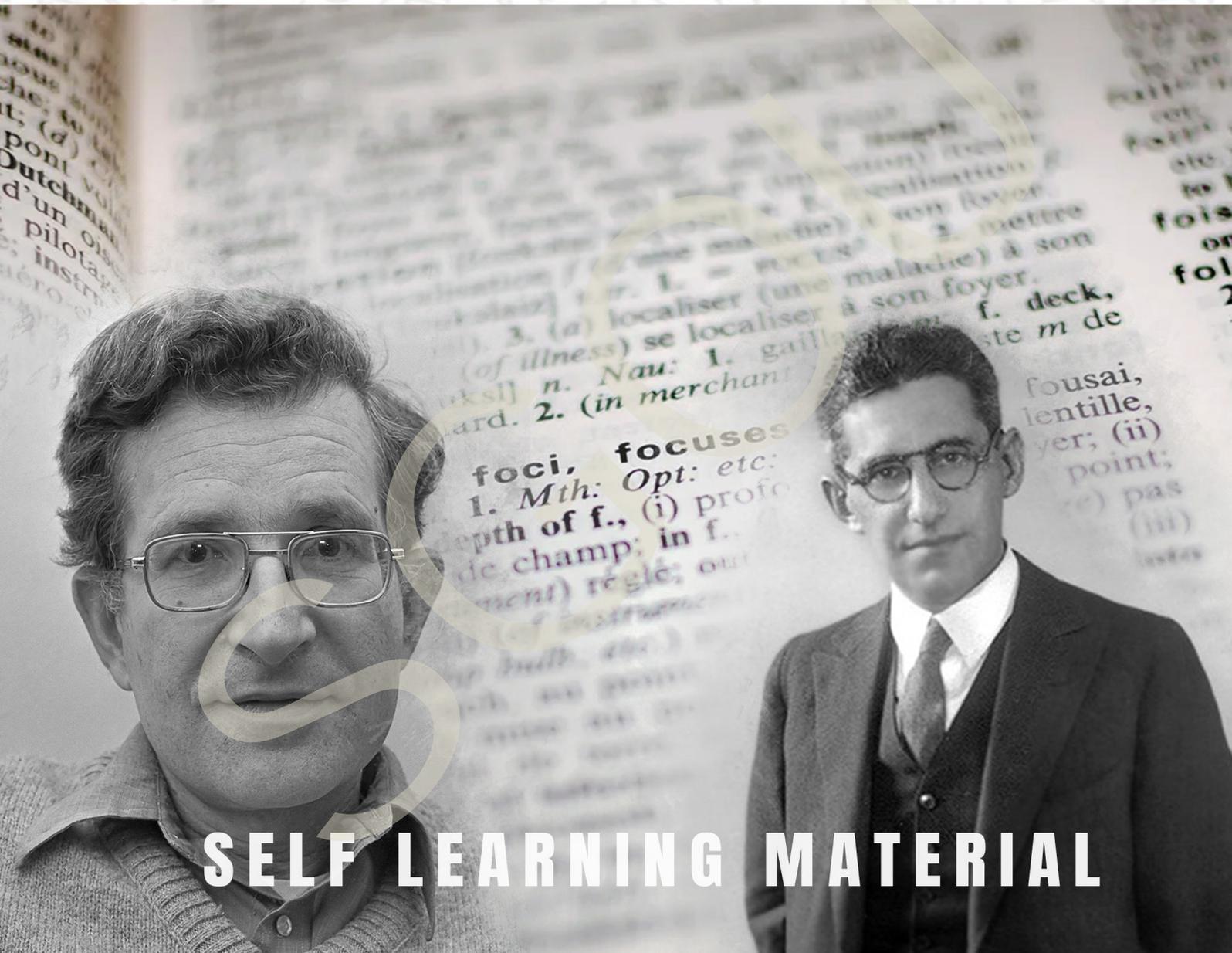# Linguistics and Structure of the English Language

COURSE CODE: M21EG11DC

Postgraduate Programme
English Language and Literature
Discipline Core Course

SELF LEARNING MATERIAL

SREENARAYANAGURU OPEN UNIVERSITY

The State University for Education, Training and Research in Blended Format, Kerala

SREENARAYANAGURU OPEN UNIVERSITY

Vision

To increase access of potential learners of all categories to higher education, research and training, and ensure equity through delivery of high quality processes and outcomes fostering inclusive educational empowerment for social advancement.

Mission

To be benchmarked as a model for conservation and dissemination of knowledge and skill on blended and virtual mode in education, training and research for normal, continuing, and adult learners.

Pathway

Access and Quality define Equity.

Linguistics and Structure of the English Language
Course Code: M21EG11DC
Semester - IV

Discipline Core Course
Postgraduate Programme
English Language and Literature
Self Learning Material
(With Model Question Paper Sets)

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Linguistics and Structure of the English Language
Course Code: M21EG11DC
Semester - IV
Discipline Core Course
MA English

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Dear learner,

I extend my heartfelt greetings and profound enthusiasm as I warmly welcome you to Sreenarayanaguru Open University. Established in September 2020 as a state-led endeavour to promote higher education through open and distance learning modes, our institution was shaped by the guiding principle that access and quality are the cornerstones of equity. We have firmly resolved to uphold the highest standards of education, setting the benchmark and charting the course.

The courses offered by the Sreenarayanaguru Open University aim to strike a quality balance, ensuring students are equipped for both personal growth and professional excellence. The University embraces the widely acclaimed "blended format," a practical framework that harmoniously integrates Self-Learning Materials, Classroom Counseling, and Virtual modes, fostering a dynamic and enriching experience for both learners and instructors.

The university aims to offer you an engaging and thought-provoking educational journey. The MA English programme by the University offers a detailed exploration of literature, linguistics, and language studies. We provide rigorous curriculum in literary analysis, linguistic theories, and applied language skills. The Self-Learning Material has been meticulously crafted, incorporating relevant examples to facilitate better comprehension.

Rest assured, the university's student support services will be at your disposal throughout your academic journey, readily available to address any concerns or grievances you may encounter. We encourage you to reach out to us freely regarding any matter about your academic programme. It is our sincere wish that you achieve the utmost success.

Regards,
Dr. Jagathy Raj V. P.   01-09-2024

Contents

Language and Linguistics

BLOCK-01

Language Diversity and Variation

Learning Outcome

By the conclution of this unit, the learner will be able to:

♦ define what language is and identify its core properties
♦ explain how language structure influences and reflects meaning
♦ distinguish between human and animal forms of communication
♦ explore the relationship between language and culture.

Background

Language is a complex system that allows us to communicate with each other in an effective and meaningful manner. Rather than a mere collection of words, language is a structured way of using sounds, signs, or symbols to communicate thoughts, feelings and emotions in a systematic way.

Human beings are said to have a system of language which is very complex in structure and has properties which make it unique from the rest of communication systems used by non-human creatures. Though non-human creatures like birds, animals and insects are said to be communicating each other, their system is neither structured nor systematic like that of human beings. Human language is characterized by its structural elements, including grammar, syntax, semantics, and phonology, which enable speakers to construct meaningful utterances.

Linguistics, the branch of knowledge dealing with languages, seeks to understand the intricate structures, functions, and evolution of language. It is called a science because it employs rigorous methodologies, like natural sciences, to study and establish various linguistic phenomena . It studies language comprehensively because it deals with the intricate internal structure of languages on the one hand and the practical complexities of using language in life on the other hand.

This unit deals with the nature and features of language and the fundamental concepts in linguistics to sensitise learners to the complex ways in which language works in real and social contexts. The unit also discusses the changes taking place in language as it is used by speakers in their life and how language adapts itself to changes in culture, technology and social life.

Discussion

1.1.1 What is language?

Language is a complex system of communication that includes the use of words, symbols, and gestures to convey meaning within a community or among individuals. It serves as a medium for expressing thoughts, emotions, ideas, and conveying information. Language is characterized by its structural elements, including grammar, syntax, semantics, and phonology, which enable speakers to construct meaningful utterances. Moreover, it evolves over time, reflecting cultural, societal, and technological changes, and exhibits diverse variations across different regions and social groups. Beyond its primary function of communication, language is essential for identity formation, social interaction, knowledge transmission, and preservation of cultural heritage.

❖ Communication system

There are numerous hypotheses that explain the origins of language, each with its own assumptions about how language came to be. One such hypothesis is the Yo-He-Ho theory, which holds that language evolved from communal rhythmic sounds produced during cooperative labour. As early people collaborated in groups, they may have generated rhythmic chants or sounds that later evolved into more complicated language. A different hypothesis, known as the La-La theory, holds that language evolved from play, music, and love. It implies that musical and emotional expression, rather than practical necessity, fuelled the evolution of language. The humorous and expressive noises used during courting or bonding may have evolved into a more sophisticated mode of communication. Other theories related to the origin of language are briefly discussed in the next sub-heading: history of language.

❖ Language origin theories

1.1.2 History of Language

Several theories have been put forth to explain the possible evolution of language in human society. One prominent assumption is the "bow-wow" theory, which suggests that language originated from the imitation of natural sounds in the environment, such as animal cries or natural phenomena like thunder. Another

hypothesis, known as the "ding-dong" theory, proposes that language developed from the instinctive responses to environmental stimuli, where certain sounds came to represent specific objects or actions. Furthermore, the "yo-he-ho" theory says that early people participating in cooperative activities like hunting or group labor produced rhythmic noises and synchronized movements that eventually gave rise to language. Another assumption, known as the "gesture-first theory" suggests that language began as a system of gestural communication before gradually incorporating vocalizations. The divine source theory is of the view that God created Adam, the first man, and "whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof." Alternatively, following a Hindu tradition, it is said that language came from Sarasvati, wife of Brahma, creator of the universe. In most religions, there is a belief that the divine source provided humans with language.

Despite the diversity of theories, it is likely that language arose through a combination of factors, including social interaction, cognitive development, and the need for cooperative communication within early human communities. In short, the form of language as it exists nowadays is a result of different evolutionary phases it underwent in the course of history starting from cave drawings of ancient homo sapiens to the latest machine languages used by Artificial Intelligence (AI) systems. Due to the absence of direct physical evidence, there has been no shortage of speculation about the origins of human speech.

1.1.3 Is language a sole human phenomenon?

Human language is unique because of many distinctive properties it possesses and a few significant ones are listed below. These properties collectively differentiate human language from other forms of communication and highlight its complexity and uniqueness as a medium for expressing ideas, emotions and feelings.

1. **Arbitrariness**: The relationship between linguistic signs and their meanings is arbitrary, and it means there is no inherent connection between the form of a word and its meaning. For example, there is no intrinsic reason why the word "cat" refers to a small, domesticated mammal and why the same meaning is represented using different words in different languages.

2. **Productivity**: Human language is highly generative, allowing speakers to create and understand an infinite number of novel utterances. Through the combination of a finite set of linguistic

❖ Language evolution hypotheses

❖ Through a combination of factors

❖ Distinctive language properties

❖ Arbitrary sign-meaning relationship

elements (words, morphemes, syntactic rules), speakers can produce an endless number of sentences to convey new ideas. The generative or productive quality of human language helps it produce infinite sentences using a limited number of structural rules.

3. **Displacement**: Language is composed of discrete units, such as phonemes (distinct speech sounds), morphemes (smallest meaningful units), graphemes (the smallest unit of a writing system) and words. These units can be combined and recombined to create meaningful communication.

4. **Duality**: Language exhibits two levels of structure: a surface structure composed of individual sounds and words, and a deeper structure that includes the grammatical rules governing the arrangement of those sounds and words. This duality allows for the creation of meaningful units (words) from meaningless elements (sounds).

5. **Cultural Transmission:** Language is not genetically predetermined but is acquired through cultural transmission. Individuals learn their native language(s) through exposure and interaction with other speakers in their linguistic community.

6. **Reflexiveness**: Language can refer to itself and to other aspects of the world. Speakers can talk about language itself, discuss abstract concepts, express thoughts about the past and future, and communicate about things beyond immediate sensory experience. The property of reflexivity (or "reflexiveness") accounts for the fact that we can use language to think and talk about language itself, making it one of the distinguishing features of human language. In other sense, human language can be used to speak about itself. Metalanguage is a term used to describe a language that is used to talk about or analyze another language. It is like a language that is used to describe itself, or to discuss the rules, structure, and meaning of another language.

1.1.4 Human Language Versus Animal Communication

While animals use many forms of communication, they differ significantly from human languages in several key aspects. If these properties of human language make it such a unique communication system, quite different from the communication systems of other creatures, then it would seem extremely unlikely that other creatures would be able to understand it. The major differences between the two can be summarised as follows.

❖ Human language sophistication

❖ Symbolic representation system

❖ Novel utterance generation

❖ Abstract concept communication

❖ Learned language acquisition

❖ Learned language acquisition

❖ Diverse communication purposes

1. **Complexity and Creativity:** Since human language is so creative and sophisticated, an endless number of new utterances can be made to express innovative concepts. In contrast, animal communication systems are usually less expansive and do not possess the same creative potential as human language.

2. **Symbolism**: Human language has two different forms, spoken and written and they are used to represent a meaning or concept. In contrast, animal communication systems rely on fixed, instinctual signals with direct connections to specific meanings, such as alarm calls or mating rituals.

3. **Productivity**: Human language exhibits productivity, enabling speakers to combine a finite set of linguistic elements (words, morphemes, syntactic rules) to create an endless collection of meaningful utterances or sentences. Animal communication, while capable of expressing basic needs and emotions, is typically more limited in its capacity for generating novel messages.

4. **Displacement**: Human language allows speakers to communicate about events, objects, and concepts that are not present in the immediate environment, a property known as displacement. Animal communication tends to be more closely tied to immediate needs and sensory experiences, lacking the ability to discuss past events, future, or abstract ideas in the same way humans can.

5. **Cultural Transmission**: Human language is learned through cultural transmission, with individuals acquiring their native language(s) through exposure and interaction with other speakers in their linguistic community. In contrast, animal communication systems are largely innate and genetically determined.

6. **Grammar and Syntax:** Human language is governed by complex grammatical rules and syntactic structures that allow for the organization and interpretation of linguistic expressions. Animal communication systems may exhibit rudimentary forms of structure and syntax, but they generally lack the intricate grammatical systems found in human languages.

7. **Function**: While animal communication serves important functions such as signaling danger, establishing social hierarchies, and coordinating mating behaviors, human language serves a broader range of purposes, including expressing thoughts, emotions, ideas, negotiating social relationships, transmitting knowledge, and engaging in abstract reasoning.

8. **Duality** : The concept of duality implies that human language has two levels of representation, namely form and meaning. A word has representation in the form of spelling or sound and it also conveys a meaning or concept..

9. **Patterning**: This is another property of human language that refers to the structured, organized, and often predictable ways in which elements of language are arranged and used. It describes how sounds, words, phrases, and sentences follow certain patterns or rules that create meaning within a language. In human language patterning can be observed at various levels of language structure, including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics.

10. **Reciprocity:** Reciprocity is a fundamental property of human language that enables us to express mutual actions, relationships, and states. It plays a crucial role in social interaction, cooperation, and empathy. This concept is often realized through specific linguistic markers or structures, such as reciprocal pronouns, verbs, or constructions that indicate that the participants are engaging in a reciprocal action.

11. **Rapid fading**, also known as transitoriness, is one of the key properties of human language, particularly in the context of spoken communication. This concept is part of the set of design features of language proposed by the linguist Charles Hockett in the 1960s. Rapid fading refers to the fact that spoken language signals do not persist in the environment after they have been produced. Once a sound is made, it quickly disappears, and the listener must process it immediately to understand it.

12. **Specialisation,** or semanticity, is another essential characteristic of human language. Linguist Charles Hockett has noted this characteristic in his well-known list of "design features of language." The concept of specialisation means how human language produces signals that are intended to carry meaning. In contrast to other modes of communication, like reflexive cries or physiological processes, language signals are intentional means of conveying information.

13. **Turn-taking** is a fundamental property of human language and communication that refers to the orderly exchange of roles between speakers and listeners during a conversation. In conversations, participants typically take turns speaking, and this alternation of roles helps maintain a coherent and organized flow of communication. Turn-taking is essential for effective verbal interaction, whether in face-to-face conversations, phone calls, or even written dialogues.

14. **Spontaneous usage i**s a defining property of human language, referring to the ability of individuals to generate and produce language voluntarily and without explicit external prompts. This feature highlights the creative and autonomous nature of human linguistic expression, allowing speakers to form novel sentences, ask questions, make requests, and express thoughts at will.

Overall, while animals exhibit various forms of communication suited to their ecological and social needs, human language stands apart in its complexity, resourcefulness, and capacity for expressing a wide range of thoughts and experiences.

1.1.5 Regional Language Variations

Regional variation in language, often referred to as dialectal diversity, showcases the complex variety of linguistic expression within a particular geographical area. This phenomenon, which results in varied vocabulary, pronunciations, and grammar patterns among speakers in different places, is caused by historical, cultural, and geographic causes. These variances might range from minor distinctions within a single language to dialects that are incomprehensible to one another. Regional dialects are greatly influenced by factors including migration, isolation, and language contact. Language diversity can also be influenced by societal factors such as socioeconomic status and educational attainment, creating dynamic and varied linguistic landscapes. Recognizing regional variance enhances our appreciation of cultural diversity and brings attention to how flexible and resilient language is in expressing the complex identities of its speakers.

1.1.5.1 What is dialect?

A dialect is a variety of a language that is distinguished by its unique vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, often associated with a specific geographical region or social group. It typically arises due to historical, social, and cultural factors, as well as interactions with other languages or dialects. Dialects can vary significantly from the standard or prestige form of a language, sometimes to the extent that speakers of different dialects may have difficulty understanding each other. However, it's essential to recognize that all dialects are valid forms of linguistic expression, reflecting the diverse identities and experiences of their speakers.

For example, in English, there are numerous dialects spoken around the world, each with its own distinctive features. One well-

❖ Voluntary language production

❖ Human language uniqueness

❖ Dialectal diversity

❖ Language variety

known example is the difference between American English and British English. While they share a common linguistic ancestry, they have diverged over time, leading to variations in vocabulary (e.g., "elevator" vs. "lift"), spelling (e.g., "color" vs. "colour"), and pronunciation. Similarly, within a single country like the United States, there are regional dialects such as Southern American English, and Northern American English. These dialects not only reflect regional identities but also contribute to the rich tapestry of linguistic diversity.

Dialects can also be shaped by social factors such as ethnicity, class, and education level. For instance, African American Vernacular English (AAVE) is a dialect spoken primarily by African American communities in the United States. AAVE exhibits distinct grammatical features, such as the habitual "be" (e.g., "He be working" to indicate habitual action), which differ from those of Standard American English. Overall, dialects are an essential part of language since they represent the various histories, cultures, and life experiences of human societies.

The language of an individual speaker will also have certain distinctive characteristics. Two speakers of the same language do not use it in the same manner. The unique set of language features or patterns that are characteristic of an individual speaker is known as idiolect. It refers to the specific way in which a person uses language, encompassing their pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and speech habits. Your idiolect reflects your personal linguistic style and is influenced by various factors, such as your geographic background, social group, education, experiences, and even personal preferences.

1.1.5.2 Dialectology

Dialectology is a subfield of linguistics that focuses on the systematic study of dialects within a particular language or language group. It involves the investigation of the social and cultural factors that influence their formation and variation. Dialectologists examine the distinctions and commonalities across dialects, frequently gathering information through fieldwork, interviews, questionnaires, and linguistic atlases. Generally speaking, dialectologists examine how and why language varies geographically as well as the distinctive characteristics of each dialect. They use interviews, surveys, and maps to find out where certain words, sounds, and grammar rules are used, helping us understand how language evolves and reflects the history and culture of different groups of people. Dialectology helps us appreciate the rich diversity of language and how it connects to the lives of those who speak it.

❖ Example

❖ Social factors

❖ Idiolect

❖ Dialect study

1.1.6 Bilingualism

Bilingualism refers to the ability of an individual to proficiently communicate in two languages. It is more than just knowing words and phrases in two languages; it involves a thorough comprehension of the vocabulary, grammar, and cultural nuances of both languages. Bilingualism can manifest in various forms, ranging from balanced bilingualism, where a person has equal proficiency in both languages, to dominant bilingualism, where one language is more proficient than the other. Individuals can become bilingual through various means, such as growing up in a bilingual environment, learning a second language through formal education or immersion programs, or acquiring a second language later in life through travel or migration.

❖ Dual language proficiency

Circumstantial Bilingualism and Elective Bilingualism are two distinct categories of bilingualism that describe different pathways and motivations for acquiring and using multiple languages. Circumstantial bilingualism occurs when an individual learns and uses a second language due to specific circumstances or external factors. This type of bilingualism often arises from situations such as migration, forced relocation, or living in a multilingual environment where learning a second language is necessary for daily life or survival. Elective bilingualism occurs when an individual chooses to learn a second language based on personal interests, educational goals, or other voluntary reasons. This type of bilingualism is driven by a desire for personal growth, cultural exploration, or career advancement.

❖ Bilingualism acquisition types

There are many types of bilingualism, which include Simultaneous bilingualism (if an individual learns two languages at the same time, typically from early childhood) and Sequential bilingualism (when an individual learns one language first and then acquires a second language later). Compound bilingualism occurs when a person learns two languages in a single context or environment, often simultaneously. Coordinate bilingualism occurs when a person learns two languages in separate contexts or environments. The two languages are used in different settings or for different purposes. Subordinate bilingualism occurs when a person learns a second language by filtering it through their first language. The second language is understood and used based on the concepts and structures of the first language. Additive bilingualism occurs when learning a second language adds to or enhances the individual's existing language skills without replacing or diminishing the first language.

❖ Bilingualism categories

In a world that is becoming more interconnected day by day, being bilingual can lead to chances for social connection, job success, and cross-cultural communication. However, there are drawbacks to being bilingual, including the possibility of identity conflicts, linguistic interference (the impact of one language on another), and code-switching (the act of switching between languages during a discussion). In short, the phenomena of bilingualism are intricate and diverse, influencing people's linguistic, cognitive, and cultural experiences. It presents both chances and difficulties for navigating the complexity of multilingual cultures.

1.1.7 Pidgin and Creole

Pidgin and Creole are forms of languages that emerge because of contact between speakers of different languages, typically in settings of trade, colonization, or migration. However, they differ in their development, structure, and sociolinguistic characteristics. Pidgin languages arise as simplified means of communication between speakers of different native languages who need to interact for practical purposes such as trade. Pidgins typically have a simplified grammar, limited vocabulary, and lack native speakers. They serve as auxiliary languages for communication in specific contexts but are not native languages for any community.

Conversely, pidgins become creole languages when they take over as a community's primary language over several generations. Creoles, usually through a process termed creolization, expand in vocabulary, syntax, and complexity when they become the primary language of a community. Creoles, as opposed to pidgins, have native speakers who use it as their main language, and they frequently form complex linguistic and cultural identities. Although they are unique languages with well-developed lexicons and stable grammatical systems, creoles may also affect and be impacted by other languages in contact.

Diglossia is a sociolinguistic phenomenon and it refers to a situation where two distinct varieties of a language are used in different social contexts within the same speech community. Typically, one variety is considered the "high" variety, used in formal settings, while the other is the "low" variety, used in informal settings. The great variety is used in formal, official, or written contexts, such as in literature, education, and government. The low variety is used in everyday conversation, family interactions, and informal settings.

Ethnolect is a variety of languages associated with a particular ethnic group. It includes linguistic features that are distinctive to

Sidebar notes:
- ❖ Bilingualism benefits and challenges
- ❖ Language contact forms
- ❖ Creole development
- ❖ Linguistic variety situation

the group and can be influenced by cultural, social, and historical factors. It often includes vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar that reflect the cultural and social identity of a specific ethnic group.

Genderlect refers to the way language use varies between genders. It highlights differences in linguistic style, preferences, and patterns associated with male and female speakers. Genderlect can involve differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, and conversational styles. For example, research has found that women may use more polite forms and tag questions, while men may use more assertive language.

Code Switching is the practice of moving between languages or language varieties within a single conversation, often influenced by context and audience. Code-switching can reflect and reinforce cultural identity, social relationships, and communication strategies. In bilingual communities, code-switching is often done for various reasons, such as to express a particular cultural identity, to fill lexical gaps, or to communicate more effectively with different audiences.

1.1.8 Social Variations in language

Language is a dynamic system that reflects the complicated tapestry of human civilization, with social variety that is both intriguing and complex. At its heart, social variety refers to the various ways in which language is shaped, used, and perceived by different social groupings, ranging from distinct regional dialects to specialized jargon of specific professions or subcultures. This variation is often influenced by many different factors, including geographical location, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, education level, age, gender, etc. Regional dialects, for instance, can be deeply rooted in historical migrations, cultural interactions, and geographical isolation, leading to distinct linguistic features and expressions that serve as markers of local identity. Socioeconomic status also has a big impact. People from privileged backgrounds tend to use language in ways that are associated with formal education and prestige, while people from marginalized communities might create special language strategies as a form of solidarity or resistance. Furthermore, linguistic variance is influenced by age and generational differences. Younger generations often invent language through neologisms, slang, and grammatical or pronunciation modifications, which shapes the changing landscape of linguistic diversity. Studies show that men and women employ different vocabulary, speech patterns, and conversational styles; however, these distinctions are still up for question and may alter as society changes. Gender also affects how people use language.

Overall, social variation in language reflects the intricate interplay between individuals and their social contexts, highlighting the richness and complexity of human communication

1.1.8.1 Register

Register in language refers to the variation in style, vocabulary, and syntax used in communication, influenced by factors such as context, audience, and purpose. It includes formal, colloquial, and specialty languages designed for certain social contexts and exchanges. A formal register is frequently used in academic, professional, or ceremonial settings. It is distinguished by adherence to grammatical rules, the use of complicated language, and avoidance of slang or colloquialisms. Conversely, the informal register is more relaxed and colloquial and is frequently used in ordinary interactions among friends, family, and peers. It has a smaller vocabulary, casual grammar, and slang expressions. Additionally, specialized registers emerge within particular domains, such as law, medicine, or technology, characterized by technical terminology and jargon specific to those fields. Register serves as a tool for individuals to adapt their language to suit the social norms, expectations, and conventions of different contexts, allowing for effective communication and social integration.

Eg, we do not communicate our anger towards a teacher in class the same way we would towards a referee in a football match.

1.1.8.2 Slang

Slang in language refers to informal and unconventional words, phrases, and expressions that are often characteristic of specific social groups, subcultures, or generations. Slang evolves rapidly and is frequently used to establish identity, solidarity, or to convey certain attitudes or emotions. It can also be seen as a kind of defiance against the conventions of the dominant language. Slang terms can range from playful and humorous to edgy or even offensive, and they often have a transient nature, gaining popularity quickly and falling out of use just as fast. For example, phrases like "lit" to mean exciting or "throwing shade" to describe subtle insults are common slang terms in contemporary English. Slang reflects the dynamic nature of language and serves as a vibrant aspect of cultural expression and communication.

1. **Inclusivity and Exclusivity:** Slang can create a sense of belonging within a group, as those who understand and use it feel connected to each other. Conversely, it can also create barriers between those who are "in" and those who are "out,"

as understanding slang often requires insider knowledge or shared experiences.

2. **Adaptability and Innovation:** Slang is highly adaptable and can quickly evolve to reflect changes in society, technology, or popular culture. New words and expressions emerge to describe emerging phenomena or trends, showcasing the creativity and resourcefulness of language users.

3. **Regional Variation:** Slang is not uniform across all communities; it often varies by region, reflecting local cultures, histories, and influences. Different cities, neighborhoods, or even schools may develop their own slang terms, adding layers of richness and complexity to language variation.

4. **Identity Expression:** Slang can be a powerful tool for expressing individual and collective identities, including aspects such as race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, and socioeconomic status. It allows people to assert their uniqueness and authenticity while reinforcing bonds within their communities.

Eg: hang loose, which means calm down and relax

1.1.9 Jargon & Accent

Jargon is specialized vocabulary or terminology used by a particular group or profession. It is often used to communicate efficiently and precisely within a specific field. For example, medical jargon includes terms like "cardiac arrest" and "autopsy," while legal jargon includes terms like "habeas corpus" and "prima facie." Jargon can be used to simplify communication within a specific field, demonstrate expertise and knowledge, or exclude outsiders.

Accent, on the other hand, is a variation in pronunciation that is characteristic of a particular region or social group. It is often influenced by factors such as geography, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. Examples of accents include British, American, Australian, and regional accents within a country. Accents can be used to indicate a person's regional or social identity, convey emotional or stylistic nuances, or create stereotypes or prejudices.

1.1.10 Speech and writing

Speech and writing are two primary modes of human communication, each with its own unique characteristics and strengths. Spoken words transmit information instantly, dynamically,

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❖ Slang linguistic evolution

❖ Slang geographic diversity

❖ Professional specialized language

❖ Pronunciation variation

and interactively, enabling spontaneous discussion and real-time interaction. It uses facial expressions, gestures, and tone to build rapport and convey meaning between speakers. Contrarily, writing is a more planned and methodical kind of communication that uses written language to transmit ideas over distance and time. It makes it possible to convey ideas clearly, develop language with care, and save knowledge for the next generations. Writing provides readers with clarity, permanency, and the capacity to reach a larger audience than speaking, which is superior in creating emotional resonance and connection. Speech and writing together constitute the basis of human expression, allowing us to interact, connect, and work together in a variety of ways.

Speech in language refers to the act of verbal communication, where individuals use spoken words to convey messages, thoughts, and emotions to others. It is a fundamental aspect of human interaction, serving as the primary means of expressing ideas, building relationships, and sharing experiences. Speech involves not only the production of sounds through the vocal apparatus but also the organization of language elements, such as vocabulary, grammar, and intonation patterns to create coherent and meaningful utterances. Through speech, individuals negotiate meaning, establish rapport, and navigate social situations, adapting their language to suit the context and the needs of their audience. Speech encompasses a wide range of styles and registers, from formal presentations to casual conversations, each influenced by factors, such as cultural norms, social dynamics, and personal identity. Overall, speech plays a central role in human communication, facilitating connection and understanding among individuals in diverse contexts and cultures. Writing in language is the art and craft of expressing thoughts, ideas, and emotions through the written word. It encompasses a wide range of forms, from prose and poetry to essays, articles, and stories, each with its own conventions and styles. Through writing, individuals can communicate across time and space, preserving knowledge, documenting history, and sharing experiences with audiences far beyond their immediate surroundings. Writing requires mastery of language mechanics such as spelling, grammar, and punctuation, as well as an understanding of rhetorical strategies and literary devices to engage and persuade readers. Whether it is a heartfelt letter, a scholarly thesis, or a captivating novel, writing allows for creativity, self-expression, and the exploration of complex themes and perspectives. It serves as a powerful tool for communication, education, and advocacy, shaping public discourse and influencing hearts and minds across cultures and generations.

The unit provides an introduction to language and linguistics. It defines language as a complex system of communication using words, symbols, and gestures to convey meaning. The unit explores various theories on the origin of language, including the "bow-wow" theory (imitation of natural sounds) and the "yo-he-ho" theory (rhythmic sounds during cooperative labor). It outlines key properties that make human language unique, such as arbitrariness, productivity, displacement, and cultural transmission. The unit contrasts human language with animal communication, highlighting humans' ability to generate novel utterances and discuss abstract concepts.

The unit also covers regional language variations and dialectology, explaining how geographic and social factors lead to dialectal diversity. It introduces concepts like bilingualism, pidgin and creole languages, and sociolinguistic phenomena such as diglossia and code-switching. The unit concludes by examining social variations in language use, including register, slang, and jargon, and briefly comparing spoken and written forms of communication. Overall, the unit provides a solid foundation for understanding the nature, origins, and social dimensions of human language.

Assignments

1. Define language and explain the theories related to its origin. Do you think these theories offer a rational explanation? Why?

2. Identify the properties of human language and give examples, wherever possible, to illustrate the properties.

3. Distinguish between human language and animal communication.

4. What are the factors affecting social variations in language? Explain with examples.

5. Elaborate on the complex relationship between language and society by citing examples from the languages you know.

6. Browse the internet and identify creoles and pidgins used in the past or present for interaction between two communities of speakers for commercial purpose.

7. Do you think people living on border areas between different states in India are bilinguals? Why?

8. Which of the two skills of English, Speaking & Writing , you think, is more difficult to acquire? Why?

👤 Suggested reading

1. Anderson, S., & Anderson, S. R. (2012). Languages: A very short introduction. OUP, USA.

2. Matthews, P. H. (2003). Linguistics: A very short introduction. OUP Oxford.

3. Crystal, D. (1992). Introducing linguistics. *Cambridge University Press.*

👤 Reference

1. Yule, G. (1985). The study of language. http://www3.uji.es/~ruiz/1003/Lects/Yule-Chap19.pdf

2. Palmer, F. R. (1981). *Semantics. Cambridge University Press.*

3. Trudgill, P. (2000). *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society. Penguin UK.*

Space for Learner Engagement for Objective Questions

Learners are encouraged to develop objective questions based on the content in the paragraph as a sign of their comprehension of the content. The Learners may reflect on the recap bullets and relate their understanding with the narrative in order to frame objective questions from the given text. The University expects that 1 - 2 questions are developed for each paragraph. The space given below can be used for listing the questions.

UNIT 2

Theoretical Approaches to Linguistics

Learning Outcome

By the conclution of this unit, the learner will be able to:

♦ analyse language using fundamental linguistic concepts
♦ explore the relationship between language and culture
♦ analyse how language use varies depending on context and social factors
♦ recognise language change and factors influencing language variations

Background

The word Linguistics has been derived from the Latin word Lingua (tongue) and istics (science or knowledge). Broadly speaking, it attempts to analyse and describe languages. Linguistics is the scientific study of language, delving into its structure, meaning, and how we use it to communicate. In other words, linguistics tries to make systematic and scientific investigation into how language originated and how it changes as it is used in real life. It studies the internal patterns of a language and the functions for which it is used in social interactions.

The 18th and 19th century found some renewed interest in linguistics and the study of language was done in relation to other branches of knowledge like anthropology, psychology, sociology, etc. This led to linguistics branching out into specialized areas, each focusing on a specific aspect of language. Some branches, like phonetics and phonology, examine the sounds that make up words, while others, like syntax and semantics, explore how we put words together to form sentences and imbue them with meaning.

Sociolinguistics investigates the social factors that influence language use, while psycholinguistics peers into the mind to understand how we learn and process language. This exploration of language's many facets allows us to appreciate its complexity and the fascinating ways it shapes our world.

This unit discusses some basic concepts in linguistics and examines variations taking place in language when it is used in society. Though there may branches of linguistics, we will be focusing on the two major sub-branches, namely, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

Discussion

1.2.1 Linguistics as Scientific Study of Language

Linguistics stands as an indispensable scientific discipline devoted to the systematic study of human language in all its multifaceted dimensions. At its core, linguistics seeks to understand the intricate structures, functions, and evolution of language, employing rigorous methodologies akin to those of natural sciences. Ferdinand de Saussure, often regarded as the Father of Linguistics, revolutionized the field with his seminal work (A Course in General Linguistics) on structural linguistics, introducing fundamental concepts such as the signifier-signified relationship and the synchronic analysis of language. By meticulously analyzing the phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics of languages across diverse cultures and contexts, linguistics unveils the underlying principles governing language production, comprehension, and usage.

❖ Linguistic analysis methods

Linguists decipher the complex interactions between language form and meaning, revealing the mechanisms underlying language learning, evolution, and variation through methodical observation and hypothesis testing. Furthermore, linguistics has connections to many other fields, such as computer science, neuroscience, , psychology, and anthropology, which promotes multidisciplinary cooperation and deepens our understanding of human behavior and cognition. Linguistics, as a scientific discipline, sheds light on the basic characteristics of language and has significant ramifications for a variety of fields, including education, communication technologies, language policy, and cultural preservation.

❖ Language structure investigation

1.2.2 Scope of Linguistics

The scope of linguistics encompasses a vast array of phenomena pertaining to human language. Its purview includes the study of language acquisition in children, the evolution of languages over time, and the impact of language contact and migration on linguistic change. Moreover, linguistics examines the cognitive processes underlying language comprehension and production, exploring

how the brain processes linguistic information and how this informs our understanding of cognition more broadly. Furthermore, linguistics intersects with fields such as computational linguistics, where algorithms are developed to analyze and generate human language, and sociolinguistics which examines the social dynamics shaping language variation and attitudes.

By elucidating the mechanisms underlying language acquisition and learning, linguistics informs educational practices, facilitating more effective teaching methods for language learners of all ages. Linguistic research contributes to the development of natural language processing technologies, powering advancements in machine translation, speech recognition, and artificial intelligence. Additionally, sociolinguistic insights are invaluable for policymakers and educators in crafting inclusive language policies and promoting linguistic diversity and cultural understanding. Linguistic analysis aids in forensic investigations through forensic linguistics, where language is employed as evidence in legal proceedings. Overall, linguistics enriches our understanding of human communication, fosters cross-cultural dialogue, and drives innovations with far-reaching implications for both academia and society at large.

1.2.3 Branches of Linguistics
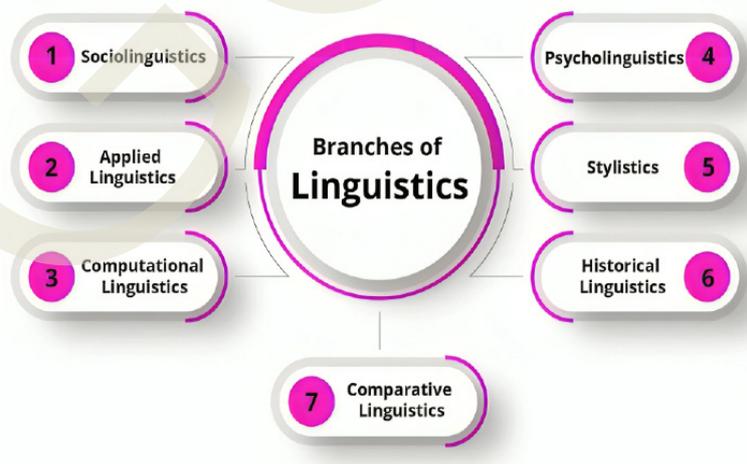
Fig.1.2.1 Branches of Linguistics

The scientific study of language, or linguistics, has many subfields that concentrate on various facets of spoken language. All of these subfields add to our knowledge of language's functionality, structure, application, and social role. Fundamentally, the goal of linguistics is to understand language in all of its manifestations—from the sounds we make to the meanings we express. There are various disciplines of linguistics, each concentrating on a particular

facet of language. Certain fields, such as phonology and phonetics, study how sounds are generated and arranged in words. Others, such as syntax and morphology, examine the structure of words and how sentences are put together. While pragmatics investigates how sentences and words are put together, semantics examines how we use language in different contexts to achieve communicative goals.

Beyond structure, linguistics also explores the relationship between language and society (sociolinguistics), how languages change over time (historical linguistics), the real-life applications of linguistics (applied linguistics), study and interpretation of style and tones in languages (stylistics), similar and dissimilar aspects of common-origin languages(comparative linguistics), spoken and written languages in computations and programming (computational linguistics), and even how our brains process language (psycholinguistics). This vast field offers a fascinating glimpse into the world of human communication.

Though there are many branches in linguistics, in this unit, we will be focusing on the two major branches, namely, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

1.2.3.1 Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the dynamic branch of linguistics that explores the fascinating interplay between language and society. It examines how language use varies across different social groups, contexts, and cultural settings. Sociolinguistics delves into how social factors like ethnicity, gender, age, social class, and geographical location influence the way we use language. Sociolinguists act like social detectives, examining how these factors shape our vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and even the way we structure sentences. By studying language in its social context, sociolinguistics sheds light on issues of identity, power, and solidarity within communities. It also explores how language reflects and reinforces social norms, attitudes, and values. By analyzing these linguistic variations, sociolinguists can illuminate social dynamics, group identities, and even historical power structures within a society. Their work helps us understand how language both reflects and reinforces social hierarchies, and how it can also be a powerful tool for social change.

1.2.3.2 Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics is the intriguing bridge between the world of language and the inner workings of the human mind, focusing on the cognitive processes involved in language comprehension, production, and acquisition. This field delves into the fascinating

mental processes that underlie our ability to acquire, use, and comprehend language. Psycholinguists act like mind detectives, trying to crack the code of how our brains represent, store, and process language. They investigate a wide range of topics, including language processing in the brain, the development of language skills in children, how we effortlessly retrieve words and build sentences when speaking, how we decipher the meaning behind spoken or written language, the impact of language impairments such as aphasia, and the effects of bilingualism on cognitive function. Through experimental methods such as eye-tracking, brain imaging, and behavioral studies, psycholinguistics seeks to uncover the underlying mechanisms of language processing, from the activation of lexical items to the formation of syntactic structures. By studying how language is processed and represented in the mind, psycholinguistics provides valuable insights into the nature of human cognition and the intricate relationship between language and thought.

❖ Cognitive language processes

1.2.3.4 Neurolinguistics and Anthropological Linguistics

Neurolinguistics focuses on the biological and neurological basis of language. It uses brain imaging techniques, electrophysiology, and studies of language disorders to investigate how the brain processes language. Neurolinguists ask questions such as: How does the brain process language? What areas of the brain are involved in language production and comprehension? How do language disorders affect brain function?

❖ Biological basis of language

Anthropological Linguistics focuses on the social, cultural, and historical aspects of language. It uses fieldwork, ethnographic research, and analysis of language data to investigate how language reflects and shapes cultural identity, how language changes over time, and what are the sociolinguistic factors that influence language use.

❖ Cultural aspects of language

While these two fields may seem distinct, they are interconnected in several ways. Language is both a biological function and a cultural product, and both fields contribute to understanding this complex phenomenon. Language disorders can be influenced by cultural factors, and anthropological linguistics can provide insights into how these disorders are experienced and treated in different cultures. Additionally, the evolution of language is closely linked to cultural change, and both fields can contribute to understanding these processes.

❖ Interconnected linguistic fields

1.2.4 Saussurean Concepts : Langue and Parole

Ferdinand de Saussure was a Swiss linguist and semiotician, widely regarded as one of the founders of modern linguistics and structuralism. Born in 1857, his work laid the groundwork for many key concepts in Linguistics, particularly in the realm of structural linguistics. His most famous work, "Course in General Linguistics," was published posthumously by his students in 1916. Saussure's ideas centered on the notion that language is a system of signs, with each sign consisting of a signifier (the form) and a signified (the concept it represents), and that meaning arises from the relationships between signs within the system rather than from their individual components.

❖ Structural linguistics founder

The idea of language as system of signs is usually associated with **Ferdinand de Saussure**, a *Swiss* linguist who lived in the latter part of the 19ᵗʰ century and whose views on language were published posthumously from the lecture notes of his students. For this reason, Ferdinand de Saussure is usually referred to as **"The Father of Modern Linguistics"**.
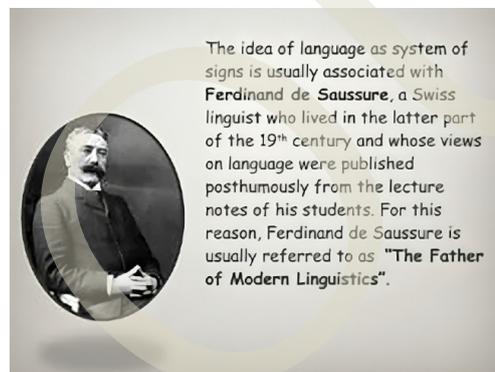
In other words, signifier is the physical form we can perceive with our senses. It could be a spoken word (like "cat"), a written word (like "C-A-T"), a sound (like a dog barking), an image (like a drawing of a cat), or even a gesture (like pointing your finger). In contrast, signified is the mental concept or idea that the signifier represents. So, for the signifier "cat," the signified would be the furry feline four-legged creature in your mind.

❖ Signifier and signified explanation

The relationship between signifier and signified is interesting because it is often arbitrary, which means there is no inherent connection between the two. This structural approach to language analysis has had a profound influence on fields beyond linguistics, including anthropology, literary theory, and philosophy.

❖ Arbitrary sign-signified relationship

One of Saussure's central ideas was the distinction between "langue" and "parole,". He argued that langue represents the abstract, systematic structure of language shared by a community, while parole refers to the individual acts of speech or writing produced by individuals within that community. This differentiation laid the groundwork for structural linguistics, emphasizing the importance of analyzing language as a structured system rather than as isolated utterances.

❖ Langue and parole distinction

In Ferdinand de Saussure's linguistic framework, "langue" refers to the underlying, abstract system of language that exists within a community or society. It encompasses the shared rules, conventions, and structures that govern the language, including grammar, syntax, phonology and vocabulary. Langue is considered a social phenomenon shaped by the collective usage and understanding of language by its speakers.

Parole refers to the individual, concrete instances of speech or writing. Understanding langue is crucial for comprehending how language functions as a system of signs and how meaning is generated through the interplay of signifiers and signifieds within this system. . Parole, on the other hand, represents the individual acts of using language. Every time you speak, write, or even think in a language, that's parole. So, a single sentence you say is parole, but the underlying rules that make that sentence grammatically correct are part of langue.

1.2.5 Language as a system of signs

Within a particular society or culture, language functions as an intricate system of signs, with sounds, symbols, and gestures all having a distinct meaning. It is a complicated combination of phonetics, syntax, and semantics in which discrete elements, such words and phrases, serve as symbols for thoughts, concepts, objects, actions, or abstract concepts. Language facilitates communication by way of this ordered arrangement, which makes it easier for people to share experiences, feelings, and knowledge. Furthermore, because of its innate flexibility, language may evolve over time and create new meanings and expressions via inventiveness. Thus, language is a dynamic mirror of human cognition, culture, and society in addition to being a tool for communication.

1.2.6 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relations

Syntagmatic and paradigmatic are two fundamental dimensions in the study of language structure and organization. Syntagmatic relations refer to the linear arrangement of linguistic elements within a sentence or utterance. This involves how words, phrases, and clauses are sequenced and combined to form coherent units of meaning.
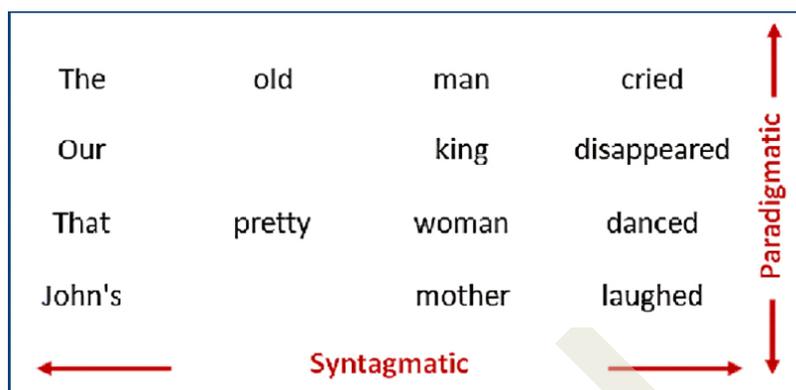
❖ Langue definition

❖ Parole definition

❖ Structured communication system

❖ Linear and associative relations

Fig. 1.2.2 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic structure

For example, in the sentence "The cat chased the mouse," the words follow a syntagmatic order where "The cat" precedes "chased," and "chased" precedes "the mouse." Understanding syntagmatic relations helps decipher the grammatical structure of sentences and comprehend how individual units function within larger linguistic contexts. Syntagmatic analysis in linguistics scrutinizes the sequential arrangement of linguistic elements within a given utterance or text, elucidating how words, phrases, and clauses coalesce to form cohesive units of meaning. This approach focuses on the linear order and structural coherence of linguistic units, unveiling the intricate syntactic relationships that govern their combination. By dissecting the syntagmatic dimension of language, researchers uncover the underlying grammatical rules and principles that dictate how individual elements interact to convey coherent messages. Through syntagmatic analysis, linguists decode the grammatical structure of sentences, unravel the syntactic hierarchy of phrases, and explore the syntactic patterns that underpin discourse construction. This meticulous examination enables a deeper understanding of how language users construct meaningful expressions through the strategic sequencing and arrangement of linguistic units within communicative acts, enriching our comprehension of the syntactic foundations of language usage.

On the other hand, paradigmatic relations involve the association and substitution of linguistic elements based on their shared features or categories. This dimension focuses on the selection of words or elements from a set of alternatives to convey specific meanings.

For instance, in the sentence "The cat chased the mouse," "cat" and "mouse" are paradigmatically related as they both belong to the category of animals. Similarly, in the sentence "The dog chased the cat," "dog" and "cat" can be substituted paradigmatically while maintaining the syntactic structure of the sentence. Understanding

❖ Syntagmatic relation example

❖ Paradigmatic relation explanation

paradigmatic relations aids in vocabulary expansion, word choice, and the creation of meaningful variations in expression within a language system. Paradigmatic analysis in linguistics delves into the associative relationships between linguistic elements within a language system, elucidating how words, morphemes, and syntactic structures are interconnected based on shared features or categories. This approach focuses on the selection and substitution of elements from a set of alternatives to convey specific meanings, shedding light on the underlying principles of lexical and grammatical choice.

1.2.7 Synchronic Approach

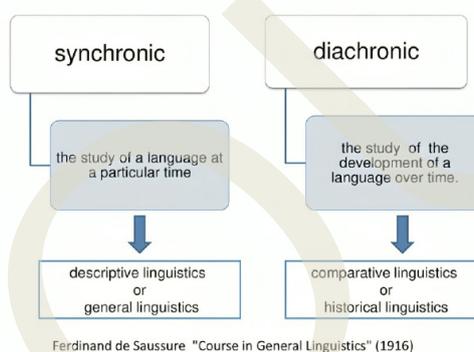Ferdinand de Saussure "Course in General Linguistics" (1916)

Fig.1.2.3 Difference between sychronic and diachronic

Synchronic approach focuses on studying a language at a specific point in time, without considering its historical development or changes over time. It examines the structure, function, and usage of language elements within a given linguistic system as it exists in the present moment. This approach allows linguists to analyze the internal relationships and patterns of a language community's speech or writing conventions without referencing its historical evolution. By focusing on synchronic analysis, researchers can explore the intricate dynamics of language systems, including grammar, vocabulary, and discourse, as they are currently used and understood by speakers within a particular social, cultural, and contextual framework. This perspective is valuable for understanding the complexities of language in its contemporary context and for making observations about language variation, usage, and communication patterns within a specific community or society.

1.2.8 Diachronic Approach

Diachronic approach examines language changes over time, tracing the historical development and evolution of linguistic

systems. By analyzing shifts in grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and syntax across different periods, diachronic linguists uncover the underlying processes that shape languages. Under this method, the etymology of words, the impact of social and cultural elements on the development of language, and the processes underlying linguistic evolution throughout generations are all examined. Language divergence, merger, borrowing, and context adaptation are all explored through diachronic studies, which illuminate the intricate relationship between language, culture, and history. Additionally, diachronic linguistics aids in reconstructing proto-languages and understanding the broader linguistic family trees, offering valuable perspectives on human communication and the development of language diversity across the world.

1.2.9 American Structuralism

Structuralism is an intellectual movement that emerged in the early 20th century and had a profound impact on a wide range of disciplines, including linguistics. In linguistics, structuralism refers to a school of thought that views language as a self-contained system of signs, where the meaning of an element is derived from its relationship to other elements within the system.

Phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics are among the various layers of language structure that structural linguists have studied. The discipline of linguistics benefited greatly from structural linguistics' systematic and methodical approach to the study of language. Its concentration on the formal system of language at the cost of its social and historical context has, nevertheless, also drawn criticism.

American Structuralism, spearheaded by Bloomfield, treated language as a self-contained system, much like a biological organism. Bloomfield, heavily influenced by behaviorism, focused on observable patterns in speech. He emphasized breaking down language into its building blocks – sounds, word parts, and sentence structures – and analyzing the relationships between them. Techniques like Immediate Constituent (IC) analysis allowed for a scientific dissection of sentences, revealing their underlying organization. Leonard Bloomfield is a key figure when discussing structuralism and linguistics, particularly American structuralism. Bloomfield's work, especially his book "Language" (1933), is considered foundational for American structural linguistics. He emphasized a scientific approach, analyzing observable patterns in language like sound systems and how words are formed. He developed techniques like Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICA)

❖ Language evolution analysis

❖ Structuralism in linguistics

❖ Structural linguistics focus

to break down sentences into their constituent parts, reflecting the structural organization of language. Bloomfield was heavily influenced by behaviorism, focusing on observable behavior rather than internal mental states. This led him to downplay the role of meaning in language analysis compared to some European structuralists like Saussure

Despite its groundbreaking methods, American structuralism had limitations. Meaning itself wasn't a central concern for Bloomfield, who prioritized the observable behavior of language use. Additionally, the focus on structure came at the expense of considering the social and historical context in which language functions. These limitations would pave the way for future linguistic theories to delve deeper into the complexities of human communication.

1.2.10 Leonard Bloomfield

Fig. 1.2.4 Leonard Bloomfield

Leonard Bloomfield, an influential American linguist, made significant contributions to the field in the early to mid-20th century. He is known for his work in structural linguistics, which emphasized the analysis of language structure without much concern for historical or cultural context. Bloomfield's work in structural linguistics was characterized by his emphasis on the scientific study of language, aiming to develop rigorous methods for describing and analysing linguistic phenomena. He believed that language could be studied objectively through the analysis of observable data, such as sounds, words, and grammatical patterns.

One of Bloomfield's key contributions to structural linguistics was his development of the notion of "linguistic structure" and the method of "immediate constituent analysis," which aimed to break down sentences into smaller meaningful units. His book "Language" (1933) remains a foundational text in the field and had

a profound impact on the development of linguistics, particularly in the United States.

Bloomfield's theory of the distribution of phonemes and morphemes focuses on the systematic arrangement and use of sounds and meaningful units in language. Bloomfield argued that phonemes, the smallest units of sound that can distinguish meaning in a language, are distributed systematically within a language. This means that each phoneme appears in specific environments or positions within words, and their distribution follows certain rules. He used the method of distributional analysis to study these patterns. He also argued that morphemes, the smallest units of meaning, are also distributed according to specific rules. Bloomfield's approach involved analyzing how morphemes combine to form words and how their arrangement affects meaning. He looked at how morphemes interact with each other in different contexts to produce meaning. Bloomfield's work laid the groundwork for understanding how phonemes and morphemes are organized and function within languages, which has influenced many areas of linguistic theory and research.

❖ Phoneme and morpheme distribution

Bloomfield's structuralist approach remained influential in the area of linguistics even after new theoretical frameworks and methodology were established by scholars like Noam Chomsky, challenging some of Bloomfield's findings. In spite of this, Bloomfield's advancement of scientific linguistic methodology and his contributions to the study of language structure are still highly valued.

❖ Bloomfield's lasting influence

1.2.11 Prague School

The Prague School refers to a group of linguists and literary critics associated with the Linguistic Circle of Prague, which was founded in the 1920s in Czechoslovakia (now the Czech Republic). The Prague School made significant contributions to the fields of linguistics, particularly in the areas of structural linguistics, phonology, and functional syntax.

❖ Structural and functional linguistics

One of the most influential figures associated with the Prague School is Nikolai Trubetzkoy, a Russian linguist who played a key role in the development of phonology. Trubetzkoy introduced the concept of phoneme, which revolutionized the study of sound systems in language by emphasizing the abstract, contrastive units of speech sounds. Another prominent figure of the Prague School is Roman Jakobson, a Russian-born linguist who made important contributions to phonology, morphology, and semiotics. Jakobson's work focused on the functions of language and the analysis of

❖ Phonology and phoneme concepts

linguistic structure in relation to communication.

Another notable aspect of the Prague School is its functional approach to syntax, which placed a strong emphasis on the analysis of linguistic structures as they relate to discourse and communication. All things considered, the Prague School's emphasis on the functional features of linguistic units, the structural study of language, and the development of important ideas like phoneme and functional syntax have left a lasting impression on the discipline of linguistics. The Prague School's influence can be seen in various linguistic theories and methodologies that have emerged since its inception.

❖ Functional syntax approach

1.2.12 Noam Chomsky and his Main Theories

Noam Chomsky is a renowned linguist, cognitive scientist, and political activist known for his theory of Universal Grammar, which posits that humans possess an innate language faculty guiding language acquisition. He suggests that all human languages share a common underlying structure despite surface differences, governed by a set of principles and parameters encoded in the human brain. Chomsky's work has profoundly influenced the fields of linguistics, psychology, and cognitive science, sparking debates and research on the nature of language, cognition, and the mechanisms underlying human linguistic abilities, while his activism continues to advocate for social justice and critique political power structures globally.

❖ Innate language faculty theory
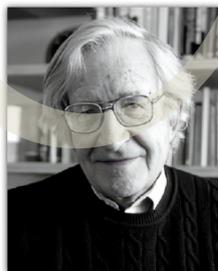
> **Language is a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation.**
>
> ~ *Noam Chomsky*

Although Noam Chomsky's theories span many other fields, his contributions to linguistics are particularly noteworthy. The idea of Universal Grammar (UG), which postulates an innate language ability in the human mind that permits language acquisition, is fundamental to his linguistic ideas. Chomsky argues that this intrinsic ability creates the structure of all human languages, resulting in the perceived universality even in the face of linguistic variation. He contends that a set of impersonal rules and guidelines control the fundamental foundation of all languages. According to Chomsky's framework, languages follow the basic guidelines and limitations

❖ Universal Grammar explanation

SGOU - SLM - MA English - Linguistics and Structure of the English Language

set out by Universal Grammar, notwithstanding differences in their outward characteristics.

Furthermore, he introduced the notion of a "Language Acquisition Device" (LAD), a hypothetical cognitive mechanism that facilitates language learning in children. Beyond linguistics, Chomsky's theories have had far-reaching implications in fields such as psychology, cognitive science, and philosophy, stimulating interdisciplinary inquiry and challenging traditional views on human cognition and communication.

Transformational-Generative (TG) grammar, associated with Noam Chomsky's early work, is a linguistic framework aiming to uncover the underlying structures and rules governing language. It consists of two main components: phrase structure rules and transformations. Phrase structure rules outline the hierarchical organization of sentences, detailing how words combine to form meaningful units. Transformations, on the other hand, describe the ways in which one sentence can be converted into another while retaining its essential meaning. Additionally, his critical analyses of political power structures and advocacy for social justice have made him a prominent figure in activism, shaping discourse on global politics and social issues.

1.2.13 Competence and Performance

Noam Chomsky, a well-known American linguist, built upon Saussure's ideas and introduced two concepts : competence and performance. Here, Chomsky distinguishes between the underlying knowledge of language and the actual use of language in the real world.

According to Chomsky's theory of competence and performance, there are two different ways in which language is used. The fundamental understanding that speakers possess regarding the arrangement and principles of their language is referred to as competence. It speaks about an individual's mental grasp of their native tongue. The unconsciously learned rules you've acquired that enable you to comprehend and construct grammatically correct phrases, even ones you've never heard before, are similar to your internal grammar book.

In contrast, performance refers to the actual use of language in real-time communication. It encompasses the processes involved in producing and comprehending speech, which may be influenced by factors such as memory limitations, processing speed, and environmental distractions. It reflects the actual use of language

Margin notes
❖ Language Acquisition Device

❖ Chomsky's grammar framework

❖ Chomsky's language concepts

❖ Competence definition

in everyday situations. It's how you put your competence to work. When you build something specific with Legos, that's performance. Speaking with a stutter, forgetting a word, or using slang are all limitations of performance, not competence. These limitations can arise from memory lapses, distractions, or even physical limitations. Performance can vary from individual to individual and from one situation to another, and it may not always accurately reflect an individual's underlying linguistic competence. Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance has been instrumental in shaping the study of language acquisition, cognitive science, and linguistic theory.

❖ Performance definition

👤 Summarised Overview

This unit explores the scientific study of language, emphasizing systematic methods like observation and hypothesis testing to understand linguistic structures, functions, and evolution. It introduces key areas such as sociolinguistics, which examines language variation across social groups, and psycholinguistics, which focuses on cognitive processes involved in language comprehension and production. Saussure's foundational concepts, including langue (the abstract system of language) and parole (individual speech acts), as well as the relationship between the signifier and the signified, are discussed. Structuralism, particularly American Structuralism led by Leonard Bloomfield, is highlighted for its focus on breaking down language into smaller components and analyzing their relationships, with techniques like Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICA). The Prague School, through scholars like Trubetzkoy and Jakobson, advanced phonology and functional syntax. The unit also discusses Noam Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar, his theory of Universal Grammar, and the distinction between competence and performance, shaping modern linguistic thought. Overall, this unit offers a comprehensive understanding of linguistic theory and its development across different schools of thought.

👤 Assignments

1. Discuss the role of socio-linguistics in understanding language variation and its implications for society. Provide examples of how social factors such as class, ethnicity, and gender influence language use and perception.

2. Define psycholinguistics and discuss its significance in understanding human language acquisition.

3. Differentiate between syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations in language.

4. Distinguish between langue and parole?

5. Explain basic Saussurean and Chomskian concepts in linguistics?

6. Analyse the given sentence syntagmatically and paradigmatically to show how linguistic components in them are related.

She is a highly educated woman.

Arun was a successful public speaker.

7. Illustrate the possible signified of the given words and how they carry more than one meaning. Comment on the reasons for their polysemous nature.

Word, bench, study, damage, culture.

Suggested reading

1. Romaine, S. (2000). *Language in society: An Introduction to Sociolinguistics.* OUP Oxford.

2. Matthews, P. H. (2003). *Linguistics: A very short introduction.* OUP Oxford.

Reference

1. Chomsky, N. (2020). *Syntactic structures.* Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co KG.

2. Chomsky, N. (2017). *On language: Chomsky's Classic Works: Language and Responsibility and Reflections on Language.* The New Press.

3. Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2014). *Language and communication.* Routledge.

Space for Learner Engagement for Objective Questions

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Phonology, Morphology, Semantics and Pragmatics

UNIT 1

Phonology

Learning Outcome

By the completion of this Unit, the learner will be able to:

♦ describe what constitutes phonology of English language
♦ analyse all distinctive features of all phonemes in English
♦ Distinguish supra segmental features of English language and their importance in communication
♦ Clarify the difference between RP and GIE
♦ Discuss the challenges of Malayalam speakers to imbibe English

Background

We know that, to be fluent in a language does not require any knowledge of its functioning, but for a linguistic student, knowledge of the functioning of language is more interesting, as it helps him to understand the complicated biological and linguistic nature of the language.

For instance, when we check the production of /b/ (first sound in 'but') and /p/ (first sound in 'put'), we can see that both sounds are produced by closing both lips. Then why are they different? Phonology will tell you that the difference is the vibration of the vocal cords during the production of both these sounds. Similarly, why /t/ (last sound in 'pat') and /t/ in Malayalam word 'ബ«' are different? Again, phonology will tell you that the difference lies un parts of the of the roof of the mouth where the tip of the tongue touches.

Understanding phonetics is at the core of linguistics. As speech sounds constitute the very essence of human communication, an in-depth understanding of production, and comparison of different phonemes is essential. Language constitutes two very important aspects: segmental (Speech sounds) and suprasegmentals (other aspects like stress and tone). Both aspects play key roles in communication. This unit will help you to understand all these factors.

Key Words

Phonology, suprasegmentals, phoneme, allophone, stress, intonation

2.1.1 What is phonology?

Have you ever thought of the fact why different languages use different sounds? For example, in Malayalam there are sounds like /g/ as in (ag, hmg), but we don't find that sound in English, though it is a universal language! Humans are capable of producing innumerable speech sounds, but no language, however, makes use of all those sounds. Each language makes a selection of speech sounds. Then comes the questions "Who decides the selection and organisation of these sounds for a particular language?" and "Is it because some people are not capable of producing certain sounds?" Linguistics studies issues like these and tries to explain the nature of languages. Phonology constitutes the selection and organisation of speech sounds in a particular language.

❖ Languages select unique sounds; phonology studies their organization

Phonology is a branch of linguistics that studies the systematic organization of sounds in languages and how they function within linguistic systems. It examines the abstract, cognitive aspects of speech sounds, focusing on their patterns, distribution, and rules governing their usage in language. Phonologists analyse the sounds of language at various levels, including individual speech sounds (phonemes), their allophonic variations, and their interactions in different linguistic contexts. By investigating phonological patterns and processes such as phoneme inventory, phonotactics, and phonological alternations, phonology seeks to uncover the underlying principles that govern sound structure and contribute to the meaning and intelligibility of spoken language.

❖ Phonology studies sound organization and patterns in languages

2.1.2 What are suprasegmentals?

2.1.2.1 Segmental Vs Suprasegmentals

Look at the sentences below:

"You are going home."

"You are going home?"

Grammatically or structurally speaking both these sentences have no difference. But we know that the first one is a statement of fact (I know you are going home, it is ok) and the second sentence is question (what, are you going home at this time? Is it not too early to go home now? I don't expect you to go home now, etc are the implications). What, actually made these two sentences different? Of course it is the way they are uttered, or we can say the tone of the speaker made the first sentence a statement and the second sentence a question, but without changing the word order. So now we know that the tone of the speaker is equally important in the communication. The tone of the above speaker is a suprasegmental feature.

> ❖ Tone differentiates statements from questions in communication.

Understanding both segmental and supra-segmental features is essential for comprehending the phonetic and phonological aspects of language and how they contribute to the richness and variability of spoken communication. Segmental and suprasegmentals are two different categories of features that help communication, and are equally important in successful and accurate communication.

> ❖ Segmental and suprasegmental features enhance spoken communication

Segmental refers to the individual speech sounds that make up words. These include consonants and vowels, which are the basic building blocks of any language.

2.1.2.2 Suprasegmental (Sound attributes or Prosodic features)

Suprasegmental features, pertain to aspects of speech that extend beyond individual segments or sounds (phonemes). They are elements such as intonation, stress, pitch, and rhythm. Unlike segmental features, which involve discrete phonetic units like consonants and vowels, suprasegmental features operate over larger stretches of speech, often spanning multiple syllables or even entire utterances. Intonation, for instance, refers to the rising and falling patterns of pitch across a sentence, conveying nuances of mood, emphasis, or interrogative status. Stress involves the prominence or emphasis placed on certain syllables within words or phrases, impacting the rhythmic flow and overall meaning of utterances.

> ❖ Segmental and suprasegmental features enhance spoken communication

Rhythm, on the other hand, concerns the temporal organization of speech, including patterns of syllable duration and timing. Through the study of suprasegmental features, linguists gain insights into the prosodic structure of language, examining how these overarching elements contribute to communicative functions, such as emphasis, emotional expression, and pragmatic interpretation.

Remember that suprasegmental features of language are as important as segments, in making the communication successful, comprehensible and accurate.

Key suprasegmental features are discussed below:

Word Stress

Malayalam is not a language that gives much importance for word stress or sentence stress. When we say a Malayalam sentence "ഞാൻ ഇന്നലെ ക്ലാസ്സിൽ പോയില്ല" all words are pronounced almost alike, except when we want to argue with some one that "I was not present there in the class, so I have no idea what happened there". But in English an equivalent, "I didn't attend class yesterday" there are multiple syllables the speaker has to stress. Syllables, "I", second syllable of "didn't", /t/ of 'attend', /d/ of 'yesterday' are pronounced with more puff of air or 'stress'. This makes English a rhythmic language.

Word stress, also known as lexical stress, refers to the relative prominence or emphasis placed on particular syllable within words. In other words, stressed syllables are pronounced with more force compared to non-stressed syllables. In English, word stress typically involves the elevation of pitch, intensity, and duration on the stressed syllable compared to unstressed ones. This prominence can significantly alter the meaning and interpretation of words,

Look at the following words. Based on the syllable stressed they change the meaning. (Stress is pointed by putting capital letters.)

"CON-vict" (noun) = a person Vs "con-VICT" (verb) = process of formal charging a person

"PRE-sent" (noun)= gift Vs "pre-SENT" (verb) = introduce or show something

"SUS-pect" (noun)= a person who is suspected Vs "sus-PECT" (verb) = act of suspecting

The placement of stress within words follows specific patterns and is influenced by factors including syllable structure, morphological complexity, and lexical category. For instance, English tends to

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❖ Segmental and suprasegmental features enhance spoken communication

❖ Malayalam lacks significant word stress compared to English

❖ Word stress affects meaning and pronunciation in English

place primary stress on the first syllable of nouns and adjectives (e.g., "PHO-to" and "HAP-py"), while verbs may exhibit stress patterns varying based on prefixes and suffixes (e.g., "pre-SENT" versus "PRE-sent"). Word stress plays a crucial role in speech perception and production, contributing to the rhythm, clarity, and intelligibility of utterances. We will study details of stress patterns and rules that govern them below.

Accented and Unaccented Syllables

When we pronounce an English word made up of more than one syllable (poly syllabic words) we pronounce it in such a way that one of the syllables is more prominent than the other syllable(s) in the same word. The syllable that is prominent in a word is called the strong syllable or the accented syllable, whereas the syllable or syllables that is/are pronounced without prominence is/are called weak or unaccented syllable(s).

2.1.3 Primary and Secondary Stress

In linguistic analysis, word stress is often categorized into primary and secondary stress, reflecting the hierarchical prominence of syllables within a word. Primary stress denotes the strongest degree of emphasis placed on a particular syllable, typically marked by elevated pitch, increased intensity, and longer duration compared to unstressed syllables. In English, primary stress is crucial for lexical distinctions and is assigned according to regular patterns within words. Secondary stress, on the other hand, represents a lesser degree of emphasis relative to primary stress but is still stronger than unstressed syllables.

In several poly syllabic (three or more syllables) English words, two syllables in each word are accented. The first of the two set to receive secondary accent and the second of the two is set to receive primary accent. For example, in the word **afternoon** the first syllable and third syllable are more prominent than the second. The first syllable receives secondary accent and the third receives primary accent. Similarly ,the word **examination** is accented on the second and fourth syllables.

af-ter-**noon**   e-**xa**-mi-**na**-tion

For a non-native English speaker mastering stress pattern of English language is a Herculean task, but there are certain common rules everybody can easily master and thus make their English more native like or have 'near native' pattern. The following rules will

help you to improve your pronunciation of individual words as well as continuous speech.

Word stress rules

Stress and Accent are basically a matter of the accurate message the speaker wanted to communicate. In that sense, there is no rule to say which word of a sentence to be accented or stressed. For example, a sentence like, "Are you sleeping in my class?" words, "you", "sleeping", "my" and "class" can be stressed, depending on what actually the speaker wanted to stress. If "you" is stressed, it means that it was never expected of 'you' (unlike others) to sleep in the class.

Yet there are certain common rules to be followed in English when it comes to word stress.

Rule1: Words with weak prefixes always take the stress on the root.

Example –

1. aboard: /əˈbɔːrd/

2. alone: /əˈloʊn/

3. below: /bɪˈloʊ/

Rule 2: The inflectional suffixes –ed,-es and –ing do not affect the accent. That is, words with these suffixes added to them take the accent on the same syllable as the words to which they have been added.

Example

-ed	exˈtend	exˈtended
	afˈfect	afˈfected
-es	disˈease	disˈeases
	reˈlax	reˈlaxes
-ing	adˈvance	adˈvancing
	beˈgin	beˈginning

Rule 3: The derivational affixes –age,-ance,-en,-er,-ess,-ful,-hood ,-ice,-ish,-ly,-ment,-ness,-or,-ship,-ure and –zen do not normally affect the accent .That is ,bases to which these suffixes are added and the derived words with the addition of these affixes take the accent on the same syllable.

Example

-age	ˈcover	ˈcoverage
-ance	apˈpear	apˈpearance

-en	foˈrbid	forˈbidden
-er	emˈploy	emˈployer
-ess	ˈactor	ˈactress
-ful	ˈcolour	ˈcolourful
-hood	ˈbrother	ˈbrotherhood
-ice	ˈcoward	ˈcowardice
-ish	ˈdevil	ˈdevilish
-ive	aˈbuse	aˈbusive
-less	ˈbottom	ˈbottomless
-ly	ˈcertain	ˈcertainly
-ment	aˈmuse	aˈmusement
-ness	ˈbitter	ˈbitterness
-or	conˈduct	conˈductor
-ship	ˈscholar	ˈscholarship
-ter	ˈlaugh	ˈlaughter
-zen	ˈcity	ˈcitizen

Rule 4: Words end in the three letters -"ion"- receive the primary accent on the second last or the penultimate syllable

Example

ˈAction adˈdition ˈmotion ˈnation examiˈnation

Rule 5: Words ending in –ic,-ical,-ically,-ious,-ial and –ially receive the primary accent on the syllable before the suffix.

Example

Pathetic   bioˈlogical   ˈchemically   cereˈmonious   comˈmercial   confiˈdentially

Rule 6: Words ending in-ity take the primary accent on the third last or (anti-penultimate) syllable.

Example

caˈpacity   aˈbility   opporˈtunity   magnaˈnimity   confidentiˈality

2.1.4 Stress Shift

Stress shift denotes a phenomenon where the primary accent or emphasis within a word undergoes displacement due to contextual factors or morphological changes. Stress shift is when the emphasis in a word moves from one syllable to another, often due to adding affixes or changing the word's form. It's common in English and affects the pronunciation and meaning of words. This linguistic process often occurs in inflectional or derivational forms, where the addition or removal of affixes alters the stress pattern of a word. For instance, in English, the noun "CON-vict" carries stress on the first syllable, while the related verb "con-VICT" exhibits stress shift to the second syllable.

Example:

The ˈconvict stood with a melancholic demeanor.(noun)

The jury unanimously conˈ**victed** him of robbery.(verb)

Similar example can be traced in "**thir**teen men" versus "thirteenth man." Here, stress migrates from the first syllable ("thir") to the second ("teenth") when "thirteen" modifies "man" as an adjective.

Stress shift can also occur in compound words, as observed in "BLACK-bird" versus "black-BIRD," where the primary stress migrates to a different component of the compound. Additionally, stress shift may arise in loanwords assimilated into a language, where the stress pattern conforms to native phonological rules. The study of stress shift contributes to our understanding of language change, phonological processes, and the interaction between morphology and prosody. Moreover, it has implications for speech perception, lexical access, and language acquisition, highlighting its significance in both theoretical linguistics and practical applications.

2.1.5 Compound Word Stress

Compound words are formed by putting two or more words together to make a new word. For example, "football" is made by combining "foot" and "ball." They can be written with spaces between the words, like "post office," or joined together, like "blueberry" and sometimes there is a hyphen between the two words, like "art-school".
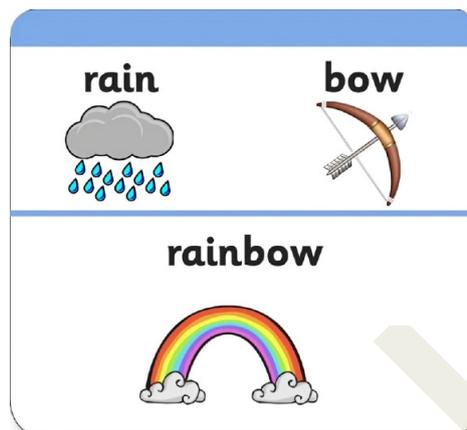
Fig. 2.1.1 Formation of compound words

Compound word stress refers to the pattern of emphasis placed on syllables within a compound word. In most compound words, the stress falls on the first of the two words forming the compound. If the first word has more than one syllable, the stress is placed on appropriate syllable. For example, 'back-ache, 'raincoat, 'tablecloth, etc.

There are other compound words that take stress on the second element. The compound words that have compounds like "self" and "ever" as their second constituent take stress on the second element.

Example:

Myself- /maɪˈself /

Yourself- /jɔːˈself /

However- /haʊˈevə /

Whoever- /huˈevə /

There are some compounds in which both the elements receive stress, the first element receiving secondary stress and the second element receiving primary stress.

Example:

readymade- /ˌredɪˈmeɪd/

postgraduate- /ˌpəʊstˈgrædjʊɪt/,

homemade- /ˌhəʊmˈmeɪd/

It is evident from this discussion that, word stress in English is irregular and unpredictable. However, the above guidelines are helpful for non-native users.

2.1.6 Rhythm

Rhythm in linguistics refers to the pattern of stresses and pauses in speech, akin to the beat in music. It's the cadence that shapes the flow and feel of language, influencing its musicality and memorability. It is not just about how fast we speak, but rather the patterned arrangement of stressed and unstressed syllables, silence, and variations in pitch. Imagine a well-composed song – the rhythm provides the underlying structure that carries the notes and lyrics. Similarly, in phonetics, rhythm creates a dynamic interplay between the different elements of spoken language. Rhythm is like the heartbeat of language.

Several key factors contribute to rhythmic patterns:

Stress

As we discussed earlier this refers to the emphasis placed on certain syllables within a word or sentence. English is a stress-timed language. That is, stressed syllables tend to occur at regular intervals, even if the number of unstressed syllables in between varies. This creates a characteristic, bouncy rhythm.

Syllable Length

While not the primary factor in English, some languages are syllable-timed, meaning each syllable takes roughly the same amount of time to pronounce. This can create a more even, metronomic rhythm. In languages like Japanese and Finnish, syllable length can play a significant role in distinguishing meanings. In Japanese, for instance, the length of a vowel sound can alter the meaning of a word. For example, "hashi" with a short "a" means "chopsticks," while "hashi" with a long "a" means "bridge."

Pauses

Strategic silences also play a role in rhythm. Pauses can separate words or ideas, add emphasis, or simply allow for breathing.

Understanding rhythm is not just about technicalities – it's crucial for effective communication. It helps us convey subtle nuances of meaning, from setting a formal tone to expressing excitement or sarcasm. Next time you listen to someone speak, pay attention to the rhythm of their speech. You will discover a hidden layer of communication that adds richness and depth to our spoken interactions.

Sidebar notes:
- ❖ Rhythm in language is the pattern of stresses and pauses
- ❖ Stress in English creates a bouncy, rhythmical pattern
- ❖ Syllable-timed languages have even rhythms; length affects meaning
- ❖ Strategic silences enhance rhythm and convey nuanced meanings

2.1.7 Intonation

Intonation is a fundamental aspect of speech that encompasses the pitch variations, contours, and patterns used to convey meaning, mood, and attitude in spoken language. It plays a crucial role in communication by providing clues for interpreting the speaker's intentions, emotions, and emphasis within a sentence or discourse. In phonetics, intonation is analysed by examining the pitch movements across syllables, words, and phrases, often represented graphically through pitch contours. These contours reflect the rising, falling, or level patterns of pitch within an utterance, which can signify interrogative or declarative sentences, emphasis on specific words or ideas, or shifts in emotional tone.

❖ Intonation conveys meaning through pitch variations in speech

Intonation patterns are the specific ways a speaker's voice pitch changes throughout a sentence. These variations go beyond the individual sounds and words themselves, adding layers of meaning, emotion, and even questioning intent. Here is a closer look at some common intonation patterns:

1. Falling Intonation (↘): This pattern involves a downward pitch at the end of a sentence. It typically signals a complete thought, a statement, or a command.

Example: "The meeting starts at 3 pm." (Statement)

[ðə ˈmiːtɪŋ stɑːrts æt ˈθriː ˌpiː ˈem ,]

Example: "Please close the door." (Command)

[pliːz kloʊz ðə dɔr ,]

2. Rising Intonation (↗): This pattern involves an upward pitch at the end of a sentence. It can indicate a question, even if phrased as a statement, or express disbelief or uncertainty.

Example: "You're coming to the party?"

(Question seeking confirmation)

[jʊr ˈkʌmɪŋ tuː ðə ˈpɑrti ʔ?]

Example: "He really said that?" (Disbelief)

[hiː ˈrɛli sɛd ðæt ʔ?]

3. Rising-Falling Intonation (↗↘): This pattern combines a rise and fall in pitch. It can be used for various purposes, including listing items, expressing non-finality, or suggesting.

Example: "We can have pizza, pasta, or salad." (Listing options)

/wiː kæn hæv ˈpiːtsə, ˈpɑːstə, ɔːr↗ ˈsæləd↘/

Example: "I was thinking, maybe we could go to the movies?"

(Suggestion)

/aɪ wəz ˈθɪŋkɪŋ, ˈmeɪbi wiː kʊd ɡoʊ tuː ðə ˈmuːviz↗↘/

4. Falling-Rising Intonation (↘↗): This pattern involves a fall in pitch followed by a rise. It's less common but can be used for sarcasm, disbelief, or inviting the listener to continue speaking.

Example: "Oh, that's very helpful." (Sarcasm)

/oʊ, ðæts ˈveri ˈhelpfl↘↗/

Example: "You expect me to believe that?" (Disbelief)

/juː ɪkˈspekt miː tuː bɪˈliːv ðæt↘↗/

The interpretation of intonation can vary across languages and cultures, highlighting its complex and context-dependent nature. Intonation patterns may also vary within a language based on factors such as regional dialects, socio-economic backgrounds, and individual speech styles. Studying intonation not only enhances our understanding of linguistic variation and diversity but also informs language teaching, speech therapy, and natural language processing applications. By unravelling the intricacies of intonation, researchers uncover the rich tapestry of human communication, shedding light on how pitch modulation shapes meaning and interaction in spoken discourse.

Bear in mind that it is our comprehension of the intonation patterns of the speaker makes us realise the exact meaning of what is said, like in the sentence, "You sleep in my class?" if it is a question or a threat).

/juː sliːp ɪn maɪ klɑːs↗/

/juː sliːp ɪn maɪ klɑːs↘/

❖ Intonation patterns express meaning and emotion through pitch changes

❖ Intonation varies by language, culture, and individual speech styles

2.1.8 Phonemes and Allophones

Sample

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar[6]	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m[1]			n[1]			ŋ	
Stop	p b			t d			k g	
Affricate					ʧ ʤ			
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		x[2]	h[4]
Approximant				r[5]		j	w[3]	
Lateral				l[1]				

Fig. 2.1.2 Consonant phonemes of English

Phonemes are minimal distinctive sound unit of a language. They are minimal in the sense that they cannot be further subdivided and distinctive in the sense that they can cause change in the meaning. They are the smallest units of sound in a language that can distinguish meaning. They are like the building blocks of spoken language, representing the various sounds that speakers use to form words. For example, in English, the sounds /p/, /b/, and /t/ are all distinct phonemes because they can change the meaning of a word when substituted for one another, as in "pat," "bat," and "cat." Understanding phonemes is crucial for language acquisition and development, as they help differentiate words and convey meaning in spoken communication.

❖ Phonemes are minimal sound units that distinguish meaning

Minimal Pairs

Minimal pairs are word pairs that differ by only one sound like "tar" and "car", "cat" and "pat". Understanding of minimal pairs is crucial in comprehending the potential of a phoneme or the quality of a sound to be a phoneme.

Students of linguistics, additionally should understand phonemes in terms of their phonetic features, such as voicing, place of articulation, and manner of articulation. This will help to understand further the trajectory of the complicated functioning of human communication from human anatomy to the complicated process of communication using language.

❖ Minimal pairs differ by one sound, illustrating phoneme function

We will discuss all 44 English phonemes in detail below, but before that we have to understand the concept of Allophones also.

Allophones

In simple words Allophones are the linguistically non-significant

variants of a single phoneme. In other words a phoneme may be realised by more than one speech sound and the selection of each variant is usually conditioned by the phonetic environment of the phoneme. Besides, the realisation of an allophonic variant usually doesn't affect the communication or meaning. Unlike phoneme change, allophonic change cannot affect the meaning. For example, English phoneme /t/ has various allophones like aspirated 't' as in "top" and unaspirated 't' as in "stop". Even if a user interchanges between aspirated and unaspirated variants, it doesn't affect the meaning. Similarly, we can see aspirated version of 't' in a word like "talk" when the word is produced by a Tamil speaker.

Allophones are non-significant variants of a phoneme

Complimentary Distribution and Free variation

Two sounds are said to be in *complementary distribution* if they never occur in the same phonetic environment. Complementary distribution is the mutually exclusive relationship between two phonetically similar segments. It exists when one segment occurs in an environment where the other segment never occurs.

Complementary distribution occurs when two sounds never overlap

We have learned that each phoneme has allophonic variants (different qualities of the same sound- a variant incapable of changing the meaning). These allophonic variants are used at different phonetic environments. For example, in English initial /p/ like in a word 'pin' is aspirated (with a puff of air-ph), but in a word like 'spin' /p/ is unaspirated. But if a speaker replaces aspirated 'ph' with unaspirated 'p', it will not affect any change in the meaning. So we can say that /p/ and /ph/ are in complimentary distribution.

Aspirated and unaspirated /p/ are in complementary distribution

We are familiar with the different pronunciations of the word 'either', as /ˈaɪðə/ and /ˈiːðə/. Here the sounds /ai/ and / iː/ are not allophonic variants but different phonemes. Yet they do not change the meaning of the word, because they do not produce a new word, rather they are two different pronunciations of the same word. This variation between these two phonemes is said to be *free variation*. In other words free variation is non-significant linguistic variation between two or ore linguistic forms

Free variation refers to non-significant pronunciation differences of words

Phonemes are defined and classified based on three criteria: a) place of articulation, b) manner of articulation, and c) voicing.

1. **Place of Articulation:** This refers to where in the vocal tract the airflow is restricted or modified to produce a particular sound, or simply, the exact place from where the sound is produced.

Places of Articulations are:

Bilabial (using both lips)- Air flow is restricted by closing both lips as in sounds like /p/ and /b/.

Dental- Sounds that are produced upper teeth and lower teeth, as in sounds / θ/ and / ð/

Alveolar- Sounds that are produced by placing the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge, the bony ridge behind the upper teeth. Initial sounds in words 'table' and 'double' are alveolar sounds

Post-alveolar - Sounds that are produced by placing the blade of the tongue just behind the alveolar ridge, closer to the hard palate. Initial sound in words 'ship' is a post alveolar sound

Palato-alveolar- Sounds are produced by placing the blade of the tongue on the junction between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate. Initial sounds in words 'church' and 'judge' are palate-alveolar sounds

Palatal- Sounds that are produced by placing front part of the tongue against the hard bpny part of the roof of the mouth. Initial sound in the word 'yes' is a palatal sound.

Velar- Sounds that are produced by placing the back of the tongue against the velum, or soft palate, the fleshy part at the back of the roof of the mouth. Initial sounds in words 'king' 'ground' are velar sounds.

2. **Manner of Articulation**: This describes how the airflow is restricted or modified to produce a sound. Based on this criteria sounds are grouped into Plosives, Fricatives, Affricates, Nasals, Laterals and Approximants or semi vowels.

3. **Voicing**: This refers to whether the vocal cords are vibrating during the production of a sound. Sounds are called voiced, if the vocal cords vibrate during the production of a particular sound, or voiceless, if the vocal cords do not vibrate during the production of a particular sound. For example, "b" is voiced (vocal cords vibrate during the production of the sound), while "p" is voiceless (vocal cords do not vibrate during the production of the sound).

By considering these three criteria, linguists categorize phonemes into distinct groups, providing insight into how sounds are produced and perceived in language.

a) **Plosive** sounds, also known as stop consonants, are produced by a complete closure of the vocal tract followed by a sudden release of air. During the production these sounds, active articulator and passive articulator come into close contact to cause complete

❖ Phonemes are classified by articulation, manner, and voicing

closure of the vocal tract, then sudden release of the air with a burst sound. In English, there are six plosive sounds:

1. /p/: Voiceless bilabial plosive, produced by closing both lips together as in ''plosive" (vocal cords do not vibrate)

2. /b/ – Voiced bilabial plosive, produced by closing both lips together as beg and bag(vocal cords vibrate).

3. /t/: Voiceless alveolar plosive, produced by placing the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge behind the upper front teeth as in ''top"

4. /d/ – Voiced alveolar plosive, produced by placing the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge behind the upper front teeth as in "doe" and "deal"

5. /k/: Voiceless velar plosive, produced by raising the back of the tongue to the soft palate (velum) as in ''kettle"

6. /g/ – Voiced velar plosive, produced by raising the back of the tongue to the soft palate (velum) as in "goal" and "gill"

❖ Plosive sounds involve complete closure and sudden air release

b) **Fricative** sounds are speech sounds produced by forcing air through a narrow channel in the vocal tract, creating friction or turbulence. During the production of these sounds the active articulator and passive articulator come very close but leaving sufficient gap for the air to escape between them. They're characterized by the close approximation of articulators, such as the tongue and teeth, or the tongue and palate, to create the constriction necessary for producing the sound. There are nine fricative sounds in English: "f," "v," "s," "z," "sh,", "h", initial sounds in the words "think" and "that" and middle sound in the word "measure" in English.

❖ Fricative sounds create turbulence by forcing air through narrow channels

c) **Affricate** sounds, also called sibilants, are a type of consonant sound that begins as a plosive (a complete closure of the vocal tract) and then transitions into a fricative (a partial closure causing turbulence). During the production of these sounds, active articulator and passive articulator have firm contact to cause complete closure of air tract but they separate slowly for the air to escape slowly. The two affricates in English are:

1. /tʃ/ (voiceless post alveolar affricate) as in "church"

2. /dʒ/ (voiced post alveolar affricate) as in "judge"

❖ Affricate sounds start as plosives and transition into fricatives

In both cases, the sound starts with a stop-like closure (similar to "t" and "d," respectively) and then transitions into a fricative (similar to "sh" and "zh," respectively). Affricates are found in

many languages and are often used to differentiate between words.

d) **Nasal** sounds are consonant sounds produced when the airflow passes exclusively through the nose rather than the mouth. This is achieved by lowering the velum (soft palate) to allow air to escape through the nasal cavity while simultaneously blocking the oral cavity. Examples of nasal sounds include:

1. /m/ as in "milk"

2. /n/ as in "nose"

3. /ŋ/ as in "sing"

These sounds are essential in many languages and contribute to the distinctiveness of speech sounds.

e) **Laterals** are consonant sounds produced by complete closure in the centre of the vocal tract by raising the centre of the tongue, but allowing the air to escape through the sides of the tongue by lowering the sides. English has only one such sound, 'L' as in "love".

f) **Semi-vowel** sounds, also known as approximants, are consonant-like sounds that are produced with a more open vocal tract than true consonants but not as open as vowels. They're called "semi-vowels" because they share characteristics of both consonants and vowels. In English, the following sounds are counted as semi vowels or approximants:

1. /w/: Voiced labio-velar approximant, as in "win" or "swim."

2. /j/: Voiced palatal approximant, as in "yes" or "yellow."

3. /r/: Voiceless post alveolar approximant OR voiced post alveolar frictionless continent as in "right".

Trill/Roll sounds are consonants produced by rapidly vibrating the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge or the roof of the mouth. This vibration creates a rapid series of taps or flaps, resulting in a rolling or trilling sound. /r/ sound in 'red' is an example of trill/roll.

♦ **English (some dialects)**: The "r" sound in words like "red" and "car" can be pronounced as a trill or roll, especially in some dialects of English.

So far we have discussed all the 24 phonemes in English but there are 20 more phonemes which are vowels. We will have a detailed discussion below

Side notes:

❖ Nasal sounds allow airflow through the nose. Examples: /m/, /n/, /ŋ/

❖ Laterals allow airflow around the tongue. Example: /l/ in "love"

❖ Semi-vowels have characteristics of both consonants and vowels

❖ /r/ is a voiced post-alveolar approximant; trill sounds involve rapid tongue vibrations

2.1.9 Vowels

Vowel sounds are speech sounds produced with an open vocal tract, where the airflow is relatively unobstructed. In other words a consonant sound cannot be prolonged. For example, in the word 'pool' 'poo' can be appeared as a prolonged /p/, but the fact is it is /p/ +/u/ vowel, whereas sounds like /a/, /o/,/u/ etc can be prolonged as there is no airflow block during their production. Only such sounds are called vowels.

English has twenty vowel sounds, out of which twelve are pure vowels (also called monophthongs) and eight are diphthongs (also known as vowel glides). Vowel sounds are classified based on the part of the tongue used, position of the tongue or the height to which the tongue is raised, and the position of lips during the production of a vowel sound.

2.1.9.1 Vowel Area (Vowel Limit)

Vowels can be articulated using a certain part of the tongue, and that too at a certain height the tongue can be raised. If any sound produced using any other part of the tongue or tongue is lowered or raised beyond this area, such sound cannot be a vowel. This is called Vowel space or Vowel area. Vowel space is described in terms of two dimensions: vowel height and vowel backness.

Vowel Height: This refers to the position of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth. Vowels can be classified as high, mid, or low depending on whether the tongue is positioned close to the roof of the mouth (high), in the middle of the mouth (mid), or near the bottom of the mouth (low). For example, when we produce the vowel /I:/ tongue is raised high, tongue is raised at a medium level when we produce /e/ and tongue is at very low position when we produce /a/.

Vowel Backness: This refers to the position of the highest part of the tongue relative to the back of the mouth. Vowels can be classified as front, central, or back depending on whether the highest part of the tongue is positioned towards the front of the mouth (front), in the middle of the mouth (central), or towards the back of the mouth (back).

For example, when we produce /I:/, front part of the tongue is raised, and middle part of the tongue is raised during the production of /ə/, whereas, it is the back part of the tongue that is raised when we produce /u/.

Broadly, vowels can be classified into two: pure vowels and diphthongs.

❖ Vowel sounds are produced with an open vocal tract, allowing prolonged airflow

❖ English has 20 vowel sounds: 12 monophthongs and 8 diphthongs

❖ Vowel space is defined by vowel height and backness

❖ Vowel height categorizes vowels as high, mid, or low based on tongue position

❖ Vowel backness classifies vowels as front, central, or back based on tongue position

Monophthongs also known as **pure vowels**, they are single vowel sounds where the tongue and lips remain relatively stable throughout the sound. Examples include the vowel sounds in words like "bat," "bed," "bit," "bought," and "but." Unlike diphthongs, monophthongs have a single, unchanging vowel quality throughout their pronunciation. Monophthongs are characterized by a fixed tongue position and lip shape, resulting in a steady, unmoving sound. It is typically shorter in duration compared to diphthongs since there's no transition between different vowel qualities.

> ❖ Monophthongs are stable, single vowel sounds, e.g., "bat," "bed"

Examples are,

"Bed": The vowel sound /e/ in "bed" is a monophthong, where the tongue stays in a relatively fixed position throughout its pronunciation.

"Hot": The vowel sound /ɒ/ in "hot" is another example of a monophthong.

English pure vowels/monophthongs are:

- /**i**:/: "beat"

- /**ɪ**/: "bit"

- /**e**/: "bet"

- /**æ**/: "bat"

- /**ʌ**/: "but"

- /**ə**/: "about" (unstressed)

- /**ɜ**:/: "bird" (in some dialects)

- /**u**:/: "boot"

- /**ʊ**/: "book"

- /**o:**/: "boat"

- /**ɔ**/: "bought"

- /**ɑ**:/: "father"

Diphthongs are vowel sounds that glide from one position to another within the same syllable. Examples include the vowel sounds in words like /ɔɪ/ in boy and coin, /aʊ/ in loud and cloud. The transition between the two vowel qualities can be rapid or gradual, with the tongue and/or lips changing position during articulation.

Diphthongs are generally longer in duration than monophthongs (single vowel sounds) due to the movement between vowel qualities. Eg: "Boat": Starts with the vowel sound [o] and glides into [ʊ]. The tongue starts in a position similar to [o] and moves towards [ʊ]."Time": Begins with the vowel sound [aɪ] and ends with [ɪ]. The tongue starts in a position similar to [a] and moves towards [ɪ].

Diphthongs can be classified based on the starting point of the vowel sound (onset) and the ending point (off-glide). For example, closing diphthongs move from a more open vowel sound to a closer, more closed one, like [aɪ] in "bide. "Opening diphthongs move from a closer vowel to a more open one, like [ɪə] in "beer."

2.1.9.2 English diphthongs

Diphthongs are an essential aspect of many languages, including English, where they contribute to the richness and diversity of vowel sounds. Below are the eight diphthongs with examples.

- **/aɪ/:** "bite"

- **/ɔɪ/:** "boy"

- **/eɪ/:** "gate"

- **/aʊ/:** "about"

- **/oʊ/:** "boat"

- **/eə/:** "bear"

- **/ɪə/:** "here"

- **/ʊə/:** "tour"

(Long and Short Vowels can also be classified as long or short based on their duration. Long vowels are typically held longer than short vowels. Examples of pairs include "bit" (short) and "bite" (long), "cap" (short) and "cape" (long).

R-colored Vowels: In some dialects of English, vowels before "r" (like in "car" or "bird") can have a distinct quality due to rhotic pronunciation.

Understanding vowel sounds is crucial for learning pronunciation and spelling in any language.)

2.1.9.3 Cardinal vowels

Cardinal vowels are a set of reference points used in phonetics to describe and categorize vowel sounds based on their articulatory

properties. Developed by Daniel Jones, cardinal vowels represent specific tongue and lip configurations that correspond to extreme positions within the vocal tract. The cardinal vowel system is organized into a quadrilateral shape, with eight points representing key vowel qualities like front, central, and back vowels. Each cardinal vowel is assigned a unique symbol in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), enabling linguists to accurately transcribe and compare vowel sounds across languages. By using cardinal vowels as a standard framework, researchers can analyze and classify the diverse range of vowel articulations found in human speech, facilitating the study of phonetics and phonology. Cardinal vowels do not exist in any language, and hence they cannot be pronounced, and numbered for the sake of reference.

Fig. 2.1.3 Primary cardinal vowels

In linguistics, three primary criteria are used to classify vowels:

❖ English has eight diph-thongs, e.g., /aɪ/ in "bite"

1. **Height of the tongue:** Refers to the position of the tongue in the mouth relative to the roof. It includes high, mid, and low vowels. All the four vowels [i], [1], [e] and [æ] are examples of FRONT vowel, but they do not sound alike. Though the front of the tongue is the active articulator during the articulation of all these four vowels, each time the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate to a different height. When we articulate [i:] as in sea the front of the tongue is very close to the hard palate and when we articulate [æ] as in sat the front of the tongue is far away from the hard palate and the mouth is wide open. When we articulate [1] as in hit and [e] as in head the front of the tongue is not so close to the hard palate as it is during the articulation of [i:], nor is it as far away from the hard palate as it is during the articulation of [æ].

❖ Tongue height affects vowel sound produc-tion

2. **Part of the tongue**: Describes the position of the tongue relative to the back of the mouth. Vowels can be front, central, or back. During the articulation of vowel sounds, the tongue is one of the articulators. And it goes without saying that it is the active articulator. Consequently, the roof of the mouth is the passive articulator . Three out of the six parts into which the tongue is divided are used for the articulation of vowels and these are the front, the back and the centre of the tongue. According to the part of the tongue used during the articulation , vowels classified into three types. These are discussed below:

(i) FRONT VOWELS are vowels articulated with the FRONT of the tongue raised towards the HARD PALATE with a wide enough gap between the front of the tongue and the hard palate for the air to escape freely, without any friction. Examples of FRONT vowels in English are [i:]as in seen, [1] as in sit, [e as in head and [æ] as in sat.

(ii) BACK VOWELS are vowels articulated with the BACK of the tongue raised towards the SOFT PALATE with a wide-enough gap for the air to escape freely, without friction. Examples of BACK VOWELS in English are [0:] as in part, [D] as in hot, [0:] as in caught, [u] as in full, and [u:] as in fool.

(iii) CENTRAL VOWELS are vowels articulated with the CENTRE of the tongue raised towards that part of the roof of the mouth which is between the hard palate and the soft palate in such a way that there is a wide-enough gap between them for the lung- air to escape freely, without friction. There are three Central Vowels in English. These are [ʌ] as in cut, [3:] as in girl, [e] as in ago (the first sound) and mother (the last sound)

3. **Shape\Roundness of the lip**: Indicates whether the lips are rounded or spread. Vowels can be rounded or unrounded. Articulate the vowel [1:] as in seat, [a:] as in part and [u:] as in moon and observe your lips in a mirror. You will notice that your lips are spread when you articulate [i:] and rounded when you articulate [u:]. You will also notice that your lips are neutral, i.e., neither spread nor rounded when you articulate [:]. When we articulate certain vowels like [1:]. [2] and [e] our lips are spread and when we articulate certain other vowels like [u:] (as in the word fool, for example), our lips are rounded. They are neutral when we articulate vowels like [æ] in the English word sat. For the sake of convenience, we divide vowels into two categories according to the position of the lips during their articulation. The two categories are unrounded and rounded. The English vowels

[i:], [1], [e], [æ], [α:], [ʌ], [3:] and [e] are unrounded vowels and the vowels [D], [0:], [u:] and [U] are rounded vowels.

2.1.10 What is RP?

2.1.10.1 Received Prounciation (RP)

In linguistics, "RP" denotes Received Prounciation, a prestigious and historically significant accent within the British English spectrum. The term Received Prounciation was coined by phonetician A.J.Ellis . Originating in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, RP emerged as the accent associated with the educated elite and aristocracy in Britain. Characterized by features such as non-rhoticity (the absence of the 'r' sound in certain contexts), specific vowel articulations, and a conservative approach to pronunciation, RP served as a model for linguistic norms and standards in education, broadcasting, and other formal contexts. However, its prominence has declined over the years, giving way to a more diverse range of accents and social attitudes toward linguistic variation. Despite criticisms of elitism and colonial legacy, RP retains its cultural and historical significance as a marker of linguistic prestige and tradition in the British Isles. It is a specific accent and pronunciation associated with certain socio-economic groups in England spoken mostly in London and South East England but is also the accent most often used in formal education and the media. Some people call it BBC English, owing to the majority of broadcasters adherence to RP.

❖ RP (Received Pronunciation): prestigious British accent, historically elite

2.1.10.2 General Indian English (GIE)

General Indian English (GIE) represents a complex and evolving linguistic phenomenon stemming from the historical, social, and cultural dynamics of India. It is a variant of English that has emerged as a lingua franca among the diverse linguistic communities within the country. While GIE shares its structural foundation with British English, it has undergone significant phonological, lexical, and syntactic adaptation to suit the communicative needs of Indian speakers. Phonologically, GIE is characterized by features such as retroflex consonants, non-rhoticity, and the absence of certain vowel distinctions found in Received Pronunciation. Lexically, GIE incorporates loanwords from various Indian languages, reflecting the rich linguistic diversity of the subcontinent.

❖ General Indian English (GIE): evolving English variant, reflects India's diversity

Furthermore, the sociolinguistic landscape of India adds layers of complexity to GIE. It serves as a marker of social identity and linguistic proficiency, with variations influenced by factors such as region, social class, education, and exposure to other

varieties of English. Despite its widespread use, GIE has faced criticism and debates surrounding linguistic purism, prestige, and authenticity. Nonetheless, its adaptability and utility in facilitating communication among India's multilingual populace underscores its significance as a dynamic and evolving linguistic variety with a distinct cultural footprint on the global stage.

Common Features of GIE

Pronunciation: GIE often features distinct pronunciation patterns influenced by regional languages. The pronunciation of certain sounds may differ from standard British or American English. For instance, the 'v' and 'w' sounds may be interchangeable for some speakers, as most of the Indian languages have only one sound to replace 'v' (labio dental) and 'w' (bilabial)

Vocabulary: GIE incorporates a rich variety of vocabulary from Indian languages such as Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali, and others. This can include loanwords, calques (literal translations), and code-switching between English and regional languages. Words like 'Veranda', 'Bungalow' 'Chai', 'Jungle', 'Pajamas', are good examples.

Syntax and Grammar: While GIE generally follows English grammar rules, there may be variations influenced by the syntax of Indian languages. For example, word order or the use of articles may differ from standard English. For instance the repetition of words for emphasis is a common feature in Indian languages, like "It is very hot.". Similarly 'only' is often used for emphasis at the end of sentences, like in "He is the best player only" instead of "He is the best player." A beautiful example can be quote from the famous poem by Nissim Ezekiel, A Goodbye Party For Miss Pushpa T.S. "Just now only I will do it".

Indian English Pronunciation of English Words: There are often differences in the pronunciation of English words, influenced by the phonetics of Indian languages. This can include stress patterns and vowel sounds.

Examples: Pronunciation of 'V' and 'W' Sounds:

Standard English: "Very well."

GIE: "Wery well." Or "very vell"

Pronunciation of 'Th' Sound:

Standard English: "This thing."

GIE: "Dis ting."

Vowel Sounds:

Standard English: "food."

GIE: "fud."

Idioms and Phrases: GIE incorporates idiomatic expressions and phrases that are unique to Indian English, reflecting cultural nuances and experiences specific to India.

Examples:

Time pass: "Let's go for a movie, just for time pass."

Out of station: "He's out of station this weekend, so he won't be able to attend the meeting."

Passing out: "She's passing out of college next month."

Chit chat: "We had a nice chit chat over coffee."

Prepone: "Can we prepone the meeting to 10 a.m. instead of 11 a.m.?"

Intonation and Rhythm: GIE may exhibit distinct intonation patterns and speech rhythms influenced by regional languages and cultural norms.

Politeness and Formality: GIE speakers may use different forms of politeness markers or levels of formality compared to standard British or American English, reflecting cultural norms and linguistic conventions in India

❖ GIE pronunciation differs, featuring unique idioms and intonation patterns

2.1.11 Phonological Comparison Between English and Malayalam Sounds

❖ English is stress-timed; Malayalam is syllable-timed, showcasing distinct phonological systems

English and Malayalam diverge significantly in their phonological systems. English, a stress-timed language, emphasizes syllable stress and features a complex array of consonants and vowels with varied allophonic realizations. For instance, the word "strengths" [streŋkθs] exhibits consonant clusters and a final voiced fricative /ð/. In contrast, Malayalam, a syllable-timed language, boasts a simpler consonant inventory with retroflex and dental articulations. For example, the word "മാമ" (māma) contrasts with "മാമാ" (māmā) primarily through tone, illustrating Malayalam's tonal accent system. These differences underscore distinct phonological structures shaped by historical, genetic, and typological factors, contributing to the linguistic diversity of global communication.

Let us have a brief analysis and comparison of sound systems of both languages:

a) Consonants

Malayalam has a larger consonant inventory (total 52 sounds including 20 basic consonants and 32 conjuncts) compared to English. It includes retroflex consonants like /ɖ/ and /ɳ/, which are absent in English.

English has voiced and voiceless plosives (/b/, /p/, /d/, /t/, /g/, /k/), fricatives (/v/, /f/, /z/, /s/, /ʒ/, /ʃ/), and affricates (/dʒ/, /tʃ/), of which /z/, is absent in Malayalam.

There are some sounds unique to English (absent in Malayalam) and unique to Malayalam (absent in English).

Phonemes present in Malayalam but absent in English:

Retroflex Consonants:

/ɖ/: Voiced retroflex stop

/ɳ/: Retroflex nasal

Palatal Nasal:

/ɲ/: Palatal nasal

Voiced Aspirated Stops:

/gʱ/: Voiced aspirated velar stop

/d̪ʱ/: Voiced aspirated dental/alveolar stop

/bʱ/: Voiced aspirated bilabial stop

Dental Nasal:

/n̪/: Dental nasal

Nasalized Vowels:

/ĩ/, /ẽ/, /ã/, /õ/, /ũ/: Nasalized versions of the respective vowels

Phonemes Present in English but Absent in Malayalam:

/ð/: Voiced dental fricative

/ʒ/: Voiced postalveolar fricative

Rhotic Consonants:

/ɹ/: Alveolar approximant or rhotic consonant

b) Vowels

Malayalam has a rich vowel inventory with short and long vowels, nasal vowels, and diphthongs. But it lacks English schwa

❖ Malayalam has unique consonants; lacks English sounds and diphthongs

sound /ə/ and diphthongs like /eɪ/,

c) Syllable Structure

Malayalam has a relatively simple syllable structure, often consisting of a consonant followed by a vowel. Consonant clusters are very rare in Malayalam. But English allows consonant clusters at the beginning and end of syllables.

d) Stress Patterns

Malayalam generally has a fixed stress pattern, with stress falling on the first syllable of a word.

English has variable stress patterns, with stress often falling on different syllables depending on factors like word type, derivation, and context.

e) Tone

Malayalam is a pitch-accent language, meaning that pitch variations are used to distinguish between words or to convey grammatical distinctions.

English is a stress-accent language, where stress (emphasis) on particular syllables is used to distinguish between words or convey meaning.

> ❖ Malayalam has simple syllable structure, fixed stress, and pitch accent

2.1.12 Phonetic Transcription

Transcription in linguistics refers to the process of representing spoken language in written form using a standardized system of symbols. Phonetic transcription represents the spoken sounds using IPA phonemes along with stress and intonation marks to accurately represent the spoken communication. This practice serves several crucial purposes within the field of linguistics. Firstly, transcription allows linguists to accurately document and analyse the sounds of a language, including phonetic details such as pitch, stress, and intonation patterns.

We know that speeling system of English language is often confusing and complicated as quite often all alphabets in written words are not pronounced, and in some letters have different pronunciations based various other factors. For instance, the word 'calm' is pronounced as /kaam/, giving the letter 'c' a 'k' sound and omitting 'l' in pronunciation. 'ou' in 'counting' has a /kaw/ sound where as 'ou' in 'country' has [ʌ] sound.

Phonetic transcription helps us to reduce this confusion to minimum level, because in phonetic transcription only pronounced sounds are represented. So the former example of 'country' is transcribed phonetically as /ˈkʌntri/ .

Transcription aims to accurately reflect the phonetic and phonological aspects of speech, providing a detailed record that can be analysed and studied by linguists. It employs the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) to ensure consistency and precision in representing the diverse range of sounds found in human languages. Transcription serves as a fundamental tool for documenting languages, analysing their phonetic structures, investigating dialectal variation, studying language acquisition, and exploring the mechanisms of speech production and perception.

❖ Transcription represents spoken language in standardized written form

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
1. dog	/dɒg/	12. few	/fjuː/
2. man	/mæn/	13. measure	/meʒə/
3. door	/dɔː/	14. vessel	/vesᵊl/
4. world	/wɜːld/	15. easy	/iːzi/
5. switch	/swɪtʃ/	16. bother	/bɒðə/
6. book	/bʊk/	17. morning	/mɔːnɪŋ/
7. run	/rʌn/	18. party	/pɑːti/
8. walk	/wɔːk/	19. cheering	/tʃɪərɪŋ/
9. jeans	/dʒiːnz/	20. curser	/kɜːsə/
10. thrift	/θrɪft/	21. justice	/dʒʌstɪs/
11. pledge	/pledʒ/	22. vision	/vɪʒᵊn/

Fig. 2.1.4 Transcription of common words

2.1.12.1 Transcription paragraph

Once there was a Fox and a stork. The Fox was selfish but he decided to invite the stork for dinner. The Stork was extremely happy to be invited and she reached his house on time.

The Fox opened the door and invited her in. They sat on the table; The Fox served her some soup in shallow bowls. While the fox licked up his soup, the Stork couldn't drink it because she has a long beak and the bowl was too shallow.

The next day, the Stork invited the fox over for dinner. She Served him soup as well but in two narrow vases. While the Stork enjoyed her soup and finished it, the fox went home very hungry realizing his mistake.

2.1.12.2 Transcribed version:

/wʌns ðeə wɒz ə fɒks ænd ə stɔːk/ ðə fɒks wɒz ˈsɛlfɪʃ bʌt hiː

dɪˈsaɪdɪd tuː ɪnˈvaɪt ðə stɔːk fɔːˈdɪnə/ ðə stɔːk wɒz ɪkˈstriːmli ˈhæpi tuː biː ɪnˈvaɪtɪd ænd ʃiː riːˈʃʃt hɪz haʊs ɒn taɪm/

/ðə fɒks ˈəʊpᵊnd ðə dɔːr ænd ɪnˈvaɪtɪd hɜːr ɪn/ ðeɪ sæt ɒn ðə ˈteɪbᵊl;ðə fɒks sɜːvd hɜː sʌm suːp ɪn ˈʃæləʊ bəʊlz. waɪl ðə fɒks lɪkt ʌp hɪz suːp, ðə stɔːk ˈkʊdᵊnt drɪŋk ɪt bɪˈkɒz ʃiː hæz ə lɒŋ biːk ænd ðə bəʊl wɒz tuː ˈʃæləʊ/

ðə nɛkst deɪ, ðə stɔːk ɪnˈvaɪtɪd ðə fɒks ˈəʊvə fɔːˈdɪnə/ ʃiː sɜːvd hɪm suːp æz wɛl bʌt ɪn tuː ˈnærəʊ ˈvɑːzɪz/ waɪl ðə stɔːk ɪnˈdʒɔɪd hɜː suːp ænd ˈfɪnɪʃt ɪt, ðə fɒks wɛnt həʊm ˈvɛri ˈhʌŋgri ˈrɪəlaɪzɪŋ hɪz mɪˈsteɪk/

2.1.13 International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is a standardized system of phonetic notation used to represent the sounds of human speech in written form. It was developed in the late 19th century by the International Phonetic Association (IPA), with the goal of providing a universal and precise method for transcribing the sounds of all languages. The IPA consists of a comprehensive set of symbols, each representing a specific speech sound or phoneme. These symbols cover not only the consonants and vowels found in languages but also various other aspects of pronunciation such as stress, intonation, and tone. The IPA is widely used by linguists, speech-language pathologists, language teachers, and translators to accurately transcribe and describe the phonetic properties of languages around the world. Its adoption facilitates clear communication and precise analysis in fields such as phonetics, phonology, dialectology, and language documentation.

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (2005)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Epi-glottal	Glottal
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	N			
Plosive	p b	ƥ ɓ		t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k g	q ɢ		ʡ	ʔ
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	H ʕ	h ɦ
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ				
Trill	ʙ			r					R		ʀ	
Tap, Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ						
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ			ʎ	ʟ				
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	L				
Lateral flap				ɺ								

Fig. 2.1.5 The International Phonetic Alphabet (2005)

Summarised Overview

This unit on phonology delves into the fundamental structures of language, highlighting the roles of phonemes and morphemes in English. It emphasizes suprasegmentals like stress and intonation, which convey meaning and emotional context beyond individual sounds. The unit explores segmental features, such as the organization of sounds, as well as English stress patterns, demonstrating how word stress influences meaning and its rules based on word structure and morphology. Additionally, it examines the rhythm and intonation of English as a stress-timed language and discusses the complexities of Indian English and Malayalam phonology, noting the differences in sound systems and stress-timing. Through the use of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), the unit facilitates a precise representation of spoken sounds, enhancing understanding of linguistic diversity and communication.

Assignments

Compound Word Stress, Rhythm and Intonation

1. Look at how stress works in compound words in two different languages,(such as English and Russian). Discuss the differences and similarities in stress placement, considering how language structure affects them.

2. Explore the rhythmic patterns of English speech. How do syllable stress and timing contribute to English rhythm? Provide examples of words with different stress patterns and discuss how they contribute to the overall rhythm of English speech.

3. Examine the role of intonation in conveying meaning and pragmatic functions in spoken English. Provide examples of how intonation patterns vary in different contexts, such as declarative statements, questions, and expressions of emotion. How does intonation contribute to the speaker's communicative intentions?

Morphology

1. How do content morphs differ from function morphs, and what roles do they play in language?

2. Illustrate classifications of morphemes with suitable examples and their role in word formation process.

3. What is morphophonemics?, How does it explore the relationship between morphology and phonology in language?

Suggested reading

1. Bansal, R. K. and J. B. Harrison. S*poken English: A Manual of Speech and Phonetics*. 1972. Hyderabad: Orient Black Swan, 2006. Print.

2. Lyons. *An Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*. 1968. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 1995. Print. Quirk,

3. Randolph, and Sidney Greenbaum. *A University Grammar of English.* 6th ed.NewDelhi: Pearson, 2003.

4. Roach, Peter. *English Phonetics &Phonology: A Practical Course*. 1983. 4th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 2009. Print.

5. Syal, Pushpinder and D.V. Jindal. *An Introduction to Linguistics- Language, Grammar and Semantics*. 2nd ed. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India, 2007. Print.

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1. Balasubramaniam, T. *A Textbook on Phonetics for Indian Students.* New Delhi:Macmillan, 1981. Print.

2. Chomsky, Noam. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Cambridge*, Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1965 . Print.W

3. Crystal, David. *Introducing Linguistics*. London: Penguin English, 1992. Print. Fries, Charles Carpentar.

4. Leach, Geoffrey N. *Semantics*. London: Penguin, 1976. Print.

Space for Learner Engagement for Objective Questions

Learners are encouraged to develop objective questions based on the content in the paragraph as a sign of their comprehension of the content. The Learners may reflect on the recap bullets and relate their understanding with the narrative in order to frame objective questions from the given text. The University expects that 1 - 2 questions are developed for each paragraph. The space given below can be used for listing the questions.

Morphology

By the completion of this Unit, the learner will be able to:

- ♦ analyse the concept of Morphology
- ♦ describe classification of Morphs
- ♦ understand more about affixes (suffix and prefix)
- ♦ identify the function of allomorphs

👤 Background

Have you ever thought of the strange phenomena of making meaning out of words? For example, see the word 'date' in the following sentences:

She is having her date. (having menstrual period)

She dates with an old man.

She likes date for snacks.

How come the same word has totally unrelated meanings? How is it possible for the speaker to produce these variety of meanings and the listener to generate desired meanings?

Morphologist tries to explain this strange phenomena of making meanings out of sounds. This section will help you to understand various levels of the process of making meaning.

Phonology and Morphology are two essential basic components of scientific study of any languages. Phonemes are smallest speech sounds like consonants and vowels where as and morphemes are smallest meaningful units. For example 'p' is a phoneme, but as it doesn't communicate any meaning it is not a morpheme. But 'I' is both a phoneme and morpheme as it has a meaning. Similarly Affixes contribute tremendously in enriching the vocabulary of a langauage. By adding word particles (affixes) either at the beginning or at the end a word makes it a new word.

👤 Key Words

Morphology, Morph, Allomorph, Affix, Prefix, Suffix

2.2.1 Morphology and Morphs

Morphology is the linguistic study of the structure and formation of words, encompassing the smallest units of meaning, called morphemes, and their combinations to create words.
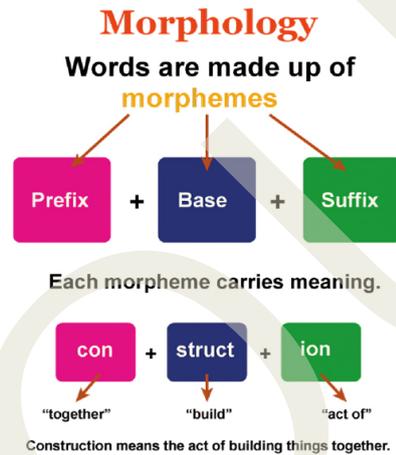

Fig. 3.1.1 Classification of morphemes

The study of morphology delves into how morphemes are combined and manipulated to form words in different languages, providing insights into the principles governing word formation. The term "morph" refers to a unit of meaning within a word that cannot be further divided without losing its sense, thereby forming the building blocks of language.
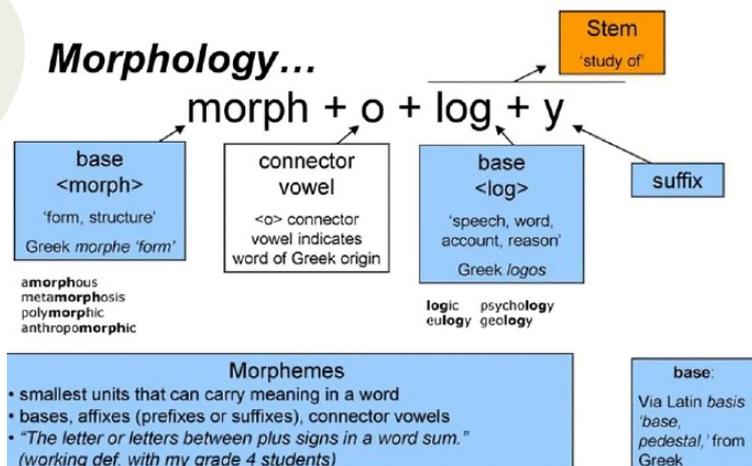
2.2.1.1 Classification of Morphemes

Fig. 3.1.2 Features of morphology

Morphs, the smallest units of meaning in language, can be classified into various categories based on their form and function. One common classification is based on their position within a word: free morphemes, which can stand alone as words (e.g., "book," "run"), and bound morphemes, which must be attached to other morphemes to convey meaning (e.g., "-ed" for past tense).

Bound morphemes include:

Prefixes: Attached at the beginning of a word.

"un-" in "unhappy"

"pre-" in "preview"

Suffixes: Attached at the end of a word.

"-ing" in "running"

"-ed" in "played"

Roots: The core lexical units to which affixes can be attached.

"act" in "action"

"play" in "playful"

Inflectional Morphemes: Modify the grammatical function of a word without changing its basic meaning.

"-s" indicating plural ("cats")

"-ed" indicating past tense ("played")

Derivational Morphemes: Change the meaning or grammatical category of a word.

"-er" changing a verb into a noun ("teacher")

"-ize" changing a noun into a verb ("organize")

Another classification distinguishes between content morphs, which carry semantic meaning and contribute to the core meaning of a word (e.g., "un-" indicating negation), and function morphs, which serve grammatical purposes such as indicating tense, aspect, or case (e.g., "-ed" for past tense). Additionally, morphs can be classified as lexical morphs, related to content words like nouns and verbs, and grammatical morphs, associated with function words like articles and prepositions. These classifications aid linguists in understanding the structure and organization of language, offering insights into how words are formed and combined to convey meaning.

2.2.2 Allomorphs

Allomorphs are the shape-shifters of the morpheme world, embodying the remarkable adaptability and intricacy of linguistic structure. They represent the various forms a single morpheme can assume based on its surrounding phonological or morphological environment. Consider the plural morpheme in English, denoting multiple instances of a noun. It boasts three distinct allomorphs: /-s/ for words concluding with voiceless consonants (like "cats"), /-z/ for those ending in voiced consonants (as in "dogs"), and /-əz/ for nouns terminating with vowels (such as "buses"). While these transformations might initially appear arbitrary, they adhere to underlying patterns governed by morphophonemic rules. These rules dictate the selection of a specific allomorph depending on the phonetic context, ensuring seamless linguistic flow and clarity. Thus, the next time you encounter a morpheme seemingly morphing its form, rest assured—it's merely an allomorph in disguise, showcasing the remarkable flexibility and precision of language.

> ❖ Allomorphs are variations of a morpheme based on context

2.2.3 Analysis of Affixes

The analysis of affixes in linguistics involves a detailed examination of the morphological processes through which prefixes, suffixes, infixes, and circumfixes modify the meaning or grammatical function of a base word. This analysis often begins with identifying the distributional patterns of affixes within a language, observing which morphemes attach to which words and under what conditions. Additionally, linguists explore the semantic roles that affixes play, categorizing them into various classes such as derivational affixes, which alter the meaning or part of speech of a word (e.g., "un-" in "undo"), and inflectional affixes, which indicate grammatical information like tense, number, or case (e.g., "-s" in "cats"). Through careful analysis, researchers uncover the intricate rules governing affixation, including restrictions on affix order and the interaction between affixes and phonological or morphological context.

Furthermore, the analysis of affixes extends beyond their formal and semantic properties to encompass their historical origins and cross-linguistic variations. Comparative studies reveal how affixation patterns differ across languages, shedding light on universal principles of morphological structure and evolution. By examining the productivity of affixes—their ability to create new words or inflections—linguists gain insights into language change and innovation. Moreover, morphological analysis plays a crucial role in language documentation and revitalization efforts,

> ❖ Affix analysis examines how prefixes and suffixes modify words

as understanding the structure and function of affixes aids in preserving and revitalizing endangered languages. Overall, the analysis of affixes is central to unravelling the complex interplay between form, meaning, and structure in human language.

2.2.4 Morphophonemics

Morphophonemics stands at the intriguing intersection of morphology and phonology within linguistics, delving into the nuanced interactions between the structure of morphemes and the phonological processes shaping their pronunciation in a language. This multifaceted field investigates how morphological units adapt their phonetic forms when they encounter specific morphological contexts or undergo phonological alterations. Through meticulous analysis, morphophonemic patterns emerge, showcasing the systematic variations in the pronunciation of morphemes based on their linguistic environment. These insights not only unveil the intricate dance between form and sound but also shed light on the underlying principles guiding the intricate relationship between morphology and phonology. By unravelling these complexities, morphophonemics provides a deeper understanding of how language structures itself, offering valuable insights into the mechanisms underlying linguistic diversity and universality.

> ❖ Morphophone-
> mics explores
> interactions
> between mor-
> pheme structure
> and pronuncia-
> tion

👤 Summarised Overview

This unit, examines the fundamental aspects of morphology, focusing on morphemes as the smallest units of meaning that form words. It classifies morphemes into free morphemes, which can stand alone, and bound morphemes, which require attachment to other morphemes. Key topics included allomorphs—variations of morphemes influenced by context—and the analysis of affixes, which modify base words and reveal historical and cross-linguistic patterns. Additionally, the unit explores morphophonemics, the study of how morpheme structure affects pronunciation. Overall, this unit provides insights into the intricate relationships between form, meaning, and linguistic structure.

Assignments

1. How do content morphs differ from function morphs, and what roles do they play in language?

2. Illustrate classifications of morphemes with suitable examples and their role in word formation process.

3. What is morphophonemics?, How does it explore the relationship between morphology and phonology in language?

Suggested reading

1. H. G. Widdowson. 1996. *Introductions to Language Study*. Series Ed. Oxford: Oxford UP, 2003. Print.

2. Aronoff, Mark. *"What is Morphology?: Fundamentals of Linguistics"*. John Wiley & Sons, 2022.

Reference

1. Roach, Peter. *English Phonetics & Phonology: A Practical Course*. 1983. 4th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 2009. Print.

2. Verma, S. K. and N. Krishnaswamy. *Modern Linguistics*. New Delhi: Oxford UP, 1989. Print. Widdowson, H.G. Linguistics. Oxford.

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UNIT 3

Semantics and Pragmatics

👤 Learning Outcome

Upon completion of this Unit, the learner will be able to:

♦ have a detailed understanding of semantics
♦ analyse different layers of making meaning
♦ describe lexical semantics like antonymy, synonymy
♦ discuss various aspects of pragmatics

👤 Background

The quote, "*All our work, our whole life is a matter of semantics, because words are the tools with which we work and live, the material out of which laws are made, out of which the Constitution was written*", is enough to explain the importance of semantics. Human communication process is highly interesting, as a single word can communicate a lot of things, that too different things to different individuals. This unit discusses both technical and practical aspects of making meaning or semantics.

👤 Key Words

Semantics, Lexical semantics, invisible meaning, discourse analysis, Antonymy, Synonymy, Hyponymy, Homonymy, Polysemy, Pragmatics

👤 Discussion

2.3.1 What is Semantics?

❖ Semantics studies meaning in words, phrases, and sentences

Semantics is the branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. It encompasses the examination of how words, phrases, sentences, and larger units of language convey meaning to both speakers and listeners. Semantics investigates the relationship between linguistic expressions and the real-world entities or concepts they represent, as well as the

ways in which meaning is constructed, conveyed, and interpreted in communication. It explores how language users construct, convey, understand, and interpret meaning.
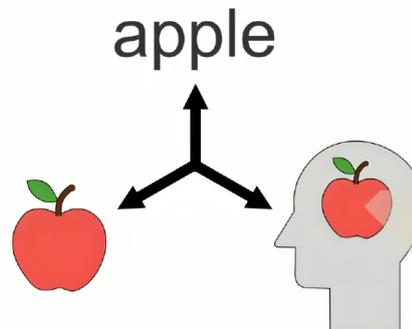
Let us consider this in some more detail. When a word like 'table' is uttered, it makes the image of a piece of furniture, usually, having four legs. Variations are plenty as table can be with more or less than four legs, can be of any material including wood and fibre, can be of any size, depending on the requirement and so on. Yet the listener understands the concept as long as both the speaker and the listener have access to English language. If the listener is totally strange to English language, the utterance of the word does not make any sense at all. Now the fundamental question here is, is there any logical and natural connection between the utterance 'table' and the actual thing table? The answer is 'no'. Then how do both the speaker and the listener understand this? The answer is, though the sound and meaning are quite arbitrary, both of them understand as they both belong to the same linguistic conventions. Semantics is trying to explore this in detail.

> ❖ Semantics examines how words convey meaning through shared linguistic conventions

2.3.1.1 Importance of Semantics

Learning semantics is crucial for the following reasons:

Understanding Communication: Semantics helps you understand not just what is said, but what is meant. It delves into the nuances of language, enabling you to comprehend subtleties, metaphors, and implied meanings, which is crucial in effective communication.

Cultural Insights: Language reflects culture, and semantics provides a window to the beliefs, values, and customs of different societies. By studying semantics, you can gain deeper insights into diverse cultures and better navigate cross-cultural interactions.

Precision in Expression: Semantics equips you with the tools to express yourself more precisely. You'll learn how word choice, syntax, and context shape meaning, allowing you to convey your thoughts and ideas with greater clarity and accuracy.

Analysing Language Change: Languages are dynamic and constantly evolving. Semantics helps you track how meanings shift over time, whether through cultural shifts, technological advancements, or other factors. This understanding is valuable in fields like historical linguistics and lexicography.

Legal and Ethical Implications: In legal contexts, the precise interpretation of language can be pivotal. Semantics plays a crucial role in drafting contracts, interpreting laws, and resolving disputes. Understanding semantics can also aid in recognizing and combating deceptive language and propaganda.

Philosophical Inquiry: Semantics is deeply intertwined with philosophy, particularly in debates about truth, reference, and meaning. Exploring semantic theories can lead to profound questions about the nature of reality, knowledge, and language itself.

Natural Language Processing (NLP): In the age of artificial intelligence and NLP, understanding semantics is essential for developing advanced language technologies. Semantics forms the basis for tasks like sentiment analysis, machine translation, and question answering systems.

Literary Analysis: Semantics enriches your experience of literature by helping you uncover layers of meaning in texts. Analysing the connotations, metaphors, and symbolism used by writers can deepen your appreciation of literary works.

Cross-disciplinary Applications: Semantics finds applications in various fields, including computer science, cognitive science, anthropology, and education. It serves as a bridge between disciplines, fostering interdisciplinary collaboration and innovation.

Within semantics, there are several important concepts, including:

Denotative Meaning: This refers to the literal or dictionary definition of a word, phrase, or symbol. It's the basic, objective meaning that most people would agree upon. For example, the denotative meaning of "dog" is a domesticated carnivorous mammal.

Connotative Meaning: Connotations are the emotional, social, or cultural associations that a word carries beyond its literal meaning. These associations can vary depending on individual experiences, cultural background, or context. For example, "dog" might evoke feelings of loyalty, companionship, or fear, depending on a person's experiences with dogs.

Conceptual Meaning: This refers to the underlying concept or idea represented by a word or phrase. It's the abstract cognitive representation associated with linguistic expressions. For example, the conceptual meaning of "dog" might include characteristics such as four-legged, furry, and barking. The word "needle" can mean thin, sharp, steel, instrument, etc.

Associative Meaning: These are the connections or mental links between words or concepts based on experiences, memories, or cultural knowledge. These associations can influence how we understand or interpret language. For example, the word "home" may be associated with feelings of comfort, security, and belonging. The associative meaning of the word "needle" might include pain, doctor, illness, sewing, embroidery, etc

Understanding these different aspects of meaning is crucial for grasping how language functions in communication and how words convey not just literal information but also layers of nuance, emotion, and cultural significance.

2.3.2 Lexical Semantics

Lexical semantics is a subfield of linguistics that focuses on the meaning of words and how they relate to each other within a language. It examines the ways in which individual words acquire and convey meaning, including their denotations (literal meanings) and connotations (associative or implied meanings). Lexical semantics explores various aspects of word meaning, such as word senses, lexical relations (such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, and polysemy), and semantic roles. Understanding lexical semantics is crucial for interpreting language accurately, as it provides insights into how words contribute to the overall meaning of sentences and discourse. Additionally, lexical semantics plays a vital role in natural language processing tasks, such as word sense disambiguation and semantic similarity computation, which are essential for many applications, including information retrieval, machine translation, and sentiment analysis.

Antonymy and *synonymy* are two fundamental concepts in lexical semantics that describe relationships between words. Antonymy refers to the relationship between words that have opposite meanings or are contrary to each other in some aspect. Words that have opposite meanings are called Antonyms. "Hot" and "cold," "happy" and "sad," and "big" and "small are examples. Synonym, on the other hand, describes the relationship between words that have similar or identical meanings. Words that have similar meanings are called Synonyms. Synonyms share a common semantic core

❖ Semantics enhances communication, cultural understanding, and precision in language

❖ Lexical semantics studies word meanings and their relationships

❖ Antonymy denotes opposites; synonymy denotes similar meanings

but may differ in aspects such as register, connotation, or usage. Examples of synonyms include "big" and "large," "happy" and "joyful," and "start" and "begin." Understanding antonymy and synonymy is essential for expanding vocabulary, refining language skills, and accurately conveying meaning in communication.

Hyponymy, homonymy, and polysemy are important concepts in lexical semantics that describe different types of relationships between words:

Hyponymy

Hyponymy is a hierarchical relationship between words where one word, called a hyponym, is a more specific instance of another word, called a hypernym. In other words, hyponyms are subcategories or types of hypernyms. For example, "rose" is a hyponym of "flower," and "poodle" is a hyponym of "dog."

Co-hyponyms

Co-hyponyms are words that share a common hypernym (a word that is more general than the co-hyponyms). In other words, they are words that are subordinate to the same broader category.

Example:

Hypernym: Animal

Co-hyponyms: Dog, cat, horse, elephant, etc.

Here, "animal" is the hypernym, and "dog," "cat," "horse," "elephant," and so on are co-hyponyms because they are all specific types of animals.

Similarly, screwdriver, scissors, knife, and hammer are all co-hyponyms of one another and hyponyms of "tool", but not hyponyms of one another. We cannot say that a "hammer" is a type of 'knife"

Homonymy

Homonymy refers to the phenomenon where two or more words have the same form (spelling or pronunciation) but different meanings. These words are distinct lexemes with unrelated meanings. For example, "bat" can refer to a flying mammal or a piece of sports equipment used in baseball. Homonyms can be further categorized into homographs (same spelling, different meaning) and homophones (same pronunciation, different meaning).

❖ Homonymy: Same form, different meanings. Includes homographs and homophones

❖ Homonymy: Same form, different meanings. Includes homographs and homophones

Contradiction: Incompatibility

Contradiction in linguistics refers to a situation where two or more statements are logically incompatible or inconsistent. This means that they cannot both be true at the same time.

Contradiction can be logical as in "The ball is both red and not red.", semantic as in "The bachelor is married.", pragmatic as in "I'm always on time, but I'm late."

Incompatibility encompasses both contradiction and inconsistency. It refers to a situation where two or more elements of language, such as words, phrases, or sentences, are not compatible or harmonious with each other.

For example, the sentence, "The cat barked." is showing semantic incompatibility (Cats do not bark, they meow.). Similarly, the sentence "The book eats." is an example for syntactic incompatibility. Incompatibility can arise due to various factors like semantic mismatches, grammatical errors or even contextual inappropriateness.

> ❖ Contradiction: Logically incompatible statements; incompatibility includes contradictions and inconsistencies

Polysemy

Polysemy is the phenomenon where a single word has multiple related meanings or senses. These different senses are usually connected by a core semantic concept but can vary in their specific applications or contexts. For example, the word "bank" can refer to a financial institution, the edge of a river, or tilt or incline. Polysemy is common in natural languages and contributes to the richness and flexibility of vocabulary.

2.3.3 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the linguistic study concerned with how context, social factors, and speaker intentions influence the meaning of language beyond its literal interpretation. It explores how language users navigate communicative interactions by considering implied meanings, shared knowledge, and cultural norms. Pragmatics investigates phenomena such as implicature, presupposition, and speech acts, revealing the intricate ways in which language is used to convey not just information but also to negotiate relationships, assert power, and achieve communicative goals. This field illuminates the dynamic nature of language in use, offering insights into the complex interplay between linguistic form, social context, and cognitive processes.

2.3.3.1 Content and Meaning

As mentioned above, Pragmatics delves into the study of language beyond its literal content, focusing on how context, social factors, and speaker's intentions shape meaning in communication. It explores how language users interpret and produce utterances within specific contexts, considering aspects such as implied meaning, presuppositions, implicature, and speech acts. Pragmatics investigates the dynamic nature of language use, revealing how speakers adapt their linguistic choices to suit different situations and achieve various communicative goals. In essence, pragmatics elucidates the intricate relationship between language, context, and social interaction, offering insights into how meaning emerges and evolves within the rich tapestry of human communication.

In pragmatics, the terms "content" and "meaning" play significant but distinct roles in understanding language use in context. Let's delve deeper into each concept:

Content

In pragmatics, "content" refers to the literal or explicit meaning of an utterance—the information conveyed by the words themselves, irrespective of context or speaker intention.

Focus on Surface Structure: Content primarily concerns itself with the surface structure of language, focusing on the literal interpretation of words and sentences.

Example: Consider the sentence "It's cold in here." The content of this utterance is straightforward—it communicates the temperature of the room without any additional context or implied meaning.

> ❖ Pragmatics studies context, social factors, and intentions in language meaning

> ❖ Pragmatics studies meaning shaped by context and social interaction

> ❖ Content refers to the literal meaning of utterances

Meaning

In contrast, "meaning" in pragmatics encompasses both the literal content of an utterance and the additional information conveyed through context, speaker intentions, and implicature.

Contextual and Pragmatic Aspects: Meaning takes into account not only what is explicitly stated but also what is implied, inferred, or presupposed based on the context of communication and the speaker's intentions.

❖ Meaning includes literal content and contextual implications.

Example: Using the same sentence, "It's cold in here," the meaning can vary significantly depending on context and intonation. If said while shivering with crossed arms, it could imply a request to adjust the temperature. However, if said with a neutral tone, it might simply convey an observation. If it is said observing a group of people who are passive, it can mean that " The people here are passive and disinterested."

In pragmatics, the distinction between content and meaning highlights the dynamic nature of language use. While content provides the literal building blocks of communication, meaning arises from the interaction between language, context, and speaker intentions. Pragmatic analysis often involves uncovering layers of meaning beyond the explicit content of utterances, exploring implicatures, presuppositions, speech acts, and conversational implicature to fully understand how language functions in context.

❖ Content is literal; meaning includes context and intention

2.3.3.2 Invisible Meaning

As mentioned above, in pragmatics, Invisible meaning refers to the implied or inferred meaning that is conveyed indirectly through language, beyond the literal interpretation of words or phrases. It encompasses aspects such as implicature, presupposition, and speech acts, where the context, shared knowledge, and social norms play a crucial role in understanding the intended meaning. This invisible layer of meaning adds depth and nuance to communication, allowing speakers to convey intentions, attitudes, and emotions beyond what is explicitly stated.

a) **Context**: Context plays a crucial role in determining invisible meaning. What is left unsaid or implied often relies heavily on the shared knowledge, cultural norms, and situational context between the speaker and the listener.

b) **Semantic Primes:** Semantic primes are basic, irreducible meanings that are universally present in all human languages. They are considered to be fundamental concepts that contribute

to the invisible meaning of language. Examples of semantic primes include concepts like time, space, motion, existence, and causation.

c) **Metaphor and Figurative Language**: Metaphors, similes, and other forms of figurative language contribute to invisible meaning by evoking imagery and emotions that go beyond the literal interpretation of words. For example, saying "Time is a thief" metaphorically implies that time can steal opportunities or experiences.

d) **Speech Acts**: Speech acts refer to the actions performed by speakers through utterances. Invisible meaning in speech acts includes illocutionary force, which is the intended effect or purpose of an utterance. For instance, saying "Could you pass the salt?" is not merely a question but also a polite request.

e) **Cultural and Societal Factors**: Invisible meaning can vary across different cultures and societies due to differences in language use, social norms, and cultural values. Understanding these factors is crucial for interpreting invisible meaning accurately in cross-cultural communication.

In essence, invisible meaning in linguistics encompasses the rich tapestry of implied, inferred, and contextually dependent aspects of language that extend beyond its surface-level expressions. Understanding invisible meaning is essential for effective communication and interpretation in various linguistic contexts.

2.3.3.3 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a methodological approach within linguistics and social sciences that focuses on studying language in use, particularly within extended stretches of communication known as "discourses." It examines how language structures and functions within larger contexts, such as conversations, interviews, written texts, speeches, and more. Discourse analysts analyse various aspects of discourse, including its structure, organization, patterns, and the social and cultural implications embedded within it.

Here are some examples of discourse analysis:

1. **Conversation Analysis:** This form of discourse analysis focuses on the structure and organization of spoken interactions. It examines turn-taking, adjacency pairs (e.g., question-answer sequences), repair mechanisms (how speakers correct misunderstandings), and other features of conversational

❖ Invisible meaning relies on context, culture, and implied intent

❖ Discourse analysis studies language use in broader contexts

structure. For example, analysing a family dinner conversation could reveal patterns of power dynamics, interruption, and topic management.

2. **Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA):** CDA examines how language reflects and reproduces power structures and ideologies within society. It investigates how language is used to construct and perpetuate social inequalities, such as those related to gender, race, class, and politics. For instance, analysing political speeches might reveal how language is used to shape public opinion and maintain or challenge existing power structures.

3. **Narrative Analysis:** This approach focuses on the storytelling aspects of discourse, examining how narratives are constructed, interpreted, and used to convey meaning. Researchers might analyse personal narratives, such as autobiographies or oral histories, to understand how individuals construct their identities and make sense of their experiences.

4. **Media Discourse Analysis:** This involves analysing the language used in various forms of media, such as newspapers, advertisements, television programs, and social media platforms. Researchers might examine how language is used to frame and represent certain events or issues, shape public opinion, or reinforce cultural norms and values.

5. **Multimodal Discourse Analysis:** This approach considers not only written or spoken language but also other semiotic resources, such as images, gestures, and body language. Researchers might analyse how different modes of communication interact and contribute to meaning-making in various contexts, such as in advertising campaigns or educational materials.

These examples demonstrate the diverse range of applications and methodologies within discourse analysis, illustrating its significance in understanding how language functions in different social, cultural, and communicative contexts.

❖ Discourse analysis studies language use across various contexts

Summarised Overview

This unit covers the study of semantics and pragmatics, focusing on how words, phrases, and sentences convey meaning. It explores key concepts like denotation, connotation, antonymy, synonymy, homonymy, and polysemy. Pragmatics is discussed in terms of how context and speaker intentions shape meaning, including invisible meanings. The unit also touches on discourse analysis, which examines how language is used in broader contexts such as conversations, media, and narratives. Overall, it highlights the complexities of language and the importance of context in understanding communication.

Assignments

1. Define and differentiate between conceptual and associative meanings. Provide examples to illustrate each type of meaning.

2. Explore how conceptual semantics contribute to our understanding of word meanings and linguistic expressions. Discuss key theories and approaches in conceptual semantics.

3. Critically evaluate the role of context in determining conceptual and associative meanings. Discuss how context influences the interpretation of words and phrases, and provide examples to support your argument.

Suggested Reading

1. Leach, Geoffrey N. *Semantics*. London: Penguin, 1976. Print

2. Ed. H. G. Widdowson. 1996. *Pragmatics*. Oxford Introductions to Language Study. Series Oxford: Oxford UP, 2008. Print.

Reference

1. Ed. H. G. Widdowson. 1996. *Pragmatics*. Oxford Introductions to Language Study. Series Oxford: Oxford UP, 2008. Print.

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Modern Grammar

BLOCK-03

UNIT 1

Traditional and Modern Grammer

👤 Learning Outcome

By the completion of this unit, the learner will be able to:

♦ explain the key concepts in grammar
♦ analyse the relationship between grammar and language.
♦ identify grammatical patterns and describe their functions.
♦ recognize different approaches to the study of grammar.

👤 Background

Grammar, which is frequently referred to as the backbone of language, provides the framework that specifies how words fit together to create coherent sentences. It includes guidelines for arranging words, sentences, and clauses in a way that promotes intelligible communication. Grammatical knowledge is essential for efficient communication since it guarantees coherence, clarity, and accuracy when expressing ideas and thoughts. Grammar is a key factor in determining language competency and skill, and it includes knowledge from the fundamentals of sentence structure to the complex details of syntax and semantics.

Approaches to grammar vary widely, reflecting diverse perspectives on language acquisition and usage. Two dominant approaches to the study of grammar are prescriptive or traditional and descriptive or modern .Traditional Grammar, rooted in prescriptive rules, emphasizes correctness and adherence to established conventions. This approach typically focuses on categorizing parts of speech, conjugating verbs, and diagramming sentences to enforce standardized usage.

On the other hand, descriptive or modern grammar looks at language as a dynamic phenomenon which is prone to variations in accordance with changes taking place in the culture and social life of its speakers. Modern grammar bases contemporary linguistic theories like structuralism and generative grammar to identify the fundamental ideas guiding language usage and structure. Instead of adhering to set rules and prescribed norms, modern or descriptive grammar analyses language based on how it is used by its speakers in real life and norms are formed accordingly.

This unit discusses various approaches to the study of grammar over the years and how changes in approaches have influenced study of language and grammar. The major differences between modern and traditional approaches are also dealt with in detail.

Prescriptive Grammar, Descriptive Grammar, Fallacies of traditional grammar, Grammaticality, Acceptability , Normative Fallacy, Semantic Fallacy

 Discussion

3.1.1 Understanding Grammar

The collection of structural guidelines that determine how words, sentences, and clauses are put together in any natural language is known as grammar. It includes morphology semantics and syntax. Morphology deals with the study of word structures and how they relate to other words in a sentence. Semantics refers to the meaning that words and sentences convey and syntax is the way that words and phrases are arranged to make sentences. Grammar helps users of language to communicate effectively by providing guidelines for constructing meaningful and coherent sentences. It varies from language to language, with each having its own unique set of rules and conventions.

❖ Grammar is the structure and rules of language

3.1.2 Traditional Grammar

Traditional grammar refers to the study and application of grammatical rules based on established conventions and norms. It typically focuses on the analysis and classification of words, phrases, and sentences according to traditional categories, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions. Traditional grammar often emphasizes prescriptive rules for "correct" language usage, prescribing norms based on formal written language and often reflecting the standards of a particular time or cultural context. It tends to prioritize the written language over spoken language and does not fully capture the complexities and variations of language as it is used in everyday communication.

The main differences between modern and traditional grammar are rooted in their fundamental approaches to language. Modern grammar adopts a descriptive stance, focusing on how language is actually used in various contexts without imposing strict rules or judgments on correctness. It recognizes the dynamic nature of language, embracing linguistic diversity and acknowledging the influence of social, cultural, and historical factors on language

evolution. In contrast, traditional grammar tends to take a prescriptive approach, prescribing rules for language usage based on arbitrary standards and often overlooking the complexities of real-world linguistic practices. It often enforces rigid rules that may not accurately reflect the diversity of language or accommodate linguistic changes over time.

Moreover, modern grammar is characterized by its inclusivity and scientific orientation. It acknowledges the validity of different dialects, registers, and language varieties, valuing the contributions of all speakers and drawing on empirical evidence and linguistic theories to understand language structures and phenomena. In contrast, traditional grammar may prioritize one standard dialect or variety of a language over others, potentially marginalizing non-standard or minority linguistic forms. Additionally, traditional grammar tends to rely more on rule-based explanations and may lack the empirical grounding and interdisciplinary insights that characterize modern linguistic approaches.

3.1.2.1 Fallacies of Traditional Grammar

Traditional grammar, while foundational in many respects, has been criticized for several fallacies or shortcomings. The main fallacies can be summed up as follows:

♦ Prescriptive Fallacy: Traditional grammar frequently has a prescriptive stance, dictating how language "should" be used. This point of view ignores how language naturally evolves and how the use of language changes with situations and contexts. For example, traditional grammar might dictate that split infinitive (e.g., "to boldly go") as incorrect, but these constructions are perfectly acceptable in modern English.

♦ Semantic Fallacy: Traditional grammar usually defines parts of speech based on their meaning. This can be problematic because meaning can be subjective and can vary depending on context. For instance, traditionally, a noun is defined as a word that refers to a person, place, or thing. But the sentence "Love is patience" treats "love" as a noun, even though it does not fit the traditional definition.

♦ Latinate Fallacy: This fallacy assumes that English grammar should follow the rules of Latin grammar. However, English is a Germanic language with a different grammatical structure from Latin. Moreover, each language is unique with their own specific features and applying norms of another language to one can create issues.

> ❖ Traditional grammar focuses on prescriptive rules; modern grammar is descriptive and inclusive

For example, in Old English indefinite pronouns were generally treated as male gender and their possessive forms were male.

Someone was looking for his baggage.

In Modern English, plural possessive form is used to refer to indefinite pronouns.

Someone was looking for their baggage.

- ♦ Written Form Fallacy: Conventional grammar frequently ignores spoken language in favour of written language. The main reason the traditional grammarians rules might not always apply consistently in spoken language since it is usually more flexible and fluid than written language.

- ♦ Historical Fallacy: Traditional grammar sometimes treats older forms of English as the "correct" way to speak or write. However, language constantly evolves, and what was considered proper grammar in the past may not be the case today.

- ♦ Normative Fallacy: Traditional grammar tends to enforce rigid rules or norms that do not always reflect the complexity and flexibility of real language. This can lead to oversimplification and misunderstanding of language structures.

- ♦ Logical Fallacy: Another limitation of traditional grammar was that many of its rules or arguments related to language were based flawed reasoning. For example, there was a rule that a sentence should not end with preposition and its logic was not justifiable. So, the sentence , what are you looking for was considered incorrect by the traditional grammarians.

In addition to these limitations, the traditional grammar is said to have flaws like looking at language as a static phenomenon and mixing up different criteria to form strict norms for use. Language is a dynamic system and it continues to change in accordance with changes taking place in the culture and life of its speakers. Traditional grammar failed to recognise this fundamental truth about language.

3.1.3 Descriptive Grammar

It focuses on describing how language is used by speakers, rather than prescribing normative rules or standards. This method acknowledges the intrinsic dynamism and variety of language, as well as the fact that linguistic phenomena can differ greatly between various social, cultural, and geographic contexts. Using

empirical techniques, descriptive grammar collects and analyses language data, incorporating knowledge from phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic domains. In order to provide a thorough understanding of language systems, descriptive grammarians study real language use in order to identify the underlying patterns and principles that control linguistic behaviour.

❖ Descriptive grammar analyzes real language use, embracing diversity and context

Unlike traditional grammar, descriptive grammar makes use computational linguistics and corpus linguistics to collect data to formulate rules about the use and usages of language. This interdisciplinary approach not only enhances our understanding of language structure and usage but also informs various practical applications, including natural language processing, machine translation, and language education. Overall, descriptive, or modern grammar represents a dynamic and evolving field that contributes significantly to our comprehension of human language in all its complexity and diversity.

3.1.4 Prescriptive grammar

Prescriptive grammar is a linguistic approach that dictates rules and norms for language usage, prescribing how language "should" be spoken or written according to established conventions or authorities. It often seeks to uphold a standardized form of language deemed prestigious or authoritative, typically based on historical usage or literary tradition. Prescriptive grammar tends to emphasize correctness and adherence to predetermined rules, sometimes prioritizing formal written language over colloquial or regional variations. This approach may be codified in grammar books, style guides, or educational curricula, aiming to impart a set of norms for "proper" language usage.

❖ Prescriptive grammar sets strict rules for "correct" language use

However, prescriptive grammar is criticised for its rigidity and inclination to ignore the evolution and diversity of language. While prescriptive norms can be useful in formal writing or in specialised circumstances, they frequently fail to capture all aspects of linguistic diversity and creativity inherent in language use. Critics of prescriptive grammar are of the view that it promotes linguistic elitism, reduces scope for linguistic innovation, and ignores social variables that influence language practices. Despite these criticisms, prescriptive grammar continues to play a role in language education and professional writing contexts.

3.1.5 Grammar and usage

Usage describes the typical and approved uses of words and phrases within a linguistic group. It is not simply about following the rules of syntax; it's about how we really utilise language. According to grammar, every phrase must have a subject and a verb. Usage indicates whether it is more frequent to state "It rains often" (more natural usage) or "It rains a lot" (grammatically correct but uncommon usage). Usage changes to reflect the ongoing evolution of language. Over time, words take on new meanings and certain word combinations gain popularity. Depending on the area and social group, usage may vary. For example, certain terms may be seen as formal in one context but informal in another.

❖ Usage reflects real language use; grammar provides structural rules

Grammar and usage serve as the fundamental infrastructure of language, providing the necessary guidelines and structure for coherent communication. They establish the regulations and principles dictating the organization of words and sentences, ensuring clarity, precision, and consistency in expression. Without grammar, language would be inconsistent and incoherent, making it difficult to understand and preventing efficient communication. Grammar is essentially a framework that provides guidance to speakers and writers so they can express themselves clearly and accurately. This helps to enable meaningful discourse and comprehension in academic and professional contexts.

3.1.6 Grammaticality and Acceptability

In linguistics, the term grammaticality does not necessarily mean correctness, but it refers to the phenomenon of a sentence conforming to the rules of grammar of that language. In other words, grammaticality is not necessarily associated with semantic correctness or acceptability but with the sentence agreeing with its syntactic norms. Chomsky's famous quote, "Colourless green ideas sleep furiously," is an example of a well-formed and syntactically sound sentence. But for obvious reasons, the sentence is meaningless. It is evident that the terms "colourless green" and "sleep furiously" combine lexical opposites that are either semantically contradictory or illogical.

The concepts of grammaticality and acceptability are central to the usage of language. Grammaticality refers to whether a given linguistic expression conforms to the rules and principles of a particular language's grammar. It reflects the extent to which a sentence or phrase adheres to the syntactic, morphological, and phonological constraints of the language system. For instance, in

English, the sentence "The cat is sleeping on the mat" is considered grammatical because it follows the established word order, verb agreement, and syntactic structure of the language. Conversely, "Cat mat on sleeping the is the" would be deemed ungrammatical due to its violation of English syntax and word order rules.

In contrast, acceptability refers to the phenomenon of a sentence containing or conveying a proper, logical and natural meaning accepted by the speakers of a language. It includes not only grammar but also elements like stylistic preferences, pragmatic appropriateness, and semantic plausibility. Acceptability considers the larger communication context and the pragmatic factors which influence language use, whereas grammaticality concentrates on the formal aspects of language.

The acceptability of using slang terms like "gonna" (going to) or "wanna" (want to) varies depending on the formality of the situation and the expectations of the speakers involved. In casual conversations among friends, the use of such slang may be perfectly acceptable and even expected, contributing to a sense of camaraderie and informality. However, in formal settings such as academic writing or professional presentations, the use of slang terms may be considered inappropriate or unprofessional, affecting the acceptability of the language used. This shows how acceptability is influenced by social norms, context, and audience expectations in language use.

Appropriateness in linguistics refers to the suitability or relevance of language use in a particular social context. It involves understanding and adapting one's language to fit the specific situation, audience, and purpose. For example, formal language is appropriate for academic writing, while informal language is more suitable for casual conversations. Using slang in a job interview or academic presentation would be considered inappropriate whereas it is quite normal to use it while speaking with close friends. The idea of appropriateness helps to move beyond rigid prescriptive rules and considers language as a flexible tool for communication.

❖ Appropriateness in linguistics relates to contextually suitable language use

Summarised Overview

This unit provides a comprehensive overview of modern grammar, emphasizing the distinction between traditional (prescriptive) and descriptive grammar. While traditional grammar focuses on established rules and conventions for "correct" language use, descriptive grammar analyzes how language is actually used in various contexts, acknowledging its dynamic and evolving nature. Key concepts discussed include grammaticality and acceptability, where grammaticality pertains to adherence to syntax rules while acceptability reflects the appropriateness of language in specific contexts. The unit also explores the limitations of traditional grammar, such as prescriptive and semantic fallacies, and highlights the importance of recognizing language diversity and the influence of social factors on language use. Overall, it underscores the role of grammar as a flexible framework that facilitates effective communication.

Assignments

1. Read the following sentences and comment on their acceptability and grammaticality

   ♦ Cats eat human beings.

   ♦ She go home on foot.

   ♦ They are curious about their exam results.

   ♦ Glasses drink a lot of water.

2. Distinguish between grammaticality and acceptability with examples.

3. Illustrate different approaches to the study of grammar.

4. Explain the major differences between modern grammar and traditional grammar.

5. Do you think language is an ever-changing phenomenon? How far does the descriptive approach to grammar agree with this view?

6. Browse the internet and prepare a list of sentences which were once considered incorrect by prescriptive grammarians.

7. Which approach to grammar, you think, is good? Justify your choice with proper arguments.

Suggested reading

1. Azar, B. S., & Hagen, S. A. (2009). *Understanding and Using English Grammar.* Allyn & Bacon. http://books.google.ie/books? id=tEpgPgAACAAJ&dq=understanding+and+ using+english+grammar&hl=&cd=2&source=gbs_api

2. Green, D. (2000). *Contemporary English Grammar Structures & Composition*. http://books.google.ie/books?id=O3hfPgAACAAJ&dq=contemporary+grammar+and+compostiton&hl =&cd=1&source=gbs_api

3. DeCapua, A. (2008). *Grammar for Teachers*. Springer Science & Business Media. http://books.google.ie/books?id=vVBo4MmXS-4C&printsec=frontcover&dq=Grammar+for+teachers&hl=&cd=1&source=gbs_api

4. Hewings, M. (2013). *Advanced Grammar in Use Book with Answers and CD-ROM*. Cambridge University Press. http://books.google.ie/books?id=YZAoAAAAQBAJ &printsec=frontcover&dq= advanced+grammar + in+use&hl=&cd=1&source=gbs_api

Reference

1. Balasubramaniam, T. *A Textbook on Phonetics for Indian Students*. New Delhi: Macmillan, 1981. Print.

2. Chomsky, Noam. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1965 . Print.

3. Crystal, David. *Introducing Linguistics*. London: Penguin English, 1992. Print. Fries, Charles Carpentar.

4. Leach, Geoffrey N. *Semantics*. London: Penguin, 1976. Print.

Space for Learner Engagement for Objective Questions

Learners are encouraged to develop objective questions based on the content in the paragraph as a sign of their comprehension of the content. The Learners may reflect on the recap bullets and relate their understanding with the narrative in order to frame objective questions from the given text. The University expects that 1 - 2 questions are developed for each paragraph. The space given below can be used for listing the questions.

UNIT 2 | Sentence Structure and Composition

👤 Learning Outcome

Upon completion of this unit, learners will be able to:

♦ identify basic syntactic components of a sentence
♦ distinguish between different types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory.
♦ analyse sentence structures to recognise types of sentences.
♦ apply knowledge of sentence structures to enhance coherence and cohesiveness in writing.

👤 Background

Understanding sentence structures is essential to mastering language and one's ability for effective communication skills in a language depends a lot on clear awareness about sentence construction. To guarantee accuracy and grammaticality in writing, it is crucial to know the subtleties of sentences, from fundamental components like subjects and predicates to sophisticated ideas like compound-complex structures.

The fundamental units of communication are sentences and the ability to produce well-formed utterances or sentences originates from a thorough knowledge of the basic units of a sentence and the mechanics of combining them into larger constructions.

In all types of writing, precision of ideas, grammaticality of sentences, coherence of the thoughts need to be ensured to make the it reader friendly and standard. To write in an engaging and successful manner, we must have a solid understanding of sentence patterns, clause formations, and writing mechanics.

Depending upon the purpose and context, writing needs to be customised using proper sentence structures and lexical combinations. In other words, the style of drafting a friendly letter and that of writing a seminar paper has explicit differences. These differences can be maintained provided the writer has better knowledge of sentence construction, mechnaics of writing and a well-formed understanding of words and clauses.

This lesson covers the intricate topic of sentence formation, types of sentences , simple and complex structures and their proper uses.

Discussion

3.2.1 Word class

The technical term "word class," usually referred to as "part of speech," describes how words are arranged within sentences according to their roles, functions, and grammatical characteristics. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are examples of common word classes. It is essential to understand word classes in order to analyse and describe the structure, syntax, and semantics of a language.

❖ Word classes categorize words by their grammatical roles

Words in linguistics are categorised into many word classes according to their morphological properties, semantic functions, and syntactic behaviour. Every word class adds to the structure and meaning of sentences in addition to fulfilling a particular grammatical purpose. The two main classes into which word classes have been divided are Form (lexical) and Function (grammatical).

3.2.2 Form class

❖ Form class words convey sentence meaning; they include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs

Words that predominantly contribute to the lexical content or meaning of a sentence are classified as form class, often referred to as lexical category or content word class. These terms have independent lexical meanings and are usually classified as open-class terms, which allows for the gradual addition of new terms. Form class words include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They often have clear semantic content and can be modified or inflected to convey different meanings or grammatical functions. These are the core words in a sentence, carrying the essential meaning and acting like the building blocks of your message. They can be categorized as follows.

Nouns: Nouns represent people, places, things, or ideas. They are also known as full words, content words or lexical items. They are the who or what of a sentence. Nouns can be concrete (dog, chair) or abstract (freedom, love). They are also classified as countable and non-countable. Nouns can be identified using the following identifying characteristics.

♦ If they are the name of people, places, things, and ideas.

♦ If pluralization and possessive forms are possible.

♦ If they function as subjects, objects, and complements.

♦ If they can be modified by determiners and adjectives, and they can be categorized as count or non-count, common or proper.

Verbs: Verbs describe deeds, conditions, or events. They describe what is real or what is occurring. Sentences cannot be complete without verbs. (eg. sleep, run, appear).Verbs have five forms which include base verb (go) 's' form (goes) past form (went) 'ing' verb (going) past participle (gone). Based on the manner in which past tense forms are made, verbs are categorized into two : regular and irregular. Regular verbs follow a consistent pattern when forming the past tense and past participle. Specifically, they add -ed (or -d if the verb ends in e) to the base form (walk-walked-walked). Irregular verbs do not follow a consistent pattern when forming the past tense and past participle(eg. eat-ate-eaten)

Adjectives: Adjectives give more details about the traits, attributes, or states of nouns. They give your writing more depth and precision. (eg. large, wise, lovely, inquisitive). They can come in a sentence in difference positions. Adjectives often appear directly before the noun they modify (e.g., a happy child). It is called attributive position. Adjectives can also follow a linking verb (e.g., The child is happy). In this case, they describe the subject of the sentence. It is called predicative position. Adjectives can also express different degrees of comparison: positive, comparative, and superlative (eg. small, smaller and smallest).

Adjectives are of different types based on their meaning, role and function. The major divisions can be summarised as:

♦ **Descriptive Adjectives**: Describe qualities or characteristics (e.g., happy girl, red shirt).

♦ **Quantitative Adjective**s: Indicate quantity (e.g., few books, several students).

♦ **Demonstrative Adjectives**: Point out specific nouns (e.g., this is good, that is bad).

♦ **Possessive Adjective**s: Show ownership (e.g., my book, his friends).

♦ **Interrogative Adjectives**: Used in questions (e.g., which bag, whose pen).

- **Indefinite Adjectives**: Refer to non-specific quantities (e.g., some money, many bags).

- **Proper Adjective**s: Derived from proper nouns (e.g., French team, Shakespearean drama).

- **Compound Adjectives**: Formed from two or more words (e.g., well-known player, part-time worker).

- **Distributive Adjectives**: Refer to individual members of a group (e.g., each book, every boy).

- **Numeral Adjectives**: Indicate numbers or order (e.g., two words, first guy).

- **Articles**: Definite and indefinite articles (e.g., the, a, an).

Adverbs: Adverbs modify other adverbs, verbs, or adjectives. They provide answers to queries about how, when, where, why, and to what extent.

- She sings **beautifully** (modifies the verb sings).

- The movie was **incredibly** interesting (modifies the adjective interesting).

- He ran **very** quickly (modifies the adverb quickly)

Adverbs are divided into different types based on the function they have in a sentence.

Adverbs of Manner: Describe how something is done (e.g., quickly, slowly, carefully).

Example: *He writes **neatly***.

Adverbs of Time: Indicate when something happens (e.g., now, yesterday, soon).

Example: *She will arrive **tomorrow***.

Adverbs of Place: Indicate where something happens (e.g., here, there, everywhere).

Example: *The children are playing **outside***.

Adverbs of Frequency: Indicate how often something happens (e.g., always, never, often).

Example: *They **always** go to the gym on Mondays*.

Adverbs of Degree: Indicate the extent or intensity of an action or adjective (e.g., very, quite, too).

Example: *It's **too** hot outside*.

3.2.2.1 Features of Form Class Words

This class of words is open-ended because new words are regularly added to form classes, reflecting the ever-evolving nature of language. These words can be modified by using different forms of word formation like derivation, inflexion, compounding and affixing. Moreover, form classes can undergo grammatical inflections to indicate tense (past, present, future-eg: go, went, will go) plurality (singular, plural, eg: cat, cats), and comparison (comparative, superlative eg: good, better, best).

3.2.3 Function Class

Words that serve grammatical or syntactic functions within sentences are classified as function class words. They are also referred to as grammatical words or closed-class words. These words mostly support organization or structure of a sentence and frequently have less semantic significance. Function class words are usually closed-class categories, which means that only a small number of words belong to them and that new words are not made from them by inflexion or derivation. Pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, and particles are examples of for this class of words, that are also known as empty words, structure words,

In contrast to form classes, function classes do not play significant roles in deciding the semantic content of a sentence. However, they are essential for expressing the grammatical links between words and for organising sentences.

3.2.3.1 Features of Function Class Words

These words cannot be combined to form new words by affixing letters before or after one another. Since they do not possess independent meanings, we have to understand their meaning from the words that come before or after them. Even if they don't have a complete meaning by themselves, they make a big impact on the overall structure and meaning of a sentence.

Determiners: Determiners specify or quantify nouns. They indicate definiteness (the, a, an) or indefiniteness (some, any) and can also point to specific quantities (two, three, several). There are five types of determiners.

1) Articles- These are used to signal nouns. Two of the articles 'a', 'an' are Indefinite articles and "the" is definite article.

2) Ordinals- first, second, third, etc.

3) Quantifiers- These indicate the quantity or amount of nouns. Quantifiers include "some," "any," "many," "much," "few," "little," "a lot of," and "all."

4) Demonstratives- These point out specific nouns and include "this," "that," "these," and "those."

5) Possessives - These show ownership and include "my," "your," "his," "her," "its," "our," "their," and possessive nouns (e.g., "John's")

Eg: Some of the boys in the class were absent for three days.

Pronouns: Pronouns substitute for previously mentioned nouns, avoiding repetition and ensuring smooth sentence flow. (he, she, it, they, we, you, I).

Eg: Raheem was a film director. He was very popular for his commercial films.

Categories of Pronouns

There are several categories of pronouns in English

Personal Pronouns

First person: I, me, my, mine, we, us, our, ours

Second person: you, your, yours

Third person: he, him, his, she, her, hers, it, its, they, them, their, theirs

Demonstrative Pronouns

Singular: this, that

Plural: these, those

Interrogative Pronouns

Who, whom, whose (referring to people)

Which (referring to things or people)

What (referring to things or ideas)

Relative Pronouns

Who, whom, whose (referring to people)

Which (referring to things)

That (referring to people or things)

Indefinite Pronouns

Singular: someone, anyone, everyone, no one, somebody, anybody, everybody, nobody

Plural: some, any, many, few, several, all, none

Reflexive Pronouns

First person: myself

Second person: yourself

Third person: himself, herself, itself, themselves

Intensive Pronouns

These are same as reflexive pronouns, but used for a different purpose (e.g., "I did it myself.")

Prepositions: Prepositions show the spatial or temporal relationship between a noun or pronoun and another element in the sentence. They indicate location, direction, time, cause, manner, and other relationships (eg.in, on, at, to, from, by, during).

Eg. Please put all my books on the table in front of the blue shelf.

3.2.4 Types of Prepositions in English

Prepositions of Place

At to indicates a specific location or time. Eg. "I'll meet you at the park."

In to indicate a location within a larger space. Eg. "The book is in the bag."

On to indicate a position on a surface. Eg. "The cat is sitting on the sofa."

Between to indicates a position in the middle of two things. Eg. "The store is between the bank and the post office."

Among to indicate a position within a group. Eg. "The child is playing among the toys."

Prepositions of Direction

Words like to, from, into, out of, through are examples.

To to indicate movement toward a destination. Eg. "I'm going to

the store."

Into Indicates movement inside something. Eg. "The cat jumped into the box."

Through to indicate movement across or inside something. Eg."The river flows through the city."

Prepositions of Time

At to indicate a specific time or point. Eg. "I'll be there at 3 o'clock."

In to indicate a period of time (month, year, season). Eg. "I'll see you in May."

On to indicate a specific day or date. Eg. "We're having a party on Saturday."

Conjunctions: Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or clauses. They coordinate ideas and show relationships between them. (and, but, or, for, because, although)

Eg. Though he was tired, he attended the class till the end.

3.2.5 Types of Conjunctions

Coordinating Conjunctions

These conjunctions connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank. For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So, etc. are examples of coordinating conjunctions.

Subordinating Conjunctions

These conjunctions introduce dependent clauses that cannot stand alone as complete sentences. After, although, as, as if, as though, because, before, if, in order that, since, so that, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where, wherever, while are examples for subordinating conjunctions.

Correlative Conjunctions

These conjunctions connect pairs of words, phrases, or clauses.

Both...and, Either...or, Neither...nor, Not only...but also, etc. are examples for correlative conjunctions.

Interjections: Interjections express sudden emotions or reactions.

They often stand alone but can also be followed by an exclamation mark. (wow, ouch, hurrah)

The major differences between form class and function class words can be summarized as follows

Form class	Function class
Lexical	Structural/ grammatical
Open system	Closed system
Less frequent	More frequent
Class markers	More formal markers
Paradigms	No paradigms
Classification and contrast	No classification and contrast
Full sentences	No full sentences
Translation possible	No translation

3.2.6 Phrases

Although they serve as grammatical units within sentences, phrases are collections of words that are unable to convey a full idea by themselves. They function as the building blocks that join to form longer, more intricate words. Words can be combined in many ways to form phrases, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and other speech components. They contribute to the overall structure and meaning of sentences in a variety of ways.

Phrases can function as different parts of speech within a sentence, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, or prepositions. For example, a noun phrase functions as a subject, object, or complement in a sentence, such as "the tall tree" in "The tall tree swayed in the wind." Verb phrases, on the other hand, consist of a main verb along with auxiliary verbs or other elements and serve as predicates in sentences, as in "has been studying" in "She has been studying for hours." Adjectival phrases modify nouns or pronouns, providing additional descriptive information, like "very beautiful" in "The sunset was very beautiful." Adverbial phrases modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, indicating aspects such as time, place, manner, or degree, as in "in the morning" in "She woke up in the morning." Prepositional phrases, introduced by prepositions, function as adjectives or adverbs, providing information about location, direction, time, or other relationships, such as "on the table" in "The book is on the table."

There are various types of phrases, each serving a specific purpose:

❖ Phrases are word collections that enhance sentence meaning and structure

Noun Phrase (NP): This phrase acts as a noun, referencing people, places, things, or ideas. It can include a single noun (e.g., "dog") or a more elaborate construction with determiners, adjectives, and other modifiers (e.g., "the big, brown dog with floppy ears"). Noun phrases function as the subject or object of a verb, or they can act as appositives, providing additional information about a noun (e.g., "My favorite book, The Lord of the Rings, is an epic fantasy").

Verb Phrase (VP): This phrase focuses around a verb and can include helping verbs, adverbs, or objects to provide complete meaning about an action, state of being, or occurrence. It forms the core of the predicate in a sentence (e.g., "was running," "has been singing," "will bake a cake").

Adjective Phrase: This phrase modifies a noun or pronoun by describing its qualities or characteristics. It can consist of a single adjective (e.g., "happy") or a more complex construction with multiple adjectives and adverbs (e.g., "extremely excited and energetic"). Adjective phrases add richness and detail to your sentences.

Adverb Phrase: This phrase modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb, providing information about manner, degree, frequency, time, or place. It can be a single adverb (e.g., "quickly") or a longer phrase with prepositions and other modifiers (e.g., "with great enthusiasm"). Adverb phrases help to refine the meaning and provide context within a sentence.

Prepositional Phrase: This phrase consists of a preposition followed by a noun or pronoun (its object) and functions like an adjective or adverb. It shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and another element in the sentence (e.g., "in the box," "across the street," "during the summer"). Prepositional phrases offer more precise information about location, time, direction, or manner.

3.2.7 Clauses and their Types

Clauses are groups of words containing a subject and a predicate (verb) and can function as a sentence or as part of a sentence. They need not necessarily convey a complete meaning. There are two main types: independent and dependent.

An independent clause which is also called main clause can stand alone because it expresses a complete thought or idea. It contains a subject and a predicate and does not rely on any other clause to make its sense complete.

Example: We are reading a book.

Teachers engage classes for students.

Main clauses are often linked by coordinating conjunctions to form compound sentences. Example: "She likes to read, and he likes to paint."

They are educated but they don't like to work.

A dependent clause, also known as a subordinate clause, cannot stand alone because it does not express a complete thought or contain a complete sense. It depends on an independent clause to form a complete sentence.

Example: "She buys a lot of book because she likes to read."

Dependent clauses often begin with subordinating conjunctions such as "because," "although," "if," "when," "since," etc. Example: "Because she likes to talk, she spends a lot of time with friends." Dependent clauses can also function as adverbial, adjectival, or nominal clauses, providing additional information about time, cause, manner, condition, place, reason, purpose, or concession.

> ❖ Clauses contain a subject and predicate; they can be independent or dependent

3.2.8 Coordination and Subordination

Coordination, subordination, and relative clauses are all important elements in constructing complex sentences.

Coordination: In coordination, two or more independent clauses are joined together using coordinating conjunctions like "and," "but," "or," "nor," "for," "so," or "yet."

For example: "I went to the store, and I bought some groceries."

She was very worried, but she controlled her emotions.

Subordination: Subordination involves joining an independent clause with one or more dependent clauses using subordinating conjunctions such as "because," "although", "though " "if," "when," "since," etc.

For instance: "Because it was raining, I took an umbrella."
Though I called her many times, she did not give any reply.

Relative Clauses: Introduced with relative pronouns like "who," "whom," "whose," "which," or "that," relative clauses give more details about a noun in the sentence.

For instance, "The man that I met yesterday is a writer."

The bus that was painted blue hit with a car

These kinds of clauses help sentences become more intricate and nuanced, which improves communication's expressiveness and accuracy.

3.2.9 Noun Clause

A noun clause is a group of words acting as a single noun within a sentence. It can start with a relative pronoun or subordinating conjunction and serves as the complement, subject, or object. For example, in the sentence "I believe that he will win the match," the verb "believe" has a direct object in the noun clause "that he will win the match." Another example is "Whoever arrives first will get the prize," where the noun clause "Whoever arrives first" functions as the sentence's subject. Noun clauses give sentences depth and complexity by enabling them to clearly and convincingly express relationships and information

❖ Noun clauses act as single nouns, serving as subjects, objects, or complements

3,2.9.1 Functions of Noun Clause

Just like a noun has various functions, a noun clause has multiple functions too. A noun clause can perform the following functions.

♦ Works as the subject. (e.g. What she said was surprising)

♦ Takes the place of the object (e.g. I don't know what he wants)

♦ Acts as the subject complement (e.g. The truth is that he never called)

♦ Functions as the object of a preposition (e.g. We are excited about what they decided)

3.2.10 Adverb Clause

An adverb clause is a set of words that modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs in a sentence by acting as an adverb. Subordinating conjunctions like "after," "although," "because," "since," "while," and "if," among others, usually come first in these clauses. Adverb clauses give more depth and clarity to the action or attitude stated in the main sentence by supplying details about the time, place, manner, condition, purpose, or contrast. For instance, in the sentence "She played well because she did a lot of practice before," the action stated in the main clause "She played well " is explained by the adverb clause " because she did a lot of practice before."

> ❖ Adverb clauses modify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs

Adverb clauses can appear at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence, and they are usually separated from the main clause by a comma when placed at the beginning or in the middle. These clauses can vary in length and complexity, but their primary function remains consistent: to provide additional information about the circumstances surrounding the action or state described in the main clause, thereby enhancing the overall clarity and precision of the sentence.

3.2.10.1 Functions of Adverb Clause

Adverb clauses serve several functions within a sentence, providing additional information about the action or state described in the main clause. Some common functions of adverb clauses include:

1. **Time**: Adverb clauses can indicate when an action takes place in relation to the action of the main clause.

   For example: " Soon after the concert ended, we went out for dinner.

   After she completed her cleaning duties, she went to watch cricket."

2. **Place**: They can specify the location or direction of the action in relation to the main clause.

   Example: "Wherever you go, I will come after you."

   Eg:"Wherever you go, I can extend support from here."

3. **Manner:** Adverb clauses describe how an action is performed.

   For instance: "She sang the song as if she were a great singer."

   Eg:"He spent as though he were a millionaire."

4. **Condition**: They express the circumstances under which the action of the main clause occurs.

   Example: "If it rains, we will play indoors."

   Eg:"If you work hard, you will get great results."

5. **Purpose:** Adverb clauses explain the reason or purpose behind the action of the main clause.

   Example: "We studied hard so that we could pass the exam."

   Eg; " We took an umbrella so that we could walk in the rain.."

6. **Contrast**: They indicate a contrast or concession to the action of the main clause.

Example: "Although she was attacked, they helped them escape from the place."

Eg :"Although it was late, they made up their mind to get married."

By serving these various functions, adverb clauses enrich the context and meaning of sentences, allowing for more nuanced and precise

3.2.11 Basic Sentence Patterns

The building blocks of English sentences come in a few basic patterns. The most common structure is Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), where the subject performs an action (verb) on something (object). For instance, "Dogs fight with cats." Sometimes, a sentence might just have a Subject and Verb (SV), like "It rains."

Other patterns include Subject-Verb-Complement (SVC), which uses a linking verb to describe the subject, such as "The cake tastes delicious." This structure is fundamental in constructing clear and coherent sentences in English. Another common structure is Subject Verb Adjunct (SVA) .Example for this structure is "She walks fast or They take rest in a lonely room". However, English allows for flexibility and variation, such as placing adverbs or adjectives before the verb or adding complements to further describe the subject or object.

Additionally, sentences can be structured differently for emphasis or to convey different meanings, such as in questions, commands, or sentences with different types of clauses. Understanding these basic patterns is crucial for effective communication and writing in English.

3.2.12 Types of Sentences

There are four primary sentence forms in English: imperative, exclamatory, declarative, and interrogative. Each type has a unique tone and structure and fulfils a different function in communication. Let's examine each category with some examples:

1. Declarative Sentences:

Declarative sentences make statements or assertions. They express facts, opinions, or ideas.

Example: "The sun sets in the west."

"She is a studious student."

2. Interrogative Sentences:

Interrogative sentences ask questions. They seek information or confirmation. Depending upon the length of the answer the questions seek from the listener, interrogative sentences are called Wh Questions or Yes or No Questions.

Example: "What are you looking for?"

"Is he a teacher?

3. Imperative Sentences:

Imperative sentences contain commands, instructions, or requests. They express a desire for someone to do something.

Example: "Please meet me tomorrow afternoon."

"Think well before you act."

4. Exclamatory Sentences:

Exclamatory sentences express strong emotions or feelings. They convey excitement, surprise, or emphasis.

Example: "What a fantastic scene!"

"Get out of here!" .

3.2.13 Cleft Sentences

❖ Cleft sentences emphasize parts of sentences

With the help of the English grammatical structure known as "cleft sentences," speakers and writers can highlight specific parts of a sentence by splitting it into two clauses. A cleft sentence's fundamental structure consists of a main clause that comes after a subordinate clause that is introduced by "it is" or "it was." The information that is emphasised is found in the main clause.

For example, consider the following sentence:

Original: "She scored the highest marks."

Cleft: "It was she who scored the highest marks."

In this cleft sentence, the focus is on the fact that "she" scored the highest marks. By placing "it was" at the beginning and using "who" in the main clause, the emphasis is shifted to the subject "she."

Cleft sentences can also be used to emphasize other parts of the sentence, such as the object or complement:

Original: "She wrote a short story."

Cleft: "It was a short story that she wrote."

Here, the focus is on the fact that "she" wrote a short story, emphasizing the object "a short story."

Cleft sentences are particularly useful for adding emphasis or clarity to a statement, especially in situations where certain information needs to be highlighted for emphasis or contrast.

3.2.14 Simple, Compound, Complex Sentences

In grammar, a clause is a group of words that consist of a subject and a predicate. Essentially, it is a building block of a sentence, expressing a complete thought or idea. Clauses can either stand alone and contain a complete meaning (independent clauses) or depend on another clause to form a complete sentence or complete sense (dependent or subordinate clauses).

For example, "He bought a car " is an independent clause because it forms a complete sentence with a subject ("he") and a predicate ("bought a car ").

On the other hand, dependent or subordinate clauses rely on independent clauses to get a complete meaning or to form a sentence. These clauses often start with subordinating conjunctions like "though," "because," "while," or "if." For instance, in the sentence "Though she was bed-ridden, she offered her daily prayers. " Though she was bed-ridden " is dependent because it does not convey a complete meaning; it needs the independent clause " she offered her daily prayers " to make sense.

Building clear, cohesive sentences requires an understanding of clauses. To communicate complex ideas and concepts effectively, a good understanding of causes is required.

> ❖ Simple sentences consist of a subject and predicate

The fundamental building blocks of language are simple sentences, which have a subject and a predicate and convey a complete idea. These clauses can function as independent sentences on their own. They frequently have an uncomplicated structure and don't have any dependent clauses. Simple clauses can range in complexity from being brief and to be more descriptive, as well as longer. For instance, the sentence "The cat sat on the mat" expresses a clear action and has only one clause." In a similar vein, "She laughed loudly" is a straightforward sentence. Thus, sentences with only one main clause are called simple sentences.

3.2.14.1 Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are those that have two or more independent clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction. Each independent clause within a compound clause can stand alone as a complete sentence, expressing a distinct idea or thought. These kinds of sentences are used to express ideas or thoughts either mutually connected or different. Coordinating conjunctions such as "and," "but," "or," "for," "nor," "so," and "yet" are used to connect the independent clauses and establish the relationship between them. Compound clauses give sentences greater variety and complexity, which help writers express more complex ideas in an effective manner.

She was walking slowly and singing a song.

The rain was pouring down but we did not stop playing in the ground.

In each of the sentences above, there are two independent clauses which are connected by coordinating conjunctions and and but. Both clauses could stand alone as separate sentences, but by joining them with the coordinating conjunction "and" or "but," they form a compound clause, expressing two related/unrelated ideas within a single sentence.

❖ Compound sentences connect two independent clauses

3.2.14.2 Complex Sentences

Sentences which have at least one main clause and one subordinate clause are called complex sentences. A main clause is a group of words that can stand alone as a complete sentence, expressing a full thought or idea. On the other hand, a subordinate clause, also known as a dependent clause, cannot stand alone as a sentence because it does not express a complete thought; instead, it relies on the independent clause to give it meaning or context.

Subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns are frequently used in complex clauses to link the dependent and independent clauses. Subordinating conjunctions like "although," "because," "while," "since," "if," "when," and "after" introduce dependent clauses that convey a variety of relationships, including condition, concession, time, cause and effect, and contrast.

Example: "Since I was sick, I did not attend the class.

Although I called her many times, she refused to reply.

In this sentence: " I did not attend the class " is the independent clause. " Since I was sick " is the dependent clause. The dependent

❖ Complex sentences contain one main clause and one subordinate clause

clause cannot stand alone as it does not have a complete meaning. Complex sentences are often used in academic writing as they give the writer many options to convey intricate ideas and relationships in a clear way.

3.2.15 Elements of a Sentence

A sentence is defined as a group of words conveying a complete meaning. A sentence often consists a noun phrase which functions as it subject and a verb phrase which typically refers to an action, occurrence, or state of being. Based on the function or meaning, sentences are categorised into four types, assertive, declarative, interrogative and exclamatory. Another way of labelling sentences is the number and nature of the clauses included in them. Accordingly, sentences are grouped into simple, compound and complex.

Subject or Noun Phrase

The noun, noun phrase, or pronoun that serves as the main point of emphasis or the doer of an action in a sentence is called the subject. It usually carries out the action that the verb describes or is the subject of a statement. It serves as the focal point around which the rest of the sentence is structured. Grammatically speaking, the subject determines whether the verb and other sentence components agree with it. It affects the verb's form and aids in establishing subject-verb agreement. The subject carries semantic significance, indicating who or what is performing the action or undergoing the state described in the sentence.

For instance, in the sentence "He finished the entire job himself," the subject is "He " and in the sentence "The much awaited final is going to be played tomorrow" "The much awaited final " is the subject.

Verb or Verb Phrase

A verb is an essential part of a sentence that describes an event, an action, or a state of affairs. For example, in the sentence "She practices dancing every day," the action of the subject "she" is indicated by the verb "practices."

Verbs are essential to syntactic structure because they determine how subjects, objects, and complements relate to one another within a sentence. They also come in a variety of forms that indicate voice, agreement, tense, aspect, and mood. They provide the primary dynamic force in communication by expressing what the subject is doing (action verbs) or feeling (state verbs). Depending on whether

the subject is the one doing the action or the one receiving it, verbs can be in the active or passive voice.

> E.g. I ate a ripe apple. (active)/ A ripe apple was eaten by me. (passive)
> She looks innocent and polite. (state)
> They go home early on Mondays.

Object

The noun or noun phrase that the verb directs its action towards, or that the verb directly affects, is the object of the sentence. After the verb, it usually responds to the "what" or "whom" query. When a sentence has an object, it makes the action taken by the subject clearer. By identifying the intended recipient or target of the action, it gives the sentence context and specificity.

For example, in the sentence "My friend met her brother" the noun phrase "her brother " is the object because it is whom she met —the direct recipient of the action "met." Similarly, in the sentence "We visited China," "China" is the object because it is what they visited. Depending on the verb, there can be both direct and indirect objects in a sentence. The direct object directly receives the action of the verb, while the indirect object indicates to whom or for whom the action is done.

❖ The object receives the action of the verb

For example, in the sentence "My father gifted my sister a toy," "a toy" is the direct object, and "my sister" is the indirect object.

Complement

A word or collection of words that completes the meaning of a verb in a sentence and adds details about the subject or object is called a complement. Subject complements and object complements are two types of complements.

1. Subject Complements: These complements provide information about the subject of the sentence. They come after a linking verb (such as "be," "become," "seem") and describe or rename the subject. For example, in the sentence "I am an IPS Officer," " an IPS Officer " is a subject complement that renames or describes the subject "I."

❖ Complements complete verb meanings

2. Object Complements: These complements provide additional information about the object of the verb. They typically come after the direct object and modify or describe it further. For example, in the sentence "They saw him tired," "tired" is an object complement that describes the direct object "him."

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Adverbial/Adjunct

A word, phrase, or clause that modifies or adds details about the verb, an adjective, or another adverb is called an adverbial in a sentence. Questions like "how," "when," "where," "why," or "to what extent" about the action or state that the verb is describing are frequently addressed by adverbials.

Adverbials can take various forms and positions within a sentence, including single adverbs (e.g., quickly, slowly), adverbial phrases (e.g., in the morning, with great care), and adverbial clauses (e.g., because he was tired, if she arrives on time). They can appear in various positions within a sentence, including before or after the verb, at the beginning or end of a sentence, or even in the middle.

For example, in the sentence "She moved speedily to the store," the adverbial "speedily" modifies the verb "moved," indicating the manner in which she walked. Additionally, the prepositional phrase "to the store" functions as an adverbial, specifying the direction of the action.

One major difference between complements and adjuncts is that complements are essential to give a complete meaning to a sentence, whereas adjuncts give additional information and are optional.

For example, "she is a teacher with good track records."

In the given sentence "a teacher" is complement and "with a good track record" is adjunct.

❖ Adverbials modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs

Adjuncts

Adjuncts are optional adverbial elements that provide additional information about the action of the verb, such as how, when, where, or to what extent something happens. They are not essential to the sentence's grammatical structure but add useful details.

❖ Adjuncts are optional elements adding extra information to verbs

Examples:

♦ She sings beautifully. (Here, beautifully is an adjunct modifying the verb sings. It tells us how she sings.)

♦ We met in the park yesterday. (In this example, in the park tells us where they met, and yesterday tells us when they met.)

Disjuncts

❖ Disjuncts express the speaker's attitude

Disjuncts are adverbials that provide commentary on the entire sentence or clause. They convey the speaker's attitude or opinion

about the statement rather than modifying the verb, adjective, or adverb directly.

Examples:

- ♦ Fortunately, we arrived on time. (Here, Fortunately expresses the speaker's attitude about the situation.)

- ♦ Honestly, I don't know. (Honestly reflects the speaker's attitude toward the truth of the statement.)

Conjuncts

❖ Conjuncts connect sentences or clauses

Conjuncts are adverbials that connect sentences or clauses. They provide logical connections between different parts of discourse, indicating relationships such as cause and effect, contrast, or addition.

Examples:

- ♦ However, we decided to stay. (Here, However connects this sentence with the previous one, showing contrast.)

- ♦ Therefore, we need to reconsider our plans. (Therefore indicates a logical consequence.)

👤 Summarised Overview

This unit focuses on the fundamental aspects of sentence structures essential for effective communication and writing. It guides learners in identifying basic syntactic components, distinguishing between sentence types—declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory—and analyzing their structures to enhance coherence and cohesiveness. The unit highlights the importance of understanding word classes, categorizing them into form classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) that contribute to lexical meaning, and function classes (pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections) that serve grammatical purposes. It further explores phrases, which lack independent meaning but serve as parts of speech, and clauses, which contain a subject and predicate and can be independent or dependent. Additionally, the unit distinguishes between simple, compound, and complex sentences, illustrating how these structures convey different meanings. Understanding these elements, including subjects, verbs, objects, complements, adverbials, adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts, equips learners with the skills necessary for precise writing tailored to various contexts, fostering clarity and grammatical accuracy in their expression.

👤 Assignments

1. Distinguish between form class and function class words with examples

2. What are the major types of phrases and their functions?

3. Study the given sentences and identify classes of words used in them.
   a. What I worry much about him is his inability to communicate abstract ideas effectively and clearly.

   b. I saw him standing on the bank of a river as though he wanted to get drowned in the currents of river water.

4. Study the given sentences, identify their types and convert them into the other categories.
   a. She went on complaining about the manager but no one listened to her words.

   b. Although my uncle is very rich, he is reluctant to help his relatives.

   c. The hut on the other side of the river is very old.

   d. The man who was residing next to my house is an artist.

   e. You can choose either coffee or tea, but not both.

5. Illustrate different types of connectors and their uses with suitable examples.

6. How do you define a clause? What are different types of clauses? Give three examples for each type.

7. Write two sentences each for the given patterns.
   i. SVC

   ii. SVO

   iii. SVA

   iv. SVO+adj

   v. SV

   vi. SVOO (direct object & indirect object)

8. Sentences are classified based on the meaning/function they have into declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. Study the given sentences and identify their types.

Suggested reading

1. Azar, B. S., & Hagen, S. A. (2009). *Understanding and Using English Grammar*. Allyn & Bacon. http://books.google.ie/books?id=tEpgPgAACAAJ&dq =understanding+and+using+english+ grammar&hl=&cd=2&source=gbs_api

2. Green, D. (2000). *Contemporary English Grammar Structures & Composition*. http:// books.google.ie/books?id____=O3hfPgAACAAJ&dq=contemporary+grammar+and+ compostiton&hl=&cd=1&source=gbs_api

3. DeCapua, A. (2008). *Grammar for Teachers*. Springer Science & Business Media. http:// books.google.ie/books?id=vVBo4MmXS-4C&printsec=frontcover&dq=Grammar+ for+teachers&hl=&cd=1&source=gbs_api

4. Hewings, M. (2013). *Advanced Grammar in Use Book with Answers and CD-ROM*. Cambridge University Press. http://books.google.ie/books?id=YZAoAAAAQBAJ& printsec=frontcover&dq=advanced+grammar+in+use& hl=&cd=1&source=gbs_api

Reference

1. Nesfield, John Collinson. *Manual of English Grammar and Composition*. United Kingdom, Kessinger Publishing, 2008.

2. Irving, David. *The Elements of English Composition: Serving As a Sequel to the Study of Grammar*. N.p., Creative Media Partners, LLC, 2023.

3. Armstrong, George Henry. *English Grammar and Composition*. N.p., Magic Publisher, 2024.

Space for Learner Engagement for Objective Questions

Learners are encouraged to develop objective questions based on the content in the paragraph as a sign of their comprehension of the content. The Learners may reflect on the recap bullets and relate their understanding with the narrative in order to frame objective questions from the given text. The University expects that 1 - 2 questions are developed for each paragraph. The space given below can be used for listing the questions.

Syntactic Theories

BLOCK–04

👤 Learning Outcome

Upon completion of this unit, the learner will be able to:

♦ understand the basic concepts of IC analysis

♦ analyse sentences using IC analysis

♦ learn concepts and theories associated with modern grammar

♦ distinguish between Phrase Structure grammar and Transformative Generative grammar

👤 Background

Traditionally, grammar books analysed sentences as combination of parts of speech like, noun, verb, adjective, adverb, etc. or analysed sentences as 'subject' and 'predicate', where subject is the agent and predicate is everything that speaks about the Subject or in short, the remaining part in the sentence.

American Linguist Leonard Bloomfield popularised a different way of sentence analysis to show that each 'constituent' in a construction is dependent on other constituents of the same sentence and their relation is hierarchical. This way of analysis helped linguists as well as students of linguistics to analyse sentences easily and understand the relationship between various parts of a sentence.

The later linguists like Noam Chomsky expanded the concepts and tools introduced by Bloomfield and it resulted in the emergence of PS grammar and TG grammar. The modern grammar is highly focused on the internal structure of language and how they are intricately connected to each other.

This block will help you understand the latest developments in modern linguistics and the fundamental concepts introduced by modern linguists. It introduces syntactic theories like IC analysis, PS Grammar and TG grammar. The advantages and limitations of these theories are also discussed.

🧍 Discussion

4.1.1 IC Analysis

IC analysis, or Immediate Constituent analysis, is a method used in modern linguistics to break down sentences into their building blocks. It essentially dissects a sentence layer by layer, separating it into its most fundamental segments until its ultimate word(s) or meaningful units. The aim of IC analysis is to find out the relationships between various constituents in a sentence. In other words, it is a method of cutting a sentence into two, further cutting those two parts into two, and continuing the segmentation until the smallest unit, the morpheme, is arrived at. It was first introduced by Leonard Bloomfield and systematised with theoretical formulations by Zellig Harris and Rulon Wells. Its main practice is the analysis of linguistic texts into two parts named 'constitutes.' Each part of a constitute is a 'constituent', i.e, a constituent is part of a constitute, and a constitute at one stage of analysis may, in turn, be a constituent of a larger constitute.

❖ IC analysis breaks down sentences into fundamental components

Bloomfield only introduced the notion of IC analysis and explained it in a vague manner. Later linguists like Noam Chomsky formalised and subjected the theory of constituent structure to mathematical rigour and introduced the concept of Phrase Structure Grammar. Thus, we can say that PS Grammar is an extended and elaborate form of IC analysis.

4.1.1.1 Significance of IC Analysis

IC Analysis is relevant in various ways, specifically on the following grounds:

Recognising Sentence Structure: By identifying the immediate constituents of a sentence and their relationships with one another, IC analysis aids linguists in understanding the hierarchical structure of sentences.

Comparative Analysis: Linguists can compare sentence structures and find patterns across languages by dissecting sentences into their most basic components.

Syntactic Parsing: Syntactic parsing algorithms used in natural language processing (NLP) tasks, like sentence parsing in computational linguistics and machine translation, are based on IC analysis.

Teaching Tool: To help students comprehend sentence structure and the interactions between various linguistic elements, IC analysis is frequently used as a teaching aid in linguistics courses.

4.1.1.2 Limitations

Though IC Analysis introduced a novel way of analysing the structure of sentences in a language by showing the relationships between different parts of a sentence, as a linguistics tool, it had some limitations. The following points will help you to understand its limitations and a need for amalgamation of different methods of sentence analysis.

Focus on Constituency over Word Order: IC analysis places more emphasis on identifying constituents and their combinations than it does on the word order within those constituents. When a language has flexible word order—meaning that the word order can alter the meaning of a sentence—this can be problematic. For example, "The man bites the dog" and "The dog bites the man" can have the same IC structure (Noun Phrase Verb Phrase Noun Phrase), but their meanings can differ because of word order in a language like Hungarian.

Limited Scope of Constituency: The main goal of IC analysis is to classify words into constituents; it does not go into great detail to examine the connections between specific words within those constituents. It doesn't take into consideration the grammatical relationships between words. One complementary method that particularly examines these relationships between words within a sentence is dependency grammar.

Challenges with Discontinuous Constituents: IC analysis struggles with sentences containing discontinuous constituents, where parts of a single constituent are separated by other words. For example, in the sentence "The man with the hat has left," "with the hat" is a prepositional phrase modifying "man," but the words are separated by "the." IC analysis might have difficulty capturing this relationship effectively.

Ambiguity and Idioms: Sentences with idiomatic expressions or grammatical ambiguity, which allows for multiple valid interpretations, can occasionally be problematic for IC analysis. For example, depending on the intended interpretation, the sentence

"The shooting of the hunters" can be understood in two different ways. This ambiguity may be beyond the scope of IC analysis.

Focus on Structure Over Meaning: While IC analysis reveals the syntactic structure, it does not necessarily provide a deep understanding of the sentence's meaning. It does not account for factors like pragmatics (context) or semantics (word meaning) that contribute to overall meaning. For example, "Mark is easy to please" and "Mark is eager to please" are alike in their surface structure; but IC analysis cannot show the difference in the meaning of the sentences.
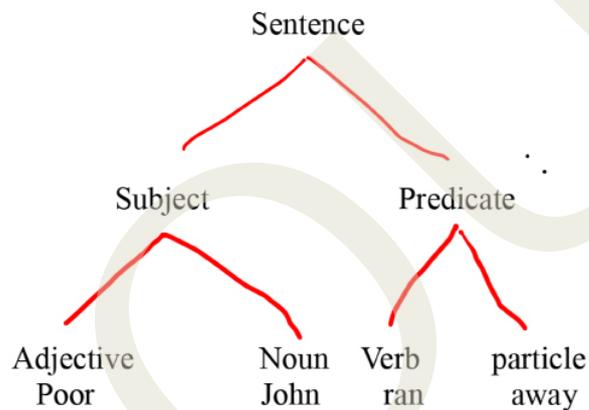

Fig.4.1.1 Example of IC Analysis

Here the sentence 'Poor John ran away' is divided first into immediate constituents Subject (poor John) and Predicate (ran away). Then the subject is further divided into immediate constituents Adjective (poor) and Noun (John) and predicate is further divided into immediate constituents Verb (ran) and Particle (away)

4.1.2 Phrase Structure Grammar (PS Grammar)

In linguistics, Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) is a formal framework that explains the hierarchical structure of sentences in natural languages. PSG is a constituent-based approach to syntax, which means that its main objective is to recognise, analyse, and show the hierarchical relationships between the fundamental building blocks of sentences, or constituents.

In simpler terms, we can say that all grammars based on the constituency relation are phrase structure grammars, as opposed to dependency grammars, which are based on the dependency relation. Constituency grammars are another name for phrase structure grammars. IC Analysis, discussed above, is one of the applications of PS grammar rules.
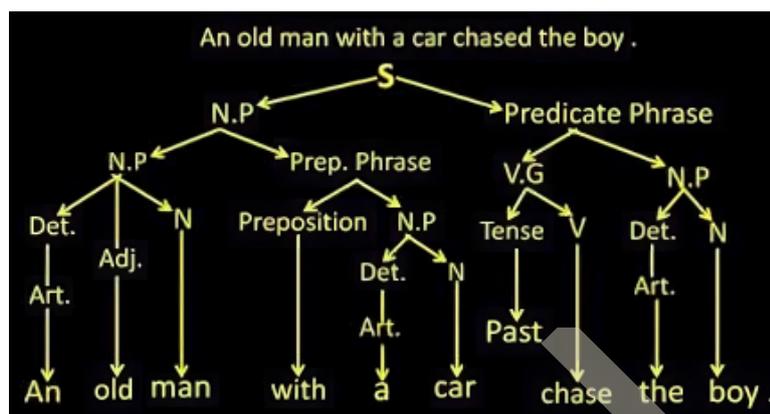
> ❖ IC analysis has limitations in focusing on structure over meaning, word order, and ambiguity.

> ❖ Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) analyzes hierarchical sentence structures using constituents

Fig. 4.1.2 Example of IC Analysis

The sentence "The old man with a car chased the boy" was first divided into two immediate constituents "The old man with a car" (Noun Phrase-NP) and "chased the boy" (Verb Phrase-VP). Then each constituent is further divided into smaller parts until we reach individual non-divisible units.

Here we understand from this tree diagram that, "An old man with a car" (Subject- 's' in traditional grammar) is one constituent and "chased the boy" (predicate- in traditional grammar) is next constituent.

Then both these constituents are further divided: NP is divided into NP "An old man" and Prepositional phrase "with a car". Later this second NP is further divided into single particles as determinant/ article, adjective and noun. Similarly, Prepositional phrase is subdivided into prepositions, determiner/articles and nouns.

The Verb Phrase (VP) also is subdivided into Verb (chased) and NP (the boy). Verb is further divided into base verb (chase) and past (ed), and NP is subdivided into determiner/article (the) and noun (boy).

This analysis helps the learner to understand the relationship of each component to other components and how systematically they produce variety of meanings. The limitation of traditional grammar of naming only parts of speech or dividing only to subject and predicate, is that it failed in explaining the complex relation between each component in a sentence. The most important strength of IC analysis is to overcome this limitation.

The key concepts in Phrase Structure Grammar are as follows:

Phrases: Sentences are examined in PSG as hierarchical structures made up of phrases. A phrase is a collection of words that appears

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in a sentence and is used as a single unit. Noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), prepositional phrases (PP), adjectival phrases (AdjP), and adverbial phrases (AdvP) are examples of common phrase types.

Constituents: The fundamental structural components of phrases are called constituents. They are collections of words that serve as stand-alone components in sentences and can be swapped out for a single word or phrase without changing the sentence's grammar. In the sentence "The cat is sleeping on the mat," for instance, "the cat" and "on the mat" are both parts.

Hierarchical Structure: PSG represents the hierarchical relationships among constituents within a sentence. This hierarchical structure is typically depicted using tree diagrams, where nodes represent constituents, and branches represent the relationships between constituents. The hierarchical structure reflects the nested nature of phrases within phrases.

Phrase Structure Rules: PSG uses phrase structure rules to create sentences by joining words together in ways that follow predetermined syntactic guidelines. The combinations of constituents to create larger constituents are governed by these rules. A basic rule of phrase structure might state, for instance, that a noun phrase (NP) is made up of a noun (N) and a determiner (Det), like in "the cat."

Lexicon: PSG incorporates a lexicon, which is a finite set of lexical items (words) and their associated syntactic features. Each word in the lexicon is categorized according to its syntactic properties, such as its part of speech (e.g., noun, verb, adjective) and its inflectional features (e.g., tense, number, gender).

Generative Power: PSG aims to describe the generative capacity of a language, or its capacity to generate an endless number of grammatically correct sentences with a limited vocabulary and set of rules.

> ❖ Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) analyses sentence structures hierarchically

4.1.2.1 Phase Structure Rules

Phrase Structure rules in grammar are formal descriptions of how words combine to form phrases in a sentence. These rules specify the structure of phrases by defining the syntactic constituents and their relationships within a hierarchical framework. Here are some common types of phrase structure rules:

Lexical Rules: These rules describe the internal structure of individual words and their syntactic categories. For example:

- Noun (N) -> dog

- Verb (V) -> eat

- Determiner (Det) -> the

Phrase Expansion Rules: These rules specify how smaller phrases combine to form larger phrases. They define the hierarchical structure of sentences. For example:

- NP (Noun Phrase) -> (Det) N = The dog

- VP (Verb Phrase) -> V (NP) = catches (the cat)

Optional and Repeatable Elements: Some phrase structure rules allow for optional or repeatable elements within a phrase. For example:

- AdjP (Adjective Phrase) -> Adj (AdvP) =The dog with hairy tail

- PP (Prepositional Phrase) -> P NP = fell into the dark hole

Recursive Rules: These rules allow for recursion, which is the repetition of a syntactic structure within a larger structure. Recursion is a fundamental property of human language. For example:

- S (Sentence) -> NP VP

- NP -> (Det) (AdjP) N (PP)

- VP -> V (NP)

Head-Complement Rules: These rules specify the relationship between a head word and its complements or modifiers. For example:

N -> (AdjP) N (PP)

V -> (NP) (PP)

> ❖ Phrase Structure rules define how words form phrases hierarchically

4.1.2.2 Limitations of PS Grammar

A phrase structure grammar is a taxonomic model that is basically a grammar of segmentation and categorization. It does not deal with the question of generating sentences in a language ,though it provides a structural description of the language. Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) has several drawbacks despite serving as the fundamental framework for syntactic analysis in linguistics. Syntactic structures of questions, negatives, passives, relations, etc. are difficult for PS grammar to describe with ease. It does not convey the whole significance. It is unable to identify the important ideas or stop the incorrect, grammatical structure from being assigned.

Inadequate for capturing meaning: PSG primarily focuses on the structural aspects of sentences and lacks mechanisms for directly representing meaning. While PSG can describe how words combine to form phrases and sentences, it does not provide explicit ways to represent semantic relationships or the meanings of sentences. For example the two sentences

a) The traffic was diverted by an Elephant.

b) The traffic was diverted by a flash flood.

In PS rules, by an Elephant in sentence (a) will be shown as a prepositional phrase consisting of a preposition, a determiner and a noun, and by a flash flood in sentence (b) also will be shown as a prepositional phrase (prep +Adj+ N). But it would ignore semantic considerations and case relations.

Limited in capturing long-distance dependencies: PSG struggles to capture long-distance dependencies, which are syntactic relationships between elements that are separated by intervening material. For example, in complex sentences with embedded clauses or multiple dependencies, PSG may not adequately capture the relationships between distant elements.

Difficulty in handling ambiguity: PSG may struggle to handle ambiguous sentences that have multiple possible interpretations. Since PSG primarily relies on hierarchical structures, it may not easily accommodate different syntactic analyses for the same sentence.

Complexity in handling discontinuous constituents: PSG may encounter challenges when dealing with discontinuous constituents, where elements of a phrase are not adjacent to each other in the surface structure of a sentence. While some variants of PSG attempt to address this issue, it remains a limitation in traditional PSG frameworks.

Difficulty in handling language variation: PSG may struggle to account for variation across languages or dialects, as it typically relies on a fixed set of phrase structure rules that may not fully capture the syntactic diversity of natural languages.

Despite these limitations, PSG remains a valuable framework for syntactic analysis and has laid the foundation for more advanced theories and approaches in theoretical linguistics, such as Transformational-Generative Grammar and the Minimalist Program.

❖ PS Grammar has limitations

4.1.3 IC Analysis Versus PS Grammar

As already pointed out, Immediate Constituent (IC) Analysis and Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) share a common focus of studying phrase structure in terms of hierarchical constituents. Therefore, it is best to study them together.

Word Structure Grammar is a formal description of syntax that uses rules for phrase construction to describe how sentences are put together. These guidelines outline the ways in which components, including Verb Phrases (VPs), Noun Phrases (NPs), and Prepositional Phrases (PPs), can be joined to create longer units, which in turn lead to sentences. A framework for creating and analysing sentence structures based on the hierarchical relationships between elements is provided by PS Grammar.

On the other hand, Immediate Constituent Analysis is a syntactic analysis technique that breaks down phrases into their immediate constituents, so exposing the sentence's hierarchical structure. It entails segmenting phrases into manageable chunks and utilising bracket notation or tree diagrams to illustrate the relationships between the smaller parts.

❖ IC Analysis breaks down sentences into immediate constituents, while PS Grammar provides a formal framework for sentence structure

While PSG provides a formal framework for describing the structure of sentences, IC Analysis is a methodological approach used to analyse sentences within the PSG framework. IC Analysis can be seen as a technique for implementing PSG, as it involves applying PSG principles to analyse the immediate constituents of sentences and their hierarchical relationships.

In short, while PSG provides the theoretical framework for understanding sentence structure, IC Analysis is a methodological tool used to analyse sentences, focusing on identifying immediate constituents and their hierarchical organization.

4.1.4 Transformational-Generative Grammar

TG grammar, short for Transformational-Generative Grammar, is a linguistic theory developed by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s and 1960s. It aims to explain the structure of sentences in human languages by positing a set of rules that generate grammatically correct sentences and transformations that relate different sentence structures while preserving meaning.

Central to this theory are transformational rules, which specify how sentences can be transformed from one form to another while preserving their meaning. These transformations operate on the deep structure, representing the underlying meaning of a sentence,

to derive the surface structure, which represents its grammatical form. Additionally, TG Grammar incorporates the concept of Universal Grammar, proposing that all human languages share a common underlying structure or set of principles, and that humans possess an innate linguistic capacity that enables them to acquire and understand language.

Despite its impact and contributions to the study of languages, TG Grammar has been criticised, and opposing arguments have been put forth. The abstract nature of TG Grammar is criticised for possibly failing to sufficiently explain the wide variety of linguistic occurrences found in various languages. However, TG Grammar continues to be a fundamental theory in linguistics, offering a framework for examining sentence construction and advancing our knowledge of how people learn and process language. The key ideas around TG Grammar can be summed up as follows.

> ❖ TG Grammar explains sentence structure through transformational rules

4.1.4.1 Generative

TG Grammar takes a generative approach to language, positing that humans have an innate linguistic capacity that allows them to produce and understand an infinite number of grammatically correct sentences. This capacity is governed by a set of rules and principles. According to TG Grammar, a grammar must 'generate' all and only the grammatical sentences of a language. In other words, a grammar must be so formulated that by following its rules and conventions we could produce all or any of the possible sentences of the language. It will be able to 'predict' and 'specify' possible sentences.

> ❖ TG Grammar is generative, predicting all grammatical sentences through rules

This leads us to two TG grammar arguments. 1) TG grammar uses a limited set of principles to predict every potential sentence in the language, regardless of how many there are. 2) It states clearly what the possible sentences in a language are. Nothing is left up to chance, and by following the guidelines step-by-step, even someone who is not proficient in the language can create sentences. This explicitness and predictive nature of the language is generative.

4.1.4.2 Transformational

According to Noam Chomsky, PS grammar only covers a tiny portion of the language and that the remaining portion only requires a limited number of simple modifications to the strings provided by the PS Gramar. Transformational rules, which outline how sentences can be changed from one form to another while keeping their fundamental meaning, are essential to TG Grammar. These modifications involve moving, removing, and adding sentence-level components.

Transformation is the act of transforming one sentence into another, as in active -passive transformations. Active is 'kernel' sentence while passive is a 'transform'. There are plenty of other transformations also.

For example:

Have they met John? is a transform of They have met John.

A rat was hit by Ramu is a transform of Ramu hit a rat.

The woman who was waiting outside fell down is a transform of (1) The woman fell down. & (2) The woman was standing outside.

4.1.4.3 Deep Structure and Surface Structure

TG Grammar distinguishes between deep structure and surface structure. Deep structure represents the underlying meaning of a sentence, while surface structure represents its grammatical form. Transformational rules operate on the deep structure to derive the surface structure. We will discuss these structures in more detail below.

Phrase Structure Rules: TG Grammar also employs phrase structure rules, which describe the hierarchical structure of sentences in terms of phrases and their constituent elements. These rules specify the order and arrangement of words within a sentence.

Universal Grammar: Chomsky proposed the concept of Universal Grammar, which suggests that all human languages share a common underlying structure or set of principles. According to this view, the differences between languages are superficial, and the innate linguistic capacity of humans allows them to acquire any natural language.

While TG Grammar has been influential in the field of linguistics, it has also faced criticism and alternative theories have been proposed. Some critics argue that TG Grammar is too abstract and does not adequately account for the diversity of linguistic phenomena observed across different languages. Overall, TG Grammar provides a framework for analyzing the structure of sentences in human languages and has been influential in shaping our understanding of linguistic theory.

4.1.4.4 Deep Structure and Surface Structure

In Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar, the concepts of deep structure and surface structure play a crucial role in describing the syntactic structure of sentences. Let's delve into these concepts in detail:

> ❖ Transformation-al rules change sentence forms while preserving meaning in TG Grammar.

> ❖ TG Grammar differentiates deep structure (meaning) from surface structure (form).

> ❖ Universal Grammar posits a shared under-lying structure across all lan-guages

Deep Structure

The semantic content or underlying meaning of a sentence is represented by its deep structure. Abstracted from its surface form, it conveys the fundamental information that the statement intends to express. Although deep structure cannot be seen directly, it can be deduced from a sentence's surface structure. It conveys both the speaker's intended meaning and the semantic connections between the sentence's constituent parts.

Phrase structure rules provide the hierarchical arrangement of elements in a sentence, giving rise to deep structure. Before any changes are made, these principles outline the sentence's fundamental syntactic structure.

For example, consider the sentence "The cat attacked the dog." The deep structure of this sentence would represent the thematic roles and relationships between the entities involved (e.g., the cat is the agent, the dog is the patient).

Consider the sentence "John kissed Mary." The deep structure would represent the basic meaning and syntactic relationships without considering any transformations or surface features. It could be represented as [S [NP- John] [VP [V kissed] [NP Mary]]].

❖ Deep structure represents a sentence's underlying meaning

Surface Structure

Surface structure represents the actual grammatical form of a sentence, including word order, inflections, and syntactic structures. It is the result of transformations applied to the deep structure to derive the final surface realization of the sentence.

Surface structure is what we perceive and analyse when we hear or read a sentence. It is the tangible expression of the underlying meaning encoded in the deep structure.

Transformations in TG Grammar operate on the deep structure to generate alternative surface structures while preserving the underlying meaning. These transformations can involve movements, deletions, or insertions of constituents within the sentence.

Using the previous example, the surface structure of "The cat attacked the dog." reflects the specific word order and grammatical features of the sentence as it appears in speech or writing.

❖ Surface structure reflects the grammatical form of a sentence.

From the deep structure example above, after applying transformations for passive voice, the surface structure could become "Mary was kissed by John." This transformation changes the word order and adds the passive voice marker "was".

4.1.4.5 Optional and Obligatory Rules

As mentioned earlier, in Phrase Structure Grammar and TG Gramar, rules are used to generate and analyse sentences. These rules can be classified into two types: optional rules and obligatory rules. These categories help describe the flexibility and constraints within the grammatical structure of a language.

Optional rules, also known as **permissive rules**, are linguistic rules that speakers can choose to apply or not apply without violating the grammaticality of a sentence. These rules allow for variation or alternation in the structure of sentences.

The most important characteristics of Optional Rules is, they do not affect the basic grammatical structure required for a sentence to be considered valid. Speakers can choose to use them based on stylistic preferences, discourse context, or communicative intentions. Optional rules often relate to features like word order variations, passive voice constructions, and certain types of pronoun usage.

Example: In English, the positioning of adverbs can be an optional rule. *They quickly completed the work* and *They completed the work quickly* are both grammatically correct. The adverb "quickly" can either precede or follow the verb "ran" without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence.

Obligatory Rules, also known as prescriptive or mandatory rules, are linguistic rules that must be applied to ensure the grammaticality of a sentence. According to these rules, a sentence cannot be syntactically or semantically accurate if it lacks certain structural or morphological components. The most crucial aspects of obligatory rules are that they are required in order to construct grammatically correct sentences in accordance with language norms, and that breaking them usually results in an unintelligible or ungrammatical sentence. Basic elements like subject-verb agreement, tense marking, and sentence construction are governed by obligatory norms.

Example: Subject-verb agreement is an obligatory rule in English. For example, "He walks" is grammatical because the subject "he" agrees with the singular verb "walks". If we say "he walk", omitting the -s in "walks", it violates the obligatory rule of subject-verb agreement and thus becomes ungrammatical.

Optional rules provide flexibility in language use, allowing speakers to adjust their speech or writing for stylistic or contextual

> ❖ Optional rules allow speakers to vary sentence structures without affecting grammaticality.

> ❖ Obligatory rules are essential for grammaticality, ensuring correct sentence structure.

reasons. Obligatory rules, on the other hand, ensure consistency and coherence in sentence structure. While both types of rules contribute to the overall grammatical structure of a language, obligatory rules are indispensable for forming grammatically correct sentences, while optional rules offer variations within acceptable boundaries.

4.1.4.6 Aspect model of Noam Chomsky

The Aspect model, developed by Noam Chomsky, is a framework within Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar that focuses on how different aspects of meaning are encoded in natural language sentences. This model seeks to explain how sentences are structured to convey various temporal aspects (or "aspects of time") such as tense, aspect, and mood.

Key Components of the Aspect Model:

1. Tense

Tense refers to the grammaticalized expression of time relations within sentences, typically manifested through inflectional morphology or auxiliary verbs. Within the Aspect model, tense is considered as one of the dimensions that contributes to the overall temporal interpretation of a sentence.

2. Aspect

Aspect refers to the temporal structure of events as represented in language. It indicates how actions or states are viewed with respect to time, focusing on their internal temporal structure (e.g., ongoing, completed, repeated). Chomsky's Aspect model distinguishes between different types of aspectual features that contribute to the overall meaning of a sentence. This includes aspects like progressive (ongoing action), perfective (completed action), habitual (repeated action), and others.

3. Mood

Mood refers to the speaker's attitude towards the proposition expressed in the sentence. It can indicate whether the sentence is a statement, a question, a command, etc. Mood interacts with aspectual features to provide a nuanced interpretation of the temporal and modal characteristics of sentences.

Principles of the Aspect Model: The meaning of a sentence is composed of the meanings of its parts (words, phrases) and how they are combined syntactically and semantically. The Aspect model uses

a system of features that are checked between syntactic elements to determine grammaticality and interpretability of sentences. Aspects like tense, aspect, and mood are often represented as functional projections in the syntactic structure of sentences. These projections organize and encode temporal and modal information.

Example:

Let's consider the sentence Riya has been playing.

Tense: "Has" indicates the present perfect tense.

Aspect: "Been playing" indicates ongoing action (progressive aspect).

Mood: This is a declarative statement.

According to Chomsky's Aspect model, every aspect—tense and progressive—contributes unique temporal information that aids in understanding the meaning of the phrase. Chomsky's Aspect model, which highlights the significance of incorporating modal and temporal information into syntactic structures, has had an impact on the study of syntax and semantics. It contributed to a richer understanding of the structure and meaning of sentences in many languages by offering a theoretical framework for comprehending how languages encode and interpret time-related information. Overall, the Aspect model remains significant in linguistic theory, particularly within the broader framework of generative grammar, for its contributions to understanding how languages structure and convey temporal and modal information in sentences.

> ❖ Chomsky's Aspect model enhances understanding of temporal and modal meanings

👤 Summarised Overview

This unit explores key syntactic theories—Immediate Constituent (IC) Analysis, Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG), and Transformational-Generative Grammar (TGG)—that provide frameworks for understanding sentence structures. IC Analysis, introduced by Bloomfield, breaks sentences into hierarchical units but struggles with word order and idioms. PSG extends this by using tree diagrams and rules to represent sentence structure but faces challenges with language variation. Chomsky's TGG advances these theories by introducing transformational rules, connecting deep (meaning) and surface (form) structures to generate grammatically correct sentences.

Assignments

1. Discuss IC Analysis as a tool for segmenting syntactic structures with examples.
2. What are the limitations of IC Analysis?
3. Apply IC Analysis to the given sentences.

   ♦ They are working from morning to evening.
   ♦ The dog was running fast.
   ♦ Students obey their teachers.

4. What are PS rules? How do they help in understanding syntactic relationships in sentences?
5. Distinguish between deep structure and surface structure.
6. Explain the main concepts of TG Grammar.
7. Explain the key components of aspect model.
8. Differentiate between optional and obligatory rules.
9. Do you think modern linguistic theories have simplified study of syntactic structures? Why?
10. Discuss the contribution of Noam Chomsky to modern linguistics.

Suggested Reading

1. Chomsky, N. (1957). Syntactic structures. In *De Gruyter eBooks*. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783112316009

2. Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. https://apps.dtic.mil/sti/pdfs/AD0616323.pdf

3. Bloomfield, L. (1935). *Language / Leonard Bloomfield. 1964*(1964), 1–99. http://arrow.latrobe.edu.au:8080/vital/access/manager/Repository/latrobe:34348

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1. Lyons, J. (1968). *Introduction to theoretical linguistics*. https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9781139165570

2. The Handbook of Contemporary Syntactic Theory. (2001). In *Wiley eBooks*. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470756416

3. *Transformational Grammar: A First Course* (1982) by Andrew Radford

4. *The Major Syntactic Phenomena of Generative Grammar* (1971) by Noam Chomsky and Howard Lasnik

Space for Learner Engagement for Objective Questions

Learners are encouraged to develop objective questions based on the content in the paragraph as a sign of their comprehension of the content. The Learners may reflect on the recap bullets and relate their understanding with the narrative in order to frame objective questions from the given text. The University expects that 1 - 2 questions are developed for each paragraph. The space given below can be used for listing the questions.

UNIT 2

Sentence Structure and Grammatical Categories

👤 Learning Outcome

By the completion of this Unit, the learner will be able to:

♦ gain a better understanding of theories in modern linguistics

♦ understand the concepts of TG grammar and its applications

♦ learn how sentences are 'generated' via ' different transformation'

♦ distinguish the role of deep and surface structure in meaning formation

👤 Background

Modern syntactic theories like IC Analysis, PS Rules and TG grammar have focused much attention on demonstrating the internal structures of sentences in a language and have applied systematic tools to show how structures are interconnected to produce meaning. Chomsky's theories on syntax introduced the idea that underlying structures (deep structures) could generate the surface forms of language (surface structures) through a variety of transformations.

One of the important aspects of TG grammar developed by Noam Chomsky is an elaborate discussion of transformations taking place at the surface structure to formulate different kind of sentences or syntactic structures. Transformations in TG Grammar refer to actions that create new sentences by transforming one syntactic structure into another. Particularly, singular transformations pertain to individual components as opposed to sets of components or complete phrase structures. Transformations that are restricted to a single sentence constituent are referred to as singular transformations.

On the other hand, transformations can also be related to multiple components or can involve combining two separate structures into a single complex structure. These transformations are called double -based transformations. It consists of two or more syntactic structures or clauses getting embedded into a single structure or clause without bringing about semantic changes.

This Unit discusses the types of transformations taking place at the deep structure level , through internal transformations of segments , to produce different sentence types or forms. When these transformations are related to a single segment , they are singulary transformations. If the transformations affect more than one segment or involve combining two structures to one , they are called double -based. The unit deals with these aspects with enough examples.

Key Words

Singulary Transformations, Double based Transformation, Interrogation, Negation, Passivization, Tag Questions, Relativization , Complementation , Adverbialization, Co-ordination

Discussion

4.2.1 Singulary Transformations

❖ Singulary transformations change individual elements in sentences

In Transformative Generative Grammar, transformations are operations that change one syntactic structure to another to form new sentences. Singulary transformations specifically apply to individual elements rather than groups of elements or entire sentence structures. If the transformations are limited to only one single element in the sentence, it is called singulary transformation. There are four major singulary transformation referred to in TG grammar and they are as follows.

A. Interrogation (Y/N and Wh)

Interrogation involves forming questions from declarative sentences, typically through wh-movement or auxiliary inversion.

Wh-Movement

Declarative Sentence: "They watched the drama."

Deep Structure: [[[S [NP they] [VP watched [NP the drama]]]

Wh-Movement Applied: Move "what" to the front to form "What did they watch?"

Transform the object ("the drama") into "what" and move it to the front:

[[S [Wh what] [Aux did] [NP they] [VP watch]]

Resulting Sentence**: "What did they watch?"

Auxiliary Inversion

Declarative Sentence: "She can start."

Deep Structure: [[S [NP She] [Aux can] [VP start]]

Auxiliary Inversion Applied: Invert the auxiliary verb and the subject:

[[S [Aux Can] [NP she] [VP start]]

Resulting Sentence: "Can she start?"

B. Negation

Adding negation to a sentence involves transforming the verb phrase by inserting the negation marker. In other words , Negation involves adding a negative element to a sentence, often using "not."

Declarative Sentence: "She is coming."

Deep Structure: [[S [NP She] [Aux is] [VP coming]]

Negation Applied**: Insert "not" after the auxiliary verb:

[[S [NP She] [Aux is] [Neg not] [VP coming]]

Resulting Sentence: "She is not coming."

❖ Negation transforms sentences by inserting "not" into phrases

Do-support: this means the insertion of the auxiliary verb "do" in certain constructions, such as negative sentences and questions, when there is no other auxiliary verb present.

Example: "She goes" ➡ "She does not go" or "Does she go?"

Declarative Sentence: "She likes apples."

Deep Structure: [[S [NP She] [VP likes [NP apples]]]

Do-Support and Negation Applied: Insert "do" and "not":

[[S [Aux does] [NP she] [Neg not] [VP like [NP apples]]]

Resulting Sentence: "She does not like apples."

❖ Do-support involves adding "do" in negative sentences and questions

C. Passivization

Passivization involves transforming an active voice sentence into a passive voice sentence by moving the object to the subject position and adding the appropriate auxiliary verb.

Active Sentence: "The cat chased the mouse."

Deep Structure: [[S [NP The cat] [VP chased [NP the mouse]]]

Passivization Applied: Move "the mouse" to the subject position and add "be" + past participle:

[[S [NP The mouse] [Aux was] [VP chased [PP by the cat]]]

Resulting Sentence: "The mouse was chased by the cat."

D. Tag Questions

Tag questions involve adding a short question to the end of a declarative sentence, usually inverting the auxiliary verb and pronoun.

Declarative Sentence: "You are coming."

Deep Structure: [[S [NP You] [Aux are] [VP coming]]

Tag Question Formation: Add a negated tag question: ```

[[S [NP You] [Aux are] [VP coming]] [, [Aux aren't] [NP you]]

Resulting Sentence: "You are coming, aren't you?"

For sentences without an auxiliary, "do-support" is used:

Declarative Sentence: "She likes apples."

Deep Structure: [[S [NP She] [VP likes [NP apples]]]

Do-Support and Tag Question Applied: Insert "does" and add the tag question:

[[S [NP She] [VP likes [NP apples]]] [, [Aux doesn't] [NP she]]

Resulting Sentence: "She likes apples, doesn't she?"

4.2.2 Double-based Transformations

In Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar, the concept of "double-based transformation" involves combining elements from two distinct underlying structures (or deep structures) to form a single surface structure. This is a more complex type of transformation compared to single-based or singulary transformations like passivization. Double-based transformations can be seen in various grammatical constructions, such as relative clauses and certain types of question formations.

Double-based transformations in TG Grammar involve combining elements from two deep structures into a single surface

structure. This process often includes:

♦ Identifying shared elements between the two clauses.

♦ Embedding one clause within the other.

♦ Applying necessary transformational rules to create a grammatically correct surface structure.

A. Relativization

In Transformational Generative (TG) Grammar, relativization refers to the process by which a relative clause is formed. Relative clauses are subordinate clauses that provide additional information about a noun in the main clause. They are introduced by relative pronouns such as "who," "whom," "whose," "which," and "that."

Independent Clauses:

"The man is my neighbor." (Clause 1)

"The man lives next door." (Clause 2)

To form a relative clause, these two independent clauses are combined into a single sentence:

"The man who lives next door is my neighbor."

Steps in Double-Based Transformation

1. Deep Structure Representation: Clause 1:

"The man is my neighbor."

[[S [NP The man] [VP is [NP my neighbor]]]

Clause 2: "The man lives next door."

[[S [NP The man] [VP lives [PP next door]]]

2. Identify the Shared Element:

Both clauses share the noun phrase (NP) "the man."

3. Embed One Clause into the Other:

Embed Clause 2 into Clause 1 by creating a relative clause:

Transform "the man" in Clause 2 to a relative pronoun "who."

4. Transformation Rules Applied:

Replace "the man" in Clause 2 with "who":

[[S [NP who] [VP lives [PP next door]]]

Embed this new clause into Clause 1 after "the man":

[[[S [NP The man [S [NP who] [VP lives [PP next door]]]]] [VP is [NP my neighbor]]]

5. Surface Structure Representation:

The surface structure now reads: "The man who lives next door is my neighbor."

B. Complementation

Complementation in TG Grammar involves embedding one clause or phrase into another to complete its meaning. This process uses transformational rules to generate complex sentences from simpler ones. Complements can take various forms, including noun clauses, adjective complements, and verb complements, each serving to elaborate on the meaning of the main element in the sentence. This illustrates the flexibility and generative capacity of TG Grammar in producing diverse sentence structures.

Types of Complements

1. Noun Clauses: Function as the subject or object of a verb.

Example: "I know that she is coming."

2. Adjective Complements: Follow adjectives to complete their meaning.

Example: "She is happy that she passed the exam."

3. Verb Complements: Follow verbs to complete their meaning. These can include infinitive phrases, gerunds, or other verb forms.

Example: "She wants to leave."

Steps in Complementation

1. Deep Structure Representation: Clause 1: "I know."

[S [NP I] [VP know]]

Clause 2: "She is coming."

[S [NP She] [VP is coming]]

2. Embedding the Complement:

Embed Clause 2 into Clause 1 as a complement of the verb

"know."

Introduce the complementizer "that" to link the clauses.

3. Transformation Rules Applied:

Embed Clause 2 into Clause 1:

[S [NP I] [VP know [CP that [S [NP she] [VP is coming]]]]]

4. Surface Structure Representation:

The surface structure now reads: "I know that she is coming."

C. Adverbialization

Adverbialization in Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar refers to the process of transforming a clause or phrase into an adverbial structure that modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb. Adverbial clauses typically provide information about time, reason, condition, manner, place, or purpose. This process involves embedding a subordinate clause into the main clause and using subordinating conjunctions (such as "because," "if," "when," "although," etc.) to indicate the adverbial relationship.

Consider the transformation of two independent clauses into a single sentence with an adverbial clause:

1. Independent Clauses:

Clause 1: "I will go to the park."

Clause 2: "It stops raining."

To form an adverbial clause indicating a condition, these clauses can be combined into:

"I will go to the park if it stops raining."

Steps in Adverbialization

1. Deep Structure Representation:

Clause 1: "I will go to the park."

[S [NP I] [VP will go [PP to the park]]]

Clause 2: "It stops raining."

[S [NP It] [VP stops raining]]

2. Embedding the Adverbial Clause: Introduce a subordinating conjunction to indicate the adverbial relationship (e.g., "if" for

> ❖ Complemen-
> tation embeds
> clauses to com-
> plete sentence
> meaning

condition).

Embed Clause 2 into Clause 1 as an adverbial clause.

3. Transformation Rules Applied:

Apply the subordinating conjunction "if" to Clause 2 and embed it:

[S [S [NP I] [VP will go [PP to the park]]] [CP if [S [NP it] [VP stops raining]]]]

4. Surface Structure Representation:

The surface structure now reads: "I will go to the park if it stops raining."

D. Coordination

Coordination TG Grammar refers to the process by which two or more elements of the same syntactic category are linked together using coordinating conjunctions such as "and," "or," and "but." . This involves linking elements of equal syntactic importance using coordinating conjunctions. This process allows for the creation of compound structures by:

1. Identifying the elements to be coordinated.

2. Applying the appropriate coordinating conjunction.

3. Integrating the coordinated structure into the sentence.

Example

Independent Clauses:

Clause 1: "He likes coffee."

Clause 2: "She likes tea."

To combine these, we can form: - "He likes coffee and she likes tea."

Coordination involves the following steps

1. Deep Structure Representation:

Clause 1: "He likes coffee."

[S [NP He] [VP likes [NP coffee]]]

Clause 2: "She likes tea."

[S [NP She] [VP likes [NP tea]]]

2. Applying the Coordinating Conjunction:

Use "and" to link the clauses:

[S [S [NP He] [VP likes [NP coffee]]] and [S [NP she] [VP likes [NP tea]]]]

3. Surface Structure Representation:

"He likes coffee and she likes tea."

By utilizing coordination, TG Grammar can generate more complex and varied sentence structures, enhancing the expressiveness and flexibility of language.

> ❖ Coordination links elements of the same syntactic category together

Summarised Overview

This unit explores the principles of Transformational-Generative (TG) Grammar, focusing on how sentences are structured and transformed. It distinguishes between singulary transformations, which modify individual sentence elements—such as forming questions through interrogation, negating sentences, converting active voice to passive, and creating tag questions—and double-based transformations, which involve combining two syntactic structures into a single sentence. Key processes covered include relativization, which embeds relative clauses, complementation, which completes the meaning of verbs or adjectives with additional clauses, adverbialization, which provides contextual information through adverbial clauses, and coordination, which links elements of equal syntactic importance. By examining these transformations, the unit highlights the flexibility and generative capacity of TG Grammar in producing diverse and meaningful sentence structures

Assignments

1. Distinguish between double based transformations and singulary transformations.

2. What are the steps of coordination in TG grammar?

3. Study the given sentences and apply coordination transformation steps of TG grammar to them.

   ♦ She is educated. She is very famous.

   ♦ I write poems . I write stories.

   ♦ This doctor is very experienced. This doctor is very popular.

4. Define adverbialization. How is it different from passivization?

5. Apply adverbialization rules/steps to the given sentences.

   ♦ I will ask for help. I can not do the work alone.

   ♦ They are tired. They can not walk fast.

   ♦ The chief minister came in. The minister stopped speaking.

6. Define complementation. How is it different from negation? Apply complementation rules/steps to the given sentences.

   ♦ She is sad. She can not come with us.

   ♦ They are educated. They can get a good job.

   ♦ We heard the news. The teacher had resigned.

7. Define Relativization. Apply Relativization rules/steps to the given sentences.

   ♦ These students are studious. They live in my apartment.

   ♦ She is very clever. She can manage things herself.

   ♦ The mangoes are ripe. They can be eaten fast.

8. Do you think TG grammar has made analysis of sentence/language structures more systematic? Why?

Suggested reading

1. Chomsky, N. (1957). Syntactic structures. In *De Gruyter eBooks*. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783112316009

2. Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. https://apps.dtic.mil/sti/pdfs/AD0616323.pdf

Reference

1. Radford, A. (2009). *Transformational Grammar International Student Edition: A First Course*. Cambridge University Press.

2. McCawley, J. D. (1998). *The syntactic phenomena of English*. University of Chicago Press.

Space for Learner Engagement for Objective Questions

Learners are encouraged to develop objective questions based on the content in the paragraph as a sign of their comprehension of the content. The Learners may reflect on the recap bullets and relate their understanding with the narrative in order to frame objective questions from the given text. The University expects that 1 - 2 questions are developed for each paragraph. The space given below can be used for listing the questions.

SREENARAYANAGURU OPEN UNIVERSITY

QP CODE : ………

Reg. No : ……......

Name : …………

Fourth Semester - Discipline Core Course

MA English Language and Literature

M21EG11DC- Linguistics and Structure of the English Language

(CBCS - PG)

2022-23 - Admission Onwards

Time: 3 Hours Max Marks: 70

Section A

Answer any *five* of the following questions in one or two sentences each.

Each question carries 2 marks.

1. Define "bilingualism."

2. What is "dialectology"?

3. Explain "langue" and "parole."

4. What are phonemes?

5. Define "morpheme."

6. What is the difference between prescriptive and descriptive grammar?

7. Explain the concept of "transformational grammar."

8. What is "pragmatics"?   (5x2=10 Marks)

Section B

Answer any *six* of the following questions in half a page each.

Each question carries 5 marks.

9. Discuss the properties of human language.

10. What is social variation in language?

11. Explain the significance of Saussure's theory in modern linguistics.

12. Describe suprasegmental features in phonology.

13. What is lexical semantics? Provide examples.

14. Compare RP and General Indian English sounds.

15. Discuss the role of word classes in sentence structure.

16. What are the limitations of IC analysis?

17. Explain the concept of "invisible meaning" in pragmatics.

18. Describe the differences between simple, compound, and complex sentences.

(6x5=30 Marks)

Section C

Answer any *two* of the following questions in four pages each.

Each question carries 15 marks.

19. Evaluate Noam Chomsky's contributions to linguistics and his theories of transformational grammar.

20. Discuss the classification of morphemes and their relevance in morphological analysis.

21. Analyse the concepts of meaning in semantics, including associative and conceptual meanings.

22. Critically examine the differences between traditional grammar and structural grammar.

(2x15= 30 Marks)

SET B

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Linguistics and Structure of the English Language

COURSE CODE: M21EG11DC

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