the child's brain. Children have then only to learn new vocabulary

and apply the syntactic structures from the LAD to form sentences. Chomsky points out that a child could not possibly learn a language through imitation alone because the language spoken around them is highly irregular – adult's speech is often broken up and even sometimes ungrammatical. Chomsky's theory applies to all languages as they all contain nouns, verbs, consonants and vowels and children appear to be 'hard-wired' to acquire the grammar. Every language is extremely complex, often with subtle distinctions which even native speakers are unaware of. However, all children, regardless of their intellectual ability, become fluent in their native language within five or six years.

## **Supporting Chomsky's Theory**

- Children learning to speak never make grammatical errors such as getting their subjects, verbs and objects in the wrong order.

- If an adult deliberately said a grammatically incorrect sentence, the child would notice.
- Children often say things that are ungrammatical such as ‘mama ball’, which they cannot have learnt passively.
- Mistakes such as ‘I drewed’ instead of ‘I drew’ show they are not learning through imitation alone.

Chomsky used the sentence ‘colourless green ideas sleep furiously’, which is grammatical although it doesn’t make sense, to prove his theory: he said it shows that sentences can be grammatical without having any meaning, that we can tell the difference between a grammatical and an ungrammatical sentence without ever having heard the sentence before, and that we can produce and understand brand new sentences that no one has ever said before. Critics of Chomsky’s theory say that although it is clear that children don’t learn language through imitation alone, this does not prove that they must have an LAD – language learning could merely be through general learning and understanding abilities and interactions with other people.

### **Mind Body Problem**

Chomsky raises other related issues in these essays. For example, he argues that it is a confusion to suppose that there is a "mind-body problem." Before Newtonian physics, the mind-body problem was the problem of giving a mechanical explanation of mind, the presupposition being that everything else could be given a mechanical explanation. With the failure of that presupposition, the issue is unclear. Just as philosophers of language often fail to distinguish between ordinary notions and scientific notions of language, so philosophers of mind often fail to distinguish between ordinary notions like belief, sensation, and desire, on the one hand, and notions that appear in scientific theories. Chomsky observes that there is no more reason to think that notions of desire or belief will play a role in scientific psychology than to think that the ordinary notion of language will play a role in linguistics or that ordinary notions like desk and chair will play a role in physics. (This does not mean there are not desks, chairs, languages, desires, or beliefs. Only that these notions are not suitable for scientific purposes.) Similarly, there is no reason to assume, as many philosophers do, that mental "representations" appealed to in psychological or linguistic theories must represent things in the world. Contemporary philosophy of language is sometimes concerned with alleged relations between expressions and things, denotation, reference, where there is a certain amount of appeal to "intuitions." Chomsky observes that we cannot have intuitions about these things deriving from our language faculty any more than we can have such intuitions about angular momentum.

**Ethnoscience**

Furthermore, it is important to distinguish ethnoscience, which might be concerned with how people normally understand things, with physics or psychology or linguistics, which is concerned with what is actually the case. Chomsky argues that philosophers are often best understood as doing ethnoscience, although without adhering to normal standards of empirical inquiry. In any event, the study of the semantic resources of the language faculty is to be distinguished from the study of ordinary conceptions of meaning. Words Another theme in these essays has to do with the semantic representation of words in a natural language. Chomsky argues that the underlying semantic representation of most words is quite complicated, often involving intricate and highly specialized perspectives involving human interests and concerns, providing various analytic connections in ways that could not be learned from scratch, so there is a "poverty of stimulus" argument here.

## UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR: PRINCIPLES AND PARAMETERS

Noam Chomsky's Theory Of Universal Grammar Is Right; It's Hardwired Into Our Brains. In the 1960s, linguist Noam Chomsky proposed a revolutionary idea: We are all born with an **innate** knowledge of grammar that serves as the basis for all language acquisition. In **other** words, for humans, language is a basic instinct.

### Universal Grammar

**Universal grammar** (UG) is a linguistic theory, proposed by Noam Chomsky, that argues that the ability to learn language is innate, distinctly human and distinct from all other aspects of human cognition.

**Universal grammar** (UG) in linguistics, is the theory of the genetic component of the language faculty, usually credited to Noam Chomsky. ... It is sometimes known as "mental **grammar**", and stands contrasted with other "**grammars**", e.g. prescriptive, descriptive and pedagogical.

**Principles and parameters** is a framework within generative linguistics in which the syntax of a natural language is described in accordance with general **principles** (i.e. abstract rules or grammars) and specific **parameters** (i.e. markers, switches) that for particular languages are either turned on or off.

### Principles

Principles are language-general. They are things that rightly belong to capital-L Language, and as such the principle would cease to be one if a language in which the principle did not hold was found. An example of this is that any sentence must have a subject. In English this subject will nearly always be spelled out "I met the man yesterday", but in diary format you might leave out the subject for "met the man yesterday". Other languages such as Croatian would generally leave out the subject as in the sentence "Volim sok" which simply means "I like juice" Unlike in English where we would prefer having an actual subject, Croatian doesn't like having pronominal subjects unless they're non-obvious. First person pronouns are entirely obvious because the verb is conjugated to match. However, even though it might look like there is no actual subject in the Croatian sentence, we say that there IS one, because the verb behaves like there is a subject (and the subject is first person singular), and if the subject wasn't readily derivable from the verb, we'd also expect for the subject to be spelled out. So that's an example of something all languages (seem to) have. All sentences have subjects. That's a principle.

### Parameters

So a principle is language-general. Where does that leave parameters? Well, they're language specific, so they're technically irrelevant to the overall question. If we remember the principle used as an example in the prior section, I used as an example that all sentences must have subjects, and that that includes



languages such as Croatian in which the subject generally doesn't want to show up if it's a pronoun. And it turns out that languages generally have those two choices. Either we can drop pronominal subjects, or we can't drop any subjects. Some languages can drop a heck of a lot more than that (looking at you Japanese), but there's definitely a clear split between "We drop pronominal subjects" and "we don't drop anything at all". That's a parameters. Do we do one thing or the other?

As an aside, the principle and parameters framework is a slight bit outdated these days, and principles and parameters are these days not so much a matter of "Subjects, what are they good for and do we need to say them?" but of a more abstract theory-internal kind.

### **GB Theory**

Each theory studies principles of rules and representations that are a subsystem of UG. They may affect different levels of language (d-structure, s-structure or LF). All have in common that they operate on syntactic structures. This leads to interactions between the theories that can get quite complex, even if principles are kept simple. Hope: if interactions between simple principles may lead to complex properties, this may explain why language is complex but easily learned.

### **X-bar theory**

X-bar theory was developed in the seventies to design phrase structures in a more theoretically sound way. It ended up addressing several issues: 1 stronger generalization than previously used PSG 2 introducing a structural difference between complements and modifiers 3 removing a redundancy between lexical contribution and the contribution of PS-rules (mentioned by Ouhalla 1994)

### **Binding Theory „**

*Binding*: The association between a pronoun and an antecedent. „

*Anaphoric*: A term to describe an element (e.g. a pronoun) that derives its interpretation from some other expression in the discourse. „

*Antecedent*: The expression an anaphoric expression derives its interpretation from. „

*Anaphora*: The relationship between an anaphoric expression and its antecedent.

### **Principles and parameters**

Chomsky's early attempts to solve the linguistic version of Plato's problem were presented in the "standard theory" of *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* and the subsequent "extended standard theory," which was developed and revised through the late 1970s. These theories proposed that the mind of the human infant is endowed with a "format" of a possible grammar (a theory of linguistic data), a method of constructing grammars based on the linguistic data to which the child is exposed, and a device that

evaluates the relative simplicity of constructed grammars. The child's mind constructs a number of possible grammars that are consistent with the linguistic data and then selects the grammar with the fewest rules or primitives. Although ingenious, this approach was cumbersome in comparison with later theories, in part because it was not clear exactly what procedures would have to be involved in the construction and evaluation of grammars.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s Chomsky and others developed a better solution using a theoretical framework known as "principles and parameters" (P&P), which Chomsky introduced in *Lectures on Government and Binding* (1981) and elaborated in *Knowledge of Language* (1986). Principles are linguistic universals, or structural features that are common to all natural languages; hence, they are part of the child's native endowment. Parameters, also native (though not necessarily specific to language, perhaps figuring elsewhere too), are options that allow for variation in linguistic structure. The P&P approach assumed that these options are readily set upon the child's exposure to a minimal amount of linguistic data, a hypothesis that has been supported by empirical evidence.

One proposed principle, for example, is that phrase structure must consist of a head, such as a noun or a verb, and a complement, which can be a phrase of any form. The order of head and complement, however, is not fixed: languages may have a head-initial structure, as in the English verb phrase (VP) "wash the clothes," or a "head-final" structure, as in the corresponding Japanese VP "the clothes wash." Thus, one parameter that is set through the child's exposure to linguistic data is "head-initial/head-final." The setting of what was thought, during the early development of P&P, to be a small number of parametric options within the constraints provided by a sufficiently rich set of linguistic principles would, according to this approach, yield a grammar of the specific language to which the child is exposed. Later the introduction of "microparameters" and certain nonlinguistic constraints on development complicated this simple story, but the basic P&P approach remained in place, offering what appears to be the best solution to Plato's problem yet proposed.

The phonological, or sound-yielding, features of languages are also parameterized, according to the P&P approach. They are usually set early in development—apparently within a few days—and they must be set before the child becomes too old if he is to be able to pronounce the language without an accent. This time limit on phonological parameter setting would explain why second-language learners rarely, if ever, sound like native speakers. In contrast, young children exposed to any number of additional languages before the time limit is reached have no trouble producing the relevant sounds.

In contrast to the syntactic and phonological features of language, the basic features out of which lexically expressed concepts (and larger units of linguistic meaning) are constructed do not appear to be parameterized: different natural languages seem to rely on the same set. Even if semantic features were parameterized, however, a set of features detailed enough to provide (in principle) for hundreds of thousands of root, or basic, concepts would have to be a part of the child's innate, specifically linguistic endowment—what Chomsky calls Universal Grammar, or UG—or of his nonlinguistic endowment—the innate controls on growth, development, and the final states of other systems in the mind or brain. This is indicated, as noted above, by the extraordinary rate at which children acquire lexical concepts (about one per waking hour between the ages of two and eight) and the rich knowledge that each concept and its verbal, nominal, adverbial, and other variants provide. No training or conscious intervention plays a role; lexical acquisition seems to be as automatic as parameter setting.

Of course, people differ in the words contained in their vocabularies and in the particular sounds they happen to associate with different concepts. Early in the 20th century, the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure noted that there is nothing natural or necessary about the specific sounds with which a concept may be associated in a given language. According to Chomsky, this “Saussurean arbitrariness” is of no interest to the natural scientist of language, because sound-concept associations in this sense are not a part of UG or of other nonlinguistic systems that contribute to concept (and sound) development.

A developed theory of UG and of relevant nonlinguistic systems would in principle account for all possible linguistic sounds and all possible lexical concepts and linguistic meanings, for it would contain all possible phonological and semantic features and all the rules and constraints for combining phonological and semantic features into words and for combining words into a potentially infinite number of phrases and sentences. Of course, such a complete theory may never be fully achieved, but in this respect linguistics is no worse off than physics, chemistry, or any other science. They too are incomplete. It is important to notice that the semantic features that constitute lexical concepts, and the rules and constraints governing their combination, seem to be virtually designed for use by human beings—i.e., designed to serve human interests and to solve human problems. For example, concepts such as “give” and “village” have features that reflect human actions and interests: transfer of ownership (and much more) is part of the meaning of *give*, and polity (both abstract and concrete) is part of the meaning of *village*.

### **Rule systems in Chomskyan theories of language**

Chomsky's theories of grammar and language are often referred to as "generative," "transformational," or "transformational-generative." In a mathematical sense, "generative" simply means "formally explicit." In the case of language, however, the meaning of the term typically also includes the notion of "productivity"—i.e., the capacity to produce an infinite number of grammatical phrases and sentences using only finite means (e.g., a finite number of principles and parameters and a finite vocabulary). In order for a theory of language to be productive in this sense, at least some of its principles or rules must be recursive. A rule or series of rules is recursive if it is such that it can be applied to its own output an indefinite number of times, yielding a total output that is potentially infinite. A simple example of a recursive rule is the successor function in mathematics, which takes a number as input and yields that number plus 1 as output. If one were to start at 0 and apply the successor function indefinitely, the result would be the infinite set of natural numbers. In grammars of natural languages, recursion appears in various forms, including in rules that allow for concatenation, relativization, and complementization, among other operations.

In Chomsky's later theories, deep structure ceased to be the locus of semantic interpretation. Phrase-structure grammars too were virtually eliminated by the end of the 1970s; the task they performed was taken over by the operation of "projecting" individual lexical items and their properties into more complex structures by means of "X-bar theory." In the early 21st century, internal and external Merge, along with parameters and micro parameters, remained at the core of Chomsky's efforts to construct grammars.

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# **SATHYABAMA**

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**SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**

**UNIT – III LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS – SHS5006**

## UNIT- III

### SCOPE AND DEFINITION OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

#### 1. Definition: Applied Linguistics

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

#### 2. What is applied Linguistics?

- It is an inter an trans - disciplinary approach
- It identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real life problems.

For Applied Linguistics, the central question is “How far can existing models of description in linguistics be used to resolve the practical problems of language use we are concerned with?”

#### 3. Linguistics v/s Applied Linguistics

- Linguistics is the scientific study of language.
- It endeavors to answer the question--what is language and how is represented in the mind?
- Oriented to the solution of linguistic problems.
- It puts linguistic theories into practice in areas such as foreign language teaching, speech therapy, translation, and speech pathology

#### 4. Defining the Scope of AL

- AL is the utilization of the knowledge about the nature of language achieved by linguistic research for the improvement of the efficiency of some practical task in which language is a central component. (Corder, 1974, p. 24)
- Whenever knowledge about language is used to solve a basic language-related problem, one may say that applied linguistics is being practiced. (Stevens, 1992, p. 76)
- AL is a technology which makes abstract ideas and research findings accessible and relevant to the real world; it mediates between theory and practice.

Therefore, applied linguistics involves

- a. What we know about language
- b. How it is learned
- c. How it is used
- d. The primary concern of applied linguistics has been second language acquisition theory,
- e. Second language pedagogy and the interrelationship of both areas.

#### 5. Micro Linguistics

- Phonetics, the study of the physical properties of sounds of human language.

- Phonology, the study of sounds as discrete, abstract elements in the speaker's mind that distinguishes meaning.
  - Morphology, the study of internal structures of words and how they can be modified.
  - Syntax, the study of how words combine to form grammatical sentences.
  - Semantics, the study of the meaning of words (lexical semantics) and fixed word combinations (phraseology), and how these combine to form the meanings of sentences.
  - Pragmatics, the study of how utterances are used (literally, figuratively, or otherwise) in communicative acts.
  - Discourse analysis, the analysis of language use in texts (spoken, written, or signed)
- General divisions of linguistics

## **6. What problems are related to language?**

There are variety of Language learning problems

- Language teaching problems
- Literacy problems
- Language contact problems (Language & Culture)
- Language policy and planning problems
- Language assessment problems
- Language use problems
- Language and technology problems
- Translation and interpretation problems
- Language pathology problems.

## **7. Scope of applied linguistics**

- Language teaching and learning
- Language testing
- Psycho- and neuro-linguistics
- Sociolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Computational linguistics
- Translation studies

## **8. The Grammar Translation Method**

Today English is the world's most widely studied foreign language, 500 years ago it was Latin for it was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and government in the Western world. The political changes in Europe gave French, Italian, and English importance thus Latin was displaced as a language of spoken and written communication. Latin was diminished from a living language to a subject in the school curriculum. Children in -grammar school were given a rigorous introduction to Latin grammar which was taught through rote learning of grammar rules, study of conjugations, translations and writing parallel bilingual texts and dialogue. The principle characteristics of GTM were: The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development. GTM approaches language study through a detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by translating sentences and texts into the target language. This view consists of memorizing rules

and facts to understand the morphology and syntax. The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language.

## **9. Characteristics of the Grammar Translation Method**

Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorization. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. The lesson is devoted to translating sentences into the target language with a focus on that sentence.

- Accuracy is emphasized.
- Students are expected to attain high standards in translation.
- Grammar is taught deductively by the presentation of rules then practiced through translation exercises.
- The student's native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language.

## **10. Reform Movement**

- The spoken language is primary and language teaching should reflect an oral-based method.
- The findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training.
- Learners should hear the language first, before seeing it in written forms.
- Words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practiced in meaningful contexts that is, grammar should be taught inductively.
- Translation should be avoided except to check comprehension

## **11. Direct Method**

- Principles for language teaching out of naturalistic ways are seen as those of first language acquisition or to natural methods which led to the development of the Direct Method.
- Rather than analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching, teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom.
- Learners would induce rules, and the teacher replaced textbooks in the early stages of learning. Speaking began with attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration, and pictures.

## **12. The Audio-lingual Method**

- Entry of the U.S. into WWII has a significant effect on language teaching in America.
- The government commissioned American universities to develop foreign language programs for military personnel. As a result the Army Specialized Training
- Program was established to train students to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of languages:
- German, French, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Malay, etc.
- Although this program only lasted two years, it attracted attention in the popular press and in the academic community due to its intensive oral-based approach.



### **The Audio-lingual Method Concepts**

- In 1939, Charles Fries, trained in structural linguistics, posited that grammar was the starting point. The structure of the language was identified with its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures.
- Systematic attention to pronunciation
- Intensive oral drilling of basic sentence patterns
- Pattern practice was a classroom technique

### **Behaviorism**

- The study of human behavior
- The human being is an organism capable of a repertoire of behaviors
- The occurrence of these behaviors depends on three crucial elements in learning: a stimulus, which serves to elicit behavior
- A response triggered by the stimulus and
- Reinforcement which serves to mark the response as being appropriate and encourages the repetition of the response in the future (Skinner).

### **The Decline of Audio-lingualism**

- The MIT linguist Noam Chomsky rejected the structuralism approach to language description as well as behaviorist theory of language learning.
- Language is not a habit structure.
- It involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rule of great abstractness and intricacy.
- Sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but -generated: from the learner's underlying -competence.

### **13. Communicative Language Teaching:**

Learning principles the communication principle: activities that involve real learning promote communication the task principle: activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning the meaningfulness principle: language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

### **14. Krashen's Views**

Acquisition is the basic process involved in developing language proficiency. It is distinct from learning Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition.

**The initiatives** for change may come from within the profession-from teachers, administrators, theoreticians, and researchers. Incentives or demands of a political, social, or even fiscal nature may drive change as in the past.

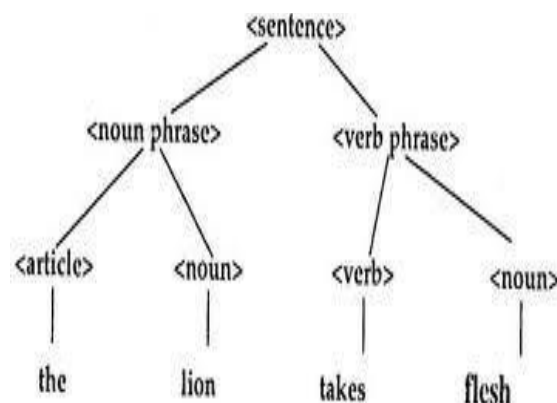
## APPLICATION OF LINGUISTIC THEORIES

Theoretical linguists are most concerned with constructing models of linguistic knowledge, and ultimately developing a linguistic theory. The fields that are generally considered the core of theoretical linguistics are phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

Some of the aspects we explore most often include **phonetics**, **phonology**, **morphology**, **syntax**, **semantics**, and **pragmatics**: **Phonetics** is the science concerned with the study of speech processes, including the production, perception and the analysis of sounds.

Pragmatics, Syntax, Morphology and Phonology are different sub-fields or branches of linguistics. Pragmatics deals with the study of language by considering the context in which it is used. Syntax is the study of the structural aspect of language by dealing with phrase and sentence formation. Morphology is the study of minimal units of meaning which includes morphemes and word formation process. Phonology deals with the study of sound patterns of language

Pragmatics deals with the study of language by considering the context in which it is used. It is not concerned with the way language is structured. Speech is looked as a social act which is ruled or governed by many social conventions. It can be simply referred to as the study of speaker meaning or can be considered as the contextual meaning. The meanings are interpreted from recognizing the apparent meaning. Thus, it includes both aspects - the way speaker communicates the message and the way the listener interprets the message. Pragmatics is simply the study of use of language in context.



Syntax is the study of the structural aspect of language by dealing with phrase and sentence formation. It basically deals with seeing ways through which words combine to form grammatical sentences. Structure of sentences is governed by rules of syntax. One must remember that it is not about meaning of the sentences. Meaning-less sentences can also be grammatically correct

Morphology is the study of minimal units of meaning which includes morphemes and word formation process. It deals with the study of forms and also deals with the ways in which words possess a relationship with some other words of the same language. It includes the grammatical processes of inflection and derivation. Derivational morphemes typically indicate semantic relations within the word. On the other hand, Inflectional morphemes typically indicate syntactic or semantics relations between words in a sentence.

Phonology deals with the study of sound patterns of language. It also includes the distribution and pronunciation. It can be considered as the study of distinctive words in a language. It deals with the

concept of a phoneme which is a distinctive or contrastive sound in a language. Phonology is about the functional aspects of speech. It involves the actual sound of words which is constructed from the Phoneme. Phoneme is basically the smallest unit of pronunciation. Phonology also shares its attributes with other branches of linguistics like Pragmatics, Semantics, Syntax, Morphology and Phonetics. It becomes a basis of further research in subject areas like morphology and semantics. It involves the study of both phonemes and prosody (stress, rhythm and intonation) as subsystems of spoken language. Pragmatics deals with the study of language by considering the context in which it is used.

Syntax is the study of formation of grammatical sentences with words. Morphology can be described as a branch of grammar which looks into the ways in which words are formed from morphemes. Phonology is the study of sound systems of languages and it is also related with the general and universal properties exhibited by these systems.

#### **Comparison between pragmatics, syntax, morphology and phonology**

	<b>Pragmatics</b>	<b>Syntax</b>	<b>Morphology</b>	<b>Phonology</b>
<b>Definition</b>	Pragmatics deals with the study of language by considering the context in which it is used.	Syntax is the study of the structural aspect of language by dealing with phrase and sentence formation.	Morphology is the study of minimal units of meaning which includes morphemes and word formation process.	Phonology deals with the study of sound patterns of language. It also includes the distribution and pronunciation.
<b>Word Origin</b>	Via Latin pragmaticus from the Greek πραγματικός (pragmatikos), meanings - "fit for action", which comes from πρᾶγμα (pragma), "deed, act" and from πράσσω (prassō), "to pass over, to practise, to achieve".	From the Greek word syntaxis, which means arrangement.	From Greek words morph- meaning 'shape, form', and -ology which means 'the study of something'.	From Greek φωνή, phōnē, "voice, sound," and the suffix -logy (which is from Greek λόγος, lógos, "word, speech, subject of discussion".
<b>Main focus</b>	How language is used for the purpose of communication.	Rules governing the way words and morphemes are combined to form phrases and sentences.	Morpheme: minimal meaningful language unit. Unlike Phoneme, morphemes have unique meanings.	Distinctive sounds within a language, Nature of sound systems across the languages. Phoneme - the smallest unit of sound that has meaning within a language.

## CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS & CRITICISM OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

**Contrastive analysis** is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Historically it has been used to establish language genealogies.

**Contrastive Analysis** in NLP is a process of analyzing two sets of Submodalities to discover the differences. It is a technique that enables you to distinguish the different ways that someone codes their thinking. **Contrastive analysis hypothesis** is an area of comparative linguistics which is concerned with the comparison of two or more languages to determine the differences or similarities between them, either for theoretical purposes or purposes external to the **analysis** itself.

**Contrastive analysis** is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Historically it has been used to establish language genealogies.

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Contrastive analysis is a systematic study of comparison between two languages: the native language (L1) and the target language (L2). Researchers from the 1940s to the 1960s conducted contrastive analyses, systematically comparing two languages. They were motivated by the prospect of being able to identify points of similarity and difference between L1 and L2. In this connection, the researchers made some assumptions. In accordance with their assumptions, the researchers came into a decision that the main difficulties in learning a new language/ target language (TL) are caused by the interference of the native language(NL). This interference is called the L1 interference. Contrastive analysis(CA) can predict these difficulties which a learner faces in learning the TL. In his classic work *Linguistics Across Cultures*, Robert Lado attributes our difficulties and errors in learning TL or a foreign language to the interference of our native language(NL) or mother language (L1).

Wherever the structure of the target language(TL) differs from that of the native language (NL), the learner faces both difficulty in learning and error in performance. Successful learning and appreciable command over the target language is absolutely dependent on learning to overcome these difficulties. Where the structures of the two languages are identical, the learner does not face any substantial difficulty. Difficulty arises where there are structural differences between TL and NL. Teaching needs to be directed at the points of structural dissimilarities. Speaking in mathematical term, difficulty is proportionate to difference between languages. But this difficulty can be lessened to a substantial extent by carrying out a comparative study between the target language (TL) and the native (NL) or L1 and L2. This comparative study between TL and NL is dubbed as Contrast Analysis(C.A) C.A is of immense worth in predicting the difficulties of the learner. This determines what the learners have to learn and what the teacher has to teach. The teaching materials of L2 can also make use of CA to reduce the effects of interference. The results of CA are therefore, built into the fabric of language teaching materials, syllabuses, tests and research. Different text books will have to be produced for each language group. So, it is obviously evident that especially from the pedagogic point of view, Contrastive Analysis bears concrete weight in language learning and teaching.

According to Charles Fries, comparing a scientific description of L2 with a parallel description of L1 is the most efficient material in SLA. From the hypothetical point view, individuals or learners tend to

transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture- both productively and receptively.

All difficulties or differences in SLA or in learning the target language(TL) are not equal. There is a degree of difficulties as well as degree of easiness. Where two languages are similar positive transfer occurs and where they are different, negative transfer, or interference is resulted. Eminent linguists Stockwell, Bowen and Marlin developed a hierarchy of difficulties on the basis of this hypothesis. This is known as the Hierarchy of Difficulties.

Contrastive Analysis has two aspects-psychological and linguistic. The psychological aspect is based upon the behaviourist theory. Behaviourist theory/ behaviourism is a theory of psychology which states that human and animal behaviour can and should be studied in psychological process only. And the linguistic aspect is based upon structuralist linguistics. It is an approach to linguistics which stresses the importance of language as a system and which investigates the place those linguistic units such as sounds, words, and sentences have within this system.

The association of CAH with behaviourism gave it academic legitimacy. The behaviourists hold that language acquisition was a product of habit formation. Habits were constructed through the repeated association between some stimulus and some response. Second language learning was viewed as a process of overcoming the habit of L1 in order to acquire new habits of L2. But ironically, behaviourism led the CAH to its downfall. With Chomsky's attack on the behaviourist view of language acquisition in his classic review of Skinner's Verbal Behaviour, the behaviourist view fell into disorder.

The CAH exists in two forms: strong version and weak version. Wardaugh proposed a distinction between a strong version and a weak version of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis(CAH). The strong version of CAH claims that all L2 errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between L1 and L2. The strong version of CAH is clearly based upon a priori contrastive analysis of the L1 and L2. The predictions are, however not always borne out. On the contrary, the weak version of the CAH is based upon on a posterior investigation. This is, by nature diagnostic. It is utilized in identifying which errors are the results of interference. Researchers start with learner's errors and explain them by pointing to the similarities and differences between the two languages. It possesses a "posteriori", explanatory power. As the weak version of CAH can be used to identify errors, CA needs to walk hand in hand with error analysis(EA). First actual errors must be identified by analyzing a corpus/ discourse of L1. Then a contrastive analysis can be used to establish which error in the corpus can be put down to find the difficulties between L1 and L2.

There are some limitations in Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. As behaviourism as a theory fails, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis also fails. It ceases to exist. CA is not effective in all responses. CA is directly originated from behaviourism/ stimulus response theory. Contrastive analysis suffers from under prediction and over prediction. It cannot find out the errors which are committed by the learners due to overgeneralization. CA is inadequate to predict the interference problems of a language learner. No uniformity is evident in Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. CA is unable to account for the failures or the success of the learners. CA does not analyze the language acquisition process in all the ways. It only analyzes with linguistic approach. Thus Contrastive Analysis is a partial approach. It is not acceptable as it cannot give a total idea of language acquisition. It does not say anything about psychological factors.

**Origin:**

Contrastive analysis first appeared in Central Europe before the Second World War and spread afterwards in North America. It was Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957) which sets the corner stone of contrastive analysis, specifically the idea that the degree of differences between the two languages correlates with that of difficulty. In its early days in the forties (1940's) and fifties (1950's), CA was seen as a pedagogical tool, through which problematic areas in language teaching and learning can be predicted. Accordingly, CA relies very much on psychology as it is concerned with the prediction of learning difficulties which crop up from learners' NL and TL; hence it needs a psychological component. It should be mentioned that CA is more powerful in the prediction of pronunciation difficulties, however, when it comes to grammar, it is not so powerful since most of grammatical errors in second language learning occur in areas where CA cannot predict. It is important to realize that there are three phases of Contrastive Analysis; each having its own characteristics: the (1) traditional, (2) classical and (3) modern phase.

**Stages of Contrastive Analysis**

Contrastive Analysis involves three stages, description, juxtaposition, and comparison. Let's consider each stage separately.

**1. The descriptive stage**

In this stage, the contrastive analyst provides an exhaustive description of the languages under study. Note that each language should be described individually apart from the other. Furthermore, the two languages should be described using the same model or framework, because if it happens that the two languages were described using different models, certain features may be described successfully than others.

**2. The juxtaposition stage**

In this stage, the contrastive analyst should respond to the following question: what is to be compared with what? In classical contrastive studies, the decision was based on intuitive judgments of competent bilingual informants. It was thought that competent bilinguals are able to decide about whether an element X in language A is equivalent to element Y in language B or is not. However, these intuitive judgments proved to be very weak as there are no clear principles underlying these decisions and as they were based on formal resemblances only which are not enough.

**3. The comparative stage**

In this stage, the contrastive analyst identifies the similarities and differences existing among the two languages. Note that the comparison involves types and not tokens (i.e. the contrastive analyst compares structures rather than strings of sound or graphic substance). Another issue related to the comparison stage is the fact that one does not compare languages in toto, instead a specifying process is usually under way, like for example the area of grammar, phonology or lexicology; which result in a variety of contrastive studies such as grammatical CA, phonological CA, and lexical CA.

**Implementations of Contrastive Analysis**

Be it a very useful tool, CA is applied in many fields of inquiry. It contributes to different areas of study as stated in the *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*: CA has been used as a tool in historical linguistics to establish language genealogies, in comparative linguistics to create language taxonomies and in translation theory to investigate problems of equivalence. In language teaching it has been influential through the contrastive analysis hypothesis .

## **Contrastive analysis and language teaching**

In the field of language teaching, CA has been influential through the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, as Fries point out: The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the languages to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner (1945, p. 9) As a matter of fact, the contributions of contrastive analysis to the field of language teaching are numerous and remarkable. First, a contrastive analysis of the learners L1 and L2 helps syllabus designers to prepare effective teaching materials taking into consideration students' difficulties. As stated by Lado in his (1957) *Linguistics across Cultures*:

### **CRITICISM OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**

During the period of 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s contrastive analysis was important for language teachers, learners, and syllabus designers. Later, during the last decades, it has faced some criticisms on its theoretical foundation and methodological practice. One of these criticisms is that contrastive analysis can predict only some of the learning problems. These problems are related to interference. According to Abbas (1995) contrastive analysis basic weakness lies in its overwhelming emphasis on one type of errors, i.e. interference. Actually, the source of errors cannot be limited to interference; there are many errors that are caused by overgeneralization, such as *goed*, and some are not of a linguistics origin but of a psychological one. In the same way, since all errors are seen as caused by interference, any solution will be in the form of the mother tongue interference.

Another criticism on CA is that it can predict the problems faced by second language learners but it cannot predict the strategies the learners can employ to overcome these problems. These strategies are needed by the learner in the learning process and help to reduce errors. . Furthermore, contrastive analysis was criticized because, according to contrastive analysis, the comparison of the two languages is of interest only if errors are regular and systematic. Actually, errors do not have to be always systematic in the sense that the learner may not produce the same error in different contexts, and thus we cannot give an appropriate explanation of these errors. Also, contrastive analysis was criticized because of the over prediction of errors. Actually, there are many errors that contrastive analysis predicts do not appear in the language of second language learners; that is contrastive analysis shows some errors that are not confirmed by the actual performance of L2 learners.

In addition, another criticism on contrastive analysis is that the learner is presented not with the whole system of the target language but only with its parts and fragments (rivers 1970). In other words, it concentrates on some elements of the target language and neglects some others, and thus the learner will acquire some elements of L2 instead of learning the whole system. For example, the teacher may devote a lot of time practicing a structure of the target language for the sole reason that it does not appear in the learner's L1 when it will be more useful to the learner to learn another structure which has a higher frequency in the foreign language (Fisiak 1981)

A further criticism is that foreign language teachers think that contrastive analysis is not of any benefit to L2 teaching. They think that they themselves can predict the difficulties the learners face. Regarding this point, some researchers think that CA only helpful when the teacher has no knowledge of the learner's mother tongue and therefore they can use CA comparison as a reference. Actually another aspect which caused the weakness of contrastive analysis is that it can be used in homogeneous classes rather than heterogeneous ones. That is because in homogeneous classes students are all of the same mother tongue and almost have the same ease and difficulty since they all share a similar background Generally, contrastive analysis was also criticized because adequate

knowledge of the languages to be contrasted may not be possessed by many researchers. In other words, when making a comparison between two languages this requires knowledge of the languages to be compared in order to produce a scientific reliable description, this knowledge might not be possessed by many researchers

### **Demerits of CA**

Despite the fact that CA was very useful in many areas of study, it has its own inadequacies and drawbacks. However, it is important to realize that most of the criticism towards CA has come up from those who perceived it as a part of applied linguistic studies. Particularly, the misunderstanding arises from the developments in the late 50's and early 60's in the United States, and from the ignorance of the history of CA and its developments in Europe in general.

One of the shortcomings of the contrastive analysis is that it failed to establish an appropriate criterion for comparison. Also, the methodological problem of equivalence that was developed on the basis of the translation equivalence as stated by a bilingual informant is a rather unreliable method for assigning a certain surface category to a given semantic entity.

Another criticism concerns CA's contribution to language teaching is Mackey's who claimed that "The principle that all the mistakes of the language learner are due to the make-up of his native language is false" (1966, p. 201). Mackey maintained that learners can and do commit errors which have no reference to one's native language.

Moreover, contrastive analysis supports a teacher-centred approach rather than a learner-centred approach to foreign language teaching, as illustrated by Newmark and Reibel, (1968, p. 149) in the following quotation:

The excessive preoccupation with the contribution of the teacher has then distracted the theorists from considering the role of the learner as anything but a generator of interference.

Concerning the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), Rivers and Temperley (1978) assume that CAH is still good in understanding students' problems:

In spite of the criticism of an unwarranted dependence on contrastive analysis, however, teachers continue to find its insights useful in understanding their students' problems, and in helping their students to understand what is to be learned. (1978, p. 152)

Contrastive Analysis soon failed because differences among languages are not the only cause behind learning difficulties. The alternative has been Error Analysis (EA). Note that in Error Analysis, Contrastive Analysis was given an explanatory role (Weak version of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis); hence it was not completely rejected.

In recent years it has been the fashion to reject a contrastive analysis in favour of error analysis. In fact, both types of studies complement each other. Contrastive analysis can result in more or less accurate predictions and can often provide an explanation for the errors observed. Error analysis can help to confirm or reject the predictions based on contrastive analysis as well as "fine tune" the contrastive analysis so that it will be more accurate; it can also help determine the nature and extent of errors not due to differences between the NL and the SL.



## ERROR ANALYSIS & METHODOLOGY

### What is an error?

An error is a form in learner language that is inaccurate, meaning it is different from the forms used by competent speakers of the target language. For example, a learner of Spanish might say "Juana es \*bueno," which is not what competent speakers of Spanish would say. The accurate form should be "buena."

### What is error analysis?

Error analysis is a method used to document the errors that appear in learner language, determine whether those errors are systematic, and (if possible) explain what caused them.

### How to do an error analysis

Although some learner errors are salient to native speakers, others, even though they're systematic, may go unnoticed. For this reason, it is valuable for anyone interested in learner language to do a more thorough error analysis, to try to identify all the systematic errors.

#### 1. Identify all the errors in a sample of learner language

For each error, what do you think the speaker intended to say, and how they should have said it? For example, an English learner may say, "\*He make a goal." This is an error. However, what should the learner have said? There are at least two possible ways to reconstruct this error: (1) He **MAKES** a goal, and (2) He **IS MAKING** a goal. In this first step of an error analysis, remember that there may be more than one possible way to reconstruct a learner error. Finally, determine how systematic the error is. Does it occur several times, or is it just a performance slip (a mistake)? Even native speakers of a language make one-off mistakes when they're tired or distracted.

#### 2. Explain the errors

There are several possibilities. Some errors could be due to native language transfer (using a rule or pattern from the native language). Some could be developmental—errors most learners make in learning this language no matter what their native language. Induced errors may be due to the way a teacher or textbook presented or explained a given form. Communication strategies may be used by the learner to get meaning across even if he or she knows the form used is not correct (Selinker 1972 discusses these and other possible causes of systematic learner errors). Explaining errors in learner language isn't always straightforward; for example, sometimes an error may appear to have more than one cause. As Lightbown & Spada (2013, p. 45) say, "... while error analysis has the advantage of describing what learners actually do ... it does not always give us clear insights into why they do it."

**Error analysis** is a technique for identifying the source of the faults detected in a product/service and assessing their consequences. What is it for? For predicting design and manufacturing errors when there is still time to change them, and it does it by going to the source, to the cause.

Through it you can:

- Identify the areas and processes that can generate the most errors.
- Develop an action plan to address them (even before they appear!).
- Analyse and assess the effectiveness of any actions you adopt (provided you do it sufficiently in advance).
- Identify errors, look for new ideas from them and apply them to production processes to

develop and improve your products or services.

Out of interest, we will tell you that Error Analysis emerged as an adaptation of the Failure Mode and Effect Analysis (FMEA) developed in the 1940s. Other quality control techniques associated with it are Six Sigma and Toyota's Design Review Based on Failure Mode (DRBFM).

### **Why should we perform Error Analysis?**

This tool has a direct impact on two specific areas, which is why you will find it very useful **during two phases:**

- On one hand, in the design. At this stage, it is important that you detect errors from the viewpoint of functionality and the use the end consumer will give your product.
- On the other, in the manufacture of the product. In this phase, you should integrate the necessary elements for the end product or service to be robust (in other words, non-faulty) and for it to be used without any inefficiencies.

**Let's be more specific with an example of Error Analysis:** think of a smartphone. On one hand it has to be robust so it doesn't break if you drop it or if water falls on it; but on the other we want it to have functionalities that allow us to make the best use of it.

Therefore, the technique can be useful:

- During the research phases, to improve the design.
- When implementing manufacturing processes for new products.
- When existing designs or processes are changed to optimize the production chain.

This technique can have a direct impact on your business model. For example, by providing you with savings in process costs or simply by changing the sales strategy through incorporating new functionalities.

### **Stages of Error Analysis**

#### ***1. Select the working team.***

You should choose people with broad experience and knowledge of your product, service or process. This will lead to more open contributions from them and will make the exercise more enriching. It is important that you designate a group leader who, as well as coordinating and organising the planning, is capable of guiding (of course it can also be yourself).

#### ***2. Define the product or service to be analyzed.***

Clearly delimit the field of application. If the study is demarcated and not very broad, you will find it easier to focus every available effort.

#### ***3. Clarify the features or functions of the product or of the process being analyzed.***

It is very important that the team has good knowledge of the product or service or has experience in implementing similar processes. Should they not have the right experience, we recommend that you resort to reliable industry experts.

#### ***4. List the possible errors.***

This point is critical, which is why you should do some prior research. Analyse the development of other products or services, customer claims, consult experts, etc. Then make up a list with each one of the possible errors, even those that can occur through the misuse of your product!

#### ***5. Establish the potential effects of the errors.***

For each one of the possible faults, draw up a list of the consequences they can entail for the customer. Incidentally, don't forget that each error can have several effects.

## Methodology

1. **Conduct a Think-Aloud Test** while recording video of the user and their screen. Your screen capture software needs to record user clicks.
2. After the standard test has concluded, **watch the video and record errors**. You can record errors during the test, but using video is easier and more accurate.
3. **Begin your stopwatch at the beginning of each task** you record to calculate the length of time tasks take as it relates to error rates.
4. **Every time the user encounters an error, record it**, even if the user is making the same error multiple times when trying to complete the same task.
5. **Note what sort of error it is**. According to Jeff Sauro, you can classify errors into four basic groups:
  - a. **Slips:** The user attempts the correct action but botches the execution (e.g. typos, accidental clicks slightly to the side of the correct radio button).
  - b. **Mistakes:** The user attempts or executes an incorrect action because they are unaware of what they are supposed to do (e.g. leaving a required checkbox unchecked).
  - c. **Interface Problems:** These are a subset of the “Mistakes” category caused by a lack of clarity in the interface design or copy.
  - d. **Scenario Errors:** These errors are unlikely during everyday use, but arise during usability tests. Placeholder data confuses the user; they are unsure if an action was carried out correctly or not.
6. **Stop your stopwatch at the end of each task** and record how long the user took to complete it.
7. **Compare error rates and task completion times** between test participants. Bring the data to your product team, suggesting changes to the interface based on the most commonly encountered mistakes.

## Examples of Error Analysis

Errors, committed by the second of foreign language learners, are an inevitable part of language learning. Through making errors, and hearing the correct forms from the teacher, learners can develop their skills. So errors and their analysis is advantageous for both learners and teachers.

### Definition of Error

The present researcher uses the term "error" to refer to a systematic deviation from a selected norm or a set of norms of a target language. In Bangladeshi education system, for instance, the selected norms “standard British English”.

However, the experts present various definitions of the single term “error”. Basically those definitions contain the same meaning while the difference lies only on the ways they formulate them.

**Norrish(1987)**, to define the term, comments:

“...error is a systematic deviation, when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong”

**Cunningworth(1987:87)** remarks:

“Errors are systematic deviations from the norms of the language being learned.”

Here the phrase ‘systematic deviation’ means “the deviation which happens repeatedly”.

### Classification/types of Error:

**Corder (1971)** classifies “Errors” into two types such as:

1. ‘Errors of Competence’ are the result of the application of the rules which do not correspond to the target language norm. It occurs when SL/FL learners do not know the rules of target language

adequately.

2. 'Errors of performance' are the outcome of the mistakes in language such as false starts or slips of the tongue. It happens when the learners suffer from stress, indecision, conflict, fatigue etc.

Again "Errors of Competence" are divided into two kinds:

1. 'Interlingual Error: It depends on linguistic differences between the first language and the target language, and is traditionally interpreted as interference problem.

2. Intralingual Error: It relates to a specific interpretation of the target language and manifests itself as a universal phenomenon in any language learning process. It is mainly overgeneralization found in both the first language and the target language learning.

**Burt and Kiparsky (1975)** suggests fundamentally two types of error such as:

1. Local Error: It affects merely a part, clause or phrase, of a sentence.

2. Global Error: It affects the interpretation of the whole sentence.

### **Sources /Causes of Errors**

In his "A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis", Richards (1971:19-22) shows the four main causes of errors.

**1. Overgeneralization:** Richards says that "Overgeneralization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language." A learner may write "She walked fastly to catch the bus" because he already knows "He walked quickly to catch the train"

**2. Incomplete application of rules:** It involves a failure to fully develop a structure. Thus learners are observed to use declarative word order in questions such as "You like to play?" instead of "Do you like to play?"

**3. False concepts hypothesized:** It arises when the learners do not fully comprehend a distinction in the target language, for example, the use of 'was' as the marker of the past tense, as in the sentence "one day it was happened".

**4. Ignorance of rule restriction:** it involves the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. An example is "He made me to laugh" through extinction of the pattern found with the majority of verbs that take infinitival complements, for example, he asked/wanted / invited me to go.

**Brown (1980:173-181)** shows us the **four sources of error**. They are as follow

1. interlingual transfer, that is the negative influence of the mother tongue of learner.

2. intralingual transfer, that is the incorrect generalization of rules within the target language.

3. Context of learning, which overlaps both types of transfer, for example, the classroom with its teacher and its materials. In a classroom context the teacher or the textbook can lead the learner to make wrong generalization about the language.

4. Communication strategies. Sometimes the communication strategies can lead the student to make error. There are five main communication strategies, namely-Avoidance, Prefabricated patterns, Cognitive and personality style, Appeal to authority, and Language Switch.

**Norrish (1983:21-26)** classifies causes of error into three types which are:

1. Carelessness, the lack of motivation

2. First language interference with the habit formation of target language

3. Translation of idiomatic expression into the target language word by word

## **Significance of Error Analysis (153)**

Errors, both in first language and target language, are inevitable in the language learning process. Errors, handled in error analysis, are significant in three different ways.

**Firstly**, learners' errors are significant to the teacher, as Corder (1987), the forerunner of EA, explains:

"...to the teacher in that they (error) tell him (the teacher), if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed, and consequently what remains for him (learner) to learn."

**Secondly**, errors are important to the researcher as Corder (1987), remarks:

"...they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language."

**Thirdly**, errors are the most momentous to the student as Corder (1987), comments:

"...they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn."

Identification of errors

### **Description of errors**

A number of different categories for describing errors have been identified. But Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) categorize and describe the idea most clearly. To them, errors fall into four categories:

1. Omission: it is the absence of an item that must appear in a well formed utterance for example, to say "She \* sleeping".
2. Addition: it is the presence of an item that must not appear in a well formed utterance for example, to say "He returned back there".
3. Misinformation: it is the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure for example, to say "the dog eated the chicken".
4. Misordering: it is the incorrect placement of a morpheme or a group of morphemes in an utterance such as "What he is doing?"

**According to Corder errors fall into four categories:**

1. omission of some required element;
2. addition of some unnecessary or incorrect element;
3. selection of an incorrect element; and
4. misordering of the elements.

### **Limitations/draw backs of Error Analysis:**

Dr. M. Maniruzzaman points out four major limitations of Error analysis. They are given below

1. Corder's distinction between errors of competence and errors of performance is by no means clear-cut as for example:

He induced me to John (intended: introduced)

In this case, the verb form used is found to be an error of performance because of syllabic deletion or an error of competence because of phonetic similarity.

2. It is very difficult to make a distinction between interlingual and intralingual deviations from SL/FL norm, because it remains unclear which operating principle SL/FL learners in fact use for instance:

There are many snakes in the garden (intended: snails)

In this case, the operating principle applied may be interlingual or intralingual or even both.

3 Error analysis hardly goes by any insights into the course of the second language learning process. For example, error analysis is restricted by definition to what the learner cannot do.

4. The first step in nearly all error analyses is compiling a corpus of SL/FL utterances. The second stage is isolating the error in such a corpus. After the second stage the attention is usually entirely focused on what the learner cannot do but no attention is paid to what the learner can do.

### **Fields of Error:**

The very common errors the SL/FL learners usually commit are given below:

1. Wrong choice of words, usually occurs as a result of learners poor range of vocabulary. For example, one can say “He performed a sin” instead of saying “He committed a sin”.
2. Incorrect use of Number, such as one may say “Brush your tooth” instead of “teeth”.
3. Error in Tense usually occurs as a result of the influence of mother tongue on the target language such as “He has gone yesterday”.
4. Error in Spelling, usually happens as a result of learners lack of attention as well as the inherent difficulties of the target language. For example, one may write the word ‘Embarrassment’ as “Embarassment” since he knows the spelling of the word “Harassment”
5. Error in Voice usually happens as a result of overgeneralization such as one can say “He was died in 1985” as he uses “He was born”.
6. Error in Article, a very common error found in SL/FL learners, includes error like “He is \* richest person”, “He is a honest man” or “This is an unique idea”.
7. Error in Preposition deals with misuse of preposition or using one in place of other such as: “He discussed about the matter” or “He is blind of his son”.
8. Error in Auxiliary verb usually found such as to say “politics are playing a dominant role in our society.” Here the auxiliary verb should be is as ‘politics’ is singular.
9. Wrong use of connectors is often seen in the SL/FL learners such as “He is a meritorious student and his handwriting is illegible”. Here the connector should be “but” instead of “and”.
10. Error in capitalization is a very significant as usually SL/ FL learners tend to neglect it such as “Keats’ ‘ode on a grecian urn’ is a famous poem”. Here “Ode, Grecian and Urn” must be capitalized.

## PSYCHOLOINGUISTICS

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental aspects of language and speech. It is primarily concerned with the ways in which language is represented and processed in the brain. A branch of both linguistics and psychology, psycholinguistics is part of the field of cognitive science.

### Psycholinguistics - Language Acquisition

Language acquisition is just one strand of psycholinguistics which is all about how people learn to speak and the mental processes involved. Even though psycholinguistics is a mix of linguistics and psychology, The research within the psycholinguistics field can be broken down into specific topics. One of those topics is **phonetics or phonology**, which is the study of speech sounds. Another topic is **morphology**, the study of word structure and relationships between words. There is also **syntax**, which is the study of word patterns and how they build sentences. Then there is **semantics**, the study of the actual meanings of words and sentences, and lastly there is **pragmatics**, or the study of the context or interpretation of meaning.

### What is Psycholinguistics?

The field of psycholinguistics is concerned with a host of issues related to the psychology of language. Commonly-studied topics in psycholinguistics include:

- Psychological factors that enable or inhibit the acquisition of language, both in individuals and across species
- Psychological differences in the use of language, including differences between groups
- Elements of language such as phonics, morphology, and grammar
- Speech disorders
- Factors that affect people's ability to communicate and understand language. Studies of eye tracking and body language are common and may be used to assess an individual's understanding and processing of language.
- The structure and origins of language

Noam Chomsky's universal grammar—the theory that there is an innate element common to all human languages—is among the best-known psycho linguistic theories. The theory has been modified, tested, and heavily discussed since Chomsky developed the theory in the 1950s.

The three primary processes investigated in psycholinguistics are

- Language Comprehension
- Language Production
- Language Acquisition

### **Basic components of language:**

- **Semantics:** The meaning of words and sentences
- **Syntax:** The grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence or phrase
- **Phonology:** The sound pattern of language
- **Pragmatics:** How language is used in a social context

Psycholinguistics involves:

- **Language processing** – reading, writing, speaking, listening and memory [1]. For instance, how words on paper are turned into meaning in the mind.
- **Lexical storage and retrieval** – the way words are stored in our minds and used. How we are able to map words onto objects such as ‘ball’ and actions such as ‘kick’ and ‘love’ and access these when needed.
- **Language acquisition** – how language is first learnt and used by children. For example, learning the rules of grammar and how to communicate with other people.
- **Special circumstances** – how internal and external factors can impact language development, such as twins and their use of ‘twin language’, the influence of hearing and vision impairments on acquisition, and how damage to the brain can affect certain aspects of language.
- **The brain and language** – evolutionary explanations of why humans have the capacity to use language, and the parts of the brain concerned with different areas of language, also considering whether or not non-human animals have the ability to use language too.
- **Second language acquisition and use** – looking at bilingualism and how individuals can learn a second language and are able to differentiate between them.

### **Language Acquisition**

Relationship between psychology and linguistics can be seen from behaviorist psychology in which a language activity is considered as a part of human behavior; and from cognitive psychology in which acquiring/learning and using a language are considered as cognitive processes. All scientific studies must be based on philosophical reasoning. Let us try to trace back a philosophical reasoning of psycholinguistics. For a new-child a language (first language) is acquired ; after acquiring his mother tongue or first language, he may learn a second language.

In the process of acquiring a language, children (1) do not learn a language by storing all the words and all the sentences in mental dictionary. The list of words is finite, but no dictionary can held all the sentences, which are infinite in number, (2) learn to construct sentences, most of which they have



never produced before, (3) learn to understand sentences they have never heard before. They cannot do so by matching the “heard utterance” with some stored sentence, (4) must therefore construct the “rules” that permit them to use language creatively, and (5) are never taught these rules. Their parents are no more aware of the phonological, syntactic, and semantic rules that are the children.

### **Stages in Child Language Acquisition**

As has been stated above, a new born child does not automatically have ability to speak a language. Linguistic knowledge develops by stages.

#### **1. First sounds**

At the time an infant is born, he can only produce sound through crying. When he is hungry or thirsty, he cries. When he is sick, he cries. When he wants her to accompany him, he cries. After several weeks (8 weeks), beside crying, he can coo; he can produce squealing-gurgling sounds. The kind of sound is vowel-like in character and pitch-modulated. The vowel-like cooing sounds begin to be interspersed with more consonantal sounds. In this stage, cooing changes into babbling.

#### **2. Babbling**

At the age of six months, children in all cultures begin to babble. Babbling refers to the child’s effort to produce sounds by using his speech organs. According to Fromkin and Rodman (248), the sounds produced in this period seem to include the sounds of human languages. Most linguists believe that in this babbling period infants produce a large variety of sounds, many of which do not occur in the language of the household. Deaf children also babble and it is reported that their babbling up to the age of around six months seems very similar to that of normal children. Nondeaf children born of deaf parents who do not speak also babble. Thus, babbling does not depend on the presence of acoustic, auditory input. Hearing children born of non-speaking parents also babble. There are however at least two different schools of thought concerning babbling. One group believes that babbling is a necessary prerequisite for normal language acquisition. Others consider babbling to be less crucial.

#### **3. Holophrastic Stage**

In this stage of language acquisition, a child begins to understand a word as a link between sound and meaning. The words they acquire are the words that are most common in his everyday environment. The words show tremendous variability in pronunciation. Some may be perfect adult productions; others may be so distorted that they only to child’s closest companions. Still others vary in their pronunciation from one occasion to the next. Because of his instability, psychologists have come to believe that children do not show an understanding of phonemes in their first words. Let us consider the one-year-old child who pronounces *bottle* as [ba] and *daddy* as [da].

A child begins to use the same string of sounds repeatedly to “mean” the same thing. At this point he has learned that sounds are related to meanings and he is producing his first words. Most children seem to go through the “one = one sentence” stage. These one-word sentences are called **holophrastic sentences**.

#### 4. Two-Word Stage

In this stage, around the time of a child’s second birthday, he begins to produce two-word utterances. At first these appear to be strings of two of the child’s earlier holophrastic utterances (one-word sentences). At 18 months or so, many children start to produce two-and three-word utterances. These kinds of utterances are used for some purposes such as requesting, warning, answering to question, informing refusing, etc . For instance, an utterance ‘want cookie’ (= I want a cookie) is meant to request; and ‘red car’ is meant to inform that the car is red (Steinberg, 1997 : 7-8)

#### 5. Telegraph Speech

The utterances of children longer than two words have a special characteristics. The small function words such as to, the, a, can, is etc. are missing; only the words that carry the main message, namely: the content words are used. The utterances like ‘cat stand up table’, ‘what that?’, and ‘ no sit here’, etc. are lack of the function words. These are why they are called **telegraphic speeches**. The telegraphic speech includes only morphemes and words that carry important semantic content. Gradually a child will begin to include function morphemes (bound morphemes) in his or her utterances. Children acquire them in a consistent order. The present progressive verbal suffix –ing (*walking*) appears in children’s speech before the third person present marker –s (as in *she walks*); and this marker –s is acquired well before the past tense marker –ed (as in *walked*). Around the time –ing appears. The suffix –s referring to the plurality (as in *shoes*), the possession (as in *John’s*) and the present tense with the third person subject (as in *he walks*) are required respectively.

## **SOCIOLINGUISTICS**

### **Introduction**

A language is not only studied from the internal viewpoint but also from the external one. Internally, it is studied based on its internal structures; whereas, externally, it is based on the linguistic factors in relation to the factors beyond the language. A study of internal language structures (or, it is based on the sub-systems of a language) will result sub-discipline of linguistics such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It is conducted through theories and procedures belonging to the discipline of linguistics; it is not related to the problems beyond the language. The following discussion involves some terms such as language, linguistics, sociology or its aspects, and sociolinguistics as well as relationships between language and society

### **Language**

- A language is system of arbitrary, vocal symbols that permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact (Finocchioro, in Ramelan 1984)
- A language is a means of communication that uses speech sounds as a medium (Ramelan, 1984)

Based on the definitions of a language above, we can state some characteristics of human language, as follows:

Firstly, a language is a system. Since a language is said to be a system, it must be systematic in nature. The systematic feature of a language can be seen from the fact that, take an example, a sentence is not ordered at random. In this relation, we cannot say –Goes Ali school to everyday. English language has its own patterns of ordering some words to be a sentence. The patterns of ordering show that a language must be systematic.

Secondly, a language is said to be arbitrary. This means that it is firstly created on the basis of social agreement. In this relation, there is no reasonable explanation, for instance, why a certain four-footed domestic animal is called dog in English, asu in Javanese, or anjing in Indonesian. Giving a name of the animal is really based on the agreement among the members of the social groups. On other words, Javanese, English and Indonesian people made an agreement to call the animal as asu, dog, and anjing respectively.

Thirdly, a language is social. We all know that a language is socially acquired, learned and then used. If this statement is related to language acquisition and/or language learning, we may have an illustration that a new-born child acquires a communicative competence with a given language in a

speech community; in the next step, he learns and uses the language in a speech community. Thus, a language is not genetically transmitted; but, it is socio-culturally acquired and/or learned.

Fourthly. a language is spoken. Basically, a language is always spoken. This statement implies that all people the world over, regardless of their race or ethnic group, always speak a language. This means that they always have a way of communicating ideas by using sounds that are produced by their speech organs. Another means of communicating ideas, that is the use of printed or written symbols, which is more prevailing and more often used in daily life. This means that they are exposed to the written language as found in newspapers, magazines or letters so that they often confuse written language and the actual language, which is spoken.

### **Linguistics**

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, as a science, linguistics can be divided into several branches, among others, descriptive linguistics and historical/comparative linguistics (if it is based its methodology), synchronic and diachronic linguistics (if is based on its aspect of time), and phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics (if it is based on a language as a system).

### **Sociolinguistics**

A term sociolinguistics is a derivational word. Two words that form it are sociology and linguistics. Sociology refers to a science of society; and linguistics refers to a science of language. A study of language from the perspective of society may be thought as linguistics plus sociology. Some investigators have found it to introduce a distinction between sociolinguistics and sociology of language. Some others regard sociolinguistics is often referred as the sociology of language.

### **Sociolinguistics is defined as:**

The study that is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. In other words, it studies the relationship between language and society. It explains we people speak differently in different social contexts. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provides a lot of information about the language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language.

### **Socio-cultural Aspects**

A group of people is required by both community and society. They communicate and interact between and another. They have a membership consciousness on the basis of the common goals and their behaviour is ordered and patterned. If they live in a given area, have the same culture and

living styles, and can collectively act in their effort to reach a certain goal, they will be known as a community. Not all groups of people occupying certain areas are known as societies; but they are known as communities such as those who are in local communities, schools, business firms, and kinship units; and they are only sub-systems of a society. Thus, society is any group of people being relatively self-sufficient, living together in a long period of time, occupying a certain area, having the same culture, and conducting most of activities in the group.

### **Social Units of Language Use**

#### **a. Speech Community**

Speech refers a surrogate for forms of language, including writing, song and speech-derived whistling, drumming, horn calling and the so on. An important concept in the discussion of communication is the speech community. It refers to a group of people who use the same system of speech signals.

#### **b. Speech Situation**

According to Dell Hymes' analysis, a speech situation is a situation in which a speech occurs. Within a community, we may detect many situations associated with (or marked by the absence of) speech. Such situations will be described as ceremonies, fights, hunts, meals, lovemaking, and the like.

#### **c. Speech Event**

According to Dell Hymes' views, a speech event refers to activities or aspects of activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech. An event may consist of a single speech act; and it often comprises several speech acts.

#### **d. Speech Act**

According Dell Hymes' opinion, speech act is the minimal term of the speech event. It represents a level distinct from the sentence, and cannot be identified with any single portion of other levels of grammar, nor with segments of any particular size defined in terms of other levels of grammar. An utterance may have the status of command depending on a conventional formula.

#### **e. Speech Styles**

The term style refers to a language variety that is divided based on the criterion of formality. This criterion tends to subsume subject matter, the audience of discourse, and the occasion. Based on the criterion, A frozen (oratorical) style is used in public speaking before a large audience; wording is carefully planned in advance, intonation is somewhat exaggerated, and numerous rhetorical devices are appropriate.

### **Ways of Speaking**

A way of speaking refers to how a language speaker uses in accordance with behavior of communication regulated in his speech community. This means that he has to apply -regulation of using his language. That is why Fishman suggests that in using a language someone has to

consider to whom he speaks. Considering the person to whom he speaks, he will determine what language or its varieties he wants to use to speak.

### **b. Components of Speech**

A language use occurring in a speech community must be in relation to speech situation, speech event, speech act, and speech styles, as well as components of speech. Those form an integrated parts in the communicative behavior. Dell Hymes states the speech are in the sixteen components, being grouped together under the letters of the word SPEAKING. SPEAKING here stands for (S)etting, (P)articipants, (E)nds, (A)act sequence, (K)ey, (I)nstrumentalities, (N)orms, and (G)enres. The further explanation will be explained later.

### **Social Functions of Language**

Forms of sentences of a language generally serve specific function. The sentences are created, among others, on the basis of purposes. The purposes of creating sentences are (a) to inform something or someone to the audiences; the sentences created are called statements (declarative sentences), (b) to question about something or someone; the resultant forms are interrogative sentences, (c) to ask or command someone to do something; the resultant forms are imperative sentences, and (d) to show a surprise on someone or something; the resultant forms are exclamatory sentences.

Traditionally, there are three functions of a language. These three functions of a language are actually related from one to another. For the sake of discussion, they are discussed in separate ways. **The prime function of a language has been assumed to be cognitive;** a language is used to express ideas, concepts, and thought. **The second function is said to be evaluative;** a language has been viewed as a means of conveying attitudes and values. **The third function of a language is referred to be affective;** a language is used by its speakers to transmit emotions and feelings.

## BILINGUALISM

### **Bilingualism: Definition**

Speaking two languages rather than just one has obvious practical benefits in an increasingly globalized world. But in recent years, scientists have begun to show that the advantages of bilingualism are even more fundamental than being able to converse with a wider range of people. Being bilingual, it turns out, makes you smarter. It can have a profound effect on your brain, improving cognitive skills not related to language and even shielding against dementia in old age. This view of bilingualism is remarkably different from the understanding of bilingualism through much of the 20th century. Researchers, educators and policy makers long considered a second language to be an interference, cognitively speaking, that hindered a child's academic and intellectual development.

### **William f. Mackey's on Bilingualism**

The concept of bilingualism has become broader and broader since the beginning of the century. It was long regarded as the equal mastery of two languages. Bloomfield considered bilingualism as *"the native-like control of two languages"*. Haugen broadened this to *the ability to produce "complete meaningful utterances in the other language"*. Moreover, it has been now been suggested that the concept be further extended to include simply *"passive-knowledge" of the written language or any "contact with possible models in a second language and the ability to use these in the environment of the native language."*

This broadening of the concept of bilingualism is due to realization that the point at which a speaker of a second language becomes bilingual is either arbitrary or impossible to determine. It seems obvious, therefore, that if we are to study the phenomenon of bilingualism we are forced to consider it as something relative. We must moreover include the use not only of two languages, but also of any number of languages. We shall therefore consider bilingualism as *the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual* (Mackey, in Fishman, ed., 1972: 555). The discussion on bilingualism is related to the socio-cultural aspects. Now, we discuss it in relation to the psychological aspects.

### **Misconceptions**

***"A real bilingual knows both languages perfectly."***

One of the main misconceptions about bilinguals is that they are equally proficient with both languages in speaking, listening, writing, reading as well as having a perfect knowledge of their

respective cultures. Bilinguals usually don't speak both languages equally well and that is because they use each language in different contexts, activities and domains (home, school, work...). This misconception can damage bilinguals' confidence as they go through life thinking they are not proficient bilinguals and that something is wrong with them if they are not equally fluent.

***“My child will just pick up the language if he hears it”***

People often think that children will pick up languages if they're simply exposed to them. However research shows that it takes consistency, commitment, and creative reinforcements, inside and outside the home, for children to learn and maintain a second language.

***“Bilinguals should be able to translate on the spot, if they can't they are not real bilinguals.”***

I am very often asked to translate on the spot, and I find it quite hard at times. Very often this is interpreted by monolinguals as a lack of proficiency in the language. However, it has nothing to do with a lack of proficiency. Sometimes the word simply doesn't exist in the second language. Another reason is that each language is learnt and used in different situations, to find its equivalent out of context requires a lot of concentration and can take a bit of time to come to your brain. This is why Bilinguals are not necessarily good at translating.

***“Bilingualism is an exception.”***

This is a myth rooted in people's mind. How many times have I heard: “Oh you are so lucky to speak another language”. I am definitely lucky but I am normal. Bilingualism shouldn't be seen as an exception, it should be seen as the norm.

Most of the world is actually bilingual. With more and more marriages between people from different countries, it is very common to have two or more languages spoken within a relationship or home. Some African nationals understand and speak five languages! Although it is hard to get precise statistics due to the flexibility of the definition and the consideration of many of the local dialects around the world, the estimates place around 60% to 75% of the world as bilingual (Baker, 2000). Moreover, bilingualism is on the rise and in most places of the world it is becoming more and more common (Shin & Bruno, 2003; Graddol, 2004).

***“Mixing languages is a sign of fake bilingualism and is used to show off”***

Mixing languages is often used by bilinguals when they speak to each other. Most of the time they stick to one language if speaking to monolinguals but sometimes the word just sounds better in one language or cannot be expressed the same way in the other language. This often happens to me when I speak to someone close to me who understands both the languages I speak. Some people might use



foreign words to “show off” but most bilinguals actually try to avoid mixing languages. If they do, it is usually because a word has a stronger meaning in a particular language.

***“You can only become bilingual if you start when you are a child.”***

Bilingualism can be attained at any stage in your life. However, it is easier if you have acquired your second language growing up as the brain is more flexible but anyone can become bilingual. The difference in bilinguals who acquired the language later in life is that they often have an accent.

***“If you have an accent you are not a real bilingual”***

My mother, who is English Canadian and now a Professor in a French University, has been living in France for some 40 years but she still has an English accent when she speaks French. Does that mean that she is not bilingual? Having an accent does not affect one’s proficiency in speaking a language. In other words, someone with an accent can be bilingual.

***“Children with language impairment should switch to just one language”***

This is a myth that is still alive in schools today. I still hear teachers advising parents to speak one language rather than two to improve a child’s speaking disorder. Bilingualism is not the cause of language delay or language impairment. In fact, switching to one language might have negative consequences on the child’s language acquisition. Reverting to one language in the family will not improve the disorder. However, maintaining a well-structured bilingual setting in the family is crucial in helping the child in its development.

**There are many advantages in speaking two languages.**

**1. Access to a larger world:** When you learn a language you also learn the culture. Being able to speak two languages means you are able to speak to people in a different cultural and linguistic context. Bilinguals can use the right language with the social codes that go with the language. In other words you are able to step into another culture. Rudolf Steiner a famous pedagogue says: “Each language says the world in its own way”.

**2. Better ability to focus :** Bilinguals find it easier to focus and can avoid distractions (Dr. Judy Willis, 2012). Indeed, the part of the brain called the executive function, which is used for staying focused has proven to be stronger in bilinguals. Every time a bilingual speaks, both languages are actually active, and the brain has to work to suppress one language while the other is being used. That mechanism employs the executive function of the brain more regularly in bilinguals which makes it become more efficient.

**3. Intellectual Gymnastic:** Learning another language stretches your mind intellectually. When you learn another language you have to focus on the structure of sentences, you have to recognise sound

patterns and make inferences. Research even shows that learning a language would help delay Alzheimer disease (Dr. Ellen Bialystok).

**4. Better at multitasking :** Bilingual kids can switch from one activity to another faster and are better at doing multiple tasks at once than monolinguals (Ellen Bialystok, 1999). That is thanks to the executive function of the brain, which gives bilinguals better cognitive control over information that allows them to switch tasks.

**5. Linguistic facilities:** Being bilingual helps you to learn another language. As you are constantly switching from one language to another you become accustomed to expressing yourself in a different way. Moreover, you have been exposed to two sets of sound patterns rather than one. This gives you more chances to encounter known sounds in the new language. All this combined makes learning an additional language easier.

**6. Deep understanding of the concept of “language”:** Bilinguals have a deeper appreciation of what is a language. They know that there is more than one way to label a word and that a word can have different connotations. As Professor Clyne says: “They [Bilinguals] have a better sense of the arbitrary nature of words, and the difference between form and meaning.”

**7. More job opportunities:** Fluency in more than one language can open many doors.

**8. Travel:** Being fluent in more than one language creates opportunities for travel.

## MULTILINGUALISM

Multilingualism is the ability of an individual [speaker](#) or a [community of speakers](#) to communicate effectively in three or more [languages](#). Contrast with *monolingualism*, the ability to use only one language. A person who can speak multiple languages is known as a *polyglot* or a *multilingual*.

### Defining and measuring multilingualism

It is not easy to define multilingualism or bilingualism, as there is a lot of variation possible in the degree of capturing a language. Some views acknowledge **bilingualism** only where **two well-developed and equal fluencies** were found. Others remain vague in matters of degree of fluency. And still others suggested that one is multilingual as soon as one is **able to produce complete and meaningful utterances in a second language**. Individuals whose bilingual capacities are good have been described as **balanced bilinguals**. However, most bilinguals master one language better than the other. A useful distinction of different types of multilingualism can be made between **receptive** (or **passive**) and **productive** (or **active**) skills, the difference being between understanding a language (spoken or written) and being able to produce it (writing or speaking). Another aspect that should be reckoned with is **additive** or **subtractive** tendencies. **Additive bilingualism** usually occurs when **both languages continue to be useful and valued**. The **subtractive variety** typically reflects a setting in which **one language is more dominant and the other less used**.

**Bilingual** means the ability to use two languages fluently, while **multilingual** means using or having the ability to use several languages with the same amount of fluency. It seems silly to Claudia now that she was calling herself the wrong term.

### The rise of multilingualism

First, we would like to focus on the ways in which multilingual realities come into existence. There are three different ways. Immigrants bring languages into contact and sometimes, as with imperialist and colonial expansion, their language makes its presence felt through military, religious or economic force. Some cultures have had more explicit policies here than have others - but all imperial powers have, directly or indirectly, made their languages attractive and sometimes necessary to conquered or colonized groups.

Multilingualism can also occur as a result of a political union among different groups. Switzerland for example incorporates German, Italian, Romansch and French populations; Belgium unites French and Flemish speakers; Canada has English and French 'charter' groups. Multilingualism is also commonly observed in border areas: two North American examples can be found along the Mexican-American border in the south, and on that between New England and Quebec in the North.

## Nature of Multilingualism

Claudia, who was born in Brazil, speaks English, Spanish, and Portuguese. In many countries around the world, multilingualism is the norm. When people **migrate** from one place to another, they take their languages with them. This is how multilingualism occurs. There are different forms of multilingualism. One form focuses on how languages function in society, such as playing a specific role in society. Some nations have more than one official language, while other languages are used in social contexts. Another form is individual multilingualism, or a person's ability to communicate in different languages in different settings.

## Multilingual Education

A multilingual classroom in India looks like any other classroom. If you look and listen closely, however, you might notice two students speaking in their native tongues. Their teacher explains that one student is explaining the previous lesson, which was taught in the Hindi language. Nations with large migration patterns, such as Germany, use multilingual education models. Students learn the official language and two other languages with the intent of becoming multilingual.

## Classifying Multilingualism

Now we will describe a framework of language-contact settings, constructed by John Edwards and used by many scholars. It has particular reference to minority linguistic groups. The framework can be used to describe a great many of minority languages. To provide geographical context to this framework, there are three basic distinctions.

Type of minority	Description
Unique	This type of minority language only exists in one state, for instance, Breton in France.
Non-unique	This type of minority language exists in two or more states, but in a subordinate position. For example, Frisian in the Netherlands and Germany.
Local only	This type of minority language is a minority in one setting, but a majority in another. For instance, French in Canada and French in France.

## Dealing with multilingual realities

Although language contact gives rise to multilingual abilities, it also gives rise to occasions in which language gaps have to be bridged. There are two main methods to do that. The first is the use of a *lingua franca*, a language of international communication. The *lingua franca* can be either part of the multilingual picture or it requires an extension of it. So-called '**link languages**' fall into three categories: it can be a variety with regional or global power; it can be pidgins, creoles and other

restricted linguistic forms whose diminished scope is at once easy to master and sufficient for limited communicative purposes; and thirdly it can be constructed or 'artificial' languages.

### Glossary and terms

- **Balanced bilingual:** an individual who possesses about the same fluency in two languages
- **Receptive skills:** understanding a language (spoken or written)
- **Productive skills:** being able to produce a language (speaking or writing)
- **Unique minority:** minority language which is unique to one state
- **Non-unique minority:** minority language which is non-unique but which is still subordinate in all contexts in which they occur
- **Local-only minority:** minority which is a minority in one setting but a majority variety elsewhere
- **Lingua franca:** a language which is adopted as a common language between speakers whose native language is different
- **Pidgin:** a mixture language. It cannot be someone's native language
- **Creole:** a language which has been originally a pidgin, but has become Nativized

## COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS

### What is Computational Linguistics?

Computational Linguistics, or Natural Language Processing (NLP), is not a new field. As early as 1946, attempts have been undertaken to use computers to process natural language. These attempts concentrated mainly on **Machine Translation** and, due to the political situation at the time, almost exclusively on the translation from Russian into English. Considerable resources were dedicated to this task, both in the U.S.A. and in Great Britain, during the fifties and sixties. Other countries, mainly in continental Europe, joined the enterprise, and the first systems ("SYSTRAN") became operational at the end of this period. Today, a number of Machine Translation systems are available commercially although there still is no system that produces fully automatic high-quality translations (and probably there will not be for some time). Human intervention in the form of pre- and/or post-editing is still required in all cases.

Another application that has become commercially viable in the last years is the analysis and synthesis of spoken language, i.e., **speech understanding and speech generation**. Potential applications go from help for the handicapped (e.g., text-to-speech systems for the blind) to telephony based information systems (e.g., inquiry systems for train or plane connections, telebanking) and further on to office dictation systems (as offered by several vendors). Several text-to-speech systems are commercially available, and are in daily use in many places. The difficulties of speech understanding are much greater than those for speech generation yet some of the speech understanding systems are also entering the marketplace.

An application that will become at least as important as those already mentioned is the **creation, administration, and presentation of texts** by computer. However, the **creation** of texts is also becoming a problem. Manuals of complex technical systems (airplanes, computers etc.) are constantly out of date as the systems themselves are upgraded ever faster. Writing manuals by hand is thus getting ever more expensive and unreliable, and if manuals have to be maintained in different languages, manual production becomes increasingly unmanageable.

Another topic that might come to the forefront of research in Computational Linguistics is the **presentation of textual information**. Traditionally, text generation systems have created standard, i.e., linear, text. If the amount of text is large, and/or if different types of readers must be addressed, hypertext is a better medium of presentation. The automatic creation of hypertext from an underlying knowledge base calls for an extension of this traditional approach.

### What are the main application areas of Computational Linguistics?

Computational Linguistics tries to solve problems in the following areas:

- Machine Translation
- Natural Language Interfaces
- Grammar and style checking
- Document processing and information retrieval
- Computer-Assisted Language Learning

## **How is the Computational Linguistics job market?**

Many people with a degree in Computational Linguistics work in research groups in universities, governmental research labs, or in large enterprises. These range from software houses like Microsoft, that employs Computational Linguists for their work on Grammar Checkers and Automatic Summarization, to the Munich based SailLabs, that develops a machine translation system, to Caterpillar which employs Computational Linguists for translations of technical manuals. The demand for Computational Linguists is increasing in the public sector. With the ever increasing availability of unstructured data, governments are searching for ways to better process and understand this information. With advances in Natural Language Processing algorithms, Computational Linguists will continue to play an important role.

## **What are the main professional organizations in Computational Linguistics? The Association of Computational Linguistics (ACL)**

- The most influential organization. ACL Homepage. They organize the annual ACL conferences and offer a public archive of all past conference papers.
- There is also a European chapter (EACL) with a separate chairing committee.
- Association for Computers and the Humanities (ACH)
- Its European counterpart and sister organization: Association of Literary and Linguistic Computing (ALLC)

## **International Association for Machine Translation (IAMT)**

Its European regional association: The European Association for Machine Translation (EAMT)

Its American branch: Association for Machine Translation in the Americas (AMTA)

## **What are the main journals relevant to Computational Linguistics?**

A very comprehensive list of journals related to linguistics is maintained by the LINGUIST LIST.

## INTERNET LINGUISTICS

**Internet linguistics** is a domain of linguistics advocated by the English linguist David Crystal in 1968. It studies new language styles and forms that have arisen under the influence of the Internet and other New Media, such as Short Message Service (SMS) text messaging. Since the beginning of Human-computer interaction (HCI) leading to computer-mediated communication (CMC) and Internet-mediated communication (IMC), experts have acknowledged that linguistics has a contributing role in it, in terms of web interface and usability. The study of Internet linguistics can be effectively done through four main perspectives: sociolinguistics, education, stylistics and applied. Further dimensions have developed as a result of further technological advancements which include the development of the Web as Corpus. The Internet continues to play a significant role in both encouraging as well as diverting attention away from the usage of languages.

### Main perspectives

David Crystal has identified four main perspectives for further investigation – the sociolinguistic perspective, the educational perspective, the stylistic perspective and the applied perspective. The four perspectives are effectively interlinked and affect one another.

### Sociolinguistic perspective

This perspective deals with how society views the impact of Internet development on languages. The advent of the Internet has revolutionized communication in many ways; it changed the way people communicate and created new platforms with far-reaching social impact. Significant avenues include but are not limited to SMS text messaging, e-mails, chat groups, virtual worlds and the Web. The evolution of these new mediums of communications has raised much concern with regards to the way language is being used.

### Themes

The sociolinguistics of the Internet may also be examined through five interconnected themes.

- **Multilingualism** – It looks at the prevalence and status of various languages on the Internet.
- **Language change** – From a sociolinguistic perspective, language change is influenced by the physical constraints of technology (e.g. typed text) and the shifting social-economic priorities such as globalization. It explores the linguistic changes over time, with emphasis on Internet lingo.
- **Conversation discourse** – It explores the changes in patterns of social interaction and communicative practice on the Internet.
- **Stylistic diffusion** – It involves the study of the spread of Internet jargons and related linguistic forms into common usage. As language changes, conversation discourse and stylistic diffusion overlap with the aspect of language stylistics.
- **Meta-language and folk linguistics** – It involves looking at the way these linguistic forms and changes on the Internet are labeled and discussed (e.g. impact of Internet lingo resulted in the 'death' of the apostrophe and loss of capitalization.)

### Educational perspective

The educational perspective of internet linguistics examines the Internet's impact on formal language use, specifically on Standard English, which in turn affects language education. The rise and rapid spread of Internet use has brought about new linguistic features specific only to the Internet platform.



These include, but are not limited to, an increase in the use of informal written language, inconsistency in written styles and stylistics and the use of new abbreviations in Internet chats and SMS text messaging, where constraints of technology on word count contributed to the rise of new abbreviations. Such acronyms exist primarily for practical reasons - to reduce the time and effort required to communicate through these mediums apart from technological limitations. Examples of common acronyms include *lol* (for laughing out loud; a general expression of laughter), *omg* (oh my god) and *gtg* (got to go).

### **Stylistic perspective**

This perspective examines how the Internet and its related technologies have encouraged new and different forms of creativity in language, especially in literature. It looks at the Internet as a medium through which new language phenomena have arisen. This new mode of language is interesting to study because it is an amalgam of both spoken and written languages. For example, traditional writing is static compared to the dynamic nature of the new language on the Internet where words can appear in different colors and font sizes on the computer screen. Yet, this new mode of language also contains other elements not found in natural languages.

### **Mobile phones**

Mobile phones (also called "cell phones") have an expressive potential beyond their basic communicative functions. This can be seen in text-messaging poetry competitions such as the one held by The Guardian. The 160-character limit imposed by the cell phone has motivated users to exercise their linguistic creativity to overcome them. A similar example of new technology with character constraints is Twitter, which has a 140-character limit. There have been debates as to whether these new abbreviated forms introduced in users' Tweets are "lazy" or whether they are creative fragments of communication. Despite the ongoing debate, there is no doubt that Twitter has contributed to the linguistic landscape with new lingoes and also brought about a new dimension of communication.

### **Blogs**

Blogging has brought about new ways of writing diaries and from a linguistic perspective, the language used in blogs is "in its most 'naked' form", published for the world to see without undergoing the formal editing process. This is what makes blogs stand out because almost all other forms of printed language have gone through some form of editing and standardization. David Crystal stated that blogs were "the beginning of a new stage in the evolution of the written language". Blogs have become so popular that they have expanded beyond written blogs, with the emergence of photo blog, video blog, audio blog and mob log. These developments in interactive blogging have created new linguistic conventions and styles, with more expected to arise in the future.

### **Virtual worlds**

Virtual worlds provide insights into how users are adapting the usage of natural language for communication within these new mediums. The Internet language that has arisen through user interactions in text-based chat rooms and computer-simulated worlds has led to the development of slangs within digital communities. Examples of these include pwn and noob. Emoticons are further examples of how users have adapted different expressions to suit the limitations of cyberspace communication, one of which is the "loss of emotivity". Besides contributing to these new forms in

language, virtual worlds are also being used to teach languages. Virtual world language learning provides students with simulations of real-life environments, allowing them to find creative ways to improve their language skills.

### **E-mail**

One of the most popular Internet-related technologies to be studied under this perspective is e-mail, which has expanded the stylistics of languages in many ways. A study done on the linguistic profile of e-mails has shown that there is a hybrid of speech and writing styles in terms of format, grammar and style. E-mail is rapidly replacing traditional letter-writing because of its convenience, speed and spontaneity. It is often related to informality as it feels temporary and can be deleted easily. While e-mail has been blamed for students' increased usage of informal language in their written work, David Crystal argues that e-mail is "not a threat, for language education" because e-mail with its array of stylistic expressiveness can act as a domain for language learners to make their own linguistic choices responsibly.

### **Instant messaging**

Like other forms of online communication, instant messaging has also developed its own acronyms and short forms. However, instant messaging is quite different from e-mail and chat groups because it allows participants to interact with one another in real-time while conversing in private. With instant messaging, there is an added dimension of familiarity among participants. This increased degree of intimacy allows greater informality in language and "typographical idiosyncrasies". There are also greater occurrences of stylistic variation because there can be a very wide age gap between participants. For example, a granddaughter can catch up with her grandmother through instant messaging. Unlike chat groups where participants come together with shared interests, there is no pressure to conform in language here.

### **Applied perspective**

The applied perspective views the linguistic exploitation of the Internet in terms of its communicative capabilities – the good and the bad. The Internet provides a platform where users can experience multilingualism. Although English is still the dominant language used on the Internet, other languages are gradually increasing in their number of users. The Global Internet usage page provides some information on the number of users of the Internet by language, nationality and geography. This multilingual environment continues to increase in diversity as more language communities become connected to the Internet. The Internet is thus a platform where minority and endangered languages can seek to revive their language use and/or create awareness. This can be seen in two instances where it provides these languages opportunities for progress in **two important regards - language documentation and language revitalization**.

### **Language documentation**

Firstly, the Internet facilitates language documentation. Digital archives of media such as audio and video recordings not only help to preserve language documentation, but also allows for global dissemination through the Internet. Publicity about endangered languages, such as Webster (2003) has helped to spur a worldwide interest in linguistic documentation. Foundations such as the Hans Rausing Endangered Languages Project (HRELP), funded by Arcadia also help to develop the interest in linguistic documentation. By making resources and information of endangered languages and language

documentation available on the Internet, it allows researchers to build on these materials and hence preserve endangered languages.

### **Language revitalization**

Secondly, the Internet facilitates language revitalization. Throughout the years, the digital environment has developed in various sophisticated ways that allow for virtual contact. From e-mails, chats to instant messaging, these virtual environments have helped to bridge the spatial distance between communicators. The use of e-mails has been adopted in language courses to encourage students to communicate in various styles such as conference-type formats and also to generate discussions. Similarly, the use of e-mails facilitates language revitalization in the sense that speakers of a minority language who moved to a location where their native language is not being spoken can take advantage of the Internet to communicate with their family and friends, thus maintaining the use of their native language. With the development and increasing use of telephone broadband communication such as Skype, language revitalization through the internet is no longer restricted to literate users.

### **Exploitation of the Internet**

The Internet can also be exploited for activities such as terrorism, internet fraud and pedophilia. In recent years, there has been an increase in crimes that involved the use of the Internet such as e-mails and Internet Relay Chat (IRC), as it is relatively easy to remain anonymous. These conspiracies carry concerns for security and protection. From a forensic linguistic point of view, there are many potential areas to explore. While developing a chat room child protection procedure based on search terms filtering is effective, there is still minimal linguistically orientated literature to facilitate the task. In other areas, it is observed that the Semantic Web has been involved in tasks such as personal data protection, which helps to prevent fraud.

### **Dimensions of Internet linguistics**

The dimensions covered in this section include looking at the Web as a corpus and issues of language identification and normalization. The impacts of internet linguistics on everyday life are examined under the spread and influence of Internet stylistics, trends of language change on the Internet and conversation discourse.

### **The Web as a corpus**

With the Web being a huge reservoir of data and resources, language scientists and technologists are increasingly turning to the web for language data. Corpora were first formally mentioned in the field of computational linguistics at the 1989 ACL meeting in Vancouver. It was met with much controversy as they lacked theoretical integrity leading to much skepticism of their role in the field, until the publication of the journal 'Using Large Corpora' in 1993 that the relationship between computational linguistics and corpora became widely accepted. In Statistical NLP [Natural Language Processing], one commonly receives as a corpus a certain amount of data from a certain domain of interest, without having any say in how it is constructed. In such cases, having more training data is normally more useful than any concerns of balance, and one should simply use all the text that is available. Hit counts were used for carefully constructed search engine queries to identify rank orders for word sense frequencies, as an input to a word sense disambiguation engine. This method was further explored with the introduction of the concept of a parallel corpora where the existing Web pages that exist in parallel in local and major languages be brought together. It was demonstrated that it is possible to build a language-specific corpus from a single document in that specific language.

## **The multilingual Web**

The Web is clearly a multilingual corpus. It is estimated that 71% of the pages (453 million out of 634 million Web pages indexed by the Excite engine) were written in English, followed by Japanese (6.8%), German (5.1%), French (1.8%), Chinese (1.5%), Spanish (1.1%), Italian (0.9%), and Swedish (0.7%). A test to find contiguous words like ‘deep breath’ revealed 868,631 Web pages containing the terms in All the Web. The number found through the search engines are more than three times the counts generated by the British National Corpus, indicating the significant size of the English corpus available on the Web.

## **Challenges**

In areas of language modeling, there are limitations on the applicability of any language model as the statistics for different types of text will be different.<sup>[53]</sup> When a language technology application is put into use (applied to a new text type), it is not certain that the language model will fare in the same way as how it would when applied to the training corpus. It is found that there are substantial variations in model performance when the training corpus changes. This lack of theory types limits the assessment of the usefulness of language-modeling work. As Web texts are easily produced (in terms of cost and time) and with many different authors working on them, it often results in little concern for accuracy. Search engines such as Google serves as a default means of access to the Web and its wide array of linguistics resources. However, for linguists working in the field of corpora, there presents a number of challenges.

## **Impact of its spread and influence**

Stylistics arising from Internet usage has spread beyond the new media into other areas and platforms, including but not limited to, films, music and literary works. The infiltration of Internet stylistics is important as mass audiences are exposed to the works, reinforcing certain Internet specific language styles which may not be acceptable in standard or more formal forms of language. Apart from internet slang, grammatical errors and typographical errors are features of writing on the Internet and other CMC channels. As users of the Internet gets accustomed to these errors, it progressively infiltrates into everyday language use, in both written and spoken forms. It is also common to witness such errors in mass media works, from typographical errors in news articles to grammatical errors in advertisements and even internet slang in drama dialogues. The more the internet is incorporated into daily life, the greater the impact it has on formal language.

## **Mass media**

There have been instances of television advertisements using Internet slang, reinforcing the penetration of Internet stylistics in everyday language use. For example, in the Cingular commercial in the United States, acronyms such as "BFF Jill" (which means "Best Friend Forever, Jill") were used. More businesses have adopted the use of Internet slang in their advertisements as the more people are growing up using the Internet and other CMC platforms, in an attempt to relate and connect to them better. Such commercials have received relatively enthusiastic feedback from its audiences.

## **Linguistic future of the Internet**

With the emergence of greater computer/Internet mediated communication systems, coupled with the readiness with which people adapt to meet the new demands of a more technologically sophisticated world, it is expected that users will continue to remain under pressure to alter their language use to suit the new dimensions of communication.

Thus, the Internet has proven in different ways that it can provide potential benefits in enhancing language learning, especially in second or foreign language learning. Language education through the Internet in relation to Internet linguistics is, most significantly, applied through the communication aspect (use of e-mails, discussion forums, chat messengers, blogs, etc.). IMC allows for greater interaction between language learners and native speakers of the language, providing for greater error corrections and better learning opportunities of standard language, in the process allowing the picking up of specific skills such as negotiation and persuasion.

## **FORENSIC LINGUISTICS**

### **Definition:**

The application of linguistic research and methods to the law, including evaluation of written evidence and the language of legislation. The term forensic linguistics was coined in 1968 by linguistics professor Jan Svartvik.

### **What Is Forensic Linguistics?**

Forensic linguistics alias legal linguistics speaks toward the usage of linguistic expertise, approaches and insights to the forensic perspective of the law, language, criminal investigation, and court procedure. It is a branch of applied linguistics, which identifies, explores, and provides answers to language-related everyday conundrums. Essentially, there are three areas of forensic linguistics:

- Understanding the legal, written language of law
- Understanding how language is used in forensic and legal procedures
- The establishment of linguistic evidence

The field of forensic linguistics is inconsistent in that it encompasses a variety of authorities and scientists in diverse areas of the discipline.

Forensic linguists are concerned with both solving crimes and freeing the wrongly accused.

Among the areas of expertise are:

#### **Voice identification a.k.a, forensic phonetics**

Verifying to whom the menacing voice belonged, that was left on a tape recording, i.e. the defendant.

#### **Author identification**

Verifying who authored a certain text by means of evaluation against the suspect's writing samples.

### **Dialectology:**

Identifies the language dialect of an individual, generally to prove that a defendant's dialect is not the same as the one on a questionable tape recording. Unlike voice identification, which scrutinizes the auditory characteristics of a person's voice, dialectology implements linguistic attributes to achieve those same goals.

Author identification is a fascinating field but unfortunately, documents such as ransom notes, intimidating letters, etc... are normally not lengthy enough to make a definite connection.

Rather, the person may simply be acknowledging that the other person had spoken. Courts are on the fence when it comes to allowing whether discourse analyses qualify as expert testimony. Either way, a discourse analyst is useful to the attorneys who prepare the cases. Police departments, attorneys and agencies such as the FBI frequently employ forensic linguists. It is a common prerequisite that a candidate pass a language proficiency test before signing on as an employee. The FBI requires fluency in a foreign language, meaning the applicant is expected to be able to read, write, speak and understand the foreign language and have the ability to accurately interpret and express the topic of discussion. A Ph.D. in linguistics is often required to work in the discipline. A doctorate degree curriculum provides the advanced preparation necessary in linguistic theory and research, to enable one to deliver a book-length dissertation prior to graduation.

## ANTHROPOLOGICAL LINGUISTICS

Anthropology is the science of humanity which studies human being in aspects of society and culture. Thus, Anthropological Linguistic is the study of how language is used in everyday life and how it is integrated into the various cultures around the world. Anthropological linguists study the languages of humans and the rules that make these languages work. Like culture, languages are learned and shared. When two people who speak different languages meet, they may not be able to communicate. The sounds one person produces may have no meaning in the other person's language, or, sometimes embarrassingly, the sounds have very different meanings. People of different cultures think and behave differently because the languages that they speak require them to do so. In other words, the way individuals view the world around them is affected by the language they use to interpret their world.

### **Speech Communities:**

This universe is the speech community. The concept speech community initially focused on language system, relationships, and boundaries, it expanded to include the notion of social representation and norms in the form of attitudes, values, beliefs, and practices

### **The Performing of Language**

The performing of language can be separated to:

- Conversation as a Culture
- Gesture

### **Conversation as a Culture**

Goffman's studies of the orderliness of interaction based on his own observations, revealed important ways we could look at how people actively collaborate in the everyday presentation and interpretation of selves and activities, and how interpretations are mediated through conventions learned over multiple, prior contexts and experiences.

### **1. How To Speak To Your Elders**

#### **AMERICA**

1. You always refer to your elders as Mam, or Sir.
2. You must be respectful. It is polite to assist them with their tasks.
3. Be respectful at all times, when riding in the car it is polite to let the elder sit in the front seat.
4. Asking marital status is considered rude.

#### **JAPAN**

1. In Japan respect for your elders is a huge concept. You may bow to them when saying hello or goodbye.
2. When addressing your authority members you would use a word in Japanese that means thank you for working for us.
3. While talking to your mom, you would say mother instead of mama. If your speaking to an elder you might say their name with san at the end as a sign of respect.
4. Often times in high school or middle school, students will refer to older students as senpai, which is a sign of respect.

5. If you don't call them by their titles, it could be considered inappropriate.

## PHILIPPINES

1. The first sign of respect to your elders in Philippines is when you meet them, and this is a sign of putting their hand on your forehead.
2. A word of respect in the language would be po, it is used in a lot of settings.
3. When your elders ask you to do something it is called -Utos and if you refuse it is very shameful.
4. Openly criticizing people would be considered rude.

## 2. Gesture

People routinely gesture in interaction, and we commonly assume their gestures are meaningful. These range from gesture and -body language to the use of interpersonal space, the employment of signs and symbols and the use of time structures

### America

- a. It is acceptable to use the -OK hand gesture, the -Thumbs Up hand gesture.
- b. To motion to someone to —come here by curling your finger at them.
- c. These are not considered rude in America to prolong eye contact when showing you are listening to someone and a sign of confidence when you stand with your hands on your hips in public.
- d. It will be rude if pick your nose in public.
- e. The middle finger to someone's face is widely known as an aggressive gesture but it is mostly used in America to signal the -F word.

### ASIA

1. Nose picking is very ugly to watch in Western Countries, though in Asia, especially China, it is perfectly acceptable to pick your nose in public.
2. Prolonged eye contact is considered rude mostly everywhere in Asia.

## 3. Greetings

### America

1. When two people meet each other, it's a necessity to shake hands with the other person. Only hand to hand when meeting a stranger.
2. Between two friends, most people will either -high five, -fist bump, or hug the other person they are meeting.

### Europe

In most of Europe, when meeting someone, you meet them with a kiss to the cheek. Except in England, where touching is not positively looked at. Usually a hand shake or a nod is exchanged.

### ASIA

In Asia, instead of shaking hands, most people either exchange a kiss to the cheek.

## Same Gender Gestures

### America

In America, it is considered homosexual when two of the same sex's hold hands in public and it



makes many people uncomfortable.

South America

It is dangerous to hold hands with same gender because homosexuality is extremely looked down on.

ASIA

It is acceptable for two of the same sex's to hold hands in public without people coming to the conclusion that they are homosexual.

### **Language Socialization**

Is the process of getting socialized through language and the process of getting socialized to language? The studies should fulfill three criteria:

- Ethnographic in design,
- Longitudinal in perspective, and
- Demonstrate the acquisition (or not) of particular linguistic and cultural practices over time and Across contexts

### **3. Power In Language**

Language plays a crucial role in mediating differences in power between speakers. There are five levels of language ideologies: (1) Group or individual interests, (2) Multiplicity of ideologies, (3) Awareness of speakers, (4) Mediating functions of ideologies, and (5) Role of language ideology in identity construction.

**Linguistic anthropology** examines language through the lenses of anthropological concerns. The concerns include the transmission and reproduction of culture, the relationship between cultural systems and different forms of social organization, and the role of the material conditions of existence in the understanding of the people of the world. So, the relationship between the environment, the culture, and the language of a people is self-reinforcing.

## CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

### CHOMSKY

Noam Chomsky believes that children are born with an inherited ability to learn any human language. He claims that certain linguistic structures which children use so accurately must be already imprinted on the child's mind. Chomsky believes that every child has a 'language acquisition device' or LAD which encodes the major principles of a language and its grammatical structures into the child's brain. Children have then only to learn new vocabulary and apply the syntactic structures from the LAD to form sentences. Chomsky points out that a child could not possibly learn a language through imitation alone because the language spoken around them is highly irregular – adult's speech is often broken up and even sometimes ungrammatical. Chomsky's theory applies to all languages as they all contain nouns, verbs, consonants and vowels and children appear to be 'hard-wired' to acquire the grammar. Every language is extremely complex, often with subtle distinctions which even native speakers are unaware of. However, all children, regardless of their intellectual ability, become fluent in their native language within five or six years.

### Evidence To Support Chomsky's Theory

- Children learning to speak never make grammatical errors such as getting their subjects, verbs and objects in the wrong order.
- If an adult deliberately said a grammatically incorrect sentence, the child would notice.
- Children often say things that are ungrammatical such as 'mama ball', which they cannot have learnt passively.
- Mistakes such as 'I drewed' instead of 'I drew' show they are not learning through imitation alone.
- Chomsky used the sentence 'colourless green ideas sleep furiously', which is grammatical although it doesn't make sense, to prove his theory: he said it shows that sentences can be grammatical without having any meaning, that we can tell the difference between a grammatical and an ungrammatical sentence without ever having heard the sentence before, and that we can produce and understand brand new sentences that no one has ever said before.

### JEAN AITCHISON

Jean Aitchison is a Rupert Murdoch Professor of *Language and Communication* in the Faculty of *English Language and Literature* at the University of Oxford. Idea that -language has a biologically organized schedule. Children everywhere follow a similar pattern. In their first few weeks, babies mostly cry. As Ronald Knox once said: 'A loud noise at one end, and no sense of responsibility at the other.' Crying exercises the lungs and vocal cords. But crying may once have had a further evolutionary purpose. Yelling babies may have reminded parents that their offspring exist: deaf ringdoves forget about their existing brood, and go off and start another. In 1987, she identified *three stages* that occur during a child's acquisition of vocabulary: *labeling, packaging and network building*.

1 **Labeling** – The first stage and involves making the *link between the sounds* of particular words and the *objects* to which they refer e.g. understanding that -mummy refers to the child's mother. In other words, associating a name with something.

2 **Packaging** – This entails understanding a word's *range of meaning*. This is when Over extension and Under extension become a hurdle in the development of the language.

3 **Network Building** – This involves grasping the connections between words; understanding that some words are opposite in meaning. Aitchison argued that there are no EXACT dates to which a child reaches a certain stage of learning language – some children learn faster than others. She believed that the speed of learning is influenced by both innate abilities and environment. Language is partly learned by imitation, so parents and brothers/sisters play a role in the acceleration of learning the language. Baby talk whilst learning to speak could hinder the child in learning to speak later on. Speech timetable created from birth to ten years old.

### The Structure of Language

- **Language** is a system of symbols and rules used for meaningful communication.
- A language uses **symbols** and **syntax** and is meaningful and **generative**.
- Language is organized hierarchically from **phonemes** to **morphemes** to phrases and sentences.
- Children develop language in a set sequence of stages.

### Theories of Language Acquisition

- Behaviorist **B. F. Skinner** strongly supported the idea that language depends largely on environment.
- Skinner believed that people acquire language through principles of conditioning.
- Critics argue the inadequacy of behaviorist explanations.
- Some cognitive neuroscientists have created **neural networks** that can acquire some aspects of language by encountering many examples of language. They think children may acquire language in the same way.
- **Noam Chomsky** is the main proponent of the importance of biological influences on language development.
- Chomsky proposed that human brains have a **language acquisition device** that allows children to acquire language easily.
- Some researchers believe that language is both biologically and environmentally determined.
- The **linguistic relativity hypothesis** states that language determines the way people think.
- Today, researchers believe language influences, rather than determines, thought.
- Two ways that people use language to influence thinking are **semantic slanting** and **name calling**.
- People master a new language better if they begin learning it in childhood.
- Nonhuman animals can learn some aspects of language.

### Language and Nonhuman Primates

- Some researchers have tried to teach apes to use language.
- Apes can communicate, but researchers are divided on whether this communication can really be considered –learning language.¶

### The Structure of Cognition

- **Cognition** involves activities such as understanding, **problem solving**, **decision making**, and being creative.
- People use mental representations such as **concepts**, **prototypes**, and **cognitive schemas** when they think.

## Theories of Cognitive Development

Jean Piaget believed that children's cognitive skills unfold naturally as they mature and explore their environment. Lev Vygotsky believed that children's sociocultural environment plays an important role in cognitive development. Some researchers have shown that humans are born with some basic cognitive abilities.

## Problem-Solving

Problem-solving is the active effort people make to achieve a goal that is not easily attained. Three common types of problems involve inducing structure, arranging, and transformation. Some approaches to problem-solving are trial and error, deductive and inductive reasoning, use of algorithms and heuristics, dialectical reasoning, creation of sub-goals, use of similar problems, and changes in the way the problems are represented. Researchers have identified many obstacles to effective problem-solving, such as focus on irrelevant information, functional fixedness, mental set, and assumptions about unnecessary constraints.

## Decision-Making

**Decision-making** involves weighing alternatives and choosing among them.

**Additive strategies** and **elimination strategies** are ways of making decisions about preferences.

Using expected value, subjective utility, the availability heuristic, and the representativeness heuristic are all ways of making risky decisions. Using the representativeness heuristic can make people susceptible to biases, such as the tendency to ignore base rates and the gambler's fallacy. Using the availability heuristic can make people susceptible to overestimating the improbable or underestimating the probable. In an effort to minimize risk, people also make decision-making errors, such as the overconfidence effect, the confirmation bias, and belief perseverance.

## Creativity

- **Creativity** is the ability to generate novel, useful ideas.
- Creativity is characterized by **divergent**, rather than **convergent**, thinking.
- Some characteristics of creative people are **expertise**, **nonconformity**, **curiosity**, **persistence**, and **intrinsic motivation**.

People can best realize their creative potential if they are in environmental circumstances that promote creativity.

## FACTORS ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Second language acquisition is the process by which people learn a second language. This paper describes in detail how quickly learners learn a foreign language and the ultimate level that learners reach is decided not only by psychological factors but also social factors.

Three topics specially discussed here are:

- The relationship between social contexts and L2 proficiency. It should be remembered, however, that social context influences the L2 proficiency indirectly, mediated by a number of variables.
- Learners' attitudes towards the L2 and the learning opportunities learner can obtain determined by their social-economic classes are two of the important variables.
- The relationship between social factors and the learners' choice of target language.

The characterization of different social contexts in which acquisition takes place and the effect the type of context has on learning.

### **Three types of social structures which can affect the acquisition of second languages**

Sociolinguistic setting, specific social factors and situational factors. Sociolinguistic setting refers to the role of the second language in society. Specific social factors that can affect second language acquisition include age, gender, social class, and ethnic identity. Situational factors are those which vary between each social interaction.

#### **Language**

Several factors related to students' first and second languages shape their second language learning. These factors include the linguistic distance between the two languages, students' level of proficiency in the native language and their knowledge of the second language, the dialect of the native language spoken by the students (i.e., whether it is standard or nonstandard), the relative status of the students' language in the community, and societal attitudes toward the students' native language

#### **The language classroom**

Language learning does not occur as a result of the transmission of facts about language or from a succession of rote memorization drills. It is the result of opportunities for meaningful interaction with others in the target language. Therefore, lecturing and recitation are not the most appropriate modes of language use in the second language classroom. It is necessary to focus on the second language acquisition process from the perspective of social factors, the language, the learner, and the learning process. It is also important to point out that the second language acquisition is also closely related to psychology, cognitive psychology, and education. The mental processes involved in language acquisition, and how they can explain the nature of learners' language knowledge.

#### **Internal factors**

Internal factors are those that the individual language learner brings with him or her to the particular learning situation.

**Age:** Second language acquisition is influenced by the age of the learner. Children, who already have solid literacy skills in their own language, seem to be in the best position to acquire a new language efficiently. Motivated, older learners can be very successful too, but usually struggle to achieve native-speaker-equivalent pronunciation and intonation.

**Personality:** Introverted or anxious learners usually make slower progress, particularly in the development of oral skills. They are less likely to take advantage of opportunities to speak, or to seek out such opportunities. More outgoing students will not worry about the inevitability of making mistakes. They will take risks, and thus will give themselves much more practice.

**Motivation (intrinsic):** Intrinsic motivation has been found to correlate strongly with educational achievement. Clearly, students who enjoy language learning and take pride in their progress will do better than those who don't. Extrinsic motivation is also a significant factor. ESL students, for example, who need to learn English in order to take a place at an American university or to communicate with a new English boy/girlfriend are likely to make greater efforts and thus greater progress.

**Experiences:** Learners who have acquired general knowledge and experience are in a stronger position to develop a new language than those who haven't. The student, for example, who has already lived in 3 different countries and been exposed to various languages and cultures has a stronger base for learning a further language than the student who hasn't had such experiences.

**Cognition:** In general, it seems that students with greater cognitive abilities (intelligence) will make the faster progress. Some linguists believe that there is a specific, innate language learning ability that is stronger in some students than in others.

**Native language:** Students who are learning a second language which is from the same language family as their first language have, in general, a much easier task than those who aren't. So, for example, a Dutch child will learn English more quickly than a Japanese child.

### **External factors**

**Curriculum:** For ESL students in particular it is important that the totality of their educational experience is appropriate for their needs. Language learning is less likely to place if students are fully submersed into the mainstream program without any extra assistance or, conversely, not allowed to be part of the mainstream until they have reached a certain level of language proficiency.

**Instruction:** Clearly, some language teachers are better than others at providing appropriate and effective learning experiences for the students in their classrooms. These students will make faster progress. The same applies to mainstream teachers in second language situations. The science teacher, for example, who is aware that she too is responsible for the students' English language development, and makes certain accommodations, will contribute to their linguistic development.

**Culture and status:** There is some evidence that students in situations where their own culture has a lower status than that of the culture in which they are learning the language make slower progress.

**Motivation (extrinsic):** Students who are given continuing, appropriate encouragement to learn by their teachers and parents will generally fare better than those who aren't. For example, students from families that place little importance on language learning are likely to progress less quickly.

**Access to native speakers:** The opportunity to interact with native speakers both within and outside of the classroom is a significant advantage. Native speakers are linguistic models and can provide appropriate feedback. Clearly, second-language learners who have no extensive access to native speakers are likely to make slower progress, particularly in the oral/aural aspects of language acquisition.

## **IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING/ LEARNING L2**

It is important for all educators who teach students using non-native languages to know how language learning takes place, what is realistic to expect of learners during the teaching process and whether what we practice in the classroom is consistent with how languages are learned. The purpose is to characterize the process of language development in order to enable teachers to set reasonable goals in the class-room, adjust their teaching practices for the learner's needs and realistically assess their progress.

The progress of learners in the acquisition of a new language (L2) is often measured by standards set for teaching in the 1950's by behaviorism. According to this view, the learner's language is considered to be an incorrect version of the target language and mistakes are explained in terms of lack of practice. This approach was proved inaccurate by later language acquisition theories and research. Now it has been shown that the process of L2 development is characterized by both positive changes and regresses. L2 develops under the influence of many factors with formal instruction being only one of them.

The L2 development depends on how the brain processes information, the cognitive maturity of the learner, previous linguistic experience, time limitations, the individual's psychological characteristics and the social circumstances of learning. Next examine second language acquisition theories and the effects of their implementation in teaching. Finally present some conclusions about second language acquisition which might provide guidelines for the evaluation of learning, goal setting and the choosing of teaching methods that serve the interests of learners in certain unique circumstances.

### **First Language Acquisition Theories**

It is necessary to make a clear distinction between the terms first language, second language and foreign language. According to Crystal (2007: 427), 'first language' (L1) refers to the language which is first acquired by a child. The term 'second language' (L2) is generally used for any language acquired by a learner other than the first language. In certain situations a distinction is made between second and foreign language. As Rod Ellis (2008b: 6-7) suggests, second language plays an institutional and social role in the community, whereas "foreign language learning takes place in settings where the language plays no major role in the community and is primarily used only in classroom".

### **Second Language Acquisition Theories and Implications for Teaching**

If, according to behaviorists, children learn their first language by imitating what they hear, the situation would be more complicated when it comes to learning the second language since a set of

responses already exists in the first language. The process of second language teaching was about setting new habits in response to stimuli in a habitual environment. The first language was believed to help learning if the structures in the native language and in the target language were similar. If the structures in the two languages differed, then learning the new target language would be difficult. It was suggested a teacher should make sure that students were developing a new habit by means of imitation and repetition of the same structures of the target language over and over again. Moreover a teacher was supposed to focus on teaching structures which were believed to be difficult, i.e. structures differing in the target and native languages. Linguists practicing the strategy of Contrastive Analysis, focused on comparing languages, revealing differences between them and providing clues for successful teaching.

However, practical experience showed that the difficulties the learners had with L2 were not always predicted by Contrastive Analysis. The researchers changed their focus to the analysis of learners' speech, revealing that their language is systematic i.e. it obeys certain rules, which are not necessarily similar to target-language rules. Errors could be partially explained by regularities found in the language they learn. An inter-language is formed that has characteristics of previously learned languages as well as characteristics of L2. Studies of how L2 learners acquire grammatical morphemes, negation, questions, reference to the past showed that language learners with different language backgrounds go through similar developmental stages in acquiring these linguistic features and the stages resemble those which children learning their L1 go through.

“Acquisition is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language, while learning is a conscious process that results in ‘knowing about language’” (Krashen 1985:1).

Krashen suggests that learning does not lead to acquisition. Secondly, acquisition of language rules takes place according to a predictable sequence, independent of classroom instructions and formal simplicity. Thirdly, rules, which the student learns can only be used to correct the written or spoken output but do not lead to language acquisition. The fourth hypothesis of Krashen provides three important components in this process of acquisition: the comprehensible input, the internal language processor (Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device, LAD) and the affective filter.

The comprehensible input is the message that a learner understands. The LAD “generates possible rules according to innate procedures” (Krashen 1985: 2f.). Another important factor in the process of language acquisition is the affective filter, which defines how much of the comprehended input reaches the LAD. Fifthly, Krashen's affective filter hypothesis claims, that the comprehensible input reaches LAD if the acquirer is ‘open’ to the input. Krashen explains what the affective filter is and



names situations in which it might be up and down: “[It is up] when the acquirer is unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, or anxious, when he is ‘on the defensive’, when he considers the language class to be a place where his weaknesses will be revealed. The filter is down when the acquirer is not concerned with the possibility of failure in language acquisition and when he considers himself to be a potential member of the group speaking the target language” (Krashen 1985: 3f.).

So far we have considered L2 acquisition models based on habit formation and the internal language processor or LAD. The latest acquisition model is suggested by cognitive and developmental psychologists who explain both L1 and L2 acquisition processes in terms of the same cognitive learning mechanisms, i.e. associative learning, analysis and categorization. Just like children, L2 learners store multi word units in their memory and extract regularities from them (Ellis 2008a).

Our goal was to identify the characteristics of the second language acquisition process and to specify the optimal context of application and limitations of teaching methods designed to facilitate the acquisition process. It turned out to be mistaken to expect that forming the right kind of new linguistic habits by drilling grammar structures would bring learners to produce the right version of the target language and to explain learners’ errors exclusively as a result of insufficient exercises. As studies of the L2 acquisition process show, it is inaccurate to view the emerging learners’ language as an incorrect form of the target language.

Errors which learners make might be better explained in terms of their developing knowledge of the second language. The correct utterances which they produce might sometimes be the result of rote memorization and not actual linguistic ability. Furthermore, apparent errors such as the form *went*\* in *I wanted to the shop*\* could be a feature of a higher developmental stage in which the learners have acquired the rule of forming regular past simple tense.

Absolute mastery of the target language would probably be an unrealistic and unnecessary goal for L2 learners in many educational contexts. The social circumstances and conditions of L2 acquisition considerably differ from those of children learning their first language. L2 learners do not have the time that children have to experience the language and have to begin using the target language before they have gained enough knowledge about it. L2 learners already have a firmly entrenched native language and often rely on its norms to deal with a new language.

Corrective feedback is also necessary to help learners see when they apply the rules they learned incorrectly. Formal instructions and correction integrated into communicative and task-based methods contribute together towards better results. L2 acquisition process involves psychological and social factors which might constrain the learner’s achievements in acquiring the second language. Among

the most important of these factors is memory, age, learning strategies, motivation, personality, willingness to communicate and the learner's beliefs about effective teaching strategies.

With so many psychological aspects involved in the language acquisition process and with the variety of specific needs of learners in different educational contexts, a teacher may decide to choose effective techniques based on actual classroom research which could show if there is a relationship between a desired outcome and a method or technique used in the classroom. The characteristics of the L2 acquisition process might be useful for goal-setting, evaluating the process of learning and classroom research results.

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# **SATHYABAMA**

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**SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**

**UNIT – IV LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS – SHS5006**

## UNIT-IV

### PHONOLOGY & PHONEMES VS ALLOPHONES

#### **Definition: Phonology**

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes

- an inventory of sounds and their features, and
- rules which specify how sounds interact with each other.

Phonology is just one of several aspects of language. It is related to other aspects such as phonetics, morphology, syntax, and pragmatics. Here is an illustration that shows the place of phonology in an interacting hierarchy of levels in linguistics:

#### **Comparison: Phonology and phonetics**

<b>Phonetics ...</b>	<b>Phonology ...</b>
Is the basis for phonological analysis.	Is the basis for further work in morphology, syntax, discourse, and orthography design.
Analyzes the production of all human speech sounds, regardless of language.	Analyzes the sound patterns of a particular language by <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• determining which phonetic sounds are significant, and</li><li>• explaining how these sounds are interpreted by the native speaker.</li></ul>

A **phoneme** is a unit of sound in speech. A **phoneme** doesn't have any inherent meaning by itself, but when you put **phonemes** together, they can make words. Think of when adults try to get a baby to say his or her first word. The 'm' sound, often written as /m/, is an example of a **phoneme**.

#### **Phones are speech-sounds;**

Phonemes are groups of sounds which speakers usually think of as "one sound";

A **phoneme** is a sound or a group of different sounds perceived to have the same function by speakers of the language or dialect in question. An **example** is the English **phoneme** /k/, which occurs in words such as cat, kit, scat, skit.

There are **44 Phonemes** in English. Despite there being just 26 letters in the English language there are **44** unique sounds, also known as phonemes. The **44** sounds help distinguish one word or meaning from another. Allophones are the variations within each group.

Contrastive systems range in complexity from languages with less than 20 distinctive consonants and vowels to languages with 60 or more. English, depending on the particular dialect, has up to 24 consonants and up to about 20 vowel sounds (Warlpiri (=Australian Aborigine language): only 3 distinctive vowel sounds -- /a/, /i/, and /u/).

- **phoneme** = contrastive/distinctive sound within a particular language (notation: /.../)

- **allophone** (also **variant**) = sound which counts as an alternative way of saying a phoneme in a particular language (notation: [...])

#### Examples:

- English /r/ may be realized as [r], [ɹ], etc. (different realizations of /r/ do not cause a change in meaning, contrary to, e.g., Spanish (e.g. *pero* (= but) vs. *perro* (= dog)))
- Warlpiri /a/ may be realized as [ɐ], [æ], etc. (in Warlpiri, different realizations of /a/ do not cause a change in meaning, contrary to, e.g., English)

#### English /n/ and its allophones:

- [n̥] - dental by assimilation before a dental fricative, e.g. *tenth*, *month*
- [n:] - lengthened before a voiced obstruent in the same syllable such as [d], [z], or [dʒ], e.g. *tend*, *tens*, *plunge*
- [n] - normal quality elsewhere, e.g. *net*, *ten*, *tent*
- NOTE: [ŋ] not relevant here because this sound exists as a distinctive phoneme in the English sound system, e.g. in *sin* vs. *sing*, *ban* vs. *bang*)

#### In sum - Two views of the phoneme:

1. **functional**: focus on differences in pronunciation which have an effect on the meaning of a word; phonemes = sounds that serve to differentiate words from each other, cf. as in **minimal pairs**\* such as *red* vs. *led*, *real* vs. *zeal*
2. **phonetic**: focus on actual pronunciation of phonemes (demands narrow phonetic description) and phonetic variability within a single phoneme; phonemes = set of related sounds (**phones**) -- if a phoneme has more than one variant: phoneme consists of a set of allophones standing in **complementary distribution**
3. In general: **allophones** = conditioned variants of a phoneme; generated by phonological conditioning(= a matter of language-specific 'rules of pronunciation')

#### Examples of allophones:

/a/[ã] before a nasal consonant (Engl. *can't* (RP))

- [a] elsewhere

/k/[g] between two voiced sounds (in languages where there is no difference between voiced and voiceless sounds, e.g. many Australian Aboriginal languages)

- [k] elsewhere

/n/[ŋ] before a velar consonant (Span. *banca*, *mango*)

- [n] elsewhere

/d/[ð] between two vowels (Span. *Toledo*; see also Span. realizations of /b/ and /g/ as in *Cuba* and *Diego* -- weakening from plosive to fricative manner)

- [d] elsewhere

In most of the above examples, it is rather easy to point to the conditioning factors responsible for allophonic variation. However, note that these tendencies do not yield identical consequences in all languages! Furthermore, some instances of allophonic variation cannot be explained that easily.

## FREE VARIANTS

Free variation is "free" in the sense that it doesn't result in a different word. As William B. McGregor observes, "Absolutely free variation is rare. Usually there are reasons for it, perhaps the speaker's dialect, perhaps the emphasis the speaker wants to put on the word"

### Definition:

Free variation is the interchangeable relationship between two phones, in which the phones may substitute for one another in the same environment without causing a change in meaning.

### Discussion:

Free variation may occur between allophones or phonemes.

### Examples:

(English)

- In utterance-final position, there is free variation between unreleased and aspirated plosives, as demonstrated below:
  - [hQt̚] 'hat'
  - [hQt̚H] 'hat'
- In the word 'data', there is free variation between the phonemes /eJ/ and /Q/, as demonstrated below:
  - [deJR«] 'data'
  - [dQR«] 'data'

In any one language or dialect there are usually rather more sounds than speakers are aware of. For instance, in many types of Southern British English the GOAT vowel the words "code" and "cold" are usually different from each other. Can you find the difference?

### code - cold

If we swap these vowels around, we can hear that the words do not sound the same - for many people, this pronunciation of "cold" will sound old-fashioned or "posh". However, normally speaking, people don't realize they are using different vowels in these words. For one thing, we use the same letter - o - to write them.

Similarly, Southern British speakers usually use a different l-sound in "lip" than they do in "pill". Listen now to these two words, first in a normal Southern British accent, and then with the consonants swapped around:

### lip - pill

Again, swapping the sounds around makes "lip" sound a bit Scottish or American, and "pill" perhaps a bit Welsh. At all events, it's not a normal Southern British pronunciation. People are not usually aware of these differences. If you look up these words in a good pronunciation dictionary such as Wells's Longman Pronunciation Dictionary you'll find that only is given for both "code" and "cold" and only is given for both "lip" and "pill". The reason for this is that there are hard and fast rules for when each variety is used:

- the COLD version of GOAT is used before the sound ; otherwise the CODE version is used.
- the LIP version of is used whenever the next sound is a vowel, otherwise the PILL version is used.

And so when we talk about the sound "l" or "o", we are really talking about a group of sounds which speakers usually "feel" are the "same sound", although they vary according to the sounds which come before them or after them. The point to remember is that, in any one accent or dialect, these variations are strictly according to rule, although the speakers themselves are generally quite unaware of them, and produce the right sounds without thinking.

One of the tasks of phonology is to discover these rules.

**Free variation** is a phenomenon where two different sounds can be used interchangeably in speech. Linguists define this phenomenon using the test of perceived authenticity by native speakers. In other words, if the two different sounds can both be used by native speakers, and are considered correct pronunciation, their dual use qualifies as free variation. Variants of a phoneme that can replace one another in exactly the same environment are called free variants. There is a tremendous amount of free variation in speech which goes entirely unnoticed in English: the alternation between word-final released and non-released stops is an example of free variation. Word-final stops can be optionally non-released at the end of an utterance □ [p(ʰ)] - [map(ʰ)]

### Example:

The sounds used in free variation can be either vowels or consonants. One common example in English is the word, "data." Here, the short "a" sound, as in "apple," can be used in the first vowel position, or, the speaker can instead use the long "a" sound as in the word, "day." These are commonly accepted pronunciations in American English, and most other regional forms of the language. Other examples include the use of consonant sounds. Some of these can be extremely technical and nuanced. For example, in American English, words, like "rope," can be pronounced either with a glottal stop, where the listener doesn't really hear the "p" sound, or with a full plosive, where the "p" at the end is prominent.

So, to sum up:

### PHONEMES are realized as ALLOPHONES:

PHONEMES	ALLOPHONES
Significant	non-significant
Unpredictable	predictable
contrastive distribution	complementary distribution
broad transcription /.../	narrow transcription [...]

## Phonemes and Phonetic Variants

The distribution of speech sounds

- the set of phonetic environments in which a phone occurs
- o in English, vowels preceding a nasal consonant become nasalized

bead [bɪd]	bead [bɪ̃n]
pit [pɪt]	pin [pɪ̃n]

- o in English, voiceless stops –/p/, /t/, /k/ -in word-initial position become aspirated

top [tʰap]	stop [stʰap]
pot [pʰt]	spot [spʰt]
cop [kʰap]	Scot [skʰt]

- o in English, voiceless stops –/p/, /t/, /k/ - in word-final position, at the end of an utterance, can be unreleased

mop [mʌp̚]	Where's the mop?
bit [bɪt̚]	Can I have a bit?
pick [pɪk̚]	That's a nice pick.

- o in English, velar stops –/k/, /g/ - preceding a front vowel become palatalized

keep [kʰɪp̟]	cop [kʰap̟]
gate [geɪt̟]	goat [goʊt̟]

- o in English, alveodental stops –/t/, /d/ - following a stressed vowel and preceding an unstressed vowel can be pronounced as flaps

b'itter [bɪɾr]
b'idder [bɪɾr]

### 1. Contrastive distribution

- a pair of phones is contrastive if interchanging the two, results in a new word

- the sounds occur in the same environment, and
- contrast meanings - make different words
- they are different phonemes

□ in English: /p/ vs. /b/ □ pat vs. bat  
/p/ with its phonetic variants [pʰ], [p], [p̚]  
is a distinct phoneme

□ in Hindi: /ph/ vs. /p/ □ [phəl] 'fruit' vs. [pəl] 'moment'  
/p/ and /ph/ are distinct phonemes

□ in English: /l/ vs. /r/ □ leaf vs. reef  
/l/ and /r/ are distinct phonemes

### 2. Complementary distribution

- two sounds in complementary distribution are in mutually exclusive distribution



- the sounds always appear in different phonetic environments
- phones in complementary distribution are allophones of the same phoneme

o in English:

/p/

- [ph] aspirated in word-initial position
- [p] unaspirated when following /s/

/k/

- [kʰ] palatalized in word-initial position before a front vowel □ kit
- [kʰ] aspirated in word-initial position preceding other vowels □ cop
- [kʲ] palatalized preceding front vowels □ skip
- [k] in other environments □ Scot

/i/

- [ĩ] nasalized before a nasal consonant – pin
- [i] oral (non-nasal) in all other environments □ pit

o in Korean: [l] vs. [r]

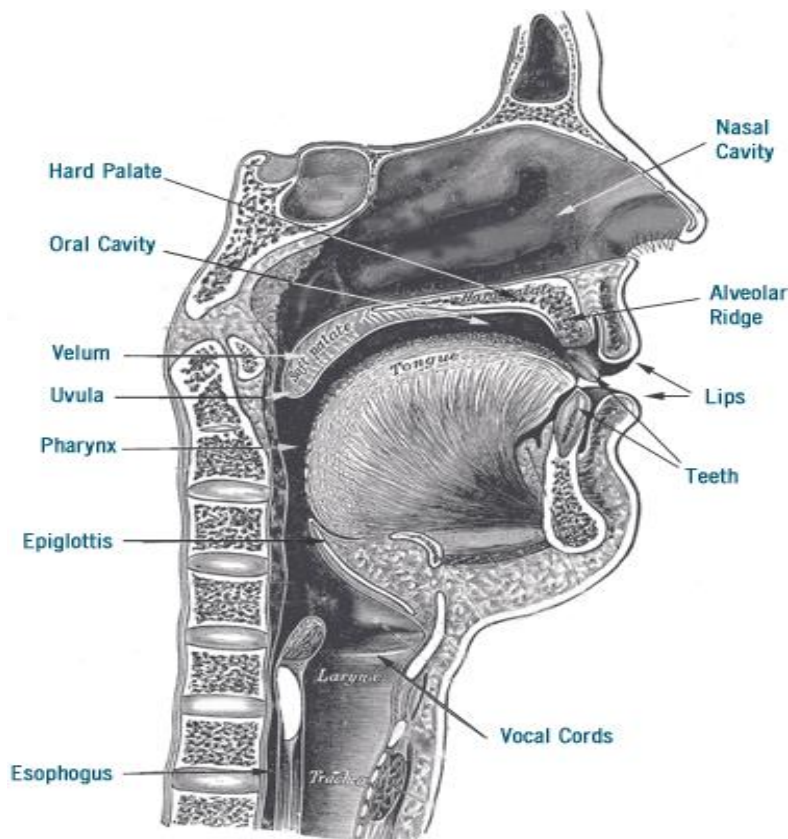
- [r] occurs between vowel
- [l] never occurs between vowels

## THE ORGANS OF SPEECH

### The function of the eight parts of human speech organs

Lips, Teeth, Tongue, Uvula, Glottis, Alveolar Ridge, Hard Palate, and Velum (Soft Palate)

Lips form different shapes, such as an oval, and movements in order to make different sounds. Sounds can be formed by using the teeth to shape the lips, in combination with the tongue, or to block air from escaping the mouth. The tongue moves throughout the mouth and with many of the other organs, as well as making shapes like the lips, in order to formulate speech. The uvula is used to make guttural sounds. It helps to make nasal consonants by stopping air from moving through the nose. The glottis is used in controlling the vibration made by the vocal chords, in order to make different sounds. The alveolar ridge helps us to make different sounds, known as alveolar sounds, the tongue touches the ridges found on this organ. Hard palate, like the alveolar ridge, is the organ of speech where the tongue touches and taps the palate when articulating speech. The movable velum can retract and elevate in order to separate the mouth from the nasal cavity, helping to make speech less nasally. When the tongue hits the velum, it also makes a special sound called the velar consonant



**Table of Consonants**

Mode of Production / Manner of Articulation	Voiceless	Voiced	Place of Articulation	Keywords	
Plosives or stops	p	b	bilabial	pin	bin
	t	d	alveolar	tin	din
	k	g	velar	cap	gap
Fricatives	-	w	bilabial	-	west
	f	v	labio-dental	fan	van
	q	ð	intra-dental	thin	then
	s	z	alveolar	sue	zoo
	-	l	alveolar		leaf
	-	r	alveolar		red
	ʃ / ʃ	ʒ / ʒ	alveo palatal	shoe	measure
	-	ɹ / y	palatal		yes
	h	-	glottal	hat	
Affricates	tʃ / ʤ	dʒ / ʧ	alveo palatal	chew	jew
Nasals		m	bilabial		man
		n	alveolar		name
		ŋ	velar		song

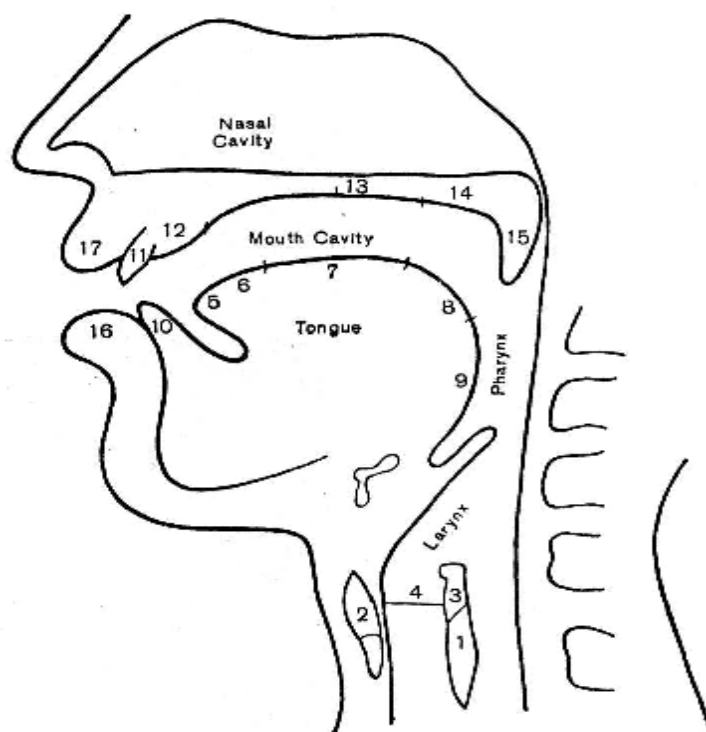
**Manner of Articulation**

1. Stops or plosives. The manner of articulation of stop or plosive sounds is produced by complete ‘stopping’ of the airstream and let it go abruptly.
2. Fricatives. The manner of articulation of stop or plosive sounds is produced by almost blocking the airstream and pushing the air through a narrow opening. By pushing the air through, a type of friction is produced and the produced sounds are called fricatives. If you for example put your palm in front of your mouth when producing fricative sounds, you feel the stream of air being pushed out.
3. Affricates. The manner of articulation of affricate sounds is produced by a brief stopping followed by an obstructed release which results in some friction.
4. Nasals. The manner of articulation of nasal sounds is produced by lowering the velum and following the airstream to flow out through the nose to produce nasal sound (Yule:2003; 46)

**Place of articulation**

1. Bilabials. Bilabials are produced through upper and lower lips.
2. Labiodentals. Labiodental sounds are produced through the upper teeth and the lower lip.
3. Dentals. Dental sound is produced by placing the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth.
4. Interdental or intra-dental is sometimes applied to describe a manner of pronunciation with the tongue tip between the upper and lower teeth.

5. Alveolars. Alveolar sound is produced through the front part of the tongue placed on the alveolar ridge.
6. Alveo-palatals. These are produced by placing the tongue at the very front of the palate, which is near the alveolar ridge.
7. Velars. The production of velar sound is done by placing the back of the tongue against the velum
8. Glottal. This is produced without the active of the tongue and other parts of the mouth. This sound is produced in the glottis- a space between the vocal cords and the larynx (Yule: 2003; 42-44).



### The organs of speech

1. Cricoid 2. Thyroid 3. Pyramidal Cartilages 4. Vocal Chords 5. Tip of the Tongue 6. Blade of the Tongue 7. Front of the Tongue 8. Back of the Tongue 9. Root of the Tongue 10, 11. Teeth 12. Alveoli 13. Hard Palate 14. Soft Palate 15. Uvula Lower Lip 17. Upper Lip

Having passed the larynx the air passes through the pharynx (the cavity above the larynx) and gets into the mouth cavity or the nasal cavity.

The following organs of speech participate in the formation of speech sounds: the tongue, the hard and the soft palate, the upper and the lower lips, the upper and the lower teeth and the lower jaw.

The tongue may be conventionally divided into blade, front, back and root. The very front part of the tongue is called the tip. The roof of the mouth is divided into the alveoli (situated immediately behind the upper teeth), the hard palate and the soft palate ending in the uvula. The mouth and the nasal cavities, as well as the larynx, serve as resonance chambers. Sounds may be oral or nasal depending on the cavity through which the air passes. In English and Ukrainian, as well as in Russian, there are no nasalized vowels. The volume of the nasal resonance chamber remains

unchanged. The volume of the mouth resonance chamber depends on the position of the tongue, the lips, the soft palate with the uvula and the size of the mouth opening.

Those organs of speech which, owing to their mobility, take an active part in the production of speech sounds are called **active**. The active organs of speech are: the vocal chords, the tongue, the soft palate with the uvula, the lips and the lower jaw. The most movable organ of speech is the tongue. The immovable organs of speech are called **passive**. They are: the upper jaw, the alveoli, the teeth and the hard palate. The tongue is the main organ of producing speech sounds & consonants and vowels, and speech in general. The mouth cavity, the pharynx and the nasal cavity serve as resonance chambers. The main organ of hearing is the **ear**, with the help of which speech is heard and interpreted. The human ear may be conventionally divided into three sections & the outer ear, the middle ear and the inner ear. The outer ear plays a protective role for the middle ear and functions as a resonator. The middle ear is a cavity within the skull and plays an important role as a protector of the inner ear and transmits the mechanic vibrations of the membrane further to the inner ear. The inner ear is the most complicated section of the ear. The main elements of the inner ear are the **semicircular canals** with the **cochlea**, filled with liquid. Inside the cochlea there are two membranes, one of them with the numerous cells of the highly sensitive **organ of Corti** converts the vibrations into neural signals and transmits them by the auditory nerves to the brain.

## CLASSIFICATION OF VOWEL SOUNDS, DIPHTHONGS

### Classification of English vowels.

Vowels are normally made with the air stream that meets no closure or narrowing in the mouth, pharyngeal and nasal cavities. That is why in the production of vowel sounds there is no noise component characteristic of consonantal sounds.

On the articulatory level the description of vowels notes changes:

1. in the stability of articulation,
2. in the tongue position,
3. in the lip position,
4. in the character of the vowel end.

**Stability of Articulation.** All English vowels are divided into three groups: pure vowels or monophthongs, diphthongs and diphthongoids.

**Tongue Positions.** The changes in the position of the tongue determine largely the shape of the mouth and pharyngeal cavities. The tongue may move forward and backward, up and down, thus changing the quality of vowel sounds.

**Lip Position.** The shape of the mouth cavity is also largely dependent on the position of the lips. When the lips are neutral or spread the vowels are termed unrounded.

**Character of Vowel End.** The quality of all English monophthongs in the stressed position is strongly affected by the following consonant of the same syllable. If a stressed vowel is followed by a strong voiceless consonant it is cut off by it. In this case the end of the vowel is strong and the vowel is called checked. Such vowels are heard in stressed closed syllables ending in a strong voiceless consonant, eg *better*, *cart*.

**Reduction** is a historical process of weakening, shortening or disappearance of vowel sounds in unstressed positions. Reduction reflects the process of lexical and grammatical changes. Reduction is closely connected not only with word stress but also with rhythm and sentence stress.

Reduction is realized:

1. in unstressed syllables within words
2. in unstressed form-words, auxiliary and modal verbs, personal and possessive pronouns within intonation groups and phrases.

**Three different types of reduction** are noticed in English.

1. Quantitative reduction, i.e. shortening of a vowel sound in the unstressed position, affects mainly long vowels
2. Qualitative reduction, i.e. obscuration of vowels towards [a, i, o], affects both long and short vowels. Vowels in unstressed form-words in most cases undergo both quantitative and qualitative reduction
3. The third type is the elision of vowels in the unstressed position

**Basic criteria for classifying English vowels:**

- Pronunciation stability
- Tongue bulk position in the mouth cavity (in its front, central, or back part)
- Tongue bulk rise (high, mid, or low position)
- Speech apparatus tension (muscular tongue tensioning)

- Length

## **Monophthongs**

By the 1st criterion, English vowels divide into monophthongs, diphthongs and diphthongoids. Monophthongs are vowels pronounced by the fixed speech organs with stable vowel quality.

## **Diphthongs**

Diphthongs feature sliding articulation with radical sound quality change. The speech organs take a certain position to articulate the 1st stable vowel sounding distinct and drawling. Then they reshape for another position without reaching it. This slide is created toward one of 3 timbres: [i], [u] and [ə] – they sound short and indistinct. The 1st element is a diphthong nucleus, the second slide.

## **Diphthongoids**

They're midway between monophthongs and diphthongs. Like diphthongs, diphthongoids feature sliding articulation though with much weaker slide. They don't radically change vowel sound quality, so traditionally belonging to the monophthong group.

English has 12 monophthongs: [i:], [i], [e], [æ], [u], [u:], [o:], [o], [a:], [a], [e:], [ə], of them 2: [i:] and [u:] are diphthongoids and 8 diphthongs: [ei], [ai], [oi], [au], [əu], [iə], [eə], [uə].

## **Front Vowels**

If the tongue bulk is advanced to the front teeth (with the tongue's front part touching the lower teeth) and the middle part is bent up, vowels formed thereby are front (monophthongs [i:], [e], [æ] and the [eə], [ei] diphthongs' 1st elements).

## **Back Vowels**

The [u:], [o:], [o] monophthongs and the [oi] diphthong's 1st element form with the tongue bulk pulled back and its back part bent up.

## **Back Advanced Vowels**

In articulating [u], [a:] and starting [uə] the tongue bulk is slightly advanced compared to its position in the back mouth cavity.

## **Central (Mixed) Vowels**

Central vowels ([e:], [ə], [a] and [əu]'s 1st element) are pronounced with the tongue bulk in the mouth cavity center. Here both the mid and back parts are equally risen.

## **High Vowels**

[i:], [i], [u], [u:] and [iə], [uə]'s 1st elements are pronounced with the tongue bulk high in the mouth cavity.

## Mid Vowels

[e], [e:], [ə], [o:] and [ei], [əu], [eə]'s 1st elements are pronounced with the tongue bulk amid the mouth cavity, its mid and back parts equally risen.

## Low Vowels

[a], [æ], [a:], [o] and [oi], [ai], [au]'s 1st elements are pronounced with the tongue bulk low in the mouth cavity.

## Tense Vowels

Monophthongs can be pronounced with some muscular tension like in [a:], [o:] or without it like in [i], [a]. The [i:], [u:], [o:], [a:], [e:] vowels are **tense** with the rest as **lax**. Diphthongs are considered **semi-tense** as tension typically weakens toward their articulation. Diphthongoids feature some tensioning up to vowel ending as a diphthongoid's sliding sector is in the vowel sound beginning, not at its end like in diphthongs.

## Long/Short Vowels

Vowels are historically divided into long and short. However their distinction is based on quality characteristics as the factual sound length of historically long vowels may change. Positionally conditioned length variants depend on syllable type, syllable-ending consonant type, word accent structure, and word intonation.

## Vowel Sounds

1. /a/ as in **cat**
2. /e/ as in **bet**
3. /i/ as in **kid**
4. /o/ as in **hot**
5. /u/ as in **nut**
6. /æ/ as in **favor** (Symbol for sound doesn't match spelling)
7. /ee/ as in **see**
8. /ie/ as in **tie**
9. /oe/ as in **toe**
10. /ue/ as in **cue**
11. /oo/ as in **zoo**
12. /oul/ as in **would**
13. /ow/ as in **cow**
14. /oy/ as in **boy**
15. /aw/ as in **saw**
16. /er/ as in **her**
17. /ar/ as in **car**
18. /or/ as in **for**
19. /err/ as in **merry**



## DIPHTHONGS

In Standard American English, a Diphthong is a “union of two vowels forming a compound in one syllable”. (Websters) It is a vowel sound that changes in the course of articulation. A diphthong is a long vowel sound made by gliding from one position of the mouth to another within the same syllable. Depending on your accent, you may use up to 8 diphthongs in English pronunciation, and here they are, in rough order of popularity.

### Diphthongs

There are 8 diphthong phonemes. Diphthongs are glides. They differ from vowels in being unstable, i.e. the individual sound has an initial phase that is different from the rest. To simplify we say that the sound starts in one vowel position but glides into another. SBE diphthongs have a much more dominant first element than second: the glide is sometimes quite short (in the direction of another vowel sound); in slow speech the glide tends to become longer. There are 5 rising diphthongs, and 3 centering diphthongs. For the sake of clarity, the diagrams are set up with 4 diphthongs each.



1. An /aɪ/ is what you use to see with.... It's generally spelt with an 'i' like in LIKE, RIGHT and TIME, but it's also spelt with 'y' as in CRY & MY.
2. /eɪ/ is the first letter of the Roman alphabet. The sound is found in words spelt with 'a' like MAKE, RAIN & STAY, and others spelt with an 'e' like EIGHT and STEAK.
3. /əʊ/ is what you say when you're surprised by something OH! or with slightly different intonation, when you are intrigued by something OH! Its spelling nearly always includes an 'o' like in GO, SHOW, LOAN & THOUGH, though some other spellings can occur like SEW.
4. /aʊ/ is what you say when something hurts: OW! It's normally spelt OU like in ROUND & MOUSE, or OW like in BROWN & HOW.
5. /eə/ is what you breathe, except in London of course, where it's known as smog. The sound is found in words with combinations of AR like PAIR, STARE, AEROPLANE, & BEAR.
6. An /ɪə/ is what you use to hear with. It is commonly found in words containing 'e' and 'r' like CAREER, HERE, NEAR & YEAR, but it's found in words without 'r' too like IDEA.
7. /ɔɪ/ is what you say to grab someone's attention: OY! It's found in words spelt OY like TOY, BOY & ANNOY and in words spelt with OI like FOIL & COIN.
8. We don't teach the sound /ʊə/ any more at [Pronunciation Studio](#), why? Because we don't say it, we say /'bɔː/ instead of /'bʊə

## Long Diphthongs

Phonetic Symbol - Long Form	Examples of the Long form	Phonetic Symbol - Short Form	Examples of the Short form
eɪ	<u>stay</u>	eɪ	<u>bathing</u>
aɪ	<u>behind</u>	aɪ	<u>mightily</u>
ɔɪ	<u>Troy</u>	ɔɪ	<u>joyful</u>
oʊ	<u>intone</u>	oʊ	<u>lonely</u>
ɑʊ	<u>sound</u>	ɑʊ	<u>boisterous</u>

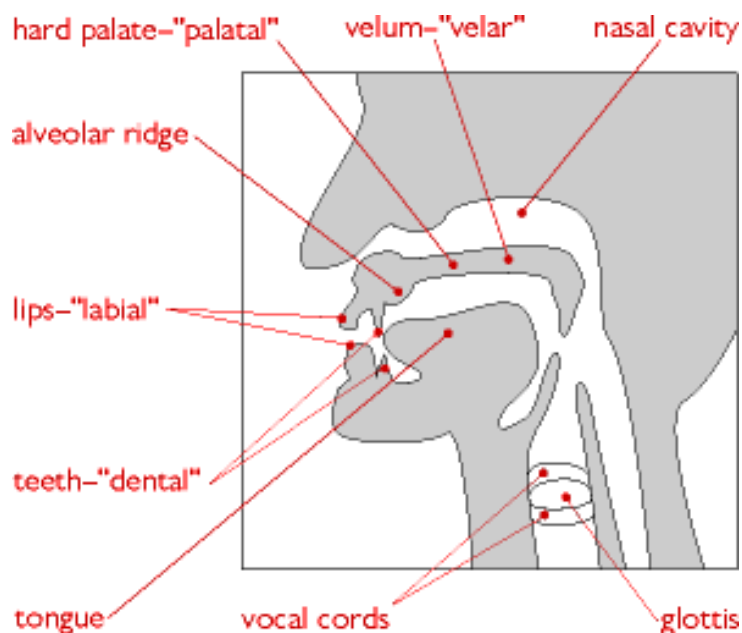
The remaining five diphthongs are always pronounced short.

## The Always Short Diphthongs

Phonetic Symbol	Example
ɪə	<u>cheer</u>
ɛə	<u>rare</u>
ʊə	<u>tours</u>
ɔə	<u>more</u>
ɑə	<u>far</u>

## CONSONANTS IN ENGLISH

Speech sounds are broadly divided into two categories, namely, Vowels and Consonants. All **consonants** may be classified as either **voiced** or **voiceless**. In articulating a **voiced consonant**, the **vocal cords are vibrating**. (The vibration may easily be felt by gripping the larynx--the "Adam's apple"--between the fingers and the thumb while articulating the consonant.) In articulating an **unvoiced consonant**, the **vocal cords are not vibrating**. Present-Day English has several consonant pairs that are articulated alike except that one is voiced and the other is unvoiced. Some examples are the phoneme spelled *b* in *bat* (voiced) and the phoneme spelled *p* in *pat* (unvoiced); the phoneme spelled *d* in *dab* (voiced) and the phoneme spelled *t* in *tab* (unvoiced); the phoneme spelled *th* in *this* (voiced) and the phoneme spelled *th* in *thistle* (unvoiced). Consonants may also be classified according to the **manner of articulation** and the **point of articulation**: that is, how and where the flow of air is stopped or impeded when the consonant is articulated.



A consonant is a speech sound that's not a vowel. The sound of a consonant is produced by a partial or complete obstruction of the airstream by a constriction of the speech organs. In writing, a consonant is any letter of the alphabet except A, E, I, O, U, and sometimes Y.

### Consonants vs. Vowels

When consonants and vowels are put together, they form syllables, which are the basic units of pronunciation. Syllables, in turn, are the foundation of words in English grammar. Phonetically, however, consonants are much more variable. In his book "Letter Perfect," the author David Sacks described the difference this way: "Whereas vowels are pronounced from the vocal cords with minimal shaping of expelled breath, consonant sounds are created through obstruction or channeling of the breath by the lips, teeth, tongue, throat, or nasal passage... Some consonants, like B, involve the vocal cords; others don't. Some, like R or W, flow the breath in a way that steers them relatively close to being vowels."

## Consonant Blends and Digraphs

When two or more consonant sounds are pronounced in succession without an intervening vowel (as in the words "dream" and "bursts"), the group is called a consonant blend or consonant cluster. In a consonant blend, the sound of each individual letter can be heard. By contrast, in a consonant digraph, two successive letters represent a single sound. Common digraphs include G and H, which together mimic the sound of F (as in the word "enough"), and the letters P and H, which also sound like an F (as in "phone").

## Silent Consonants

In a number of cases in English, consonant letters can be silent, such as the letter B following M (as in the word "dumb"), the letter K before N ("know"), and the letters B and P before T ("debt" and "receipt"). When a double consonant appears in a word, usually only one of the two consonants is sounded (as in "ball" or "summer").

## Stop Consonants

Consonants can also serve as a means of bracketing a vowel, stopping their sound. They are called stop consonants because the air in the vocal tract is completely stopped at some point, usually by the tongue, lips, or teeth. The letters B, D, and G are the most frequently used stops, though P, T, and K also can serve the same function. Words that contain stop consonants include "bib" and "kit."

## Consonance

Broadly, consonance is the repetition of consonant sounds; more specifically, consonance is the repetition of the final consonant sounds of accented syllables or important words. Consonance is frequently used in poetry, song lyrics, and prose when the writer wants to create a sense of rhythm. One well-known example of this literary device is the tongue twister, "She sells seashells by the seashore."

## Examples of Words with Consonant Blends

- Blend, bland, blue, black, blanket, bleach, blood, blast, blatant, blame, bluebird, bleak, blaze, blind, block
- Click, clam, clean, claim, class, clap, clay, close, clash, clothes, climb, cling, clock
- Crab, crumb, crib, cry, crank, crow, crew, crazy, create, credit, creature
- Draw, dream, drain, dress, drone, drink, drag, dragon, drop, drawer, dry
- From, freezer, free, freedom, frozen, frighten, friend, fruit, freak

## There are different types of consonant sounds

- Plosive - explosive sounds (20 - 26 in the diagram)
- Fricative - friction sounds (27 - 34 in the diagram)
- Affricate - plosive followed by fricative (35 - 36 in the diagram)
- Nasal - partly made through the nose (37 - 39 in the diagram)

## Notation for Consonant Sounds

### Consonant Sounds

1. /b/ as in **bet**
2. /c/ as in **cot**
3. /d/ as in **dip**
4. /f/ as in **fan**

5. /g/ as in **got**
6. /h/ as in **hot**
7. /j/ as in **jar**
8. /l/ as in **land**
9. /m/ as in **mat**
10. /n/ as in **nap**
11. /p/ as in **pet**
12. /r/ as in **red**
13. /s/ as in **sip**
14. /t/ as in **tip**
15. /v/ as in **van**
16. /w/ as in **wet**
17. /z/ as in **zip**
18. /sh/ as in **ship**
19. /ch/ as in **chip**
20. /th/ as in **thin**
21. /the/ as in **this** (Symbol for sound doesn't match spelling)
22. /ng/ as in **rung**
23. /hw/ as in **when** (Symbol for sound doesn't match spelling)
24. /zh/ as in **vision** (Symbol for sound doesn't match spelling)

Letters	Sounds	Examples
b	[b]	baby, best, buy, bring, blind, absent, about, number, labor, robber, tub
c	[s] [k]	center, cellar, cigarette, cinema, agency, notice; cake, come, cucumber, clean, cry, scratch, act, panic
d	[d]	day, dear, die, door, duty, admire, hidden, lady, kind, ride, ended
f	[f]	fast, female, five, forest, fund, fry, flight, often, deaf, cuff
g	[g] [j] [zh]	game, gap, get, go, gun, great, global, giggle, ago, begin, dog, egg; general, gin, giant, agent, suggest, Egypt, energy, huge, manage; mirage, garage, beige, rouge
h	[h] [-]	hair, help, history, home, hotel, hunt, behind, inherit; hour, honor, honest, heir, vehicle, Sarah
j	[j]	jam, Jane, jet, jelly, Jim, jingle, joke, John, June, just
k	[k]	Kate, kind, kill, kilogram, sky, blanket, break, take, look
l	[l]	late, let, live, alone, close, slim, please, old, nicely, table, file, all
m	[m]	make, men, mind, mother, must, my, common, summer, name, form, team
n	[n]	napkin, never, night, no, nuclear, funny, student, kindness, ton, sun
p	[p]	paper, person, pick, pour, public, repair, apple, keep, top, crisp
q (qu)	[kw] [k]	quality, question, quite, quote, equal, require; unique, technique, antique, grotesque

r	[r]	rain, red, rise, brief, grow, scream, truck, arrive, hurry, turn, more, car
s	[s] [z]	send, simple, song, system, street, lost, kiss, release; cause, present, reason, realism, advise, always, is, was
t	[t]	task, tell, time, tone, tune, hotel, attentive, student, boat, rest
v	[v]	vast, vein, vivid, voice, even, review, invest, give, move, active
w	[w]	wall, war, way, west, wind, word, would, swear, swim, twenty, twist
x	[ks] [gz] [z]	exercise, exchange, expect, ex-wife, axis, fix, relax; exam, exact, executive, exert, exist, exit, exult; Xenon, Xerox, xenophobia, xylophone
z	[z] [ts]	zero, zoo, horizon, puzzle, crazy, organize, quiz, jazz; pizza, Mozart, Nazi, waltz

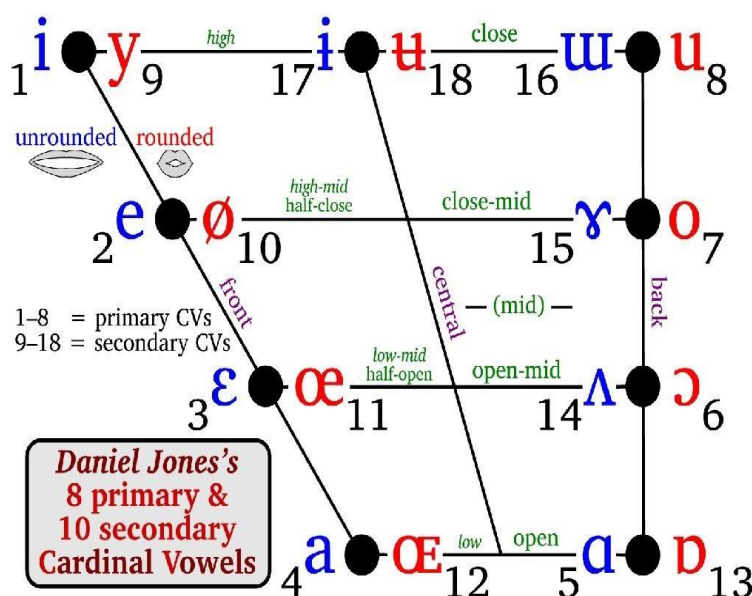
### Consonant combinations

Letters	Sounds	Examples
cc	[ks] [k]	accent, accept, access, eccentric, accident; accommodate, account, accuse, occur, acclaim
ch tch	[ch]	chain, check, chief, choose, teacher, much, church; kitchen, catch, match, watch, pitch, stretch
ch (Latin, Greek) ch (French)	[k] [sh]	character, chemical, Chris, archive, mechanic, technical, ache; champagne, charlatan, chef, chic, machine, cache
ck	[k]	black, pack, deck, kick, pick, cracker, pocket, rocket
dge	[j]	bridge, edge, judge, knowledge, budget, badger
gh	[g] [f] [-]	ghost, ghastly, Ghana, ghetto; cough, enough, rough, tough, laugh; though, through, weigh, neighbor, bought, daughter
gu	[g] [gw]	guard, guess, guest, guide, guitar, dialogue; language, linguistics, Guatemala, Nicaragua
ng	[ŋ] [ŋ]+[g]	king, sing, singer, singing, bang, long, wrong, tongue; finger, anger, angry, longer, longest, single
ph	[f]	phone, photograph, phrase, phenomenon, biography
qu	[kw] [k]	quality, question, quite, quote, equal, require; unique, technique, antique, grotesque
sc	[s] [sk]	science, scissors, scene, scent, scythe; scan, scandal, scare, score, Scotch, scuba
sch	[sk] [sh]	school, scholar, scheme, schedule; schnauzer, schedule
sh	[sh]	share, she, shine, shoe, fish, cash, push, punish
th	[θ] [ð]	thank, thick, think, thought, thunder, author, breath, bath; this, that, then, though, father, brother, breathe, bathe
wh	[w] [h]	what, when, where, which, while, why, whale, wheel, white; who, whom, whose, whole
xh	[ks] [ks]+[h] [g]+[z]	exhibition; exhumation, exhume, exhale; exhaust, exhibit, exhilarate, exhort, exhume, exhale

<b>With silent letters</b>	<b>Sounds</b>	<b>Examples</b>
bt, pt	[t]	doubt, debt, subtle; receipt, pterodactyl
kn, gn, pn	[n]	knee, knife, know; gnome, sign, foreign; pneumonia, pneumatic
mb, lm	[m]	lamb, climb, bomb, comb, tomb; calm, palm, salmon
ps	[s]	psalm, pseudonym, psychologist, psychiatrist
rh	[r]	rhapsody, rhetoric, rheumatism, rhythm, rhyme
wr	[r]	wrap, wreck, wrestle, wrinkle, wrist, write, wrong
<b>Letters in the suffix</b>	<b>Sounds</b>	<b>Examples</b>
ti, ci, si, su	[sh]	nation, patient, special, vicious, pension, Asia, sensual, pressure
si, su	[zh]	vision, fusion, Asia, usual, visual, measure, pleasure

## CARDINAL VOWELS

1. A cardinal vowel is a vowel sound produced when the tongue is in an extreme position, either front or back, high or low. The current system was systematised by Daniel Jones in the early 20th century, though the idea goes back to earlier phoneticians, notably Ellis and Bell.
2. Cardinal vowels are not vowels of any particular language, but a measuring system. However, some languages contain vowel or vowels that are close to the cardinal vowel(s). An example of such language is Ngwe, which is spoken in West Africa. It has been cited as a language with a vowel system that has 8 vowels which are rather similar to the 8 primary cardinal vowels (Ladefoged 1971:67).
3. Three of the cardinal vowels—[i], [a] and [u]—have articulatory definitions. The vowel [i] is produced with the tongue as far forward and as high in the mouth as is possible (without producing friction), with spread lips. The vowel [u] is produced with the tongue as far back and as high in the mouth as is possible, with protruded lips. This sound can be approximated by adopting the posture to whistle a very low note, or to blow out a candle. And [a] is produced with the tongue as low and as far back in the mouth as possible.
4. The other vowels are 'auditorily equidistant' between these three 'corner vowels', at four degrees of aperture or 'height': close (high tongue position), close-mid, open-mid, and open (low tongue position).
5. These degrees of aperture plus the front-back distinction define 8 reference points on a mixture of articulatory and auditory criteria. These eight vowels are known as the eight 'primary cardinal vowels', and vowels like these are common in the world's languages.
6. The lip positions can be reversed with the lip position for the corresponding vowel on the opposite side of the front-back dimension, so that e.g. Cardinal 1 can be produced with rounding somewhat similar to that of Cardinal 9 (though normally compressed rather than protruded); these are known as 'secondary cardinal vowels'. Sounds such as these are claimed to be less common in the world's languages. Other vowel sounds are also recognised on the vowel chart of the International Phonetic Alphabet.





## CARDINAL IPA DESCRIPTION

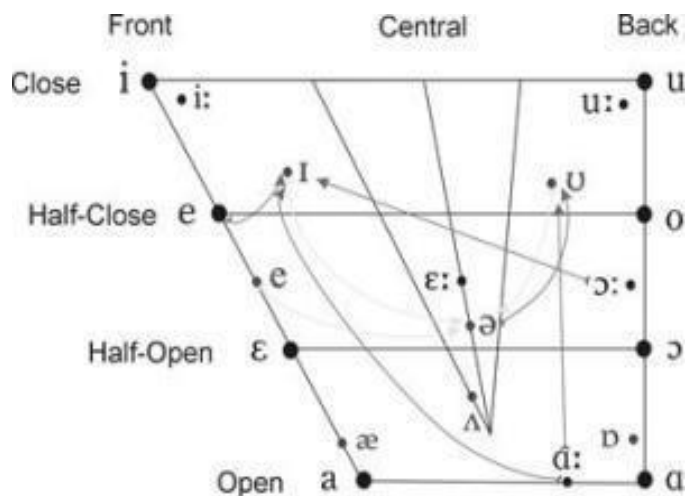
- 1 [i] close front unrounded vowel
- 2 [e] close-mid front unrounded vowel
- 3 [ɛ] open-mid front unrounded vowel
- 4 [a] open front unrounded vowel
- 5 [ɑ] open back unrounded vowel
- 6 [ɔ] open-mid back rounded vowel
- 7 [o] close-mid back rounded vowel
- 8 [u] close back rounded vowel
- 9 [y] close front rounded vowel
- 10 [ø] close-mid front rounded vowel
- 11 [œ] open-mid front rounded vowel
- 12 [ɶ] open front rounded vowel
- 13 [ɐ] open back rounded vowel
- 14 [ʌ] open-mid back unrounded vowel
- 15 [ɤ] close-mid back unrounded vowel
- 16 [ɯ] close back unrounded vowel
- 17 [ɨ] Close central unrounded vowel
- 18 [ʉ] Close central rounded vowel

**Front Vowels:** /i:/ – cream, seen (long high front spread vowel) /i/ – bit, silly (short high front spread vowel) /e/ – bet, head (short mid front spread vowel) /æ/ – cat, dad (short low front spread vowel).

**Central Vowels:** /ɜ:/ – burn, firm (long mid central spread vowel) /ʌ/ – about, clever (short mid central spread vowel); this is called schwa. /ʌ/ – cut, nut (Short low front spread vowel).

**Back Vowels:** /u:/ – boot, glue (long high back rounded vowel). /ʊ/ – put, soot (short high back rounded vowel). /ɔ/ – corn, born (long mid back rounded vowel) /ɒ/ – dog, rotten (short low back rounded vowel) /ɑ:/ – hard, far (long low back spread vowel)

**Diphthongs:** We can analyse a diphthong or a triphthong as two or three vowels respectively but they are considered a single unit. There are two types of Falling and Rising. In the Falling Diphthong, the first element is more prominent. In the Rising Diphthongs, the second element is more prominent. English Diphthongs are mostly falling ones. Another classification is Centering if the second element is released as the central vowel. The tongue moves to the central position for the second element as in /ɪʊ, ʌj/ and Decentering or Closing if it moves to a less central position as in /aɪ, aʊ etc./. In short, a vowel that does not change in quality



is called a Monophthong and one that changes is a Diphthong. The diphthongs have been marked in the cardinal reference chart.

The centering diphthongs are: /iJ/, /<sup>^</sup>J/, /eJ/ as in dear, poor and care respectively.

The closing diphthongs are: /ei/, /<sub>ɨ</sub>i/, /J<sup>^</sup>/, /ai/, /a<sup>^</sup>/ as in page, boy, show, high, cow respectively.

### 1. Classification of vowels (vocoids)

a) Vowels are produced in a relatively small area of the mouth - earlier writers talked of palatal vowels (the frontmost ones) and velar vowels (the furthest back). The tongue may be further to the front or to the back and higher or lower in the mouth and the lips may be more or less rounded. The shape of the area in which the tongue moves is usually idealised to form a quadrilateral, (sometimes a triangle, as in the graphic above), on which the position of each different vowel sound can be marked by a dot. (Refer to IPA vowel chart.) What the points marked on the vowel quadrilateral actually represent is open to dispute. As a first, working hypothesis, we will take the view espoused in many textbooks.

b) **The tongue arching model.** Vowels can be classified according to, (and so points on the quadrilateral represent,) the position of the highest point of the tongue in forming the vowel. The first things one needs to know, therefore when categorising vowels are:

(i) How high is the highest point of the tongue? (the **height** of the vowel.) Is it **close** to the roof of the mouth, as for [i], i.e. with the tongue as near the roof of the mouth as it can get without causing friction - or **open** as for [a], with the tongue as low in the mouth and the jaws as wide open as possible; or is it intermediate between these two - either **close-mid**, like [e] as in French "donner"; or **open-mid** like [ɛ] as in French "père"? Of course the majority of sounds do not correspond exactly to any of these, but using these categories allows us to describe them accurately.

(ii) How far forward or back is the highest point of the tongue? Is it **front** - corresponding to a palatal consonant - such as [i], [e], [ɛ] and [a], or **back** - corresponding to a velar consonant - such as [u], [o], [ɔ] and [ɑ]; or **central**, like the [ə:] sound in English "bird" or "hurt".

c) To help identify vowels in different languages, phoneticians use a series of reference vowels, called *cardinal vowels* with which to compare them. These consist of four vowels produced at each extremity of the vowel producing area: [i], [a], [ɑ] and [u], plus four in intermediate positions which *sound* equidistant between [i] and [a] at the front, and [u] and [ɑ] at the back. (Refer to IPA chart.) [e] and [ɛ] are intermediate at the front, and [o] and [ɔ] are intermediate at the back. These eight cardinal vowels are numbered as follows: 1 [i], 2 [e], 3 [ɛ], 4 [a], 5 [ɑ], 6 [ɔ], 7 [o], and 8 [u]. In addition, equidistant between [i] and [u] is the central, close vowel [y].

d) The above are the **primary cardinal vowels**. There are others, secondary cardinals, which differ from the related primary ones in lip rounding.

	Primary Cardinal Vowels		Secondary Cardinal Vowels	
	<i>Front</i>	<i>Back</i>	<i>Front</i>	<i>Back</i>
<i>Close</i>	i	u	y	ɯ
<i>Close-mid</i>	e	o	ø	ɤ
<i>Open-mid</i>	ɛ	ɔ	œ	ʌ
<i>Open</i>	a	ɑ	æ	ɒ

The vowel quadrilateral and the cardinal vowels are the work of Daniel Jones. His definitions of the primary cardinals may be found in *An Outline of English Phonetics*, paragraphs 131-133.

e) In short: (i) The CV's are an arbitrary set of reference vowels - arbitrary in the sense that there is no apparent reason why there should be eight rather than ten, twelve or any other number. (ii) They are **peripheral** vowels - they define the boundary of the space within which vowels can be produced. For this reason they hardly ever occur in real speech, or as the vowels of any language.

## 2. Problem areas

(i) Only cardinal vowels 1 and 5 have strictly articulatory definitions. It is not clear how far Jones intended that the "equal acoustic difference" between intermediate vowels is supposed to reflect articulatorily equal steps. Starting from X-ray photos of his own mouth he talks of "approximate tongue positions" and approximately equal intervals. We now know that the resemblance of tongue positions to the vowel quadrilateral is only very approximate; neither Jones's X-rays, nor those Ladefoged discusses in his *Course* really bear out the tongue arching model.

(ii) So what does the quadrilateral represent? Catford (*Fundamental Problems...*p. 169) considers that phoneticians have been making **pro prioceptive** judgements based not just on the height of the tongue, but on its overall shape and configuration in the mouth.

## 3. Using the Cardinal Vowels

The idea is that in identifying the **quality** of each vowel in a particular language, one will compare it to the cardinal vowels, note its relationship to them, and then use the symbol of the nearest cardinal vowel as a basis from which to transcribe it. The relationship of the heard vowel to the nearest cardinal vowel is recorded by

using the four subscript or postscript diacritics ɹ, ɻ, ɿ and ɿ̥. For example: [i ɹ] means "slightly more open (lower) than [i]", [ɔ ɻ] means "slightly more advanced (fronter) than [o]", and [e ɿ̥] means "slightly more retracted

(backer) than [e]". These diacritics can be combined or multiplied e.g. [a ɹ ɻ], [ɔ ɻ], etc. This impressionistic use of the cardinal vowels plus diacritics is rarely seen in phonetics textbooks. Once a body of impressionistic notes has been made, it becomes convenient to dispense with diacritics transcriptions whenever possible, especially in print. But you cannot proceed straight to a simplified transcription at once: it is necessary to record each vowel quality precisely before deciding on appropriate simple symbols to use in a simplified,

systematic transcription. As well as the peripheral cardinal vowels, the IPA also provides symbols for less peripheral sounds: [ɪ], [ʊ], [ə] and [ɐ], and diacritics [ ̠ ] (centralized: makes a front vowel symbol backer and a back vowel symbol fronter) and [ ̣ ] (mid-centralized: means, "nearer to the mid-centre of the vowel space"). These symbols are not as precisely defined as the cardinal vowels, but are very useful additional symbols.

## IPA SYMBOLS & PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

The International **Phonetic Alphabet** (IPA) is an **alphabetic** system of phonetic **notation** based primarily on the **Latin alphabet**. It was devised by the International Phonetic Association in the late 19th century as a standardized representation of the sounds of spoken **language**. This is the standard set of phonemic symbols for English (RP and similar accents).

### Phonetic Symbols For English

Consonants	Vowels
<b>p</b> <i>pen, copy, happen</i>	<b>ɪ</b> <i>kit, bid, hymn, minute</i>
<b>b</b> <i>back, baby, job</i>	<b>e</b> <i>dress, bed, head, many</i>
<b>t</b> <i>tea, tight, button</i>	<b>æ</b> <i>trap, bad</i>
<b>d</b> <i>day, ladder, odd</i>	<b>ɒ</b> <i>lot, odd, wash</i>
<b>k</b> <i>key, clock, school</i>	<b>ʌ</b> <i>strut, mud, love, blood</i>
<b>g</b> <i>get, giggle, ghost</i>	<b>ʊ</b> <i>foot, good, put</i>
<b>tʃ</b> <i>church, match, nature</i>	<b>i:</b> <i>fleece, sea, machine</i>
<b>dʒ</b> <i>judge, age, soldier</i>	<b>eɪ</b> <i>face, day, break</i>
<b>f</b> <i>fat, coffee, rough, photo</i>	<b>aɪ</b> <i>price, high, try</i>
<b>v</b> <i>view, heavy, move</i>	<b>ɔɪ</b> <i>choice, boy</i>
<b>θ</b> <i>thing, author, path</i>	<b>u:</b> <i>goose, two, blue, group</i>
<b>ð</b> <i>this, other, smooth</i>	<b>əʊ</b> <i>goat, show, no</i>
<b>s</b> <i>soon, cease, sister</i>	<b>aʊ</b> <i>mouth, now</i>
<b>z</b> <i>zero, music, roses, buzz</i>	<b>ɪə</b> <i>near, here, weary</i>
<b>ʃ</b> <i>ship, sure, nat<u>ional</u></i>	<b>eə</b> <i>square, fair, various</i>
<b>ʒ</b> <i>pleas<u>ure</u>, vis<u>ion</u></i>	<b>ɑ:</b> <i>start, father</i>
<b>h</b> <i>hot, whole, ahead</i>	<b>ɔ:</b> <i>thought, law, north, war</i>
<b>m</b> <i>more, hammer, sum</i>	<b>ʊə</b> <i>poor, jury, cure</i>
<b>n</b> <i>nice, know, funny, sun</i>	<b>ɜ:</b> <i>nurse, stir, learn, refer</i>
<b>ŋ</b> <i>ring, anger, thanks, sung</i>	<b>ə</b> <i><u>a</u>bout, comm<u>o</u>n, stand<u>ar</u>d</i>
<b>l</b> <i>light, valley, feel</i>	<b>i</b> <i>happ<u>y</u>, radiat<u>e</u>, glor<u>i</u>ous</i>
<b>r</b> <i>right, wrong, sorry, arrange</i>	<b>u</b> <i>thank <u>y</u>ou, influ<u>e</u>nce, situat<u>i</u>on</i>
<b>j</b> <i>yet, use, beauty, few</i>	<i>sudden<u>l</u>y, cotton</i>
<b>w</b> <i>wet, one, when, queen</i>	<i>middle, met<u>a</u>l</i>
<b>ʔ</b> ( <i>glottal stop</i> )	<b>'</b> ( <i>stress mark</i> )
<b>-</b>	<b>ˌ</b> ( <i>secondary stress</i> )

## Broad Transcription

There is no such thing as *the* transcription of a word.

Strictly speaking, you can only transcribe a single utterance -- for example, how Kevin Russell pronounced the word *cat* at 12:58:03 pm on February 4, 2004. You can transcribe this utterance as exactly as possible, within the limits of your hearing and the conventions provided by the IPA.

If you want to go beyond that, to try to describe how Kevin Russell pronounces the word in general, or further still to how English speakers pronounce it in general, then you have to start making abstractions -- you have to decide which details to include and which to ignore.

It's common to distinguish between two kinds of transcription, based on how many details the transcribers decide to ignore:

**Narrow transcription:** captures as many aspects of a specific pronunciation as possible and ignores as few details as possible. Using the diacritics provided by the IPA, it's possible to make very subtle distinctions between sounds.

**Broad transcription** (or phonemic transcription): ignores as many details as possible, capturing only enough aspects of a pronunciation to show how that word differs from other words in the language.

The key factor in a broad transcription is meaning -- if a pronunciation detail can change the meaning of words in a language, it must be included in a broad transcription of that language.

For example, consider the difference between the vowels in [liv] and [lɪv].

- For Canadian English, a narrow transcription would note the difference between the [i] and the [ɪ]. So would a broad transcription, since *leave* and *live* mean different things.
- For Canadian French, a narrow transcription would note the difference between [i] and [ɪ]. But a broad transcription would not. [liv] and [lɪv] do not mean different things in Canadian French -- they're both ways of saying 'book'.
- Both [i] and [ɪ] occur in the language, but they never *contrast*, that is, they never cause a difference in meaning. So a broad transcription would ignore the difference and write both as [liv].

## Broad vs. Narrow Phonetic Transcription

Units Of Broad Transcription Are *Phonemes*.

Each phoneme is a symbol for a gesture or a set (combination) of gestures

- that recurs in many words
- that contrasts with other recurring sets

The order of phonemes symbolizes contrastive aspects of gestural organization. Symbols are represented between slashes /.../.

e.g.,

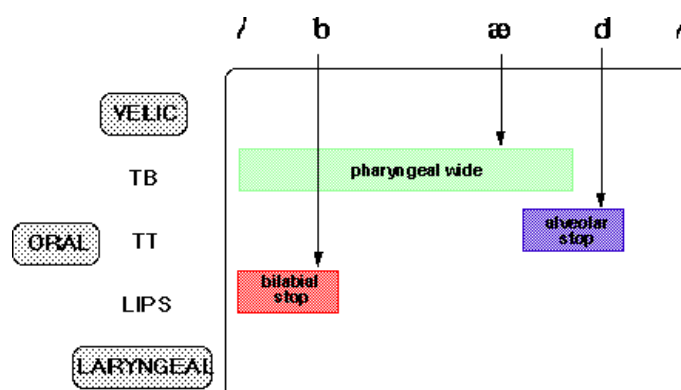
Anno /bæd/nciples

(1) Each distinctive oral constriction gesture is annotated by a distinct symbol.

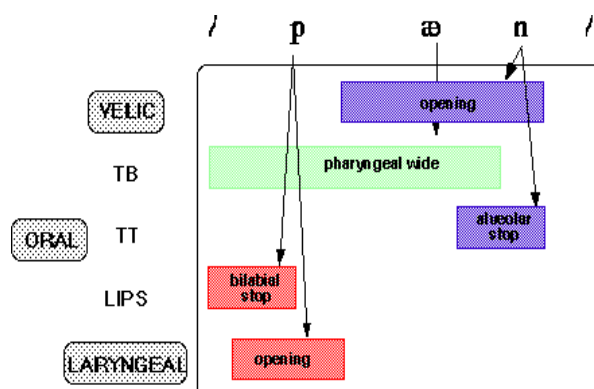
e.g., /bæd/ vs. /dæd/

(2) The ordering of symbols represents the order in which the the corresponding gestures (or sets of gestures) reach their targets.

e.g.,



(3) When a distinctive Laryngeal or Velic gesture overlaps an oral constriction gesture, a single symbol is used for the gestural combination.



## Demonstration of phonetic transcription

This page shows you how to read and write the phonetic transcriptions of English words. Dictionaries use phonetic transcriptions to tell you how you should pronounce words.

All the transcriptions on this page are written in the phonemic system used in most dictionaries for English learners. They use symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). All the pronunciations are written with *Runiversal* (British-American) symbols, but are spoken in American English. For example, *their* is transcribed as /ðeə/, and the r sound is heard in the recording.

For more information, look at the table with English sounds and IPA symbols.

**Instructions:** Play the sound samples, listen to the words, and read the transcriptions.

that	ðæt
difficult	'dɪfɪkəlt
you	ju:

which	wɪtʃ
their	ðeə
about	ə'baʊt
photo	'fəʊtəʊ
should	ʃʊd
people	'pi:pəl
also	'ɔ:lsoʊ
between	bɪ'twi:n
many 'meni	
thicker	'θɪkə
child	tʃaɪld
hear	hɪə
system	'sɪstəm
group	gru:p
number	'nʌmbə
however	haʊ'evə
another	ə'nʌðə
again	ə'gen
world	wɜ:ld
area	'eəriə
psychology	sai'kɒlədʒi
course	kɔ:s
company	'kʌmpəni
under	'ʌndə
problem	'prɒbləm
never	'nevə
service	'sɜ:vɪs
something	'sʌmθɪŋ
place	pleɪs
point	pɔɪnt
provide	prə'vaɪd
large	lɑ:dʒ
general	'dʒenərəl
always	'ɔ:lweɪz
next	nekst
quick	kwɪk
nervous	'nɜ:vəs
local	'ləʊkəl
during	'djʊərɪŋ
although	ɔ:l'ðəʊ
who	hu:
example	ɪg'zæmpəl
rather	'ræðə
social	'soʊʃəl
write	raɪt
percent	pə'sent
guest	gest
both	bəʊθ
every	'evri
month	mʌnθ
important	ɪm'pɔ:tənt
head	hed
information	ɪnfə'meɪʃən
question	'kwestʃən



business  
power  
change  
move

'bɪznɪs  
'paʊə  
tʃeɪndʒ  
mu:v

## WORD STRESS

A language learner needs to engage with a word many times, preferably in different ways, in order to really learn it - identifying and practising word stress can provide one or two of those engagements. **Word stress** is the idea that in a **word** with more than one syllable, one (or more than one) syllable will be **stressed** or accented. And the rest will be unstressed, or, unaccented. Notice that I'm using the **words** 'stress' and 'accent' interchangeably. So, in **English**, not all syllables are created equal.

English is known as a stressed language. Stressed languages are languages spoken with differing degrees of emphasis on the words and syllables in the sentences. The content of this page is not intended to be a set of rules but rather an attempt to show that native speakers of English use regular patterns of stress when speaking. Although stress and intonation are an important part of English pronunciation, learners must remember that it would be impossible for anyone to speak naturally with a set of rules in mind. By far the best way to improve one's pronunciation is through constant contact with native speakers of English, either through conversation, by watching films and news channels, or listening to the radio. However, the patterns of stress outlined below may be useful to learners, for example when preparing a discussion or a presentation, and help them to feel more comfortable.

## WORD STRESS

In English we accentuate or stress ONE syllable in a word. We pronounce that syllable louder than others.

There are words with just one syllable (e.g.. mind), and words with one STRESSED syllable and one or more WEAK syllables (e.g. remind, reminder, reminding).

In the examples below, bold letters indicate stressed syllables.

1) When a noun or adjective stems from a one-syllable word, (for example art, mind), the stress usually stays on the syllable of the original word.

art	<b>artist</b>
break	<b>breakable</b>
friend	<b>friendly</b>
paint	<b>painter</b>
come	<b>become</b>
mind	<b>remind</b>

2) To differentiate between a noun and a verb with the same spelling, stress position changes.

noun	verb
a <b>d</b> ecrease	to de <b>crea</b> se
an <b>i</b> nsult	to in <b>sult</b>
an <b>o</b> bject	to ob <b>ject</b>
a <b>p</b> rotest	to pro <b>test</b>
a <b>r</b> ecord	to re <b>cord</b>
a <b>r</b> ebel	to re <b>bel</b>
a <b>s</b> uspect	to sus <b>pect</b>
a <b>t</b> ransfer	to tran <b>sfer</b>

3) In compound nouns (two words merged into one) the stress is on the first part:

- **book**shop
- **foot**ball
- **note**book
- **tooth**brush

4) The stress is generally at the end of words ending in -eer.

- auc**tion**eer
- eng**ine**er
- pion**ee**r
- volun**tee**r

5) Stress usually falls AFTER prefixes :

- de**mol**ish
- dis**miss**
- pre**pare**
- un**tie**

6) Stress usually falls on the syllable BEFORE the following letters: (The words below are just some examples - there are many more.)

Before -tion/-sion	Before-ic/-ical	Before-ity/-ety/-graphy/ -ody/-ogy	Before -ient, -cient, -ience, -ial, -ual - ious
<b>A</b> ttention	Auto <b>m</b> atic	<b>A</b> uthority	Con <b>v</b> enient
Com <b>p</b> etition	Dem <b>o</b> cratic	<b>M</b> ajority	Eff <b>i</b> cient
Demon <b>s</b> tration	Histor <b>i</b> c	Pat <b>e</b> rernity	Expe <b>r</b> ience
Explan <b>a</b> tion	Fan <b>a</b> tic	Soci <b>e</b> ty	Ess <b>e</b> ntial
Invit <b>a</b> tion	Ela <b>s</b> tic	Vari <b>e</b> ty	Offi <b>c</b> ial
Obs <b>e</b> ssion	Biolo <b>g</b> ical	Geograp <b>h</b> y	Pot <b>e</b> ntial
Per <b>m</b> ission	Illo <b>g</b> ical	Cust <b>o</b> dy	Indiv <b>i</b> du <b>a</b> l
Posit <b>i</b> on	Polit <b>i</b> cal	<b>R</b> hapsody	Consc <b>i</b> entious
Quot <b>a</b> tion	Philos <b>o</b> phical	Morph <b>o</b> logy	Judic <b>i</b> ous

### Stressed Words Within Sentences

Not all words receive equal stress within a sentence in English. Content words are stressed. Content words include:

- Nouns (e.g. school, station, train)
- Normal verbs (e.g. run, work, speak)
- Adjectives (e.g. beautiful, tall, friendly)
- Adverbs (e.g. quickly, noisily, badly)

Function words are unstressed. Function words include:

- Determiners (e.g. a, an, the)
- Auxiliary verbs (e.g. can, have, may, will, etc.)
- Conjunctions (e.g. and, but, as, etc.)
- Pronouns (e.g. you, he, she, us, it, them, etc.)

Even if the listener does not hear some quickly pronounced function words, the meaning of the whole sentence should be clear. This is how native speakers of English communicate. Emphasis is put on the most important words. For example: "Would you like a cup of tea?" It is a general rule of English that when there is a sequence of equal stresses, the last stressed word should be the strongest, or the loudest - which in the above case would be tea. Try to imagine receiving a text message like "train delayed home late". You understand that this means: "The train has been delayed. I will be home late" Only content words are used in the message but the meaning is quite clear. In English, words are stressed according to the meaning the speaker wants to convey. For example, depending in which word in the following sentence is stressed, the meaning changes:

- Are you going to the cinema tonight? (or is it someone else?)
- Are you going to the cinema tonight? (or not?)
- Are you going to the cinema tonight? (or somewhere else?)
- Are you going to the cinema tonight? (or another night?)

During a conversation, learners should listen for stressed content words in order to understand the meaning of the whole sentence.

Likewise, they should practice stressing content words in their speech so that other people will understand them.

- Why word stress is important
- What word stress is
- Some 'rules' of word stress
- How I help my students
- In the classroom
- Conclusion

### Why word stress is important

Mistakes in word stress are a common cause of misunderstanding in English. Here are the reasons why:

• Stressing the wrong syllable in a word can make the word very difficult to hear and understand; for example, try saying the following words:

O O  
b'tell o hottle

- nd now in a sentence:

• ***"I carried the b'tell to the hottle."***

• Now reverse the stress patterns for the two words and you should be able to make sense of the sentence!

***"I carried the bottle to the hotel."***

- Stressing a word differently can change the meaning or type of the word:

***"They will desert\* the desert\*\* by tomorrow."***

### What word stress is?

When we stress syllables in words, we use a combination of different features. Experiment now with the word 'computer'. Say it out loud. Listen to yourself. The second syllable of the three is stressed. What are you doing so that the listener can hear that stress?

- A stressed syllable combines five features:
- It is l-o-n-g-e-r - com p-u-ter
- It is LOUDER - comPUTer
- It has a change in pitch from the syllables coming before and afterwards. The pitch of a stressed syllable is usually higher.
- It is said more clearly -The vowel sound is purer. Compare the first and last vowel sounds with the stressed sound.
- It uses larger facial movements - Look in the mirror when you say the word. Look at your jaw and lips in particular.
- It is equally important to remember that the unstressed syllables of a word have the opposite features of a stressed syllable!
- Some 'rules' of word stress

There are patterns in word stress in English but, as a rule (!), it is dangerous to say there are fixed rules. Exceptions can usually be found.

- Here are some general tendencies for word stress in English:

Word	Type of word	Tendency	Exceptions
apple table happy	two-syllable nouns and adjectives	stress on the first syllable <b>O o</b> apple	Hotel lagoon
suspect import insult	words which can be used as both nouns and verbs	the noun has stress on the first syllable <b>O o</b> "You are the <b>suspect</b> !" the verb has stress on the second syllable <b>o O</b> "I <b>suspect</b> you."	Respect witness
hairbrush football	compound nouns	fairly equally balanced but with stronger stress on the first part <b>O o</b> hairbrush	

Students can use stress patterns as another way to organise and sort their vocabulary. For example, in their vocabulary books they can have a section for nouns with the pattern **O o**, and then a section for the pattern **o O**. Three syllable words can be sorted into **O o o** (Saturday, hospital) and **o O o** (computer, unhappy).

A personalised and effective way of getting students to hear the importance of correct word stress is by using people's names as examples. I introduce word stress with my name:

- "How many parts/syllables are there in my name?"
- "Which is the strongest - the first or second?"
- "Is it **Em**ma or Em**ma**?"

Then you can question students about their own names - this will give them a personalised connection to the issue of word stress, with a word they will never forget!

Any work on teacher, but working on word stress can be fun and over time will help your students to be better understood and more confident speakers' aspects of pronunciation can take a long time to show improvements and be challenging for both the students and the teacher.

# INTONATION

## What is intonation?

Intonation and stress are closely linked. In fact it's impossible to dissociate them. They go hand in hand. Intonation is about how we say things, rather than what we say, the way the voice rises and falls when speaking, in other words the music of the language. Just as words have stressed syllables, sentences have regular patterns of stressed words. In addition, the voice tends to rise, fall or remain flat depending on the meaning or feeling we want to convey (surprise, anger, interest, boredom, gratitude, etc.). Intonation therefore indicates the mood of the speaker.

There are two basic patterns of intonation in English: falling intonation and rising intonation. In the following examples a downward arrow (↘) indicates a fall in intonation and an upward arrow (↗) indicates a rise in intonation. Again, these are not rules but patterns generally used by native speakers of English. Just remember that content words are stressed, and intonation adds attitude or emotion. This explanation on intonation is intended to serve as a general guide to help learners. It should in no way make them unnecessarily anxious! It should be remembered that a written explanation can never be a substitute for a 'live' conversation with a native speaker. Attitudinal intonation is something that is best acquired through talking and listening to English speakers.

## Falling Intonation (↘)

(The pitch of the voice falls at the end of the sentence.)

Falling intonation is the most common intonation pattern in English. It is commonly found in statements, commands, wh-questions (information questions), confirmatory question tags and exclamations.

### Statements

Nice to meet ↘you.  
I'll be back in a ↘minute.  
She doesn't live here ↘anymore. Dad wants to change his ↘car.  
Here is the weather ↘forecast.  
Cloudy weather is expected at the end of the ↘week. We should work together more ↘often  
I'm going for a walk in the ↘park.

### Commands

Write your name ↘here.  
Show me what you've ↘written. Leave it on the ↘desk.  
Take that picture ↘down. Throw that ↘out.  
Put your books on the ↘table.  
Take your hands out of your ↘pockets.

### Wh- questions (requesting information.)

(questions beginning with 'who', 'what', 'why', 'where', 'when', 'which', and 'how') What country do you come ↘from?  
Where do you ↘work?  
Which of them do you ↘prefer? When does the shop ↘open?  
How many books have you ↘bought? Which coat is ↘yours?  
Whose bag is ↘this?

**Questions Tags** that are statements requesting confirmation rather than questions. Not all tag questions are really questions. Some of them merely ask for confirmation or invite agreement, in which case we use a falling tone at the end.

He thinks he's so clever, doesn't he? She's such a nuisance, isn't she?

I failed the test because I didn't revise, did I? It doesn't seem to bother him much, does it?

### Exclamations

How nice of you! That's just what I need! You don't say!

What a beautiful voice! That's a surprise!

### Rising Intonation ( ↗ )

(The pitch of the voice rises at the end of a sentence.)

Rising intonation invites the speaker to continue talking.

It is normally used with yes/no questions, and question tags that are real questions.

### Yes/no Questions

(Questions that can be answered by 'yes' or 'no'.) Do you like your new teacher?

Have you finished already? May I borrow your dictionary? Do you have any magazines? Do you sell stamps?

Questions tags that show uncertainty and require an answer (real questions). We've met already, haven't we?

You like fish, don't you?

You're a new student aren't you? The view is beautiful, isn't it?

We sometimes use a combination of rising and falling intonation in the same sentence. The combination is called Rise-Fall or Fall-Rise intonation.

### Rise-Fall Intonation ( ↗ ↘ )

(The intonation rises and then falls.)

We use rise-fall intonation for choices, lists, unfinished thoughts and conditional sentences. Choices (alternative questions.)

Are you having soup or salad?

Is John leaving on Thursday or Friday? Does he speak German or French?

Is your name Ava or Eva? Lists (rising, rising, rising, falling)

Intonation falls on the last item to show that the list is finished. We've got apples, pears, bananas and oranges

The sweater comes in blue, white pink and black I like football, tennis, basketball and volleyball. I bought a tee-shirt, a skirt and a handbag.

Unfinished thoughts (partial statements)

In the responses to the following questions, the rise-fall intonation indicates reservation. The speaker hesitates to fully express his/her thoughts.

Do you like my new handbag? Well the leather is nice... ( but I don't like it.) What was the meal like? Hmm, the fish was good... (but the rest wasn't great). So you both live in Los Angeles? Well Alex does ... (but I don't).

Conditional sentences

(The tone rises in the first clause and falls gradually in the second clause.) If he calls, ask him to leave a message.

Unless he insists, I'm not going to go.

If you have any problems, just contact us. Fall-Rise Intonation ( ↘ ↗ )



(The voice falls and rises usually within one word.

The main function of fall-rise intonation is to show that the speaker is not certain of the answer they are giving to a question, or is reluctant to reply (as opposed to a falling tone used when there is no hesitation). It is also used in polite requests or suggestions.

### **Hesitation/reluctance:**

So you'd be willing to confirm that? ...Well ... I ↘sup↗pose so ... You didn't see him on Monday? I don't quite ↘re↗member ...

Politeness-Doubt-Uncertainty: (You are not sure what the answer might be.) Perhaps we could ↘vis↗it the place?

Should we ↘cop↗y the list?

Do you think it's ↘al↗lowed?

It's no surprise that many teachers don't feel confident about tackling it in the classroom. When teaching grammar or lexis, we find ways of making the language accessible to our learners. How then to do this with intonation?

- What is intonation?
- Why teach intonation?
- Can I improve my own awareness of intonation?
- How I help my students:
  - Awareness-raising
  - Intonation and grammar
  - Intonation and attitudes
  - Intonation and discourse
- Conclusion

### **What is intonation?**

Intonation is about how we say things, rather than what we say. Without intonation, it's impossible to understand the expressions and thoughts that go with words. Listen to somebody speaking without paying attention to the words: the 'melody' you hear is the intonation. It has the following features:

- It's divided into phrases, also known as '**tone-units**'.
- The pitch moves up and down, within a '**pitch range**'. Everybody has their own pitch range. Languages, too, differ in pitch range. English has particularly wide pitch range.
- In each tone unit, the pitch movement (a rise or fall in tone, or a combination of the two) takes place on the most important syllable known as the '**tonic-syllable**'. The tonic-syllable is usually a high-content word, near the end of the unit.
- These patterns of pitch variation are essential to a phrase's meaning. Changing the intonation can completely change the meaning.

Example:

- Say: 'It's raining'.

- Now say it again using the same words, but giving it different meaning. You could say it to mean 'What a surprise!', or 'How annoying!', or 'That's great!'. There are many possibilities.

### **Why teach intonation?**

Intonation exists in every language, so the concept we're introducing isn't new. However, learners are often so busy finding their words that intonation suffers. Yet intonation can be as important as word choice - we don't always realise how much difference intonation makes:

- Awareness of intonation aids communication.
- Incorrect intonation can result in misunderstandings, speakers losing interest or even taking offence!

Though it's unlikely our learners will need native-speaker-level pronunciation, what they do need is greater awareness of intonation to facilitate their speaking and listening.

### **Can I improve my own awareness of intonation?**

It's difficult to hear our own intonation. Choose somebody to listen to closely: as you listen, visualise the melody in your head, 'seeing' how it's divided into tone-units. Next time you do a class speaking activity, focus on your students' intonation. Are there students whose language is 'correct', but something doesn't sound right? Do they come across as boring or insincere? It may well be their pitch range isn't varied enough.

### **Awareness-raising**

Some techniques I find useful for raising learners' awareness of intonation:

- Provide learners with models - don't be afraid to exaggerate your intonation.
- Let students compare two examples of the same phrase, eg: varied/flat intonation, English / L1.
- Ask students to have a 2-minute conversation in pairs as 'robots' (elicit the word using a picture if necessary), i.e. with no intonation. When they then go back to speaking 'normally', point out that the difference is made by intonation - this is what gives movement to our voices.
- Get students to imitate my intonation, but without words, just humming.

Intonation doesn't exist in isolation. So it makes sense to approach it together with other factors.

### **Intonation and grammar**

Where patterns associating intonation and grammar are predictable, I highlight these to my students. I see these as starting-points, rather than rules.

Some examples are:

- Wh-word questions: falling intonation
- Yes/No questions: rising
- Statements: falling
- Question-Tags: 'chat' - falling; 'check' - rising
- Lists: rising, rising, rising, falling

When practising these constructions, I include activities focusing specifically on intonation. For example, Question-Tags: Students in groups are assigned jobs to mime to each other. Students make notes about what they think each person's job is. They then have to check they've understood the jobs: Students use rising/falling intonation question-tags depending how sure they are: 'You're a pilot, aren't you?'. At the end, students confirm their jobs.

### **Intonation and discourse**

Intonation describes how the voice rises and falls in speech. The three main patterns of intonation in English are: falling intonation, rising intonation and fall-rise intonation.

Learners' also need awareness of intonation in longer stretches of language. Here, we can give our learners clearer guidelines: 'new' information = fall tone; 'shared' knowledge = 'fall-rise'.

A simple shopping dialogue demonstrates this:

SK: Can I help you?

C: I'd like a chocolate (fall) ice-cream.

SK: One chocolate (fall-rise) ice-cream. Anything else?

C: One strawberry (fall) ice-cream.

SK: One chocolate (fall-rise), one strawberry (fall-rise). Anything else?

C: Yes. One chocolate (fall-rise), one strawberry (fall-rise), and one vanilla (fall).

### **Intonation and attitude**

It's important that students are aware of the strong link between intonation and attitude, even if it's difficult to provide rules here.

- The first thing is for learners to recognise the effect of intonation changes. I say the word 'bananas' - firstly with an '*interested*' intonation (varied tone); then '*uninterested*' (flat). Students identify the two and describe the difference. We then brainstorm attitudes, such as 'enthusiastic', 'bored', 'surprised', 'relieved'. I say 'bananas' for these. Students then do the same in pairs, guessing each other's attitude.
- This can be developed by asking students to 'greet' everybody with a particular attitude. At the end, the class identify each person's attitude. For younger learners, I use 'Mr Men' characters (Miss Happy, Mr Grumpy, Miss Frightened, etc.) Each student is allocated a character and, as above, they greet the class with that character's voice.

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# **SATHYABAMA**

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**SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND HUMANITIES**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**

**UNIT – V LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS – SHS5006**

## UNIT-V

### MORPHS AND MORPHEMES , ALLOMORPHS

#### MORPHOLOGY

In linguistics, morphology is the study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language. It analyzes the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes.

#### MORPHS

A **morph** is a phonological string (of phonemes) that **cannot be broken** down into smaller constituents that have a lexico grammatical function. In some sense it corresponds to a word-form. An **allomorph** is a **morph** that has a unique set of grammatical or lexical features.

In general, Morphology focuses on the various **morphemes** that make up a word. A **morpheme** is the smallest unit of a word that has meaning. A **morph** is the phonetic realization of that **morpheme**, or in plain English, the way it is formed. An allomorph is the way or ways a **morph** can potentially sound.

#### MORPHEMES

A morpheme is **the smallest meaningful elements of a language**. It cannot be further broken into smaller parts. The specialty is that a morpheme has a meaning. For example, when we say bag, cat, dog, elephant, these are all morphemes as they cannot be segmented into smaller parts any further. Mainly, in linguistics, we identify two types of morphemes. They are,

- Free morphemes
- Bound morphemes

If a morpheme has the ability to stand on its own without the support of another form, we identify it as a **free morpheme**. But, if it cannot stand on its own and requires the assistance of another form, we identify it as a **bound morpheme**. Prefixes and suffixes are some examples for bound morphemes. If a bound morpheme wishes to convey a meaning, it needs to be intertwined with another form. For example, the morpheme 'ness' conveys no meaning, but when connected with another morpheme such as 'attractive', it conveys a meaning as it becomes 'attractiveness'.

#### Examples:

A morpheme is defined as 'the smallest linguistic unit that has semantic meaning'. If you cannot 'split' the word any further into smaller parts, then this is the morpheme, e.g. 'the' is a morpheme as there is no smaller unit of meaning within it. 'Unthinkable' has three morphemes - 'un-' 'think' and '-able'. Often, a word with more than one morpheme uses affixes like 'un-' and '-able' here.

A **morph** is simply the phonetic representation of a morpheme - how the morpheme is said. This distinction occurs because the morpheme can remain the same, but the pronunciation changes. The best example of this is the plural morpheme in English '-s'. '-s' is the morpheme, but the morph changes in different words:

Cats - '-s' morpheme is pronounced /s/

Dogs - '-s' morpheme is pronounced /z/

Houses - '-s' morpheme is pronounced /ɪz/

These various pronunciations are the morphs of the morpheme '-s'.

This leads onto what an allomorph is. Allomorphs are the varieties of a morpheme, which is closely related to the morph. The morph is just how you pronounce the morpheme, the allomorph is the variation in pronunciation. So, the morpheme '-s' (plural) has three allomorphs with the morph /s/, /z/, and /ɪz/.

### Major types of morphemes:

#### Free morphemes and bound morphemes.

Let us clarify this more finely grained distinction with some examples.

- "To successfully manage a huge law firm requires both determination and authority."
- "The well-paid management of the company failed fatally."
- "Preparing the text on syntax for next week is easily manageable. Isn't it?"

Based on these three examples above, we can come up with a first broad distinction between these two types of morphemes.

- There are **free morphemes** that can occur on their own without any morphemes necessarily attached to them. As such, **free morphemes** can stand by themselves as single, thoroughly independent words, e.g. *manage* as in management, *mother* as in motherhood or words such as *pen*, *tea*, and *man*. Free morphemes can further be subcategorized into content words and function words.
- **Bound morphemes**, in obvious contrast, only appear in combination with other in most cases free morphemes, that is, these morphemes are bound in the very sense that they cannot stand alone and are thus necessarily attached to another form. For instance, “-ment” as in management or “un” as in unhappy are bound morphemes.

Additionally, free morphemes, including **manage** as in management or **friend** as in friendship are further technically termed because they serve as the basis for attaching other, usually bound, morphemes.

## ALLOMORPHS

In **linguistics**, an **allomorph** is a variant form of a morpheme, that is, when a unit of meaning varies in sound without changing meaning. The term **allomorph** explains the comprehension of phonological variations for specific morphemes. An allomorph is a **morph** that has a unique set of grammatical or lexical features. Each **morpheme** may have a different set of allomorphs.

### What is an Allomorph?

Allomorphs are the **different varieties that exist of the same morpheme**. Based on the context, these can bring about changes in the spelling and also in pronunciation. When one allomorph of a morpheme is replaced with another **it can change the meaning completely**. Let us attempt to understand the function of the allomorph through an example of the morpheme plural. Under this single morpheme, there are 3 variant allomorphs. They are,

- /s/ – cats
- /z/ or – dogs
- /iz/ – matches

Note how the pronunciation differs in each case. Even though a single morpheme is in play, it has different allomorphs that bring about changes not only in the pronunciation, but also in the spellings. It has to be remembered in mind that the allomorph is always conditioned by its phonetic environment. Also, in some cases, the morpheme plural takes a complete different turn.

- Ox- oxen
- Man- men
- Sheep –sheep

In each case, the morpheme plural is different. This highlights that even though it is a single morpheme plural, it has a variety of allomorphs. Not only in the morpheme plural, but in the past participle also the varied allomorphs can be identified.

## **Morpheme Vs Allomorph**

Difference between morpheme and allomorph is a subject that falls under the field of linguistics. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. In this sense, a morpheme conveys a meaning. An allomorph, on the other hand, refers to the different forms of a single morpheme. These different variants can be noted in the morpheme plural, the past participle ending, etc. The specialty is that an allomorph has the ability to bring about changes in the pronunciation and the spellings. This article attempts to provide a basic understanding of morphemes and allomorphs while elaborating the difference between the two.

### **What is the difference between Morpheme and Allomorph?**

The difference between the morpheme and allomorph can be summarized in the following manner.

- A morpheme is the smallest meaningful elements of a language.
- There two types of morphemes as free morphemes and bound morphemes.
- An allomorph can be defined as a single variety of a morpheme.
- A single morpheme can have different allomorphs.
- These can be noted when studying the morpheme plural, the past participle endings, etc.



## INFLECTION AND DERIVATION

In grammar, inflection or inflexion – sometimes called accidance – is the modification of a word to express different grammatical categories such as tense, case, voice, aspect, person, number, gender, and mood. These two morphemes together form the inflected word cars.

### Introduction

Inflection and derivation are the two main processes of word formation. They are two kinds of morphosyntactic operation.

### Compare: Inflection and derivation

Inflectional operations create forms that are fully grounded and able to be integrated into discourse, whereas derivational operations create stems that are not necessarily fully grounded and which may still require inflectional operations before they can be integrated into discourse.

Here is a table that compares and contrasts inflection and derivation:

	<b>Inflectional operations</b>	<b>Derivational operations</b>
Lexical category	Do not change the lexical category of the word.	Often change the lexical category of the word
Location	Tend to occur outside derivational affixes.	Tend to occur next to the root
Type of meaning	Contribute syntactically conditioned information, such as number, gender, or aspect.	Contribute lexical meaning
Affixes used	Occur with all or most members of a class of stems.	Are restricted to some, but not all members of a class of stems
Productivity	May be used to coin new words of the same type.	May eventually lose their meaning and usually cannot be used to coin new terms
Grounding	Create forms that are fully-grounded and able to be integrated into discourse.	Create forms that are not necessarily fully grounded and may require inflectional operations before they can be integrated into discourse

## **Description:**

Inflection is the process of adding an “affix” to a word or changing it in some other way according to the rules of the grammar of a language. Inflectional morphology studies the way in which words vary in order to express grammatical contrasts in sentences such singular/ plural or present/ past tense. Boy and boys, for example, are two forms of the same word; the choice between them, singular or plural, is a matter of grammar. This is the business of inflectional morphology.

**Derivation** is the formation of new words by adding “affixes” to other words or morphemes. Derivational morphology studies the principles governing the construction of new words. In the formation of “eatable” from “eat”, or “disagree” from “agree”, for example, we see the formation of different words, with their own grammatical properties.

## **Differences**

Both inflectional and derivational morphemes are suffixes. They are bound morphemes following a root. Inflection and derivation are therefore, the sub-categories of suffixes. But they differ from each other.

- (1) In inflection “suffix” is affixed to a root. For example, in “agreed” and “agrees,” “d” and “s” are suffixes and do not allow any further affixation of a suffix. Such suffixes which we do not allow further affixation are called inflections or inflectional suffixes. The suffixes which may be followed by other suffixes are called derivational suffixes. For example, “ment” “able” are derivational suffixes in “agreement” and “agreeable” because both can be followed by other suffixes and can, for instance, become “agreements” and “agreeableness” after the addition of the suffixes “s” and “ness” to agree+ment and agree+able respectively. Here
- (2) We have to remember that prefixes are always derivational. For instance, in the words; disobey, impossible, etc “dis” and “im” are prefixes. Since “dis” and “im” help to construct new words “obey” and “possible” they are derivational.
- (3) Inflectional suffixes are “terminal”(ending) and their termination never changes the class (parts of speech) of the root, for example in “sweeter” and “sweetest”, the termination of –“er” by “est” does not change the parts of speech; both the form remain adjectives. “come” is a verb in “they come late” and if we add an inflectional suffix “ing” we get the form “coming” as in they are coming which is still a verb.

- (4) An inflected form can be replaced by another inflected form only

For example:

He                      drink+s  
                             steal+s  
                             play+s

but not

He drink/steal/play etc.

- (5) An inflectional suffix occurs at the end position of a form; no further affixation in a form is possible after an inflection. We can say:

Develop +s

root      +s -inflectional suffix

develop+    ment            +s

(root    +derivational suffix+s-inflectional suffix)

but not

develop +    s            +    ment

root            inflectional      derivational

suffix    suffix

So, an inflectional suffix is essentially terminal whereas a derivational suffix is not essentially terminal. Derivational suffixes can occur medially and finally but inflectional suffixes occur only finally.

### **Class –maintaining and class-changing derivational suffixes**

Derivational suffixes can be sub-classified into two types:

(1) class-maintaining derivational suffix.

(2) class-changing derivational suffix.

The classes maintaining derivational suffixes are those which produce a derived form of the same class as the underling form, they do not change the class of a part speech. In boyhood, childhood, kinship, friendship, “hood” and “ship” are class-maintaining derivational suffixes. In these examples they produce nouns out of nouns by after suffixation. The class changing derivations are those that produce a derived form of another class. In teacher, boyish, development, national “er” “ish” “ment” “al” are class-changing derivational suffixes. In teacher a verb “teach” has become a noun after suffixing the “er”. In “boyish,” a noun “boy” has become an adjective after suffixing the “ish”. So, it is seen that the derivational suffixes “er” and “ish” change the class of root.

## WORD-BUILDING PROCESS

The expression 'word-formation' or 'word-making' or 'word-building' means the process of creating or forming words out of sequences of morphemes or words. In English, word-formation has got a great importance, because the resources of this language have been enriched by this phenomenon as well as by borrowings from various other languages. New words have continued to be made from old ones, and have thus added to the existing store of words or vocables.

Various processes of word-making have been at work in English, the chief of which are—

- i. Compounding or Composition
- ii. Derivation
- iii. Conversion, or Functional shift
- iv. Reduction, Subtraction, or Shortening
- v. Making of Abbreviations and Acronyms
- vi. Reduplication
- vii. Making of Proper Names from the Common ones
- viii. Blending
- ix. Imitation
- x. Coinage, and Root-creation

Given below is a discussion of these processes:

### (i) Compounding or composition

- Words that cannot be rendered into a simpler form, are termed 'simple' or 'primary' words or roots. *Boy, eat, fit, sad and log* are some such words.
- When a word or vocable is formed by joining two or more words or vocables, each of which may be used separately as well, it is called a compound word. *Holiday* (holy+day), *breakthrough* (break+through), *bedroom* (bed+room), *dotpen* (dot+pen) and *necktie* (neck+tie) are some examples of compound words.
- Often, compounds are made up of more than two words; e.g. *man-of-war, son-in-law, none-the-less, gnard-of-honour*, etc.
- Except the articles, all the parts of speech (word-classes) can be used to make compounds; e.g. *blacksmith* (Adj+N.) *homesick* (N+Adj.), *yourself* (Pro.+N.), *undergo* (Adv.+Vb.), *upon* (Prepo.+Prepo.), *outcome* (Prepo.+Vb.).

### Compound words are of two kinds:

(a) **Unrelated or Juxtapositional Compounds** are those that are formed by joining simple words having no grammatical relations between them; e.g. *time-piece, stepping-stone, brainwash, stone-deaf*.

**(b) Related or Syntactical Compounds** are those wherein the words composing or joining them have some grammatical relationship between them; e.g. *broad-based*, *wood-work*, *breakfast*, *turncoat*, etc. English has derived the principles of word-formation from the primitive Indo-Germanic languages. "In those kinds of compounds that most frequently occur", remarks **Henry Bradley**, "the last element expresses a general meaning, which the prefixed element renders less general. Thus an *apple-tree* is a tree, but only a particular kind of tree. In the original Indo-Germanic language the prefixed element in a compound of this sort was not, properly speaking, a word, but a word-stem : that is to say, a *word* deprived of those grammatical characters—case, number, gender, mood, tense, person, etc., which it would possess if it occurred separately in a sentence. It has still this character, so far as meaning is concerned, in those English compounds that are formed on the inherited pattern" (*The Making of English*, p. 112). According to Nelson Francis, "Compounding has been a source of new words in English since the earliest times, and is particularly common in present-day English." (*The English Language*, p. 153)

## **(ii) Derivation**

Compounding or composition implies the joining of two words both of which can be used separately too, to form a new word. However, in case where only one of the components of a compound word can be used separately, and the other cannot be so used, the process involved in forming such a compound is called *derivation*. In derivation, the element in a compound, which can be used separately, is the base, and the element which cannot be so used, is called an *affix*—*prefix* if it precedes the base-word, and *suffix* if it follows the base-word. Thus, in the compound word 'unkindness' 'kind' is the base, 'un-' the prefix and '-ness' the suffix; or in 'disjoined', 'join' is the base, 'dis-' the prefix and '-ed' the suffix.

Derivatives can be classified into two groups; mentioned below:

**(a) Primary Derivatives** are those words that are made out of some root or primary word in whose body some change is made: e.g. 'stood' from 'stand', 'men' from 'man', 'breech' from 'break', or 'breath' from 'breathe', and so on.

**(b) Secondary Derivatives** are prefixes and suffixes that cannot be used separately or detached from the word to which they are affixed, "in- 'un-', 'dis-\ 'mis-', 're-' and 'pre-' are some of the common prefixes, while '-ness', '-less', '-ist', '-er', '-ite\ and '-ity'" are some of the common suffixes. As Henry Bradley points out, "Since the close of the Old English period, the vocabulary of our language has been enriched by a multitude of new derivatives formed with the prefixes and suffixes that already existed in Old English; and there can be no doubt that the formation of new words by this means will continue in the future." (*The Making of English*, pp. 135-36)

### (iii) Conversion or Functional Shift

Conversion is the process under which a word changes its class without changing its form, or in which there is a shift in the function of that word. For example, the word 'cover' changes its class from a noun to a verb, and becomes '(to) cover'. Or, the noun 'evil' comes to act as an adjective, as in 'evil deed'. As has been observed by **Nelson Francis**, "Since the late Middle English period, when most of the inflections surviving from Old English finally disappeared, it has been easy to shift a word from one part of speech to another without altering its form at least in the unmarked base form" (*The English Language*, p. 156). The verbs like 'laugh', 'walk', 'sleep', 'touch', etc., or the adjectives like 'round', 'deep' and 'wrong' can change their class and become nouns without changing their form.

Conversion can be of two kinds: (i) Complete, and (ii) Partial.

(i) In the category of **Complete Conversion** we have the conversion of words in which the converted word has completely become a member of another class or part of speech, adopting the adjuncts and endings proper to that class, and ceased to belong to its original class. Thus, when the adjective 'fast' is used as a verb, it can take on any of the forms and functions of a verb, but cannot take on those of an adjective anymore; i.e. it can be used with the endings (-s), (-ed) or (-ing) of a verb (as in 'fasts', 'fasted' and 'fasting'), but not (-er) or (-est) of an adjective (as in 'faster', and 'fastest').

(ii) In the category of **Partial Conversion**, the converted word acquires certain characteristics of the other word-class, and continues to belong simultaneously to two classes. In the compound 'child-birth', for example, the word 'child' which is originally a noun, continues to function as a noun besides functioning as an adjective qualifying 'birth'. But it cannot take the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives to become 'childer' and 'childest'.

### (iv) Reduction or Subtraction or Shortening

Besides the addition of something to an old word, or joining two words together, to make a new word, there is another process of word-formation, which is called reduction or subtraction or taking away something from the old word, and make a shorter or base word. This process is the opposite of that of derivation or compounding.

here are two categories of this process, viz. (i) Back-Formation and (ii) Clipping.

**Back-Formation** implies the use of analogy to bring about a sort of reversal of the process of derivation, to make a new word. Thus, the words 'henpeck', 'televise', 'enthuse', 'burgle' and 'sunburn' are made by reducing or subtracting a part of the original words 'henpecked', 'television', 'enthusiasm', 'burglar' and 'sunburnt' respectively even though the converted words may not have existed originally in English. Similarly, the words like 'book-keep', 'house-keep', and 'typewrite' are formed by reducing 'book-keeping', 'house-keeping' and 'type-writing'. Some of the oldest examples of back-formations are, as **Otto Jespersen** points out, "to backbite (1300), to partake (*partake*, 16th c), to soothsay and conycatch (Shakesp.)" (*Growth and Structure of the English Language*, p. 165).

In the process of **Clipping**, a word is informally shortened so as usually to become a monosyllabic word. For example, 'influenza' is changed into 'flu', 'advertisement' to 'ad', 'gentlemen' to 'gents', 'examinations' to 'exams', laboratories, to 'labs' 'mathematics' to 'maths' 'telephone' to 'phone', 'bicycle' to 'bike', 'Missis' or 'Mistress' to 'Miss', and 'public house' to 'pub'.

#### **(v) Abbreviations and Acronyms**

Making of acronyms and abbreviations is an extreme form of clipping. In it, new words are formed from the initial letters of some old words, so as to form a name; e.g. NATO, SEATO, RADAR, TV, TNT, DDT, P.M., etc. In these words, we pronounce only the syllabic names of the letters of the abbreviation. For example, TV is pronounced as/ti: vi:/ and TNT as/ti:en ti:/. But when there is a combination of letters of an abbreviated phrase, which can be pronounced, we have an example of *acronym* which means a word whose spelling represents the initial letters of a phrase.

When different letters of an abbreviated form are pronounced separately, we have **alphabetism**, but when a whole cluster of letters is pronounced as one word, we have **acronymism**. Thus, NATO, RADAR and UNESCO are examples of acronyms, whereas A.M., P.M., M.D., C.J. and B.A. are examples of Alphabetism.

#### **(vi) Reduplication**

In this process we make a type of compounds in which both elements or components are same or only slightly different. 'Tom-tom', 'dilly-dally', 'goody-goody', 'wishy-washy' and 'pooh-pooh' are some examples of such compounds.

#### **(vii) Making Proper Names from Common Ones**

New words are also formed when individual names are given to various persons, places, animals, gods, etc. Each of these names signifies a particular person or place, etc. However, sometimes some common names of an occupation are given to particular persons, such as Smith, Taylor and Clark, or some adjectives are used as proper names, such as Brown, Wild and Bright. Often the names of some products are derived from the names of the places where these products abound or come from; e.g. 'Calico' from 'Calcutta' or 'Calicut' and 'gin' from 'Geneva'.

#### **(viii) Blending**

This process involves the merging of two words into each other, thus leading to the formation of a new word. For example, 'breakfast' and 'lunch' merge to form the word 'brunch', 'teleprinter' and 'exchange' to form 'telex', 'slovenly' and 'language' to form 'slang', and 'export' and 'import' to form

'exim'. "Blending is", remarks **Nelson Francis**, "a combination of clipping and compounding, which makes new words by putting together fragments of existing words in new combinations. It differs from derivation in that the elements thus combined are not morphemes at the time the blends are made, though they may become so afterward as a result of the blending process, especially if several blends are made with the same element and the phenomenon of *false analog*' is present." (*The English Language*, p. 162).

#### **(ix) Imitation**

Some new words are formed through attempts at the imitation of natural sounds. For examples, the imitation of the sound produced by animals like dogs, cats, sheep and cows lead to the formation of words like 'bow-wow', 'meow', 'baa' and 'moo'.

#### **(x) Coinage and Root-Creation**

Sometimes, newly formed words have no etymology, and their origins are not known. They are not taken from Old English or a foreign language; nor are they formed by any of the processes of word-formation mentioned above. Such words are coined as and when the need arises. These words exemplify the process of root-creation. 'Quiz', 'fun', and 'pun' are a few of such words whose origin and source are unknown. According to Henry Bradley, "There are also many words which were neither inherited from Old English, nor adopted from any foreign language, nor formed by any process of composition or derivation. It is to instances of this kind that the name 'root-creation' may be fitly applied" (*The Making of English*, p. 154). **Onomatopoeia** is a prominent form of root-creation. In it, the sound of a word echoes its sense and also suggests its name. The name thus suggested is a coinage, examples of this are 'twitter', 'bang', 'whiz', 'mew', 'buz', and so on.

These are the various process of word-formation, and the chief of them are compounding or composition, derivation and conversion.



## PLACE OF MORPHOLOGY IN GRAMMAR

### What is Morphology?

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words and forms a core part of linguistic study today.

### Morphology – the internal structure of words

- The term morphology is Greek and is a makeup of morph- meaning ‘shape, form’, and -ology which means ‘the study of something’.
- Morphology as a sub-discipline of linguistics was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist **August Schleicher** who used the term for the study of the form of words.[1]

### What is a word?

Smallest independent units of language

#### Independent:

1. do not depend on other words.
2. can be separated from other units
3. can change position.[2]

Example:

The man looked at the horses.

- s is the plural marker, dependent on the noun horse to receive meaning
- Horses is a word: can occur in other positions or stand on its own

Example:

The horses looked at the man.

– What is the man looking at? – Horses.

Words are thus both independent since they can be separated from other words and move around in sentences, and the smallest units of language since they are the only units of language for which this is possible.

### Morphemes – the building blocks of morphology

Words have internal structure: built of even smaller pieces

1. **Simple Words:** Don't have internal structure (only consist of one morpheme) eg work, build, run. They can't be split into smaller parts which carry meaning or function.
2. **Complex Words:** Have internal structure (consist of two or more morphemes) eg worker: affix -er added to the root work to form a noun.

**Morphemes are the smallest meaning-bearing units of language.**

## Free Vs Bound Morphemes

Free morpheme: a simple word, consisting of one morpheme eg house, work, high, chair, wrap. They are words in themselves.

Bound morpheme: morphemes that must be attached to another morpheme to receive meaning.

EG: Unkindness

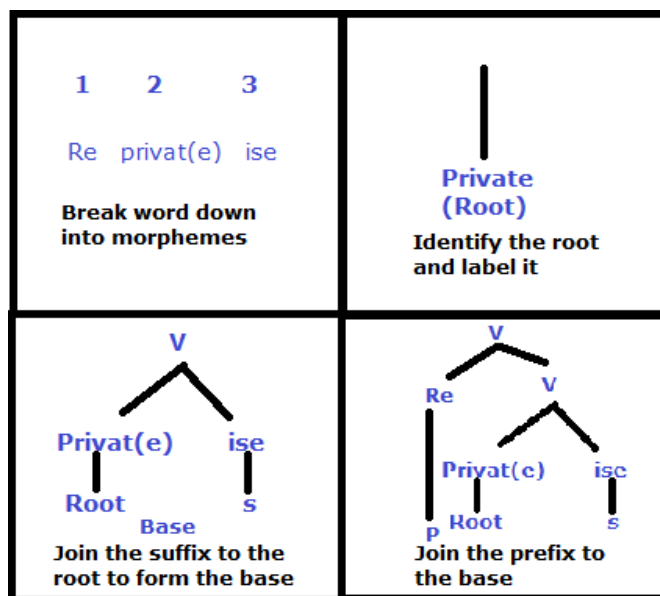
- UN- and -NESS are the bound morphemes, requiring the root KIND to form the word.

These are also called affixes as they are attached to the stem. There are two types as outlined below:

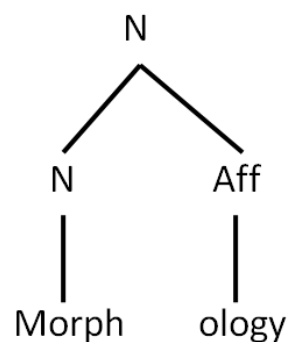
1. Prefix (front of the base)= Un-
2. Suffix (end of the base)= -ness

## Drawing Morphology Trees

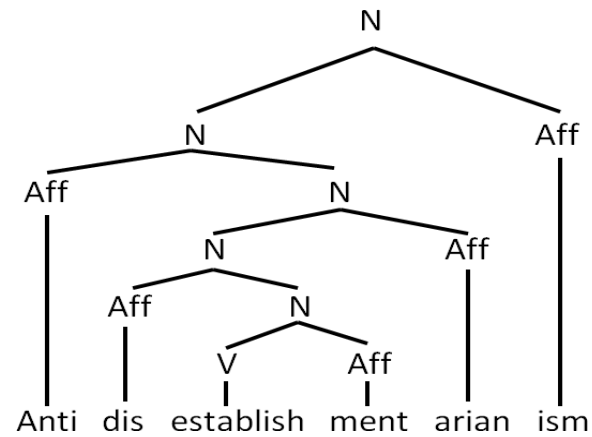
Below is a step-by-step guide to drawing a morphology tree:



## Simple morphology tree



### Complex morphology Tree



### Examples of constraints:

re-	un-	pre-	-able	-ness
attaches to a verb:	attaches to an adj:	attaches to a verb:	attaches to a verb:	attaches to an adj:
re- + make = remake	un + happy = unhappy	pre- + exist = pre-exist	swim + able = swimmable	calm+ness= calmness
but not to a noun	and certain verbs:	and to some nouns:	but not to a noun	but not to a noun
*re- + car = recar	un + do = undo	pre - + season = preseason	* pool + able = poolable	*peace + ness= peaceness
	but not to most verbs	but not to an adj.		
	*un + sit = unsit	*pre- + happy = prehappy		
	nor to nouns			
	*un + book = unbook			

## Place of Morphology in Grammar

Learning about human language is often an overlooked educational subject. Read this lesson to discover the importance of morphology in our linguistic world.

### Linguistics

What makes humans different from every other species on the planet? Answers vary from our use of tools, our creation of a society, or our advanced technological development. However, one essential factor underlies all the rest: the ability to communicate. Humans are the only species that have a language. Sure, animals do communicate: Dolphins click messages through the water, wolves howl in packs, and deer flick their tails to warn of danger, and some apes can even learn sign language. However, none of these examples are even close to the advanced verbal communication found in humans. This brings us to **linguistics**, or the study of language and its structure. Many scientists have devoted their lives to understanding how language developed, how it's currently changing, and what it might become in the future. There are many aspects of language to study, but today we focus on morphology.

### Morphology

**Morphology** is the arrangement and relationships of the smallest meaningful units in a language. Every human language depends on sounds. When specific sounds are put together in a specific way, words, phrases, and finally sentences can be created. This is how messages are sent and received. In order to understand morphology, you need to know the term **morpheme**, which is the smallest unit of a word with meaning. That meaning is how language conveys messages. Morphemes are more than just letters. When a number of letters are put together into a word part that now has meaning, then you have a morpheme. Morphology studies how these units of meaning, or word parts, can be arranged in a language.

### Examples

Let's illustrate the role of morphemes through some examples. Look at the following list of words:

- Firehouse
- Doghouse
- Bathroom
- Chairlift

Each of these words has several phonemes, or distinct sounds. Firehouse begins with an -f sound and ends with the -s sound. However, those sounds alone don't have meaning. Breaking the first word into smaller parts shows the morphemes fire and house. These are morphemes as they contain inherent meaning. Fire means bright light, heat, and smoke, while house means a dwelling for human beings. Putting these together creates a completely new word.

The other examples in that list work the same way. Two morphemes, or meaningful elements, are put together in order to form a totally new word. Think of morphemes as the pieces that come together to build a language, just like the pieces of a house. You may have a bunch of pieces of wood (letters), but you don't get a wall (morphemes) until you start nailing them together. Then when all the walls are together, you finally have a complete house, or in language, a meaningful sentence.

### **Bound vs. Free Morphemes**

An important aspect of morphology is how morphemes connect. This is where bound and free morphemes come in. A **bound morpheme** is one that must be attached to another morpheme in order to form a word. On the other hand, a **free morpheme** can stand as an independent word. Look at this list of words:

- Runs
- Joyous
- Unsightly
- Rerun

Each of these words has more than one morpheme; however, some of the morphemes are bound and some are free. Look at the first word. The base word is run, which is a morpheme, meaning moving faster than a walk. What about the -s then? It is more than a phoneme because it contains meaning. Attached to a verb, the -s indicates the third-person singular present tense. Even though it's just one letter, it has inherent meaning and so is a morpheme.

Now look at the second word. By now you should realize joy is a free morpheme, since it can stand alone and has meaning. The -ous is a suffix that changes the noun into an adjective. This means that -ous is also a bound morpheme. Remember, a **suffix** is a word part added to the end of a word. **Prefixes**, or word parts added to the beginning of words, are also morphemes. The final two words in this list contain the prefixes un- and re-, which are bound morphemes. All prefixes and suffixes are bound morphemes. Here are some more examples:

- ed
- or
- pre
- re
- un
- ly

## PHRASES AND CLAUSES

These three structures are a common part of English, and are all composed of groups of words. Clauses, phrases and sentences are very similar, but they do have different roles. Learning the difference between them will help you make a lot more sense of English grammar, and will be very useful to improve your written English.

### What is a phrase?

Words can be grouped together, but without a subject or a verb. This is called a phrase.

Because a phrase has neither subject nor verb, it can't form a 'predicate'. This is a structure that must contain a verb, and it tells you something about what the subject is doing.

Phrases can be very short – or quite long. Two examples of phrases are:

*"After dinner"*

*"Waiting for the rain to stop".*

Phrases can't be used alone, but you can use them as part of a sentence, where they are used as parts of speech.

### What is a clause?

Clauses are groups of words that have both subjects and predicates. Unlike phrases, a clause can sometimes act as a sentence – this type of clause is called an independent clause. This isn't always the case, and some clauses can't be used on their own – these are called subordinate clauses, and need to be used with an independent clause to complete their meaning.

An example of a subordinate clause is *"When the man broke into the house"*

An example of an ( Main Clause) independent clause is *"the dog barked at him"*

While the independent clause could be used by itself as a complete sentence, the subordinate clause could not. For it to be correct, it would need to be paired with another clause: *"When the man broke into the house, the dog barked at him."*

### What is a sentence?

A complete sentence has a subject and predicate, and can often be composed of more than one clause.

As long as it has a subject and a predicate, a group of words can form a sentence, no matter how short.

E.g. *"You ate fish."*

More complex sentences can combine multiple clauses or phrases to add additional information about what is described. Clauses may be combined using conjunctions – such as "and", "but" and "or".

E.g. *"He went out to dinner but didn't enjoy the meal."*

This example is composed of two independent clauses, *"he went out to dinner"* and *"he didn't enjoy the meal"*, combined with a conjunction- *"but"*.

### Identification:

In order to identify and correct sentence errors, it is important to understand sentence structure. Therefore, first you need to practice identifying phrases and clauses. This topic is important because if you understand about parts of the sentence, it will be much easier to identify and correct fragments, comma splices, and fused sentences.

Here are some definitions:

### Parts of a sentence:

A. Subject - tells who or what the sentence is about. Birds fly.

B. Verb - tells or asks something about the subject. Birds fly.

C. Direct object - indicates who or what is affected by the action. The dog bit the cat.

D. Indirect object - tells to whom or for whom the action was done. The officer handed Frank a ticket.

E. Complement - renames or describes the subject or the object. The movie was boring.

They elected Smith president.

### A phrase is a group of words without subject or verb.

Examples:

prepositional phrases = on the roof - to me -

verb phrase= being late - will be going -

noun phrase= the shiny new car- the dirty old man

### A clause has both subject and verb.

There are two kinds of clauses that you should be able to distinguish: independent (or main) clauses and dependent (or subordinate clauses).

The independent clause makes sense and can be a sentence. The dependent clause begins with a subordinating conjunction (although, if, when, where, while, because, until, etc.) or a relative pronoun (who, which, whose, what, that, whom).

The dependent clause by itself does not have a complete meaning. It must be attached to an independent clause to make sense. Every sentence must have an independent clause. A dependent clause by itself is a fragment (incomplete sentence).

### Examples:

independent clauses = Mark was late. Mark missed the bus. He completed his work on time.

dependent clauses = because Mark was late - who missed the bus - when he missed the bus - although he was late -

The dependent clauses can form complete sentences by connecting them with an independent clause.

Mark was late because he missed the bus. Although he was late, Mark completed his work on time.

## Review of Phrases

There are three types of phrases you should pay close attention to in GMAT SC: **noun phrases**, **verb phrases**, and **prepositional phrases**. As you look at the definition of these phrases below, remember that "phrase," in grammar terminology, can mean a single word. A noun phrase can be just one noun, or a noun plus other words that modify it. And a verb phrase or prepositional phrase can also be one word long or contain multiple words. Also remember that one smaller phrase can be contained inside another. A verb phrase can contain a smaller prepositional phrase, a prepositional phrase can contain a noun phrase, and so on.

### Types of phrases

- **Noun phrase:** A noun, plus any other structures (such as determiners, adjectives, or prepositional phrases) that modify the noun.
  - *Examples:*
    - dog
    - the dog
    - the big dog
    - the big dog in the house
- **Verb phrase:** A verb, plus any other structures that modify the verb
  - *Examples:*
    - runs
    - constantly runs
    - constantly runs with great speed
- **Prepositional phrase:** a preposition, plus any words that modify the preposition
  - *Examples:*
    - in
    - in the kitchen
    - in light of the fact that she needs exercise

These three phrase types can be combined in different ways to form sentences. Here are a few example sentences made from the examples above:

- The big dog constantly runs, in light of the fact that she needs exercise.
- The dog runs in the kitchen.
- The dog runs.
- The big dog in the house constantly runs.

Some of these example phrases have other smaller phrases inside them. "The big dog in the house" is a noun phrase that contains the smaller prepositional phrase "in the house." In turn, "in the house" contains the verb phrase "the house" as its prepositional object.



### Difference between Phrase and Clause

Clauses	Phrases
1. Clauses is a group of words	1. Phrases is a group of words
2. Clauses have both a subject and a predicate.	2. Phrases do not have a subject or predicate.
3 Clauses can be independent. Independent clauses are full sentences.	Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Excellent idea</li><li>• Great job</li><li>• Wonderful idea</li></ul>
4. Clauses can be dependent. Dependant Clauses are not full sentences. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• The girl is nice</li><li>• She went very fast</li><li>• We wash the car.</li></ul>	

#### What is an Independent Clause?

In independent clause is a clause that can stand on its own, by itself. It does not need to be joined to any other clauses, because it contains all the information necessary to be complete sentences.

Independent clauses have three components:

1. They have a subject- they tell the reader what the sentence is about
2. They have an action or predicate- they tell the reader what the subject is doing
3. They express a complete thought- something happened or was said.

An independent clause can be as simple as a subject and a verb:

- Jim reads.

Jim is the subject. Reads is the action or verb. A complete thought was expressed- something was said, and the reader now knows that Jim likes to read.

#### What is a Dependent Clause?

A dependent clause is a clause that is lacking either a subject or an action, or does not express a complete thought

A clause can be dependent because of the presence of a:

1. Marker Word (Before, after, because, since, in order to, although, though, whenever, wherever, whether, while, even though, even if,
2. Conjunction (And, or, nor, but, yet)

Dependent clauses MUST be joined to another clause, in order to avoid creating a sentence fragment.

- Because I forgot my home.

- This is a sentence fragment. We have a “because” but not a “why” or anything accompanying and following what happened “because” they forgot.
- Because I forgot my homework, I got sent home. Here, the error is corrected. “I got sent home” is an independent clause. “I” is the subject, “got” is the verb, “sent home” is the object. A complete thought is expressed.

## **THE SENTENCE**

**Def:** *A group of words which expresses a complete sense or thought is called a sentence.*

**Examples:**

- He goes to school.
- Ali is a good boy.
- He is the same man that stole my pen.
- Where do you live?
- What a pleasant weather it is!

**Note:** A sentence always begins with a capital letter and ends with a full-stop, question mark or the mark of exclamation.

## **CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES**

Sentences may well be classified according to their purpose as well as their structure.

### **(A) CLASSIFICATION BY PURPOSE**

Your sentences reflect your purpose as a speaker or a writer. According to their purpose, sentences may be classified as declarative, imperative, interrogative, negative, exclamatory and optative.

#### **(i) Declarative Sentence**

**Def:** *A declarative sentence makes assertion or states an idea without expecting a reply.*

**Examples:**

- He goes to school daily.
- We read a book.
- He offers his prayer.

#### **(ii) Imperative Sentence**

**Def:** *An imperative sentence gives a command, makes a request or expresses a piece of advice.*

**Examples:**

- Polish the shoes.
- Open the door.
- Untie the knot.

#### **(iii) Interrogative Sentence**

**Def:** *An interrogative sentence asks a question and is always followed by a question mark.*

**Examples:**

- Where do you live?
- How does she touch you?
- Have you attended the classes?

**(iv) Negative Sentence**

*Def: A negative sentence is used to negate something.*

**Examples:**

- He is not reading a book.
- It is not my book.
- We did not write a letter.

**(v) Exclamatory Sentence**

*Def: An exclamatory sentence expresses strong feelings of joy, sorrow and wonder.*

**Examples:**

- Hurrah! We have won the match.
- Oh! Now the battery is dead.
- Alas! He is dead.

**(vi) Optative Sentence**

*Def: An optative sentence is used to pray or wish.*

**Examples:**

- May God bless you!
- May you live long!
- Would that I were your friend.

**(B) CLASSIFICATION BY STRUCTURE**

According to structure we may classify sentences into four kinds, simple, compound, complex and compound-complex.

**(i) Simple Sentence**

*Def: A simple sentence has one independent clause and no subordinate clause and it has only one subject and one verb.*

**Examples:**

- He went to school.
- We played cricket.
- I wrote my first novel last year.
- It has been raining since morning.

**(ii) Compound Sentence**

*Def: A compound sentence has two or more independent clauses but no subordinate clause.*

A compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinator. The coordinators are as follows: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*.

**Examples:**

- I came and he went.
- We played hockey and they played cricket.

(iii) **Complex Sentence**

**Def:** A complex sentence has one independent clause and at least one subordinate clause.

A complex sentence always has a subordinator such as *because, since, after, although, or when* or a relative pronoun such as *that, who, or which*.

**Examples:**

- He is the man who stole my pen.
- He said that he had never visited the zoo.
- There are dreams that cannot die.

(iv) **Compound-Complex / Multiple Sentence**

**Def:** A compound complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and one or more subordinate clauses. It is also called multiple sentences.

**Examples:**

- I went to my village and met my old friends who reminded me my childhood.
- Life is a race and we are runners which most of us understand.
- When he opened the door, he found an old man there who asked her if she could give him some money.

**(C) PARTS OF A SENTENCE**

A sentence has two parts; Subject and Predicate.

**Ali            goes to school.**

Subject        Predicate

**Lahore        is a big city.**

Subject        Predicate

**1.     THE SUBJECT**

**Def:** A word or a group of words in a sentence about which any information is given called subject.

**Kinds of Subjects**

**(i) Complete Subject:**

**The subject with all its words is called complete subject.**

A complete subject may have one or more than one word.

**Examples:**

- *The Principal of our college* is a rich man.

- *The manager of our factory* announces bonus for the labour.
- *Lahore* is called the city of gardens.

In the above given examples the italicized; *The principal of our college*, *The manager of our factory* and *Lahore* are complete subjects.

### (ii) Simple Subjects

**Def:** *The key word in the complete subject is called simple subject.*

**Examples:**

- *The Principal* of our college is a rich man.
- *The manager* of our factory announces bonus for the labour.

In the above given examples the italicized; *The principal* and *The manager* are simple subjects.

### (iii) Compound Subject

**Def:** *A compound subject consists of two or more words which are joined by using conjunction.*

**Examples:**

- *Ali and Aslam* are good players.
- *The principal and the members of staff* are attending the meeting.
- *Her shoes and ankles* were covered with mud.

In the above given examples the italicized; *Ali and Aslam*, *The principal and the members of staff* and *Her shoes and ankles* are compound subjects.

## 2. THE PREDICATE

**Def:** *The part of the sentence that says something about the subject is called predicate.*

Ali            goes to school.

Subject            Predicate

### Kinds of Predicates

#### (i) Complete Predicate

**Def:** *The Predicate with all its words is called complete predicate.*

A complete predicate may have one or more than one word.

**Examples:**

- They *laughed*.
- They *built a new house*.
- Ali *wrote a letter*.

In the above given examples the italicized *laughed*, *built a new house* and *wrote a letter* are complete predicates.

#### (ii) Simple Predicate

**Def:** *The verb in the complete predicate is called simple predicate.*

### Examples:

- He *prefers* milk to tea.
- They *built* a new house.
- Ali *wrote* a letter.

In the above given examples the italicized; *prefers, built and wrote* are simple predicates.

### (iii) Compound Predicate

**Def:** A compound predicate consists of two verbs which are joined by conjunction.

### Examples :

- Ali *wrote the letter and posted it.*
- We *completed our work and went home.*
- He *wrote a book and published it.*

In the above given examples the italicized *wrote the letter and posted it, completed our work and went home* and *wrote a book and published it* are compound predicates.

### Brief Summary:

#### Phrases

Groups of words that work together as a unit but that do not have the internal structure of a sentence. That is, there's no subject or verb in the group of words.

#### Noun phrase

He took *a sociology class*.

#### Verb phrase

He *will have taken* 10 sociology classes when he graduates.

#### Prepositional phrase

She will take a sociology class *in the spring semester*.

**Adjective Phrase:** The second example shows a prepositional phrase that is attached to a noun. Because the function of the phrase is like that of a more traditional adjective, it is classified as an adjective phrase.

The students are *very happy and enthusiastic*.

The students *in the class* are working on project papers.

**Adverbial Phrase** or adverb phrase: notice that adverbial phrases can include (1) single word

He was *late*.

He was late *to the meeting*.

<b>Clauses</b>	Groups of words that work together as a unit and have the internal structure of a sentence. That is, a subject or verb in the group of words.
<b>Independent clause</b>	Another name for the simple sentence. A unit subject and a predicate (a verb and whatever goes with it).
<b>Dependent clause or subordinate clause</b>	An independent clause that has been changed so that it can be combined with an independent clause (with adverbial clauses or noun clauses) or attached to a noun (as with relative clauses).
<b>Adverbial clause</b>	<i>Because he had limited funds, he took a bus to New York for TESOL.</i>
<b>Noun clause</b>	<i>He thought that he might enjoy the bus trip. That he might enjoy the bus trip seemed a real dream.</i>
<b>Relative clause or adjectival clause</b>	<i>The bus that he took to NY was full of unhappy children.</i>
<b>Appositive clause:</b>	
adverbs like late and quickly but also (2) prepositional phrases used as adverbs.	<i>She ran down the hall. She ran down the hall quickly.</i>

These clauses look like relative clauses but have different internal structure. *That* is only a connecting word and does not have a role in the internal structure of the clause. They are formed with nouns like belief, idea, knowledge, conviction, and so forth. There are parallel forms noun clause sentences using the related verbs as in the second example.

## PHRASE STRUCTURE

Consider a sentence like the following:

(1) I will find the red books.

We have lots of evidence that a sentence like this one isn't just a string of words. In particular, there are sequences of words in this sentence which have a privileged status, as objects that syntactic operations get to manipulate; we call these privileged strings of words **constituents**. Consider the conditions on **topicalization**, for example:

(2) *The red books*, I will find.

(3) (I said I would find the red books, and...) *find the red books*, I will.

(4) \**find the red*, I will books.

The data above offer us one argument that *the red books* and *find the red books* are constituents, and that *find the red* is not a constituent. Several other phenomena seem to point in the same direction. Here are data involving a construction called **pseudoclefting**:

(5) What I will find is *the red books*

(6) What I will do is *find the red books*

(7) \*What I will do books is *find the red*

The constituents *the red books* and *find the red books* can appear at the end of a pseudocleft, after *is*, but we can't put *find the red* in a pseudocleft. Another argument for the same conclusion comes from the properties of **sentence fragments**; if I'm surprised by your claim that you will find the red books, I might utter the first two sentence fragments below, but not the third one:

(8) *the red books?!*

(9) *find the red books?!*

(10) \**find the red?!*

Similarly, the first two sentence fragments above (minus the "?! " at the end) can be answers to questions (specifically, to the questions *What did you find?* and *What will you do?*, respectively), but there's no question that could have the third sentence fragment above as its answer (well, apart from



metalinguistic questions like *What are the third, fourth, and fifth words of this sentence?*, which we'll ignore).

When we consider the strings that may be substituted for *the red books* in our example sentence to yield well-formed sentences, we find that they all contain at least one noun:

(11) I will find *the red books*

(12) I will find *the books*

(13) I will find *books*

(14) \*I will find the

(15) \*I will find red

It appears that the noun *books* is the crucial part of the phrase *the red books* that makes it capable of appearing where it does in the sentence. So we'll name the phrase a **noun phrase** (or **NP**), to reflect the importance of the noun. Now we need a name for *find the red books*, and the only word in that that isn't also in the noun phrase *the red books* is the verb *find*, so we'll call that one a **verb phrase** (**VP**).

In all the examples we've been considering, *I* is also an NP. We can replace it with things that resemble the NPs we've already seen:

(16) *The tall men* will find books.

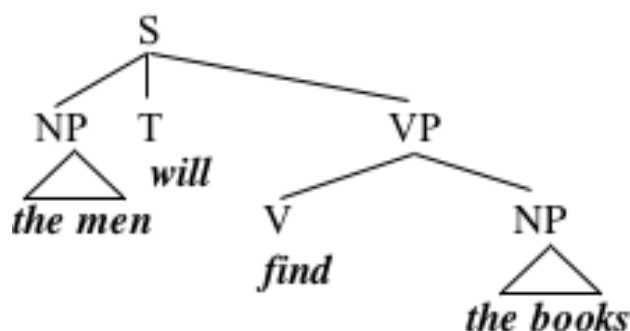
(17) *The men* will find books.

(18) *Men* will find books.

(19) \**The* will find books.

(20) \**Tall* will find books.

We can represent the theory that we've built so far in a diagram like this one:



Diagrams like this are called **trees** (or sometimes **phrase structure trees**). This particular tree represents the fact that *the men* and *the books* are NPs, by connecting those strings of words to nodes labelled 'NP', via lines pointing down. Similarly, the tree notes that *find the books* is a VP, since the node VP is connected to those words via lines pointing down. It also labels the word *will* with T (for Tense), and declares the whole thing to be a Sentence (S). This tree gives part of the internal structure

of its VP, which it says consists of a V, *find*, along with an NP, *the books*. It doesn't give the internal structure of either NP; instead, each NP has a triangle under it, which is simply a convention for structure that we don't yet wish to diagram fully.

Just to develop some terminology, we will say that when one node is connected to another node via a line, the higher node in the tree **immediately dominates** the lower node. In this tree, for example, the node S immediately dominates the nodes NP, T, and VP, and the node VP immediately dominates the nodes V and NP.

We will also use the term **dominate**, which is just the transitive closure of

**immediately dominate**; X dominates Y if X immediately dominates Y, or if X immediately dominates some Z which dominates Y. In this tree, for example, S dominates NP, T, VP, V, and NP.

Another way of talking about trees is in terms of feminine kinship relations; if X immediately dominates Y, we say that X is the **mother** of Y, and that Y is the **daughter** of X. Two nodes that have the same mother are **sisters**. In the tree under consideration here, for example, VP is the mother of V and NP, and V and NP are therefore sisters.

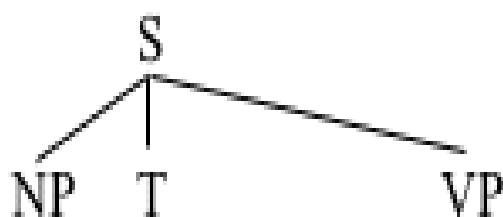
Returning to the tree we've been looking at; how would we generate it? One way would be to create some rules which state explicitly the recipes for constructing phrases of various kinds. Rules of the relevant type, called **phrase structure rules**, are given below:

$S \rightarrow NP\ T\ VP$

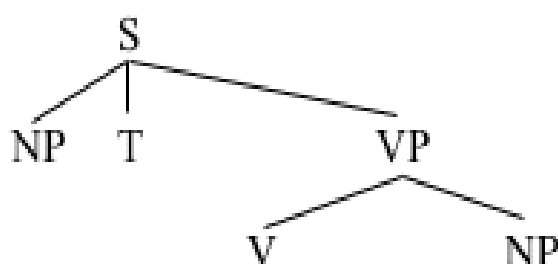
$NP \rightarrow D\ N$

$VP \rightarrow V\ NP$

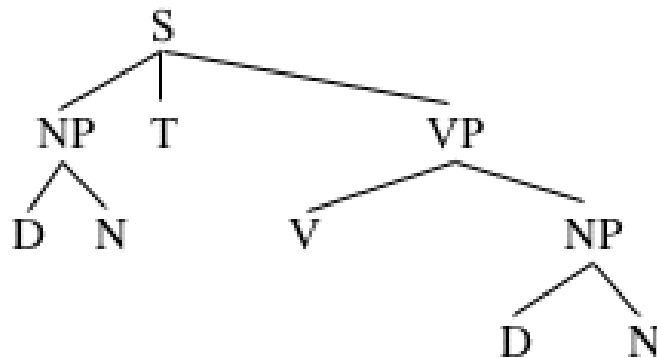
These phrase structure rules say things like "S immediately dominates NP, T, and VP". The order in which the rules are stated here is unimportant, but as it happens, the first rule is a good one to start with; you can begin creating a tree by introducing an S, which immediately dominates NP, T, and VP:



For your next trick, referring to our third phrase structure rule, you can make the VP immediately dominate V and NP:



And, finally, you can make each NP consist of a D and an N:



All we need now is a **lexicon** telling us which words count as instances of N, V, and so on, and we're in a position to diagram simple sentences:

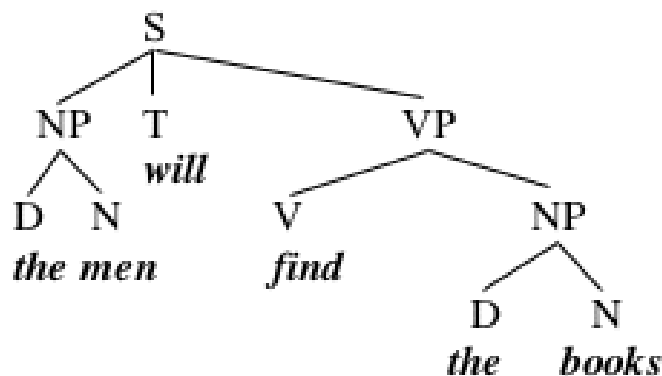
*N=men, books...*

*V=read, find...*

*T=will...*

*D=the, an...*

We can refer to this toy lexicon for English to turn the tree we've constructed into a sentence, by adding words of the appropriate types under each node, like so:



The lowest nodes in the tree, the ones that have words under them, are sometimes called **terminal nodes**.

Now, parts of the outputs of some of these rules seem to be optional. For instance, we have a rule for verb phrases which states that verb phrases always consist of a verb followed by a noun phrase. But we know that this isn't true:

(21) John ate.

(22) John ate lunch.

(23) John ate lunch in the restaurant.

So our VP rule apparently needs some work. In order to handle the first two sentences above, we need to make the NP part of VP optional. And in order to deal with the last one, we need to introduce a new kind of phrase, the PP (Prepositional Phrase), which is also an optional part of the VP:

$VP \rightarrow V \text{ NP (NP) (PP)}$

$PP \rightarrow P \text{ NP}$

The PP can also be a part of NP:

(24) John left.

(25) The man left.

(26) The tall man left.

(27) The tall man in the yellow hat left.

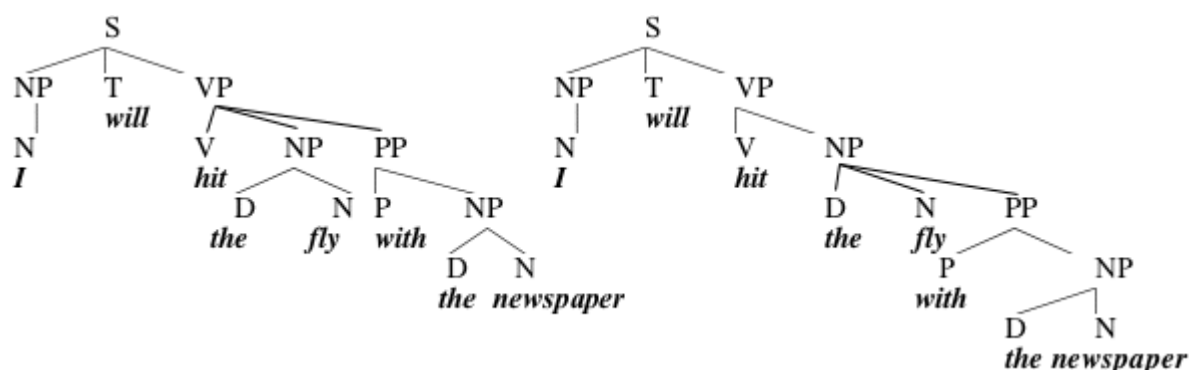
So we need to fix our NP rule as well, like so:

$NP \rightarrow (D) (A) N (PP)$

Now, even without getting any further than this, we're already in a position to capture a couple of properties of language. For one thing, we can explain certain cases of ambiguity. A sentence like the following, for example, is ambiguous:

(28) I will hit the fly with the newspaper

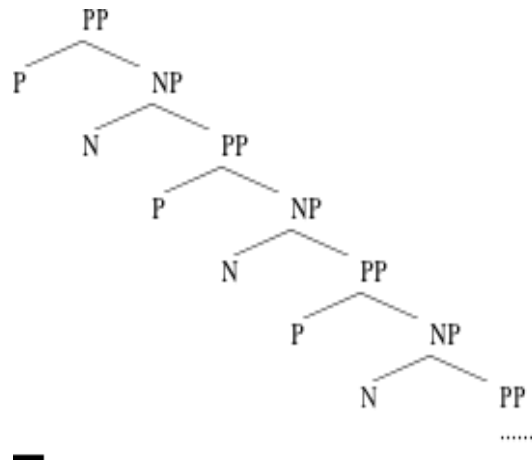
This sentence has the normal reading, in which I will use a newspaper to hit the fly, and also a silly reading in which I will hit (maybe with my hand) a fly that is reading a newspaper. As it happens, the theory we've put together so far has two places to introduce PP's, with the result that this sentence can be diagrammed in two different ways:



These trees differ in the placement of the PP *with the newspaper*; this PP either modifies the VP, expressing how the action will be performed (i.e., that I will do the hitting with a newspaper), or the NP *the fly*, in which case it describes the fly (as having a newspaper). What we now predict is that if we run constituency tests that distinguish between the two structures, the ambiguity ought to collapse. This seems to be true:

(30) The fly with the newspaper, I will hit.

So this type of ambiguity, at least, seems to be captured by our system. Another property of language which our system captures is its ability to generate potentially infinitely long sentences. Note that, for example, one of the ingredients of PP is an NP, and that one of the possible ingredients of an NP is a PP. This allows us to generate trees like:



(31) I will hit the fly with a magazine with a cover with art from a country from the continent with the largest island on a lake on an island on...

So, primitive though this system is, it captures some of our intuitions about constituent structure, and about ambiguity, and about the arbitrary length of sentences.

## BASIC PATTERNS AND SENTENCE TYPOLOGIES

Sentence relationships define the functions of the 8 parts of speech: nouns, verbs (including auxiliary verbs), adjectives, adverbs, articles, conjunctions, pronouns, and prepositions).

### Types of Sentence Patterns

We will now look at 5 patterns in the English language.

Pattern 1 - Subject + Verb

*Example:*

She reads.

The tired old woman cried.

Pattern 2 - Subject + Verb + Direct Object

*Example:*

She reads the book.

The old woman cleaned the room.

Pattern 3 - Subject + Verb + Direct Object + Indirect Object

*Example:*

Princy bought her sister a new dress.

The old woman gave the pharmacy her prescription.

Pattern 4 - Subject + Linking Verb + Complement

*Example:*

Melissa was the class president.

The boys were clever.

Pattern 5 - Subject + Linking Verb + Adjunct

*Example:*

The house is near the market.

I feel hungry.

**Verb patterns: subject + verb + object + object complement**

**Subject + verb + object + complement**

After some verbs an object alone does not make complete sense. In addition to the object, we need another word to complete the meaning. The word thus used to complete the meaning of the object is called its **complement**.

Subject	Transitive verb	Object	Object complement
The noise	drove	him	mad.
That case	made	the lawyer	famous.
He	painted	the wall	green.
We	found	the house	empty.
I	thought	the plan	unwise.
We	consider	the matter	very important

The **object complement** is usually an adjective or a noun phrase.

After verbs that refer to thoughts, feelings and opinions (e.g. believe, consider, feel, know, find, think and understand) **to be** is sometimes used before the complement.

I consider the plan **to be** unwise.

Most people supposed him **to be** innocent.

They have proved themselves **to be** worthy of our trust.

I knew him **to be** conscientious.

After **consider**, it is possible to drop **to be** before adjectives, and sometimes before nouns.

I **considered** him an excellent choice. OR I **considered** him **to be** an excellent choice.

### A complete review:

A pattern or a structure makes anything beautiful. English language is known for its uniqueness in its structure. The basic patterns of sentences are – SV, SVO, SVOA, SVIODO, SVC, SVOC and SAVC.

Let us learn the basic components.

1. **Subject** – Doer of the action (or) about what we speak of

Example:

- Ravi plays cricket.
  - PSGCAS is an esteemed Institution.
2. **Verb** – Generally it is an action word. Verbs are mainly divided into two.
    - Main verbs – otherwise called as the action words. eg. Jumping, playing, eating.
    - Helping verbs or Auxiliaries – helps the main verbs. These are divided into :

### Primary auxiliaries

- Forms of 'be' - is, was, are, were, am
- Forms of 'do' - do, does, did
- Forms of 'have' - has, have, had

Secondary auxiliaries or Modal verbs or Quasi models – They are 13 in number.

- can – could
- shall – should
- will – would
- may – might

+Need, ought to, must, used to, dare – (Clue – 'NO MUD')

Example:

- Sita is playing the Guitar.

Is – Helping verb, playing – Main verb

In the absence of action words, helping verb will act main verb.

- Sita is a Musician.

Is – main verb

3. Object – receiver of the action. Object can be either,
  - Direct Object – answers the question 'what?'
  - Indirect Object – answers the question 'whom?'

Example:

- Rama gave Sita a gift.

IO DO

4. **Adjunct or Adverbial** – Answers the questions – 'How, when, where, why'.

These are additional units which are optional, the removal of which will not affect the meaning totally.

Example:

- Ravi eats slowly. (Answers 'how')
- In May 2017 we will write final semester exams wonderfully.  
(When) (How)

5. **Complement** – This completes the meaning in a sentence, the removal of which will affect the meaning. A complement will either be an adjective or a noun. A complement will find place as follows :

- After 'forms of be' acting as main verbs.

Eg: Babu is an Engineer.

Is – main verb, an engineer – complement

- After link verbs like 'appear, look, become, feel, seem, grow'
- The rainbow looks beautiful.



- I feel tired.
- After objects followed after the long list of verbs –‘Make, appoint, elect, select, find, judge, prove, choose, nominate, name, call, baptize, paint, get, etc...
- The BCCI appointed Dhoni the captain.
- We called him boss.

Basic sentence patterns (with a tale to make it easier )

- SV – Dhoni played
- SVO – Dhoni played cricket
- SVOA – Dhoni played cricket wonderfully
- SVIODO – Dhoni gave her daughter a bat
- SVC – Dhoni is a cricketer
- SVOC – Dhoni made his daughter a cricketer
- SAVC – Dhoni always feels happy
- VC – Be happy
- VO – Play cricket
- VOA – Play cricket happily

**Choose the sentence pattern for the following sentences**

- The restaurant served 3 kinds of barbeque.
  - Subject + verb
  - Subject + verb + direct object
  - Subject + verb + complement
- The family hikes the Appalchian Trail every year.
  - S + V + DO
  - S + V + IO + DO
  - S + V + C
- My mother gave me new shoes.
  - S + V + DO
  - S + V + IO + DO
  - S + V + C
- The people elected the young candidate governor.
  - S + V
  - S + V + C
  - S + V + DO + C
- Maryanne is one of the sisters in Sense and Sensibility.
  - S + V + DO
  - S + V + IO + DO

- C. S + V + C
6. That boy never gave me the time of day.
- A. S + V + C
- B. S + V + IO + DO
- C. S + V + IO + DO + C
7. Jane Austen wrote six full novels.
- A. S + V + DO
- B. S + V + IO + DO
- C. S + V + C
8. Many consider Jane Austen England's greatest novelist.
- A. S + V + DO
- B. S + V + DO + OC
- C. S + V + IO + DO
9. Pride and Prejudice is Jane Austen's most famous novel.
- A. S + V + C
- B. S + V + DO
- C. S + V + IO + DO
10. Elizabeth I ruled England until 1603.
- A. S + V + DO
- B. S + V + C
- C. S + V + IO + DO

## SENTENCE TYPOLOGY

**Linguistic typology** is a field of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural and functional features. Its aim is to describe and explain the common properties and the structural diversity of the world's languages.<sup>[1]</sup> Its sub-disciplines include, but are not limited to: qualitative typology, which deals with the issue of comparing languages and within-language variance; quantitative typology, which deals with the distribution of structural patterns in the world's languages; theoretical typology, which explains these distributions; syntactic typology, which deals with word order, word form, and word choice; and lexical typology, which deals with language vocabulary.

### Understanding the Meaning of Typology

Typology most often classifies people or things by certain commonalities or classifies them by certain differences. Using typology helps researchers and others to better understand certain conditions or factors. For instance, the evolution and nuances of language can be better understood when

approached by looking at various similar language with common traits rather than by broadly attempting to compare and contrast all languages simultaneously.

## **Typology**

A *typology* is a set of categories used for classification. A *typology* generally has non-overlapping categories that exhaust all possibilities so that there is one category available for each observation and each observation only fits one category.

### **Examples of Typology**

- Sociopolitical typology – Developed by Elman Service, this is the study of the four types of a political organization. The four different types include the “band,” “tribe,” “chiefdom,” or “state.”
- Linguistic typology – The study of language with a focus on the structure and the diversity of languages
- Morphological typology – Created by Friedrich von Schlegel and August von Schlegel, this methodology through which language is classified based on the combination style of morphemes within the language. The main two categories are analytic and synthetic languages.
- Anthropological typology – Categorization or classification of culture according to race
- Blanchard's transsexualism typology – Developed by Ray Blanchard in the last two decades of the 20th century, this typology classifies male/female transsexualism to address the different types of individuals who seek reassignment surgery
- Milewski's typology – This is a classification system associated with language created by Tadeusz Milewski, dividing languages into 6 groups based on syntactic relationships.
- Pavlov's typology – Typing that addressed individual differences from a psychophysiological perspective
- Farm typology – The USDA's means of classifying farms, dividing them into eight groups including: non-family farms, farming occupation/high sales, farming occupation/lower sales, residential/lifestyle farms, retirement farms, limited resource farms, large family farms and very large family farms.
- Sasang typology – Medical typology traditional within Korea create by Lee, Je-ma dividing people based on Greater Yang, Lesser Yang, Greater Yin and Lesser Yin.
- Archaeological typology – In this typology, various traits are used to classify artifacts
- Psychological typology – Personality types are classified
- Architectural typology – Using traits of buildings or spaces in order to classify them.

- Theological typology -the study of relationships of those in the bible, particularly in the Old Testament, and the type of Christ that their behavior embodied.
- Oakeshott typology – Developed by Ewart Oakeshott, this typology classifies swords that existed in medieval times, particularly from 11th to 1th centuries. There are nine categories of swords.

Understanding typology is important if you wish to conduct research and if you wish to use different systems of classification in order to understand how things relate to each other.

### **Biblical Typology**

A Bible student finding correlations between an Old Testament story and the life of Christ is simply finding illustrations, not types. In other words, typology is determined by Scripture. The Holy Spirit inspired the use of types; illustrations and analogies are the result of man's study.

### **Typology in a Sentence:**

- These sculpted scenes are on the outside of a marble **typology**.
- The **typology** thus offers many permutations for case-study structure.
- A simple **typology** illustrates the differences between various kinds of goods:
- Schneider's unsystematic **typology** was based on his clinical views.
- Studies affirm a strong link between gesture **typology** and language development.
- That makes it an entrenched constitution in the **typology** of constitutions.
- Laskey et al . developed a **typology** of nine creative strategies.
- Petersen introduced a morphological **typology**, mostly based on hilt shape.
- In the 19th century, two building **typologies** evolved in Singapore.
- Additionally, Barzilai-Nahon introduces a **typology** for the gated.

## I.C. ANALYSIS: FEATURES, MERITS AND LIMITATIONS

**Immediate constituent analysis**, also called **Ic Analysis**, in linguistics, is a system of grammatical analysis that divides sentences into successive layers, or constituents, until, in the final layer, each constituent consists of only a word or meaningful part of a word. (A constituent is any word or construction that enters into some larger construction.) In the sentence "The old man ran away," the first division into immediate constituents would be between "the old man" and "ran away." The immediate constituents of "the old man" are "the" and "old man." At the next level "old man" is divided into "old" and "man." The term was introduced by the United States linguist Leonard Bloomfield in 1933, though the underlying principle is common both to the traditional practice of parsing and to many modern systems of grammatical analysis.

### Constituency tests

The IC-analysis for a given sentence is arrived at usually by way of constituency tests. Constituency tests (e.g. topicalization, clefting, pseudoclefting, pro-form substitution, answer ellipsis, passivization, omission, coordination, etc.) identify the constituents, large and small, of English sentences. Two illustrations of the manner in which constituency tests deliver clues about constituent structure and thus about the correct IC-analysis of a given sentence are now given. Consider the phrase *The girl* in the following trees:

The acronym BPS stands for "bare phrase structure", which is an indication that the words are used as the node labels in the tree. Again, focusing on the phrase *The girl*, the tests unanimously confirm that it is a constituent as both trees show:

...**the girl** is happy - Topicalization (invalid test because test constituent is already at front of sentence)

It is **the girl** who is happy. - Clefting

(The one)Who is happy is **the girl**. - Pseudoclefting

**She** is happy. - Pro-form substitution

Who is happy? -**The girl**. - Answer ellipsis

Based on these results, one can safely assume that the noun phrase *The girl* in the example sentence is a constituent and should therefore be shown as one in the corresponding IC-representation, which it is in both trees. Consider next what these tests tell us about the verb string *is happy*:

\*...**is happy**, the girl. - Topicalization

\*It is **is happy** that the girl. - Clefting

\*What the girl is **is happy**. - Pseudoclefting

\*The girl **so/that/did that**. - Pro-form substitution

What is the girl? -\***Is happy**. - Answer ellipsis

The star \* indicates that the sentence is not acceptable English. Based on data like these, one might conclude that the finite verb string *is happy* in the example sentence is not a constituent and should therefore not be shown as a constituent in the corresponding IC-representation. Hence this result supports the IC-analysis in the dependency tree over the one in the constituency tree, since the dependency tree does not view *is happy* as a constituent.

### **A method in Grammatical analysis**

In linguistics, immediate constituent analysis or IC analysis is a method of sentence analysis that was first mentioned by Leonard Bloomfield, and developed further by Rulon Wells. The process reached a full blown strategy for analyzing sentence structure in the early works of Noam Chomsky. The practice is now widespread. Most tree structures employed to represent the syntactic structure of sentences are products of some form of IC-analysis. The process and result of IC-analysis can, however, vary greatly based upon whether one chooses the constituency relation of phrase structure grammars (= constituency grammars) or the dependency relation of dependency grammars as the underlying principle that organizes constituents into hierarchical structures.

### **IC-analysis in phrase structure grammars**

Given a phrase structure grammar (= constituency grammar), IC-analysis divides up a sentence into major parts or immediate constituents, and these constituents are in turn divided into further immediate constituents. The process continues until irreducible constituents are reached, i.e., until each constituent consists of only a word or a meaningful part of a word. The end result of IC-analysis is often presented in a visual diagrammatic form that reveals the hierarchical immediate constituent structure of the sentence at hand. These diagrams are usually trees. For example:

This tree illustrates the manner in which the entire sentence is divided first into the two immediate constituents this tree and illustrates IC-analysis according to the constituency relation; these two constituents are further divided into the immediate constituents this and tree, and illustrates IC-analysis and according to the constituency relation; and so on. An important aspect of IC-analysis in phrase structure grammars is that each individual word is a constituent by definition.

The process of IC-analysis always ends when the smallest constituents are reached, which are often words (although the analysis can also be extended into the words to acknowledge the manner in which words are structured). The process is, however, much different in dependency grammars, since many individual words do not end up as constituents in dependency grammars.

### **Illustration:**

1 . Un gentlemanly

This will be broken down into un-gentlemanly

—> un- gentleman-ly —> un-gentle-man-ly—> un-gentl-e-man-ly

un + { [(gentle- + le ) + man ] + -ly

As we break the word we obtain at any level only two immediate constituents (IC)s, one of which is the stem of any given word.

### **Constituent**

A given word/node plus all the words/nodes that that word/node dominates

This definition is neutral with respect to the dependency vs. constituency distinction. It allows one to compare the IC-analyses across the two types of structure. A constituent is always a complete tree or a complete subtree of a tree, regardless of whether the tree at hand is a constituency or a dependency tree.

### **Advantages of IC Analysis**

1. Layers of relationships in a sentence can be graphically displayed by analyzing it into its units.
2. IC Analysis can account for certain types of ambiguities.

For example, the phrase ‘ the pen on the table that belongs to me’. The ambiguity can be resolved through IC Analysis

### **Limitations of IC Analysis**

1. IC Analysis cannot account for constructional homonymy eg the phrase ‘hunting dogs’.

Ambiguity may be lexical, constructional or derivational

Lexical ambiguity arises from the same word having more than one meaning eg the word ‘bank’.

Constructional ambiguity is due to difference in layering eg the phrase ‘old men and women’.

Derivational ambiguity arises from the same constituents functioning differently eg the phrase ‘the love of God’.

2. The problem of discontinuous ICs: A construction often cannot be cut into two continuous ICs because elements that belong together are separated in the sequence. This phenomenon is known as discontinuity example, the construction ‘Is he coming?’
3. The problem of embedding: IC Analysis cannot account for sentences involving embedding eg the construction ‘The boy who won the prize is my cousin’.
4. The problem of conjoining: IC Analysis cannot handle conjoining eg the construction ‘I will go and meet him

**In summary:**

Immediate constituent analysis is a form of linguistic review that breaks down longer phrases or sentences into their constituent parts, usually into single words. This kind of analysis is sometimes abbreviated as IC analysis, and gets used extensively by a wide range of language experts. This kind of exploration of language has applications for both societal or traditional linguistics, and natural language processing in technology fields.

For those who use this kind of analysis to examine text or speech, immediate constituent analysis often requires separating parts of a sentence or phrase into groups of words with semantical synergy or related meaning. For example, the sentence, “the car is fast,” could be broken down into two groups of words: “the car” and “is fast.” In this case, the first group contains an article applied to a noun, and the second group contains a verb followed by a defining adjective.

Many kinds of immediate constituent analysis include multi-step processing. For the example above, the two groups of words could be split up further into individual words. Reviewers might consider how the article “the” applies to the word “car,” for instance, in specifying one particular car, and how the adjective “fast” describes the verb “is,” in this case, in a simple, rather than a comparative or superlative sense.



## **T G GRAMMAR -FEATURES, MERITS AND LIMITATIONS**

Transformational grammar is a theory of grammar that accounts for the constructions of a language by linguistic transformations and phrase structures also known as transformational-generative grammar or T-G or TGG. Following the publication of Noam Chomsky's book *Syntactic Structures* in 1957, transformational grammar dominated the field of linguistics for the next few decades. "The era of Transformational-Generative Grammar, as it is called, signifies a sharp break with the linguistic tradition of the first half of the [twentieth] century both in Europe and America because, having as its principal objective the formulation of a finite set of basic and transformational rules that explain how the native speaker of a language can generate and comprehend all its possible grammatical sentences, it focuses mostly on syntax and not on phonology or morphology, as structuralism does"

### **Noam Chomsky and transformational-generative theory**

In the quest for the development of a way of studying the nature of language in a scientific manner, linguists have proposed a number of different models. Zelig Harris proposed the concept of a process called transformation where the order of the constituents of a sentence could be changed, deleted, substituted or added in order to account for the way a language was constructed, rather than the inadequate earlier methods of syntactic analysis of the descriptive linguists.

**Noam Chomsky** was a student of Harris, and, drawing on his knowledge of logic and mathematics, in 1957 he postulated the **transformational-generative theory** in order to construct models that would represent the psychological process of language. Like the descriptivist, Chomsky held that the proper object of linguistic study is the native speaker's oral language, which he extended to include grammatical intuition and knowledge. He referred to this as "competence," which involves the ability to perceive the structure of sentences, to recognize paraphrases, and to detect ambiguity. He held that this ability is what enables people to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences in that language; he called this "performance."

Chomsky was interested in constructing a grammar that would generate the structures that constitute the individual's linguistic competence, the native speaker's reliance on linguistic intuition and creativity, and then be able to test the results against actual samples of the language.

### **Transformationalists and Descriptivists**

Transformationalists differ from descriptivists in several ways.

- They first study the underlying language system, defining competence in terms of the rules a mature speaker follows in producing and understanding sentences.

- They also differ in that transformational analysis assumes that all languages are basically similar in the deep, underlying structure, and aims to discover linguistic universals among the sentences of all languages.
- They state that there are two levels for each sentence: a deep structure which represents the meaning, and a surface structure which represents the sound.
- One of their main contributions was to show formally the relationship of sentences which were alike, for example, active and passive forms which are related in that both are derived from the same deep structure.

### **The Advantages of Transformational Grammar**

Transformationalists hold that rules should generate structural descriptions for all the grammatical sentences of a language, and for no ungrammatical ones. Their work has also helped to overcome the lengthy rules of the descriptivists including their determination to concentrate on the gathering of vast quantities of the data of a target language.

### **Chomsky's Contribution**

Although there have been substantial changes in Chomsky's system for a transformational-generative grammar over the years since it was first proposed, his contribution is seen as important in the discipline of linguistics and Chomsky himself is seen as an important system-builder. In the light of what had gone before over many centuries, he constructed a more complete picture of the nature of language and of the language-user.

### **Linguistics - Reference**

- **The History of Grammar**

A brief look at language study and grammar, including traditional types of grammars and universal grammar as seen by grammarians and linguists.

- **Descriptive Grammar**

Discusses the limitations of a prescriptive grammar and the development of a more liberal approach that resulted in a variety of descriptive grammars as linguistics developed into a separate discipline.

- **Grammar and Structural Analysis**

Structuralists and Descriptivists had different approaches to the study of grammar and this can be especially seen in the work of Bloomfield and Chomsky.

- **Descriptive Versus Prescriptive Grammars**

This is the final article on linguistics and the changes that have come about between descriptive and prescriptive ways of looking at grammar.

## **What are the weaknesses and strengths of transformational-generative grammar?**

### **Strengths:**

It stressed the creative or generative aspect of the language faculty. Before the Chomskyan revolution, a Skinnerian behaviorist approach reigned where language was pretty much thought to be a simple response to environmental stimuli. Chomsky put the emphasis on our possibly innate capacity to build language in our heads--I say possibly here because it's a very controversial and as yet unresolved issue. This harkens back to the old nature vs. nurture debate and puts the weight firmly back on nature. In other words, we're not just mindless automatons but cognitively sophisticated beings capable of building complex, intricate structures in our brains. Chomsky's approach was instrumental in bringing about the cognitive science revolution which proceeds from the assumption that the mind is composed of structured representations that are combinatorial, rule-bound, and generative and not just some connectionist network of patterned associations.

### **Another strength:**

The use of transformations highlighted the multilayered nature of grammatical structures and how what you see is not always what you get. For example, how does one get from the active to passive voice? What operations must occur? Might the failure to acquire some of these operations by adult L2 speakers show the amazing language-building capacity of the child brain? Some of these multistratal analysis went quite a ways toward explaining and clarifying linguistic complexity that, imo, are more logically concise than previous muddled, traditional approaches to teaching syntax. They brought an almost mathematical clarity to questions of language that had always seemed opaque.

### **Weakness:**

Chomsky's approach is syntactocentric. In other words, it stresses syntax over phonology and semantics. This actually led to a bitter division in the early generative tradition by those who wanted to propose that not only were deeper levels of syntax encoded in the brain but semantics was too. This overriding emphasis on syntax has unfortunately led to the estrangement of linguistics from philosophy, which emphasizes semantics; its rationalistic orientation has also isolated it from psychology and neurology, which are empiricist in approach. Insights from these other domains has unfortunately not always played as big a role in constraining theoretical proposals by the die-hard Chomskyans and vice-versa.

### **Weakness:**

Chomsky's rationalist approach which tends to dismiss empirical evidence in conflict with the theory. Chomsky tends to write off such contradictory evidence as mere "performance" phenomena of no use to the abstractions the generative linguist is interested in exploring. When not dismissed, empirical

evidence that conflicts with or complicates a Chomskyan analysis seems to lead to, in my view, ad hoc innovations, which are really not constructed for any reason other than to accommodate this new wrinkle in the theory. This makes the theory unbelievably complex. It simply strains credulity to believe that the human brain--and the child brain at that--is capable of accommodating so many complicated layers of branching DP's and IP's and CP's and movement and merging. I assume the theory is trying to address questions of how language is actually structured in the brain, although some of Chomsky's recent remarks make me question if that is an actual goal of the theory. He seems more interested in idealizations that work rather than testing those proposals against the admittedly frustrating miasma of real world evidence.

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